STRATEGIES FOR TOURISM INDUSTRY – MICRO AND MACRO PERSPECTIVES

Edited by **Murat Kasimoğlu** and **Handan Aydin**

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Preface

Today, it is considered good business practice for tourism industries to support their micro and macro environment by means of strategic perspectives. This is necessary because we cannot contemplate companies existing without their environment. If companies do not involve themselves in such undertakings, they are in danger of isolating themselves from the shareholder. That, in turn, creates a problem for mobilizing new ideas and receiving feedback from their environment. In this respect, the contributions of academics from international level together with the private sector and business managers are eagerly awaited on topics and sub-topics within Strategies for Tourism Industry-Micro and Macro Perspectives.

The books is divided in three main sections. First section is Tourism Industry - Micro and Macro Topics For Strategy Development. Here we have eight chapters dealing with the developing strategies from micro and macro approaches. The second section is Tourism Industry: Macro Perspective and it consists of six chapters related to macro perspectives of tourism industry tackled from different perspectives. The third section is Tourism Industry: Different Topics for Strategy Development dealing with eclectic topics from the tourism industry. Each of the papers included is a valuable conurbation to understand industry from visionary perspectives.

In this book, I am pleased to present various papers from all over the world that discuss the impact of tourism strategies. It is my hope that you will find the opportunity to extend your perspective in the light of such scientific discussion.

Editing a book relies on intensive team work and the contribution of various bodies such as companies and NGO's. Firstly, I am always aware of the contribution of my colleagues, whose vision inspired me to commence this project.

Secondly, I would like to express my appreciation for having the chance to work with practitioners whose visions and contributions made me aware of real needs within the industries...

Thirdly, I am most thankful to the authors of the chapters. It is a real pleasure to work with you in such an efficient and productive way that I hope we will continue in the future.

Lastly, I owe a great debt to our organizing team who has worked hard to ensure the success of this international book. Without the involvement of INTECH publishing and the heart-felt commitment to this project, this book would not have come about. In particular, I would like to state my gratitude for the efforts of Maja Kisic and Vana Persen.

Prof. Dr. Murat Kasimoğlu
Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University
Department of Management
Turkey

Dr. Handan Aydin
Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University
Department of Turkish Literature
Turkey

Section 1

Tourism Industry – Micro and Macro Topics for Strategy Development

Guidebooks and the Representation of 'Other' Places

Bouke van Gorp

Department of Human Geography and Planning,
Faculty of Geosciences, Utrecht University,
The Netherlands

1. Introduction

Tourism destinations do not simply exist. In what can be described as processes of symbolic transformation (Dietvorst & Ashworth, 1995), destinations are created and recreated by both tourists and tourism texts. Postcards, brochures, souvenirs, travel magazines, websites, advertisements and guidebooks all play their part in these processes. Tourism texts imbue places with meanings and create sights that tourists should see (Crang, 2004). These meanings attached to destinations can be part of wider circuits of culture and reproduce images or ideas from the literature, movies or news media. Such processes of symbolic transformation, or 'sacralization'(Crang, 2004; 71), turn ordinary places into destinations to visit and sites into 'must-see-sights'.

Tourism texts are the focus of this chapter. These texts are important for tourists because of the somewhat intangible and experimental nature of tourism (Osti et al., 2009) and because of the time lag that often exists between purchase and consumption, as "the product, the experience and destination, is normally purchased prior to arrival" (McGregor, 2000; 29). Wong and Liu (2011) thus characterise a trip as a high risk purchase involving both disposable income and free time. Searching for information, both before the purchase and during the trip, helps to reduce the risks. Tourists turn to both internal and external information sources when planning a vacation (Osti et al., 2009; Wong & Liu 2011). Internal sources are the knowledge and attitudes that people have acquired in the past through personal experience with a destination (or similar destinations). Unless tourists visit the same place over and over again, their knowledge from firsthand experience is limited. Therefore, tourists also turn to external sources of information, namely, mediated or 'second-hand' experiences from friends and family or media and tourism texts (Adams, 2009). Traditionally, tourists turned to intermediaries such as travel agencies, brochures and guidebooks for help. Today, their information search might also include the Internet and social media.

Guidebooks or travel guides are still an important source of information that tourists value. According to Wong and Liu (2011), guidebooks have a competitive advantage over other information sources as they are both tangible and accessible at any time and place. Guidebooks are designed to be used during the trip, in situ (Koshar, 1998; Beck 2006), but can be used before and after the trip as well (Jack & Phipps, 2003; Nishimura et al., 2007). Another possible advantage of guidebooks over freely obtainable tourism texts, such as

websites or brochures, is that because tourists have to pay for guidebooks, they perceive them to be more reliable and useful (Lew, 1991).

This chapter focuses on how guidebooks turn places into destinations and sites into must-see-sights. This symbolic transformation is about making these sites unique and imbuing them with meaning. The tourist's interest therefore centres on what is distinctive, and different from his or her daily life. The first section of this chapter describes how tourism texts transform places into destinations and influence tourist behaviour. The second section discusses the main characteristics of guidebooks. The third section focuses on how guidebooks transform nearby places into destinations that tourists should visit and which strategies of 'othering' guidebooks use in this transformation process. The findings in this chapter are based on a literature review and analyses of guidebooks. Over the years, the author has performed several content and semiotic analyses of guidebooks sold by the Dutch automobile association (ANWB) or in bookstores in the Netherlands. The majority of these guidebooks (see list at end of references), although written in Dutch, are translations or translated editions of German-, French- or English-language guidebooks.

2. Symbolic transformation of destinations

2.1 Tourism texts and tourists' practices

The importance of tourism texts is not limited to helping tourists choose a destination. These texts also raise expectations about the destination and, as such, might influence tourists' satisfaction with the destination (Wong & Liu, 2011). Moreover, these texts also guide the tourist at the destination, they: "do not just describe places, but set normative agendas"(Crang, 2004; 77). Tourism texts tell tourists what to see and where to go, either by explicit recommendation or by implicit selection of the information. Tourism texts thus influence the practices of tourists (Bockhorn, 1997; Dietvorst, 2002; Gilbert 1999; Jenkins, 2003; McGregor, 2000). This influence of tourism texts on the behaviour of tourists is best understood as an hermeneutic circle (Urry, 1990) and is illustrated by the concept of the 'circle of representation' (Jenkins 2003; 308). Tourism texts - created both by official tourist boards and by authors of guidebooks, blogs and the like - and mass media in general project images of destinations. Potential tourists are lured and inspired by these images. Tourism texts thus create expectations of what a tourist should encounter and experience. At the destination, tourists visit the sights that they know from the tourism texts, and bring along their cameras to record their visit. At home, these pictures are shown to friends and family and will influence their perception of the destination. In this way, the reproduction of these images continues (Jenkins, 2003).

Nelson (2007) emphasises that the circle of representation can lead to rather 'unchanged' tourist representations over long periods of time. Today's representations of the Caribbean, recycled through the circle of representation, can be traced back to the early beginnings of tourism in the area. The narratives of nineteenth- and early twentieth-century travel writings were used by subsequent travellers and tourists and helped to shape their expectations of the area. Some travel writers explicitly referred back to earlier writings they took with them on their journey and compared their personal experience with the accounts of other writers. Moreover, authors and editors of guidebooks, who did not necessarily travel themselves, used the travel writings as a source of information. Nelson (2007) thus demonstrates the continued

recycling of the earliest tourist representations of the area. As a result, regardless of changes in writing style, print and photography technologies, today's tourist representations of the area still carry the same imagery of the Caribbean as early travel writings.

The influence of tourism texts might be rather strong: many tourists photograph sights in exactly the same way that these icons or landscapes are portrayed on postcards, in brochures or in guidebooks (Jenkins, 2003). McGregor (2000), in his research on the relation between tourists and tourism texts in Tana Toraja, found that the texts also influenced the way tourists experienced aspects of Tana Toraja that they encountered while traveling in the area. As a destination, Tana Toraja can be divided in four realms: the Known, the Imagined, the Unknown, and finally, the Unseen. This distinction is based upon the amount and kind of information (text and/or pictures) available to tourists. Known sights are the most important sights to see; these sights can be considered to be known to the tourists before they set off to the area. Guidebooks provide much information and pictures about these sights. The difference between Known and Imagined sights is that guidebooks include no photographs of the latter. Tourists thus know that they need to see these sights, but can only imagine what they look like. The Known and the Imagined sights are those that tourists seek out. The Unknown comprises sights to which tourists were indifferent because they were mentioned only briefly in the guidebooks. The Unseen is not discussed in tourism texts and is not observed or experienced by tourists (McGregor, 2000). This distinction was also applied in an analysis of tourism texts for three cities in the Netherlands: Maastricht, Enkhuizen and Amersfoort (Van Gorp, 2003). These tourism texts were translated into a map of the city showing the Known and Imagined sights, popular paths, and the parts of the city that remained outside of the tourists' experience. This map closely matched a map depicting the sights that tourists in these cities reported having visited.

Specific groups of tourists, often referred to as backpackers or travellers, might claim that they look beyond the tourist gaze, that they try to travel off the beaten paths. These groups try to discover the 'real places', seek authentic experiences and refuse to participate in mass tourism. Such tourists fit the profile of tourism as sketched by MacCannell (1976) in Urry (1990). In his view, tourism is a quest for authenticity. To a certain degree, these tourists visit different places or seek out different sights than mass tourists would. However, they seem to be caught up in their own particular gazes and discourses on destinations, as research by, for example, Jenkins (2003), Law et al. (2007) and McGregor (1999) has demonstrated. These groups of tourists might escape the circle of representation projected at mass tourists, but they do not escape the one targeted at themselves (travellers, backpackers).

2.2 Othering

Both the projected images in tourism texts and the tourists' images of a destination are the result of selection. According to Bockhorn (1997), a tourist image is a simplified, schematic and constructed reproduction of the destination. Part and parcel of this selection is the tourist gaze. Urry's (1990) notion of the 'tourist gaze' - the way tourists see and look at a destination - has been very influential in tourism research. Subsequent publications have applied this concept to capture both the relation between tourism texts and tourists and the selectivity of projected and perceived tourist images. As a representative of the selectivity of

tourism images, researchers following Urry's line of thought have wondered about the direction of the tourist gaze. Tourism, according to Urry (1990), is about escaping from work and daily routines and seeking different experiences. The gaze is therefore directed to what is different from home and daily practices: the extraordinary or the spectacle. Tourists gaze at things that are out of the ordinary experience of their daily lives. Jenkins (2003; 310-311) cites Hollinshead who noted that the tourist gaze is directed at "fun and/or pleasure and the consumption of things, seeking difference, appropriating other people, places and other pasts, and the pursuits which commodify things". Tourists thus gaze at 'other' landscapes and 'other' people, and seek out 'other' experiences.

Because tourism texts help to structure the tourist gaze, these texts can be expected to focus on what is distinctive. These texts, as a result, present destinations as 'counter images', as the 'other' or opposite of the tourist's place of origin (Goss, 1993). Such counter images are most obvious in the way that tourism texts present non-Western destinations to Western tourists. Western tourists set out to find 'exotic others'. Tana Toraja in Indonesia is such an exotic place, "a place of incredible and unusual architecture peopled by an exotic tribe that has remained many of its barbaric traditions" (McGregor, 2000; 36). Guidebooks direct attention to local funeral traditions, graves, and past warfare. The people of Tana Toraja thus become slightly cruel and barbaric 'others'. Another common way of depicting indigenous people is by presenting them as 'primitive' and in harmony with nature. In this way, visiting such places fulfils Western tourists needs to experience a simpler time and place (Hinch, 2004).

The Western tourist gaze also seeks pristine nature, untouched by humans. The Caribbean thus is presented "as an earthly paradise with bright skies, clear blue waters, soft white sand, and lush green vegetation" (Nelson, 2007; 1). Caribbean nature, in such tourism texts, is a stereotypical rainforest: green and dense, with an occasional waterfall and low-hanging-clouds, providing a romantic atmosphere. The local population or evidence of their lives are not shown in these pictures, as this information does not fit the romantic tourist gaze, which looks for 'pure' or 'authentic' nature. Such untouched or pure nature is, however, there for tourists to discover and admire (Nelson, 2005). In their analysis of Third World marketing for tourists, Echtner and Prasad (2003) identify two different kinds of 'pure nature'. Sea/sand destinations are presented as pristine, lush tropical areas, whereas the "pristine nature in frontier destinations is not harmless and soft (as in sea/sand countries) but described as wild and savage" (Echtner & Prasad, 2003; 666). These two types of destinations each require their own specific narratives, not just describing nature but also describing the local people and possible attractions for tourists. Frontier destinations are presented as uncivilised areas where nature and natives are savage, untamed or primitive. Tourists will be on expedition, possibly encountering dangerous animals such as lions. Sea/sand destinations are paradise, with a smiling, serving local population, luxurious resorts and beautiful soft nature (Echtner & Prasad, 2003). A third cluster of destinations found by these authors is the Orient. The representation of these destinations follows the line of orientalism. Here, tourists set out to discover the past. Marketing of these destinations centres on past glory, exemplified by ancient buildings. The tourist gaze on these destinations includes local people in simple (traditional) dress, often peasants, who are described as "unchanged and exotic remnants of another time" (Echtner & Prasad, 2003; 669). The representation of India in the Lonely Planet guidebook, analysed by Bhattacharyya (1997), fits this Oriental myth. Moreover, Lonely Planet presents India as difficult and

dangerous: one might get sick or robbed, infrastructure can be poor and poverty may upset the backpacker. This information might be read as an attempt to echo the adventures of the first explorers. Meanwhile, this representation makes the Lonely Planet guidebooks the undisputed companion for the trip (Bhattacharya 1997).

Representations of the 'exotic other' relate to sexuality as well. The myth of island paradise, according to D'Hauteserre (2004; 239), also conveys images of "island women merely awaiting Western men's attentions and affections". McGregor (2000; 36) quotes Silver (1993; 303) who feels that "guidebooks and brochures depicting the developing world "tend to portray predominantly what Westerners have historically imagined the Other to be like"". As such, tourism has been characterised as a continuation of colonial forms of interaction (D'Hauteserre, 2004; Echtner & Prasad 2003). The tourist representations of the Caribbean still centre on the view from onboard an approaching ship, the way early European visitors (explorers and later travellers) got their first impression of the islands (Nelson, 2010). The representation of the 'other', moreover, implies the continuation of unequal relations between Western tourists and local populations, as exemplified by Lonely Planet's depiction of India's local population either as something to gaze upon or as serving tourists (Bhattacharyya, 1997). D'Hauteserre (2004) emphasises that this continuation is not just the result of the representation of the 'exotic other'. The symbolic transformation of places into destinations also authorises these transformations and thereby controls the future development of tourism in these areas.

For tourism within the Western world othering is also common. Images of the exotic other are used in the tourist representation of Australia as a paradise and an adventure (Waitt, 1997). The Mediterranean is similarly presented as an exotic place: exotic gardens, palm trees, villages with narrow, colourful streets and houses with shutters (Dietvorst, 2002). Representations of Malta on postcards fit this exotic Mediterranean image of sun and sea. However, over the years, Malta has managed to add a layer to this representation that conveys heritage, implying a certain authenticity (Markwick (2001).

Hopkins (1998) studied the representation of the countryside east of Lake Huron, Canada. In the nearly two hundred tourist brochures he analysed, Hopkins discovered a number of recurring 'place myths': the natural environment, heritage and community and, to a lesser degree, escape, adventure and fun. The countryside thus becomes 'other' by representing it "as some place other than urban, some time other than the present, as some experience other than the norm" (Hopkins, 1998; 78). References to 'other time' and 'other place' can be found in tourist representations of, for example, Scotland, Ireland and the Netherlands. Scotland thus becomes a remote place of tartan and kilts, of misty landscapes with castles and lochs populated by pipers and highland dancers (Scarles, 2004). Ireland has long been presented as a place in the past with heritage and culture and apart from modern society (O'Leary & Deegan, 2005). The Netherlands is reduced to Holland, a land of seventeenth-century cityscapes and idyllic rural landscapes with windmills, cheese and tulips (Van Gorp & Béneker, 2007). An additional focus on the heroic struggle against water makes the Netherlands an 'other place', with houses built on poles and land below sea level.

Tourist representations of Western cities use similar strategies to transform these cities into sights to see. Gilbert (1999) found three different elements in tourist representations of European cities since the mid-nineteenth century. The first element is longevity: traces of the

past make the city a sight to see. The second, and seemingly opposite element is modernity. Cities are presented as modern places where modern life can be observed. The representation of some cities combine these first two elements and so the tourist gaze also focuses on how ancient and modern times are combined. The third element Gilbert (1999) mentions is the city as the site of power. This third option is not open to every city, but many cities can boast some (present or past) power. Their wealth or position in the world system is something that can be gazed upon and is what makes such cities 'others'. The tourist representation of cities thus equally centre on 'other time' (the past), 'other place' (power) and 'other experience' (modern life). Section three of this chapter will elaborate further on the way in which guidebooks represent nearby places as 'others'. First, section two will sketch a number of shared characteristics of guidebooks by focusing on the kind of information that guidebooks provide.

3. Guidebooks

3.1 Analysing representations in guidebooks

Guidebooks are one of many possible sources of information to which tourists could turn and many tourists continue to bring guidebooks on their trips. The range of guidebooks is large, especially for long-established destinations (see text box 1). Many of these guidebooks seem to aim at the mass market of tourism or at tourists in general rather than at niche markets of special-interest tourism. The remainder of this chapter will focus on these non-specialised guidebooks. Such guidebooks can be purchased in ordinary or online bookstores or from national automobile associations. Although many of these guidebooks seem to target the generic tourist, there are many subtle differences (Gilbert, 1999). Even non-specialised guidebooks are not written for 'the tourist' in general. Different series and publishers aim at specific segments of this market, based on the motivations, values, needs and demographic or socioeconomic characteristics of the targeted audience (Lew, 1991; 126; Jack & Phipps, 2003; 291). In the selections they make, guidebooks follow their own traditions and attempt to align with their readers' expectations (Agreiter, 2000; Van der Vaart 1998). Tourists, on the other hand, will choose their guidebook based on the publisher's reputation (Laderman, 2002).

The literature on guidebooks mentions several predecessors of today's guidebooks. Jack and Phipps (2003) trace the instructional character of guidebooks back to seventeenth-century travel handbooks and travel writings in Germany. Michalski (2004) describes the relation between current guidebooks and different strands of nineteenth-century guidebooks that attempted to familiarise strangers, not necessarily tourists, with cities such as New York and San Francisco. Michalski (2004; 198) found a transition in guidebooks available for visitors to San Fransisco in the nineteenth and early twentieth century, "from guides which are indicative to guides which are increasingly interpretative". The early nineteenth-century resource guides tried to provide useful knowledge about the wealth and resources of the city for visitors and immigrants to become acquainted with the city. After the 1830'-s, experiential guides become more common. These guides, characterised by more picturesque descriptions, focused more on city life (Michalski, 2004).

The development of the guidebook is also closely associated with the rise of mass tourism. "The guidebook has been seen as a key element in the development of the figure of the 'tourist', following a prescribed route through a landscape of selected and ready-interpreted

sites and monuments"(Gilbert, 1999; 282). Murray and Baedeker are therefore viewed as the founding fathers of this genre of tourist texts (Koshar, 1998). As a result of the association of guidebooks with mass tourism, guidebooks have been discarded by many scholars. The mass tourist came to be viewed as a pitiful figure, ready to be duped by its guidebook and condemned to a superficial acquaintance with the places he or she would visit – quite the opposite of (self)exploring travellers. Guidebooks, as a result, were viewed as superficial and one-dimensional (Gilbert 1999; 281; Koshar, 1998). Until the 1990'-s research on guidebooks was thus limited. Similar to other tourism texts, guidebooks are indeed selective. Their content, though not a "mirror image", is also not "purely fantasy" (Michalski, 2004;188). Guidebooks are part of broader discourses on places (Bhattacharryya, 1997; Gilbert, 1999). They show how society wishes to gaze upon certain places and how sites are transformed into sights to see (Siegenthaler, 2002; Michalski, 2004).

Guidebooks, thus, offer a framework for perceiving the destination, and, as such, they are a form of popular geographical knowledge that can be analysed (Bhattacharryya, 1997; Gilbert, 1999). Since the 1990'-s guidebooks have been a topic of research in the field of cultural studies. Authors from different disciplines and backgrounds have used content, semiotic, discourse or narrative analyses to deconstruct the representations that guidebooks offer. This 'tradition' has resulted in a plethora of cases studied, focusing on the following:

- one destination in one specific guidebook, such as Bhattacharryya's (1997) analysis of Lonely Planet India;
- one destination in several guidebooks at one point in time, such as Agreiter's (2000) analysis of six Italian guidebooks on Munich, Van der Vaart's (1999) analysis of four guidebooks on Athens, Van Gorp & Béneker's (2007) analysis of four guidebooks on the Netherlands and Van Gorp's (2003) analysis of both guidebooks and brochures on the Dutch cities of Amersfoort, Enkhuizen and Maastricht;
- one destination in several guidebooks over time, such as Gilbert's (1999) analysis of Imperial London in guidebooks and Van der Vaart's (1998) analysis of mostly Dutch guidebooks on Paris, published between 1952 and 1997.

The analyses of guidebooks might focus on how these places, in general, are represented, or they might be directed at a specific element in these representations. Beck (2006), for example, analysed the narratives of World Heritage in series of well-known guidebooks, such as Lonely Planet, Eyewitness and Fodor's, for Greece, the UK and the Russian Federation. Laderman (2002) deconstructed the discourses on the Second Indochina War in guidebooks on Vietnam for English-speaking tourists. Siegenthaler compared the tourist gaze on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in Japanese guidebooks published between 1948 and 1997. His analysis focused on how guidebooks dealt with the memories of the Second World War and the atomic bomb. In section three of this chapter, the focus will be on the representation of nearby places in guidebooks. The question is what strategies of 'othering' guidebooks apply to transform places that may be physically and culturally nearby (for the readers of the guidebook) into destinations to visit. To answer that question, section three will draw upon results from many of the guidebook analyses mentioned above. These results will be augmented with findings from content analyses of Dutch-language guidebooks for Germany and Belgium.

In August 2011 a search for the most recent guidebooks for London on the booksellers website Azone.com resulted in 149 unique titles (to be) published between November 2010 and May 2012. This list includes 19 thematic guidebooks such as *London's City Churches* or *London's Parks and Gardens*. The list also included 17 guidebooks solely about consuming London (eating, drinking, shoping and sleeping), such as Michelins *Red Guide London 2012* and *London's Riverside Pubs: A Guide to the Best of London's Riverside Watering Holes*. A number of these guides are also or solely available as e-books. The large publishers of guidebooks, such as Lonely Planet, Time Out and Eyewitness, have several different guidebooks on offer. Only some of the guidebooks were explicitly aimed at niche markets, such as *Let's Go Budget London: the Student Travel guide, KidsGo! London: Tell Your Parents Where to Go* or *Time Out Gay and Lesbian London*. Nevertheless, some of the thematic guides can also be seen as catering for a more specific audience of culturally motivated tourists.

The market of Dutch-speaking tourists is smaller than that of English-speaking tourists. A search for Dutch-language guidebooks on London on both the bookseller's website Bol.com and the website of the Dutch automobile association (ANWB) resulted in a list of 13 unique titles published in 2010 and 2011: *Kidskompas Londen, Capitool reisgids Londen, Marco Polo Londen, ANWB Navigator Londen, 100% Londen, ANWB Extra Londen, Capitool Compact Londen, Wat & Hoe Londen, 100x Londen, National Geographic reisgids Londen, Michelin Groene Gids Weekend Londen, Londen van Shakespeare voor 5 duiten per dag, Capitool Mini Londen*. The Capitool series (translated edition of Eyewitness) thus offers three guidebooks for this destination, ranging from the pocket-sized mini guide to the detailed regular guidebook. Among these 13 titles are two guidebooks that seem to aim at specific niche markets: one guide for those travelling with children (*Kidskompas*) and one themed guide about Shakespeare's London.

For another popular holiday destination among the Dutch, the Provence (France) there are at least 12 unique titles for sale on the same websites, although most of these guidebooks describe both the Provence and the Côte d'Azur. The guidebooks are *Capitool Provence & Côte d'Azur* and *Capitool Compact Provence & Côte d'Azur, ANWB Navigator Provence Côte d'Azur, ANWB Extra Provence,* and *ANWB Goud Provence, Côte d'Azur, Merian Live Provence, Trotter Provence, Michelin Groene Gids Provence, 100% Provence & Côte d'Azur, 100x Provence - Côte d'Azur, Lannoo Provence, Insight guide Provence*. If second-hand guidebook are inclued, the range of titles gets even bigger: *National Geographic Provence, Kosmos Wegwijzer Provence, Marco Polo Provence, Wat & Hoe Provence, ANWB Geogids Provence, and ANWB in geuren en kleuren Provence*.

Text box 1. A variety of guidebooks

3.2 Information offered by guidebooks

To familiarise the readers further with the genre of guidebooks, this section describes the information that guidebooks offer. The next section turns to some style characteristics that are shared by many guidebooks. Guidebooks for the generic mass tourist do not exist. Differences between series of guidebooks can be noted in the overall lengths of the guidebooks and in their lay-outs. The relative amounts of illustrations and text, the use of

full-colour pictures, and the structure of the information differs between the popular series of guidebooks. However, the series seem to largely agree on the kinds of information that tourists require. Four types of information can be distinguished in tourist guidebooks. First, guidebooks introduce a destination, sketching its main characteristics and offering some background information. Second, guidebooks list and describe the sights to see. Third, they offer information about where to eat, sleep or shop. Fourth, guidebooks provide their readers with detailed travel tips and advice. Some series of guidebooks, such as Capitool and ANWB Navigator, even offer information on how to use the guidebook itself. These four types of information will be discussed in more detail below. The series of guidebooks differ in the relative attention given to each of these four types of information, as demonstrated in figure 1 and 2. The category 'else' in this figure includes the table of content, indexes and maps.
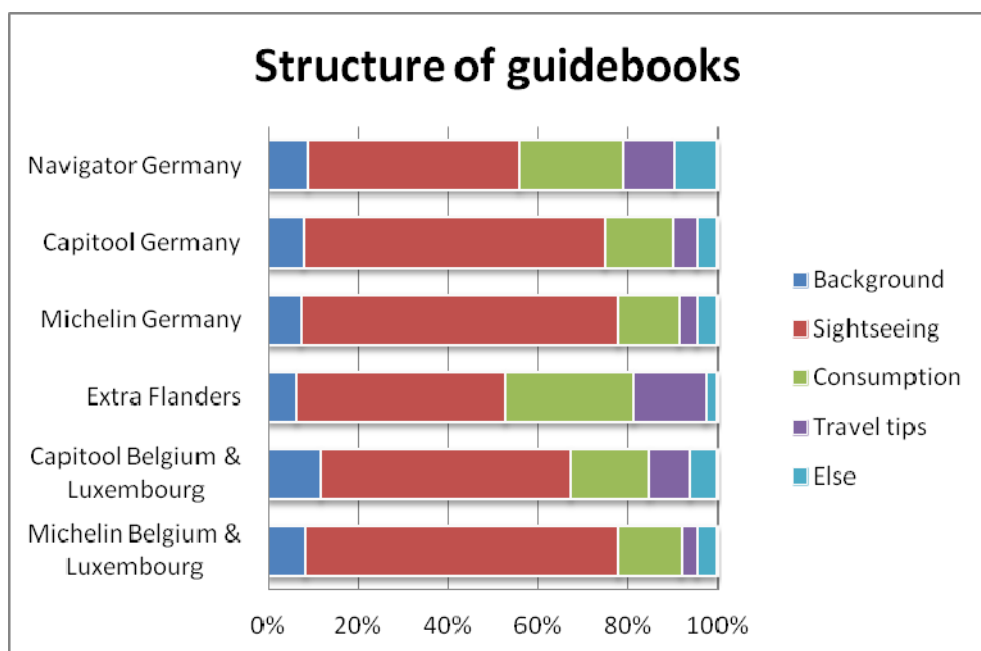
Fig. 1. The structure of guidebooks - the relative amounts of the four types of information in recent editions of Dutch-language guidebooks for Belgium and Germany. Note that the length of these guidebooks varies. ANWB Extra Flanders is a thin guidebook of only 120 pages. It does not present the whole of Flanders, but limits itself to the area west of Antwerp and Brussels. The Capitool and Michelin guidebook each combine information on Belgium and Luxemburg in a single edition of 351 and 623 pages, respectively. The guidebooks for Germany are even longer, ranging from 462 pages for ANWB Navigator to 608 pages for the Capitool and 830 for the Michelin guidebook.

Structure of City Guidebooks
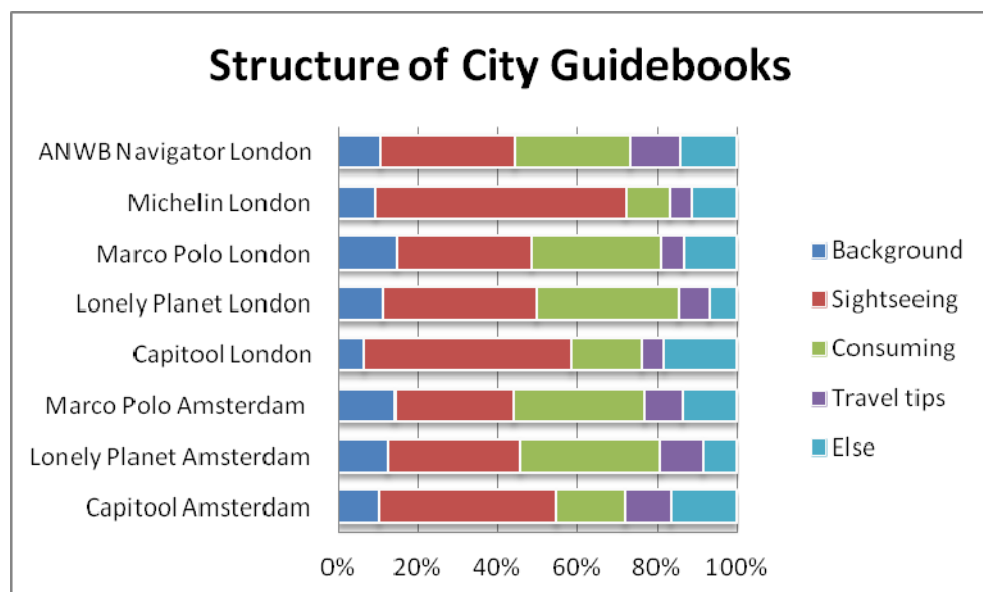
Fig. 2. The structure of guidebooks for cities, including the relative numbers of pages devoted to the different types of information in recent guidebooks for both London and Amsterdam. Marco Polo guidebooks offer relatively more background information. However, in terms of the number of pages, this background information is limited compared to the other guidebooks, as the Marco Polo guidebooks are the shortest of those compared here. Marco Polo London has only 136 pages and Marco Polo Amsterdam 140, whereas the other guidebooks for Amsterdam are approximately 270 pages long and those for London vary between 350 and 500 pages.

3.2.1 Background

Guidebooks usually start with an introduction of the city or region as a whole. This introduction sketches the main characteristics of the place. In many series, this short sketch is followed by more background information. This background information usually contains an historical overview - mentioning dynasties, wars and revolutions (Bockhorn, 1997). Some of the guides also offer a section on arts and culture, which might include folklore, famous poets, painters and writers, and architecture.

3.2.2 Sightseeing

The next section of the guidebook typically focuses on the must-see-sights. Some series rank these sights. Michelin's Green Guides distinguish between three-star sights, which are highly recommended (deserve a trip on their own); two-star sights, which are recommended (deserve a detour); interesting sights, which are awarded a single asterisk, and sights. ANWB Extra Flanders (2010) lists twelve highlights and ANWB Navigator Germany (2006) contains a two-page list of highlights and a list of 15 experiences not to miss. Guidebooks began ranking sights in the first half of the nineteenth century:

"Adopting a Murray convention, Baedeker in 1844 first used asterisks to mark those extraordinary sites that hurried travelers were to see, and later he added a second asterisk to 'especially stellar attractions' and then extended the system to hotels and restaurants" (Koshar, 1998; 331). According to Koshar (1998), this ranking of sights reflected the popularisation of tourism from elite travellers on extended Grand Tours to less well-to-do tourists on shorter trips to nearby places. New (and faster) modes of transportation ensured that these tourists could visit more places in the same amount of time. Because their time and money were limited, they did not have time to see everything, and efficiency became important. In 1858, Murray therefore avowed to describe what *ought* to be seen and not all that *may* be seen (Koshar, 1998). Sections in contemporary guidebooks, such as *24 Hours in London* (Marco Polo London, 2009), *Weekend Breaks* (Michelin Green Guide London, 2006) or *Amsterdam in four days* (Capitool London, 2007) anticipate this time constraint, providing suggestions for 'hurried tourists'. However, ranking the sights not only sets priorities for tourists under time pressure, it also influences tourists' experience at each site. Bockhorn (1997) states that the use of asterisks signals the amount of enjoyment that tourists should derive from a site.

The sights that are described by guidebooks are usually grouped together in regions, cities or neighbourhoods. Different series of guidebooks might create different geographical entities within the same city or country. The German ADAC Niederlande (2004), for example, creates 5 'themed' regions, whereas the Capitool Nederland (2002) uses a simpler division into West, North, East and South that will more closely match the mental map Dutch tourists have of their nation (see table 1). Michelin's Green Guide used to discuss sights in alphabetical order rather than by geography. However, the most recent Dutch edition for both Germany and Belgium – Luxembourg divide the county into identifiable regions.

ADAC	Capitool	Lonely Planet
1) Holland *North* and *South Holland*	1) Amsterdam	1) Amsterdam
2) Waddenzee Wadden Islands, *Friesland, Groningen*	2) West *North* and *South Holland, Utrecht, Zeeland*	2) *Noord-Holland* and *Flevoland*
3) IJsselmeer *Flevoland, Utrecht* and the cities Kampen, Zwolle, Giethoorn	3) North and East Wadden Islands, *Groningen, Friesland, Drenthe, Overijssel, Flevoland, Gelderland*	3) *Utrecht*
		4) *Zuid-Holland* and *Zeeland*
		5) *Friesland*
4) East *Drenthe, Overijssel, Gelderland*	4) South *Brabant, Limburg*	6) *Groningen* and *Drenthe*
5) Burgundian South *Limburg, Brabant, Zeeland*		7) *Overijssel* and *Gelderland*
		8) *Brabant* and *Limburg*

Table 1. Tourist regions in the Netherlands according to three different guidebooks: ADAC Niederland (2004), Capitool Nederland (2002) and Lonely Planet The Netherlands (2004). The names of Dutch provinces are given in italics.

Overall, guidebooks for London identify roughly the same neighbourhoods. However, the delineation of the areas differs. Text box 2 shows the different borders three guidebooks draw around the area they call 'Southbank'. The size of the area differs remarkably both in all four cardinal directions. None of the guidebooks truly explains the 'geography' or map that it creates. These areas are not presented as social constructions but as 'real' places to be discovered. In the usually short sketch of the area, its unique features, functions or atmosphere is described (see text box 3).

Michelin Green Guide (2006):	The area between Westminster bridge and Waterloo bridge, Florence Nightingale Museum and National Theatre
Capitool Reisgidsen (2007):	The area between Lambeth bridge and Blackfiarsbridge, in the south bordered by Lambeth Road – Imperial War Museum – Garden Row.
Lonely Planet City Guide (2008):	The area between Westminster bridge and Towerbridge, in the south bordered by Westminsterbridge Road, Borough Road, Great Dover Road, Tower Bridge Road.

Text box 2. Southbank (London) according to three different guidebooks

ANWB Navigator Germany (2006; 70): Northern Germany consists of the Länder Niedersachsen, Sleswig-Holstein and Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, plus the city-states of Hamburg and Bremen. The landscape is rather flat, sometimes a little slanting and stretches along the entire coastline. Outside the busy harbor cities, that were once members of the Hanseatic League, lays a vast rural area.

Capitool Germany (2011; 418): Northern Germany has a very diverse landscape, that varies from sandy beaches along the shores of the North- and East Sea coast to the moraine hills of Sleswig-Hollstein and the heaths of Lüneburger Heathlands. Nature lovers will like the lakes of Mecklenburg and the Harz Mountains, whereas those who are interested in history and architecture will enjoy the Renaissance castles along the Weser and the gothic brick buildings in the former Hanseatic cities. In both Goslar and Hildesheim, historical buildings remind visitors of the past glory of these cities.

Text box 3. (B)ordering Northern Germany – characteristics of a region

3.2.3 Consumption

The third kind of information that guidebooks offer, either in a separate section or combined with the sightseeing information, is aimed at consumption. It tells tourists where to eat, drink, sleep or shop. These sections might start off with some general comments on hotels, food, eating habits and the like in the area. This introduction is usually followed by suggested hotels and restaurants in different price ranges. Guidebooks also list a number of shops, bars, and other entertainment venues for tourists. Guidebooks usually provide information beyond the address, prices and services offered. They also evaluate the

establishments, using rather interpretative styles, as text box 4 indicates. The relative importance of this section (and thus its relative size) differs for different series of guidebooks (see figures 1 and 2). Michelin Green Guides focus more on sightseeing, whereas Lonely Planet guidebooks contain relatively large sections on consumption.

The Seven Bridges Hotel is evaluated by both Capitool Amsterdam (2009) and Lonely Planet City Guide Amsterdam (2008). Capitool Amsterdam (2009; 174) writes the following: "Located in a former merchant house dating from the 17th century, one of the best kept secrets of the city. A perfect sanctuary for those looking for peace and quiet. Only eleven rooms, with a view of the canals or the garden. Decorated with antiques and breakfast served in the rooms". Lonely Planet Amsterdam (2008; 217) described this hotel as follows: "private, sophisticated, intimate, the Seven bridges is one of the city's loveliest little hotels on one of the loveliest canals. It has eight tastefully decorated rooms (with lush oriental rugs and elegant antiques). The urge to sightsee may fade once breakfast, served on fine china, is delivered to your room". Although the guidebooks disagree on the number of rooms available, they both use several adjectives to describe the hotel. They describe more than the simple facts and both try to convey the atmosphere of the hotel. The reader might begin to imagine himself or herself staying in this hotel.

Text box 4. Evaluation of accommodation in Amsterdam (Southern Canal Belt)

3.2.4 Advice and travel tips

Finally, the guidebooks offer practical advice on topics such as climate (what is the best time of the year to visit), currency and exchange rates, public transport, language (useful phrases) and other essentials. Part of these travel tips might be offered in the beginning of the guidebook, but the majority can be found in the last section of the guidebook. Guidebooks also contain maps to ensure that tourists can find their way. In some series of guidebooks, detailed street plans are included in the sightseeing section; in other series, all maps are placed in the back of the guidebook (part of the 'else' category in figures 1 and 2).

3.3 Guidebooks as substitutes for a personal tourist guide

This combination of information more than covers tourists' information needs as described by Smecca (2009; 110). Tourists have three fundamental information needs: a need for orientation in foreign places, an interest in the place's social and cultural history, and finally a need to save both money and time. The above presentation of the content of guidebooks demonstrates that guidebooks cater to these information needs. Tourists can learn about the history and culture of their destination from their guidebook; they are told which sights they must see; and the maps help them to navigate from their hotels to the sights and back. Because the authors of guidebooks have evaluated the quality of hotels and restaurants, finding a place to eat or sleep is easy. The risk of spending too much money is reduced, as tourists know exactly what is offered. This is what Baedeker envisaged with his guidebooks. He allegedly sought to create a guidebook that would make the traveller as independent as possible from all sorts of local tourism entrepreneurs such as hotel owners (Koshar, 1998). The information that guidebooks offer moreover free tourists from another local tourism

entrepreneur: the personal tourist guide (Jack & Phipps, 2003). The role of this modern personal tourist guide, according to Cohen (1985), has four components. By showing instrumental leadership, the guide first ensures that the tour will go smoothly. As a pathfinder, the guide has to lead the way, ensure that access is granted and bear responsibility for the behaviour of the tourists in his or her care. Second, social leadership refers to the guide's role in maintaining the morale and good atmosphere in the group of tourists (Cohen, 1985). Third, the outer-directed mediatory sphere represents the personal guide as "a middleman between his party and the local population, sites and institutions, as well as touristic facilities" (Cohen, 1985;13). Finally, the communicative mediatory sphere represents the guide as a cultural broker, selecting sights to see and describing and interpreting them to the tourists. In her analysis of Lonely Planet India, Bhattacharyya (1997) demonstrates how this guidebook performs all but one component of the role of a personal tourist guide. As a book, Lonely Planet India cannot be a social leader, responsible for the morale and cohesion of the party. The afore mentioned 'usual' content of guidebooks supports the three remaining components of the personal tourist guide's role. The sightseeing section replaces the personal guide as a cultural broker. An introduction to the area and background information on history and culture, the travel advice and the section on consumption substitute the personal guide as both a middleman and a pathfinder. These sections offer suggestions on where to eat or sleep, on itineraries, on some behavioural guidelines and sometimes even on useful sentences in the local language.

The voice of guidebooks seems to echo the personal tourist guide. On some occasions, guidebooks explicitly direct tourists rather than only describing a destination. ANWB Navigator Germany (2006; 75) thus instructs readers to "Stroll through the city centre near the Neuer Markt and visit Schloss Jever" in Jever. Like personal tourist guides, guidebooks address tourist directly as if they were engaged in a conversation. In its Food and Drinks section, ANWB Extra Flanders (2010; 25) thus advises readers on dining out in Flanders: "…in plainer localities you could stick to the main course – you will never leave the establishment still feeling hungry". Bhattacharyya (1997; 375) calls this the voice of an implicit narrator "the reader is frequently referred to with second person pronouns and it is not hard to imagine the texts as the narrator's chat to the reader over a bottle of beer". Some guidebooks, such as the Marco Polo and Lonely Planet series, even contain a short section with insider tips where the Insider, like a personal guide, shares his or her favourite places to see or go. Although these examples might evoke the idea of a conversation between a tourist guide and tourists, the authors of most guidebooks stay out of sight (Bhattacharrya, 1997; Laderman, 2002).

Guidebooks thus speak with certain authority (Bhattacharryya, 1997). The information in guidebooks is presented as a fact. There seems to be no alternative reading of history or place than the one offered by the guidebook. The information is to be taken for granted "as a straightforward, self-evident description of reality, rather than as a socially constructed representation" (Bhattacharyya, 1997; 376). According to Koshar (1998; 326), travel in itself offers enough uncertainty, so guidebooks were not designed to "bewilder the reader/traveler or to introduce the potential for a multiplicity of meanings while viewing particular touristic sites". Guidebooks need to offer "clarity, precision and 'scientific' accuracy"(ibid). The implied objectivity of such descriptions signals reliability to the readers, and this authoritative and directional voice eventually differentiated the modern guidebooks from travel writing (Gilbert, 1999, Koshar, 1998, Smecca, 2009).

The authoritative voice is also reflected in the consumption section of many guidebooks, which not only describes the location or the menu of hotels and restaurants, but also evaluates the quality of the rooms, food or service. These evaluations are likewise presented as facts or as Bhattacharyya (1997; 375) puts it, "any reasonable person is expected to agree with the evaluation" (see also text box 4). Another example of the authoritative voice is the use of stars to rank the sights in importance. The text on the back cover of the Green Guide Belgium and Luxembourg (2011) demonstrates that Michelin sees its ranking system as a selling point of the guide and praises its practicality. The text does not explain who ranked these sights and why a certain sight was awarded two or three stars. The editorial of the Green Guide Germany (2011), however does assure its readers that the guidebook's author(s) continuously evaluate and judge the importance of each site and thus reevaluates its rankings. This approach is presented as another selling point.

Thus far, different characteristics of guidebooks have been discussed. However, little attention has been paid to what guidebooks actually gaze at and what they present as sights to see. The next section of this chapter will focus on attempting to shed some light on how guidebooks transform places that are culturally and / or physically nearby into places to visit and sights to see.

4. Othering what is nearby

4.1 Introduction

Although new markets and destinations are opening up and air travel makes more far-flung destinations feasible, the majority of tourists stay rather close to home. Of the 36.4 million holidays taken by the Dutch almost half were spent in the Netherlands (CBS, 2009) and more than 60% of their 3.8 million short trips were spent in the neighbouring countries of Germany (38%) and Belgium (29%). Popular destinations for Dutch tourists' 14.6 million long holidays were France (16%), Germany (14%), Spain (10%), Austria (8%), Belgium(6%) and Italy (6%) (CBS, 2009). These popular destinations for Dutch tourists might be slightly more familiar, through firsthand experience (because these destinations have been popular for a long time) but also because they receive more attention in, for example, news media or education. Guidebooks have to transform these countries, which are culturally and physically rather close to the audience, into destinations. As shown in the first section of this chapter, such symbolic transformations focus on what is distinctive, what deviates from the everyday life of the tourist.

Strategies for othering have been studied in the context of tourism, perhaps most prominently in examining how the Global South or Orient are represented for Western tourists. Section 1.2 of this chapter presented some examples of how places in the West become tourist destinations. Hopkins (1998) demonstrated that othering, or what he called 'alterity', could be achieved by three different 'routes': 1) stressing that a destination is an 'other place'; 2) referring to 'other times'; and 3) emphasising that the destination offers 'other experiences'. Van Gorp and Béneker (2007) demonstrated that these three routes offer a useful framework to deconstruct tourist representations within the Western world. Gilbert's (1999) strategies used by European cities also match this distinction. Focusing on the longevity and past glory of cities places them in an 'other time'. Presenting them as truly modern creates 'other experiences', as does the combination of old and new. Cities

presented as sites of power become 'other places', places where people can admire royal palaces, luxury townhouses of tradesmen or shiny new headquarters of international firms.

4.2 Other times - Places packed with monuments and museums

Whereas the earliest guidebooks had an eye for industry, economy and ethnography, later editions and series focused more and more on monuments and museums (Koshar, 1998; Michalski, 2004). What tourists ought to see in Germany, according to Murray, thus became "statues and monuments, historical buildings such as Gothic cathedrals and castles, and ruins [..] scenic natural beauties and their counterparts, sublime natural disasters" (Koshar, 1998; 327). This 'repertoire' of sights to see in guidebooks has not changed much since then. Van der Vaart (1999) analysed four guidebooks for Athens (ANWB, Standaard, Michelin and Capitool). The sections on Athens in these guidebooks focused primarily on monuments and museums or artefacts in museums (see figures 3a+b). Places, meaning squares, streets and neighbourhoods, accounted for the smallest amount of written (approximately 20 to 25%) and visual information (in the range of 5 to 25%) of the three kinds of sights identified by Van der Vaart (1999). A comparison by the same author of guidebooks for Paris published between 1952 and 1997 shows that the emphasis on monuments and museums has increased over time to the detriment of representations of Paris as a city of Parisians, of creativity and sensuality. Van der Vaart (1998; 204) calls these processes 'petrification' and 'fossilisation': guidebooks focus more and more on stone (monuments, museums) and less on people. The people who figure in the guidebooks belong to the past. Both trends place destinations in 'other time', an undefined glorious past.
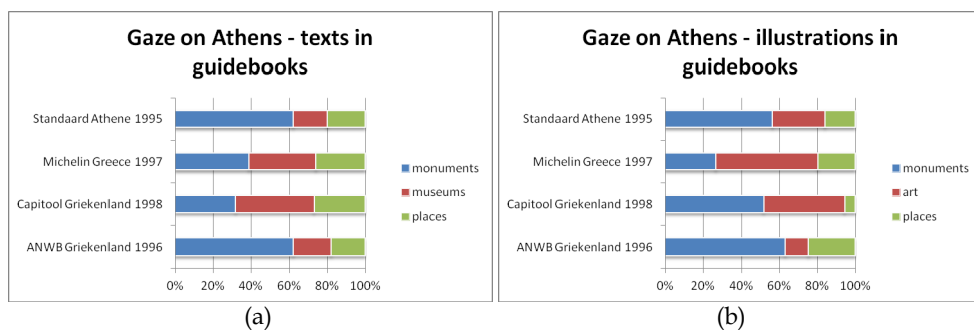
Fig. 3. The tourist gaze on Athens in four guidebooks. The percentages of pages of text (a) and of illustrations (b) devoted to either monuments, museums or art, and places (streets, squares and neighbourhoods) are shown. After: Van der Vaart (1999)

Petrification and fossilisation are thus possible strategies for transforming places into destinations that might be used in recent edition of Dutch-language guidebooks for Germany and Belgium. The author therefore performed a content analysis on three guidebooks for both Belgium and Germany: ANWB Extra Flanders (2010), Capitool Belgium & Luxemburg (2010), Michelin Green Guide Belgium & Luxemburg (2011), ANWB Navigator Germany (2006), Capitool Germany (2010) and Michelin Green Guide (2010).

Dutch (translated) editions were used. For the analysis, a sample of three regions was selected: two regions in Germany and one region in Belgium. The Capitool guidebooks were used as a reference for the delineation of these regions. For Belgium, the Capitool section 'Middle and Eastern Flanders' was chosen, which covers a vast region stretching between Antwerp and Brussels to the west and the Dutch province of Limburg to the east. For Germany, two different regions, as defined by the Capitool guidebooks, were selected: Reinland-Pfalz & Saarland in the west and Bayern in the south. To establish whether petrification can be observed in today's guidebooks, the photographs included in the information on the selected regions were categorised. Table 2 summarises the results for the German regions. Overall, it is clear that the section(s) on Bayern are lengthier than those on Reinland–Pfalz & Saarland. This result can be explained partly by the relative size of the areas and partly by Munich, which receives substantial attention. Moreover, table 2 shows that the majority of photos in these sections present 'other times' in the guise of monumental

	Reinland Pfalz & Saarland			Bayern		
	ANWB Navigator	Capitool	Michelin Green Guide	ANWB Navigator	Capitool	Michelin Green Guide
Monumental buildings and streetscapes	13	31	5	30	84	10
Monumental interiors	1	15	0	15	45	5
Museum collection	2	6	1	24	42	1
Statues	0	7	0	6	13	1
Modern buildings	0	0	0	4	2	2
Rural and natural areas	4	4	3	5	11	6
Industry	0	1	1	0	1	0
People	1	0	2	9	10	1
Else	3	2	0	5	12	1
Total number of photographs	24	60	12	97	219	27
Number of pages	8	24	67	41,5	82	146

Table 2. Petrification – In guidebooks, Germany still is a country of "statues and monuments, historical buildings such as Gothic cathedrals and castles, and ruins" as Koshar (1998; 327) indicated. Natural beauty receives some attention. Findings of a content analysis of photographs in three guidebooks on Germany: ANWB Navigator Germany (2006), Capitool Germany (2010) and Michelin Green Guide (2010).

buildings and streetscapes, monumental interiors, museum collections and statues. 'Stone' thus figures prominently in these guidebooks. This finding is reinforced by the relatively few photos of people and of rural or natural areas included in the guidebooks. From a Dutch perspective, a focus on landscape would certainly help to turn Germany into an 'other place': the hills of Reinland-Pflaz and Saarland or the mountains in Bayern offer a different view than what Dutch tourists experience at home. Indeed, pictures of mountains and lakes

and of the vineyards lining the Mosel are present, but they are rather rare compared with pictures of historical buildings and artefacts on display in museums. Because, in this analysis, photos were only ascribed to one category, there was a bit more greenery present in the guidebooks than Table 2 indicates. The photos were ascribed to a category based on the focus of the camera. Greenery in such photos was no more than a setting for 'stone', a castle or church.

Some differences between the guidebooks were notable as well. Firstly, the Capitool guidebook contains many more photos than the other guidebooks (note that illustrations other than photos were not even included in this analysis). The Michelin Green Guide has the most text pages overall. This guide does, however, use a larger font than the other guidebooks. Secondly, ANWB Navigator seemed more interested in monuments of industry and engineering and presents a number of pictures of antique cars, fighter jets and bicycles, all of which are part of the collections of museums in Munich. As a result, the photographic representations of the city of Munich differ remarkably between the ANWB Navigator and the Capitool guidebook. The Capitool guidebook presents Munich as a city of past wealth: important buildings, lush baroque or rococo interiors, and works of art. This representation of the city concurs with the representation of Munich in Italian guidebooks: a city full of churches, museums and castles (Agreiter, 2000).

The guidebooks on Belgium show evidence of petrification as well (table 3). Again the guidebooks gaze on monumental buildings and cityscapes and highlight museums. Compared with the photographs of the German regions, there are relatively more photos of people in the Belgium sample. These photos depict people having a drink inside or outside a bar or visiting a flea market. Such photos show the present and not some distant 'other time'. As such, fossilization is less prominent in these guidebooks. Table 3 also shows that the Capitool guidebook and the Michelin Green Guide present middle and eastern Flanders differently. Eighty per cent of the photographs in the Capitool guidebook depict monuments or museums. In the Michelin guide, this number is 40%, but 'stone' is also represented in four photographs of modern buildings. The Michelin guidebook depicts Brussels and Antwerp as cities with both monumental and modern buildings. These cities, then, do not belong to 'other times' entirely. They are examples of cities where the old and new coincide, a well-known strategy according to Gilbert (1999).

Petrification and fossilisation are not solely a matter of what photographs editors put in their guidebooks. These trends result from selections of the sights to see and the information that is given about these sights. The texts of the sightseeing sections of guidebooks are thus equally important. From the selected German and Belgian regions three places were sampled for a closer look at the texts: Antwerp, the Moseltal and Berchtesgadener Land. These three very different places are included in all three available guidebooks. ANWB Extra Flanders dedicates 12 pages to Antwerp including information on events, consumption and a detailed map. Capitool also spends 12 pages on Antwerp, but the analysed section only consists of sightseeing information. Michelin's Green Guide section on Antwerp is 32 pages long but it includes detailed streetmaps and information on where to eat, sleep and have a drink. ANWB Navigator Germany rates Moseltal 4 (on a five-point scale) for its picturesque qualities and dedicates two pages to the area. It advises tourists to take a boat ride and see the valley from the river. The Capitool and Michelin guidebooks both suggest a trip by car along the valley. Michelin awards the valley three stars and spends six pages describing the sights to see in this valley and its immediate surroundings.

The Capitool guidebook only spends one page on explaining the area and the sights along the route. Berchtesgadener Land is considered almost equally beautiful as the Moseltal. The area is awarded two stars by Michelin, which dedicates 6 pages to the area (including information on consumption). ANWB Navigator rates this area also 4 for its picturesque qualities and 5 for outdoor activities. Like Capitool, ANWB Navigator dedicates two pages of information to this area. The content analysis first focused on what kind of sights the guidebooks write about in Antwerp, Moseltal or Berchtesgadener Land. Following Van der Vaart's (1999) analysis of guidebooks on Athens, four categories of sights to see were identified in the guidebook passages on Antwerp: monuments, museums, places and else. Monuments as a category include buildings, historical or modern. Places encompass squares, streets, neighbourhoods and villages. The analysis furthermore categorised the kind of information offered about these sights.

Middle and Eastern Flanders: Brussels, Antwerp, Limburg and Flemish Brabant			
	ANWB Extra	Capitool	Michelin Green Guide
Monumental buildings and streetscapes	2	46	6
Monumental interiors	0	26	1
Museum collection	0	30	0
Statues	0	15	0
Modern buildings	0	2	4
Rural and natural areas	0	3	1
Industry	0	0	0
People	1	15	3
Else	0	9	2
Total number of pictures	3	146	17
Number of pages	14	72	170

Table 3. Petrification - Emphasis on buildings, streetscapes, interiors and art collections in photographs in guidebooks on the Belgian provinces of Brussels, Antwerp, Limburg and Flemish Brabant. Findings of a content analysis of three guidebooks on Belgium: ANWB Extra Flanders (2010), Capitool Belgium & Luxemburg (2010), Michelin Green Guide Belgium & Luxemburg (2011).

	Antwerp		
	ANWB Extra	Capitool	Michelin Green Guide
Monuments	9	15	22
Museums	8	12	14
Places	7	9	12
Else	2	0	3
Total sights	26	36	51

Table 4. Sights to see in Antwerp according to three guidebooks of Belgium: ANWB Extra Flanders (2010), Capitool Belgium & Luxemburg (2010), Michelin Green Guide Belgium & Luxemburg (2011).

The guidebooks show remarkable similarities in their choices of sights to see in Antwerp. All three guidebooks start at Grote Markt and then move to, for example, Onze Lieve Vrouwe Cathedral, Vleeshuis, Sint Pauluskerk, and the city's central train station. Museums are an important part of what Antwerp has to offer tourists, and again, the guidebooks largely agree on what is interesting: the eight museums mentioned by ANWB Extra also appear in the other two guidebooks. Table 4 shows that the majority of the sights to see in Antwerp are monumental buildings and museums. For Antwerp, today's guidebooks follow the pattern described by Van der Vaart (1998, 1999). Approximately a quarter of the sights are places such as Grote Markt, Cogels-Osylei and the Diamant neighbourhood. The information that guidebooks offer about the sights to see in Antwerp centres on the history of the sights, the appearances of monuments and places (architecture and interior) and the collections in museums (see figure 4). Petrification and fossilization are thus the most pronounced in the written information, the same goes for fossilization. If people are mentioned, they usually are the owners, architects or painters, and they are usually people who lived in the past. A few exemptions from this fossilization stand out, such as the short description of the Diamant neighbourhood in the Michelin Green Guide, which mentions both its history and the current situation.
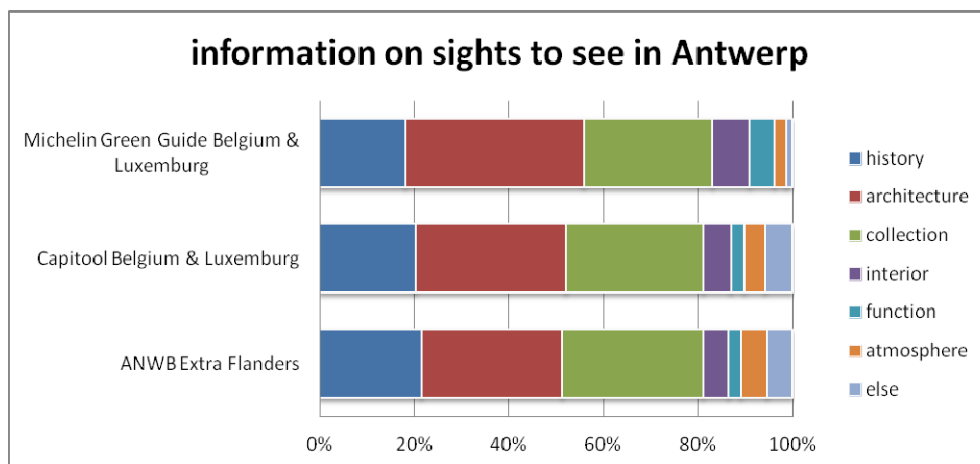
Fig. 4. Petrification and fossilisation in the written information about sights to see in Antwerp. Guidebooks most frequently offer information on the architecture or building style, followed by information on museum collections and information on the history of the sights. This graph does not represent the length or relative amount of these types of information, but rather the number of times a certain kind of information was offered.

Petrification might be more pronounced in texts on cities because of the high density of buildings inherent in cities. Even if just a small percentage of these buildings are worth seeing, this results in a large number of sights to see in a city. If petrification is strong, then even in rural or natural areas guidebooks would predominantly gaze at buildings. To check this, the Moseltal and Berchtesgadener Land were selected. As table 5 shows, there are more pronounced differences between the guidebooks in their gaze on the Moseltal and Berchtesgadener Land. Capitool's gaze at the Moseltal most clearly demonstrates

petrification. The sights to see in this valley are six castles and one chapel. The information on these sights is brief and mainly focuses on the history of the castles. Michelin's Green Guide lists both castles and churches but also villages. The written information is mainly short and describes the appearances or the history of the sights. The few people who are mentioned are people from the past: the founder of a medieval hospital and a painter. The best places to view the river and the vineyards is a recurring theme in the text in this guidebook. This guidebook then partly turns its gaze to spectacular landscapes or natural beauty. The ANWB Navigator does things differently. It claims that the best way to see or experience the valley is by boat. It then first gives readers advice on this boat trip. The destination of the boat trip is Cochem, and this town and its castle are the only sights mentioned. The text continues with information on the easiest way to get a good view of the river and town and gives advice about visiting the vineyards in the area. In this specific sample, the level of petrification thus differs between the guidebooks. The limited information about people in these texts makes it difficult to tell if fossilization is an issue.

	Moseltal			Berchtesgadener Land		
	ANWB Navigator	Capitool	Michelin Green Guide	ANWB Navigator	Capitool	Michelin Green Guide
Monuments	1	7	14	2	2	4
Museums	0	0	2	1	0	1
Places	1	0	10	0	2	3
Else	2	0	2	1	3	4
Total sights	4	7	28	4	7	12

Table 5. Sights to see in the Moseltal and Berchtesgadener Land, according to three guidebooks of Germany: ANWB Navigator Germany (2006), Capitool Germany (2010) and Michelin Green Guide (2010).

The findings for Berchtesgadener Land are slightly different (see table 5). The Capitool guidebook in this case seems to focus less on monuments and museums. Two of the selected sights are villages and two others are lakes (Königssee and Hintersee). Overall, the guidebook seems to gaze at the landscape. It calls this area one of the most beautiful areas of Europe and uses words like 'idyllic' and 'picturesque' to describe the villages and their location. Besides such scenic information, the guide includes some historical and art historical facts. ANWB Navigator focuses less on the landscape. It describes four sights to see: Königliches Schloss, Kehlsteinhaus, Dokumentation Obersalzberg and the salt mines. The written information focuses on the history of these sights and of the area. Michelin's Green Guide selects a variety of sights: the Schloss, Kehlsteinhaus, the salt mines and three lakes. Its information is mixed (history, architecture, museum collections). Similar to the information on the Moseltal, the views, and the best spots to get a good view of the area are important. In the text of all three guides few people are mentioned and those who are mentioned, Prince Rupprecht and Hitler, lived in the past.

Nearby places thus become destinations packed with monuments and museums for the tourist to admire. The most important strategy that guidebooks use to transform nearby places into destination is by placing these places in an 'other time', more specifically: in the

past. This gaze is apparent in what the guidebooks select as sights to see and what they offer in terms of written information about these sights. It is also apparent in the photographs that are included. The focus on 'stone' and on past times and past people were termed 'petrification' and 'fossilisation' by Van der Vaart (1998). Although his analysis was completed more than ten years ago, this aspect of guidebooks does not seem to have changed much. The only parts of guidebooks that could possibly counterbalance this emphasis on stone, past times and past people is the background information offered in the introduction. In this section, guidebooks sketch the main characteristics of the area they describe. They may provide information about the natural and cultural landscape (Michelin Green Guides), about the current political situation (Michelin Green Guides and ANWB Navigator Germany) or about today's society in general (Navigator Germany). However, a relatively large part of these background sections is dedicated to describing the region's history, its rulers and its famous poets, painters and scientists (ranging from 44% of the pages providing background information in the ANWB Navigator Germany to 65% in the Michelin Green Guide Germany).

4.3 Othering through stereotypes and clichés

Guidebooks can use other strategies to create 'other place', 'other time', or 'other experiences'. One well-known way of othering is the use of stereotypes and clichés, which are oversimplified, one-sided representations of people and of the country or region (anything but the people), respectively (Dekker et al., 1997). Stereotypes and clichés usually express difference and thus establish 'other place'. When related to local food and drinks, they might represent 'other experience'. Occasionally stereotypes place people back in time, still cherishing age-old habits and wearing traditional dress. Stereotypes and clichés may be the result of 'uploading' or 'downloading' (Boisen, Terlouw & Van Gorp, 2011). Uploading is the transformation of a local characteristic or peculiarity into a regional or even national trait. The reverse process is downloading: national or regional traits are 'transported' into every place in that area. The Dutch cliché of the struggle against water (living in a delta and defending land from water) can serve as an example of downloading. Water has become part of the tourist gaze on the Netherlands as a whole; as a result water is omnipresent in pictures in guidebooks about the Netherlands, even when representing the areas situated on the drier, sandy soils in the east and south of the country (Jansen, 1994 in Van Gorp & Béneker, 2007). The well-known Dutch icons, tulips, cheese, windmills and clogs, provide an example of uploading. Although tulip bulbs are grown in a specific area, souvenir shops all over the country sell tulip items as well as 'Gouda' cheese and Delftware (Van Gorp & Béneker, 2007). In a slightly different process one place comes to stand for a regional or national characteristic. Amsterdam is the epitome of tolerance, a city where anything goes: the red-light district, soft drugs, and gay bars. Lonely Planet City Guide Amsterdam captures this gaze on Amsterdam in three pictures using the slogan "have a vice time". The 'vice time' is really part of this guidebook's gaze at Amsterdam. It discusses 'tolerance' in detail, presents the red-light district as a sight to see and even evaluates a number of coffee shops (not for coffee) in its consumption section. Part of this gaze at vice or tolerance might be typical for Amsterdam. However, it is national legislation that tolerates coffee shops and allows gay couples to marry. The Capitool guidebook on Amsterdam therefore feels little need to discuss these topics at great length, except for the red-light district, which is recognised as a sight to see. Amsterdam's tolerance, moreover, might be on its way to

becoming a true stereotype. It does not fit the images that are deemed appropriate for marketing the city (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2007). Meanwhile, the red-light district has changed, tolerance is not what it once was, policies on soft drugs are changing and Amsterdam is no longer the most gay-friendly city. Both guidebooks on Amsterdam mention these changes.

According to Agreiter (2000; 38), Italian guidebooks on Munich use many stereotypes and clichés to present the city. Munich is the city of festivals, specifically Oktoberfest, and the Münchners are a beer-drinking, lederhosen-wearing, partying lot of people who love their city above all. Munich is an important destination in the selected Dutch-language guidebooks of Germany in terms of the number of pages used to describe the place and its must-see-sights (25 to 34 pages). Oktoberfest is mentioned by the Capitool Germany, but only a few times in the whole guidebook and twice in the section on Munich. Overall this guidebook gazes mainly at monuments and museums, and not so much at 'locals'. Michelin Green Guide Germany provides its readers with slightly more Oktoberfest and Biergarten information, but this event still is not the centre of attention. The ANWB Navigator guidebooks starts its introduction of Munich by stating that the city has a traditional, beer and lederhosen image, but that this stereotype does not do justice to the excellent shopping opportunities, the trendy bars and the museums. The use of this stereotype in guidebooks on Germany as a whole is thus limited.

Analysis of four guidebooks for the Netherlands by Van Gorp & Beneker (2007) demonstrated that stereotypes and clichés were used in the symbolic transformation. The guidebooks contained pictures of clogs, tulips, cheese and windmills, and these icons figured prominently on the covers of the guidebooks. The icons were, however, not as omnipresent in guidebooks as they were on the official tourist board website Holland.com. Compared with the total amount of pictures provided in these guidebooks, these stereotypes were few. A content analysis of two guidebooks for France, and three each for Germany and Belgium concurs with these findings. Some pictures of stereotypes and clichés are present. They are, however, not omnipresent and do not outnumber pictures of monumental buildings. Thus, France, in the Lonely Planet and Capitool guidebooks, is not a country populated by beret-wearing men playing 'petanque' or carrying a baguette under their arm. In fact, the 672 pages thick Capitool guidebook has only two pictures of men with berets and two of people playing petanque. There is one cliché on which both guidebooks linger in quite substantial detail: French cuisine and French wine. Both guidebooks have many pictures and written information describing local varieties of wine and regional foodstuffs. Gastronomy is part of the tourist gaze on France. Guidebooks present Belgium as 'the land of beer', which is the title of a two-page section in Michelin Green Guide Belgium and Luxemburg. This means that all three guidebooks have a page or two of written information on brewing, beer varieties and breweries that tourists can visit. Pictures of people having a drink (mostly a beer) inside or outside a bar are included in the guidebooks. Overall, the guidebooks mention the love for the good life in Belgium, represented by beer, chocolate and frites, but this is not their main focus.

4.4 Other strategies

Van der Vaart (1998) noticed yet another trend in the Paris guidebooks published from 1952 to 1997, namely, a process he called 'virtualisation'. Over the years, guidebooks have begun to place greater emphasis on the 'atmosphere' and less emphasis on the actual physical

place. This atmosphere might be what the tourist gaze eventually embodies: it is a way of looking at a place. It creates expectations of what to experience. Virtualisation is a way of othering, because it tries to create experiences that cannot be experienced at home or in everyday life: "..come enjoy hospitable Munich and its people that always feel like having a drink on one of the Italian like squares"(Michelin Green Guide Germany, 2010; 556). Michelin Green Guide Belgium and Luxemburg (2011; 266) states the following about Antwerp: "the city has retained the special charm of Flemish cities and at the same time is highly dynamic". The atmosphere of places can also refer to 'other times', mostly 'old days'. For example, ANWB Extra Flanders (2010; 43) writes the following about the Vlaeykensgang in Antwerp: "this old neighbourhood with its old alleyways and tiny houses, saved from demolishing, takes visitors back to the old days. Especially lovely on a summers eve when the carillon plays". There are more examples of virtualization in the guidebooks, which are found more often in introductions to areas or cities than in the information on sights to see. The introductions of the Moseltal are telling: "The Moseltal, littered with picturesque villages and renowned for its wines, is an enchanting region. The river winds around the bases of many castles and between the Rheinlandische mountains of the Eifel and Hunsrück and runs through vineyards dating back to the Roman era" (Michelin Green Guide, 2010; 371). A similarly enchanting picture is drawn by the Capitool Germany (2010; 345): "it is one of the most beautiful areas of Germany. Magnificent, romantic castles, overlooking endless vineyards where delicious white grapes ripen, line both shores of the river". As these examples demonstrate, virtualisation can also be used to create 'other place'.

A very different strategy guidebooks use to create alterity is expressing the variety or diversity of the destination. The destination offers a variety of experiences, of places, of sights. Capitool Belgium & Luxemburg (2010; 10) thus acclaims: "Visitors to Belgium and Luxemburg are often taken by surprise by the huge variety of experiences and sights these countries offer". Germany is presented in the same series as a country of 'sharp contrasts' and a country that will impress visitors with its diversity. Such comments might be viewed as a means to overcome stereotypes and clichés. ANWB Navigator Germany (2006) and Michelin Green Guide Germany (2010) explicitly stress the varied landscape of Germany. Part and parcel of the way landscape has been used in nation building is a specific geographical blindness: the nation's landscape is perceived to be very diverse, whereas other countries are viewed to lack such differences in their landscape (Renes, 1999). The guidebooks can be seen to adjust this cliché in an attempt to draw tourists to the area. However, variety might be part of the tourist gaze. Variety implies that tourists will have a variety of experiences along the way. In this, tourism is clearly different from everyday life and its routines. Variety or diversity might also become the tourist gaze, when no other specific label seems to fit all of the must-see-sights and experiences. The Marco Polo guidebook on London seems to use variety as its tourist gaze on London. "The essence of London? Its many faces of course."(Marco Polo, 2009; 7).

4.5 Othering lost in translation?

Translations of guidebooks are common, especially for the smaller language markets. The guidebooks in Dutch mentioned in this chapter (such as Capitool, ANWB Extra, ANWB Navigator, Michelin Groene Gids) were originally published in English, German or French. Othering, however, poses a challenge when guidebooks are translated to new audiences: "Each culture has its own values and beliefs which contribute to moulding the perception of

'the other' and thus to creating prejudices and stereotypes"(Smecca, 2009;109). Few tourists would be flattered by gazing upon their fellow countrymen through international lenses. Smecca (2009) compared the English and Italian editions of guidebooks on Sicily and found that only one guidebook used mostly faithful translations. Other series edited the texts to their audiences' knowledge, expectations, values and beliefs. In detail, Smecca (2009) demonstrates the differences between the English and Italian language editions of Lonely Planet. Sicily becomes an 'other place' for the English or international readers of this guidebook because the book stresses stereotypes and clichés like the Mafia, crime and dislike of rules, the sunny weather, friendly people and the importance of family. Sicily is also presented as being in an 'other time', "an island trapped in a time warp, living in old traditions and classical recollections, and uninterested in progress and change" (Smecca, 2009; 112). The island and its people are more familiar and less different for the Italian audience. To be considered a reliable source for Italian readers, the guidebook therefore needs to be more accurate, for example, in its comments on the climate, and should skip some comments on politics. In the Italian translation, certain passages were also lost because they contained obvious stereotypes or because they might even be offensive to Italian readers. The relatively brief information about soft drugs in the Capitool guidebook on Amsterdam might be another example of things that were lost in translation. Although Capitool is a Dutch series, it was originally written and published in English as the Eyewitness travel guides. The Dutch audience of this translated edition obviously does not need to travel all the way to Amsterdam to go to a coffee shop, and if this audience is interested in coffee shops they are more likely to know the relevant legislation. However, a detailed comparison with the original Eyewitness guidebook would be necessary to draw conclusions on this matter.

Translating guidebooks to the home market is not the only time when differences might be evened out. For nearby places othering might not always be the only strategy. Agreiter (2000; 37) found that although Italian guidebooks on Munich used stereotypes and clichés, they also present "the Münchner" as the readers' Northern relatives. The inhabitants of Munich thus are "bayerische Italiener" or "italienischer Bayer" who appreciate the same things in life, such as parties, and good food, and are equally hospitable and cheerful. The similarity might make the Italian tourist feel at home and welcome in Munich.

5. Conclusion and discussion

Guidebooks are an important source of information for tourists and have specific advantages over other tourism texts. Similar to other tourism texts, guidebooks structure the tourist gaze. They influence tourists' expectations and behavior. What tourists gaze at is a selection of place characteristics and features that guidebooks have deemed fit for sightseeing. As tourism, according to Urry (1990), is about escape from work and daily routines, the selection of sights to see is based on 'othering'. Destinations are presented as places that are different from home and every-day working life. Othering is well documented for the way non-Western destinations are presented to Western tourists and, to a lesser degree, in how places within the West are presented to Western tourists. From the literature we can conclude that othering can take different shapes: the destination may be some 'other place', situated in an 'other time', populated by 'other people' and offering 'other experiences'.

This chapter focused on the way guidebooks transform places that are culturally and physically nearby into destinations. In this particular case, othering is mainly about 'other

time'. Guidebooks gaze at monuments and monumental streetscapes, at artefacts and pieces of art on display in museums, and at an occasional statue. Most of these sights to see are objects created in and thus representing past times, usually a golden age. They are thus intrinsically linked to past people, their creators, owners or users. This specific tourist gaze of guidebooks is reflected in the sights they select, in the information they offer about these sights and in the pictures the guidebooks contain. As a result, guidebooks seem to be filled with mostly historical facts and architectural and art-historical details.

Two questions arise from these findings. The first is how this focus on monuments and museums can make one destination different from another. The second is how this focus makes the destination different from the place the tourist comes from. To start off with the latter question, tourists might live in areas packed with monuments and museums themselves. However, in their everyday routines they may not stop to gaze at gables or admire buildings. They might not even visit museums or monuments at home. For many people visiting museums and experiencing heritage in general is what they do on holiday (Munsters, 2001). It is the activity and experience that makes the difference. Regarding the first questions, the repertoire of castles, churches and museums is clearly the same in Belgium as in Germany. Van Gorp (2003) noted the same phenomenon in her research on three Dutch cities: overall, the tourist gaze is directed to similar stuff in each of these cities. However, the appearances and the settings differ: medieval hilltop castles in Reinland-Pfalz, baroque interiors in Bayern and gothic churches in Antwerp - in essence, they are all unique. Moreover, it is not the duty of the guidebook to sell the destination. Usually a tourist has chosen where to go and then buys the guidebook to plan the trip in more detail.

A second strategy of othering that is occasionally applied by guidebooks is the use of stereotypes and clichés. These very selective and simplified images could help to transform nearby places into destinations. Stereotypes and clichés are present in guidebooks but are not omnipresent. As guidebooks have many more pages to fill than a brochure or website does, they can go beyond the stereotypes and clichés (Van Gorp & Béneker, 2007). A limited use of stereotypes and clichés might also be typical of representing nearby places. The audience can be expected to have some firsthand or mediated experience of the place and people. They would not accept obvious stereotypes or clichés. On the other hand, research by the Dutch Clingendael Institute (Dekker et al., 1997, see also Dekker, 1999) has demonstrated that Dutch youth in general have rather negative and selective images of Germany and Germans. A similar research on the perception of Belgium demonstrated that the Dutch youth have less pronounced negative stereotypes of Belgium. The research, however, also demonstrated that Dutch youth have limited knowledge of Belgium (Aspheslag, 2000). Stereotypes and clichés might also be used by guidebooks as a way to draw the reader in. The guidebooks describes the stereotype and then go on to deny it or use the stereotype to further explain the people or country.

Two other strategies were found: virtualisation and emphasising diversity. A focus on the atmosphere directs the tourist gaze to other senses and to the intangible aspects of a place. Virtualisation can take any shape of othering, as it offers 'other experiences', partly by setting places back in time or stressing how different they are. Diversity is something that the guidebooks mention in their introduction to the area. The implied variety of experiences

to be had is why this is considered a means of othering. Perhaps stressing variety is another way to draw readers in. If the country is varied, the guidebook will also be varied. However, these last two strategies were not used as frequently as the focus on monuments and museums.

This analysis has demonstrated that non-specialised guidebooks share certain characteristics, such as the kinds of information they feel tourists need and some strategies of othering. The samples from Antwerp showed that guidebooks even largely agree on the sights that tourists should see. The analysis, however, also demonstrated that guidebooks differ in length, lay out, structure, and regionalisation. They even differ in their degree of using strategies for othering. Although this analysis was based on a small sample, these findings concur with earlier analyses of guidebooks.

This chapter was restricted to tourism texts and thus to what tourists are instructed to gaze at. The circle of representation teaches us that tourists seek out the sights that they are instructed to gaze at and that tourism texts thus influence the perception of places tourists visit, even when those places are nearby. To determine whether monuments and museums represent the sole interest of and reason for Dutch tourists to travel to Germany and Belgium can only be determined with additional research.

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The Dynamics of Temporary Jobs in the Tourism Industry

Fernando Muñoz-Bullón
Universidad Carlos III de Madrid,
Spain

1. Introduction

Since the early 1960s, tourism has become the principal engine of growth in the services sector in Spain. According to the Spanish Statistical Office, tourism accounted for 12.1% of GDP in 2003 and employed around 12% of the total workforce (and 19% of the service sector; see Guardia, 2004). It provides direct employment for over 860,000 people, rising to roughly 1.5 million workers when those employed in related activities are included (Corkhill et al., 2004).

As many tourist activities are mainly seasonal, usually everybody assumes a direct link between the tourism industry and temporary and seasonal employment. In 2004, 32.8% of the sector's employees were on temporary contracts in Spain, a figure which was slightly above the 31.2% national average, and four points larger than the service sector average of 28.4%. In fact, trade unions have called for greater job stability and less seasonal work in the tourism industry so as to achieve a service of greater quality (Jaimez, 2005). Thus, critics argue that the sustained growth in the tourism industry has been achieved at the expense of its workers. In spite of this, there have been surprisingly few attempts to evaluate the career progress in this industry, and, from our perspective, this is the main contribution of this chapter.

Herein, we seek to contribute to the analysis of tourism employment by focusing on an important aspect of the use of temporary contracts in this industry: their pattern of promotion into open-ended contracts. In particular, we use a longitudinal administrative data source from the Spanish Social Security records (*Muestra Continua de Vidas Laborales*, hereinafter MCVL*)* which tracks the labor careers of workers affiliated to the Social Security in 2005 (i.e., the sample is representative of working people in 2005 in Spain). The analysis of temp-to-perm transitions is carried out separately for workers in three different sub-samples. The first one is constituted by individuals who have never been employed in the tourism industry along their labour market history; the second sub-sample is formed by individuals who have been employed for less than 50 percent of their labour history in the tourism industry; the last sub-sample is composed of individuals who have been employed in the tourism industry at least for half of their working history. The objective is, therefore, to measure mobility into permanent contracts, by tracking the work biographies of these three different subsets of individuals. We estimate an econometric model in which the worker faces the alternative of remaining in the same situation characterized by the absence of an open-ended contract versus moving to a permanent job. Our results show that when

individuals have been employed in the tourism industry for less than 50 percent of their working life, tourism experiences represent a springboard into open-ended contracts. On the contrary, when individuals are substantially engaged in the tourism industry along their working life (i.e., those hired in the industry for at least 50 percent of their working life), being hired on a temporary basis in this industry exerts a negative impact as regards their career aspirations: these individuals enjoy a lower likelihood of achieving subsequent open-ended contracts. Thus, recursively working in the tourism industry —which is characterized by seasonality, a large proportion of part-time workers and high labour turnover— implies limited career opportunities.

The chapter is organized as follows. Section 2 addresses the institutional context and briefly reviews previous literature. Section 3 describes the data used. Section 4 presents the empirical model and its main results. We conclude in Section 5.

2. Temp-to-perm transitions and the tourism industry: Spanish institutional background and previous literature

In general, the image of tourism employment appears to be split: on the one hand, tourism jobs possess a certain image of glamour —meeting people and travel are often seen as glamorous and attractive aspects of tourism employment. On the other hand, they are deemed as of low status and skill. In a sense, the positive aspects attributed to tourism employment compete in the image stakes with negative aspects such as low pay, service and menial status. Some of the major touristic businesses are dominated by unskilled and semi-skilled jobs (Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Jafari et. al., 1990). The tourism employee is often seen as "uneducated, unmotivated, untrained, unskilled and unproductive" (Pizam, 1982, pp. 5). As regards Spain, the profile of a "typical" employee in hotels, catering and travel agencies is that of a woman aged 30 to 44 years-old with secondary education, whereas the profile of a typical restaurant employee is that of a woman aged 16 to 29 years-old with elementary education (Jaimez, 2005), although some authors stress the relevance of the simultaneity of hard-to-fill vacancies and skill shortages in the Spanish tourism industry (Marchante et al., 2006).

Tourism employment is characterized by high levels of fluctuation in demand for its services and products, not only in terms of annual seasonality, but also within the timeframe of a week or day —indeed, there is an important literature on seasonality in tourism employment (see, e.g., Baum, 2007). This causes labour to be flexible and makes it, in labour market terms, unstable (Ball, 1989; Riley, 1991; Heerschap, 2004). As labour flexibility is at the very heart of tourism employment, it is worth debating whether or not this can be counted as an attractive aspect of the industry. Tourism has a high degree of seasonality, which can generate a dichotomy between core-periphery workers, with employees in the periphery holding temporary contracts. Given the seasonal and periodic variations in demand in tourism, seasonal (Ball, 1989) and part-time work is common in the industry (Jafari et. al., 1990; International Labour Office, 1989). In Spain, the phenomenon of temporary employment in tourism affects women (43.6%) more than men (30.9%), and people under the age of 30 (56.8%), and some Spanish regions (in particular, Andalusia has a temporary employment rate in tourism of 42%). Broken down by sub-sectors, we find that four out of every ten women employed in the hotel trade is hired on a temporary contract, this ratio dropping to three out of every ten for male workers. There is also a growing trend

of temporary contracts in the restaurants, cafes and bars sectors, accounting for 48.1% of the female workers and 39.9% of male ones (Spanish Labour Force Survey, INE).

This predominance of seasonality and flexible working hours might harm career progress of workers in terms of reaching an open-ended contract compared to other economic sectors. The Spanish economy provides an interest context to contrast this hypothesis because Spain is the OECD country with the largest proportion of wage and salary workers hired on a temporary basis (around 30 percent since the beginning of the nineties). Although temporary contracts are widely used in the Spanish tourism industry (as we explained above), this type of contracts is extended to all economic sectors[1].

The extended use of temporary contracts in many sectors of activity in Spain began with a legal change introduced in the Workers' Charter in 1984 aimed at decreasing the unemployment rate (at that time, the highest one in the OECD, above 20 percent). The main component of this labour market reform was to allow temporary and fixed-term contracts not only for temporary needs of the firm but also for permanent ones. Originally it was intended to increase hiring flexibility, but in fact it represented an increase in firing flexibility, because of the much lower firing costs of temporary contracts compared to open-ended contracts. In very few years, the temporality rate rose from around 10 percent at the beginning of the eighties (Fina et al., 1989) to around 33 percent in 1992 (Toharia, 2006). Such high proportions of workers hired on a temporary basis created different problems for workers and even for firms and the economy as a whole (Toharia & Malo, 2002), such as higher working injury rates, lower levels of skills, decreases in the fertility rate, increasing difficulties faced by young people to obtain mortgages, relevant postponement of new families formation, and a segmented labour market. Different labour market reforms have been implemented in 1994, 1997, and 2006 in order to decrease the use of temporary contracts and to promote the conversion of these contracts into open-ended contracts. Theses reforms have not had a big short-term effect on the use of temporary contracts (in 2007 the temporality rate remained at 31%), although the temporality rate has slightly decreased in the private sector[2].

Literature on transitions from temporary to permanent contracts mainly focuses on whether a 'temporality trap' exists or not. On the one hand, temporary employment may be a 'trap' of endless precariousness especially as duration in the temporary contract increases. First, a temporary contract may serve as a signal as to the lack of alternatives (especially in case that the employer believes that the temporary worker has already been screened by other employees). Second, due to the high turnover usually associated with fixed-term and temporary contracts, temporary work may be associated with limited acquisition of human capital (in the presence of a positive externality connecting specific to general human

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[1] Sometimes, the high temporality rate of Spain has been related to the relative importance of tourism industries and construction. However, Toharia (2006) and Malo & Mato (2006) show (applying shift-share analysis) that the widespread use of temporary contracts is not related to the employment distribution by sectors and that, moreover, the evolution of the temporality rate is not linked to dynamic changes in the distribution of employment by industries.

[2] As Toharia (2005) explains the temporality rate in Spain has been high in the Public Administration at the local level, particularly in municipalities, possibly because local employment measures are strictly linked to the annual public budget and contracts can not go beyond this limit. Thus, some people are hired year by year by municipalities using different types of temporary and fixed-term contracts.

capital). Finally, as search intensity for an open-ended job is expected to decrease with the duration in the non-permanent state, the exit rate from a temporary to a permanent contract is expected to be negatively associated with such a duration.

On the other hand, there are at least two reasons why temporary employment might represent a "springboard" to permanent employment (García-Pérez & Muñoz-Bullón, 2011). First, according to the matching approach, firms may use temporary contracts as a screening device in order to identify the best matches: in this case, more-able workers might signal their type by making themselves available for screening under temporary contracts. In this sense, workers who are able to find a temporary job provide a signal of their quality to potential employers, since being on a temporary contract means that the worker is willing to take a job (rather than, for instance, rely on unemployment benefits). Therefore, temporary job experience may be informative about the ability and motivation of the individual[3]. We would then expect that the rate of transition from a temporary contract to an open-ended contract would decrease as time goes by, since employers will use an individual's labor market history to sort good workers from bad workers and they might perceive (rightly or wrongly) that a previous history of multiple temporary contracts is likely to result in some loss of skills. Secondly, following the human capital approach, being employed under a temporary contract allows the worker the acquisition of human capital (either general or specific) which would positively influence the probability of acquiring a permanent status —in addition to social contacts and information on permanent vacancies, which may allow the individual to deepen his attachment to the labor market, and to search more effectively for more desirable jobs[4].

Therefore, the way in which the accumulation of temporary jobs affects the probability of reaching an open-ended contract is an empirical question. Previous international literature shows results supporting both views. Hagen (2003) for Germany, Zijl et al. (2011) for the Netherlands, Gagliarducci (2005) for Italy, and Engelland & Riphahn (2005) find evidence on temporary contracts as bridges towards permanent employment. However, Booth et al. (2002b) for the UK, D'Addio & Rosholm (2005) for the European Union[5] as a whole, and Blanchard & Landier (2002), find relevant negative effects of temporary employment on labour careers.

Focusing on the Spanish case, the first empirical analysis (up to our knowledge) is Toharia (1996), who finds that seniority is a key variable to determine the transition from a temporary contract to a permanent one, because employers would be interested in using, at least for some workers, temporary contracts to screen for candidates to permanent jobs. Later, Alba-Ramírez (1998) shows that the likelihood of a temp-to-perm transition notably decreased from 1987 to 1995, especially for women, young people, males without studies and for those non-employed prior to their temporary contract. Again, seniority is a key

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[3] Indeed, some studies have shown that employers use atypical contracts as a way of screening for permanent jobs (Storrie, 2002; Houseman et al., 2003).

[4] However, as explained in the literature on career interruption (Mincer & Offek, 1982), unemployment spells following terminations of temporary contracts would make the individual incur not only the permanent loss of firm-specific human capital, but also the deterioration of general skills (Gregory et al., 2001).

[5] They use the European Community Household Panel from 1994 to 1999.

variable to understand the transition toward an open-ended contract[6]. Recently, Toharia & Cebrián (2007) have provided wide empirical evidence explicitly focused on whether or not a temporality trap exists. They use different databases to analyze workers' labour market trajectories. A distinctive feature of this research is that they analyze the patterns of (un)stability not only focusing on the transition towards an open-ended contract but also on the stability of the open-ended contracts too. They find that after a period of 7 seven years (from 1998 to 2004) 39 percent of temporary workers remain in a situation of vulnerability as regards the temporality trap. In addition, using a multivariate analysis they find that the strongest negative effect on the likelihood of being trapped is found for individuals with up to 5 contracts. For additional contracts, the effect remains negative up to 20 contracts, becomes zero between 21 to 39 contracts and positive for 40 or more contracts. These three studies use *logit* specifications, which may be not very flexible when applied to the analysis of the dynamic path of transition rates. Up to our knowledge, duration studies on Spanish conversion rates are those of Amuedo-Dorantes (2000), Güell and Petrongolo (2005), Casquel & Cunyat (2005) and García-Pérez & Muñoz-Bullón (2011). Amuedo-Dorantes (2000) estimates transitions out of temporary employment using Labour Force Survey (LFS) data from 1995:2 through 1996:2, and finds that conversion rates are very low, regardless of job tenure. Güell & Petrongolo (2007) use Labour Force Survey data from 1987:2 through 2002:4 to study the time pattern of permanent employment, and they find that conversion rates of temporary into permanent contracts increase with seniority. Casquel & Cunyat (2005) analyze whether the existence of observable and unobservable characteristics influences the transition rate to a permanent employment and conclude that in Spain temporary contracts do not play this role. García-Pérez & Muñoz-Bullón (2011) analyze temporary workers' transitions into permanent employment for workers under 26 years-old. They find out that the conversion rate from temporary into permanent employment is very low, and that individuals with long unemployment duration flow into permanent work less frequently.

Nevertheless, none of this previous research focuses on the employment in tourism industry, and this is one of the novelties of the present contribution. However, the instability of workers' career in Spain is a worrying issue for policymakers. The main instrument provided by the institutional regulation is a special type of open-ended contract called 'discontinuous open-ended contract' (in Spanish, *contrato fijo discontinuo*). It is an open-ended contract which allows for interruptions of the labour relation because of seasonality. These interruptions (typically, in autumn and winter) are covered either by working elsewhere (for example, in construction) or by receiving public benefits for unemployment. In other words, when each tourist season ends, workers are laid off but they expect an implicit re-call by the same firm in the following tourist season. In the Balearic Islands, this contract is widely used in the tourism industry[7] (see Toharia, 2005, for a wide report on workers hired using these contracts). Considering that the employment variation in the Balearic Islands is around 100,000 people, 40 percent is covered by these special open-ended

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[6] Using cross-section data from 2001 for Spain, García-Serrano (2004) shows that workers with temporary contracts suffer worse labour conditions and face a greater employment exit rate, especially those with tenure lower than 18 months.

[7] In other Spanish regions, as Murcia, this contract is also widely used for seasonal agricultural activities.

contracts whereas the remainder is covered by different types of temporary and fixed-term contracts. As regards earnings, Toharia (2005) concludes that the discontinuous open-ended contract is not harmful for these workers. In our analysis, we will not consider this contract as a special case, because we will focus on the first transition into an open-ended contract. However, any analysis trying to cover the whole trajectory of workers in the tourism industry in Spain should consider as a special case the perm-temp or perm-unemployment transitions from discontinuous open-ended contracts and the successive temp-to-perm contracts.

3. Data and descriptive statistics

3.1 Data and definition of sub-samples

Our data set is a representative sample of all workers included in the Spanish Social Security records in 2005, and it is called Longitudinal Sample of Working Lives (in Spanish, *Muestra Continua de Vidas Laborales*, MCVL). For all these workers, the database includes information about their whole labour market trajectory, i.e., about every employment (and unemployment spell) along their work history (from the moment when they first enter the labor force up to the year 2005). Thus, it is a retrospective database not a panel. Because of this, every conclusion will apply to the Spanish working population in 2005. The variables included refer to the worker's labor market trajectory and their individual characteristics, such as the reasons for the end of each contract, province, economic activity sector, type of contract, whether the contract was signed with a temporary help agency for each spell of employment, as well as age, gender, occupation, duration in employment and in unemployment. The duration of the employment spells are built from the dates of the hiring and the end of the contract and it is measured in months. In addition, for our analysis, we also consider two aggregate variables at the regional and national level: the growth rate of the domestic product (i.e., a control for the business cycle) and the regional unemployment rate (i.e., a control for the local labor market situation).

From the initial database we filter out workers above 55 years-old, and select only individuals who had a temporary contract at least twice in the period analyzed, whose initial contract was of a temporary nature, and who have exclusively been working at the General System of the Social Security (i.e., we exclude self-employed workers).

The analysis of temp-to-perm transitions in the tourism industry is only meaningful when we can compare it with the rest of economic sectors. As along their careers, workers can be hired by firms from different industries, we have divided the total sample into three groups: the first one is constituted by individuals who have never been employed in the tourism industry along their labour market history; the second group is formed by individuals who have been employed in the tourism industry for less than 50 percent of their labour history; and the third one is composed by individuals who have been hired in the tourism industry at least for half of their working history. Since the size of these groups is very large, we extracted random samples out of the first two —a 10% random sample of the individuals belonging to the first group, and a 20% random sample of the individuals belonging to the second group. The final group size is 12,847, 10,481 and 10,949 individuals in the first, second and third sub-samples, respectively.

For our analysis (and for reasons of simplification), we only focus on the first temp-to-perm transition (if any) of the working trajectory of individuals. For individuals never hired under a permanent contract, our sample includes all their employment spells (all of them under temporary contracts). For those who enjoy any temp-to-perm transition, we will consider their first open-ended contract (and, therefore, every temporary contract prior to this first observed open-ended contract). Finally, spells ending in 2005 may be censored. Therefore, in the econometric analysis the sample consists of spells of temporary contracts that can end up either in another temporary contract, in an open-ended contract, or are censored observations. In addition, when tenure in temporary contracts lasts beyond 40 months the observation is considered as censored (given the small number of observations beyond this duration), as well as individuals observed in the last temporary contract of their labour history.

3.2 Variables

We will consider different variables in order to control for both worker and job heterogeneity. We include controls for age, gender, nationality, qualification group (see Table 1), whether the contract is with a temporary help agency, and the employees' activity sector. As indicated above, we also include some aggregate variables such as the growth rate of the gross domestic product and the regional unemployment rate. In addition, we control for the duration (in months) of the non-permanent state by including a second-order polynomial in $log(t)$ – see section 4 below: the type of duration dependence might help understand the role of temporary contracts in the Spanish labour market. Finally, in order to gain flexibility in the specification of the duration dependence and to control for the role of institutional factors we also include several dummy variables that describe some specifics points in time: 6, 12, 18, 24 and 36 months. The first spikes are meant to capture short-run effects, while the longer ones are introduced to capture longer renewal dynamics for temporary workers which can be related to institutional factors (among other things).

Skills Level	Description of corresponding Social Security Contribution Groups
High	1. ingenieros and licenciados - *engineers and graduates* 2. ingenieros técnicos, peritos and ayudantes titulados - *technical engineers and other skilled workers* 3. jefes administrativos and de taller - *chief and departmental heads*
Upper Intermediate	4. ayudantes no titulados - *other semi-skilled workers* 5. oficiales administrativos - *skilled clerks* 6. subalternos - auxiliary workers
Lower-Intermediate	7. auxiliares administrativos - *semi-skilled clerks* 8. oficiales de primera and segunda - *skilled laborers*
Low	9. oficiales de tercera and especialistas - *semi-skilled laborers* 10. peones - unskilled laborers

Note: These groups are proxies for workers' skills level, because these categories are a mix of occupation and educational level required for jobs.

Table 1. Aggregation of Social Security contribution groups into skills levels

Given that we want to test whether the type of the labour path influences the exit rate to a permanent contract, we also include a time dummy variable which collects the number of temporary contracts held by the individuals previous to the last observed employment spell. This last spell consists either of a permanent contract (for the case of uncensored observations) or a temporary contract (for censored observations). This variable allows quantifying the marginal effect of each new spell into the exit rate into permanent employment.

3.3 Descriptive statistics

Table 2 shows descriptive statistics at the time of the first temporary contract considered. In the no-tourism sub-sample, workers are predominantly males, while slightly more women are present in the remainder sub-samples. Workers in the "≥50%-tourism" sub-sample are slightly less likely to be under 45 years-old, although, on average, differences as regards age are not substantial on average among the three groups. In addition, while 10 percent of individuals belonging to the first sub-sample are hired via the intermediation of a temporary help agency, this only occurs for 6 percent of them in the third sub-sample. In addition, individuals in the first sub-sample are substantially more likely to have a high qualification level (as compared to the remainder groups) and to be working either in the financial institutions and business services or in the commerce sector. Note also how tenure in the first temporary contract considered is substantially larger in the first sub-sample (around 10 months) versus the other two (6 and 8 months, respectively). Table 4 shows the decomposition of the temporary contract types for each group considered. The following categories are taken into account: per task contract, casual contract, work-experience contract, training contract, interim contract, and a residual category (named as "Other"). See Table 3 for definitions for each type of temporary contract.[8]

As can be observed, most of temporary contract spells are per task and casual contracts, while interim, work-experience and training contracts only account for a very small size of temporary contract spells. In particular, the former two categories constitute a marginal one in each sub-sample. Work-experience and training contracts are the ones having longer tenure, while interim, casual and per task are the shortest ones. Moreover, by looking at the first spell, the most remarkable finding is that the weight of the "Other" category substantially increases. As regards the "≥50%-Tourism" sub-sample, the per task contract category has a larger weight in the first spell considered when compared to the total number of spells (something which does not occur for the remainder two sub-samples).

Finally, table 5 shows that at relatively short durations, temporary contracts are more likely to end up into another temporary contract. As duration proceeds, the probability of another temporary contract substantially reduces, while the chances of permanent employment increase (up to durations of 6 months)[9]. Therefore, the length of transitions from temporary contracts to open-ended contracts is longer than from temporary contracts into temporary

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[8] In order to know more details on each type of contract, see the *Guía Laboral*, elaborated by the *Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales*, which is freely available in the following web page: http://www.mtas.es

[9] This table shows evidence of some temporary contracts continuing beyond the legal limit of three years. This may be attributed either to the fact that there may be imperfect compliance by employers shortly after the three-year limit, or measurement error (see, in this respect, Güell & Petrongolo, 2007).

contracts. This may imply that employers generally use temporary contracts as a probation period and that "good" matches (in terms of renewal into open-ended contract or temporary contract) last longer.

	No tourism		< 50% in Tourism		≥ 50% in Tourism	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
Sex (Male=1)	0.528	0.499	0.482	0.500	0.475	0.499
Age:						
Age 16-25	0.738	0.440	0.832	0.374	0.648	0.478
Age 25-35	0.200	0.400	0.124	0.330	0.234	0.423
Age 36-45	0.045	0.207	0.034	0.181	0.086	0.281
Age > 45	0.017	0.130	0.010	0.101	0.032	0.177
Temporary Hep Agency (1=Yes)	0.100	0.300	0.080	0.271	0.058	0.234
Qualification level:						
High	0.077	0.267	0.015	0.120	0.016	0.126
Upper-intermediate	0.098	0.297	0.087	0.282	0.093	0.291
Lower-intermediate	0.260	0.439	0.233	0.422	0.281	0.449
Low	0.565	0.496	0.666	0.472	0.610	0.488
Inmigrant (1=Yes)	0.092	0.288	0.105	0.306	0.279	0.449
Employer equal to previous one (1=Yes)	0.380	0.486	0.264	0.441	0.366	0.482
Type of temporary contract:						
Per task	0.263	0.440	0.171	0.377	0.153	0.360
Casual	0.315	0.465	0.364	0.481	0.467	0.499
Work-experience	0.041	0.198	0.009	0.097	0.012	0.110
Training	0.031	0.175	0.040	0.195	0.023	0.149
Interim	0.045	0.208	0.019	0.138	0.024	0.154
Other	0.305	0.460	0.396	0.489	0.321	0.467
Activity:						
Agriculture, Fishing and Extractive industries	0.011	0.104	0.006	0.079	0.004	0.061
Production	0.148	0.355	0.063	0.242	0.032	0.176
Energy and Transport	0.013	0.115	0.010	0.101	0.007	0.086
Construction	0.137	0.344	0.047	0.211	0.027	0.163
Commerce	0.229	0.421	0.144	0.351	0.088	0.283
Tourism	-	-	0.456	0.498	0.672	0.469
Financial institute. & business services	0.271	0.444	0.177	0.382	0.119	0.324
Public Administration	0.040	0.196	0.021	0.142	0.012	0.107
Teaching and Health	0.075	0.263	0.024	0.154	0.014	0.116
Other services	0.076	0.265	0.051	0.220	0.026	0.158
Duration of first temporary contract spell (in months)*	10.403	9.885	5.616	7.367	7.826	8.200
No. Individuals	12,847		10,481		10,949	

Notes: (*) without taking into account censored observations.

Table 2. Main descriptive statistics for the first temporary contract spell

Work Contract Name	Description
Work-Experience (Practice) Contract (*Contrato de prácticas*)	The purpose of this contract is to enable persons who have completed secondary, vocational training or university education to gain work experience according to their educational level.
Training Contract (*Contrato de formación*)	This contract is related to the provision of theoretical and practical knowledge required to perform a skilled job. This contract replaced the old apprenticeship contract in 1997.
Interim Contract (*Contrato de interinidad*)	This temporary contract is related to interim situations in the firm
Per-task Contract (*Contrato de obra o servicio*)	This contract was introduced for temporary needs of the firms related to specific works or services of unknown duration (but presumably not permanent).
Casual Contract (*Contrato eventual por circunstancias de la producción*)	This contract is related to unusual or seasonal circumstances of the goods markets and excess of work in the firm.

Table 3. Description of Work Contract Denominations Used in the Analysis

	n. of spells	%	Mean length	% in first spell
No tourism				
Type of contract				
Per task	29,481	35.88	4.140 (3.483)	26.27
Casual	27,984	34.06	2.923 (2.749)	31.51
Work-experience	1,693	2.06	10.709 (10.469)	4.09
Training	753	0.92	8.422 (8.420)	3.14
Interim	8,721	10.61	2.389 (1.915)	4.52
Other	13,538	16.48	5.653 (5.234)	30.46
<50% in Tourism				
Type of contract				
Per task	25,804	27.31	2.885 (2.575)	17.10
Casual	44,007	46.57	2.302 (2.177)	36.45
Work-experience	653	0.69	9.914 (9.106)	0.94
Training	883	0.93	6.192 (6.204)	3.97
Interim	6,519	6.90	1.881 (1.628)	1.95
Other	16,624	17.59	3.719 (3.608)	39.60
≥ 50% in Tourism				
Type of contract				
Per task	10,099	8.00	4.880 (4.1855)	15.33
Casual	29,670	52.89	3.655 (3.4437)	46.68
Work-experience	414	0.74	10.789 (10.580)	1.22
Training	443	0.79	8.0744 (8.0744)	2.27
Interim	2,826	5.04	2.6535 (2.1591)	2.43
Other	12,648	22.55	5.500 (5.1572)	32.07

Note: sample size is 12,847 individuals, 10,481 individuals and 10,949 individuals for the "No-tourism", the "<50%-Tourism" and the "≥50%-Tourism" sub-samples, respectively.Every individual's first spell is temporary. "Median length" measured in months, in parentheses for complete spells only.

Table 4. Temporary contract spells composition by sub-samples

Spell Length:	No tourism			
	TC-TC		TC-PC	
	n.	%	n.	%
≤1	43,707	63.05	1,604	25.46
>1 & ≤3	9,763	14.08	1,071	17.00
>3 & ≤6	7,501	10.82	1,306	20.73
>6 & ≤12	5,522	7.97	1,220	19.37
>12 & ≤18	1,314	1.90	440	6.99
>18 & ≤24	823	1.19	406	6.45
>24 & ≤30	262	0.38	95	1.51
>30 & ≤36	240	0.35	137	2.17
>36	191	0.28	20	0.32
Total:	69,323	100.00	6,299	100.00
Censored	6,548			
Spell Length:	<50% in Tourism			
	TC-TC		TC-PC	
	n.	%	n.	%
≤1	57,690	68.67	2,134	39.42
>1 & ≤3	11,972	14.25	1,041	19.23
>3 & ≤6	8,015	9.54	1,053	19.45
>6 & ≤12	4,680	5.57	799	14.76
>12 & ≤18	885	1.05	184	3.40
>18 & ≤24	423	0.50	122	2.25
>24 & ≤30	138	0.16	29	0.54
>30 & ≤36	119	0.14	45	0.83
>36	87	0.10	7	0.13
Total:	84,009	100.00	5,414	100.00
Censored:	5,067			
Spell Length:	≥ 50% in Tourism			
	TC-TC		TC-PC	
	n.	%	n.	%
≤1	23494	52.03	2,102	26.31
>1 & ≤3	7465	16.53	1,403	17.56
>3 & ≤6	7,463	16.53	2,013	25.20
>6 & ≤12	5,200	11.52	1,655	20.72
>12 & ≤18	710	1.57	335	4.19
>18 & ≤24	384	0.85	289	3.62
>24 & ≤30	143	0.32	63	0.79
>30 & ≤36	146	0.32	116	1.45
>36	146	0.32	13	0.16
Total:	45,151	100.00	7,989	
Censored	2,960			

Table 5. Length of spell (in months) by type of transition

A preliminary analysis using non-parametric estimation of the hazard rates provides the time profile of the empirical hazard of the exit from a temporary to an open-ended contract (Figure 1). It shows the monthly empirical hazard functions from a non-permanent position for each sub-sample (Kaplan-Meier estimates). These empirical hazard functions collect the proportion of individuals leaving the temporary contract state at each moment in time, given that they have been temporarily employed until that moment (Lancaster, 1990). The figure shows, in the first place, long durations in non-permanent positions. In the second place, the probability of getting an open-ended contract remains basically flat, i.e, reaching a permanent contract is not related with the duration of the previous temporary contract. Therefore, the descriptive empirical evidence does not support the existence of a temporality trap level (in any of the three considered groups). Moreover, although the time profile is the same for the three groups, the rate is higher for those who have been working in this industry for at least fifty-percent of their working life (especially during the first twelve months), while the difference with respect to the other two sub-groups decreases with the duration of the temporary contract.

Finally, it is noteworthy that there are several periods where the empirical hazard is noticeably higher than at surrounding periods: the hazard rates rise to peaks at tenure durations multiple of six (months 6, 12, 24 and 36). These peaks show that temporary contracts are very likely to finish at each of these particular months. Given that no special reason can be adduced to explain why individuals should be dismissed at those months multiple of six, these duration effects are likely due to temporary contract terminations. Similar results are obtained in previous studies (see, in particular, García-Pérez & Muñoz-Bullón, 2005, or Güell & Petrongolo, 2005).
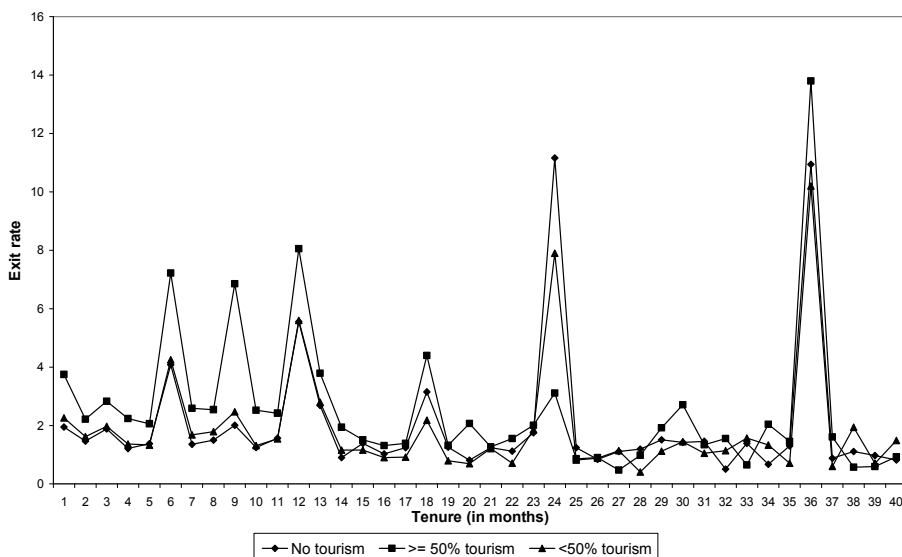

Fig. 1. Exit rate to an open-ended contract (Kaplan-Meier), by sub-samples.

4. Econometric approach: Discrete time duration analysis

The exit rates from employment are analysed using discrete hazard model techniques —see Allison (1982) or Jenkins (1997), for a survey. The hazard rate out of employment into a permanent contract may be defined as the limit of the conditional probability of a transition taking place in a small interval dt after time t if no transition occurs until t, when that interval approaches to zero. Formally, let T_i be the length of individual i's temporary contract spell. Then the hazard for individual i at time t, $h_i(t)$, is defined by the following equation:

$$h_i(t_i, X_i(t), \theta_i) = \lim_{dt \to 0} \frac{\Pr(t + dt > T_i \geq t \mid T_i \geq t)}{dt} = \lambda_0(t) \exp\{X_i(t)'\beta\}\theta_i \qquad (1)$$

where $\lambda_0(t)$ is the baseline hazard function which may take either a parametric or a non-parametric form; $X_i(t)$ is a vector of time-invariant and time-varying covariates for individual i, β is the vector of unknown parameters to be estimated, $i=1\ldots N$ are individual-month observations, and, finally, θ_i captures unobserved individual characteristics that affect the hazard in theory but are unobservable in the data, such as acquired skills, attitudes, motivation, inherent ability and so on.

Now, we define the probability of surviving through any interval dt after having survived the preceding j interval as $(1-h_{ij})$. Therefore, the likelihood contribution of individuals who exit into a permanent contract in the j-th interval is[10]:

$$\Pr[T_i = t] = h_{t_i} \prod_{j=1}^{t_i-1}(1-h_j) \qquad (2)$$

and if we assume that censoring takes place at the beginning of intervals, the likelihood contribution of individuals who find another temporary contract (or are artificially censored) at the start of the jth interval is:

$$\Pr[T_i > t] = \prod_{j=1}^{t_i}(1-h_j) \qquad (3)$$

Then, defining $d_i=1$ if individual i's spell ends in a transition to a job (0 otherwise), the likelihood contribution of the i's individual can be written as:

$$L_i = \left[[\Pr(T_i = t_i)]^{d_i} [\Pr(T_i > t_i)]^{1-d_i} \right] = \left\{ h_{ti} \prod_{j=1}^{t_i-1}(1-h_j) \right\}^{d_i} \left\{ \prod_{j=1}^{t_i}(1-h_j) \right\}^{1-d_i} \qquad (4)$$

where the discrete time hazard in the jth interval for each individual is:

$$h_j = 1 - \exp\left[-\exp(\beta X_i(t) + \gamma_j(t) + \theta_i) \right] \qquad (5)$$

A common but restrictive approach consists of specifying a parametric form for the baseline hazard ($\gamma_t(t)$). This approach is rather strong, given that the assumptions over the form are

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[10] We omit t, X and θ to simplify notation.

difficult to justify from an economic point of view, and provokes a misspecification problem. Instead of this, duration dependence is captured through the additive term $\gamma_j(t)$, which is estimated in the most general way as possible through the inclusion of a second-order polynomial in $log(t)$[11]. This method presents the advantage of being flexible and it is very common in the literature (see García-Pérez, 1997; García-Pérez & Muñoz-Bullón, 2005). A common distribution used for unobserved heterogeneity is the gamma distribution (Meyer, 1990). It can be shown that when θ is gamma distributed with unit mean and variance σ^2, the log-likelihood function is as follows (Meyer, 1990, pp. 770)[12]:

$$
\log L = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left\{ \left[1 + \sigma^2 \sum_{j=1}^{t_i-1} \exp\left(X_{ij}'\beta + \gamma_j(t) \right) \right]^{-\sigma^{-2}} - d_i \left[1 + \sigma^2 \sum_{j=1}^{t_i} \exp\left(X_{ij}'\beta + \gamma_j(t) \right) \right]^{-\sigma^{-2}} \right\} \quad (6)
$$

where $\gamma(t)$ is a function that describes duration dependence in the hazard rate through the inclusion of a polynomial in $log(t)$; and d_i is a dummy variable that is equal to 1 if individual i´s spell ends in a transition to employment and 0 otherwise (censored observations). In the next section we estimate this likelihood function by maximum likelihood to ascertain which personal, job and labour market characteristics influence the duration of spells of temporary contracts that end either in an open-ended or in another temporary contract.

5. Results: The transition rate into permanent employment

Table 6 reports the results obtained from an estimation of the hazard rates for each sub-sample[13]. Censoring (as explained earlier) takes place when some individuals are not observed prior to failure. In the present case, the data are right-censored because we do not observe the transition out of temporary employment for some individuals in the sample (they either continue at their current temporary job or enter a new temporary job). Moreover, as commented in Section 3.1, we have created an artificial right-censoring beyond 40 months, due to the scarcity of observations beyond this duration. Therefore, the hazard model is used to examine the likelihood that workers exit temporary employment and enter permanent employment (versus entering a new temporary job or continuing at the current temporary job). Since Kaplan-Meier estimates for the employment hazard indicate that the likelihood of exiting from employment is significantly higher at the sixth, twelfth, twenty-fourth and thirty-sixth months[14] (see Section 3.3), the specification of the hazard rate includes dummy variables indicating whether or not the individual is on-the-job at such months[15].

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[11] This polynomial offers the best results in terms of significance and likelihood values.

[12] The choice of a gamma distribution is made for computational reasons, which, however, could be debatable (Narendranathan & Stewart, 1993). Alternatively, the distribution could be approximated non-parametrically (Heckman & Singer, 1984). In this case, we would follow a semi-parametric approach based on Heckman & Singer (1984), and we would assume that unobserved heterogeneity followed a discrete distribution function with different mass points.

[13] Though not shown, separate estimations by gender have also been obtained. They are available from the authors upon request.

[14] Other studies (see, for instance, García-Pérez & Muñoz-Bullón, 2005) also show evidence in this respect.

[15] The ratio of the hazard rate of an individual with a dummy variable equal to 1 to the hazard rate of the reference is exp(b). The percentage of increment (detriment) in the hazard rate is calculated as (exp(b)- 1)*100.

	No tourism			≥ 50% in Tourism			< 50% in Tourism		
	Coef.	Std.	Signif.	Coef.	Std.	Signif.	Coef.	Std.	Signif.
Log(t)	-0.567	0.109	***	-0.971	0.120	***	-0.139	0.204	
Log(t)2	1.089	0.090	***	1.859	0.102	***	2.626	0.248	***
Month 6	1.163	0.063	***	0.924	0.059	***	1.011	0.114	***
Month 12	1.310	0.078	***	1.303	0.101	***	1.119	0.147	***
Month 18	0.819	0.121	***	0.949	0.155	***	1.003	0.283	***
Month 24	2.598	0.113	***	2.924	0.165	***	3.030	0.298	***
Month 36	3.051	0.208	***	3.115	0.271	***	3.246	0.506	***
Sex (1=male)	-0.211	0.123	*	0.093	0.138		-0.066	0.258	
Age:									
Age 16-25	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	-
Age 25-35	0.305	0.120	***	0.075	0.145		-0.335	0.264	
Age 36-45	-0.079	0.266		0.287	0.235		0.311	0.630	
Age > 45	0.322	0.412		0.364	0.350		1.747	1.263	
Qualification level:									
High	-0.069	0.197		0.367	0.377		0.028	0.495	
Upper-intermediate	0.416	0.138	***	-0.347	0.162		0.016	0.226	
Lower-intermediate	0.382	0.103	***	-0.135	0.103		0.053	0.155	
Low	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	
Inmigrant	-0.208	0.226		0.386	0.175		0.059	0.457	
Regional unemployment rate (tvc)	-0.036	0.012	***	-0.159	0.015	***	-0.089	0.022	***
Quarterly growth GDP (tvc)	-0.025	0.021		-0.046	0.025	*	-0.023	0.039	
Employer equal to previous one	-0.331	0.085	***	-0.018	0.087		-0.834	0.132	***
Activity:									
Agriculture. Fishing and Extractive industries	-0.048	0.366		-0.519	1.033		-1.334	0.998	
Production	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Construction	-0.791	0.181		0.461	0.360		0.069	0.414	
Commerce	0.335	0.139	***	0.152	0.283		0.431	0.299	
Tourism	-	-	-	-0.603	0.252	**	0.618	0.277	**
Energy and Transport	0.066	0.346		-0.737	0.647		0.484	0.613	
Financial institutions and business services	0.240	0.154		0.268	0.294		0.286	0.333	
Public Administration	-1.016	0.285	***	1.055	0.553	*	-0.376	0.747	
Teaching and Health	-0.552	0.225	**	0.214	0.472		-0.290	0.497	
Other services	0.068	0.194		0.258	0.348		0.688	0.383	*

Table 6. Estimation results for discrete-time model of transitions from a temporary contract to an open-ended contract, by sub-samples (controlling for unobserved heterogeneity)

	No tourism			≥ 50% in Tourism			< 50% in Tourism		
	Coef.	Std.	Signif.	Coef.	Std.	Signif.	Coef.	Std.	Signif.
Number of previous Contracts:									
One contract	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
2-5 contracts	-0.506	0.086	***	-0.103	0.092		0.621	0.178	***
6-10 contracts	-1.051	0.158	***	-0.494	0.182	***	0.647	0.309	**
>10 contracts	-1.267	0.222	***	-0.308	0.282		-0.121	0.394	
Type of contract:									
Per task	-0.246	0.192		-0.933	0.237	***	-0.183	0.358	
Casual	0.284	0.184		-0.465	0.220	**	-0.095	0.347	
Work-experience	-0.615	0.261	**	-2.960	0.494	***	-1.249	0.669	*
Training	-1.474	0.394	***	-1.595	0.447	***	-0.975	0.549	*
Interim	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other	-0.573	0.200	***	-1.214	0.236	***	-0.679	0.364	*
Temporary Help Agency	0.119	0.154		-0.249	0.227		0.117	0.279	
Region:									
Andalucia	-0.936	0.235	***	0.258	0.283		-0.526	0.472	
Aragon	-1.145	0.370	***	-0.981	0.439	**	-1.416	0.677	**
Asturias	-1.307	0.406	***	-0.447	0.421		-0.679	0.710	
Balearic Islands	-0.054	0.423		-2.093	0.303	***	-2.146	0.577	***
Canary Islands	-0.523	0.287	*	-0.702	0.262	***	-0.602	0.513	
Cantabria	-1.256	0.550	**	0.231	0.543		0.153	0.906	
Castilla la Mancha	-0.508	0.293		-0.013	0.446		-0.427	0.631	
Castilla León	-0.711	0.276	***	0.330	0.337		0.002	0.595	
Catalonia	-0.229	0.177		-0.743	0.224	***	-0.417	0.343	
Valencia	-0.556	0.212	***	-0.802	0.263	***	-1.137	0.411	***
Extremadura	-0.546	0.447		0.620	0.702		-0.873	1.079	
Galicia	-1.751	0.282	***	-0.443	0.332		-0.556	0.573	
Madrid	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Murcia	-0.044	0.353		-0.874	0.514	*	-1.895	0.797	**
Navarra	-0.625	0.464		-0.949	0.678		-1.756	1.190	
Basque Country	-0.892	0.279	***	-0.030	0.347		-1.359	0.675	*
La Rioja	0.145	0.576		-0.648	0.659		2.128	1.782	
Constant	-2.549	0.327	***	0.714	0.445	*	-0.500	0.666	
Gamma variance	17.926	1.591	***	20.048	1.165	***	62.170	6.006	***
χ^2 (Prob> χ^2)	24958.4 (0.000)			29712.5 (0.000)			28527.9 (0.000)		
Observations (indiv.-spell)	325,735			242,858			261,819		
Log Likelihood function	**16,770.34**			**18,608.968**			**-11,267.143**		

Notes: Regressions also include dummies for each month of beginning each temporary employment spells (dummy variables for January-February, March-April, May-June, July-August and September-October). "tvc" means time varying covariate. Source: Social Security records, except for the regional unemployment rate and the quarterly GDP growth rate (which have been obtained from the Spanish Labour Force Survey, EPA). χ^2 statistics refers to testing model with unobserved heterogeneity against that without. *** indicates significance at 1%; ** indicates significance at 5%; * indicates significance at 10%.

Table 6. Cont.

Given that our main interest is on the impact arising from the tourism industry on the likelihood of achieving permanent contracts, we have included a set of dummies which collect the activity sector where the individual is employed under the temporary contracts considered[16]. For workers in the ≥50%-tourism sub-sample, the most notable result is the fact that the tourism industry experience implies a substantial detrimental effect on the transition into a permanent contract, a decrease in the hazard rate of 45.3 %, respect to the remainder sectors (with the exception of Public Administration). Individuals with less than 50% of their labour history in the tourism industry enjoy a higher likelihood of achieving a permanent job when the temporary contract is in the tourism industry (an increase of 85.5% in the hazard ratio) compared with the remainder sectors (with the exception of the residual group of 'Other services'). Therefore, a tourism temporary contract might be either beneficial or detrimental, depending on the degree of attachment of the workers' career to such an industry: for those with a weaker attachment, such an experience will serve as a 'springboard' into permanent employment, whereas for those heavily engaged in tourism will be a substantial difficulty for moving into a permanent position.

It is important to notice that individual background previous to the current temporary contract spell is relevant for explaining the transitions across labor careers and it is a good approach to determine whether a 'temporality trap' exists or not. In particular, for the non-tourism group, the chance of transiting into a permanent job reduces as the number of previous contracts is larger (-39.7% for 2-5 previous temporary contracts, -65% for 6-10 contracts, -71.8% for more than 10 contracts). This negative effect also appears in the ≥50%-tourism sub-group, although it is only significant for having 6 to 10 previous temporary contracts (a decrease in the hazard rate of 39%). Therefore, the results show the existence of a temporality trap for non-tourism workers and a 'partial' trap for those with a working career mainly developed in the tourism industry. On the contrary, experiences of several previous temporary contracts exert a positive significant influence on the likelihood of transiting into a permanent job in the <50%-tourism sub-sample, up to a total of ten previous contracts (an increase in the hazard rate of 86.1% for 2-5 contracts and of 91% for 6-10 contracts). Again, we find a positive effect of temporary contracts on their prospects of reaching a permanent job for those occasionally engaged in tourism.

The variables for tenure in temporary contracts (6, 12, 18, 24, and 36 months) have a positive and very significant effect on the hazard rates, independently of the sub-sample considered. Therefore, as expected, temporary contracts are more likely to end at integer monthly durations. An eventual interpretation is that firms may be converting temporary contracts into permanent ones, once the legal limit for the temporary contract has been reached. Moreover, the hazard at durations multiple of six is higher for individuals who have been employed for more than half of their working history in the tourism industry than for the sub-group where individuals have been employed in this industry for at least 5 percent of their working lives. The fact that the time pattern of transitions into permanent contracts is

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[16] Of course, for the group of workers never hired in the tourism industry the set of industry dummies of the temporary contract does not include tourism. For those individuals without experience in the tourism industry along their work history, holding a temporary contract in the commerce, in agriculture, in the fishing or extractive industries or in the financial institutions and business services sectors, makes them enjoy a higher likelihood of entering regular employment than in the production sector. On the contrary, worse expectations as regards the exiting from temporary positions arise in construction, public administration and in teaching and health activities.

lower for those with a higher attachment to the tourism industry may imply either that the latter tend to occupy less productive job matches (which are thus less likely to be converted into permanent ones before the legal limit) or that they are in a weaker bargaining position than individuals in other industries, as they may be more easily replaced.

However, when the employer in the current temporary contract is the same as in the previous one, the probability of reaching an open-ended contract decreases, -28.2% for non-tourism workers, and -56.6%for the <50% -tourism sub-sample. These results show that employers do not use temporary contracts as screening devices when they subsequently hire the same workers through temporary contracts. Nevertheless, results do not show this effect for the >50%-tourism sub-sample.

One might expect that workers who accept a temporary job are initially strongly attached to that job, for instance, for contractual reasons. In some sense, this is true, since the negative estimated effect for duration dependence is reversed as tenure in the temporary job increases. In particular, the predicted transition into regular employment slightly increases after a period of ten months (a similar finding is obtained by Zijl et al., 2011). This effect applies to the three sub-samples of workers: the probability of finding a permanent contract decreases during the initial months of temporary employment, but increases thereafter. Thus, temporary employment duration initially presents a temporary penalty effect, since this negative impact disappears for long enough employment durations. A likely interpretation for this result is that sufficiently long experiences of employment increase worker's human capital, and this fact may help her find a permanent job (compared to workers whose tenure in temporary employment is shorter). Apparently, employers may prefer individuals who have occupied a temporary job for time enough, given that this may constitute a positive signal. An increasing size of the social network among temporarily employed workers may also explain this. In addition, as the temporary contract goes on, given its fixed-term nature, the worker may increase search intensity. This may also explain the observed positive effect on the job finding rate.

For a female temporary worker the probability of achieving a permanent contract does not significantly differ from that of men either in the ≥50%-tourism group or in the <50%-tourism sub-sample, while they are in a disadvantaged position (relative to men) in the non-tourism group. Age has a positive effect on the likelihood of transiting from temporary contracts into an open-ended contract, though only for the 25 to 35 age category in the no-tourism sub-sample. Thus, individuals in the 25-35 age groups are more likely to enter into permanent employment. Probably, these workers have more firm-specific human capital than the youngest ones, which is highly valued by employers. In addition, it is a fact that younger workers are more willing to move from jobs (and employers) for improving their job match, even though this may imply an experience of unemployment, and eventually settling in a more stable career path (Jensen et al., 2003). In addition, the type of temporary contract held in the temporary contract spell is another relevant determinant of the transitions. Having an interim contract increases the probability of achieving a permanent contract. On the other extreme, we find training and work experience contracts, which present a detrimental effect on the movement into regular employment.

As regards macroeconomic conditions, out of a temporary contract spell, the unemployment rate has a negative impact on the transitions into an open-ended contract. Thus, when the unemployment rate is high, firms can keep on searching for better employees and so the

probabilities that a worker is renewed or converted into a permanent job are lower. Lower unemployment implies better outside opportunities for temporary workers in search for better jobs, and this enables them to more credibly threat their employer in case of low conversion rates. On the contrary, the effect of the GDP growth rate is mostly non-significant. There are some differences as regards the region of residence. In the no-tourism sub-sample, compared to Madrid, it is workers in Galicia, Cantabria, Asturias and Aragon who are substantially less likely to achieve a permanent contract. On the contrary, in the remainder groups, Balearic Islands is the region where exiting from employment into regular work is more difficult (which is one of the most important regions as regards tourism employment), closely followed by Murcia and Valencia (where tourism is very relevant too). Anyway, being in the Balearic Islands heavily decreases the probability of transiting towards a permanent employment either for those with a large or weak attachment to the tourism sector (in both cases, the hazard rate decreases by around 88%).

Finally, one should note that the size of the gamma mixture distribution relative to its standard error suggests that unobserved heterogeneity is significant in this dataset. Thus, unobserved individual heterogeneity would be a serious concern without the methodological approach of this econometric estimation.

6. Conclusion

While academics and tourism planners have recognized that community involvement in tourism is essential —and, as a result, tourism is promoted in policy agendas on the grounds that it will enhance the lives of local people— limited attention has been paid to the stability of the jobs created in this sector. This article has addressed the relative neglect (as compared, for example, with infrastructure, transportation or marketing) of career progress in the tourism industry. In particular, we have investigated how temporary contracts affect the transition rate into permanent employment in Spain. Our focus has been especially placed on a comparison between a sub-group of individuals with a large attachment to the tourism industry (more than the 50% of the working career in tourism) versus two other sub-groups where this attachment is either non-existent or low (strictly zero and below 50%, respectively). For this purpose, we have applied single-spell duration techniques to a longitudinal data set of temporary workers obtained from Social Security records, which is representative of Spanish working population in 2005 (and, therefore, the information about working lives is retrospective). We have focused our analysis on the transition (if any) to the first open-ended contract of all individuals for the three described sub-samples.

Two main conclusions from the data analysis are drawn. First, for those individuals with a weaker attachment to the tourism industry (below the 50 percent of their working career) a temporary contract in the tourism industry increases around 85% the likelihood of obtaining an open-ended contract, while for those with at least 50 percent of their working career in tourism a temporary contract in the tourism industry decreases the same probability by 45 percent. Therefore, temporary contracts in tourism are not harmful for career stabilization prospects when working in tourism industry is occasional but it is clearly detrimental when the worker is very linked to this economic sector.

Second, the analysis supports the existence of a 'temporality trap' for Spain (in this line see Güell & Petrongolo, 2007, García-Pérez & Muñoz-Bullón, 2011, or Toharia & Cebrián, 2007): even though transitions into permanent employment increase with tenure, temporary jobs

do not constitute stepping stones towards permanent employment since the probability of obtaining a permanent job decreases with repeated temporary jobs. However, this result depends on the relative attachment to specific sectors (here, the tourism industry) of the working careers of individuals. For those workers with an occasional engagement in the tourism industry, temporary contracts (and even accumulating temporary contracts) are, on the contrary, 'springboards' towards open-ended contracts.

7. Acknowledgment

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The Importance of Hypertext in the Tourist Destination Choice from Web Sites

Raúl Valdez M.
Universidad de las Américas Puebla,
México

1. Introduction

The global economy in the next century will be driven by information technology, telecommunications, and tourism. The international focus of the tourist business will be based on the nature of tourist activity itself. This defines very specific characteristics of the tourist sector which need to cope with the large distances usually involved between the origin and destination of travelers. Also, new tourist business will be influenced by the intangible nature of tourist products which are usually sold away from the place of consumption. In this respect, Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) are offer great potential concerning with the worldwide, timely and up-to-date information provision (Stratigea & Giaoutzi, 2006).

E-Commerce can be defined as the marketing, buying and selling of products and services on the Internet (Awad, 2004). By means of E-Commerce, companies are selling and buying goods and services to consumers around the world, thus, generating business transactions and improving ordering and payment processes. Now, E-Commerce, is used everywhere for everything across the entire world and can be defined in several ways.

From a communications perspective, E-Commerce entails the ability to deliver products and perform business processes via Internet networks. From a market approach, E-Commerce is a worldwide network offering companies a global webstore front. Finally from a business-process perspective, E-Commerce offers the possibility of establishing B2B processes like supply-chain management, or B2C process as merchandise delivery.

The fast adoption of ICT) around the world and the expansion of Internet have affected a great proportion of industries like tourism in many countries in Europe and America. Only in the last few decades, ICTs have deeply affected the way business is performed and the way that organizations compete (Buhalis & Licata, 2002). As a powerful tool, Internet has shifted the traditional way in which tourism and travel products are distributed (O'Connor & Frew, 2000). Tourism suppliers took advantage of the new opportunities and developed E-Commerce applications by allowing users to access directly their products (Buhalis & Licata, 2002). The increasing rate of online transactions and the fast growth of online users provide clear evidence of the popularity of the communications technology. Customer-oriented and information-intensive tourism enterprises are increasingly adopting E-Business models to achieve their organizational goals (Buhalis & Licata, 2002; Law, Qi, & Buhalis, 2010).

Today, the understanding of travel information searchers' behavior on the Internet is essential to the design of useful Internet-based technology. Searching through the Internet is an interactive process between travelers and hypertext (the Internet) implemented through a computer and a web browser. Then, the understanding of travel information searchers' behavior on the Internet is essential to the design of useful Internet-based technology.

Travel planning involves many sub-decisions and can be viewed as a dynamic and contingent process where the central decisions are made at the beginning of travel planning (Fesenmaier & Jeng, 2000). The Internet is an interactive hypertext system where information nodes are "hyperlinked" according to their relevance (Boechler, 2001). Travelers may consider "where to go" or "what to do" as the most important element in travel planning process; however, the tourism destination marketers may display other information on the first page of their websites. In this way, when travelers' search for information on the Internet, their choices of links are determined by the value of relevance of the link anchors (linked texts, pictures or contextual information). Then, the Internet allows a great variety of different tools that enable communication and sharing of data as E-Mail, Usernet, Listserv, Gopher, Telnet and others tools such as HTML (Hypertext Mark-up Language) which provide for convergence of information processing through the World Wide Web (WWW).

2. Tourism and E-commerce

2.1 Tourism and the web

Tourism is a key element of modern societies. It has contributed to local and regional economic development. Probably no other technological development has affected people's behavior so noticeably in such a short period the way the Internet has. In 2005, approximately 61% of the US population consisted of Internet users. The use of the Internet is similarly high in other countries, such as South Korea: 66%, Australia: 60%, Japan: 57%), Canada: 56%, UK: 53, and Germany: 50% (Gertner, Berger, & Gertner, 2006).

Use of Internet has grown 146.2% between 2000 and 2005 around the world. Several regions of the world have grown even faster. For example, the number of Internet users in Latin American and the Caribbean Countries grew 211.2%. By 2011, the number of worldwide Internet users was reached nearly two billion out of a population of approximately 6.93 billion (Stats, 2001). As we can see, changes in the economic, cultural and technological environments have definitely encourage consumers to increase the use of the Internet in their quest to save time and money by means of popular search engines, such as Yahoo and Google which are constantly improved to provide faster access of information for travelers (Mitchell, 2006).

Distribution becomes one of the most critical factors for competitiveness in tourism business. Appropriate distribution systems allow the building of bridges between destinations and travelers providing mechanisms for purchasing tourism products and destinations. To the degree that distribution systems facilitate the transactions they extensively influence the prosperity of tourism enterprises and destinations around the world.

Internet has strengthened the relevance of electronic intermediaries and changing their positions as strategic suppliers to a degree that they can substitute traditional distribution channels.

On-line communications assist travelers to access communication channels at a general level or a special interest level, Virtual communities can be established between people with common interests enhancing the global knowledge basis by sharing advice based on personal experience (Buhalis D., 2003). The ways that consumers search for already evaluated travel information is currently changing with the rising popularity of websites that contain content submitted by real travelers (e.g., TripAdvisor, Lonely Planet, MySpace, Facebook, and YouTube) (Cox, Burges, Sellitto, & Buultjens, 2009). This is possible now using Web 2.0, which refers to the second generation of web-based services letting people collaborate and share information online in more sophisticated ways. Web 2 enables any individual to post their own content, opinions, videos, audio, or imagery on the web for other users to see and respond to. Also, Web 2.0 is changing the way that consumers engage with information presented via the Internet.

It is generally accepted that the Internet can serve as an effective marketing tool in tourism. The fast development of E-Commerce has dramatically changed the tourism industry (Buhalis, 2003; Ho & Lee, 2007; Buhalis &Law, 2008). One of the most recent developments in E-Tourism application is at the destination level. By employing Internet, Intranet and Extranet, many tourism organizations have successfully integrated this function in promoting destinations, providing tourists with pre-trip and in-trip information, helping small and medium tourist enterprises to promote their products, and internal management tasks (Buhalis D. , 2003; Buhalis D. , 1998; Xiaoqiu, Buhalis, & Song, 2003). The strategic and efficient implementation of technology within a business can reduce the operation costs and enable the delivery of better products or services to customers. This will help the company to gain competitive advantage by either maintaining its price leadership in the market or differentiating its products and services, which will eventually lead to the increase in value added to the company (Xiaoqiu, Buhalis, & Song, 2003).

Personal computers (PC) do much more than a mainframe in the past. They have revolutionized the modern business world introducing a great variety of processing capabilities to Internet users. In tourism, a wide range of ICT technologies are used in order to reduce the cost and time required for undertaking particular activities. Networking is also a key factor supporting communications and interconnectivity between tourism companies and/or travelers. Electronic data interchange enables organizations to transfer data such as passenger lists, invoices and other documents maximizing the efficiency and effectiveness of their business operations. Computer reservation systems (CRSs) and global distribution systems (GDSs) represent technological solutions and transaction mechanisms between travel agencies, hotels, airlines, tourist destination, car rental firms, etc. CRSs and GDSs empower Internet travel portals enabling tourist enterprises to reach travelers directly. In this way, small and medium tourism enterprises benefit from ICT technologies and can pool the resources of their partners within extranet tools and compete with other larger companies.

2.2 Promoting tourist products by websites

From its emergence in the world of business, the Internet has been adopted by many companies in the marketing of products and, today, the web is an important advertising medium (Hanna & Millar, 1997). Businesses, including customer-oriented and information-

intensive tourism enterprises, are increasingly adopting E-Business models to achieve their organizational goals. ICTs and particularly web based advertising tools have been used to redefine tourism and deliver products to end consumers (Law, Qi & Buhalis, 2010; Aaron, 2006; Gretzel, Yuan & Fesenmaier, 2000).

Internet advertising significantly impacts travel and purchase behavior (Buhalis & Licata, 2002; Tierney, 2000) and provides a medium to disseminate information to consumers in the form of interactive scenarios between travelers and companies. Tourism literature has found that attractive and stimulating advertising content design produces a positive perception of destinations promoted in websites (Wu, Wei, & Chen, 2008).

The Internet's ability to bring travel and hospitality services and products "live" to consumers and the consumers' ability to access the information without time and space limitation are surprising. Travel is one of the most popular items people tend to be comfortable with purchasing over the Internet. Considering the continuous growth of and interest in the Internet, travel marketers must pay attention to the Internet application on marketing strategies and travel information distribution (Lin, 2005).

According with several survey companies (US Destination Marketing; Forrester Research, Trip Advisor; Bust Media, AC Nielsen) and other related travel organizations, features such as room availability and rates, travel promotions, travel bulletins and alerts, chat/forum links and, information about travel destinations are those that most encourage internet user to utilize travel websites around the world. Over one–half of travel web users traveled to cities featured in tourism portals and approximately one-third of them research trips via internet.

Everyday increases the number of tourist destinations utilizing websites to compete in tourist markets at local, regional or international levels. This is not a unilateral decision but a competitive strategy focused to cope the new forms of searching information by travelers more and more independents from traditional communication channels. Forecast statistics demonstrate that in USA online leisure and individually booked business travel sales are projected to reach US $162.4 billion in 2012, and travel planning online increases spectacularly by means of the literally thousands of websites (e.g. Lonely Planet, Travel Online, Travel Notes, Itravel net, When We...Get There, etc.) existing now around the world (Miller, Washington, & Miller, 2009).

Compared to traditional media, the Internet is instantaneous and low-cost. It provides a medium to disseminate information to consumers in the form of interactive scenarios; it also aids destination managers in identifying target markets and in accurately matching traveler's demands, hence, websites benefit enterprise–consumer relationships, help increase brand value, and allow the creation of a tourist image.

Traditional media were previously used to deliver messages; if consumers noticed a tourist-destination advertisement, they had to physically travel to a store to make a purchase. Now, Internet stores combine both advertising and purchasing, thus enabling consumers to make a purchase instantly. The websites, therefore, encourages impulsive purchasing compared to traditional media.

Successful tourist websites draw customers into purchasing or viewing the product or a company in a more favorable light. Recall is higher when we are exposed to continuous and

visual stimuli that tourist websites offer to potential travelers. Diverse studies demonstrate that 85% of advertising, marketing, and sales companies believe online advertising aims to increase traffic to the websites promoted. Viewing a banner on a website can convey a message; therefore, regardless of whether the consumer clicks or not, simply viewing a banner increases the chance of a purchase. (Wu, Wei, & Chen, 2008).

Tourist websites content is a key success factor in Internet promotion and, if the content is congruent with traveler attitudes, beliefs, and values, the effect of promotional ads is enhanced. Online promotional sites content includes variables such as: web interface, background colors, pictures, sound effects, textual content and dynamic techniques that also contribute highly to advertisements' results. Studies conducted in Asian consumers establish that consumers recall advertisements more effectively if they display images and texts. In contrast, confusing website designs have negative effects on the perception of tourist products and destinations, and decrease purchases generated by the website. Furthermore, others studies found that animated information is more likely to be recalled correctly; however these studies also establish that animation does not help the recall of advertisements. Furthermore, users may remember animations on web pages, those animations are not necessarily related to advertising content (Wu, Wei, & Chen, 2008).

Finally, the degree of personal involvement is a significant mediator for tourists' attitudes toward the website and its promotional effect. It has been determined that websites that engage and entertain travelers are more likely to be "clicked". Certainly, the degree of need, the value placed upon, and interest generated by a tourist destination and/or tourist attraction affects consumer interest levels.

3. Consumer behavior in the E-commerce

3.1 The use tourists make of the web

Information communication technologies have been applied in tourism since the early adoption of Computer Reservation Systems (CRS) in airlines in 1950s. The evolution of ICT application in tourism is evident in the transformation of CRS to Global Distribution Systems (GDS).

Due to the widespread use of the Internet as an important source of information, many tourist enterprises have shifted from printed brochures to the Internet during the last few years. By using the Internet, tour operators, intermediaries and DMOs can customize information and increase the speed of information transmission to potential travelers. Today, millions of travelers use the Internet to make travel plans such as getting information on destinations or checking prices and schedules. Various studies have shown the direct fit of the Internet environment for the marketing of travel and tourism products (Lin, 2005; Buhalis & Licata, 2002).

The Internet is widely used as a means to deliver up to-date content. As a result, it created the conditions for the emergence of a wide range of new tourism E-Mediaries (Buhalis & Licata, 2002).

Web site development and Internet access have become popular and easy to use, broadening the scope of the production and consumption of this media. Most Internet users are from the western world (e.g. European and North American countries) and most

alternative tourist destinations are in the less developing nations. The United States, Europe, and Japan account for near of 81% of the world's Internet population, adding up to 41% of foreign tourism expenditure. The typical user visits 25 websites a week spending as little as 48 seconds on each site. Hence, this short amount of time means that alternative tourist destinations are advertised seductively for the virtual tourist's gaze, designed specifically to attract the hurried user (Holman, 2011). However, the study carried out by Pan & Fesenmaier (2006) established that travel planners can also stay for longer periods of time searching on tourist websites in order to choose the right leisure place, and, if the Web site contains the information that potential tourists are looking for, the information search process will be more efficient and satisfactory.

Consumer behavior concerns the process that consumers use to select, use and dispose of products, services, experiences or ideas to satisfy their needs and desires. All marketing strategies and sales tactics are based on implicit beliefs and concepts about consumer behavior. Decisions based on consumer behavior theory are more likely to be successful than decisions that are based solely on intuition. Thus, knowledge of consumer behavior can be an important competitive advantage for tourism enterprises.

To survive in a fiercely competitive environment, companies must provide target consumers with more value than is provided by competitors, but it is important to understand what value means from the customer perspective, because providing superior customer value allows companies to do a better job of anticipating and reacting to consumer needs than the competition (Hawkins, Mothersbaugh, & Best, 2010). Basically, a marketing strategy is a set of decisions and commercial actions focused to provide superior customer value to target markets. This set of decisions and actions constitutes the marketing mix; that is to say, the product, price, communications, distribution and services provided to the target market.

Consumer behavior on the web has been the subject of considerable research in the last few years because online consumers are both shoppers and computer users. In this new context, online consumers perform all the functions of traditional consumers on a computer while interacting with a system, thus, the physical store has been transformed into a virtual store through many tools of ICTs. Web-based stores use networks and Internet technology for communications and transactions between companies, but also between enterprises and consumers.

In last seventeenth years, online consumer behavior has become an emerging research area with an increasing number of publications per year. Results of this research have been published in a variety of journals and conference proceedings in the fields of information systems, marketing, management, and psychology. Most of the components of consumer behavior theory have been applied to the study of online consumption, however, results demonstrate that there are significant differences between offline and online consumer behavior that warrant a distinguishing conceptualization.

Between 1994 and 2002, close to three hundred and fifty articles concerning online consumption were published in more than thirty journals around the world. The major subjects of these publications refer to well developed theories such as the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), the Expectation-Confirmation Theory (ECT) and the Innovation Diffusion Theory (IDT) (Cheung, et al., 2003).

Early studies on online consumer behavior largely were oriented to explore how consumers adopt and use Internet tools. Later, other studies found that: a) personal innovativeness is a key personality trait that explains consumer online purchase, b) internet shopping is strongly affected by the presentation mode, search engines, and navigation structure of product items, c) trust in an Internet store is a salient determinant of online shopping, and, d) consumer trust and satisfaction were the key antecedents of continued purchase.

In recent years, studies seem to be oriented to build models to understand the main aspects of consumer behavior online (e.g. information acquisition, purchase decision, reasons for not shopping online, etc.). Several studies aim to determine if online consumers think and act differently than offline consumers; other studies attempt to explain why online consumers are more demanding and utilitarian in their shopping expeditions; and, finally, diverse studies try to determine the reason by which customer loyalty on the web is generally low in comparison with offline customers.

On the other hand, business-to-consumer (B2C) electronic commerce depends not only on consumer acceptance of Internet technologies as viable transaction means, but on consumer recognition of web retailers as reliable suppliers. Because it exist a spatial and temporal separation between consumers and web retailers, the Internet infrastructure generates an implicit uncertainty around on-line transactions. Certainly, a risk of monetary loss exists, since consumers have to rely on electronic information and thus become vulnerable to incomplete or distorted information provided by web retailers, and also, a risk of loss of privacy derived from providing personal information to web retailers (Pavlou, 2003).

In the new electronic competition, web stores have responded to the call for customer control by providing various site features like internal search engines and systems to enable consumers to easily find what they need, learn more about products/services and quickly purchase them. Thus, product information search can be a fun-seeking experience and can improve consumer decision making through complex, nonlinear, and nondirected queries being an important incentive for people to shop online (Koufaris, 2002). Other studies about on-line adoption of consumer search and purchase behavior for textile and apparel products demonstrate that there exists a positive and significant relationship between: 1) the perceived benefits of Internet shopping, 2) the frequency of shopping on-line, 3) the frequency of purchasing, and 4) the amount of time spent shopping online. Indeed, results also showed that perceived benefits were a positive predictor of future intentions to visit and purchase online while risks related negatively to future intentions to purchase online (Forsythe, Kim, & Petee, 2004).

Five major domain areas seem to emerge in the literature concerning online consumer behavior: consumer profile, environmental influences, product/service features, medium characteristics, and online merchant and intermediary characteristics.

Consumer profiles refer to the factors such as demographics, personality, value, lifestyle, attitude, consumer resources, consumer psychological factors behavioral characteristics, motivation, and experience. Environmental factors like culture, social influence, peer influence, and mass media play an important role in consumer purchasing decisions.

As well as in offline purchasing, price, quality, and product type constitute three key elements in shaping consumers' perception online. Attributes such as ease of use, quality,

security and reliability are included in the study of electronic commerce systems. Indeed, web specific factors such as ease of navigation, interface and network speed are also considered. Finally, factors pertaining to merchant and intermediaries characteristics like service quality, privacy and security control, brand/reputation, delivery/logistic, and post sales services integrate the broad field of online consumer behavior (Koufaris, 2002; Pavlou, 2003; Cheung et al., 2003).

3.2 The tourist destination choice from websites

Through the increased use of the Internet, the tourism website has emerged as a useful lens with which to examine the shifting nature of global flows of information, experience and consumer behavior. Nowadays, in tourism business, destinations must design online marketing strategies to succeed in their efforts to attract visitors. The business of promoting travel destinations online has become very important. In 2005, a survey of 18,000 online consumers in 18 countries showed that in 14 of those countries the web was the most important source of information employed by Internet users in deciding where to go for their vacations. Today, there are several developers whose specialty is the creation and hosting of country websites. For example, Virtual Countries (*www.virtualcountries.com*) creates websites that provide information to viewers interested in topics about the countries in question. Countries can be taught to use marketing to manage their promotional activities in creating a brand that facilitates worldwide tourism.

A strong country brand with a clear focused image can be used to attract tourists, investors, and businesses that will stimulate the economy and create economic growth. In Europe the shaping of image and marketing of a country has been put into action in countries such as Germany, France, Portugal, Estonia, and Poland.

Tourism destinations are being treated as commodities by commercial operators, public sector managers and other organizations. Destinations are treated as products and specifically, holiday destinations are considered place-products within a marketing system. However, there are a number of intrinsic characteristics of place-products that are distinctly different from most traded goods and services. The influence of these characteristics of the place-product upon the marketing process is fundamental to understand the tourist behavior.

To describe a tourism destination as a tourist product is to treat a place simultaneously as both a container for an assemblage of products and as a product in itself. Thus, if the tourist-destination product is an assemblage of differentiated elements located at, or relating to, a place, then, it is not the totality of all potential elements which is in itself the product. In this sense, we can consider that tour operators and other intermediaries sell an assembled group of items but equally each individual destination is unique to the extent that the experience derived from each element in the destination is unique to a particular traveler. Hence, each tourist destination being sold is likely to be different than that which is being bought. Indeed, destinations are sold as products not only to potential tourists but to many other groups of travelers. Precisely the same physical space, and also, the same facilities in that space are sold simultaneously to different travelers as quite different products.

Destination branding involves the creation of a single, strategic idea that captures what the country/destination has to offer. Nevertheless, destination marketers must be sure that the

country can deliver on the promises made, because as marketing theory suggests, an image must be founded in reality with discernible substantiation via events, attractions, people, and accommodations. In sum, the positive associations of a country's name have the potential of influencing attitudes toward the country's products (Kotler & Gertner, 2002). By creating a strong, viable image, the country hopes to transfer the image to the various products and services it markets.

The capacity to offer travelers a flexible and personalized relationship is probably one of the most important advantages offered by E-Commerce to tourism retailers. It allows them to provide accurate and timely information to consumers which, in turn, often generate additional sales. Also, personalization increases the level of loyalty consumers hold toward a retailer.

Consumer decision process intervenes between the market strategy-as implemented in the marketing mix- and the outcomes. This is, the outcomes of the firm's marketing strategy are determined by their interaction with the consumer decision process. A company can succeed if consumers see a need that its product can solve, choose this product, proceed to buy it and become satisfied with the results of the purchase. Thus, consumer satisfaction is a major concern of companies. A central component of consumer decision process is the problem recognition. Problem recognition involves a discrepancy between consumers' desired state (what they would like) and their actual state (what they perceive as already existing). Hence, if this discrepancy is sufficiently large and important, consumers will search for solutions.

Once a problem is recognized, relevant information from consumers' memory (internal search) or from external sources is used to determine if a satisfactory solution exists. Memory of past searches, personal experiences and learning are the mayor internal sources. Personal sources (friends, family, product trial, etc.), independent sources (magazines, government agencies, consumer reports, etc.) and marketing sources (websites, advertising, promotional activities, etc.) represent the primary sources of information available to consumers.

Today, a most relevant external source of information used by consumers is the Internet or World Wide Web (WWW). The Internet is a network of computers that any computer with access to a phone connection can join. WWW consists of search engines, websites, specific addresses or files in the network, to access to those with the requested characteristics.

The Internet contains market data in the form of advertising messages associated with search, entertainment, and general information sites and Internet presence Sites (IPS) also called home pages. A home page is a Web site created and maintained by organizations (enterprises, government agencies, altruist organizations, cultural organizations, etc.) or individuals that provide detailed product and organizational data. The presence of a Web address in an advertisement enhances a variety of aspects of the firm's image, including being customer-oriented, responsive, sophisticated, and successful (Hawkins, Mothersbaugh, & Best, 2010). Also, into the Web pages, banner ads are a very important promotion tool. Banner ads represent today a powerful mean to lead consumers to the company or product home page. In tourism industry, the banners ads play a very important role connecting travelers with thousands of websites of travel agencies, hotels, transportation companies, restaurants, car rental companies, etc. and, maybe more important, with thousand of tourist destination sites available to be chosen.

In this context, tourist destination managers must visualize major decisions concerning the use of Internet. In effect, they must decide to create or not a Web site to promote their travel destination. Having a destination Web site, they need to decide if the site should be active or passive. A passive Web site focused on providing only specific information about a tourist destination whereas an active Web site allows the destination managers to develop a relationship with visitors over time and provide them with additional information related to the site facilities and other tourist attractions and services. However, no matter if a Web site is active or passive, it needs to be easy to access, up-to-date, logical and oriented to travel needs. The more complete and interactive the Web site, the more effective and useful it will be for marketing and commercial purposes.

The term Web 2.0 refers to a second generation of web-based services that allow people to collaborate and share information online in previously unavailable ways. Thus, Web 2.0 enables any traveler to post their own content, opinions, videos, audio, or imagery to the web for other travelers to see and respond to. Web 2.0 includes the ability to integrate information in new forms, the desire to harness distributed knowledge, and the need to engage users as codevelopers (Cox, Burges, Sellitto, & Buultjens, 2009). In a study realized by Gretzel (2007) about the impact of on-line travel reviews on consumers, results reveal that looking at other consumers comments/materials on online travel review sites' was the most frequently used source of information. Indeed, Hyung-Park, Lee, & Hang (2007) establish that online consumer reviews are often considered more trustworthy and credible than information which is provided by suppliers of products and services, presumably because consumers provide more trustworthy information.

As potential travelers increasingly visit tourist websites, their expectations for easily accessed and useful information shown in an entertaining format will increase. Consumer characteristics of travelers affect perceptions about benefits and search costs of use websites. A satisfying experience with a particular destination increases the probability of a repeat choice of this destination. In contrast, a negative travel experience decreases the likelihood of travel to the same place and/or choice a similar destination. Travelers who are highly involved with a destination category normally seek information relevant to the destination category on an ongoing basis. This ongoing search reduces the need for another kind of search before a choice. Research has demonstrated that tourists use different types of online information sources depending on where they are at in the travel planning process—that is the pre-trip, during trip and post-trip stages (Choi, Letho, & O'Leary, 2007; Seabra, Abrantes, & Lages, 2007). However, other studies have found that consumer purchase behavior is occasionally impulsive.

Regarding how travelers make destinations choices, they can follow sequential process based on attributes or on attitudes about alternative places to be considered. Attribute-based choice required the knowledge of specific and distinctive attributes of each place and attribute-by-attribute comparison across places. On the other hand, attitude-based choice involves only the use of general attitudes, impressions and intuitions about places without making comparisons.

In the field of tourism, it is extremely important for destination managers to understand how travelers search for and review information at the various stages of their travel decision making process (Choi, Letho, & O'Leary, 2007).

Research has demonstrated that the meaning of the product is one of the variables that predict searching and buying behavior. Meaning is derived from the practical utility of the product and is intrinsically linked to its convenience, efficiency, and the exchange value per se (Vaz & Pérez-Nebra, 2007).

The symbolic meaning is the result of social experiences, which lead to the subjective categorization of the product, by means of social institutions, communication systems, and the culture of a society. Basic human values have a direct influence on consumer choice when individuals evaluate the symbolic meaning of a service, and therefore make an affective judgment about it. In the field of tourism, research has found that tangible and abstract attributes of tourist sites influence destination choice behavior. These attributes can be considered by tourists as symbolic meanings of places affecting their destination choice process (Klenoski, 2002).

Jeng & Fesenmaier (2002) note that travelers generally collect and review various forms of travel information early in the travel decision making process in order to minimize the risk of making a poor destination decision. Pan and Fesenmaier (2006) note that travel consumers tend to seek information related to 10 key subdecisions regarding the trip-travel partners: the destination; expenditure required; activities; travel dates; attractions to visit; transportation providers; length of trip; rest stops; and food stops. The central role that individual consumers have in submitting, reviewing, and responding to online content is reflected in terms such as user-generated content (UGC) or consumer-generated media (CGM) that are commonly used for Web 2.0 (Gretzel, 2006, 2007). In marketing terms, UGC sites are effectively a form of consumer to consumer e-marketing. They equate to electronic word-of-mouth (WOM) marketing, whereby somebody who has an opinion about a product or service shares their views, beliefs, and experiences with other people (Ahuja, Michels, Walker, & Weissbuch, 2007).

3.3 The roll of the hypertext in the tourist destination choice from websites

Visiting destinations is the final goal of travel. Destinations satisfy the need for travelling and are recognized as a set of products, facilities and services that comprise the total tourist product. All destinations bring together many tangible elements and attractions (e.g. museums, theatres, parks, monuments, etc.) and also a number of intangible aspects (e.g. art, ambience, culture, etc.) as well as facilities and services (e.g. hotels, restaurants, information offices, etc.) for tourists.

With the continuing growth of the Internet and, in particular, the World Wide Web (WWW) a new marketing potential exists for tourist destinations. Websites offer information on a variety of categories, including travel, geography, tourist information centers, reservation services and an events calendar. However, despite the prevalent use of Internet sites in the travel planning process, there is still limited research available on the information search process and decision making behavior related to online vacation planning (Ho & Liu, 2004; Pan & Fesenmaier, 2006)

A vital aspect of Web pages is to be visually attractive to their readers The main problem is that many Web pages tend to contain too much text, too little graphics and not enough attractive appearance. Another point relating to page design concerns the page content.

Then, the challenge for Web pages is to offer relevant travel-related information together with useful links and graphical illustrations of tourist attractions.

Being a substantial notion in ICT technologies, computer hypertext can be defined as a "text composed of blocks of words (or images) linked electronically by multiple paths, chains, or trails. In this kind of text, there are "many networks interacting without any one of them being able to surpass the rest". This text has an enormous number of signifiers (Landow, 2009).

Hypertext is a term originally used by Theodor H. Nelson in the 1960s. It refers to a form of electronic text that follows a nonsequential writing and "allows choices to the reader, best read at an interactive screen". In essence, hypertext is a medium of gathering information linking verbal, non verbal and other forms of data. Hypertext expands the notion of text beyond the solely verbal concept, linking passages of written discourse to images, maps diagrams and sounds (Landow, 2009).

By means of hypertext users have the possibility of creating, adding, connecting and sharing information from diverse sources, and the possibility of acceding to documents in nonsequential way, unlike more traditional information systems in which the access is naturally sequential. This flexibility allows readers to navigate across different documents and/or the Web pages interlinked around a central subject.

4. Methodology

4.1 Study framework

Academicians and practitioners agree that websites are a very important source of information for prospective travelers when they are in the research phase (i.e. information search) of the travel planning process and, particularly when they need to choose a leisure destination. Despite the common use of websites in the travel planning process by travelers around the world, there is still limited research concerning the role performed by the Web site features on the decision making behavior related to travel destination choice.

One of the most unclear and understudied issues in the travel industry is the role that Web site links (e.g. hypertext tools) have in the users' travel behavior and decision making processes. Studies realized in the USA demonstrate that approximately one third of website users are influenced by links with social content sites when making purchase decisions (Cox, Burges, Sellitto, & Buultjens, 2009). Another important issue of study is the extent to which Internet users trust the information posted on travel websites because readers cannot easily gauge the credibility of the information provided. This seems to suggest that the potential for websites to have a strong and credible influence on travelers' destination choice depends on how credible and transparent is the information appearing in these sites.

To assess the importance of hypertext in the tourist destination choice from websites, a quantitative study was conducted using a survey of individuals who were known to use the Internet to gather information when choosing leisure destinations. The survey was developed based on website features such as texts, photographs, videos, links with tourist services and other web page elements. It contained two sections: the first section was focused on discovering the type of links considered by travelers as the most useful when

they search information about leisure places and, more important, when they choose a tourist destination. The final section asked for the demographic characteristics of participants.

4.2 Measure instrument

A questionnaire of ten questions was designed and used to collect the information needed. Question 1 was utilized to determine the three most important features in a tourist Web page. Question 2 was designed to know the use of links appearing in tourist Web pages. Question 3 was utilized to know the importance of links appearing in tourist Web pages in terms of their promotional effectiveness. Question 4 was used to determine the links preferred by users of tourist Web pages, and questions 5 and 6, to evaluate the influence of links on tourists' destination choice. Questions 7, 8 and 9 were utilized to collect the demographics: gender, age and occupation, respectively. Question 10 was included to know the Internet usage frequency of individuals interviewed. The questionnaire was written and applied in Spanish (see Appendix 1).

4.3 Sampling

Since this study is an exploration of hypertext effects on tourist destination choice, the subjects were experienced Web browsers. In order to determinate the proportion of Web browsers, the questionnaire was applied to 1000 individuals over a two-week period in the city of Puebla, Mexico, in diverse university campuses and travel agencies. Experience of Internet use was, therefore, a filter, and non-users were excluded from the survey.

The proportion of Web users was 66% and the proportion of non users was 34%. To obtain effective measurement tools, the questionnaire was submitted to a pilot-test. Also, during this stage, the questionnaire was refined and the size of sample was determined following the probabilistic-proportions method using the formula:

$$n = \frac{Z^2(p)(q)}{E^2} \qquad (1)$$

Where:
Z = Confidence level. In this case 95% (Z= 1.96)
P = Population's proportion of Web browsers, in this case = 0.66
Q = (1-p) = 0.34
E = Level of risk = 5%

Substituting in (1):

$$n = \frac{1.96^2(p)(q)}{0.005^2}$$

$$n = = \frac{3.8416(.66)(.34)}{0.0025}$$

n= 345 individuals

The survey process was carried out applying 365 valid questionnaires (more than the required sample size calculated, anticipating a 5% of invalid questionnaires). The survey took approximately three minutes to complete. The database was processed using the

software SPSS 18 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). No missing values were considered for further analysis.

5. Results

Respondents were split between male 134 (36.71%) and female 231 (63.27%) individuals (See figure 1).
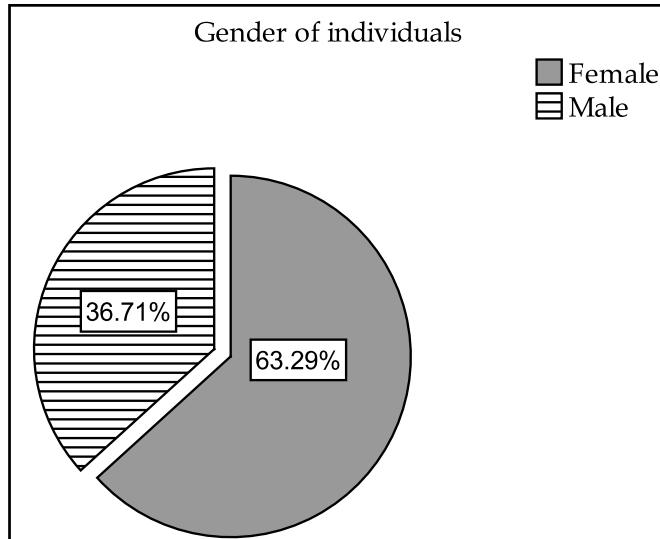
Fig. 1. Gender of individuals

Ages ranged from 18 years to 57 years, with a mean of 21.3 years (σ = 2.83) (See figure 2).
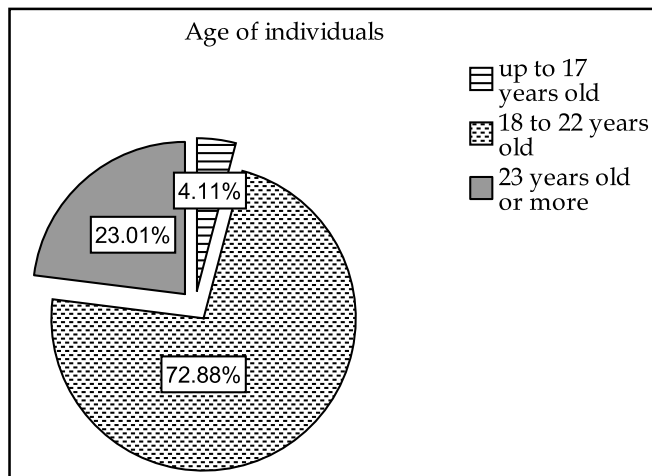
Fig. 2. Age of individuals

The great majority of respondents were students (98%) and, 83.3% of them use the Internet daily, whereas only 16.7%, some days a week (See figures 3 and 4).
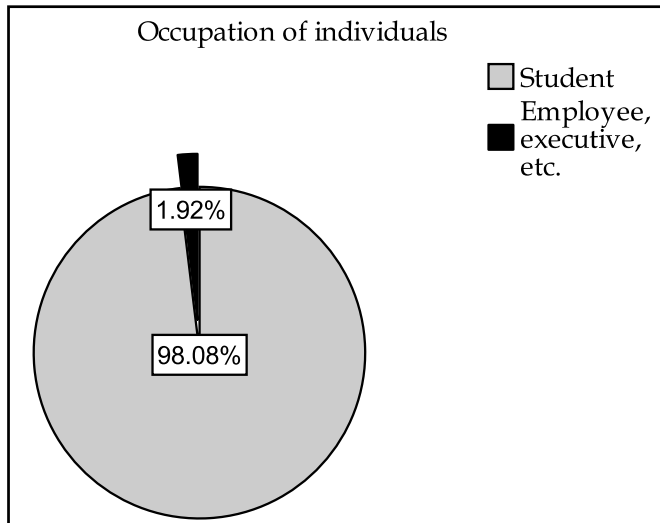
Fig. 3. Occupation of individuals
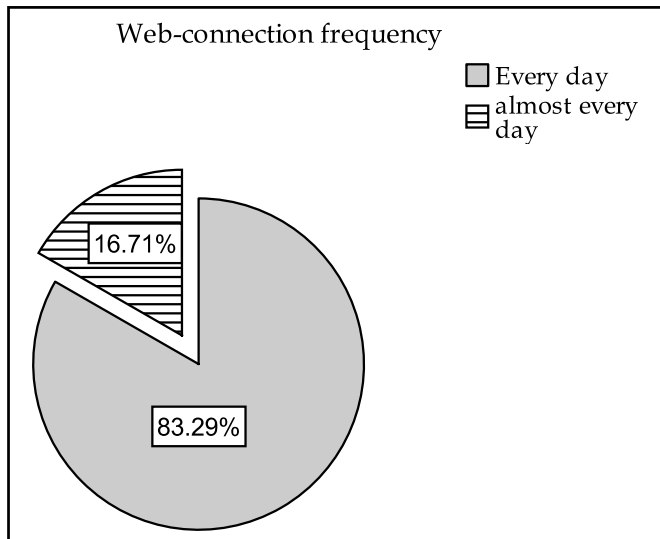
Fig. 4. Web-connection frequency of individuals

The importance granted by individuals to Web page links was measured by means of question 1 utilizing a 4-point ordinal scale, where the value of "1" is assigned to the most important link, the value of "2" to second in importance, the value of "3" to third, and the value of "4" to the less important link. Results demonstrate that the *images* shown, the *search*

section, and the *informative texts* are the three more important features of tourist Web pages (ranked first (53%), second (35%), and third (29%) respectively). Chi-squared tests were performed to identify if correlations between the three more important links identified by individuals and their age and gender exist. Results demonstrate that there are not statistically significant correlations between these variables (see table 1).

| Variables	Pearson Chi-Square X^2	df	Sig.†
Web images vs. gender	3.880	2	0.140
Informative texts vs. gender	2.880	2	0.236
Search section vs. gender	0.383	2	0.826
Web images vs. age	30.692	30	0.431
Informative texts vs. age	37.098	28	0.117
Search section vs. age	14.035	16	0.595

† * Sig.<0.05; ** Sig.<0.01

Table 1. Correlations between the most important links and demographics of individuals

The use of links (hypertext) appearing in tourist websites (question 2) was evaluated by means of a 4-point nominal-type scale anchored at value 4 (*always use the links*) and 1(*never use the links*). The most frequent answer was point 2 (*many times use the links*) with 48.5% of responses, followed by point 3 (*few times use the links*) with 47.7% of responses. Similarly, the importance of links in tourist websites (question 3) was determined using a 4-point nominal-type scale anchored at value 4 (*extremely important*) and 1 (*not important*). Results show that point 2 (*very important*) was the most frequent answer with 65.7% of responses. Thus, for Internet users, hypertext tools contained in tourist websites play a salient role in the search of information about tourist destinations. Indeed, Chi-squared coefficients were calculated to explore if gender, age and occupation of interviewers could be correlated with the use of hypertext links in tourist websites. Results show that *links usage* and *gender* are correlated variables, with women using the hypertext links more frequently. In contrast, *age* and *occupation* of respondents are not correlated with the *use of links* in tourist websites (See table 2).

Variables	Pearson Chi-Square X^2	df	Sig.†
Links' use vs. gender	8.850	3	0.035*
Links' use vs. age	57.477	45	0.100
Links' use vs. occupation	7.728	15	0.934

† * Sig.<0.05; ** Sig.<0.01

Table 2. Correlations between link's usage and demographics of individuals

Similarly, to explore the possibility of correlations between the demographic characteristics of Web users and the importance assigned by them to hypertext links, Chi-squared tests were performed. Results also demonstrate that there are not significant correlations between these variables (See table 3).

Variables	Pearson Chi-Square X^2	df	Sig.†
Links' importance vs. gender	2.795	4	0.593
Links' importance vs. age	67.860	60	0.227
Links' importance vs. occupation	9.014	20	0.983

† * Sig.<0.05; ** Sig.<0.01

Table 3. Correlations between link's importance and demographics of individuals

Types of links preferred by tourist websites users (question 4) were identified by means of an ordinal scale where the value of "1" corresponds to the most preferred link, the value of "2" to second in preference, the value of "3" to third, and the value of "4"to the less preferred link. Surprisingly, the most preferred links (45.9% of responses) were those that connect users with tourist services (e.g. travel agencies, hotels, transportation firms, etc.) others than those appearing in the website. In second place, the links offering information about the website's attractions (41% of responses) and, in third place, the links containing information about tourist services available in the website browsed.

As well as in previous cases, Chi-squared coefficients were calculated to identify the existence of possible correlations between the demographic characteristics of Internet users and the three most preferred links explored by them. Again, Chi-squared coefficients showed that there are not significant correlations (See table 4).

Variables	Pearson Chi-Square X^2	df	Sig.†
Links connecting with tourist services in other places vs. gender	1.131	2	0.568
Links connecting with tourist services in other places vs. age	22.185	26	0.679
Links connecting with tourist services in other places vs. occupation	7.362	4	0.118
Links connecting with the site's tourist-attractions vs. gender	1.950	2	0.377
Links connecting with the site's tourist-attractions vs. age	15.486	26	0.948
Links connecting with site's tourist-attractions vs. occupation	3.760	6	0.709
Links connecting with the site's tourist-services vs. gender	0.692	3	0.875
Links connecting with the site's tourist-services vs. age	30.090	30	0.461
Links connecting with site's tourist-services vs. occupation	9.845	15	0.829

† * Sig.<0.05; ** Sig.<0.01

Table 4. Correlations between the most preferred links and demographics of individuals

Concerning the level of influence of hypertext links on tourist's destination choice (question 5) the opinion of Internet-users' was evaluated using a 4-point Likert-type scale anchored at values: 4 (*essential for make a choice*) and 1 (*non required for make a choice*). Following a normal distribution, answers to this question show a mean value of 2.79 (σ=0.706, mode=3, median=3) that, being close to value 3, this means that Internet users consider that

hypertexts exert a powerful influence on the destination-choice-processes of travelers. In addition, to explore possible differences between the opinions expressed by men and women concerning the influence of hypertexts on their destination-choice decisions, a *t*-test was realized. Results show that the responses of men and women are very similar ($t=-1.303$, $df=363$, $sig.=0.193>0.05$), thus, we can conclude that the gender of respondents does not influence their tourist destination choice.

Finally, an ordinal scale was used to rank the three more influential links (question 6) on the last tourist-destination choice of Web users. The statistical analysis of data shows that hypertext links having photos of the tourist site were ranked in first place (47%), the links containing information about the site's attractions were ranked in second place (45%), and the hypertext links connecting with tourist services (e.g. hotels, travel agencies, transportation services, etc.) available in the site (24%) were ranked in third place. No significant correlations were detected between these three more influential links and the demographic characteristics of individuals (See table 5).

Since this study aims to explore the importance of hypertext links on tourist destination choice, two correlation analysis were performed between the most important link of tourist websites and: 1) the most preferred link, and 2) the most influential link on the tourist-destination choice. Nevertheless, in two cases, results demonstrate a low level of correlation between these variables ($\rho=0.062$, and $\rho=0.195$ respectively). Thus, we can conclude that the use of hypertext links showing beautiful images of the site (the best ranked) are not correlated with the use of both the links connecting with tourist services others than those appearing in the website (the most preferred) and the links containing site's photographs (the most influential on the tourist-destination choice).

Variables	Pearson Chi-Square X^2	df	Sig.†
Links containing destination's photographs vs. gender	0.288	2	0.866
Links containing destination's photographs vs. age	42.719	30	0.062
Links containing destination's photographs vs. occupation	15.404	10	0.118
Links connecting with site's tourist-attractions vs. gender	4.09	2	0.129
Links connecting with site's tourist-attractions vs. age	26.189	28	0.563
Links connecting with site's tourist-attractions vs. occupation	3.394	6	0.758
Links connecting with site's tourist-services vs. gender	0.710	2	0.965
Links connecting with site's tourist-services vs. age	11.283	16	0.792
Links connecting with site's tourist-services vs. occupation	7.395	8	0.495

† * Sig.<0.05; ** Sig.<0.01

Table 5. Correlations between the most influential links and demographics of individuals

6. Conclusions

Tourism business destinations use online marketing strategies to attract visitors. Promoting travel destinations online is today a great business and many travel developers provide information to viewers interested in leisure destinations. In this context, this study examines the influence of hypertext links appearing in tourist websites on the tourist-destination choice of leisure travelers.

Three important conclusions can be drawn from the findings. First, hypertext links available in tourist websites must be considered as a very important promotional tool utilized by individuals when search and evaluate tourist destination alternatives. Results show that the use of links in tourist Web pages is a very frequent practice (48.5% of responses) for young individuals (21 years, average), and, principally, for female undergraduate students (64%).

Second, hypertext links appearing in tourist websites exert a powerful influence on the tourist-destination choice processes of Internet users. Hypertext links containing images of destinations, informative texts, and search tools are the three most important features utilized by tourist website browsers. Links connecting with accommodation services, travel agencies, transportation companies and other complementary tourist services were ranked the most preferred types of links used by individuals and, specifically, links containing photographs of tourist sites (47%) and informative texts (45%) were classified by individuals as the most influential features when they choose a tourist destination.

Third, only the gender of respondents seems to be related with the use of links available in tourist websites. In contrast, their age and occupation are not related with the importance, use, and types of links preferred by them when browsing tourist websites. Hence, regardless of age, or occupation, individuals "click" on hypertext links that allow them to visualize destinations, to get relevant information about these places, and to contact tourist services suppliers that facilitate their travel decision.

7. Theoretical and practical implications

Appropriate electronic distribution systems provide good mechanisms for purchasing tourism products and destinations. More and more the Internet has impelled the relevance of tourist-product suppliers and has contributed to replacement of traditional distribution channels. Certainly, through Internet, tourism companies have successfully promoted a great variety of destinations.

The aims of this study concentrate in identify: 1) the most important hypertext links used by individuals when browse tourist websites and, 2) the major hypertext features influencing their tourist destination choice.

The findings of this study are expected to benefit researchers and practitioners by helping them better understand the importance and the role played by hypertext links in the context of tourist-destinations choice behavior. Previous studies have established that the search of travel destinations in the Internet is determined by the relevance of the link anchors as pictures, texts or other hypertext features. For managers of tourism destination companies, tourist wholesalers and other tourism business, the results of this study can serve as a reference to help them identify the strengths and weakness of their

websites and take competitive advantage in the market place because more effective tourist websites draw consumers into purchasing viewing destinations in a more favorable light.

Results of this study suggest that tourist websites designers must emphasize the inclusion of hypertext links containing attractive visual features, non extensive texts and search tools enabling Internet users to get relevant information about tourist destinations. Furthermore, results of this study also suggest that the demographic profile of individuals browsing tourist websites is not a salient factor influencing the destination-choice processes of individuals.

Thus, companies competing in tourism markets must include more attractive hypertext tools in order to improve the effectiveness of their promotional Web pages.

In general, studies concerning online tourism behavior have focused principally on consumers' profiles and tourist product characteristics, but they have neglected other factors such as the influence of website features on the destination-choice decisions of travelers. For academic researchers, this study expects to offer insights into new areas for further research on tourism websites design, application and evaluation. For this reason, this study focused on analyzing website hypertext links in different scope that other precedent studies. However, the motivations and attitudes underlying this behavior represent a challenge for future studies. However, it would be worthwhile for future research to analyze more deeply other important issues related to use of hypertext links and their implications on tourist behavior.

8. Appendix

ENCUESTA SOBRE LA IMPORTANCIA DEL HIPERTEXTO EN LOS SITIOS WEB QUE PROMOCIONAN DESTINOS TURISTICO Antes de iniciar el encuestador debe plantear la pregunta de selección: **¿Utiliza sitios en internet para buscar o elegir un destino turístico?** Si la respuesta es negativa, no entregar el cuestionario.	ID: Solo estudiantes	C. No.

El presente cuestionario pretende obtener información sobre la importancia del uso de las conexiones existentes en un sitio web (*links*) en el proceso de búsqueda de información para elegir destinos turísticos.

Solicito su amable colaboración respondiendo con sinceridad a las preguntas planteadas.

1. Cuando usted busca **páginas web** para elegir un **destino turístico**, ¿qué **elementos** de la página considera como **los 3 más importantes**? Asigne los números 1, 2 y 3 en el orden de su preferencia, siendo <u>1 el más importante</u>.

(   ) Los textos informativos (   ) Las imágenes presentadas (   ) Los *links* que contiene

(   ) Los videos disponibles (   ) Los *links* con otros sitios   (   ) La sección de búsquedas

2. ¿Hace usted **uso de los *links*** existentes en las páginas web que **consulta** normalmente? Marque con X solo en la casilla adecuada:

☐ Siempre los utilizo ☐ En muchas ocasiones los utilizo ☐ En pocas ocasiones los utilizo ☐ Nunca los utilizo

3. Según su opinión, ¿qué tan **importantes son para usted los *links*** existentes en las páginas **web** que promocionan **destinos turísticos**? Marque con X solo en la casilla adecuada:

☐ Extremadamente importantes ☐ Muy importantes ☐ Poco importantes ☐ Nada importantes

4. Cuando **usted abre *links*** en las páginas web que promocionan destinos turísticos, ¿**qué tipo de *links* elige preferentemente**? Asigne los números 1, 2 y 3 en el orden de su preferencia, siendo 1 el más importante.

( ) *Links* con textos de información sobre el sitio

( ) *Links* que enlazan con otros servicios turísticos en general (hoteles, transportes, etc.)

( ) *Links* con videos sobre el sitio

( ) *Links* que enlazan a otros destinos turísticos

( ) *Links* que enlazan con hoteles, transportes, restaurantes, etc. existentes en el sitio

( ) *Links* con fotografías del sitio

5. Según su opinión, ¿qué tanto **influyen los *links*** utilizados en las páginas web para **elegir un destino turístico**? Marque con X en el espacio que se acerque más a su opinión:

Son indispensables para elegir un destino turístico   _____ _____ _____ _____   No influyen en absoluto para elegir un destino turístico

6. Piense en la última vez que **eligió un destino turístico a través de un sitio web**. ¿Cuáles fueron **los 3 *links* que más influyeron** para que usted eligiera ese destino? Marque con 1, 2 y 3 esos *links* siendo 1 el que más influyó en su elección.

( )El *link* que tenía textos de información sobre los atractivos del sitio

( )El *link* que tenía fotografías del sitio

( )El *link* que tenía enlaces con otros servicios turísticos en general (hoteles, transportes, etc.)

( ) El *link* que tenía enlaces con otros destinos turísticos

( )El *link* que tenía videos sobre el sitio

( )El *link* que tenía enlaces con hoteles, transportes, restaurantes, etc. existentes en el sitio

Perfil individual. Marque con X en la casilla adecuada:

7. Su género es: Masculino ☐   Femenino ☐

8. Su edad es de: (   ) años.

9. Su ocupación es:

☐ Estudiante ☐ Empleado ☐ Funcionario   ☐ Ejecutivo en   ☐ Atiende su   ☐ Otra
                                   público   una empresa   negocio propio   ocupación

10. Como **usuario de internet**, usted se conecta a la red:

☐ Todos los días   ☐ Casi todos los días ☐ De vez en cuando ☐ Muy ocasionalmente

¡Muchas gracias por su colaboración!

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Sustainable Tourism in Aragon, a Case of a Spanish Inside Region

M. Victoria Sanagustín Fons, José Antonio Moseñe Fierro,
María Gomez y Patiño and Laura Arena Luna
The University of Zaragoza
Spain

1. Introduction

This chapter is a descriptive analysis of tourism in Aragon, as a study case of an interior Spanish touristic region. The study shows the tourism profile in Aragon, showing that are some needs in tourism promotion as well as a description presented with latest data that shows the huge amount of natural and cultural/historical resources that can be exploited to improve the actual economy of this Spanish region.

Methodologically, this research is based on primary data by means of a survey to tourists visiting Aragon in 2009, as well as all the secondary literature that are referenced.

This study is an approach to the theoretical framework of the "sustainability paradigm" where economic, social and environmental aspects are considered.

2. Methodology

An *ad hoc* survey was constructed to know visitors profile of the demand. Due to the diverse types of tourism that visit Aragon during the year, Holy Week holidays in 2009 were selected to pass the questionnaire because during this time, all groups can be included.

One of the main targets of the survey about tourism was knowing the reason for travelling to Aragon and how do they have known about this destination. Sociodemograhic profile, level of expenses and the way of planning and manage their travel were other topics treated. All this items were validated by a final and open question about general satisfaction of the stay and the quality level of the services obtained.

The sample was stratified and random selected among the tourist collective visiting Aragon in 2009, more precisely during Easter Eve. A stratified sample (n = 3325 respondents), was large enough as to present a minimum error margin (e = +/- 2%), where the reliability reaches a high score (Person's r = .95).

IBM SPSS Statistics 19.0 (2010) has been used for processing all the questionnaires.

In order to avoid the interviewer's selection bias, random systematic sample was applied, ignoring respondents' personal like or dislike.

This research has used an exhaustive secondary sources study on fact-finding collated from previous studies on general tourism and tourism in Aragon.

3. Tourist profile in Aragon

The profile of incoming tourists suggests a domestic origin, mostly from large nearest cities, Barcelona, Valencia and Madrid, consolidating proximity tourism. The average profile is a middle-aged adult (31 to 40 years) with a high level of education, as Fig. 1 shows, there is relation between type of tourism and training level, culture and religion are the drivers for graduates and postgraduates. The general tendency of higher educational levels in an informational and complex society allows to increase tourism in an inside region as Aragon with the following motivations: snow, rural tourism, fairs & conferences, active sports, health & wellness.
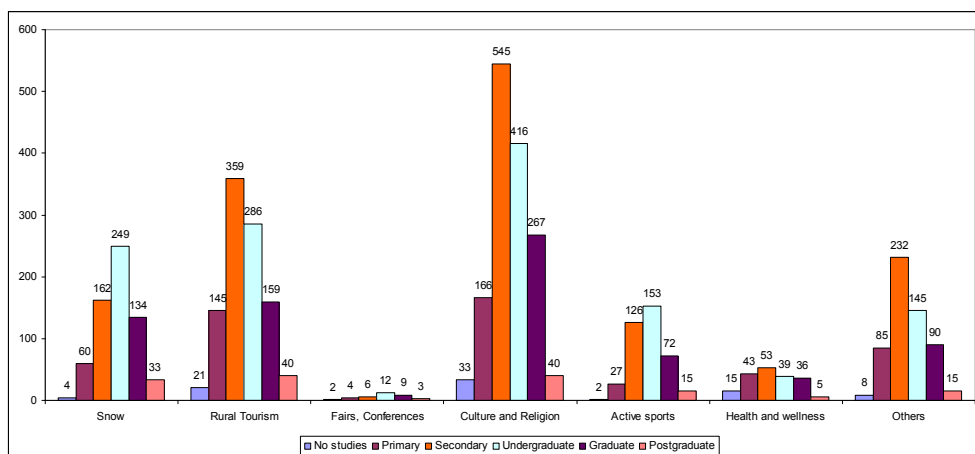

Fig. 1. Type of tourism sorted by training level

This kind of tourist travels in company of his family, partner and friends (Fig. 2) for a period between 3 and 7 days, staying in 1 to 3 stars hotels. Another type of accommodation chosen by them is secondary residences, relatives and friends' houses, and different options on rural tourism (Fig. 3).

Family and friends relationships are special transversal issues in these experiences mainly based on human communication, where the quiet atmosphere of the environment is a crucial factor. From the supply point of view, a close companion likes family and friends, besides a small and familiar accommodation consolidate tourism.

These visitors organize their own tour package based on direct information collected from their friends and internet. The higher training level more self confidence and autonomy gives to organize travels (Fig. 4). Internet has meant a revolution in travel & tourism as well as other social and economical conventions. An attractive and well positioned webpage and Social Media Market networks can make a remote region visible and accessible worldwide Sanagustin et al, 2011).
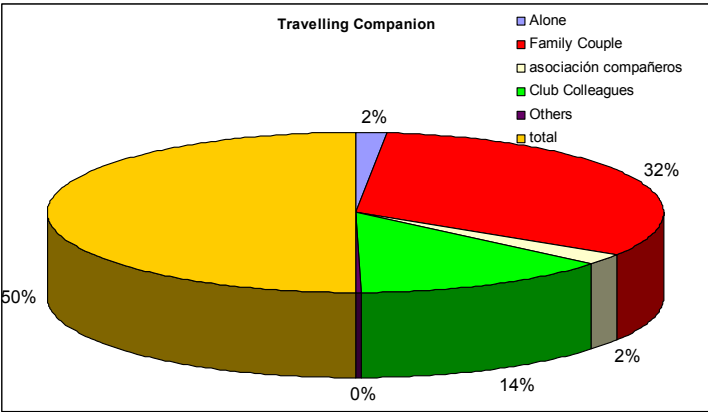
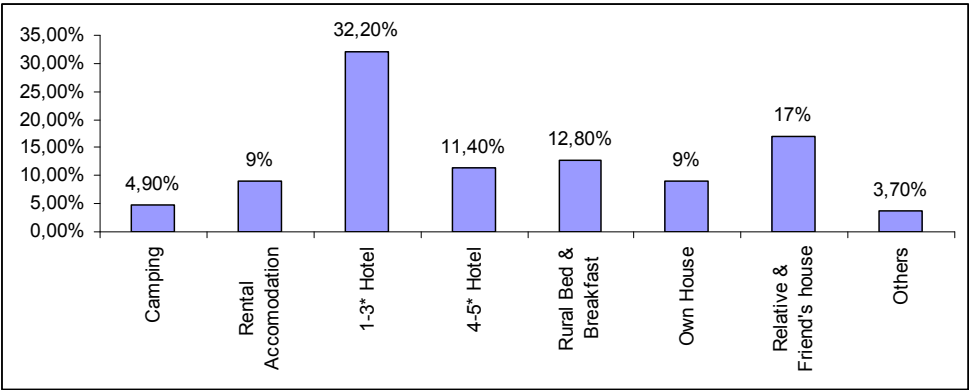Fig. 2. Travelling companion

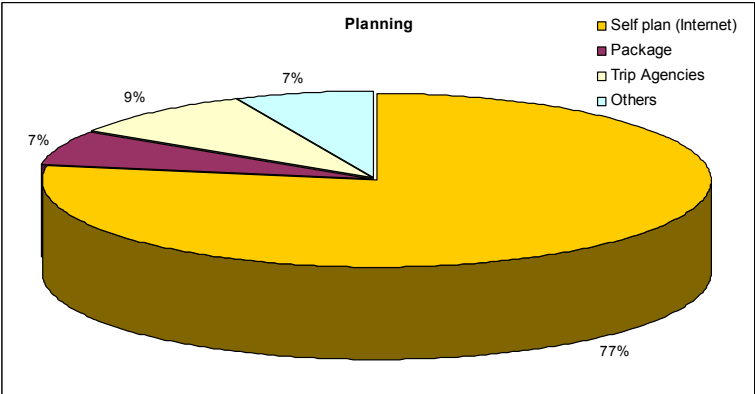

Fig. 3. Stay and type of accommodation

Fig. 4. Travel Planning

The expenses range is between 30 and 60 Euros per day, excluding accommodation, whereas local food consumption, typical souvenirs and nightlife are the major portion of them. Diary expenses depict a medium class that wants to go out but contending expenses, this is the actual situation in Spain (Exceltur, 2010). Following this fig. 5 shows that the expenses in pubs and bars are the main ones for young people (21-30). This prevalence, changes in the next range, where lunch and dinner gain importance. The wide gastronomy offered in Aragon, as a result of several regional promotion plans, drives most of expenses towards restaurants and bars which are composing one of the most typical leisure activities in Spain.
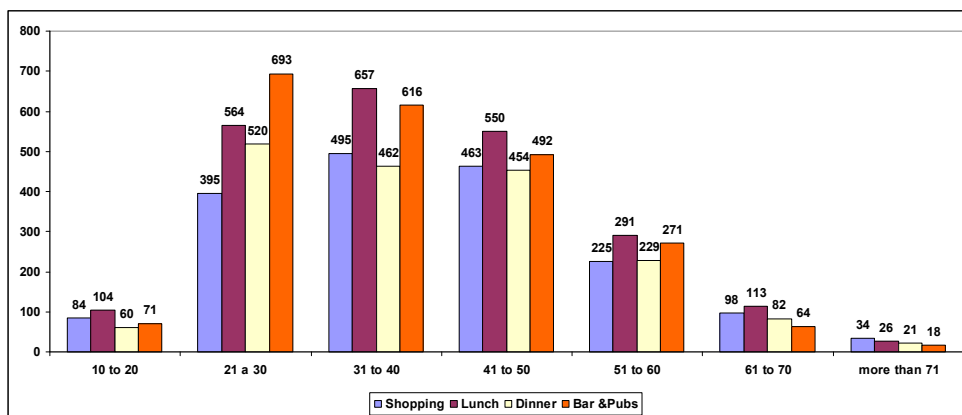

Fig. 5. Consumption sorted by age.

Finally, active tourists express a "very satisfactory" experience, near "excellent" which suggests their intention to return; this confirms empirical results obtained in other inside and rural tourism in Europe (Monge and Brandimarte, 2011; Govers et al, 2008). Nowadays tourism is based on the satisfaction of the experiences, emotional impacts and the search of new sensations. Besides this, accessibility, marketing and tourists' perception and expectative gives the basic lines to draw it as a tourist destination (Anton and González, 2008).

4. Descriptive analysis and diagnosis of the current state of tourism in Aragon (Spain)

a. Economic situation

Economic data reveal the importance that the tourism sector has been gaining over recent years in Spain. Nowadays it is 10% of GNP. Tourism is an important source of financial incomes that is reinforcing the economy in Spain. Aragon is not an exception to this point. Nowadays, governments in different countries, at any level (local, regional) are investing large amounts of money to obtain maximum benefit from tourism. Taking into account the latest contributions from the multi-disciplinary field of socio-economics, tourism has turned into a requisite necessary for efficient administration and to reach total sustainable development.

It is essential to be conscious of the financial crisis we are traversing and the potential economic source that tourism represents in the sector to become a real force for development in Aragon. In order to achieve these goals, there must be an analysis and

diagnosis of tourism in the region, from an internal and an external point of view, identifying the successful and unsuccessful actions in its promotion and management, and thus obtaining the highest rate of efficiency in both fields: promotion and management of tourism in Aragon. As mentioned before, a remarkable investment of budget and human resources is being made in Aragon by both public and private organizations. However, the results have not been as expected, or at least, not as promising as could have been expected: In 2007, Aragon stood at the top of the ten bottom regions in Spain as far as the number of journeys and guest-nights made as a final destination, but far away from the first six regions, according to the National Institute of Statistics (INE-NIS). Additionally, it is important to describe the perception of tourism existing in Aragon, as it is essential to identify the manner that the Aragonese population feel their land and resources. They should feel the pride of being "aragonian" to offer "Aragon" as a brand and tourism product and destination

At present, the tourist sector is of prime importance for economy. In 2007, the economy in Aragon was strong, with a growth rate of 4.2% GDP at the end of the year, seven decimal points (0.7) above the national rate, and five decimal points (0.5) higher than the previous year. All sectors displayed a stronger dynamism than the national average and accelerated the growth over 2006. More specifically, the service sector increased production by a remarkable 4.6%, as stated in the report of the Economic Outlook for Aragon published by the Aragonese Economy Foundation (FUNDEAR) in March 2008. This report also pointed out that demand was boosted by strong dynamics in investment, both in capital equipment and construction, which grew 12.8% and 7.7% respectively. The Economic Report on Aragon for 2006 also states that the service sector generates about 60% of the GVA for the region. This is a key sector in the economy, not only for its current position, but for its remarkable and continuous progress in the role that has been playing during the last few decades. In addition, in terms of employment, the report confirms that the tertiary sector was the only one to generate new jobs in the region, increasing the rate in employment 6.6%, which was more than twice its rate in 2005, and beat the national average (1.5 points). Thus, employment figures reached 357,800 and the sector accounted for an increase to 62% of the total amount of jobs. The tertiary sector created 22,000 jobs, and more than compensated for falls in the other sectors, especially industry. If Aragon is divided into provinces to this point, Teruel is once again at the forefront. The number of jobs in the province of Teruel grew by 9.8%, followed by Huesca (7.3%) and finally, Zaragoza (6.1%), the province holding 77% of the service sector jobs in Aragon. At present, Aragon has an economic structure where industry has a relatively higher position than the rest of the country. However, industry going elsewhere and the economy moving towards the tertiary sector are causing a void in the economy of Aragon, which must be filled by the service sector (Gómez and Horna, 2006). The increasing importance of tourism will compensate the shortfalls in the Aragonese economy, partially, at least. This factor for development is highly localised in very specific districts and may be a key activity, especially in structuring and developing the region. The importance of tourism as a source of wealth for the development of some districts in Aragon cannot be doubted, as proved by the study of Gómez and Horna, (2006). The authors point out that the districts with most tourism achieved a higher GVA growth between 1999 and 2001. In 2001, the districts attracting tourism increased their GVA (12%), while those with less tourism grew 5.2%. There is a clear difference in the structure of the sector, with the tourist districts being geared towards the tertiary sector with less industry and agriculture.

b. Tourism amenities in Aragon

b.1. Hotels and restaurants

The most recent official statistical data available are those provided by the Government of Aragon from January 2008, which are described below, although we will first compare the data given by Franco Aliaga in his *Atlas Temático de España*, (2004:148), as it enables to overview recent trends for companies in the sector. At that time, Aragon had 7,768 accommodations and catering companies, of which 1,688 were hotels, 697 camping sites or other short-stay accommodation; 1,248 were restaurants, 5,701 bars, and 172 group dining-rooms and provision for ready-prepared meals (catering).

In January 2008, according to the *Statistical Yearbook For The Autonomic Region Of Aragon*, the figures are much higher. In general terms, there are a total of 9,036 accommodation and catering establishments in Aragon, with a capacity of 152,282 places, excluding bars.

Accommodation consists of 81,486 places, of which 20,107 are in Zaragoza, 47,044 in Huesca and 14,335 in Teruel. Therefore, Huesca is the province, by far, with the highest number of tourist amenities, doubling those of Zaragoza and tripling those of Teruel.

There are 1,772 restaurants and a larger number of cafés (5,338), while there are 6,802 bars.

The Statistical Yearbook for the Autonomic Region of Aragon of January 2008 (AECAA) also presents a division of establishments according to type, as follows: 399 Hotels; 8 Hospederías de Aragón and historic hotels; 4 National Paradors; 287 Hostels; 164 Guesthouses; 142 Tourist apartments; 81 Campsites; 10 Camping Areas; 14 Mountain Refuges and 76 Youth hostels.

The total number of stable accommodation establishments in Aragon goes up to 1004.

Rural tourism: Aragon has 977 establishments, most being in Huesca: 585, Teruel has 257 and Zaragoza has 157, the lowest rural tourism.

Ski resorts: Huesca has 6 downhill ski stations and 10 for cross-country skiing. Teruel has 2 and 1, respectively, and Zaragoza, none.

A similar pattern is found with companies specialised in activity/adventure tourism. There are 70 in Huesca, 19 in Zaragoza and 8 in Teruel, which brings the total up to 97 in Aragon.

Marina and sailing clubs: As for marina and sailing clubs, Huesca has 4: Barasona, La Sotonera, Búbal and Ligüerre de Cinca, while Zaragoza and Teruel have none, unless the Zaragoza Sailing club is counted, which is on a stretch of the River Ebro and has been re-launched recently for the Expo-Zaragoza 2008. The fishing and sailing marina on the Sea of Aragon, more specifically the Caspe Lake Campsite at Caspe, also called the Mequinenza reservoir, must be included, as it has held international fishing competitions for years, specialised in black bass, and also has an adventure water sports section.

Golf: The climate and landscape of the region in Aragon are not very inviting as far as golf courses are related, but there are some of them. Zaragoza has four: two in the area of Zaragoza, one in Calatayud and another in Pinseque. Huesca has 3, in Benasque, Aragüés and Jaca; and Teruel has two: one in Alcalá de la Selva and one in Allepuz.

Spas: Zaragoza has the first position for the number of spas. There are six in Alhama de Aragón, three in Jaraba and one in Paracuellos del Jiloca. Huesca has three: Panticosa, Valle del Turbón and Benasque; and Teruel has one in Manzanera.

Casinos: Gaming establishments or casinos are mainly based in Huesca. This province can offer more establishments than the other two provinces together. Huesca has two, one in the capital city and another in the Balneario de Panticosa, while Teruel and Zaragoza have none.

One special mention would deserve the huge project for gambling in Europe, known as *Gran Scala* and located in Ontiñena, which seems to have got off the ground in February 2009 when the company purchased the farmland required for building this international leisure complex. The effect *Gran Scala* cannot be evaluated, as it has not yet been built-up.

The figures given in the data for 2004 and 2008 have been overtaken with the appearance of hotels built in the heart of the venue Expo Zaragoza 2008 (an International Exhibition), with the aim of continuity, especially in the Zaragoza region, which, except for the capital city of Zaragoza, is the province less visited as far as tourism is related. Within the tourism sector, and obviously due to its higher population, Zaragoza has the biggest number of travel agencies: 174 spread all across the province, although most of these are in the city of Zaragoza; Huesca has 35 and Teruel, 12.

However, it would seem logical to foresee that, once that the boom of Expo-Zaragoza is over, attracting people to visit and stay in Aragon in the hotels would mean providing reasons and contents for the stay. In this sense, the three provinces of Aragon have their points of interest in several areas, totally different and with their own style, as described below.

b.2. Hospederías de Aragón - historic hotels

This network was partly created following the tourism model for the National Paradors (Paradores de España) of Spain, or Pousadas in Portugal. Both are unique buildings in wonderful landscapes, well-known for their history or scenic views (or both) that have been restored to create a quality tourism asset in Aragon, with an Aragonese identity that preserves a large part of the traditions and culture of Aragon. Unlike the National Paradors, these hotels are run privately, and therefore, are very different, depending on the hotel and the person/company in charge of it and the corresponding management style. Some of them have radically changed their management and results over their short lifespan.

This historic hotels network consists of a series of hotels in buildings of architectural interest, mainly in the countryside, which have been renovated to provide quality accommodation and services to areas with a high potential for tourism where the existing infrastructure for tourism is scarce or non-existing- At the same time, they are ensuring that the buildings will be used and cared in the future, which means that jobs will be created and maintained.

Given that the very nature of these Hospederías de Aragón (historic hotels) network makes them clearly outstanding from other hotels, the rest of the hotels throughout Aragon should be described, at least from the statistical point of view.

At present, there are eight Hospederías in: Loarre (3*) Roda de Isábena (2*), and Monasterio de San Juan de la Peña (4*), in the province of Huesca; Mesón de La Dolores, in Calatayud (3*), Sádaba (3*), Monasterio de Rueda, in Sástago (4*) and Castillo-Palacio del Papa Luna, in Illueca (3*) in the province of Zaragoza; and La Iglesuela del Cid (4*), in the province of Teruel. These Hospederías have a total capacity of 500 guests.

The Hospederías de Aragon network is regulated by Decree 294/2005, 13 December, Government of Aragon.

b.3. Tourist offices

Information centres are not only convenient, but necessary, for both Spaniards and foreigners. It is well-known that living in a place means that one can ignore, or undervalue or simply not appreciate areas of cultural interest for tourism: either for scenery, arts, architecture, geology, cuisine or history just being unconscious of them. Tourist offices provide a service of incalculable value which would otherwise not be available.

Therefore, various departments in the government of Aragon, through tourism committees or councils, have set up a large, important network of tourist offices throughout Aragon, as follows:

Zaragoza

Just in the capital city of Zaragoza there are nine tourist offices located in different points of the city, and 25 in the province: Alagón, Anento, Aranda de Moncayo, Ateca, Borja, Brea, Calatayud, Caspe, Daroca, Ejea de los Caballeros (2), Gallur, Gotor, Illueca, Jaraba, La Muela, Mequinenza, Mesones de Isuela, Sádaba, Sigüés, Sos del Rey Católico, Tarazona, Tauste, Uncastillo and Vera de Moncayo.

Huesca

Huesca has tourist information offices open all year in Aínsa (2), Barbastro (3), Benasque, Boltaña, Canfranc, Formigal, Graus, Jaca, Monzón (2), Nozal, Plan, Panticosa, Sabiñánigo, Salinas de Sin, Sallent de Gállego, and Torreciudad. There are others that open in summer and some holidays in: Abizanda, Alquézar, Ansó, Ayerbe, Broto, Benabarre, Castejón de Sos, Colungo, Echo, El Grado, Fiscal, Fonz, Fraga, Lecina, Puente La Reina de Jaca, Rodellar, Pirenarium, Valle de la Fueva, Torla and Viacamp, which makes 20 offices in the province open all year, and another 20 in summer and some weekends when many tourists are expected.

Teruel

Teruel has two offices in the capital city and twenty four in the rest of the province: Albarracín, Alcañiz, Alcalá de la Serlva, Alcorisa, Aliaga, Andorra Sierra de Arcos, Andorra, Beceite, Bronchales, Calaceite, Calamocha, Castellote, Manzanera, Más de las Matas, Mirambel, Molinos, Monreal del Campo, Montalbán, Mora de Rubielos, Moscardón, Mosqueruela, Puertomingalvo, Rubielos de Mora, and the Matarraña district office.

The tourist offices are distributed according to numbers as follows: Zaragoza 34, Teruel 26 and Huesca 40. It may be a pertinent question to know if the distribution of tourist information offices in Aragon increases the interest in tourism, or if it is because they are located in areas that tourists are interested in, anyway. This is a causal-effect question which cannot be answered without doubts. On countless occasions, the relationship between cause and effect is difficult to clarify, though their existence can be more than justified by the number of visitors received in some cases, and their justification is not so easy, in others.

At present, Huesca has fifty museums and information centres spread throughout the province, which is very significant and highly attractive for a quality information service to visiting tourists.

b.4. Itineraries through Aragon

Itineraries have been set up in the three provinces under similar, if not identical, criteria, which sometimes base the routes on a criterion or theme, though more generally, the geographic areas mainly correspond to districts in Aragon.

Themed itineraries in Zaragoza based on Mudejar and Romanesque heritage along jewish and moorish castles, ceramic, and health and wellness centres and Goya, the best wellknown Aragones.

As mentioned before, Huesca is possibly the most tourist province with most visitors and the best known. It is substiantially and always different from Zaragoza and Teruel. It is even different in the way it presents its itineraries. The Huesca Provincial Council, unlike Zaragoza and Teruel, has a very special and different model for tourism. In fact, tourism has become one of the most important activities in the province of Huesca. The Huesca "La Magia" (The Magic) campaign promoted tourism, inside and outside the province, as the "Magic of Huesca". The Provincial Council of Huesca has run the campaign to boost the image of a province that can boast wonderful natural resources all along the countryside area.

Over the last few years, tourism has become an important source of wealth for the province of Huesca, paying a large contribution to create new jobs.

The culture and traditions of Huesca, the landscape, skiing, rural tourism and adventure sports are just a few examples of the assets held there. These ones become a major way of introducing the province to tourists.

This campaign, financed by the Provincial Council of Huesca and the European Union, focuses on three basic issues:

1. To care for the land preserving the landscape, customs, culture, art and people.
2. To be a suggesting invitation to know Huesca, especially in the low season, as the accommodation does not require massive promotion campaigns, but specific action on determined dates.
3. To work towards some particular and defined objective public, with special offers and affordable prices.

At the same, it works to coordinate policies and strategies for tourism for local organisations in the province of Huesca in order to provide tourist amenities common to all of them.

The campaign's web page also spreads the magic to be found in places all over the area. The Provincial Council of Huesca works with town councils, districts and exhibition centres in the province by giving subsidies/budgets to reduce the costs of holding fairs, exhibitions and different functions.

Many of the tourist and heritage resources in Huesca need new initiatives to expand this campaign. In 2001, the creation and implementation of tourist routes became one of the solutions to turn these places into attractions.

This Plan of Tourist Infrastructures gathers proposals from municipalities in Huesca province dealing with the establishment and implementation of innovative elements and design together with traditional materials for sign-posting projects to enrich itineraries and tourist attractions with high quality infrastructures, resulting in a model of featured and educational games, as well as tourism elements.

In this way, it is an attempt to increase the tourist potential of some areas that may find in this sector the solution to problems of depopulation and an aging population.

In short, the province is very diverse, and so are its tourist amenities. The fact is that part of the Pyrenees has the longer stay of their visitors, and is specialised in skiing, health cares, games and adventure, and has developed a network of nature reserves that confers a very special kind of reality of the province, that posseses a very special magic, which only can partly be explained due to the rock formations, from the Maladeta massif and Balaitus to the conglomerates of the Mallos de Riglos or the Sierra de Guara.

The National Park of Ordesa and Monte Perdido. These mountains whose summits reach 3,355 metres, are not only a geographical summit, but are also the top of the ranking of tourists in Aragon.

Romanesque architecture. Aragonese Romanesque art and architecture can be found in the countryside of Huesca, that, added to the nearness to France, makes it a very special place, which Huesca citizens, in general, and those of upper Aragon, in particular, know how to promote it properly offering tradition and modernity simultaneously, both with its handcrafts, cuisine and the restoration of its civil and religious buildings.

The reason why no specific itineraries have been marked out, as the Provincial Councils of Zaragoza and Teruel have done, may be due to the fact that the whole area is total attraction – the foothills, or the valleys of Ansó and Hecho are as interesting as the Pyrenees, in deed.

Huesca is perhaps the most privileged point of interest in Aragon, where the population and politicians have properly managed. One could say that Zaragoza and Teruel have austere and extreme beauty, while the beauty of the landscape in Huesca bursts forth and everywhere.

Teruel is completely different in its appearance, though beautiful in its austerity. The Provincial Council of Teruel has sketched out several itineraries, with very different thematic like Motor, Medieval fairs, Drumming Holy Week, Dinosaurs, Chapels and Romanesque abbeys … for every season.

Although, as mentioned above, the three provinces have very different personalities, if we had to talk in general terms about what it is to feel Aragonese, we must think of Aragon as a single entity with a single personality, as the autonomous region of Aragon. The idea is not to think of Aragon as an autonomous region in the legal sense, but as a physical being, as, when all is said and done, any social collective consists of a number of human beings with social and psychological similarities and differences which provide information on the human factor.

c. Generic promotion

In this respect, the Aragonese authorities, conscious of the importance of the sector, are engaged, in a large part of their activity, in encouraging the generic promotion of tourism, not only in economic terms by providing tourism operators with money, but also legislating and analysing the sector from any possible point of view.

4.1 Aid and subsidies for tourism in Aragon

The Department of Industry, Commerce and Tourism has designed a series of activities in the form of investment aimed at boosting and helping socio-economic development of tourism in two modes:

1. **Outright grants:**

ORDER of 1st April 2008, which convenes grants for private companies to create infrastructures for tourism.

2. **Subsidising credit:**

ORDER of 24th April 2008, which convenes aid for subsidising credits for companies and non-profit making associations to invest in the tourist sector, which has placed value on, and contributed to the appearance of hotels and accommodation of different types.

Among the methods of promotion that the government of Aragon is using to encourage tourism in Aragon there is an important series of publications, the following to be noted:

Tourism and managing the territory

This studies the development of tourism activities from several points of view, experience and criticism is made available to the public at large on the council's web site. The book was published by the Tourism Council together with the Zaragoza Chamber of Commerce, Hotel Palafox, Tarazona town council and the Universidad de Zaragoza (School of Tourism), that is a benchmark for tourism in Aragon.

Thus, according to 19Article in DECREE 280/2003, of 4th. November from the Government of Aragon, which approves the organic structure of the Department of Industry, Commerce and Tourism under direct management of the Director General of Tourism, the Promotion, Planning and Study of Tourism Service is responsible for the following:

The generic promotion of tourism in Aragon working with other institutions, organizations and public and private companies in national and international markets, both individually and in collaboration with other autonomic regions as well as the Spanish Government's General Administration Department drawing up yearly plans to promote tourism amenities in Aragon and expanding and disseminating them among the private sector and other regional public institutions and organisations with competences in promoting tourism.

Designing and coordinating the Quality Tourism Plan:

Once the Quality Tourism Plan has been elaborated, is crucial:

1. The coordination with provincial councils, regions and municipality tourism councils for activities in promoting tourism outside Aragon by means of the corresponding coordination commission.
2. The Relationship with Turespaña on the issue of external promotion of inter-regional tourism brands, mainly in a way that could affect the "Spanish Pyrenees" and "The Santiago Way".
3. Publishing and diffusing books or promotional booklets or advertising material.
4. Collecting statistics of tourism, analysing them as well as broadcasting the tourism information generated by the regional tourism sector.
5. The study of the traditional tourism markets, the newly emerging markets and those with a high potential for tourism amenities in Aragon.
6. Identifying new products and opportunities and transmitting the information to the implied companies in the region.

4.2 Any other tasks attributed to it by law

4.2.1 Resources, tourists, promotion and brand

Aragon has a wide variety of natural, heritage and cultural resources of great interest to tourists, which means a very valuable and competitive position for tourism. On the other hand, Aragon spreads over a large territory, which makes difficult to establish a unified brand image for the region when offering it as a tourism destination abroad.

Aragon is the tenth autonomic region in receiving foreign visitors in the national rank, as shown in table 1. Taking the region's resources into account, we believe that this position is still far from the one that Aragon ought to be occupying. Are promotion policies really as effective as they ought to be? Some of the respondents expressed the difficulty for identifying Aragon abroad, a prime issue for achieving the goal of effective promotion.

	Total	Percentage
Spain	35.768.646	100,00%
Andalusia	5.917.640	16,54%
Aragon	383.322	1,07%
Asturias	168.873	0,47%
Balears	6.416.633	17,94%
Canay Island	4.952.353	13,85%
Cantabria	186.035	0,52%
Castilla y Leon	825.198	2,31%
Castilla - La Mancha	327.140	0,91%
Catalonia	8.295.088	23,19%
Comunidad valenciana	2.448.102	6,84%
Extremadura	139.653	0,39%
Galicia	692.121	1,93%
Madrid	3.827.156	10,70%
Murcia	208.614	0,58%
Navarra	173.240	0,48%
Basque country	704.029	1,97%
la Rioja	81.571	0,23%
Ceuta	12.594	0,04%
Melilla	9.284	0,03%

Source: INE, 2009

Table 1. Foreign tourist, year 2008

Though tourism companies, associations and governments attend international fairs, the brand is not visible abroad as a unified one. Different brochures, advertising, displays etc. show the regions, the provinces giving a diversified image which is difficult for tour operators, agencies and foreign tourists to be identified. As a result, the problem is that no one sees Aragon as a whole or unit. Moreover, the tourism technicians who were interviewed from different European countries (Holland, Turkey, Germany, Finland, etc.) said that they did not know "Aragon" as a tourist destination. Obviously, there is a pushing necessity to sell "Aragon" as a brand in other countries, but the appropriate advertising has yet to be made.

	Total	Percentage
Spain	**155.397.856**	**100,00%**
Andalusia	20.200.272	13,00%
Aragon	800.411	0,52%
Asturias	363.310	0,23%
Balears	43.144.382	27,76%
Canay Island	39.008.526	25,10%
Cantabria	383.690	0,25%
Castilla y Leon	1.308.550	0,84%
Castilla - La Mancha	578.190	0,37%
Catalonia	27.793.280	17,89%
Comunidad valenciana	9.726.654	6,26%
Extremadura	248.420	0,16%
Galicia	1.357.733	0,87%
Madrid	8.158.746	5,25%
Murcia	547.900	0,35%
Navarra	292.990	0,19%
Basque country	1.314.452	0,85%
la Rioja	135.050	0,09%
Ceuta	18.930	0,01%
Melilla	16.370	0,01%

Source: INE, 2009

Table 2. Guest nights by foreigners per year 2008

Something similar is happening with the percentage of guest-nights spent in Aragon by foreigners. Aragon is still in tenth position, which reinforces the data given above and shown in the following table. During the interviews carried out with tourism technicians in Aragon, the handicap with one unified brand always came up, and it was considered an issue of vital importance by everyone. If we look at the arrival of foreign tourists according to autonomic regions, it can be seen that the Balearic Islands, Canary Islands, Andalusia and Catalonia, among others, had 83.75% of the total guest-nights from foreign tourists in 2008, which is really a high percentage. However, in any autonomic regions, negative year-to-year variations were recorded, except Aragon, Canary Islands and Extremadura, which is highly significant.These overall data and the data from the Statistics Institute of Aragon throw up a series of figures that show that the Aragonese "Pyrenees" brand is the one that is starting to be recognised and identified in tourism markets in Spain and abroad. Thus, in December 2008, there were 45.6% more foreigners in the area of the Aragonese Pyrenees than in December 2007. This year-to-year variation, far from being significant (as the numbers coming in both 2007 and 2008 were very low) shows that the figures of foreigners are increasing, as shown by the fig 6.

Tourist movement. Hotels. 2008.

Guest-nights, travellers, occupancy and average stay.

Tourist area Aragonese Pyrenees.

	Guest-nights			Travellers			Occupancy Places Percentage	Average Stay Nº days
	Total	Spanish	Foreign	Total	Spanish	Foreign		
Total Aragón	5,235,084	4,434,840	800,244	2,435,396	2,052,040	383,356	40,14	2,15
Aragonese Pyrenees	1,567,795	1,381,565	186,230	593,194	510,300	82,894	36.4	2.64

Participacion of the Aragonese Pyrenees tourist zone in Aragon as a whole 2008.
Unit: Percentage.

Guest-nights

Aragonese Pyrenees 29.5%

Rest of Aragón 70.05%

Travellers

Aragonese Pyrenees 24.36%

Rest of Aragón 75.64%
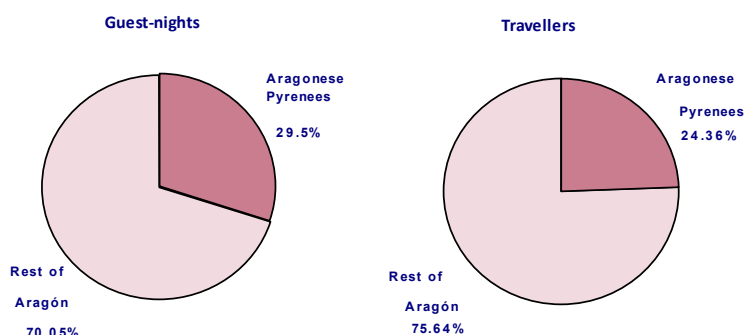
Source: IAEST 2008

Fig. 6. Tourist movement. Hotels 2008.

2,435,396 (84.71%) of the total number of tourists who visited Aragon in 2008 were Spaniards and 15.29% foreigners. The Aragonese Pyrenees were visited by 593,194 tourists, of which 86.03% were Spaniards and 13.97% foreigners. The Aragonese Pyrenees accounted for almost 30% of the guest-nights, and almost 25% of travellers coming to Aragon as tourists.

Finally, we must describe the origin of the tourists coming to Aragon. 83% of tourists come from Spain, while only 14.17% are foreigners, whereas 11.18% are European Union (EU) citizens. Table 3 shows that most visitors to the region are from: France (134,796), Portugal

	Total	percentage
Total	4.405.040	100,00%
Spanish	3.780.643	85,83%
Foreigners	624.396	14,17%
European Union (ex. Spain)	492.550	11,18%
Germany	70.414	1,60%
Austria	15.632	0,35%
Belgium	19.849	0,45%
Denmark	2.463	0,06%
Finland	2.153	0,05%
France	134.796	3,06%
Greece	1.240	0,03%
Ireland	434	0,01%
Italy	61.024	1,39%
Luxemburg	808	0,02%
Netherlands	15.834	0,36%
Poland	10.786	0,24%
Portugal	94.235	2,14%
United Kingdom	4.804	0,11%
Czech Republic	1.270	0,03%
Sweden	3.752	0,09%
Rest of EU	4.657	0,11%
Norway	4.307	0,10%
Russia	3.499	0,08%
Switzerland	4.922	0,11%
Rest of Europe	2.339	0,05%
United States	24.493	0,56%
Rest of America	35.226	0,80%
Africa	9.629	0,22%
Rest of World	26.730	0,61%

Table 3. Guest-nights travellers to Aragon by country of origin.

(94,235), Germany (70,414), Italy (61,024) and the UK (48,804), followed by the other countries whose numbers are insignificant. This data proves that Aragon needs to increase its promotion as a unified brand in the rest of Europe and the world.

c.1. Attendance to fairs

The government of Aragon and private initiatives are making great efforts to carry the image of Aragon as a tourist destination to the whole of Spain and Europe. For this reason, the Aragon Pavilion attends to 30 tourism fairs in Spain: some of them are general, and others specialised. The specialised tourism fairs are those for skiing, spas, camping, mountains, hot-water treatments, active sports, adventure, nature and rural tourism.

In Europe, the Government of Aragon is participating in 8 fairs in France, our neighbouring country across the Pyrenees. Other countries in Europe are represented as follows: Germany, 10; Belgium, 3; the Netherlands, 4; United Kingdom, 4; Portugal, 2; Denmark: 2; Italy, 2; Finland, 1; Sweden, 1; Norway, 1; Luxemburg, 1; Russia, 1; Hungary, 1; Slovakia, 1 and Czech Republic, 1.

The display of means and human resources is quite remarkable. One should expect that the results would be equally remarkable, but unfortunately, the data are not as positive as foreseen.

5. Sustainability in tourism in Aragón (Spain)

Despite the fact that tourism has been, and still is, one of the main production sectors in Spain and Aragon, that has generated a great deal of wealth, neither politicians nor institutions are giving the importance that it deserves mainly in a context of global crisis that is still going on.

Sustainability has been applied to different industries in economy but it is just lately starting to be considered in tourism sector.

Our analysis suggests that, at times, tourism is being seen and experienced as a risk, in the sense that it is incompatible with maintaining natural resources in the long term, or even other types of cultural, ethnographic, life-style, etc.

Therefore, our study focuses on the fact that tourism is compatible with sustainability (Elkington, 1994), as it would be:

- Providing optimum use of environmental resources that are a basic element of development of tourism, maintaining essential ecological processes and helping to preserve natural resources and biological diversity.
- Respecting the socio-cultural authenticity of the host communities, preserving their cultural, architectural and life assets and traditional values, and contribute to understanding intercultural tolerance.
- Ensuring long-term, viable economic activities, providing all agents with widely distributed socio-economic benefits, opportunities for stable employment, and obtaining an income and social services for the host communities, and to reduce poverty (Sanagustín et al, 2011).

5.1 Resources & human factor

Aragon has all the natural resources, hotel infrastructure and financial investment required to make of tourism a profitable activity. However, it can be observed that the results are quite far from the ones expected, what could suggest that not everything is being done properly. Perhaps some of the factors or these combinations should be reviewed. Empirical studies point that human factor ought to be put under review (Sanagustín, et al, 2008). Aragon is wealthy in culture, landscape, cuisine and sports, highly appreciated by tourists, who look at it through the eyes of "others"; nevertheless, sometimes Aragonese population does not appreciate the richness of the territory. It is a truth, though philosophical, that one couldn't love another if one does not love oneself, or more specifically: you cannot offer something with love if you do not love it by yourself. Learning to love what you possess and offer it with the purest hospitality, apart from being a very satisfying and gratifying personal experience, may become a very wealthy experience, and not only financially speaking.

5.2 Tourism Image and brand

The diversity of natural, heritage and cultural patrimony is a valuable competitive advantage, due to the fact that Aragon is a very broad region; however, this advantage makes difficult to establish a unified image as a tourist destination, and is a hindrance in the process of seeking a single reason why "Aragon" should be a very easily identified tourist destination to be chosen by foreigners. Most data analysed in this chapter show that it is necessary to improve general promotion in Europe and throughout the world, using only one single, unified and easily recognised brand image.

The Aragonese Pyrenees are starting to be recognised and identified as a destination by tourist markets in Spain and abroad. Thus, in December 2008, there were 45.6% more foreigners in the area of the Aragonese Pyrenees than in December 2007. This inter-annual variation, far from being significant (as the numbers coming in both 2007 and 2008 were very low) shows that the numbers of foreigners are increasing. We wonder if the Aragonese Pyrenees as a brand image for tourism would be capable of attracting people who do not want skiing or climbing mountains, looking for other types of tourism. Data from various sources show that rural and cultural tourism is increasing in this Spanish region.

5.3 Rural tourism

Rural Tourism is one of the main types of tourism developed in this region due to its direct link to historical evolution, its orographic situation and the peaceful quietness of Aragon. The search of authentic destinations, that have been witness of old civilizations, lead directly to this offer. There is a direct relationship between tourists and the host community (Boissevain, 2005). Tourism generates economic activity and new jobs; it also increases confidence and value in the host community reinforcing its specific identity. Mass tourism can destroy the essence of host communities, making them commercialised and standardised in a global planet. In Aragon, rural tourism is a complement to traditional countryside and mountain activity, without losing the essence and authenticity of the area.

Authenticity must be an engine for sustainable development, which will remain constant, or even increase, in times of crisis, while mass tourism falls down.

6. Conclusion

Sustainable tourism in Aragon (Spain) is a real possibility that provides beneficial economic resources for any stakeholder: social, environmental or financial ones, that according to Mowford & Munt (2009) is the new notion for sustainability, that, at its most basis encapsulates the growing concern for the environment and natural resources, though has also had increasing resonance in social and economic issues". Close to this statement are the words of McCool & Moisey (2002), which in his introduction say: "sustainable tourism is a kinder, gentler form of tourism that is generally small in scale, sensitive to cultural and environment impact and respects the involvement of local people in policy decisions".

In our opinion and for our case, politicians as well as entrepreneurs or tourism agency owners, hotel/houses hosts could profit from this type of countryside tourism that would contribute to increase even the Aragonese population's life quality and style. Moreover, this global financial crisis could be collaborating with the increasing number of tourists visiting Aragon, as rural tourism is less expensive than the conventional one. In this sense, it could be said that sustainable tourism could turn vice into virtue: the crisis which is mostly negative has turned positive as far as rural tourism is related. From different perspectives, it is also easier to maintain a small rural house than an international hotel.

Most of the visitors are regional and national citizens, who stay in Aragon on holidays and short periods that want a wide range choice: any type of routes and itineraries all over the region that could satisfy any tourist wish or demand. However, during last years the number of foreigner visitors (mostly Europeans) has increased, specially in the Pyrenees, mainly active tourism (sport, mountains, landscape and gastronomy), that are becoming real interest point. According to the INE data, about 25% of the tourists visiting Aragon were concentrated in Pyrenees that are becoming a tourism brand recognised by most tourists visiting Aragon, even if they do not stay there.

Social changes are happening as quickly as tourist demands are been transformed. If some years ago, the classical formula of "beach-and-sun" was enough to gratify and satisfy the tourists, nowadays they demand some other conditions much closer to natural and ecological environments where biological diversity is as important as preserving nature.. Postmodernism society is characterised by the tendency to live in larger cities, with a lot of stress and competitiveness. A new tendency is emerging nowadays, people are looking for nature to have a rest and pay more attention to their health and wellness and they are also willing to have an deep communication face to face with others, it is called the integral style of living (Wilber, 2001.)

As far as the results of this survey are concerned, this goal would need some characteristics to be changed to adapt the tourism offer to the present and future demand. Tourism trends are projecting a new tourism style. Values like authenticity, biological diversity, natural landscapes are highly appreciated. Hospitality and personal attention are also positively evaluated as well as a good or standard level of regional gastronomy. Traditional habits,

folklore, ethnical or anthropological specialities are also searched and appreciated. In times of financial crisis a sense of humanized hospitality is also highly appreciated, whereas in international hotels, this hospitality sense is absent.

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A Model for Assessing the Level of Tourism Impacts and Sustainability of Coastal Cities

Beser Oktay Vehbi
Eastern Mediterranean University, Faculty of Architecture,
Department of Architecture, North Cyprus,
Turkey

1. Introduction

Over the last century, tourism has became one of the fastest growing industries in the world and current trends and tendencies indicate that it could become the most important sector in terms of international trading in the 21st century. Most governments encourage tourism because of its ability to increase and spread economic development thus reducing the inequalities in income distribution by providing and creating employment opportunities (Pearce, 1989; Coccossis & Parpairis, 1995; Wahab & Pigram, 1997). Nevertheless, the development of tourism, which is dependent upon the attractive features of the primary resources of destinations, particularly over the last decade, has raised many questions concerning the physical and social destruction of those resources, which initially attracted tourists. Although it has led to an enormous increase in investment and employment, the tourism industry may become a threat if not managed appropriately (Calvia Declaration on Tourism, 1997).

It is obvious that a fundamental relationship exists between the environment and tourism. The environment, natural or built, is the most fundamental ingredient for tourism development. The natural environment is that which exists in nature such as the climate and weather, the landscape and its topography, water features and the ecological systems. The built environment is comprised of physical features that are mainly all types of buildings, infrastructural development, as well as archeological and historical sites (Inskeep, 1991, p. 339). As Inskeep (1991) indicates, there are three aspects of the tourism-environment relationship, these are;

- Many features of the physical environment are consistently to be attractions for tourists,
- Tourism facilities and the infrastructure constitute all aspects of the built environment,
- Tourism development and tourist use of an area generates an environmental impact.

Considering the above arguments, the development of tourism is highly dependent on the availability and the type of attractive natural and/or built resources in an area, which tourists demand, expect and pay for. In many coastal cities, particularly, the natural, unspoiled scenery, beaches, mountains, ancient monuments, traditional, historical, picturesque towns and villages and many more factors constitute the primary factors in creating a successful tourism industry. A specific type of tourism development of an area

(e.g. beach resort, ski resort, etc.) depends primarily on the nature of areas environmental resources.

However, coastal areas are faced with increasing pressures of development, particularly tourism development, and are also more likely to be faced with increasing challenges with regard to their environmental protection (Coccossis & Parpairis, 1995). The increasing amount of tourism development erodes the environmental resources on which it depends. On the other hand, tourism has the potential to create beneficial effects on the environment by contributing to environmental protection and conservation. It is a way to raise awareness of environmental values and it can serve as a tool to finance protection of natural areas and increase their economic importance.

In order to prevent these haphazard development and negative impacts, tourism need to be ecologically acceptable in the long term and financially viable and fair from a social and ethical for local communities (UNEP & WTO,1998, p: 1). In other words, it must be sustainable. According to one of the sustainable tourism definition, tourism must become part of the natural, cultural and human environment, respecting the balance that is characteristic of many coastal cities. Also it is economically viable but does not destroy the resources on which the future of tourism will depend, notably the physical environment and the social structure of the host community (Swarbrooke, 1998, p: 14).

With these initial discussion points in mind, the aim of this study is to develop a model for assessing the level of impacts of tourism on the physical, economic and social environments in coastal cities and to determine relationship beween tourism impacts and sustainable tourism indicators. With this aim in mind, the study first reviews the positive and negative impacts of tourism on the physical, economic and social environments of the coastal cities. In the second part, the relationship between tourism and sustainability, sustainable tourism is discussed. Then, the sustainability indicators, their selections and scaling methods which are essential for assessing impacts of tourism, are explained. In the fourth part, the model for measuring and assessing the level of tourism impacts and its sustainability in coastal cities is presented. Finally, a general conclusion is presented to summarize all the arguments of the study.

1.1 Tourism impacts

The effects resulting from tourism have appeared clearly and more perceived in the coastal cities. Generally, tourism impacts, which become different according to countries or regions, may be classified in three titles; economic, socio-cultural and physical (natural and built). Moreover, these titles may respectively display positive and negative features.

The tourism impacts on the physical environment are associated with the interferences with to the natural, cultural or historical resources, which may be reflected as the development of tourist service facilities, the preservation of historic and cultural resources, the provision of recreation opportunities for visitors and residents, better roads and public facilities (Davis et al., 1988; Gartner, 1996; Liu & Var, 1986; Milman & Pizam, 1988; Murphy, 1985).

1.1.1 Physical environment (Natural and built environment)

Natural areas form the very basis of many tourist attractions by highlighting the scenic value or exceptional encounters with fauna and/or flora. Tourism activities affect the

natural environment in various ways and some forms of tourism can be extremely detrimental to ecologically sensitive areas, resulting in habitat degeneration or destruction. It can cause the deterioration of green fields, pollution of sea water as well as air and noise pollution. However, it may also call for the conservation of natural green areas and an improvement in the quality of the environment.

In general, the built environment in tourist areas includes densely populated centers as well as the ruins of past settlements. Tourism was not the initial factor in the development of these built environments, but it exerts a powerful influence in the patterns of the daily life in such environments (Gartner, 1996). Tourism may create a positive as well as a negative impact at significant levels in those areas where the built environment is the major tourist attraction in terms of its age, aesthetic appearance and historical interest.

The size and intensity of tourism development and the associated urbanization of the coastline, the production of industrial wastes and the generation of pollution together with insufficient planning controls, are the primary causes of environmental degradation and transformation in the built environment of the coastal cities. The pattern of the expansion of tourism functions depends on the nature of the surrounding topography, the transportation network and the existence and enforcement of planning regulations and restrictions (Matheison & Wall, 1982, p.120).

Conservation of the historical and cultural heritage, preservation of the traditional buildings as well as the enhancement of the environment and the restoration of the old fabric together with the adaptation thereof to meet the requirements of contemporary life are positive impacts of tourism in the built environment (Inskeep, 1991, p.342; Ashworth & Goodal, 1990; Matheison & Wall, 1982, p.98-99). In addition to this, the increase in the number of tourists may encourage the development of an infrastructure such as transport, road maintenance, organizing parking areas and the provisions of water and electricity in peak seasons.

There is no doubt that, tourist increase the challenge of managing sustainable resources. Large number of tourists may be a threat for these resources. Because, in peak periods of the year tourist numbers often double the islands population and this situation also leads to (Mathieveson & Wall, 1982, p: 118):

- Overcrowding increasing pressure on the natural resource environment including demands for service provision such as water.
- Over-development of the built environment create pressure on the service facilities and infrastructure development,
- Pollution from sources causes degradation and overuse of the natural environment.

Another spatial effect by tourism development is the second-home development, especially which emerges on coastal areas. By means of the rapid development of these second homes the region becomes the core for tourism development. Moreover, the possession of the agricultural and olive-tree lands, start to change owners and are open for building.

Main positive indicators of the tourism on physical environments are increased environmental consciousness, improving the beauty of the environmental landscape and protection of local architecture. Moreover, these can be added as to contributing to positive consequences (UN, 2001, p: 8):

- Encouraging the environment awareness of local people and business to use environment protection programs.
- Supporting the maintenance and improvement of natural heritage and ensuring its conservation for present and future use.
- Better usage of the environment.
- Providing economic incentive pay for investment in water quality or beaches.

The environmental changes resulting from tourism not only include the features of natural structures, but also historical and architectural heritages of the area. Thus, during the tourism development, these heritages may be damaged or harmed. In this context, no protection of the characteristics of local architecture seen as protected in new developing areas are underlined as different important problems. In other words, tourism negatively causes the demolition of the traditional townscapes in order to accommodate the tourism industry (Ashworth & Goodal, 1990). Tourist facilities, such as- restaurants, cafes and second homes, can alter the local identity and affect the physical appearance of the coastal cities, in a negative manner. Some of the visual pollution caused by tourism can be summarized as follows (Inskeep, 1991, p. 345):

- Poorly–designed hotels and other tourist facility buildings that are not compatible with the local architectural style and scale or integrated into the natural environment;
- Use of inappropriate building materials on external surfaces;
- Badly planned layout of the tourist facilities;
- Obstruction of scenic views by development.

1.1.2 Economic environment

Tourism development has both positive and negative impacts on the economy of coastal cities as well as on their countries as a whole. Tourism offers opportunities for the development of leisure activities, cultural awareness and international exchanges as well as providing employment and income in the coastal towns (Coccossis & Parpairis, 1995, p.2).

The economic impacts of tourism on an area can be understood at two different levels- the national level and the local level. At national level the most publicized effect of foreign tourism is its ability to generate foreign exchange and thus contribute positively to the country's balance of payment. At a local level, job creation or the reduction of unemployment has been identified as one of the most prominent benefits of tourism development. Economic gain, an increased standard of living (Milman & Pizam,1988), income re-distribution for hosts and government (Perdue et al., 1987), the price of goods and services (Johnson et al., 1994); the cost of land and housing (Perdue et al., 1987), the cost of living, the development and maintenance of the infrastructure and resources are other examples of the economic impacts of tourism development. In addition, the positive economic impact of tourism may contribute towards, or even provide much needed funds for preserving the historic and /or natural environment and the cultural heritage of the local environments.

However, tourism may create undesired negative effects such as over-dependence on the tourism sector , increased inflation and higher values, increased amount of import (labor or goods), seasonality of production and so low rate of return on investment and creation of other costs such as garbage collection and disposal (UN, 2001, p: 7).

1.1.3 Social environment

Whereas economic and environmental indicators of tourism do lend themselves to objective measurement, the socio-cultural impacts are often highly qualitative and subjective in nature (Cooper et al., 1998). According to Gartner (1996), most jobs which are available for local people in the tourist industry, such as servants, housemaids, waiters, gardeners and other menial work may make people feel inferior. In addition to this, the inhabitants may lose their jobs on account of the seasonality of such works in these areas. Tourism also creates cultural exchange opportunities and more recreational facilities, but it can also cause disruption to various quality of life factors. In other words, tourism creates opportunity for locals to learn and share the cultural traditions and aspects of the tourist's indigenous culture and heritage, whilst also giving rise for concern. As has already been stated, information gathered from the literature, reveals and confirms that tourism can lead to the improvement of local public services (Keogh, 1990), increased cultural activity (McCool & Martin, 1994), and the alteration to some aspects of traditional culture (Akis et al., 1996). Conversely, careful and monitored tourism can also led to the re-ceration and preservation of the identity of local culture (Liu and Var, 1986). However, the social and cultural impacts of tourism development could negatively affect the perception of residents (Jurowski et al., 1997; Liu & Var, 1986; Milman & Pizam, 1988; Perdue et al., 1987). In addition to this, the influence of tourists can cause young people to become involved in bad habits. It can also create a degree of apathy (Doxey, 1976) between tourists and locals as a result of different and perhaps unexpected behaviour and the obvious wealth of the tourists. Congestion, traffic jams, noise and increasing crime are some examples of the socio-cultural impacts of tourism (Gunn, 1988; Johnson et al., 1994; Milman & Pizam, 1988).

2. Sustainable tourism

There are many definitions available for tourism and sometimes it's difficult to give the most correct explanation. Basically, tourism is a movement in space from a person's home district to one or more destinations and then back again in a certain period.

Sustainability is about meeting basic human needs and wants. People value their health, economic security and happiness and that of their children. These are primary elements in relation to the issue of quality of life. Sustainability refers to "long-term economic, environmental, and community health" (Bauen et al., 1996, p. 4). According to Bauen et al. (1996), it was suggested that researching and identifying new ways of creating economic vitality, maintaining a healthy environment and building healthy communities and meeting local needs.

The Brundtland Report (WCED, 1987) formulated the well-known definition of sustainable development as, "sustainable development is development that meets the needs of present generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs". Sustainable tourism, is a kind of development model, which administrates all of the resources for the economic, social and aesthetical needs of locals and visitors and prove the same conditions for future generations and meets their needs while protecting the artificial-natural environment and cultural wholeness, proving the continuity of the ecological process, the biological variety; and the life systems, without any changes (WTO, 1998, p: 32).

There are many available definitions about sustainable tourism but there is not any commonly accepted one. According to WTO, sustainable tourism development meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future. It is very important management of all resources in such a way that economic and social needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological process, biological diversity and life support systems (WTO, 1993, p: 10).

In general, many definitions of sustainable tourism emphasize the environmental, social and economic elements of the tourism system. For instance, sustainable tourism means the tourism which is economically viable but does not destroy the resources on which the future of tourism will depend, notably the physical environment and the social structure of the host community (Swarbrooke, 1998, p: 14). Also, the policy of sustainable tourism development refers to tourism as being ecologically acceptable in the long term and financially viable and fair from a social and ethical viewpoint for local communities (Rogers & Collins, 2001). Thus, tourism must become part of the natural, cultural and human environment, respecting the balance that is characteristic of many holiday destinations particularly of small islands. Sustainable tourism also emphasizes on conserving the cultural heritage and traditions of local communities.
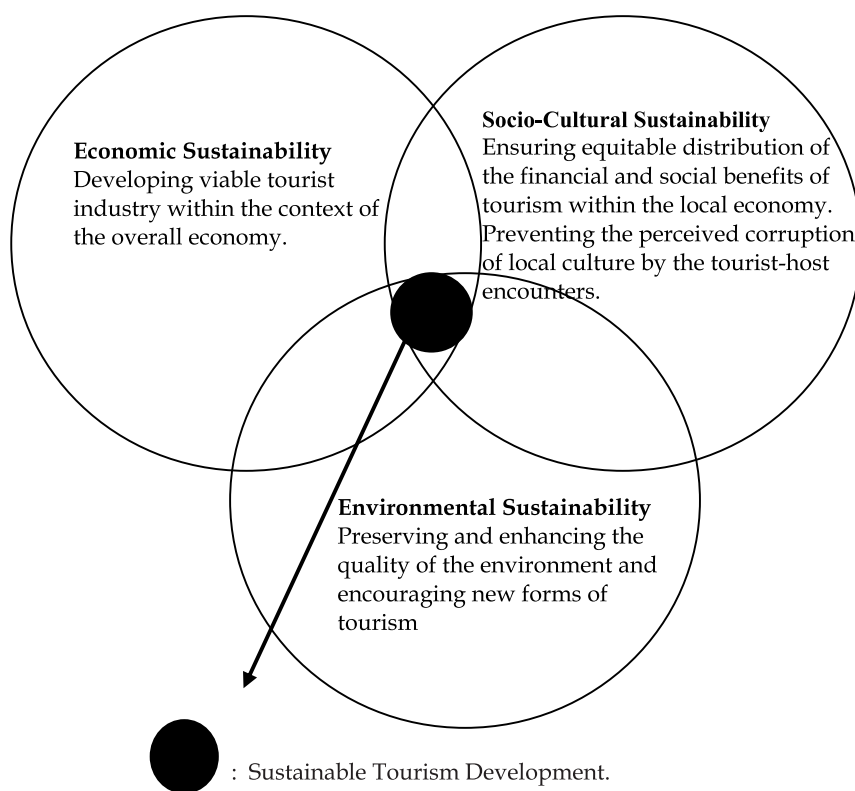

Fig. 1. Three Dimensions of Sustainable Tourism Development (Derived from Brigiglio et al, 1996, p: 75).

Having reviewed the literature, it can be stated that the sustainable development for tourism sector can be achieved by basing the research on the holistic understating of it, which means by taking its environmental, social and economic dimensions into consideration (Figure 1). Sustainable tourism can be achieved by improving positive impacts of tourism and eliminating the negative ones in the economic, social and physical environments of cities. Coastal cities, in particular, faced with lose of their unique natural, built environment characteristics, seasonality of jobs and over-pendency on tourism. In order to prevent and/or eliminate these negative impacts of tourism in coastal cities, it is necessary to activate sustainable tourism that means preserving and carrying the social, economic and physical structures for future with dealing with social equity, environmental preservation and economic development.

As it is clear, the two different concepts, sustainability and tourism are directly related. Accordingly, depending on the three-dimensional characteristics of them, the sustainable tourism development in a coastal city can only be possible with eliminating the negative impacts of tourism. It is possible also to say that, positive and negative impacts are also indicators of sustainable tourism.

After emphasizing the relationship between the two concepts—sustainable tourism and tourism impacts—and in respect of the stated main aim of this study, which is to assess the level of tourism impacts and to determine relationship beween tourism impacts and sustainable tourism indicators, the following text will first present detailed information on the sustainable tourism indicators, which are essential in order to set up a assessing model; following this, the model for measuring the impacts of tourism in coastal cities will be presented.

3. Sustainable tourism indicators: Measurement

Generally speaking, Adriaanse (1993) defines an indicator as a quantitative model and a form of information that makes a certain phenomenon perceptible that is not immediately detectable. Indicators therefore provide a simpler and more readily understand form of information than complex statistics or complex phenomena. The three main functions of indicators are: *quantification, simplification and communication*. Indicators also help to follow the change of phenomena in time scale and the development of phenomena in relation to the stated objects. One of the other important functions of an indicator with reference to decision-making is its potential to show the trend, i.e. the course of development, in an early stage. In order to work with indicators, one needs data, which comes from a monitoring process. Therefore, indicators should be objective and the results should be repeatable. In many cases, indicators should also be internationally comparable, although those were mainly used nationally. The main risk with regard to indicators concerns excessive simplifying and loosing of important information.

There are numerous studies on indicators, in the literature, in general and sustainability indicators in particular. For example, two scholars, Gilbert and Feenstra (1992) have, on the basis of the literature, identified four desired features of indicators:

- The indicator must be representative for the system chosen and must have a scientific basis.
- Indicators must be quantifiable.

- A part of the cause-effect chain should be clearly represented by the indicator.
- The indicator should offer implications for policy.

According to some other scholars (Atkisson, et al.,1997; Maclaren, 1996b; Hart, 1999), good sustainability indicators should be relevant, valid, consistent, reliable, comparable, measurable and comprehensive.

Sustainable tourism indicators are tools, which could be used for sustainable tourism development. Resulting from the expansion of the notion of sustainability and the need to implement it in practice, indicators are being developed for evaluating choices which are being made during the developmental process and impacts made upon the natural and socio-economic environment. They provide a framework for evaluating existing situations, as well as, future developmental activities in the field of tourist service production (http://www.rainforest-alliance.org/programs/sv/stsc-gats-standards.pdf, WTO 2002).

Existing literature on sustainable tourism indicators (WTO, 1993; 1995) has focused on the definition / estimation of indicators for newly developed destinations. In these places sustainable tourism planning has been an issue since the very early stages of their development and the proposed indicators are defined and monitored continuously. Sustainable tourism indicators alike the sustainability indicators are about integrating tourism to its environmental and socio-cultural context (Farsari & Prastacos, 2001).

During this research, many methods of measuring sustainability have been considered. Specialists in the area of sustainable development have developed lots of different ways in which to test sustainability (Randall, 2004; Cunningham et al. 2004). For this research, scaling technique is selected to be used for measuring sustainability. Scaling of effects addresses issues of magnitude and is based on a numerical system in which the highest number represents a very good effect and the lowest number represents a very adverse effect. The mid-point would be an average effect, or a neutral one. This can be used alone to determine some composite score for magnitude or it can be combined with a weighting scheme to incorporate considerations of importance or significance. For example, using a scale of 1 to 5 in a sustainability study, the following definitions could be applied to qualitative assessments of some activity or process:

- 1 - unsustainable in all respects
- 2 - approaching unsustainable conditions
- 3 - partially sustainable
- 4 - sustainable in most aspects
- 5 - highly sustainable

In order to develop effective, measurable and good indicators, which clearly address the sustainable tourism; it is important to recognize that these indicators need to be specific for a case study area, as Maclaren (1996) and Oktay (2005) argued. Therefore, the formulation and selection model for sustainable development indicators is necessary to develop for this purpose.

4. Model for formulating sustainable tourism indicators

Depending on the main argument of this research, the way of defining a set of indicators for sustainable tourism that perceive tourism in a more holistic approach, is selected to relate

them with the negative and positive impacts of tourism activity under three dimensions-physical, economic and social.

Based on the relationship between sustainable tourism and tourism impacts in coastal cities as discussed previously, the possible negative and positive tourism impacts on the physical, economic and social structure of a city and the indicators of environmental sustainability, economic sustainability and social sustainability need to be determined in order to achieve sustainable tourism indicators. This also will lead us to assess the level of impacts and sustainability of tourism development in coastal cities as is indicated in the model presented in Table 1.

MODEL for assessing the impacts of tourism in coastal city
▼
Analyzing the natural, built, socio-economic characteristics of the Case Study Area
▼
Identifying the relevant sustainable tourism indicators/impacts from the literature according to natural, built and socio-economic environment characteristics
▼
Determining the measurement units and required analysis for each selected impact
▼
Completing the Analyses in Natural, Built Environments of the Case Study Area
▼
Evaluation and assessment of the impacts of tourism and/or sustainable tourism indicators
▼
Measuring the selected indicators by using scaling technique and **finding out tourism impacts and level of sustainability** in the selected case study area.
▼
Findings and Suggestions

Table 1. Model for assessing tourism impacts.

As can be seen from the table, this model, in general terms, includes four major inter-related steps:

1. The first step is the identification of the positive and negative tourism impacts on the physical, economic and social structure of a city. They are determined with the support of literature reviews, internet and from different case studies (Table 2).
2. The second step is concerned with the identification of sustainability indicators. The suitable, measurable and accessible economic, environmental and social indicators of sustainability are selected, amongst many others. Those which can fit the above defined impacts of tourism are also taken into consideration.
3. Matching the positive and negative impacts of tourism and sustainability indicators in order to identify the indicators of sustainable tourism (see Table 3).
4. All indicators under three sub-systems (Economic, environmental, social) are separately grouped under common issues/principles, i.e. the causing factors.

	Impacts of Tourism on the Physical Environment	Impacts of Tourism on the Economy	Impacts of Tourism on Social Life
Negative Impacts	Deterioration and reduction of green fields	Over-dependence on tourism	Create a degree of apathy between tourists and locals
	Loss of natural landscape	Increased inflation and higher values	Congestion
	Loss of open space	Increased amount of import (labor or goods)	Traffic jams,
	Sea water and air, noise, waste and visual pollution	Seasonality of production and so low rate of return on investment.	Pollution (noise, air, water)
	Size and intensity of tourism development	Creation of other costs such as garbage collection and disposal	Crime
	Demolition of the traditional townscapes because of tourist facilities		Safety
	Degradation of historic sites, and monuments		
	Overpowering building size and style		
	Use of inappropriate building materials on external surfaces		
	Obstruction of scenic view by development		
	Insufficient Planning Controls		
Positive Impacts	Conservation of natural green areas	Development of leisure activities,	Improvement of local public services
	Improvement in quality of environment	Development of cultural awareness	Increased cultural activity
	Improvement in public awareness of environmental issues	Providing employment	Alteration to some aspects of traditional culture
	Conservation of the historical and cultural heritage	Enhancing income level	Re-ceration and preservation of the identity of local culture
	Restoration of the old fabric	Reduction of unemployment	Improve quality of life
	Number/ Ratio of preserved traditional building typology	Increased standard of living	Introduce the benefits of interactions between people of different cultural backgrounds
	Improvement of the area's appearance (visual, architectural and aesthetic)	Affordable price of goods and services	
	Restrict and control traffic	Cost of land and housing Cost of living	
	Development of an infrastructure such as transport, road maintenance, organizing parking areas	Development and maintenance of the infrastructure and resources	

Table 2. List of tourism impacts (developed from literature review).

SUSTAINABLE TOURISM INDICATORS

ECONOMIC INDICATORS	ENVIRONMENTAL (ecological and built environment) INDICATORS	SOCIAL INDICATORS
Economy	**Loss of Renewable resources**	**Host community**
• Employment growth in tourism	• Air Quality index	• Degree of apathy between locals and tourists
• Unemployment rate	• Number f contaminated site	• Host community attitude toward tourism development
• Increase in inflation and higher values	• Pollution levels: water, air, noise, visual pollution	• Resident involvement in tourism industry
• Increase amount of import (labor and goods)	• Soil and beach (natural site) erosion	• Satisfaction of locals from tourism development
• Seasonality of tourism	**Loss of non-renewable resources**	**Community health and safety**
• Seasonality of production	• Loss of vegetation	• Level of safety
• High prices for goods and services	• Loss of endangered species	• Crime ratio
• Ratio of tourism facilities in the area	• Attractiveness of the site	• Overcrowding
• Number and size of recreational, cultural and spiritual sites	• Loss of open spaces	• Congestion (traffic)
	• Deforestation	• Public awareness towards value of tourism
	• Conservation of natural green areas	• Loss of traditional lifestyle and knowledge
	• Improvement in the quality of environment	• Interaction between locals and different cultures
	Land (building architecture)	• Improvement in local public services
	• Size and intensity of tourism development	• Increased standards of living
	• Insufficient planning controls	
	• Loss of traditional townscape	**Social cohesion**
	• Degradation of historic sites	• Change in social cohesion
	• The use of inappropriate building material on external surfaces	• Change in family cohesion
	• Ratio of buildings that worth to be preserved	• Breakdown and alienation
	• Ratio of incompatible uses	
	• Development in Infrastructure activities	
	• Creating recreational areas	
	• Improvement of area's visual qualities	
	• Proportion of preserved/restored buildings	
	• Rate of use of local construction materials and techniques in new tourism development	

Table 3. Sustainable tourism indicators.

Negative Impacts of Tourism on the Built Environment	Measurement Units	Required Analysis
Size and intensity of tourism development	Form and size of tourism buildings	Statistical documents, Architectural evaluation, Silhouette, figure ground analysis and Observation
Demolition of the traditional townscapes because of tourist facilities	Form, details and size of poorly designed buildings	Silhouette and Figure ground and Building height analysis
Degradation of historic sites, and monuments	Degraded buildings as a percentage of total urban surface area (%)	Land use analysis
Overpowering building size and style	Number of overpowering tourisms buildings as a percentage of total urban surface area (%)	Silhouette and Urban Pattern Analysis
Use of inappropriate building materials on external surfaces	Existence of inappropriate building materials, and details on the façades	Architectural Evaluation (Façade analysis) and observation
Obstruction of scenic view by development	Number of inhuman scaled and bulk sized buildings along the shoreline and around the existing environment	Figure-ground, Silhouette analysis, building heights and observation
Insufficient Planning Controls	Effects of legislation and planning controls	Existing laws and regulations
Positive Impacts of Tourism on the Built Environment	Measurements Units	Required Analysis
Conservation of the historical and cultural heritage	Conserved historic buildings as a percentage of total urban surface area (%)	Listed Building Analysis
Restoration of the old fabric	Preserved restored buildings as a percentage of total urban surface area (%)	Land use survey
Number/ Ratio of preserved traditional building typology	Preserved traditional buildings as a percentage of total urban surface area (%)	Structural Condition and Façade Analysis, Listed building analysis
Improvement of the area's appearance (visual, architectural and aesthetic)	Details, heights and form of the existing urban pattern	Silhouette and Architectural Evaluation Analysis

Restrict and control traffic	Mode of transportation in the case study area	Traffic Analysis
Development of an infrastructure such as transport, road maintenance, organizing parking areas	Improvement in water, electricity, drainage and telephone systems	Observations

Table 4. The measurement units and required analysis for each selected negative and positive impacts of tourism on the built environment.

After having a sustainable tourism indicator list based on the above mentioned method, there is need for determining, selecting the relevant indicators for each case area. Since each of the case study areas has different natural, built and socio-cultural characteristics, some of the already determined impacts (indicators) from the available literature cannot be relevant for them; in other words, indicators of the positive and negative impacts need to be site-specific before determining the tourism impacts. Accordingly, the relevant impacts (indicators) should be determined for the selected area. Keeping this in mind, a model has been developed, which is composed of several steps (Table 4):

a. determination of the physical and socio-economic characteristics of a case study area;
b. identification and selection (determination) of the relevant sustainable tourism indicators in accordance with the physical, economic and social characteristics of case areas;
c. identification of means of assessment and required analysis methods for each indicators (Table 4);
d. application of the analyses in three dimensions of case study areas;
e. evaluation and assessment of the impacts of tourism and/or sustainable tourism indicators on the case study areas
f. Measuring the selected indicators by using scaling technique and finding out the level of sustainability in the selected case study area.
g. presentation of findings and suggestions for decreasing the negative impacts and encouraging the positive impacts.

After completing the analyses and applying scaling techniques for each impacts in three structures of a coastal city, the positive and negative impacts of tourism and as well as the level of sustainable tourism development in a coastal areas can be achieved. In the conclusion part of this study, the proposals will be discussed in order to prove this relation and to have more sustainable coastal cities.

5. Conclusion

This research has set out a theoretical framework based on the inter-related concepts and approach of "tourism impacts and sustainability", and it has used these concepts to propose a model for measuring the level of sustainable tourism in coastal cities.

In setting out to test the applicability of this approach in measuring the sustainability of tourism development in any urban area, it is stated that each case study site needs to have different set of indicators according to the differences in their geographic, economic, social

and environmental structures. In due course, indicators may vary in their relevance according to the local environment and the final purpose of their measurement and monitoring.

This research has also indicated that there is direct relationship between tourism impacts and the level of sustainability in the structures of a particular area. Based on this argument, successful, long-term and sustainable tourism development in coastal cities can only be achieved by eliminating the negative impacts of tourism. This also can be said in a way that, when the level of sustainability is high in any one of these three structures-economic, environment, social - it means the level of negative impacts is low in the same structures of a coastal city. In other words, if the physical environment of a coastal city has affected by the negative impacts of tourism, the result of this paper leads us to say that, the physical structure of a coastal city might be in unsustainable conditions.

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Introduction to Tourism Satellite Accounts

Tadayuki (Tad) Hara

¹Rosen College of Hospitality Management, University of Central Florida
& Advisory Committee Member on International Trends on Tourism Statistics,
²Japan Tourism Agency, Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism
¹USA
²Japan

1. Introduction

While tourism appear to be a fun topic to study in general, tourism is tough to measure as an industry. Tourism emerged as a viable industry a little bit too late to be included in the system of national accounts. Therefore, we have to work around the established national accounting systems to measure it as accurate as possible, while tourism researchers must pay respect to the existing accounting system of the world. Tourism Satellite Accounts (TSA) is a de-jure measure to record activities of tourism as an industry, and it should be emphasized that TSA is not a modelling but accounting to record annual activities of tourism as an industry, similar to income statement (profit and loss statement). In that regard, any attempts by academics to simulate the TSA is just a wrong notion in light of the fundamental spirit of TSA.

Without a technique such as TSA, we can still make an attempt to guess how large the tourism industry is. We may pick up industrial sectors which appear to have strong association with tourists, such as hotels and airlines as a representative group of tourism industry. But if you pick up only highly visible industrial sector that cater to tourists, you have a risk of underestimating the true size of the tourism as an industry. Tourists have to eat, move around (by renting a car or using public transportations), buy souvenirs, purchase attractions and theme park tickets etc. We may widen the selection of industrial sectors beyond hotels and airlines and attribute all the sales of those industrial sectors to tourists' expenditure. Is it reasonable for us to assume that all the sales at coffee shops in a large shopping centers in Tripoli, Dublin, Helsinki, Osaka, Seoul, and Yelevan can be attributed to expenditures by tourists only, even though some of the shopping centers may look like the case? While some sports clubs in resort setting look like they cater only to tourists, how about sports clubs in Kiev, Kyoto or Prague? If there are clients other than tourists, who are they and how should we treat their expenditures to sports club? Unless you introduce certain criteria and rules, inclusion of all the revenues at tourists-affiliated industrial sectors would end up over-estimating the true size of the tourism as an industry. It appears that we have to formulate a concept of a group of industrial sectors which cater to tourists, almost an idea of an industrial complex and extract only the portion of sales which are attributable to tourists, to analyze tourism as an industry.

TSA requires you to filter out the outputs of each industrial sectors into those for tourists and those for others (non-tourists) at the demand side ("who consumed it") and combine those outputs consumed by tourists (visitors) as a mean to assemble them as an industry. TSA has blessings of notable international organizations, including but not limited to World Bank, IMF, OECD, United Nations and its UNWTO as well as tens of nations in the world, which budgets hundreds of millions of dollars of taxpayers' money and engage top economists and national statistics experts to compile, while tourism and hospitality researchers and students sadly have little clue due to apparent disconnect between the world and academics. One of the reasons for disconnect would be the fact that structure of TSA is based on I-O, which appear to present a huge hurdle for many tourism researchers. That is the reason for this chapter to explain minimum required knowledge so that you understand how TSA is created, instead of just talking about it.

2. Brief history

According to Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), around 30% of international trade in services in the OECD zone can be attributed to tourism and that travel part of the service sector of OECD nations, which now count 30 nations, generate around 70% of world-wide tourism business. (OECD 2000) In response to surge of relative importance of tourism as an industry in the last part of the 20th century, national and international organizations proposed methods to capture tourism as an industry. It was not until 1991 that Statistics Canada, Canada's national statistical agency, presented a proposal on TSA at Ottawa Conference on Tourism, followed by presentation of its first results in 1994.

The Commission of the European Communities, the International Monetary Fund, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, United Nations and the World Bank jointly published the 1993 System of National Accounts to update various issues of measurement of market economies in the world from previous versions in 1953 and 1968. Section B, 1. Production and Products in chapter XXI SATELLITE ANALYSIS AND ACCOUNTS, mentions about issues of measuring tourism. In 1995 World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) started to put proposals on TSA, and in 2000 OECD published a manual called "Measuring the Role of Tourism in OECD Economies".

(Contents of the 1993 System of National Accounts are available at the web page of United Nations Statistics Division: http://unstats.un.org/unsd/sna1993/introduction.asp)

Based on the latest global survey made by Tourism Statistics and Tourism Satellite Accounts Division of the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), as of June 2010, 60 nations in the world have been identified to have national level TSA. List of those nations with TSA can be seen in page 2 of the following material.
http://statistics.unwto.org/sites/all/files/pdf/tsa_data.pdf

Recently, the leadership of TSA advancement has been exercised by the Tourism Statistics and Tourism Satellite Accounts Division of the UNWTO. What is very important here is that TSA is a de jure method to measure tourism as an industry, and not just one of the several methods advocated by different people. This is the only official method for everybody in the world to measure tourism as an industry. Having said that, I assume you would be surprised that majority of tourism educational programs do not teach this subject to their

students, mainly because of the lack of knowledge of both instructors and students on how TSA works. Therefore, we have this chapter.

3. Some key concepts of TSA

3.1 Simple basic concept of TSA

3.1.1 The rationale for "Satellite"

Why TSA includes the word "Satellite" which is the object in orbit to circle around the earth? It would not require knowledge of rocket science to understand it. As we learned in Input-Output transactions table, we have certain established industrial sectors already based on their products. Those framework was developed in 1930 and 1940's using the framework of Input-Output, and those sectors included Agriculture, Mining, Construction, Manufacturing, Trade, Finance/Insurance/Real Estate, Services, and Government. Those framework later became universal standard in the form of System of National Accounts (SNA), which, as you see, was built on the framework of Input-Output. SNA has been providing universal standard to measure economic activities of nations in the world, such as Gross Domestic Product (GDP), thus it is now established as an earth. So TSA moves around the earth (established SNA) to find out where the tourism industry is hidden in the earth, with the purpose of extracting tourism industry out of the existing industrial sectors and combine them as a quasi-industry.

In other words, tourism as an industry came out too late to be included in the established system of National Accounts. Therefore, researchers have to look around the existing industrial sectors and identify how much of tourism-related consumptions are hidden in the sales of each existing industrial sectors, to make the best measurement of aggregated amount of tourism-related activities in the whole industry. As the real satellites do, the mission of TSA is to observe the object as precise as possible, just like the concept of Accounting. It is important for us to note that TSA is an Accounting, and not modelling of simulations, which is sometimes misunderstood by some researchers.

The image of TSA concept can be shown as Figure 1.

3.2 Basic important definitions used in TSA

In order to capture fuzzy subjects of tourism into measurable framework, TSA has several key definitions with which tourism as an industry will be distinguished from the rest of the economic activities. Here are some of the key concepts that would be helpful for us to follow the TSA logics.

3.2.1 Visitor and tourist

While a word "tourist" gives us the impression of leisure travellers, there are non-leisure travellers, such as company employees who travel to meet their customers, or non-leisure personal travellers such as visiting grandparents in their hometown. A word "visitor" will include those travellers. So, the important idea for differentiation would be not whether a person would be a tourist or a non-tourist, but whether a person would be a visitor or a non-visitor.
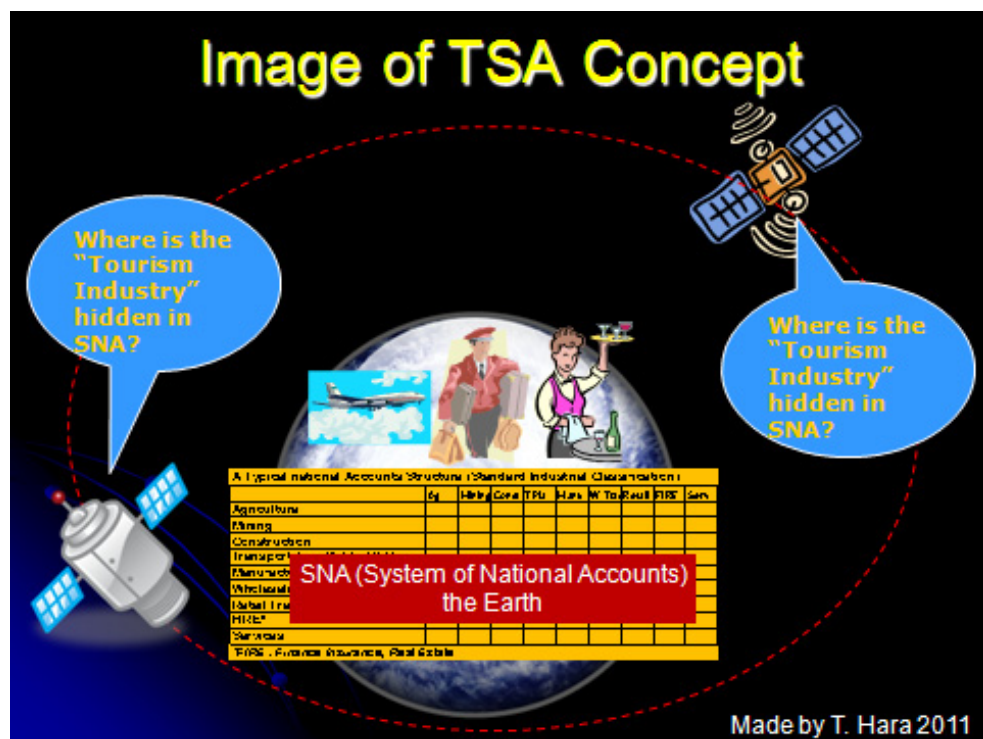
Fig. 1. Image of TSA Concept

3.2.2 Usual and unusual environment

To illustrate points in question, here are several questions for you. If you visit an Olympics game in United Kingdom from Spain, you are most likely classified as visitors. Here are some more questions;

- If you visit a Hilton hotel 20 miles (32 km) from your house, are you considered as a visitor?
- Many of those who live in Tokyo, Japan enjoy their occasional visits to the Tokyo Disneyland, which is located in Chiba prefecture but only about 10 miles (16km) away from the central part of Tokyo. Are Tokyoites considered as leisure visitors when they visit Tokyo Disneyland?
- If a Australian manager went to Bilbao, Spain and stayed there for a two weeks to close a business deal, is she considered as a visitor?
- If a Ukrainian student came to the U.S to study English for 6 months, but thanks to his hard work, obtained good English scores in TOEFL and switched status as full time graduate student to stay 2 years, is he still a visitor?

There can be one simple method to decide whether a person in question can be considered as "a visitor". One of the possible methods would be "distance" to be used as a cut-off line, with those who travel above certain distance to be considered visitors, and those who did not

travel over the distance not to be considered visitors. We have a minor problem, however, that there is no universal agreement on the distance. In the U.S., the Consumer Expenditure Survey by Bureau of Labor Statistics, the American Travel Survey by Bureau of Transportation Services use difference distance (75 miles and 100 miles respectively), and indeed the distance criteria for visitors is different from one nation to the other. If you insist on imposing one of the most accepted universal distance such as 50 miles (80km), then for a nation like Bahrain in the Arabian Gulf or Singapore in Southeast Asia, or Aruba in the Caribbean, there would be almost nobody ever to be classified as domestic tourists (= leisure visitors) at all.

This discussion on usage of certain distances to distinguish usual and unusual environment is one example of the fact that some parts of TSA are still evolving, and that more feedback from various sources should be a welcome addition to improve the concept. This is another reason why hospitality and tourism students like you should study and contribute to the advances of TSA, as majority of the existing advancements have been made by contributions from economists who may have less exposure and experience to the operations of hospitality businesses than you do.

3.3 Supply-based concept and demand-based concept

In the Input-Output environment, we look at the products, or Output from each industrial sector to classify the group of industrial sectors. You have no difficulty in identifying an peach as an output of the agriculture sector, and broccoli from the same sector. Strawberries, Blueberries and Blackberries (not the phone but fruit) and dates share common characteristics for us to say that they are from agriculture sectors. Characteristics of outputs that industry produces can usually tell us the specific industrial sector.

3.3.1 Supply-based concept

In the process above, we did not care who purchased those bananas or water melons. Peaches are peaches irrespective of buyers' characteristics, such as whether the buyer was Households, Governments, Firms or they purchased peaches for final consumption or for intermediate goods to produce peach jam. In order to attribute a product to the producing industry, we look at the output. As we learned in the I-O concept, Production Activities produce outputs to be supplied either to other industrial sectors as intermediate goods or to Households for our final demand. If you look at only the product characteristics to classify the industry, it can be considered as supply-based concept that you use to classify it. If you see a laptop computer, that is the product of manufacturing sector. It did not affect your opinion that the laptop computer was the product from manufacturing sector, whether the buyer was the government (immigration office), firms (private company) or Household (hobbyist).

3.3.2 Unique characteristics of tourism products

Now, let's look at an example of tourists. After Nicole and her family travel from Europe to New York, USA, they go through immigration. Then they exchange his Euro into U.S. dollar (banking sector) buy a local map and a bottle of water (retail sector), picks up a taxi (transportation sector) to a hotel. After checking in, they walk around the area and purchased some souvenirs and snacks for children (retail sector). After some relaxation at the hotel, they walked to the movie theatre across the block and purchased entrance tickets (entertainment

sector). Then they went to a restaurant recommended by the concierge of the hotel, and despite waiting in line for 30 minutes, enjoyed wonderful steak (restaurant sector).

Let's look at more details in what Nicole's family purchased in New York. All the goods and services that they purchased were mostly from the Services sector, but can you tell by the characteristics of the product which products can be easily distinguished as "tourism products"? Banking services can be purchased not only by visitors (leisure visitors = tourists, and non-leisure visitors = non-tourists) but also by non-visitors who live and work in New York, which is one of the thriving large metropolitan cities in the Unites States. Retail shops, such as Seven-Eleven, can be used by both visitors and non-visitors. As you can see, not only visitors but also local residents would take taxis. Souvenirs and snack may be purchased by both visitors and non-visitors, and the same applies to entertainment products. Last example was the consumption at restaurant. While tourists such as Nicole's family can surely come to spend good amount of money at restaurants, also non-visitors come to enjoy the food. So the supply-based product characteristics will not work well to define tourism. Indeed, the concept of tourism is demand-based.

3.3.3 Demand-based concept of tourism

When we think about tourism, we have to look at demand-side. This is a very unique point of extracting tourism-related consumption from all the consumption. We will build up tourism-related economic activities by looking at who purchased the product, and decide whether such purchase was caused by a visitor. We cannot assert that all the revenues at the Steak restaurant were caused by visitors only, because tourists love to come to the place. Indeed, the identical Steak dishes may be consumed by tourists at one table and by non-visitors (local residents) at the next table. We will look into the basic structure of TSA tables.

4. Compositions tourism satellite accounts

While detailed logics and explanations are shown in the comprehensive OECD manual (OECD 2000), it showed detailed suggested tables for TSA without actual numbers.

In general, TSA study would include, but not limited to, the following concepts and discussions.

1. Definitions of visitors, usual environment
2. Definition of Tourism Demand
3. Meaning of Tourism Industries and Tourism Commodities
4. Reviewing the examples of Tourism Commodities and the producers
5. Defining names of Tourism Industries and Corresponding Tourism Commodities
6. Production Table (Make Table) of Tourism Commodities and identification of the Producers of those Tourism Commodities
7. Supplies and Consumptions of Tourism Commodities and All Other Commodities
8. Decomposition of Total Demand for All Commodities into Tourism Demand for Tourism Commodities, then Further Decomposition of Tourism Demand into different type of Visitors for Various Commodities
9. Tourism Output, Intermediate Needs and Value Added
10. Tourism Employment and Compensation

"Measuring the Role of Tourism in OECD Economies - OECD Manual on Tourism Satellite Accounts and Employment" 2000 shows their recommendation of 22 tables (including 13 types of table with sub-categories) whose titles are shown in Table 1.

#	Table	Table Name
1	1	Production account of characteristic tourism industries: net basis & gross basis - current prices
2	2	Tourism supply and demand by type of commodity and by type of visitor: net basis at purchaser's price - current prices
3	2A	Tourism supply and demand by type of commodity and by type of visitor: gross basis at purchaser's price - current prices
4	3	Supply by characteristic tourism and other industries to meet tourism demand by different types of visitors: net basis - current prices
5	3A	Supply by characteristic tourism and other industries to meet tourism demand by different types of visitors: gross basis - current prices
6	4	Tourism value added of characteristic industries and other industries: net basis
7	4A	Tourism value added of characteristic industries and other industries: gross basis
8	5	Tourism employment of characteristic industries and other industries
9	6	Visitors' characteristics (same day visitors and tourists - recorded on a net basis for tour operators)
10	6A	Visitors' characteristics (same day visitors and tourists - recorded on a gross basis for tour operators)
11	7	Characteristic tourism industries' gross capital acquisition - at current prices
12	8	Characteristic tourism industries' gross capital stock - at current prices, end of period
13	9	Production account of characteristic tourism industries: net basis - at prices of previous period
14	9A	Production account of characteristic tourism industries: gross basis - at prices of previous period
15	10	Tourism supply and demand by type of commodity and by type of visitor: net basis at purchaser's prices - at prices of previous period
16	10A	Tourism supply and demand by type of commodity and by type of visitor: gross basis at purchaser's prices - at prices of previous period
17	11	Supply by characteristic tourism and other industries to meet tourism demand by different types of visitors: net basis - at prices of previous period
18	11A	Supply by characteristic tourism and other industries to meet tourism demand by different types of visitors: gross basis - at prices of previous period
19	12	Tourism value added of characteristic industries and other industries: net basis - at prices of previous period
20	12A	Tourism value added of characteristic industries and other industries: gross basis - at prices of previous period
21	13	Characteristic tourism industries' gross capital acquisition
22	14	Characteristic tourism industries' gross capital stock

Source: compiled by the author from "Measuring the Role of Tourism in OECD Economies - The OECD Manual on Tourism Satellite Accounts and Employment, OECD 2000 P59-85

Table 1. List of Tables in Tourism Satellite Accounts Recommended by Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development Manual in 2000

These tables are more like manual and official guidance of formats for economists who have knowledge on System of National Accounts. In the classroom setting, however, hospitality and tourism students found rather difficult to maintain their attention to follow the logics of subsequent TSA tables without seeing the actual numbers. Due to the limitations of space in this chapter, I will quote some of the important tables with actual TSA data of the United States of America.

5. Tourism satellite accounts case studies

In the first section, we will review all the processes of how the Tourism Satellite Accounts are created by following one of the best and freely available technical papers available

today. Even though the absolute data may appear outdated, the structures and explanations are clear and remain valid to stand the passage of time. The sequences of explanations are in line with those presented by Hara (2008).

5.1 TSA at Unites States' federal level

In the United States, Bureau of Economic Analysis (BEA), Department of Commerce's team developed series of papers on TSA, including the one called "U.S. Travel and Tourism Satellite Accounts for 1992" by S. Okubo and M. Planting, P8-22, Survey of Current Business July 1998, Bureau of Economic Analysis, U.S. Department of Commerce. Teams at BEA already published several updates after the original paper by Okubo and Planting, but the basic framework and sequences of the presentation are still along those presented in the first work. With prior permission of the Dr. Sumiye Okubo, we will look at how respective tables are created one by one, so that we will understand the logics and contents of typical TSA presentations with real numbers. Please note that responsibilities for comments and opinions belong to me, and may not necessarily reflects exactly those of the Dr. Okubo and Mr. Planting.

In the Unites States, TSA is called Travel and Tourism Satellite Accounts (TTSA), which is the same in substance as TSA. The report starts with summary of the whole study and shows the results of the measurement of size and impact of the tourism activities in the United States.

5.1.1 Summary display

Their table 1 is the display of summary results, which, in terms of sequence, is something that you will typically create at the end of the all other work. This is a table which appears as an abstract.

| | Demand (billions of dollars) | Value added (billions of dollars) | Employment (thousands) | Percent | | |
| | | | | Share of GDP | | Share of employment |
				Demand	Value added	
Method 1	284.2	120.5	3,749	4.6	1.9	3.2
Method 2	294.9	124.5	3,933	4.7	2	3.3
Method 3	332.8	135.7	4,353	5.3	2.2	3.7
NOTE: See the section "Methodological Overview" for a discussion of the three methods.						
Source: Table 1, p8, "U.S. Travel and Tourism Satellite Accounts for 1992", Sumiye Okubo and Mark A. Planting, Survey of Current Business July 1998. Bureau of Economic Analysis, Reproduced with the Permission obtained by the author						

Table 2. Key Indicators of Tourism Activity: Range of Estimates, 1992

This table is the final product of TSA work, which includes how large the tourism demand is (range between $284.2 billion and $332.8 billion: first column from left), how large the value added of tourism activities are (range between $120.5 billion and $135.7 billion: second

column from left), how many jobs are attributed to tourism activities (range between 3.7 million to 4.3 million jobs: third column from left), and relative share of those tourism activities in the whole U.S. economy by percentages shown in three columns from right under the heading of "percent". So we see the goal of TSA output at the beginning as a summary. In this example, I will not discuss the TSA with three methods, but rather on one method to explain the structure.

As you can see, these data will be very valuable for policy makers, taxpayers, government officials. If you know the relative size and significance of tourism activities as a quasi industrial sector, you can compare the tourism industry with other existing industries. Once the tourism as an industrial sector can be put in perspective, there can be rational discussions on how much of government and taxpayers resources should be allocated into this industrial sector, how much of educational resources be allocated to students and workers in these sectors, or how important is the development of this particular sector for the creation of employment for the citizens, etc.

5.1.2 Tourism commodities

Table 3 "Classification of Commodities in the Travel and Tourism Accounts" shows the description of tourism commodities and its contents. If you are a casual consumer of TSA, you may not find this table useful so often. If you have to develop TSA for your region/nation, suddenly this table would become useful beacon for your assignments regarding what should be included or excluded in each commodity categories. One thing I should mention would be the existence of non-tourism commodities at the bottom of the table. For example, if you look at commodities of gasoline and oil, they are not as much a tourism commodities as a rainbow T-shirt saying "Costa del Sol". But tourists in the USA probably spend more money to buy this commodity than on T-shirts. because tourists purchase these non-tourism commodities, those should be listed as non-tourism commodities that tourists purchase.

5.1.3 TSA industries and commodities

Table 4 shows the names of tourism industries and their corresponding commodities. Commodities are those items, tangible and intangible goods or services to be consumed by tourism activities (of visitors and non-visitors) and industries are those which produce respective commodities. If you have to produce regional/national TSA to measure the tourism activities in the study region, this table will be useful.

You may wonder if most of the industries produce only the corresponding commodities. For example, do you think whether Hotel and lodging places as an industry produce only the commodity called the Hotel and lodging places?.

Tourism commodities are tourism-related goods and services that are purchased by visitors, non-visitors for final consumption and by other industries as intermediate goods.

That may be enough explanations if you had prior education as an economist. Tourism and hospitality students will also understand the meaning precisely only if at least one example is presented.

If you are a tourist to visit overseas destination, you stay at the hotel. Imagine yourself in a foreign destination. You may be a French family staying in Prague. You may be a Dutch tourist in Aruba, Serbian tourists in Dubai, UAE, Japanese tourist in Busan, South Korea, or an American in London. What you need to consume as a tourist is the tourism-related product -- a comfortable and convenient place to stay for the duration of your visit, which is produced by the hotel industry. To put this transaction in TSA perspective, we see that a tourist consumed the tourism-related product called "Hotel and Lodging Places" (in the row), which is produced by the hotel industrial sector called "Hotel and Lodging Places" (in the column).

Description of commodity	Content
Tourism commodities:	
Hotels and lodging places	Includes lodging receipts from hotels, motels, guestrooms, and rooming and boarding houses serving the general public; other receipts of hotels and motels, sporting and recreational camps, and recreational vehicle parks and camp sites
	Excludes meals served by hotels or motels
Eating and drinking places	Includes food and beverage receipts and tips
	Excludes catering services and school lunch sales by State and local governments
Passenger rail	Includes receipts from rail passengers for travel and dining and tips
Passenger bus and other local transportation	Includes receipts from passengers for intercity, charter, and local bus services and subway and limousine services
Taxicabs	Includes taxi fares and tips
Domestic passenger air fares	Includes receipts from domestic air passengers for airfares, meals and beverages, movies, and other receipts
International air fares	Includes receipts from international air passengers
Passenger water	Includes receipts from passengers for water transportation
Auto and truck rental	Includes receipts for rental of automobiles and trucks
Other vehicle rental	Includes receipts for rental of recreational vehicles and utility trailers
Arrangement of passenger transportation	Includes commissions for the arrangement of passenger transportation and net receipts for tours
Recreation and entertainment	Includes miscellaneous entertainment receipts such as amusement parks, fairs, museums, gambling, and other recreation and amusements
Participant sports	Includes participant sports such as golf and tennis
Movie, theater, ballet, and musical events	Includes receipts for admissions to movies and theater and music programs
Sports events	Includes admissions to sports events
Petroleum retail margins	Includes retail margins on petroleum sales
Other retail margins	Includes retail margin on all other goods
Travel by U.S. residents abroad	Includes travel expenditures by U.S. residents abroad
Non-tourism commodities (= commodities not classified as tourism commodities):	
Gasoline and oil	Includes sales of gasoline, diesel fuel, lubricating oils, and grease
PCE* nondurable commodities	Includes sales of all other nondurable commodities
Selected services	Includes receipts for selected services that may be used by tourists on, during, or after a trip, such as parking, tolls, and automotive repair services
Wholesale trade margins and transportation costs	Includes wholesale margins and transportation costs on all goods
All other commodities	Includes all other commodities not considered above
*PCE Personal consumption expenditures	
Source: Table 3, p12, "U.S. Travel and Tourism Satellite Accounts for 1992", Sumiye Okubo and Mark A. Planting, Survey of Current Business July 1998. Bureau of Economic Analysis, Reproduced with the Permission obtained by the author	

Table 3. Classification of Commodities in the Travel and Tourism Accounts

Industry	Commodity
Hotels and lodging places	Hotels and lodging places
Eating and drinking places	Eating and drinking places
Railroads and related services	Passenger rail
Local and suburban transit and interurban highway passenger transportation, except taxicabs	Passenger bus and other local transportation
Taxicabs	Taxicabs
Air transportation	Domestic passenger air fares
	International air fares
Water transportation	Passenger water
Automotive rental and leasing, without drivers	Auto and truck rental
	Other vehicle rental
Arrangement of passenger transportation	Arrangement of passenger transportation
Miscellaneous amusement and recreation services (except membership sports and recreation clubs); racing, including track operation; marinas; libraries, museums, art galleries, and botanical and zoological gardens	Recreation and entertainment
Membership sports and recreation clubs	Participant sports (golf, tennis, etc.)
Motion picture theaters; dance studios, schools, and halls; theatrical producers (except motion pictures), bands, orchestras, and entertainers	Movie, theater, ballet, and musical events
Professional sports clubs and promoters	Sports events
Gasoline service stations	Petroleum retail margins
Retail, excluding eating and drinking places and gasoline service stations	Other retail margins
Industries producing nondurable PCE goods	Personal consumption expenditures (PCE) nondurable commodities
Automobile parking, automotive repair shops and services, and toll highways	Parking, automotive repair, and highway tolls
All other industries	Wholesale trade margins and transportation costs
	Gasoline and oil
(Travel by U.S. residents abroad has no industry counterpart. U.S. residents traveling abroad purchase commodities that are produced abroad, and the TTSA's include only domestically produced commodities)	Travel by U.S. residents abroad
Source: Table 4, p13, "U.S. Travel and Tourism Satellite Accounts for 1992", Sumiye Okubo and Mark A. Planting, Survey of Current Business July 1998. Bureau of Economic Analysis, Reproduced with the Permission obtained by the author	

Table 4. TTSA industries and commodities

You can find that the Hotel sector produces another commodity called "Eating and Drinking Places". Again, you have to imagine your hotel stay. Can you look for restaurant experience at the hotel? With exception of certain segment of hotels which exclusively offer only hotel rooms, many hotels have limited or full service restaurant units. Depending on the location of the hotel business, the hotel's production of restaurant commodity component could be substantial. For example, in some cities in the Middle East, it is quite common that significant hotels revenue can be attributable to sales at their Food and Beverage operations, as the role of hotels in the society is oriented more towards as a social place to meet and dine.

In this table, your knowledge on I-O will be valuable.

Commodity	Industry *1																Domestic production (producers' prices) *5
	Hotels and lodging places	Eating and drinking places	Rail-roads and related services *2	Local and suburban transit and inter-urban highway passenger transportation, except taxicabs *2	Taxi-cabs	Air transportation	Water transportation	Auto-motive rental and leasing, except passenger cars w ithout drivers	Arrangement of passenger transportation	Industries producing recreation and entertainment commodities *3	Members hip sports and recreation clubs	Indus-tries produc-ing movies, thea-ters, ballet, and musical events *4	Profes-sional sports clubs and pro-moters	Gaso-line serv-ices sta-tions	Retail exclud-ing eating and drinking places and gasoline services stations	Industries producing non-durable personal consump-tion expend-iture commod-ities other than gasoline and oil	Auto-mobile park-ing, auto-motive repair shops and serv-ices, and toll high-ways *2	All other industries	
Hotels and lodging places	55,913										239							68	56,220
Eating and drinking places	16,613	220,685									1,222	3,256	13		2,165	14,484		9,710	268,148
Passenger rail			1,226																1,226
Passenger bus and other local transportation				13,158															13,158
Taxicabs					6,614														6,614
Domestic passenger air fares						48,449												17	48,466
International air fares						22,605													22,605
Passenger w ater							4,000												4,000
Auto and truck rental								14,318							31	628		58	59	15,094
Other vehicle rental								420							4	30			454
Arrangement of passenger transportation									13,030										13,030
Recreation and entertainment	10,428									27,595	10				295	553		1,054	39,935
Participant sports											1,956	8,231							10,187
Movie, theater, ballet, and musical event												21,468						98	21,566
Sports events													2,867					1,660	4,527
Petroleum retail margins		13									48			25,488				95	272	25,916
Other retail margins	531	579						84			1,111	184	79	27	482,384			783	14,165	499,927
Travel by U.S. residents abroad																			
Gasoline and oil																106,426		7,653	114,079
Personal consumption expenditures nondurable commodities other than gasoline and oil															9,511	821,872		43,796	875,179
Parking, automotive repair, and highw ay tolls															2,939	39,123	68,354	4,566	114,982
Wholesale trade margins and transportation costs			30,110	6		9,522	7,416										15,461	609,457	671,972
All other commodities	758	14,847	2,506	2,714		7,252	15,265	6,588	78	3,868		2,086	3,550	530	13,653	381,576	1,443	7,538,648	7,995,362
Industry output	84,243	236,124	33,842	15,878	6,614	87,828	26,681	21,410	13,108	35,800	11,920	23,646	6,444	31,157	560,108	1,325,888	70,733	8,231,223	10,822,647
Intermediate inputs	32,449	124,678	12,934	10,222	2,853	50,188	17,108	10,669	4,781	13,788	5,026	13,252	1,844	9,307	185,152	817,218	32,236	3,245,037	
Compensation of employees	32,615	81,265	14,727	13,635	2,258	29,740	4,650	3,733	5,037	10,973	5,348	6,042	3,716	10,038	228,000	237,576	19,474	2,936,215	
Indirect business taxes	6,372	14,115	815	111	24	5,629	492	1,621	520	2,249	640	1,043	265	3,720	71,394	28,492	3,040	365,049	
Other value added	12,807	16,066	5,366	–8,090	1,479	2,271	4,431	5,387	2,770	8,790	906	3,309	619	8,092	75,562	242,602	15,983	1,684,922	

Source: Table 5, p14 U.S. Travel and Tourism Satellite Accounts for 1992, Sumiye Okubo and Mark A. Planting, Survey of Current Business July 1998. Bureau of Economic Analysis, Reproduced w ith the Permission obtained by the author
Original Notes: *1- Industries are defined on a SIC basis. *2 - Includes government enterprises. *3 - Miscellaneous amusement and recreation services (except membership sports and recreation clubs); racing including track operation; marinas; and libraries and museums, art galleries, and botanical gardens. *4 - Motion picture theaters; dance studios, schools, and halls; theatrical producers (except motion pictures), bands, orchestras, and entertainers. *5 - The industry output for domestic production is in purchaser's prices because it includes margins and transportation costs.

Table 5. Production Account of Tourism Industries and All Other Industries 1992 (unit: US$ million)

5.1.4 Column interpretations

See the first column "Hotel and Lodging Places" industry to discuss on the cell which intersects with Industry Output. You see $84,243 million. This means the "Hotel and Lodging Places" industry produced the total of $84,243 million of output. If we recall that Total Output equals Total Input by definition of the I-O structure, then Total Input should equal to the sum of Intermediate Inputs and Value Added component.

Total Input = Intermediate Inputs + Value Added (= Compensation of Employees + Indirect Business Taxes + Other Value Added)

84,243 = 32,449 + (32,615 + 6,372 + 12,807)

See upper part of the same column. Summation of all the commodities that the "Hotel and Lodging Places" industry produced should be equal to the Total Output. The industry produced five different commodities, which are "Hotel and Lodging Places", "Eating and Drinking Places", Recreation and Entertainment", "Other Retail Margins" and "All other Commodities".

Total Output = "Hotel and Lodging Places" + "Eating and Drinking Places"+ "Recreation and Entertainment" + "Other Retail Margins" + "All other Commodities"

84,243 = 55,913 + 16,613 + 10,428 + 531 + 758

Now that we have two summations of the column and the row being the same number, we can equate the Total Input with Total Output.

Total Input = 32,449 + (32,615 + 6,372 + 12,807) = 55,913 + 16,613 + 10,428 + 531 + 758 = Total Output. Calculations on these summation show that Total Input equals Total Output in perfect compliance with the principles of I-O table. We can see that prior knowledge on the I-O surely help understand how the TSA tables are structured, because TSA is based on the I-O structure, which is also the basis for System of National Accounts.

5.1.5 Row interpretations

Let's start with "Hotel and Lodging Places' commodities" which will show you the logics of how the numbers in rows are displayed. Total productions of "Hotel and Lodging Places" commodities in the Unites States were $56,220 million, as we see the Domestic Production at the far right number. We can see from this table which industrial sector produced "Hotel and Lodging Places' commodities" by looking at the numbers in the first row. Along the industries, "Hotel and Lodging Places" industry produced $55,913 million of "Hotel and Lodging Places" commodities (look at the row heading on left), and "Membership sports and Recreation Clubs" produced $239 million of "Hotel and Lodging Places" commodities. Outside of the tourism related sectors, "All other industries" also provided $68 million of "Hotel and Lodging Places" commodities. Perhaps we should follow one more example of row interpretations.

Second row is the "Eating and drinking places" commodities which will show production of the commodities by various industrial sectors. Total productions of "Eating and drinking places" commodities in the Unites States were $268,148 million, as we see the Domestic Production at the far right number. Compared with the comparable number for the "Hotel and Lodging Places" commodities, this number is more than four times larger. We can see from this table which industrial sector produced "Eating and drinking places" commodities by looking at the numbers in the first row.

Looking along the industries column, "Hotel and Lodging Places" industry produced $16,613 million of "Eating and drinking places" commodities (look at the row heading on left). An industrial sector called "Hotel and Lodging Places" (commonly known as "hotels") produced $16,613 million equivalent of dining experience (perhaps combination of tasty meals, nice drink, good service and nice atmosphere, resulting in intangible commodity as dining experience). By looking at "Eating and Drinking Places" commodity (start from 2nd row heading on your left side of the table) you find many numbers along this row. Here is an important concept to remember: It is not only the restaurant industry (= Eating and Drinking Places industry) which can produce the commodity (= dining experience), but also many other industry can produce the commodity (= dining experience) such as hotels, sport stadium (have you seen people at football stadium with beers, hot dogs and popcorns?), or gas stations.

5.1.6 Supply and consumption table (table 6)

Having learned which industry produce respective tourism-related commodities in the previous table, you will see the next table showing how the tourism-related commodities are supplied and who actually consume the tourism-related commodities.

In the table, you can see two large column groups of Supply and Consumption, and on the row (left), you can see exactly the same commodities items exactly the same order as in the previous table. Indeed, the first column under Domestic Production (producers' prices) is identical to the column which appeared in the far right end of the Production table.

Commodity	Supply							Consumption					
	Domestic production (producers' prices) *1	Imports	Govern-ment sales	Change in business inven-tories	Whole-sale trade margins and transpor-tation costs	Retail margins	Total supply *2	Inter-mediate	Personal consump-tion expend-itures	Gross private domestic fixed invest-ment	Exports of goods and services	Govern-ment expend-itures excluding sales *3	Total consump-tion
Hotels and lodging places	56,220	....	357	....	....	....	56,577	27,260	23,680	....	....	5,637	56,577
Eating and drinking places	268,148	....	....	....	....	....	268,148	32,335	231,193	....	309	4,311	268,148
Passenger rail	1,226	....	....	....	....	....	1,226	310	829	....	....	87	1,226
Passenger bus and other local transportation	13,158	....	....	....	....	....	13,158	2,612	10,455	....	....	91	13,158
Taxicabs	6,614	....	....	....	....	....	6,614	3,641	2,586	....	....	387	6,614
Domestic passenger air fares	48,466	....	....	....	....	....	48,466	21,971	21,308	....	....	5,187	48,466
International air fares	22,605	9,808	....	....	....	....	32,413	3,073	12,377	....	16,395	568	32,413
Passenger water	4,000	301	....	....	....	....	4,301	....	4,125	....	176	....	4,301
Auto and truck rental	15,094	....	....	....	....	....	15,094	10,668	3,234	....	....	1,192	15,094
Other vehicle rental	454	....	....	....	....	....	454	245	209	....	....	....	454
Arrangement of passenger transportation	13,030	....	....	....	....	....	13,030	9,004	2,814	....	1,107	105	13,030
Recreation and entertainment	39,935	....	3,708	....	....	....	43,643	....	42,057	....	....	816	43,643
Participant sports	10,187	....	....	....	....	....	10,187	1,284	8,903	....	....	....	10,187
Movie, theater, ballet, and musical events	21,566	145	....	....	....	....	21,711	8,194	13,313	....	43	161	21,711
Sports events	4,527	101	444	....	....	....	5,072	1,303	3,096	....	320	353	5,072
Petroleum retail margins	25,916	....	....	....	....	....							
Other retail margins	499,927	....	....	....	....	....							
Travel by U.S. residents abroad	....	39,964	....	....	....	....	39,964	10,361	29,603	....	....	....	39,964
Gasoline and oil	114,079	5,283	....	518	62,204	25,916	206,964	78,264	115,234	....	2,994	10,472	206,964
Personal consumption expenditures nondurable commodities other than gasoline and oil	875,179	137,493	1,219	9,432	197,752	299,313	1,501,524	415,108	972,568	2,564	72,583	38,701	1,501,524
Parking, automotive repair, and highway tolls	114,982	....	181	....	....	....	115,163	37,134	75,560	....	17	2,452	115,163
Wholesale trade margins and transportation costs	671,972												
All other commodities	7,995,362	438,542	121,167	−4,520	412,016	200,614	9,172,221	3,925,205	2,635,574	788,427	508,665	1,314,350	9,172,221
Total	10,822,647	631,637	127,076	5,430	671,972	525,843	11,575,930	4,588,742	4,208,718	790,991	602,609	1,384,870	11,575,930

Source: Table 6, p15, "U.S. Travel and Tourism Satellite Accounts for 1992", Sumiye Okubo and Mark A. Planting, Survey of Current Business July 1998. Bureau of Economic Analysis, Reproduced with the Permission obtained by the author
Original Notes: *1 - The total for domestic production is in purchasers' prices because it includes margins and transportation costs.   *2 - Total supply in purchasers' prices is equal to domestic production in producers' prices plus imports, government sales, wholesale trade margins and transportation costs are not shown explicitly in this column, because they are included in the purchasers' values for the gasoline and oil, personal consumption expenditure nondurable commodities other than gasoline and oil, and all other commodities.   *3 - Includes consumption and investment expenditures and excludes government sales. Government sales are included as part of supply.

Table 6. Supply and Consumption of Tourism and All Other Commodities, 1992 (Unit in US$ million)

5.1.7 Interpretation of total supply and total consumption of commodities

At around the middle of the columns, you find a column in the name of "Total supply", which show the row-wise sums of each commodity. If you look at the first row of "Hotels and lodging places" commodity, $56,220 million equivalent of "Hotels and lodging places" commodity were supplied by the "Domestic production" (top, far left) of which details can be traced back in the previous table. "Hotels and lodging places" commodities are supplied by "Government sales" for $357 million, making the total supply of "Hotels and lodging places" commodities to be $56,577 million.

Total consumption will be met by total supply, and the way this table is made will intrigue you, if you have learned about concepts of Input-Output. The first column under Consumption is "Intermediate", which is the demand for "Hotels and lodging places" commodity from other industrial sectors as intermediate goods and services.

[Examples of Intermediate goods and Final Consumption]

Examples of such transaction includes Hotel's sales of hotel rooms to Online Travel Companies (OTCs) which buy those "intermediate goods" from hotels and immediately sell those as "final goods" to consumers (you and me). From hotels' point of view, though they have identical rooms, some are sold as final products to consumers (you and me, visiting Marriott.com, or Hyatt.com to buy rooms at Marriott or Hyatt hotels, for example) and some

other rooms are sold as intermediate goods to OTCs, which in turn sell the same room to consumers (you and me, visiting orbitz.com or Travelocity.com to buy rooms at Marriott or Hyatt hotels).

"Hotels and lodging places" commodity to be used as intermediate goods and services for other industrial sectors production activities was $27,260 million, which was larger than the "Personal consumption expenditures" for $23,680 million. Consumption by governments and their employees was captured under the column "Government expenditures excluding sales" for $5,637 which is about 10% of total consumption of "Hotels and lodging places" commodity. If you look across the different commodities, there are four other commodities of which consumption from other industrial sectors were larger than personal consumption expenditures.

When you look at the columns under the Consumption, what you see here are from left to right, Intermediate, Personal Consumption, Investment, Exports, and Government Expenditure. So it is AX, C, I, EX, G. You have Imports (IM) under the supply. With all those information, you can calculate the GDP of the Unites States in 1992 using the numbers at the bottom Total rows, if you remember that GDP = C + I + G + EX – IM.

5.1.8 Tourism demand by type of visitor (table 7)

This table appears to be a tough one for students to follow. Inclusion of three Methods in the same table adds its complexity on the appearance of the table. Basic structure of this table can be simply shown as follows.

| Commodity | Total demand | Tourism demand | | | | | | | | | | | | Nontourism demand | | | ratio I | | |
| | | Total tourism demand | | | Business | | | Government expenditures excl. sales | | | Resident households | | | Non-residents | Method 1 | Method 2 | Method 3 | Method 1 | Method 2 | Method 3 |
		Method 1	Method 2	Method 3	Method 1	Method 2	Method 3	Method 1	Method 2	Method 3	Method 1	Method 2	Method 3							
Hotels and lodging places	56,577	56,577	56,577	56,577	27,260	27,260	27,260	5,637	5,637	5,637	11,342	11,342	11,342	12,338	....	....	....	1	1	1
Eating and drinking places	268,148	45,431	48,685	58,484	17,917	17,917	17,917	3,696	3,696	3,696	13,812	17,066	26,865	10,006	222,717	219,463	209,664	0.17	0.18	0.22
Passenger rail	1,226	1,226	1,226	1,226	310	310	310	87	87	87	653	653	653	176	....	....	....	1	1	1
Passenger bus and other local transportation	13,158	3,367	3,934	4,898	583	698	893	55	57	61	2,170	2,620	3,385	559	9,791	9,224	8,260	0.26	0.3	0.37
Taxicabs	6,614	1,478	3,002	4,624	748	1,592	2,490	71	152	237	531	1,130	1,769	128	5,136	3,612	1,990	0.22	0.45	0.7
Domestic passenger air fares	48,466	48,466	48,466	48,466	21,971	21,971	21,971	5,187	5,187	5,187	16,773	16,773	16,773	4,535	....	....	....	1	1	1
International air fares	32,413	32,159	32,159	32,159	3,073	3,073	3,073	314	314	314	12,377	12,377	12,377	16,395	254	254	254	0.99	0.99	0.99
Passenger water	4,301	4,150	4,150	4,150	....	....	....	....	....	....	3,138	3,138	3,138	1,012	151	151	151	0.96	0.96	0.96
Auto and truck rental	15,094	12,132	12,132	12,689	8,400	8,400	8,400	1,055	1,055	1,055	2,207	2,207	2,764	470	2,962	2,962	2,405	0.8	0.8	0.84
Other vehicle rental	454	125	209	209	....	....	....	....	....	....	101	185	185	24	329	245	245	0.28	0.46	0.46
Arrangement of passenger transportation	13,030	2,919	2,919	2,919	....	....	....	105	105	105	1,975	1,975	1,975	839	10,111	10,111	10,111	0.22	0.22	0.22
Recreation and entertainment	43,643	14,509	15,500	17,547	....	....	....	....	....	....	9,820	10,811	12,858	4,689	29,134	28,143	26,096	0.33	0.36	0.4
Participant sports	10,187	3,575	3,678	4,781	1,207	1,207	1,207	....	....	....	1,747	1,850	2,953	621	6,612	6,509	5,406	0.35	0.36	0.47
Movie, theater, ballet, and musical events	21,711	3,973	4,673	6,475	820	820	820	....	....	....	2,326	3,026	4,828	827	17,738	17,038	15,236	0.18	0.22	0.3
Sports events	5,072	1,464	1,385	1,800	413	413	413	....	....	....	775	696	1,111	276	3,608	3,687	3,272	0.29	0.27	0.35
Travel by U.S. residents abroad	39,964	39,964	39,964	39,964	10,361	10,361	10,361	....	....	....	29,603	29,603	29,603	....	....	....	....	1	1	1
Gasoline and oil	206,964	11,208	11,864	17,485	2,067	2,210	3,434	181	194	300	7,251	7,751	12,042	1,709	195,756	195,100	189,479	0.05	0.06	0.08
Personal consumption expenditure nondurable commodities other than gasoline and oil	1,501,524	35,384	37,362	47,443	....	....	....	....	....	....	18,599	20,577	30,658	16,785	1,466,140	1,464,162	1,454,081	0.02	0.02	0.03
Parking, automotive repair, and highway tolls	115,163	6,077	7,008	10,852	109	197	303	61	101	158	5,769	6,572	10,253	138	109,086	108,155	104,311	0.05	0.06	0.09
All other commodities	9,172,221	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	9,172,221	9,172,221	9,172,221	....	....	....
Total	11,575,930	324,184	334,893	372,748	95,239	96,429	98,852	16,449	16,585	16,837	140,969	150,352	185,532	71,527	11,251,746	11,241,037	11,203,182	...	...	...

Source: Table 7, p16, "U.S. Travel and Tourism Satellite Accounts for 1992", Sumiye Okubo and Mark A. Planting, Survey of Current Business July 1998. Bureau of Economic Analysis. Reproduced with the Permission obtained by the author
Original notes: *1 - The tourism commodity ratio is total tourism demand divided by total demand. See the section "Methodological Overview" for a discussion of the three methods.

Table 7. Tourism Demand by Type of Visitor, 1992

5.1.9 Tourism demand and non-tourism demand

At the top left column of the table 7 , you have "Total demand" column. You see familiar names of commodities, identical from the top commodity "Hotels and lodging places" to the bottom "All other commodities" except margins items in the Supply and Consumption of Tourism and All Other Commodities table. Total demand can be disaggregated into Nontourism demand and Tourism demand, which will be further disaggregated into Business, Government expenditure excluding sales, resident household and Nonresidents.

Let's look at examples. First row is the "Hotel and lodging places" commodities for which there was $56,577 million of "Total demand". Hotel and lodging places" commodities are unique commodities in that demand for them consist of100% Tourism demand, and none from Nontourism demand. Again, we have to be reminded that tourism demand derive from visitors who can be either leisure-visitors (= tourists) or non-leisure visitors and that tourism demand includes, as you clearly see, demand from Business, Governments and Nonresidents who may come as leisure traveler or foreign Business or Governments workers. Total tourism demand for $56,577 million were generated from Business for $27,260 million (48.2%), Government Expenditure for $5,637 million (10.0%), Resident Household for $11,342 million (20.0%), and Nonresidents for $12,338 million (21.8%). Since Total demand for Hotel and lodging places" commodities equal total tourism demand for Hotel and lodging places" commodities, the tourism commodity ration is 1.00.

Tourism Commodity Ratio = Total Tourism Demand / Total Demand.

Second row in Commodity is "Eating and drinking places" commodity. While the total demand for "Eating and drinking places" commodity is $268,148 million, Total tourism demand is $45,431 million based on Method 1 data. With these two numbers, we can calculate the tourism commodity ratio as $45,431 / $268,148 = 0.17 = 17%.

While "Eating and drinking places" commodity is consumed by Nontourism demand for $222,717 million, we will decompose the total tourism demand into four subgroups. Business consumes for $17,917 million equivalent of "Eating and drinking places" commodity, Government for $3,696 million, Resident household for $13,812 million and Nonresidents for $10,006 million.

5.1.10 Tourism GDP calculations (Table 8: originally Table 8)

The table 8, which is shown as table 8 in the original publication, displays importance of tourism industries and other industries for the production of tourism output and tourism-related value added. Each industry produces output and certain portion of the output are purchased by visitors. That portion purchased by visitors is shown as "tourism-industry ratio" in this table. This is a very important table for policy makers and government officials because this table will enable them to explain to taxpayers and stakeholders the significance of tourism as an industry to the national/regional economy with hard numbers.

First we will look at where all numbers in this table came from.

5.1.11 Industry output column

Numbers in Industry output column came from the "Industry Output" row, the 5th row from the bottom in the original Table 5. The numbers shown in row vector in Table 5 are transposed into column vector.

5.1.12 Intermediate consumption column

Numbers in Intermediate consumption column came from the "Intermediate inputs" row. So the numbers shown in row vector in Table 5 are transposed into column vector.

Intermediate inputs are shown next to Industry output data in table 5 and Intermediate consumption are shown next to Industry output data in table 8.

Industry	Industry output	Intermediate consumption	Value added	Tourism industry ratio *1 Method 1	Tourism output Method 1	Tourism industry intermediate consumption Method 1	Tourism industry value added Method 1
Hotels and lodging places	84,243	32,449	51,794	0.8	67,603	26,039	41,563
Eating and drinking places	236,124	124,678	111,446	0.16	37,403	19,749	17,653
Railroads and related services	33,842	12,934	20,908	0.04	1,226	469	757
Local and suburban transit and interurban highway passenger transportation, except taxicabs	15,878	10,222	5,656	0.21	3,367	2,168	1,199
Taxicabs	6,614	2,853	3,761	0.22	1,478	638	840
Air transportation	87,828	50,188	37,640	0.81	70,877	40,426	30,451
Water transportation	26,681	17,108	9,573	0.14	3,860	2,475	1,385
Automotive rental and leasing, without drivers	21,410	10,669	10,741	0.54	11,626	5,793	5,832
Arrangement of passenger transportation	13,108	4,781	8,327	0.22	2,919	1,065	1,854
Miscellaneous amusement and recreation services (except membership sports and recreation clubs); racing including track operation; marinas; and libraries and museums, art galleries, and botanical and zoological gardens	35,800	13,788	22,012	0.18	6,465	2,490	3,975
Membership sports and recreation clubs	11,920	5,026	6,894	0.31	3,686	1,554	2,132
Motion picture theaters; dance studios, schools, and halls; theatrical producers (except motion pictures), bands, orchestras, and entertainers	23,646	13,252	10,394	0.17	3,932	2,204	1,729
Professional sports clubs and promoters	6,444	1,844	4,600	0.13	828	237	591
Gasoline service stations	31,157	9,307	21,850	0.07	2,199	657	1,542
Retail excluding eating and drinking places and gasoline services stations	560,108	185,152	374,956	0.02	13,376	4,422	8,954
Total tourism industries	1,270,477	529,045	741,432	....	230,844	110,384	120,460
Total all other industries	9,552,170	4,059,697	5,492,473	....	....	....	....
Total	10,822,647	4,588,742	6,233,905	....	....	....	....

Source: Table 8, p17, "U.S. Travel and Tourism Satellite Accounts for 1992", Sumiye Okubo and Mark A. Planting, Survey of Current Business July 1998. Bureau of Economic Analysis, Reproduced with the Permission obtained by the author

Original Notes: *1 - The industry tourism ratio is equal to tourism output divided by industry output. *2 - The industry tourist output is derived from table 5 and table 7. The tourism commodity ratio (table 7) is multiplied by the tourism commodities produced by industries (table 5) and summed by industry. For example, the air industry produces $48,449 million domestic passenger air fares of which 100 percent is tourism, it also produces $22,605 million international air fares of which 99 percent is tourism. The total tourism output of the industry is $70,877 million. Note - See the section "Methodological Overview" for a discussion of the three methods.

Table 8. Shortened Version of Original Table 8 – Tourism GDP of Tourism Industries and Other Industries, 1992

5.1.13 Value added column

Numbers in Value added column in Table 8 does not appear to have a corresponding row in the bottom part in the original Table 5. For example, the first number in the column "51,794" is the value-added for Hotels and lodging places in Table 8, but we cannot find the same number in the original Table 5. So how can we obtain this number?

If we remember how the table 5 was created, together with the basic knowledge of the I-O structure, we can find the data. Let's review how the first column (Hotels and lodging places column, the first from left)

Total Input = Intermediate Inputs + Value Added (= Compensation of Employees + Indirect Business Taxes + Other Value Added)

84,243 = 32,449 + (32,615 + 6,372 + 12,807)

If we sum up the value added portion 32,615 + 6,372 + 12,807, then we will get 51,794, which is the number we see in the top of value added column. Sum up the three numbers from bottom shown in each column.

Now, we are entering into the parts which can be challenging not only for hospitality and tourism students but also for other students with quantitative majors such as engineering or applied economics. In order to discuss tourism industry ratio, we have to understand how we calculate the tourism industry output.

5.1.14 Tourism industry output

We will estimate tourism industry output by taking the respective tourism commodities produced by industries (displayed in Table 5) to be multiplied by corresponding tourism commodity ratio (in Table 7). After that, results have to be summed up by industry. Let's take some examples to show the processes of calculations.

Taxicabs (with one commodity)

- There is only one commodity that Taxicabs industry produce – taxicabs as a commodity, or "a service of an efficient transportation by motor vehicle to move you and your belongings from one point to other point(s) with a dedicated driver chartered for you" to aid your imagination.
- The amount of this commodity produced and consumed was $6,614 million as you can see at the intersection between "Taxicabs" industry column and "Taxicab" commodity row in Table 5.
- Then take that number ($6,614 million) and look at "Tourism commodity ratio" columns at the very right bottom end of Table 7.
- Identify the corresponding "Tourism commodity ratio" for the Taxicab commodity, in this case 0.22.
- Total amount of commodity produced shall be multiplied by its tourism commodity ration, in this case 0.22.
- $6,614 million x 0.2234653 = $1,478 million. Because there is only one commodity that Taxicabs industry produces, this is the taxicab industry's tourism output.

Air transportation (with two commodities)

- There are two commodities that Air transportation industry produces – Domestic passenger air fares and International air fares as commodities, or "a service of an efficient transportation by airplane to move you and your belongings from one point to other point(s: this can be domestic destination or in other nation) with a dedicated seat reserved for you" to aid your imagination.
- The amount of first commodity produced and consumed was $48,449 million as you can see at the intersection between "Air transportation" industry column and "Domestic passenger air fares" commodity row in Table 5.

- The amount of the second commodity produced and consumed was $22,605 million as you can see at the intersection between "Air transportation" industry column and "International air fares" commodity row in Table 5.
- Then take those two numbers ($48,449 million and $22,605 million) and look at "Tourism commodity ratio" columns at the very right bottom end of Table 7.
- Identify the corresponding "Tourism commodity ratio" for the Domestic passenger air fares commodity, in this case 1.00, and one for the International air fares commodity, in this case 0.99 (to say exactly, it must be 0.992167..).
- Total amount of commodity produced shall be multiplied by its tourism commodity ration, in this case 1.00 and .99 (to say exactly, it must be 0.992167..).
  Since the exact tourism commodity ratios are not displayed but rounded ones are shown in the Table, we may encounter rounding errors with multiple commodities under one industry. In this case, the exact ratio can be traced back because one of the two tourism commodity ratios are 1.00.
- Because there are two commodities that Air transportation industry produces, summation of those numbers will be the Air transportation industry's tourism output. Thus, ($48,449 million x 1.00) + ($22,605 million x 0.992167) = $70,877 million.

Eating and drinking places (with three commodities)

- There are three commodities that Eating and drinking places industry produce – Eating and drinking places, Petroleum retail margins, and Other retail margins as commodities, or "a service of providing you with a tasty meals, wines, beers and perhaps hot dogs, sodas, maps, sun-glasses, small gifts and fill your gasoline tank" to aid your imagination.
- The amount of first commodity produced and consumed was $220,685 million as you can see at the intersection between "Eating and drinking places" industry column and "Eating and drinking places" commodity row in Table 5.
- The amount of the second commodity produced and consumed was $13 million as you can see at the intersection between "Eating and drinking places" industry column and "Petroleum retail margins" commodity row in Table 5.
- The amount of the third commodity produced and consumed was $579 million as you can see at the intersection between "Eating and drinking places" industry column and "Other retail margins" commodity row in Table 5.
- Then take those four numbers ($220,685 million, $13 million and $579 million) and look at "Tourism commodity ratio" columns at the very right bottom end of Table 7.
- Identify the corresponding "Tourism commodity ratio" (we use only Method 1 for display purposes).
  Eating and Drinking places   =   0.17
  Gasoline and oil   =   0.05
  Other retail margins   =   0.02
- Each three of the total amount of commodity produced shall be multiplied by their respective tourism commodity ratio, in this case 0.17, 0.05 and 0.02. (0.17 can be 0.1694305 to match the number – rounding errors may exist)
- Because there are three commodities that Eating and drinking places industry produce, summation of those numbers will be the Eating and drinking places industry's tourism

output. Thus, ($220,685 million x 0.17) + ($13 million x 0.05) + ($579 million x 0.02) = $37,403 million.

- Identify the corresponding "Tourism commodity ratio" (we use only Method 1 for display purposes).

Hotels and lodging places	=	1.00
Eating and Drinking places	=	0.17
Recreation and entertainment	=	0.33
Other retail margins	=	0.02

- Each four of the total amount of commodity produced shall be multiplied by their respective tourism commodity ratio, in this case 1.00, 0.17, 0.33 and 0.99.

- Because there are four commodities that Hotels and lodging places industry produce, summation of those numbers will be the Hotel and lodging places industry's tourism output. Thus, ($55,913 million x 1.00) + ($16,613 million x 0.17) + ($10,428 million x 0.33) + ($531 million x 0.02) = $67,603 million.

5.1.15 Tourism industry ratio

As discussed, tourism-affiliated industrial sectors can produce tourism commodities, such as hotel's production of "a comfortable place to stay". We also learned in Table 7 that those tourism-affiliated industrial sectors production of tourism commodities are not always 100% (= 1.00) even though four commodities, namely "Hotel and lodging places", "Passenger rail", "Domestic passenger air fares", "Travel by U.S. resident abroad" are considered to be 100% (= 1.00) consumed by tourism demand. That is the "Tourism Commodity Ratio" which shows the size of tourism demand in the total demand.

Tourism industry ratio is to show the share of visitors' purchases of tourism-affiliated industrial sectors' output, which may include purchases by non-visitors. In other words, tourism output, to be purchased by visitors, is hidden within the total output. Therefore we need a satellite to analyse the component of the total output. What we try to do here is to extract the portion of output purchased by visitors, and that can be defined as tourism output. This has been the discussion on the left half of the Table 8.

5.1.16 Tourism industry intermediate consumption

The right side of the Table 8 starts from the discussion on Tourism output and subsequent decomposition of the tourism output into two components. Tourism output of the industry can be further divided into two components of Tourism industry intermediate consumption and tourism industry value added as we do so with the I-O table. To calculate the Tourism Industry Intermediate Consumption, take the Intermediate consumption (second column from left) to be multiplied by the corresponding Tourism industry ratio and the result will be Tourism industry intermediate consumption.

For example, for the Hotel and lodging places,

$32,449 M   x   0.80 (to say exactly, it must be 0.80247)   = $26,039 M
Intermediate consumption x tourism industry ratio
= Tourism industry intermediate consumption

For the Eating and drinking places,

$124,678 M   x   0.16 (to say exactly, it must be 0.15840)   = $19,749 M
Intermediate consumption x tourism industry ratio
= Tourism industry intermediate consumption

By continuing this calculation, you will have Tourism industry intermediate consumption column completed.

5.1.17 Tourism industry value added

Another part of decomposed component is the Tourism industry value added. To calculate the Tourism Industry Intermediate Consumption, take the Value added (third column from left) to be multiplied by the corresponding Tourism industry ratio and the result will be Tourism industry value added.

For example, for the Hotel and lodging places,

$51,794 M   x   0.80 (to say exactly, it must be 0.80247)   = $41,563 M
Value added   x   tourism industry ratio   = Tourism industry value added

For the Eating and drinking places,

$111,446 M   x   0.16 (to say exactly, it must be 0.15840)   = $17,653 M
Value added   x   tourism industry ratio   = Tourism industry value added

By continuing this calculation, you will have Tourism industry value added column completed.

5.1.18 Tourism industry's output and GDP

Based on technical parts of the table 8, you may wonder what to do with the complete table. If we look at the bottom rows of the table, you see "Total tourism industries", "Total all other industries" and "Total" rows. By looking at those rows, we will see how we can use this table.

5.1.18.1 Total tourism industries row

Tourism affiliated industry's total output is $1,270,477 million, which is a very large number. Out of the total output, $529,045 million (41%) is used as intermediate consumption, which means they are used by other industrial sectors to produce their final products. $741,432 million (59%) is used to satisfy the final consumption. However, as you see "Retail excluding eating and drinking places and gasoline service stations" industry, there are lots of industry outputs which are used for non-tourism related consumptions. For example, even though "Retail excluding eating and drinking places and gasoline service stations" industry produced total output of $560,108 million, only a very small fraction of $13,376 million (0.02 = to be exactly, it must he 0.02388 = 2.388%) can be attributed to tourism output, or output to be consumed by either tourism industry intermediate consumption or tourism industry value added.

Tourism output ($230,844 million) can be decomposed into tourism industry intermediate consumption for $110,384 million and Tourism industry value added for $120,460 million.

5.1.18.2 Total all other industries row and total row

Those last two rows appear to be just bunch of large numbers, but it is very important to have those numbers so that we can put tourism as an industry in broader perspective in the society.

Total for $10,822,647 million ($10.8 trillion) is the total output of the U.S. economy in the study year of 1992. With the knowledge of total size of economy, tourism Output for $230,844 million (method 1) can be put in perspective.

- Relative Size of Tourism Output to the Total U.S. Output
    - $230,844 M (method 1) / $10,822,647 M = 2.13%
    - $238,578 M (method 1) / $10,822,647 M = 2.20%
    - $259,517 M (method 1) / $10,822,647 M = 2.39%

Next, let's look at the size of Value Added, which is basically the GDP, namely total market value of goods and services produced in the nation in one year. Total U.S. GDP was $6,233,905 million in the study year of 1992. With the knowledge of total size of economy, tourism value added for $120,460 million (method 1) can be put in perspective.

- Relative Size of Tourism GDP Contribution to the Total U.S. GDP
    - $120,460 M (method 1) / $6,233,905 M = 1.93%
    - $124,528 M (method 1) / $6,233,905 M = 2.00%
    - $135,720 M (method 1) / $6,233,905 M = 2.17%

With the size and significance of economic power of tourism as an industry, you can ask for legislative support for the industry, budget allocations, local community support more effectively than just a mere emotional appeals of tourism without numbers. But there is one more important set of data that you want to prepare to make your argument even more convincing. That is to be explained in the next table.

5.1.19 Tourism employment and compensation of employees

We have to understand why these employment-related data are highly important and influential to many stakeholders in the society. In a democratic society, or most of the nation where the national/regional leaders take responsibility for their leadership, any industrial policy has to be explained to the taxpayers to seek for their support, approval of budget, allocation of funding or positive benefits of certain policies to put those policies in perspective. This is because those governments are dependent on tax revenues which are generated from taxpayers/voters/residents. People want to know how their tax revenues are allocated and what the returns on those allocations of funds are. One of the major weaknesses of tourism as an industry has been the lack of hard numbers as a comparable industry in the national/regional economy. Thanks to TSA, we are trying to overcome the weaknesses and present tourism as an industry.

The last table in TSA presentations is a very important table for the purpose of proving validity of tourism as an industry by showing how many jobs are attributable to tourism as an industry and how much are the average annual salaries workers receive in different industrial sectors which produce tourism commodities.

Tourism Employment and Compensation (table 9)

For the explanations purposes, table 5 is the shortened version. The table only shows data based on method 1 only on behalf of clarity.

Employment and compensation data are not the formal part of the I-O/SAM tables, while creation of table are manageable as long as you have both access to good labor-related data of your study region and basic knowledge of structural components of the I-O/SAM tables.

Industry	Total employment (thousands of employees)	Tourism industry ratio Method 1	Tourism employment (thousands of employees) Method 1	Compen-sation (millions of dollars)	Tourism compensation (millions of dollars) Method 1	Average compen-sation per tourism employee (dollars) *1
Hotels and lodging places *2	1,661	0.80	1,329	32,615	26,092	19,636
Eating and drinking places *3	6,819	0.16	1,091	81,265	13,002	11,917
Railroads and related services	243	0.04	10	14,727	589	60,605
Local and suburban transit and interurban highway passenger transportation, except taxicabs *4	416	0.21	87	13,635	2,863	32,776
Taxicabs *5	32	0.22	7	1,088	239	34,000
Air transportation	625	0.81	506	29,740	24,089	47,584
Water transportation	100	0.14	14	4,650	651	46,500
Automotive rental and leasing, without drivers	178	0.54	96	3,733	2,016	20,972
Arrangement of passenger transportation *6	191	0.22	43	5,037	1,122	26,372
Miscellaneous amusement and recreation services (except membership sports and recreation clubs); racing including track operation; marinas; and libraries and museums, art galleries, and botanical and zoological gardens	633	0.18	114	10,973	1,975	17,335
Membership sports and recreation clubs	297	0.31	92	5,348	1,658	18,007
Motion picture theaters; dance studios, schools, and halls; theatrical producers (except motion pictures), bands, orchestras, and entertainers	282	0.17	48	6,042	1,027	21,426
Professional sports clubs and promoters	46	0.13	6	3,716	483	80,783
Gasoline service stations	632	0.07	44	10,038	703	15,883
Retail excluding eating and drinking places and gasoline services stations	12,572	0.02	262	228,000	4,750	18,136
Total tourism industries	...	....	3,749	....	81,260	21,393
Total all other industries	....	....	117,998	....	3,645,042	30,891
Total Share (percent)	....	....	3.2	....	2.2	.....

Source: Table 9, p17, "U.S. Travel and Tourism Satellite Accounts for 1992", Sumiye Okubo and Mark A. Planting, Survey of Current Business July 1998. Bureau of Economic Analysis, Reproduced with the Permission obtained by the author

Original notes: *1. Average compensation per tourism employee was calculated as the arithmetic mean of the average compensation per tourism employee for methods 1, 2 and 3.

*2. Self-employment for SIC 70 (Hotels and lodging) for 1992 is estimated at 56,000. (Source: Derived from Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey, 1992.)

*3. Self employment for SIC 58 (Eating and drinking places) for 1992 is estimated at 490,000. (Source: Derived from Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey, 1992.))

*4. Employment for this category includes 206,000 State and local government "transit" employees. (Source: Table estimate for compensation.)

*5. Self employment for SIC 41 for 1992 is estimated at 54,000, all of which is assumed to occur in SIC 4120 (Taxicabs). (Source: Derived from Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey, 1992.)

*6. Self-employment for SIC 47 for 1992 is estimated at 27,000, all of which is assumed to occur in SIC 4720 (Arrangement of Passenger Transportation).

*7.—Employment and Payrolls of State and Local Governments by Type of Government and Function: October 1992, 1992 Census of Governments, Compendium of Public Employment). Compensation for the State and local government "transit" employees is estimated at $9,804,000,000, which is added to the national income and product account

NOTE—See the section "Methodological Overview" for a discussion of the three methods. Sources: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, Employment and Wage Annual Averages, 1992;Bureau of the Census, U. S. Department of Commerce, 1992 Census of Governments, Compendium of Public Employment; and Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, Current Population Survey, 1992.

Table 9. Tourism Employment and Compensation of Employees, 1992 (shortened version for display)

As the base data for TSA are derived from those of the I-O, TSA data carries over some, if not all, of the same characteristic of the data in the I-O table.

- Employment does not distinguish a full and a part time employee. Either would be counted as one employee.
- Compensation of employees includes not only the direct wages and salaries but also supplementary welfares such as social security (national retirement funding in the U.S.), fringe benefits, employer contribution to retirement fund.
- All data are shown in annual basis

Now we look into components of the Table 9.

5.1.20 Total employment (Unit: Thousands of employees)

These are the data which you obtain from public offices which compiles labor-related statistics. In the U.S., it is the Bureau of Labor Statistics which estimates average monthly employment by industry at very detailed (four-digit SIC (Standard Industrial Code) level: currently SIC was changed to NAICS (North American Industrial Classification System)) level, and Bureau of Economic Analysis also makes estimates at detailed (two-digit SIC level: currently SIC was changed to NAICS) level. Total employments are basically quoting relevant data from appropriate labor statistics.

5.1.21 Tourism industry ratio

These are already calculated in the Table 8, so we simply copy the data into the same column formats. You may note that this ratio remains highly important in generating several TSA tables, which depends on the tourism industry ratios.

5.1.22 Tourism employment (Unit: Thousands of employees)

Now we know that tourism industry consists of many tourism-affiliated industrial sectors which cater to visitors in varying degrees. Counting all the employees working in those industrial sectors serving tourism demand will lead to overestimation of numbers of employment in the tourism industry. Thus we have to extract only the numbers of those whose employments are attributed to tourism demand. This is how the tourism industry ratios are utilized to filter out the tourism employment out of total employment in tourism-related industrial sectors. To calculate the Tourism employment, take the Total employent (first column from left) to be multiplied by the corresponding Tourism industry ratio and the result will be Tourism employment to be shown at third column from left.

For example, for the Hotel and lodging places,

1,661 (thousands) x   0.80   =   1,329 (thousands)
Total employment   x   tourism industry ratio   = Tourism Employment

For the Eating and drinking places,

6,819 (thousands) x   0.16   =   1,091 (thousands)
Total employment   x   tourism industry ratio   = Tourism Employment

This calculation highlights the danger of overestimation of employment unless you have solid tourism industry ratio to filter out the non-tourism demands.

By continuing this calculation for all the other industrial sectors, you will have Tourism employment column completed.

5.1.23 Compensation (Unit: Millions of dollars)

This is the column that you will have difficulty in finding the source unless you have good basic knowledge on the structure and components of the I-O/SAM tables. Aggregate amounts of annual compensation per industrial sector are displayed in the I-O/SAM transaction table that is where you obtain these data. Recall that those figures include not only the direct wages and salaries but also the related fringe benefits. Again these figures are showing all the compensation for each sector and we have to repeat what we did with the calculations to tourism employment by utilizing Tourism industry ratio.

5.1.24 Tourism compensation (Unit: Millions of dollars)

Now we know that tourism industry consists of many tourism-affiliated industrial sectors which cater to visitors in varying degrees. Counting all the compensations paid to employees working in all industrial sectors serving tourism demand will lead to overestimation of compensations paid for those engaged in the tourism industry. Thus we have to extract only the compensation of those whose employments are attributed to tourism demand. This is how the tourism industry ratios are required to filter out the Tourism compensation out of Compensation in tourism-related industrial sectors. To calculate the Tourism compensation, take the (total) Compensation (the column approximately located in the middle) to be multiplied by the corresponding Tourism industry ratio (the second column from left) and the result will be Tourism compensation to be shown at second column from right.

For example, for the Hotel and lodging places,

$32,615 million   x   0.80   = $26,092 million
(Total) Compensation   x tourism industry ratio   = Tourism Compensation

For the Eating and drinking places,

$81,265 million   x   0.16   = $13,002 million
(Total) Compensation   x tourism industry ratio   = Tourism Compensation

This calculation for Eating and drinking places highlights the danger of overestimation of employment unless you have solid tourism industry ratio to filter out the non-tourism demands.

By continuing this calculation for all the other industrial sectors, you will have Tourism employment column completed.

Average compensation per tourism employee (unit: dollars)

Having calculated number of employees and total amount of annual compensation paid to them, we can calculate one more interesting thing fairly easily by dividing Tourism compensation (millions of dollars) by tourism employment (thousands of employees).

For example, for the Hotel and lodging places,

| $26,092 million | ÷ | 1,329, 000 | = | $19,636 |

(to say exactly, it may be 1,328,783)
Tourism Compensation   ÷ tourism employment   = Tourism Compensation
(Annual total amount)   (Annual average) (Annual amount per employee)

For the Eating and drinking places,

| $13,002 million | ÷ | 1,091, 000 | = | $11,917 |

(to say exactly, it may be 1,091,046)
Tourism Compensation   ÷ tourism employment   = Tourism Compensation
(Annual total amount)   (Annual average) (Annual amount per employee)

The data is based on data in 1992, so it may look outdated to your eyes if you try to put them in perspective with current data, but for example, there were higher paying occupations such as professional sports clubs and promoters.

| $483 million | ÷ | 6,000 | = | $80,783 |

(to say exactly, it may be 5,978)
Tourism Compensation   ÷ tourism employment   = Tourism Compensation
(Annual total amount)   (Annual average) (Annual amount per employee)

By continuing this calculation for all the other industrial sectors, you will have Average compensation per tourism employee column completed.

5.2 TSA overview

Now, the overall components of the TSA by separate tables have been reviewed. With the minimum knowledge, you should be able to read through the existing TSA studies made by different governments in the world. While there may be some differences in details, thanks to the UNWTO's efforts to disseminate common guidelines, most of the structures of the TSA reports should look familiar to your eyes. Besides updated versions of US TTRA made by the same office in Bureau of Economic Analysis, there are several accessible TSA reports made by Canada, (http://unstats.un.org/unsd/EconStatKB/Attachment230.aspx), and New Zealand (http://stats.govt.nz/browse_for_stats/industry_sectors/Tourism/tourism-satellite-account-info-releases.aspx), to name a couple out of 60 nations.

6. The latest development on TSA

Since I wrote the similar but technically more detailed textbook on I-O/SAM and TSA (Hara 2008), there have been interesting developments in the area of TSA studies. With the leadership from UNWTO, application of TSA at sub-national level, or regional level has been advocated. Each region in a nation has different economic structures and therefore different importance of tourism as an industry. While the regional governments are eager to develop regional TSA, it will require intensive prime data collection on the part of regional governments. Both the existence of regional I-O data (not just a prorated miniature version of the national data, but I-O derived from actual regional transactions recorded) and availability of highly trained staff to deal with I-O and tourism specific TSA are the prerequisites for regional TSA, creating a high hurdle to develop ones. There are, however, examples of emerging Regional TSAs in some nations in the world.

Because some regional governments are interested in quantifying the size of tourism as an industry for the purpose of receiving preferential funding allocations from the central government, the interests in regional TSA are expected to grow in the world. In the latest international conference (2nd International Conference on the Measurement and Economic Analysis of Regional Tourism, Bilbao, Spain 2011) multiple papers on the regional measurement of tourism were presented by researchers from including but not limited to Spain, Ireland, Israel, Japan, Italy and USA.

http://www.inroutenetwork.org/conference/2011/

6.1 Final comments on TSA

TSA, as I explained, is a globally accepted accounting method to measure the tourism as an industry. Therefore, TSA cannot be "simulated" to be made as it is not a modelling technique. (Once the TSA is created in accordance with the global rules, it can be simulated in the same manner as Input-Output and its family model can). Since the TSA is based on the Input-Out framework, on which the System of National Accounts is also based, it is a deterministic accounting framework, which do not have stochastic component. Because the majority of the quantitative research studies in the current refereed journal in the tourism and hospitality fields are indeed scientific with inferential and stochastic components of data analysis, it is more challenging for researchers in TSA field to publish academic papers. Thus there appears to be a structural disconnect between academic researchers in tourism and the economists in the governmental tourism/economics offices, leaving many tourism and hospitality students stranded on one side of the valley.

With proper introduction to the founding structure of Input-Output, it is hoped that many more students will be interested in studying tourism as a serious and growing industry of the 21st century.

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What Women Want: Hotel Characteristics Preferences of Women Travellers

Azizan Marzuki, Tan Lay Chin and Arman Abdul Razak
School of Housing, Building & Planning, Universiti Sains Malaysia
Malaysia

1. Introduction

The tourism industry depends by and large on travellers and tourists. While it has become a practical precept that most travel decisions are made by males, women travellers of late, have become a very important consumer segment within the tourism industry. As recent as 2005, women travellers accounted for approximately 43% of the business travellers worldwide and are seen as a growing lucrative demographic by industry experts. Marketing experts opine that 85 % of all buying decisions are made by the fairer sex. In addition to this, the majority of corporate purchasing agents and managers are women. This translates to the fact that women make approximately 70% of travel decisions for the family as well as for other people, for instance employers or employees. With the inherent distinctiveness of the female psyche, there is bound to be a rather specific preference or inclination on accommodation characteristics that these women travellers would look for. Women travellers are perceived to be especially interested in security, cleanliness, communication facilities, style and ambience of space, smooth check-in/check-out procedures as well as in comfortable access and/or transfers.

Waters (1988) concluded from a study in the United States, that even though men still dominate the business travel market, women have been progressively taking as many and sometimes even more holidays than men in the leisure market. However, women travellers have different expectations for travel, different attitudes toward travel and play active roles in decision making compared to men (Baraban, 1986; DeLuca, 1986; Hawes, 1988). The assumption that tourism marketing is consumed identically by all tourists regardless of gender is critically flawed (Wearing & Wearing, 1996) as preferences for travel experiences differ by gender. In terms of lodging preferences, women focus mostly on criteria regarding security, personal services and low prices during hotel selection while men consider business services and facilities as being more important than those criteria selected by women (McCleary *et al.*, 1994). A latter research by Sammons *et al.*, (1999) investigated the differences in female business travellers' selection of lodging accommodations. In the survey, over 90% of the respondents rated these following characteristics as being important to very important: cleanliness of hotel, comfortable mattress and pillows, individual room smoke detector, dead bolt door locks, chain locks/latches and parking area lighting. Ten different factor-dimensions were found through factor analysis and denominated as: 'Comfort', 'Parking', 'Security', 'Services', 'Complimentary', 'Price-sensitive', 'Safety',

'Single-sensitive', 'Lounge', and 'Fire safety'. The results revealed that the comfort factor was the most significant factor affecting female business travellers' lodging selection. The comfort factor included characteristics such as cleanliness of hotel, well-maintained furnishings, comfortable mattress and pillows as well as friendly service of hotel staff. Other characteristics in this factor were good lighting to read/work, reputation of hotel, and convenience of meeting site and hotel location. The results also indicated that travellers' selections differed on socio-demographic and travel-related variables as they related to the factor dimensions

Unfortunately, marketers and practitioners were too slow in recognising gender-based preferences and this has undoubtedly led to gender blindness in designing and marketing tourism products. It has taken a long time for the players within the tourism industry to realise their mistakes. In order to subjectively target the women travellers' market segment, a formative and structured study must be conducted to identify the hotel features and services desired by this category of travellers. Nevertheless, there have been several studies conducted over the last two decades, most of them using female business travellers as their study population, but the sample populations that were studied were rather restrictive (Lutz & Ryan, 1993; Howell *et al.*, 1993; McCleary *et al.*, 1994). According to Lin and Kao (2001), gender-based travel research has focused on the business-travel needs of women, and only few empirical studies have been conducted to examine the preferences of women travellers. The review of previous studies shows that there are still a number of lingering questions concerning this gender specific group.

In examining the hotel amenities and services desired by women business travellers, there have been several studies conducted, both by institutions as well as researchers. For example, Lutz and Ryan (1993) studied about businesswomen's perception of hotel services, while Sammons *et al.,* (1999) examined female business travellers' selection of lodging and accommodation. These related studies will be discussed further in the subsequent sections of this chapter. Since times have evidently changed, evaluation of a segmented market's needs and wants must be constantly updated (Baines *et al.*, 2008). As an instance, the clothing preferences of women in their forties in the 1980s are very much different from those of the same age category today. In other words, there is a dearth of research looking specifically on women travellers in the new decade to examine the changes in their desires and preferences.

Nevertheless, as the hotel industry begins to accept the economic opportunities that this growing segment brings, fundamental changes have or should be made within the service industry. For example, some hotels now offer a separate floor for female executives or travellers. Hotels that often perceive their customers as only men could be on the losing end if their practices or facilities are not changed or tailored to suit female travellers. Items that may seem trivial such as the choice of magazines for the lobby, lack of skirt hangers or number and logical placement of electrical plugs may undoubtedly put off potential women travellers. These are the issues which this chapter intends to elaborate on with the aim of identifying the preferences of these women travellers.

As the tourism industry becomes more and more competitive, hoteliers have to introduce various strategies focused on niche market segmentations, (i.e., women travellers) in order to attract their potential customers. Hoteliers have indeed become aware of the potential of

this niche market and are seen to begin to address the needs of this significant category of tourists. Nevertheless, hoteliers need to have an insight as well as an understanding of the desire of women travellers for the success of their commercial endeavours. In view of that, a study on which this chapter is derived from, investigated the perception of women travellers towards the quality and characteristics of facilities and services provided by hotels.

2. The concept of market segmentation

According to Smith (1956) market segmentation is a condition of growth that occurs when core markets have already been developed on a generalised basis to the point where additional promotional expenditures are yielding diminishing returns. Kotler (1972) defined market segmentation as the subdividing of a market into homogeneous subsets of customers, where any subset may conceivably be selected as a market target to be reached with a distinct marketing mix. In other words, segmentation involves portioning heterogeneous markets into smaller, more homogeneous market segments that can be distinguished by different consumer needs, characteristics, or behaviour (Kotler, 1980). It has long been applied by operators in the tourist industry, where 'effective segmentation schemes are considered to be of utmost importance for successfully marketing tourism products' (Stemerding *et al.*, 1996).

There is now widespread agreement that market segmentation form an important foundation for successful marketing strategies and activities (Wind, 1978; Hooley & Saunders, 1993). The benefits have been seen to include an ability to gain a fuller understanding of a particular market, improved techniques to predict consumer behaviour, and an improved ability to identify and exploit new market opportunities for commercial benefit (Heok *et al.*, 1996). Myers (1996) suggested market segmentation as one of the most important strategic concepts contributed by the marketing discipline to business firms and other types of organizations. Segmentation is a powerful tool that serves to develop understanding of the differential influence of specific service variables across segments as well as for the development of more precise marketing strategies (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2002). Segmentation, when done properly, can actually enhance sales and profits because it allows the organization to target segments that are much more likely to patronize the organization's facilities (Reid, 1983).

The purpose of market segmentation is to ensure that the elements of the marketing mix, price, distribution, products and promotion, are designed to meet particular needs of different customer groups (Baines *et al.*, 2008). As Beane and Ennis (1987) eloquently commented, 'a company with limited resources needs to pick only the best opportunities to pursue'. Since it is impossible today to remain cost competitive and offer every feature desired by customers (Pullman *et al.*, 2002), market segmentation allows organizations to focus on specific customers' needs, in the most efficient and effective way (Baines *et al.*, 2008). This latter approach has featured widely in the promotion of holidays, with packages aimed at young singles, couples, families and senior citizens, in acknowledgement that each segment possesses a different set of motives (Andereck & Caldwell, 1994). A successful operator, seeking to satisfy these segments, should be concerned with the dynamics of an evolving interplay between understanding elements of consumer motivation and providing a product/service to satisfy these needs (Pearce, 1993).

Review of literature presently available revealed that market segmentation is the best way for the hoteliers to have an understanding of what various segments require and assist them in formulating focused marketing strategies to penetrate new markets and build customer loyalty. It is a fact that today's modern society has an increasing proliferation of tastes and furthermore consumers have increased disposable incomes which they can utilize to sate their particular preferences and predilections. As a result, marketers have sought to design product and service offerings focused on specific market demand or through a specifically applied market segmentation approach as shown in Figure 1.
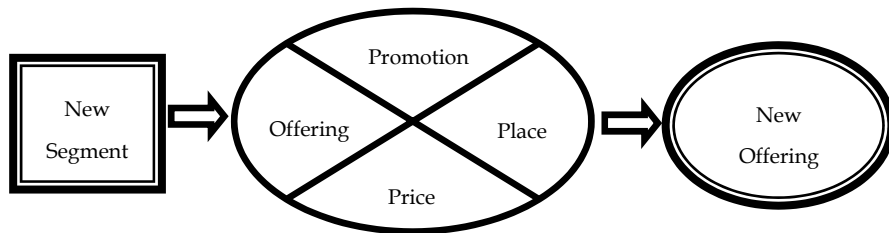
Source: Baines *et al.,* (2008).

Fig. 1. A market segmentation approach

Segmentation involves a three-step process of segmenting, targeting and positioning (STP) (Kotler *et al.*, 2006). The first step in this process is market segmentation; dividing a market into distinct groups of buyers who might require separate products and/or marketing mixes. The second step in the segmentation process is market targeting, which involves evaluating each segment's attractiveness and selecting one or more of the market segments. The third step is market positioning, where a competitive positioning for the product and an appropriate marketing mix is developed. Once a company has chosen its target market segments, it must decide what positions to occupy in those segments. A product's positioning is the way the product is defined by consumers based on important attributes – the place the product occupies in consumers' minds relative to competing products (Baines *et. al.*, 2008). Kotler *et. al.*, (2006) suggested four broad categories to be used in market segmentation: Geographic, demographic, psychographic and behavioural. Each of these four categories includes several variables for dividing the market into segments. These differing types of segmentation bases are depicted in Figure 2.

However, a review of the literature indicates that there is no one correct way to segment a market (Kotler, 1980). One of the most frequently used methods for segmenting a market has been demographic segmentation. Researchers commonly use socioeconomic and demographic variables to segment markets. From an academic viewpoint, the widespread use of demographic factors by tourism researchers is questionable, given that this base has been criticised for its failure to predict actual consumer behaviour (Tkaczynski *et al.*, 2009). However, demographic segmentation remains useful as it is accessible as well as measurable and consumer needs, wants, and usage rates often vary closely with demographic variables (Bowen, 1998). Gender segmentation has long been applied in spawning a raft of products targeted at women such as beauty products and fragrances, magazines, hairdressing services and clothes (Baines *et al.*, 2008). A viable marketing strategy could also similarly apply gender segmentation to the hotel industry (Howell *et al.*, 1993).

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                        ┌─────────────────────┐
                        │ Market Segmentation │
                        └─────────────────────┘
        ┌───────────────┬────────────┴────────────┬───────────────┐
┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────────┐         ┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────────┐
│  Behavioural │ │ Psychological│         │  Demographic │ │  Geographic  │
└──────────────┘ └──────────────┘         └──────────────┘ └──────────────┘
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Occasions	Social class	Age	International
Benefits	Lifestyle	Gender	National
User status	Personality	Family size	Regional/City
Usage rate		Income	
Loyalty status		Occupation	
Readiness stage		Education	
Benefit sought		Religion	
Attitudes towards		Race	
product		Generation	
		Nationality	

Source: Kotler *et al.,* (2006).

Fig. 2. Segmentation criteria for a consumer market

2.1 Segmenting women market

'Women market segment exhibits a growth rate over three times faster than that for men' (Tunstall, 1989, p. 29; Nelson, 1994, p. 233; Peters, 1997, p. 132). At the same time, `women no longer represent a fringe market for hospitality marketing; they represent a solid and growing percentage of travellers (Kotler *et. al.*, 2006, p.177). The simple fact is that women are now deeply integrated into the workplace, are more educated on average compared to men, and often earn as much as or more than men (Barletta, 2003). Throughout the developed world, there are increasing numbers of women entering the business world as entrepreneurs, managers and professionals. Indeed, it was no coincidence that the 1990s was been dubbed as the `female run decade' (Popcorn, 1993, p. 23, cited in Mandell 1993).

Moreover, the increase of women in professional and management areas of business and in the tertiary economic sectors indicates that this trend will continue well into the next decade (Lutz & Ryan, 1993). According to the International Labor Organization (2008), the number of employed women grew by almost 200 million over the last decade, to reach 1.2 billion in 2007 compared to 1.8 billion men. In the United States, women accounted for 51% of persons employed in the high-paying management, professional and related occupations category (United States Labor Department, 2008). At the same time, this market segment is growing due to the baby boomer generation.

According to the World Health Organization (2001), it is estimated that the population of the baby boomer generation will account for one quarter of the global population in 2050 and exceed one-third of the population in countries such as the United States, Italy, Spain and Japan. Baby boomers are generally perceived to be fairly prosperous, are more likely to be working or have worked, and they are better educated than the older age groups (Stuart,

2005). Aging female baby boomers hence become a desirable market segment for the travel market. In the United States, those over 50 control 75% of the country's wealth and baby boomers control roughly 20% of total financial assets there, while the United Kingdom's 17 million baby boomers hold an estimated 80% of the country's wealth (Talwar, 2008).

Globally, women are accruing a greater share of wealth and exercising more economic power and more importantly, they are travelling. There are currently 9.1 million women-owned businesses in the United States and between 1979 and 2008, the earnings gap between women and men narrowed for most age groups (United States Labor Department, 2008). Women's economic power is accelerating as women earn and own as much as men or sometimes even more than their male counterparts. They now have more time and wider resources and opportunities to indulge their interests with the increasing amount of money they hold and attain. According to the Pacific Asia Travel Association (2005, cited in Phadungyat, 2008), it is estimated that US$13.4 billion was spent by females in four leading Asia Pacific destinations – Seoul, Hong Kong, Singapore and Bangkok. This means that the potential spending power of female travellers should not be underestimated, as their expenses while travelling can be seen as a significant source of income and profit for the industries in the new century.

2.1.1 Targeting women travellers

The second important part of the STP process is to determine which, if any, of the segments uncovered should be targeted and made the focus of a comprehensive marketing programme. In order for market segmentation to be effective, Kotler *et al.,* (2006) suggested that all segments must be:

1. Measurable: size of the segment and the related purchasing power can be quantified
2. Accessible: able to be reached and served effectively by the marketing entity
3. Substantial: should be large and substantial enough to be profitable
4. Actionable: marketing entity can design effective marketing strategies to attract and serve the segment
5. Differentiable: distinctive from one another and respond differently to different marketing stimuli

The question therefore is, why target the women market? Women travellers represent a rising population in travel market and this is clearly seen in all relevant statistics. The majority of women travellers originate from North America, United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, Europe, South and Southeast Asia, Chinese Taipei, Hong Kong and Singapore (Bond, 1997). The number of women travellers is believed to continue to increase. According to Bond (2005), there are about 67 million female travellers and as such, the potential of the women's market exceeds $19 trillion annually. To be effectively targeting this lucrative market segment, hoteliers need to know who these women travellers are. In a study commissioned by the Pacific Asia Travel Association in 1977, Bond (1997) claimed there are at least four major subdivisions of travelling women. For example, women are now travelling without being accompanied by their spouses or male partners. Women are taking more trips per year on their own including both short trips to visit relatives and friends as well as longer trips with female friends or within a tour group. The solo woman traveller represents another expanding segment of the women's travel market. According to Chiang and Jogaratnam (2005), most of the women travellers prefer travelling solo and they

represent two thirds of those travelling solo for the purpose of leisure. Besides that, women-only travel is now growing in popularity by looking at the 230% increase in the number of women-only travel companies (Bond, 2005).

Prior to World War II, participation of women in outdoor leisure activities was restricted. Since then, participation rates of women in the labour force and the number of childless women have increased, and women are becoming more independent and are more likely to undertake outdoor recreational activities such as travel (Mieczkowski, 1990). As a result of these social changes, women are increasingly spending more time without partners, children or other family responsibilities (Scott, 2002). Women are recognized as an influential market segment within the tourism industry as they are increasingly active in the participation and consumption of travel (Wilson, 2004). According to Goffee and Scase (1985), there are two major phenomena that account for this trend. First is the change in demography. Women now tend to marry late and have fewer or no children; they are increasingly able to enter the working environment and earn equitable income. Secondly, the dramatic shift believed to be driven by the change in women's psychological expectations. In other words, women start seeking satisfaction and self-accomplishment from work and other vocations, rather than from marriage.

The evolution of the family continues to expand women's role in decision making (Hall *et al.*, 2003) with the first examples emerging in a study that found that the husband primarily controlled decisions relating to travel routes but that decisions about accommodation were shared by both husband and wife (Myers & Moncrief, 1978). Nevertheless, women are still seen as the primary decision makers for family travel (Bond, 1997; Collins & Tisdell, 2002). The disintegration of the nuclear family, new divorce legislation in countries where such laws did not exist previously, and the advances in medicine which have made possible the existence of single motherhood, together with higher educational levels achieved by women in the second half of the twentieth century, have enabled their greater integration into the workforce and the processes of policy and decision making, with more and more single women travelling (Caballero & Hart, 1996).

In Asia, Master Card Asian's Lifestyle Survey report showed that the ratio of male to female travellers in Asia/Pacific has been dramatically shifting from 90:10 in 1976, to around 60:40 in 2005 (Phadungyat, 2008). Furthermore, the figure is expected to increase with female travellers matching male travellers by 2011 and exceeding them in the long term (Pacific Asia Travel Association, 2005, cited in Phadungyat, 2008). Interestingly, research suggests that women travellers are more likely than men to be loyal repeat customers (Tunstall, 1989). Surprisingly, research also showed that in terms of travel for pleasure, women seem to be more prominent in consumption of adventure travel (Swarbrooke *et al.,* 2003). For instance, in 1996, 63% of the 'North American Adventure Travellers' tour group clients were women (Bond, 1997).

Similarly, Australia's leading adventure company, 'Intrepid' found that in 1996, 74% of their clients were women and most of these women were choosing to travel alone (Bond, 1997). As such, it is evidently clear that women are becoming more prominent in their consumption of business travel. The world of business travel is no longer dominated by male business travellers; female business travellers are now playing a major role in today's business travel industry. Clearly, the female business traveller segment has grown tremendously since the 1970s. About 40% of business travellers' today are women (Lagace,

2005) while thirty years ago, women only comprised 1% of the business travel market (Tunstall, 1989).

The review of literature suggests that women travellers are a growing segment and have become a hidden but lucrative market for hoteliers. In the past, women do not seem to constitute a discrete market segment for hoteliers; rather, marketing practices accepted women as part of the family market segment and were believed to gain access to hotels in their role as wives and mothers (Mazurkiewicz, 1983). Today, the women market is expanding and substantial where their purchasing power is large and profitable enough to be served. They can be effectively reached and served with focused marketing programmes targeted specifically towards them. Considering the economic potential of this fast growing market segment, a virtually untapped and lucrative market is waiting to be served by the hoteliers. Having segmented the market, determined the size and potential of market segments and selected specific target markets, the third part of the STP process is to position a brand within the target market. Positioning is important because it is the means by which goods and services can be differentiated from one another and as such, gives consumers a reason to buy (Baines *et al.*, 2008). Key to this process is the identification of the hotel attributes that are considered to be important by the women travellers.

Mehta and Vera (1990) concluded that the planning of services and facilities should be driven by the key attributes for the segments that the hotel is serving. These attributes may be tangible (price, physical appearance, location and others) and intangible (security, reputation, staff behaviour and the like). By understanding how women travellers rate these attributes, it becomes possible to see how hotel attributes can be adapted and communicated to become more competitive within the market. Consequently, the study of the influence of the many factors involved in the women travellers' selection is very important so that hoteliers can understand their preferences and formulate a focused marketing plan to satisfy their needs. Therefore, this study aims to help hoteliers have a better understanding on factors influencing women travellers' purchase as well as to position their brand effectively.

3. The growth of tourism industry in Malaysia

Malaysia is one of the fastest growing tourism destinations in South East Asia as well as demonstrating political stability and industrial growth. Malaysia shares its land borders with Thailand, Indonesia, and Brunei, and its maritime borders co-exist with Singapore, Vietnam and the Philippines. There are two regions to the country, with 11 states in the peninsular of Malaysia and 2 states on the northern part of Borneo. Peninsular Malaysia is separated from Sabah and Sarawak by the South China Sea (Figure 3). Before its independence in 1957, the Malaysian economy was heavily dependent on primary commodities mainly tin, rubber, palm oil and petroleum products. The Malaysian government had serious attention to develop the tourism industry after a decrease in oil and a severe recession in the mid 1980s. In the Ninth Malaysia Plan, covering the period of 2006 - 2010, the tourism industry had become one of the key economic areas where allocated spending for tourism development was magnified to RM1.8 billion, a 136% increase over what was spent during the Eighth Malaysia Plan (Hamzah, 2004).

Source: University of Texas libraries (2010).

Fig. 3. Map of Malaysia

Serious efforts in developing and promoting tourism began with the establishment of the Tourist Development Corporation Malaysia (TDCM) in 1972 and followed by a specific ministry, the Ministry of Culture, Art and Tourism (MOCAT) which was set up in 1987. In April 2004, MOCAT was restructured and split into three ministries. After the restructuring, Ministry of Tourism (MOTOUR) was assigned to take care of, coordinating and implementing government policies and strategies pertaining to tourism development (Tourism Malaysia, 2010). Under the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board Act 1992, the Malaysian Tourism Promotion Board, or Tourism Malaysia was established to increase the number of foreign tourists to Malaysia, extend the average length of their stay and increase Malaysia's tourism revenue (Tourism Malaysia, 2010). Its activities centre mainly on promotion and the increase of arrivals for both international and domestic tourism (Tourism Malaysia, 2010). It also coordinates all tourism related marketing and promotional activities conducted by any organisation, government or nongovernmental agencies. Tourism Malaysia also offers recommendations for the adoption of appropriate methods, measures and programmes in order to facilitate or stimulate the development and promotion of the tourism industry in Malaysia (Tourism Malaysia, 2010).

In 1990, Malaysia geared up for its first serious attempt at promoting tourism with the launch of its "Visit Malaysia Year" campaign (Hamzah, 2004). This marked a departure

from previous attempts to market Malaysia as a tropical paradise destination, which did not achieve great success as tourists were more interested in visiting better-known destinations such as Phuket and Bali in neighbouring Thailand and Indonesia (Mike, 2010). Facing mounting competition from neighbouring South East Asian countries, Malaysia re-packaged its image, weaving the different images into a seamless tapestry that mirrored the multi ethnicity of its people (Mike, 2010). Over the years, the tourist image that Malaysia portrayed had changed from 'Beautiful Malaysia' to 'Only Malaysia', followed by 'Fascinating Malaysia' and currently 'Malaysia, Truly Asia'. Multiculturalism and cultural diversity as projected by the promotional tag line, 'Malaysia, Truly Asia', have made Malaysia a hit among international tourists (Hamzah, 2004). The Visit Malaysia Year 2007 campaign helped to increase awareness of Malaysia as a tourist destination throughout the world and to sharply increase the number of tourists visiting the country (Mike, 2010).

Tourism industry has become an important contributor to the Malaysian economy, generating RM36.9 billion for gross national income (GNI) in 2009. This makes tourism the fifth largest industry in the Malaysian economy after Oil, Gas and Energy, Financial Services, Wholesale and Retail, and Palm Oil. It was estimated by 2020, the tourism industry will contribute RM103.6 billion in GNI, with arrivals increasing from 24 million in 2009 to 36 million in 2020 (Ministry of Information Communications and Culture (KPKK), 2010). Over the past decades, Malaysia has managed to increase international arrivals from 7.9 million in 1999 to approximately 24 million in 2009, enabling Malaysia to be listed in the top 10 most visited countries. In the context of tourism receipts, the contribution from this sector has been very encouraging (Tourism Malaysia, 2010). The tourism sector has grown from RM30 billion in 2004 to RM53 billion in 2009, a growth of 1.8 times from 2004 to 2009, placing Malaysia 13th overall in terms of global tourist receipts.

3.1 Tourism development in Penang

Penang, branded as the Pearl of the Orient, was Asia's leading sun, sea and sand destination in the 1960s and 1970s. It is thus not surprising that the corresponding decades witnessed a rapid growth of the industry in Penang (Kee, 1996). Tourist arrival increased from 39,357 in 1970 to 200,927 in 1980 and hotel development also increased from 24 hotels with 1, 456 rooms in 1970 to 36 hotels with 2,933 rooms by 1980 (Kee, 1996). Penang had hit its peak in tourist arrivals in the 1990s but this trend soon waned towards the end of the century. Nevertheless, in July 2008, George Town, the island state's old capital won the prestige of being ascribed, together with the Straits town of Melaka, in the UNESCO World Heritage List of cities and sites of great cultural value to the global community (SERI, 2010). Penang then, was back to good times with this listing as 6.3 million tourist arrivals were recorded in 2008 as compared to 5.1 million in 2007 (Tourism Malaysia, 2010). In the year 2009, despite the threat posed by spread of the Influenza AH1N1 virus, Penang ranked third place for foreign tourist arrivals in Malaysia, after Kuala Lumpur and Pahang (Tourism Malaysia, 2010). With the recently launched direct flights from Penang to Singapore, Chennai, Hong Kong and Macau by Air Asia, inbound tourism has increased considerably. The majority of the visitors to this island are from Malaysia (about 50% of the total number of visitors) and its ASEAN counterparts (Indonesia and Singapore); other major sources of international markets are China, Japan, Taiwan, United States and United Kingdom (Table 1).

Rank	Penang	Malaysia
1	Indonesia	Singapore
2	Singapore	Indonesia
3	China, Hong Kong and Macau	Thailand
4	Japan	Brunei Darussalam
5	Taiwan	China, Hong Kong and Macau
6	Thailand	India
7	United States	Australia
8	United Kingdom	Philippines
9	Australia	United Kingdom
10	India	Japan

Source: Tourism Malaysia (2010)

Table 1. Ranking of international tourist arrivals in Penang and Malaysia, 2009

As a tourism destination, Penang has several key strengths and differentiated products in attracting international as well as domestic tourists. Cultural and heritage tourism has been given due emphasis with the listing of George Town in the UNESCO World Heritage status in 2008. At the same time, Penang also offers a vast array of tourism products to cater for the diverse interests and demands of tourists. Tourism products include the promotion of Penang as an attractive hill and island resort, an international shopping and business event destination, cruise tourism as well as medical tourism (Penang State Tourism, 2010). Visit Penang Year 2010-2012, a three year tourism campaign was recently launched by the Penang state government (Penang State Tourism, 2010). The Chief Minister of Penang has indicated that this three year campaign is an approach combining a high degree of public and private sector cooperation to ensure a sustained effort in order to achieve a bigger contribution to the Penang Gross Domestic product. The states government targets around 10 million tourist arrivals by 2014.

3.1.1 Hotel industry in Penang

Penang is one of the top suppliers of hotel rooms in Malaysia with 127 hotels providing a supply 12,697 rooms within the state. In terms of foreign tourist arrivals and hotel guests, Penang ranked number three among the 13 states in Malaysia. However, the hotel occupancy rate does not have any close correspondence to the increasing number of tourist arrivals. The occupancy rate measures the success of a hotel's staff in attracting guests to a particular hotel and it is measured by the number of rooms sold divided by the number of rooms available (Bardi, 2007).

Figure 4 shows Penang received a low average growth rate from 2000 to 2009. The drop in occupancy rate was recorded particularly among the beach hotels. This indicates that leisure holidays in Penang have reduced significantly while business holidays remain at almost a constant rate. City hotels which tend to attract a mix of leisure vacationers and business travellers saw a good turnover compared to the beach hotels after year 2003. However, within the first quarter of 2010, statistics released by the Malaysian Hotel Association (MAH) showed the occupancy rate of hotels in Penang hit 56%, compared with 53% in the first quarter of 2009. It was expected that Penang would then register a higher occupancy rate of about 70% in the second half of 2010, compared with about 65% in the corresponding period of 2009.
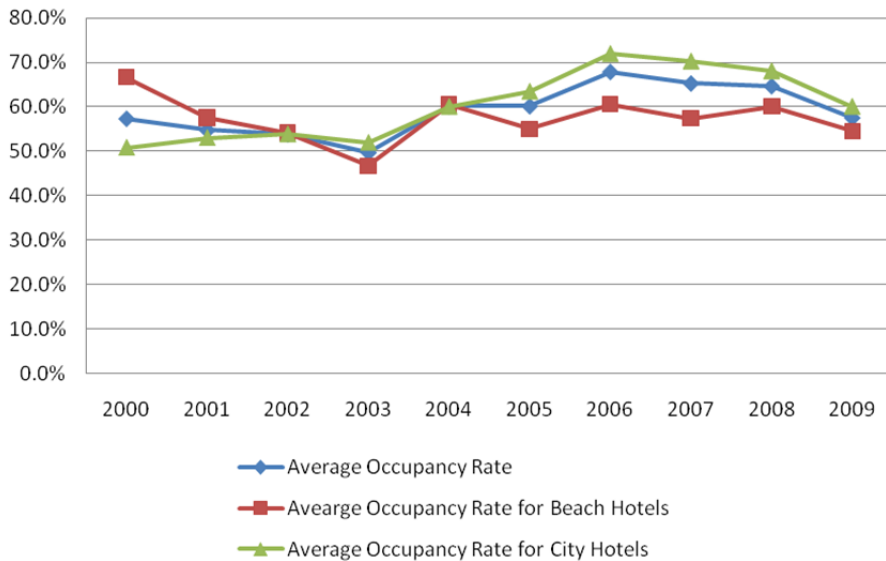
Source: Penang State Tourism (2010)

Fig. 4. Hotel occupancy rate in Penang (2000-2009)

Nevertheless, no market segmentation approach was seen to have been considered while Penang keeps promoting a multifaceted image and offers a variety of tourists' attractions and products. On the other hand, the survival of the hotel industry in Penang is dependent on its sustainability as an international tourist destination (Lim, 2003). Stiff competition from neighbouring countries is a great challenge to the travel and hotel industry in Penang. A short-term measure to address this would then be to look into ways to increase occupancy rates of Penang hotels. In the long term however, the tourism and hospitality industry has to learn how to undertake market segmentation in order to target profitable market segments and increase business performance.

4. Research methodology

The purpose of this study is to examine women travellers' preferences on hotel attributes. More specifically, the intent of this study is to assess if there are significant differences between the socio-demographic and travel variables of women travellers towards the facilities and services provided by hotels.

Considering this intent, the study was carried out with the following objectives:

1. To examine women travellers' preferences of hotel characteristics and in-room characteristics during the process of hotel selection.
2. To investigate whether women travellers' preferences of hotel characteristics and in-room characteristics differ based on their socio-demographic and travel variables.

A quantitative methodology associated with the positivistic or hypothetical-deductive paradigm was employed in this study. The survey method was adopted as it is apt for a

deductive research approach and allows for large amounts of data to be collected from a considerable population size in a very economical way. A structured and self administered questionnaire was developed as the survey instrument to achieve the research objectives. This questionnaire was developed based on the information obtained through literature review and the survey was carried out by interviewing international women travellers who travelled to Penang, Malaysia. The survey was conducted for one month, from January to February 2011. 218 questionnaires were duly completed and returned, representing a 43.6% response rate.

A principal component factor analysis with varimax rotations was performed to delineate the underlying dimensions of 24 items of hotel characteristics and 20 items of room characteristics.

5. Research findings

5.1 Respondent characteristics

From the 218 respondents, the majority was the group between 25 to 34 years old with 38% (83) falling within this category; 28% (62) were below 25 years old and 12% (26) fell into the 45-54 age group category. Another 12% (26) were over 54 years old and only 10% were between the ages of 35-44. About 118 respondents (54%) were diploma or bachelor degree holders while 21% (46) obtained master or PhD degrees. About 14% (29) of the respondents attended secondary school, 3% (7) only attended primary school and another 8% (18) obtained other academic qualifications. About 59% (128) of the respondents were single and the remaining of 41% (90) were married.

In terms of annual household income, 28% (62) of the respondents reposted in the range of US$30,001-60,000, 26% (56) of the respondents reported annual household incomes of less than US$30,000 followed by 18% (40) who reported annual household incomes between US$90,001-120,000. Respondents who reported an annual household income between US$60,001-90,000 and over US$150,000 made up 16% (34) and 9% (20) respectively. Only 3% (6) of the respondents reported an annual household income in the range of US$120, 001-150,000. About 44% of the respondents (96) spent 3-4 days at Penang Island compared to 32% (69) that spent 1-2days followed by 15% (33) who have spent one week or more. The remaining 9% (20) spent 5-6days at Penang Island. Most of the respondents were on holiday at Penang Island accounting for 69% (151) of the respondents, 9% (19) travelled for visiting friends and family (VFR) followed by 5% (10) who travelled for business purposes. Another 17% (38) of the respondents visited Penang Island for other purposes.

5.2 Respondent preferences on hotel and in-room characteristics

Factor Analysis was used to provide a better understanding of the underlying structure and to subsequently provide a simplified regression procedure for further analysis (Pitt & Jeantrout, 1994). Factors were considered significant and retained only if they had an eigenvalue equal to or greater than 1, and variable with factor loading equalling to or greater than 0.50 (Hair et al., 1995). To reaffirm the notion that distinct dimensions existed for women travellers, an exploratory factor analysis was used. The 24 items of hotel characteristics and 20 items of in-room characteristics were subjected to principal

component analysis (PCA) respectively via the SPSS Version 17 software and the suitability of data for analysis was then accessed.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test were performed for all 24 items of hotel characteristics. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggested .6 as the minimum value of KMO index for a good factor analysis. For factor analysis to be appropriate, Bartlett's Test should be significant, where p<.05 (Bartlett, 1954). The value of the overall KMO analysis was .814 and Bartlett's Test of sphericity was significant, with p=.000 (Sig. value) indicating that the factor analysis was appropriate. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients with .3 and above supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Table 2).

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.814
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1410.013
	df	276
	Sig.	.000

Table 2. KMO and Bartlett's test on hotel characteristic items

Similar tests were performed on the 20 items of in-room characteristics. The value of the overall Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) analysis was .765 and Bartlett's Test of sphericity was significant, with p=.000 (Sig. value) indicating that the factor analysis was also appropriate. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of several coefficients registering .3 and above supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Table 3).

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.765
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1196.563
	df	190
	Sig.	.000

Table 3. KMO and Bartlett's test on in-room characteristic items

5.3 Analysis of hotel characteristics

Five factors (see Table 4) with eigenvalue greater than one, and explaining approximately 49.5% of the variance, were derived from the analysis. Items with factor loadings of 0.40 or higher were clustered together to form constructs, as suggested by Kass and Tinsley (1979). From the initial 24 items, two items with a factor loading of below 0.40 were excluded. The two items that were excluded were 'Room number not on key' and 'Surveillance cameras in hallways'. Each factor designation was based on the characteristics of its composing variables and labelled as follows: 'Core-services', 'Convenience', 'Additional-services', 'Comfort' and 'Price and reputation'. The core-services factor had the highest eigenvalue, 5.590, representing 23.29% of the explained variance.

The second highest eigenvalue was the convenience factor. This value of 2.301 represented 9.58% of the explained variance in the sample. The additional services factor had 1.510 eigenvalue, representing 6.29% of the explained variance followed by the comfort factor

which had an eigenvalue of 1.268, representing 5.28% of the explained variance. The fifth factor, the price and reputation factor had an eigenvalue of 1.214, representing 5.06% of the explained variance in the sample. The total variance explained by the five factors was an accumulative 49.5%. The core-services factor included characteristics with factor loadings greater than 0.465 such as 24 hours airport transportation (0.649), front desk staff on duty 24 hours (0.646), bell service (0.619) and 24 hours room service (0.534). Other characteristics in this factor were swimming pool, sauna, fitness facility (0.491) and security personnel on duty 24 hours (0.465). All of these characteristics were features that were preferred by women travellers and would clearly result in whether a hotel was acceptable to them. The next two factor named were convenience and additional services.

	Factor Loading				
	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
Factor 1: Core- services					
24 hours airport transportation	0.649				
Front desk staff on duty 24 hours	0.646				
Bell service	0.619				
24 hours room service	0.534				
Swimming pool, sauna, fitness facility	0.491				
Security personnel on duty 24 hours	0.465				
Factor 2: Convenience					
Room close to lobby or lower floor		0.656			
Express check-out		0.606			
Bright hallway lighting		0.579			
On-premise parking		0.570			
Parking area lighting		0.540			
Hotel entrance/exit doors locked at night		0.519			
Prearranged check-in		0.410			
Factor 3: Additional Services					
Women-only floor			0.805		
Gift shop			0.763		
24hours restaurant or coffee shop			0.653		
Factor 4: Comfort					
Hotel location				0.724	
Cleanliness of hotel				0.705	
Friendly service of hotel staff				0.615	
Well-maintained furnishings				0.497	
Factor 5: Price and reputation					
Price of accommodations					0.782
Reputation of hotel					0.584
Eigen value	5.590	2.301	1.510	1.268	1.214
Percent of variance (%)	23.29	9.58	6.29	5.28	5.06
Cumulative variance (%)	23.29	32.87	39.16	44.44	49.50
Alpha	.70	.76	.81	.60	.50

Table 4. Factor analysis of hotel characteristics

The characteristics included in the convenience factor with factor loadings greater than 0.410 were room close to lobby or lower floor (0.656), express check-out (0.606), bright hallway lighting (0.579) and on-premise parking (0.570). Parking area lighting (0.540), hotel entrance/exit doors locked at night (0.519) and prearranged check-in (0.410) were also included within this factor. The additional services factor with loadings greater than 0.653 included women-only floor (0.805), gift shop (0.763) and 24 hours restaurant or coffee shop (0.653). The fourth factor was comfort, with loadings greater than 0.497 that included the following characteristics: hotel location (0.724), cleanliness of hotel (0.705), friendly service of hotel staff (0.615) and well-maintained furnishings (0.497). The fifth factor was the price and reputation factor that included price of accommodation (0.782) and reputation of hotel (0.584).

Reliability coefficients (Cronbach Alpha) were computed for the items that formed each factor. The reliability coefficients for the 5 hotel factors were .70, .76, .81, .60 and .50 respectively. The results show that the reliability coefficients for these five room factors exceeded the recommended level of .50 (Nunnaly, 1967). It can then be deduced that these five hotel factor dimensions were perceived as particularly important by the women travellers in selecting hotels.

5.4 Analysis of in-room characteristics

Five factors (Table 5) with eigenvalue greater than one, and explaining approximately 54.46% of the variance, were derived from the analysis. Items with factor loadings of 0.40 or higher were clustered together to form constructs, as suggested by Kass and Tinsley (1979).

From the initial 20 items, one item with a factor loading of below 0.40 was excluded. The excluded item was 'well-lighted vanity area'. Each factor designation was based on the characteristics of its composing variables and named as follows: 'In-room amenities', 'Complimentary', 'Bathroom amenities', 'Security' and 'Fire safety'. The in-room amenities factor had the highest eigenvalue, 4.716, representing 23.58% of the explained variance. The second highest eigenvalue was the complimentary factor. This value of 2.274 represented 11.37% of the explained variance in the sample. The bathroom amenities factor had 1.461 eigenvalue, representing 7.31% of the explained variance followed by the security factor which had an eigenvalue of 1.289, representing 6.44% of the explained variance. The fifth factor, the price and reputation factor had an eigenvalue of 1.152, representing 5.76% of explained variance in the sample. The total variance explained by these five factors accumulated to 54.46%. The in-room amenities factor included characteristics with significant factor loadings greater than 0.483 such as in-room mini bar or coffee maker (0.802), hair dryer (0.723), in-room ironing board and iron (0.703), full-length mirror (0.583) and comfortable mattress and pillows (0483).

All of these characteristics were features that were preferred by women travellers and would clearly result in whether a hotel would be suitable for them. The next two factors were complimentary and bathroom amenities. The complimentary factor with factor loadings greater than 0.477 included characteristics such as free cable TV (0.769), free local telephone calls (0.760), safety deposit boxes (0.533) and Jacuzzi (0.477). The bathroom amenities factor with factor loadings greater than 0.579 included sanitary items in bathroom (0.830), bathrobes and towels in bathroom (0.769) and additional phone in bathroom (0.579). The fourth factor

was the security factor with factor loadings greater than 0.554 which included these following characteristics: peep holes (0.799), chain locks/latches (0.599) and safety deposit boxes (0.554). The fifth factor was the fire safety factor with factor loadings greater than 0.409 which included individual room smoke detectors (0.639), non-smoking rooms (0.631), individual room sprinkler system (0.621) and in-room temperature control (0.409).

	Factor Loading				
	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
Factor 1: In-room amenities					
In-room mini bar or coffee maker	0.802				
Hair dryer	0.723				
In-room ironing board and iron	0.703				
Full-length mirror	0.583				
Comfortable mattress and pillows	0.483				
Factor 2: Complimentary					
Free cable TV		0.769			
Free local telephone calls		0.760			
Phone by bed		0.533			
Jacuzzi		0.477			
Factor 3: Bathroom amenities					
Sanitary items in bathroom			0.830		
Bathrobes and towels in bathroom			0.769		
Additional phone in bathroom			0.579		
Factor 4: Security					
Peep holes				0.799	
Chain locks/latches				0.599	
Safety deposit boxes				0.554	
Factor 5: Fire safety					
Individual room smoke detectors					0.639
Non-smoking rooms					0.631
Individual room sprinkler system					0.621
In-room temperature control					0.409
Eigen value	4.716	2.274	1.461	1.289	1.152
Percent of variance (%)	23.58	11.37	7.31	6.44	5.76
Cumulative variance (%)	23.58	34.95	42.26	48.70	54.46
Alpha	.74	.64	.70	.70	.60

Table 5. Factor analysis of In-room characteristics

Reliability coefficients (Cronbach Alpha) were computed for the items that formed each factor. The reliability coefficients for the 5 factors were respectively .74, .64, .70, .70 and .60. The results show that the reliability coefficients for these five room factors exceeded the recommended level of .50 (Nunnaly, 1967). It can then be safely concluded that these five room factor dimensions were perceived as being particularly important by the women travellers in the selection of hotels.

6. Conclusion

The study undertaken identified five underlying hotel factors that are considered by women travellers during hotel selection, namely; (1) Core-services, (2) Convenience, (3) Additional services, (4) Comfort and finally, (5) Price and reputation. The study also suggested five other factors, namely; (6) In-room amenities, (7) Complimentary facilities, (8) Bathroom amenities, (9) Security and (10) Fire safety to make up the room characteristics that influence women travellers.

The overall results suggest that women travellers placed importance on 'Cleanliness of hotel' and 'Friendly services of hotel staff' as well as 'Bathrobes and towels in bathroom' and 'In room temperature control' during hotel selection. Besides these characteristics, factors such as security personnel on 24 hours duty, well-maintained furnishing, front desk on 24 hours duty, individual room sprinkler systems and individual room smoke detectors also emerged as an importance aspect of women travellers' preferences. Although these results may not seem surprising, they reinforce the notion which suggests that women travellers prefer staying at hotels that provide quality services and attributes where the guests' comfort and safety were of top priority. Hoteliers would do well in understanding these preferences of women travellers by reviewing the result of hotel attributes analysis presented in this chapter.

The results presented within this chapter should impress upon the hoteliers that women travellers prefer staying at hotels that provided quality services and in-room amenities without compromising the comfort and safety of guests. Furthermore, this study is significant from the perspective of hoteliers in order to gain more knowledge about the women market segment within the hospitality industry. Accordingly, the results of this study would enable hoteliers to know how women travellers perceive the quality of hotel services and facilities and to help them in formulating appropriate marketing strategies to attract these women travellers in a more effective way as well as in retaining existing customers. At the same time, by understanding the preferences of women travellers, hoteliers would be able to achieve a competitive advantage and stand out among competitors, which in turn will lead to an increased business and commercial performance.

Although this study was carried out in Penang Island, Malaysia, hotels elsewhere in the world can learn from these findings and suggestions, as the factors that comprise both hotel and in-room characteristics are universal among hotels throughout the world. The work from this study will hopefully bring some inspiration as well as insight for hoteliers to understand and satisfy the ever growing number of women guests. Knowing how travellers perceive the quality of services and facilities would enable hoteliers to achieve a competitive advantage, stand out among competitors, enhance brand image, increase business performance, retain existing customers and attract new ones (Lewis,1993).

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Section 2

Tourism Industry – Macro Perspective

New Challenges for Tourism Destination Management in Romania

Gabriela Tigu
Bucharest University of Economic Studies
Romania

1. Introduction

With its content and role, tourism is a well established industry, a highly important component of the economical and social environment of more and more countries. Worldwide a growing interest is taken in a deeper understanding of its multiple economic, social, cultural and political implications, its active role within the society, respectively its dynamics and mechanisms.

Tourism is one of the world's largest industries with an estimated 940 million international arrivals in 2010 and more than US$ 919 billion revenues, or 30% of the world's export services. In the last years, the industry is expanding at an average rate of 4% annually (except 2009). Moreover, in the first half of 2011, international tourist arrivals are estimated to have grown by 4.5%, after a 6.6% increase in 2010 (UNWTO, 2010).

Tourism can bring a number of benefits, including the enhancement of economic opportunities by creating more jobs for local residents, increasing incomes and by the stimulation or creation of local and regional markets. Tourism can also help to protect natural and cultural heritage, preserve the values through education and interpretation, and help to support research and development of good environmental practices. Tourism can also help to enhance quality of life through improved infrastructures, enhanced intercultural understanding and the valuation by local people of their culture, their heritage and traditions.

The tourism destination is a link between all parts of the tourism industry, maintains and propels these parts, is a complex and specific element of the tourism industry and is a topic of numerous researchers (Stancioiu, 2002). The management of the tourism destination is a concept widely utilized in the theory and practice, while the image of the destination is an important point of interest for the researchers, as well as for the people managing the tourism industry.

Destinations are regarded as well-defined geographical areas, such as a country, an island or a town, with an amalgam of tourism products, offering an integrated experience to tourists. Destinations are not a single product, but composite products consisting of a bundle of different components including: accommodation and food establishments, tourist attractions, arts establishments and cultural venues, and the natural environment (Pop et al., 2007). It is a combination of tangible physical attributes (such as product, facilities, location and accessibility) and less tangible attributes (such as service, experience and community

attitude). Destinations are places towards which people travel and where they choose to stay for a while, are places with personality and with consistent tourist product (Suarez, 2007), so the perceived attractiveness and the competitiveness of destination are the most important issues to study.

The approach of tourist destination management is done through strategic management and marketing, taking into consideration specific theories, models, techniques, principles and strategies. Planning and implementing strategies means to involve all internal and external stakeholders, in order to assure brand equity and a good tourist experience (Kozak & Baloglu, 2011). Marketing of destinations should balance the strategic objectives of all stakeholders as well the sustainability of local resources, for the optimisation of tourism impacts (Buhalis, 1999).

Most literature of destination management introduces both theory and practice, related to specific areas of interest or even local tourist destinations, providing comprehensive textbook coverage for students on higher education and professional courses (e.g. Howie 2003; Ovsenik & Kiereta, 2006; Gunn, 2002). But also the destination management in communities of developing countries is a common and present issue (e.g. Jamieson, 2006; Velasquez, 2005); the complexity of destination management is discussed through illustrative case studies and effective practical approaches for various facets of destination management, providing a comprehensive view to planners, policymakers, and destination managers who attempt to ensure a sustainable future for those communities, in an innovative way.

Competition among tourism destinations continues to intensify on the international market; in these conditions, competitiveness of a destination is analyzed in terms of variable factors of influence. A destination is competitive if it can attract and satisfy potential tourists and this competitiveness is determined both by tourism-specific factors and by a much wider range of factors that influence the tourism service providers (Enright & Newton, 2004).

Competitive advantage requires the ability to effectively manage all components of the tourism system to ensure success is achieved. To assist in achieving this objective, many destinations have created a destination management organization (DMO) to provide leadership for the management of tourism in the destination (Bornhorst, Ritchie & Sheehan, 2010). The roles of the DMO have been explored in many scientific publications, but it still remains to research how the DMO can be more effectively structured and operated, in order to make the destination more competitive and successful.

Destination's image is the perception by the tourists of what could be experienced at the destination; is a composite of various products (attractions) and attributes woven into a total impression. Image plays a fundamental role in the success of tourist destinations, since tourist image, seen as a mental picture formed by a set of attributes that define the destination, exercises a strong influence on consumer behaviour in the tourism sector. Findings from many studies in this field suggest that both personal variables, such as demographics, culture, and familiarity, as well as attributes of the visual, such as physical features, are relevant to image assessment (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997). More than that, the destination's image is influenced by tourist motivations, the experience of travel has a significant relationship with cognitive and affective images, and the socio-demographic characteristics influence the cognitive and affective assessment of image (Beerli & Martin, 2004).

For tourist destinations, the differentiation on international market become critical, given the strong present competition, when tourists can choose from a wide variety of destination often substitutable. So the destination must be identified and differentiated from alternatives in the minds of the target market (Qu, Kim & Im, 2011). In this way, branding is considered beneficial from both the supply and demand perspectives. It can generate advantages for products and services, such as increased purchase intent, lower costs, increased sales, price premiums, and customer loyalty. In the same time, branding could give advantages for destination marketing organisations, including increased potential to differentiate against similar destinations, increased destination loyalty and increased yield for local tourism businesses and tour operators. Benefits for the traveller include ease of decision making through reduced search costs, reduced risk, and possibly enhanced brag value (Pike, 2009).

Under the brand umbrella, destinations have to design the appropriate market strategies. Umbrella branding refers to the linkages and synergies in the development of strategies at the national authority level but also at the DMO and stakeholders levels and that means a strong involvement of the local community.

2. Romania as a tourist destination

Romania is an important destination for local and foreign tourists. The respective legal frame was created before World War II. Early 1960s Romania boosted its accomodation capacity, primarily on the Black Sea coast. Early 1970 Romania was already a well known destination on the most important importing markets in Europe, especially Germany, UK, the Scandinavian countries, France, Italy, Austria and Belgium.

After 1980 the arrivals of foreign tourists decreased sharply and this tendency continued in the 1990s. The reason was the lack of investments for development, modernization and maintenance of the specific infrastructure, as a result of the very slow and complicated privatization process, wrong fiscal legislation, lack of supporting policies from the banking sector. The last decade did not bring much improvement, but after Romania's accesion to the European Union, we witnessed increased investments in the tourism industry, especially due to financing from the European Union, but also as a result of increased efforts for a coherent strategy to develop and promote the Romania tourism destinations.

2.1 Qualitative and quantitative aspects of the Romanian tourism

Situated in the South-eastern region of Europe, in the Northern part of the Balkan Peninsula, Romania holds an attractive, rich and various environment, with a diversity of landscape forms – mountains, hills and plateaus, plains, coastal zones -, flora and fauna, thanks to its geographical position. Romania also owns a rich culture, developed over more than 2000 years of history by the Romanian people in this area.

The landscape is varied and harmoniously distributed. Romania is the country of the Carpathians, the Danube and the Black Sea. The Carpathians are one of the most important mountain chains in Europe; the backbone of the Romanian territory is formed by the South-eastern Carpathians, which make an almost compact ring, with the Transylvania Plateau on the inside. They are in the centre of the country, bordered on both sides by hills and plateaus

and finally the Great Plains of the outer rim. Forests cover over a quarter of the country and the fauna is one of the richest in Europe including wolves, bears, deer, lynx and chamois.

Romania is also situated on the inferior basin of the Danube, an important European river. The Danube and its tributaries water 97.8% of the country's territory. Romania has the greatest surface of the hydrographical basin of the Danube, controlling 38% of the navigable course. Finally, the country is located on the Western coast of the Black Sea with a marine shore spanning over 245 kilometres, which confers it a special status.

The main components of Romania's tourism offer may be summarized as follows:

a. The highly complex natural potential, of tremendous tourism value, known all over the world:
- The mountain potential, of varied landscaping beauty, a complexity of tourism resources (landscaping, skiing areas, spa, cultural, etc.) and various possibilities for tourism exploitation (there are available 14 forms of tourism and entertainment modules). The most famous mountain resorts offer important facilities for winter sports, mountain hiking trips, cave exploration and mountain climbing, spa, cultural tourism, religious tourism, eco tourism and others;
- The wellness spa tourism, world renown for the natural curing factors, such as: mineral waters (1/3 of European mineral resources are found in Romania), therapeutic clay pits and gas, saline bio climate, ionized air bio climate, phytotherapy, etc., partly exploited through national wellness spa resorts (approximately 24) and the regional and local non-certified wellness resorts (36). In addition to these favourable elements, one might also consider the professionalism of the medical and curing staff, as well as the wide range of typical Romanian medication and treatment with plants, characteristic to this sector;
- The tourism potential of the Black Sea with its renown resorts connected also to wellness tourism, such as the mineral waters of Mangalia, Venus, Neptun, Eforie, the sapropelic mud pits of Techirghiol and charcoal in Mangalia; the chlorium-nitrite waters of Techirghiol Lake; the marine bio climate as well as other tourist objectives of cultural, historical and natural significance, spread over a range of 70 kilometres between Cape Midia and Vama Veche;
- The tourism potential of the Danube Delta with its unique ecologic landscape and fauna attractions (various birds and fish species), ship cruises and expeditions in a one-of-the-kind landscape and its cultural particularities (the cultural and economic traditions of the local Russian, Ukrainian and Romanian communities, etc.);
- The tourism potential of the Danube River and its shores, with interesting attractions for tourists: the Danube Gorge and the Iron Gates, Delta ponds, etc.
- The protected areas (13 national parks, 13 natural parks and 3 Bio-sphere reserves) as key destinations, representative for the international geo-fund and the leisure recreational educational and scientific research activities;
- The cave potential (over 10.000 caves) and the potential for mountain climbing and escalade, as well as for extreme sports which may be conducted especially in the mountain area;
- The Romanian climate is favourable for tourist activities throughout the year due to its comfortable climate; the layer of snow allows, through thickness and duration of life, practicing all sorts of winter sports, the therapeutic value of the bio-climate

(negative ionized air, tonic bio climate – mountain stimulant, hill relative, excessive – exciting in the plains and sea shore, etc.).

b. The cultural and historical heritage, completely representative of our country, given the multi-millennial history of the Romanian people, represented by:

- The existence of over 680 heritage values of national interest, among which 197 churches and monastery complexes, 36 monuments and architecture ensembles, 11 castles, mansions and palaces, 70 urban architectural ensembles (civil constructions), 20 historical centres and archaeological sites, etc. A considerable proportion of all the historical and artistic monuments are values of the UNESCO World Heritage (villages with fortified churches in Transylvania, churches with exterior murals in Bukovina, the Dacian fortresses of the Orastie Mountains, the historic centre of Sighişoara, wooden churches of Maramures etc.);

- The Romanian ethnic and folk treasures of considerable originality, represented by the particular rural architecture in the villages of Maramures, Bucovina, Oltenia, Dobrogea, Transylvania, etc.; wooden churches in Maramures and Salaj; craftsmanship, wood cutting and processing, the decorative art cultural and religious traditional festivals, fairs and ethnographic open-air museum exhibitions or pavilions, etc.

c. The technical and economic potential, through works of engineering art, bridges, dams, salt and coal mines, old factories and railway buildings, vineyards and stud farms, etc.

So, Romania holds a huge treasury of archaeological traces, historical, architecture and art monuments, as well as a valuable patrimony certifying continuous and life evolution on these lands, Romanian culture and art development.

All of these constitute very attractive elements of Romanian tourism offer, presenting a wide variety of tourism types: large or short holidays at the seaside, mountain resorts or spa, hunting and sportive fishing, cultural tourism, rural and agrotourism, ecotourism, professional tourism etc.

From qualitative and quantitative point of view, we witnessed a continuous improvement of the infrastructure, particularly in terms of the network of hotels, hostels and tourist villas, in cities, resorts, as well as in rural areas. In the last several years, the investments[1] focused also on the restoration of some elements of the cultural heritage, on developing or modernizing the connecting roads to some of the resorts (in the mountains, in the coastal regions or to medical resorts), on developing leisure equipment like sports centres, swimming pools, hiking trails, beaches, slopes (54 new slopes were built in the last 3 years), cable transport and water sports equipment in the Danube Delta, respectively on developing the tourism potential of some salt mines, spa centres, tourism information centres etc.

A total of 5003 accommodation units were operational in 2011, out of which 1308 hotels, the rest representing tourist villas, tourist boarding houses, agrotourist boarding houses, camping sites, school camps and others; most accommodation units are operating in the segment of medium comfort (2-3 stars; see figure 1).

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[1] From a quite low level of 20 million Euros invested in tourism in 2006-2008, the government increased the invested amounts to 812 million Euros in 2009-2011, out of which 612 million from the European Union. Additionally there were quite important private investments in hotel and restaurant activities.
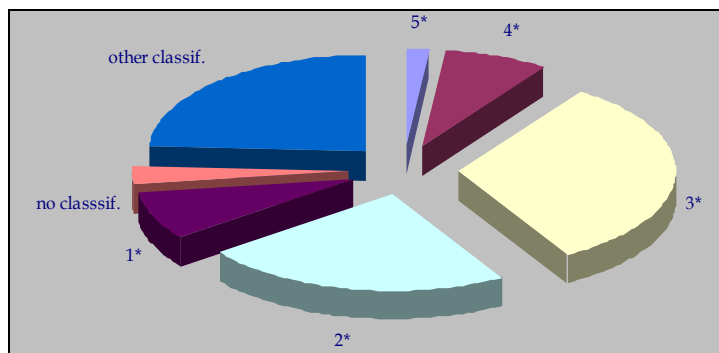
Fig. 1. Accommodation units' structure by comfort class in Romania, 2011

A total of 278,503 bed places were available in 2011 in Romania, out of which 174,748 in hotels (62.7%). Unfortunately the occupying rate is low (25% in 2010, down from 35% in 2000-2008, as a result of the economical crisis and not only), showing an unsatisfying usage level of the tourist accommodation units.

19,000 bed places were available in Bucharest, which is 7% of the total on national level; however the occupying rate is higher than the national average (over 45%).

Details about the dynamics of the tourism indexes in 2000-2010 are shown in table 1.

Indicator	2000	2005	2010	2010/2000
Total establishments	**3121**	**4226**	**5222**	+67.3%
- hotels and similar establishments	2533	3608	4724	+86.5%
- other collective accommodation establishments	588	618	498	-15.3%
Total bed places (1000)	**280**	**283**	**311**	+11.1%
- in hotels and similar establishments (1000)	199	216	258	+29.6%
- in other collective accommodation establishments (1000)	81	67	53	-34.8%
Total arrivals in accommodation units	**4920**	**5805**	**6072**	+23.4%
- non-residents	867	1430	1346	+55.2%
Total nights spent	**17647**	**18373**	**16051**	-9.0%
- non-residents	2149	3464	2767	+28.8%
Average stay	3.6	3.2	2.6	-27.8%
- non-residents	2.5	2.4	2.1	-16%
Number of tourists who stay at least 4 nights (1000)	-	3583	4289	
Number of trips with at least 4 overnight stays (1000)	-	3857	4403	

Source: Eurostat, data compiled by the author based on
http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/tourism/data/main_tables and Romanian
Institute of Statistics, at https://statistici.insse.ro/shop/index.jsp?page=tempo2&lang=ro&context=63

Table 1. Evolution of main tourism indicators in Romania

At present, Romanian tourism industry is characterized by the following indicators:

- 7.5 million foreign visitors in 2010 (down from 8.9 million in 2008…); out of which, 7.1 million visitors are coming from Europe (the most important markets being Moldavia, Bulgaria, Germany, Italy, Turkey, France, Russia and Spain);
- 10.9 million outbound Romanian tourists (same year); the main destinations are Italy, Greece, Hungary, Bulgaria, Spain, Austria and Turkey;
- more than 1,000 million US Dollars revenue from international tourism, but this amount is quite low in comparison with other European countries;
- 3,405 millions US$ in GDP (or 2.04%) and
- 270,000 jobs (3.2% of the total number of employees in Romania), showing a quite low participation of the tourism in the total Romanian economy (WEF, 2011).

As a short conclusion, we can see that Romania has a fairly modest economic performance in the tourism industry, compared with the existent potential and with the other Central and East-European countries.
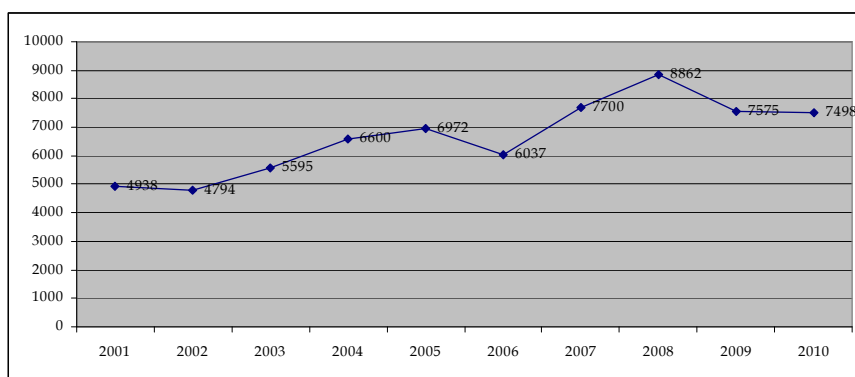
Source: National Institute of Statistics, 2008. *Romania's Statistical Yearbook*. Bucharest and National Institute of Statistics, 2010, *INSSE – Statistical DB – TEMPO-Online time series* [online], Bucharest. Available at: https://statistici.insse.ro/shop/index.jsp?page=tempo3&lang=en&ind=TUR107C [Accessed 02.12.2011].

Fig. 2. International tourist arrivals in Romania (thousands of tourists)

As a matter of fact, after the year 2000, Romania scored a high rate of increase in the number of international tourists' arrivals, i.e. 7.1%/year (European Commission, 2008). In 2011, in the first half of the year, according to the National Institute of Statistics and Ministry of Tourism and Regional Development, the number of foreign tourists accommodated in Romania increased by 11.6% (Ministry of Regional Development and Tourism, 2011).

This dynamics of international tourist arrivals in Romania, and in parallel of a higher increase of outbound Romanian tourists, led to a relatively modest volume of revenues from tourism and – for a significantly long period of time – to a negative balance of payments in tourism. As a matter of fact, the European Union's statistics include Romania in the group of countries which are the main generators of tourists over the last 5 years (European Commission, 2008).

In terms of the promoting activities, several campaigns were launched after 1996, each of them trying to bring some novelties or to create a new image of the destination Romania. First it was "*The Eternal and Fascinating Romania*" (trying to change the country's image after the communism), after that "*Come as a tourist, leave as a friend*", then it was "*Romania – Simply Surprising*" (an aggressive campaign trying to re-conquer some traditional markets like the Baltic Republics, Central and Eastern Europe, Middle East and the Scandinavian countries), the 2007 long term Master Plan for the development of the Romanian tourism and finally the current campaign under the slogan "*Explore the Carpathian Garden*". Despite the consistent financial efforts all over this period, the expected results in terms of revenues or number of tourists were never reached.

2.2 The Image and competitiveness of the Romanian tourism

Romania has a huge tourism potential, but the promoting campaigns never produced the desired effects and they lacked coherence and continuity. Another problem is that the foreign tourist finds in Romania someting different than the expectations and promises – for example the inestethic urban lanscapes and the bad infrastructure are disappointing.

In contrast with all the advantages of the tourism potential, some surveys conducted by the World Tourism Organization, based upon the information and market research done in the European countries - generating tourism flows – or by the national tourism administration in Romania show the Romanian tourism offer in the following way:

- all types of tourism programs offered by Romania meet a strong competition from the West-European markets;
- other countries have a large variety of offers for categories of tourists, but the Romanian offer is, in a way, limited, concentrated only in a few resorts, and there, only in a few hotels;
- by comparison with competitors from Bulgaria, Turkey, Greece or Cyprus, the quality of the service in Romania is lower;
- the entertainment is less diversified;
- technical and transportation infrastructure is inadequate;
- it is imperative to improve the comfort level in hotels in large urban areas and in the resorts for foreign tourists;
- concerning the quality/ price ratio or the value for money, Romania is not anymore an attractive tourism market.

Also, the author's own research in the period 2007-2010 shows some more elements in the way the foreign tourists perceive Romania as a tourist destination:

- the main destinations are Transylvania (Dracula' tours, fortresses, landscapes), Bukovina (UNESCO monasteries with mural paintings, rural tourism, gastronomy and traditions), Maramures (UNESCO wood churches, landscapes, old villages with tradition and handicrafts), Bucharest (museums, Palace of Parliament, night life and casinos), the Delta of Danube (cruises, birdwatching, fishing and heritage), Carpathian Mountains (active holidays) and seaside;
- highly appreciated are the patience, hospitality, benevolence, and sociability of the people, great satisfaction with accommodation, information and business services;

- main negative aspects are related to infrastructure and the lack of professionalism of the employees around the tourism, the meals and leisure facilities, the non-competitive prices compared to neighbour destinations (Bulgaria, Turkey, Greece);
- the persistence of some problems about the image of Romania as a tourism destination (pocket lifters, taxi drivers which cheat the customers, stray dogs, lack of cleanliness, lack of parks and public toilets etc.);
- the marketing efforts abroad were inconsequent and/or insufficient.

The World Economic Forum ranks the competitiveness of the Romanian tourism on the 63rd position worldwide (out of 139 countries), respectively 34th in Europe (out of 42 countries), with a Travel and Tourism Index of 4.17 (up from 4.00 in 2009). Such low value of the index is the result of numerous weak points in the development of the tourism.

Compared to its main competitors, Romania seems to be not competitive:

Country	The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index 2011
Greece	4.78
Croatia	4.61
Montenegro	4.56
Hungary	4.54
Bulgaria	4.39
Turkey	4.37
Romania	**4.17**

Source: The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report 2011, Word Economic Forum, at http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_TravelTourismCompetitiveness_Report_2011.pdf [accessed 02.12.2011]

Table 2. Romania versus his competitors from East-Europe

A detailed analysis of the elements of this index, on subindexes and principal pillars, shows the critical aspects of the Romanian tourism competitiveness, but also his strengths, as is reflected in figure 3. So, Romania is more competitive in safety and security, health and hygiene, tourism infrastructure, but less in business environment and general infrastructure.

A more detailed analysis of the elements of each pillar shows that Romania has notable competitive advantages in terms of presence of major car rental companies (rank 1!), ease of hiring foreign labour (rank 23), hospital beds, number of World Heritage cultural sites (rank 29), creative industries exports, road density, number of international fairs and exhibitions, number of operating airlines, mobile telephone and broadband internet subscribers, ATMs accepting Visa cards and others. But many other aspects substantially reduce the competitiveness of the destination: transparency of government policymaking (rank 137!), sustainability of T&T industry development, extent and effect of taxation, tourism openness, government prioritization of the T&T industry, effectiveness of marketing and branding, quality of the natural environment, quality of transport infrastructure (air, road, railway, port infrastructure), local availability of research and training services etc.

Taking into consideration all those problems, the investments in modernization and promotion are vital actions needed for the transformation of Romania into an internationally successful tourism destination. As for the distribution of the tourism product, it's a very

good sign that the large European tour-operators like TUI and Neckermann returned to Romania, but there is a lot more to do for the local service providers in order to improve the perception of the large tour-operators about the quality of the services.

Additionally, Romania needs to encourage and support more the initiatives of the local authorities, the public-private partnerships, and the co-operation between the National Tourism Authority with professional associations.
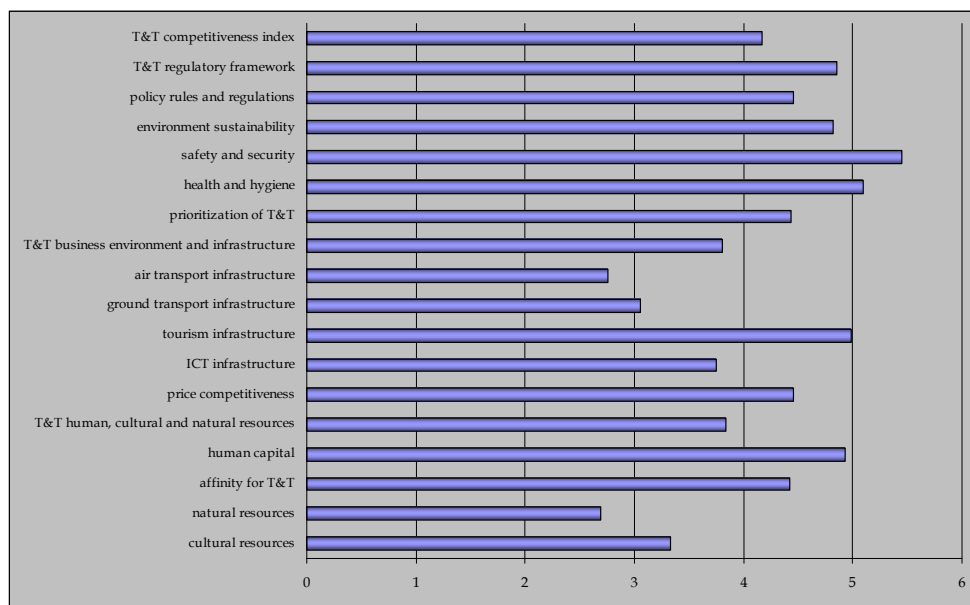
Source: The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report 2011, Word Economic Forum, at http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_TravelTourismCompetitiveness_Report_2011.pdf [accessed 02.12.2011]

Fig. 3. Romanian Tourism & Travel Competitiveness Index and subindexes

3. The need for a strategic approach of Romanian tourism

If the concept of destination management is today often discussed in the literature and also in practice, his consideration of national level is a challenge. Yet, national marketing plan is absolutely necessary today, and international experience gives us many examples of success.

The development of Romania destination must consider a macroeconomic marketing approach, but also at the micro-destinations' level. Destination marketing planning seeks to find direct response to a series of questions about the market, competition, environment, and to establish goals for a certain period, to identify target markets, products and strategies for each market.

A Marketing Plan sets the framework and direction for all marketing activities for a destination including market research, brand development and management, advertising and promotion, sales, distribution and cooperative marketing opportunities.
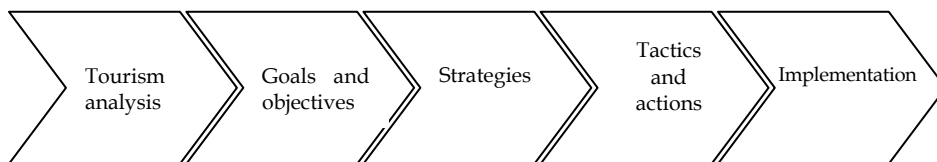
Fig. 4. The marketing plan contents

Tourism sector analysis, as was mentioned above, can be synthesized using the SWOT tool necessary to define the development and promotion strategies.

Strenghts of Romania destination:

- good geostrategic position;
- diversity of landscapes - mountains, sea, delta, various tourist attractions;
- 35% of mineral water springs in Europe and pits, which offers a wide range of spa treatments;
- good natural conditions for tourism activities - skiing, trekking, riding, cycling, water sports etc.;
- unspoiled nature and landscape, great biodiversity in protected areas, cultural heritage including UNESCO sites, Dracula's legend, authenticity, hospitality etc.;
- 17 commercial airports (biggest Henri Coanda, former Otopeni) and a large number of international airlines, extensive railroad network (4th largest in Europe in 2004);
- 11th largest economy in the EU;
- some brands already present in hospitality industry (Hilton, Hyatt, Marriott, Novotel, Pullman, Ibis etc.) and other planned penetration in next years (Sol Melia, Sheraton, Kempinski, Hampton, Courtyard);
- a large tourism infrastructure and good distribution of tourist products.

Weaknesses:

- the natural environment pollution, degradation of some natural attractions, the lack of environmental awareness from a part of the population;
- infrastructure still underdeveloped, main road corridors to be upgraded;
- overcrowding of tourist areas and poor valorisation of others;
- the state of degradation of many buildings and monuments;
- weak promotion of cultural objectives and events;
- many accommodation units and recreation facilities in resorts require upgrading;
- weak quality and diversity of tourist services in general, quality / price ratio non competitive;
- insufficient tourist information (signaling, information centers, information, etc.);
- short tourist season in the seaside resorts or winter sports resorts;
- weak awareness of the importance of tourism in the economy;
- training in the hospitality sector does not correspond exactly to the needs of employers;
- lack of institutional structures for regional development of tourism;
- lack of integrated tourism development of cities / resorts;
- incentives and support mechanisms for investors are insufficient;

- lack of powerful images, positive Romania abroad as a tourist destination;
- low collaboration public / private sector on marketing issues.

Opportunities:

- the European funds can be used to upgrade the general and tourism infrastructure;
- the adoption of new national tourism strategy, starting with 2010;
- reincrease of international tourism demand after the crisis year 2009;
- changes in the tourist motivations and permanent decline of traditional destinations;
- designation of Romania as vice-president of the World Tourism Organization, which contributes to improving the image of the country;
- the development of major sport events in Romania – UEFA Europa League Final 2012, edition of the Olympic Winter Festival of European Youth 2013, professional boxing galas, etc.

Threats:

- the current economic crisis will affect global tourism demand in 2012;
- strong competition from Central and Eastern European countries;
- damage country's image from some of immigrants;
- too frequent changes of development strategies, the lack of continuity in the fiscality legislation, public administration and environmental regulations.

Thus, the main general objectives which underline the basic development strategies for the Romanian tourism sector are (Ministry of Regional Development and Tourism, 2009):

- Creating a diverse and competitive tourism offer by supporting national and foreign investment development, which would in turn lead to an increase in the size of tourist activities and tourist circulation, respectively;
- Stimulating the development of quality tourist services, which will translate into an increase in income level (in national and foreign currency), of the contribution of tourism to the internal revenue and to the net income of the population, as well as a better absorption of the labour;
- Creating the conditions for integrating the Romanian tourism in the mainstream trend, present at a global and European level.

Among the specific objectives, some could be (Tigu, Andreeva & Nica, 2010):

- A yearly increase in the number of foreign tourists of 5-10%;
- Increasing the contribution of tourism in Gross Domestic Product (GDP), until 2015, to 6%;
- The yearly increase in the number of Romanian tourists by 5%, and the average stay to 3.5 days;
- Creating some 350.000 jobs in the tourism and related industries, until 2015.

The analysis of the current stage of Romanian tourism and the study of its weak points clearly indicates the main necessary actions for invigorating the industry and supporting it in reaching its objectives and clarifying its vision. These actions may be summarized as follows:

- the institutional structures of the public sector which benefit of trained staff and sufficient resources, must work in partnership with entities in the private sector;

- market research, segments, clients and communication channels;
- an integrated tourism planning will lead to modernizing, developing and better presenting the tourist products to meet the market's expectations and demands;
- education and training for the industry personnel at all career levels aimed at customer satisfaction, improving professionalism and enhancing skill level;
- oriented marketing to establish Romania as a preferential tourist destination (Tigu, Andreeva & Nica, 2010).

To a greater or lesser extent, these actions must be applied in all fields of Romanian tourism – products, destinations, services, etc. These include: seaside tourism, city breaks, tours and geo tourism, wellness tourism, active tourism and youth tourism, cultural tourism, business tourism, rural and eco tourism, education and training, entertainment, transportation, tourist information, destination marketing, quality control, planning, environment, legal framework, investment promotion and consulting services.

Moreover, in the last two years new strategies were developed by the national tourism authority, to meet these requirements established by the 2007 Master Plan, developed with the support of WTO consultants. First, was developed in 2010 the strategy of creation and promotion national tourism brand, realising the fact that country branding is a complex, complicated, abstract process and arises from social, political and economic mutations; he is not just a name, a slogan, a logo or a specific design, but a broad national approach. Simon Anholt identifies six elements involved in building the image of the country; these elements are: tourism, immigration and investment, exports, political activities, people, culture and tradition. This means that tourism is one of the elements shaping a brand, but it should be remembered that, in fact, this sector is a result of all other elements (Anholt, 2005). In other words, refers to the holistic brand reputation of the tourism destination has achieved (Jamrozy & Walsh, 2008).

Romania's new brand was launched at the Shanghai World Expo 2010, under the slogan "Romania - Explore the Carpathian Garden" with a logo represented by a green leaf and a blue river, to highlight elements of differentiation of the Romanian tourism:

- unspoiled nature and landscapes: nature and national parks well protected, beautiful isolated landscapes, rare flora and fauna areas, valuable ecosystems (Carpathian Mountains, Transylvania, Delta of Danube);

Fig. 5. Romania's logo

- authenticity: ancient traditions, simple rural life, organic food produced locally, typical local architecture (Transylvania, Maramures, Bucovina, Dobrogea, villages);
- unique cultural heritage: castles, monasteries, Latin and Byzantine cultural heritage, German cultural heritage, the painted monasteries of Bucovina, the old town of Sibiu, wooden churches of Maramures.

Another important decision to be taken is to create a national, independent and apolitical authority, that works as a DMO (Destination Marketing Organization) intended to provide expertise to all projects about country branding and to have representation in every country where want to implement a promotion campaign. The establishment of this authority is important because currently there is no leadership in terms of country branding; there is no coherent communication and collaboration between ministries and public and private organizations involved in promoting the country's image. The existence of such an authority can ensure collaboration between these insitutions and can assure a promotion plan for a minimum of 20 years.

It is also developed a strategic and operational tourism marketing plan for 2011-2015, with an special marketing plan for Bucharest destination. Other strategies are ready to be implemented: for health tourism, ecotourism, for the south region of the Romanian seaside, and a strategy for rural tourism.

4. Tactics and integrated actions

In the context of the national economy as a whole, tourism acts as a catalyst of the global system. In Romania, tourism sector has to bring a qualitative leap in destinations, ensuring a sustainable growth and an increasing competitiveness on the international tourism market.

Before talking about the country brand and to promote the Romania's destination image, new product strategies have to be implemented, taking into account:

- **New tourism products and packages (quick wins).** Taking into consideration the potential and the stage of development, those products could be: touring, city breaks, wildlife and nature parks, active tourism and adventure, countryside and rural tourism, health and wellness. The main key success factors for those products are:
  - Build attractive thematic tour routes and packages, but also events and animation services;
  - Keep nature and culture as major values for the markets;
  - Strongly promote ecotourism in the Danube Delta, national parks and reserves and rural areas;
  - Restructure Black Sea tourism, mountain and spa resorts.
- **Development of infrastructure and access to major cultural and natural destinations:**
  - Upgrade national transport system (roads, in particular, but also rail and maritime system) and improve a country vide buss, shuttle, rent a car and taxi system;
  - Increase air traffic capacity via regular and low cost carriers;
  - Expand national tourism signage system in relation with key themed tourism routes;
  - Develop the Danube Cycling route.

- **Improving quality in destinations**: establish the leadership of tourism in environment protection; update existing tourism infrastructure and facilities; improve visitor facilities in national museums and monuments focusing on welcoming, interpretation and marketing services; sustain and promote local festivals and events; better programs for employees' training and development.
- **Searching the points of differentiation:**
  - "True" authenticity, unspoiled nature and landscapes and a unique cultural heritage (most unique attractions being: Delta of Danube, abundant endangered flora and fauna, painted monasteries, Dracula's legend, many living traditions);
  - Possibility to offer a complete and combined tourist package and tours, with a wide variety of attractions (mountain, spa, culture, nature parks, beach), situated near to each other;
  - Unspoiled mountain region, with potential for niche products like hunting, fishing, bird watching, hiking, mountain biking, and other forms of adventure tourism;
  - Several national and international personalities: culture values (Constantin Brancusi, George Enescu), sport icons (Nadia Comaneci, Gheorghe Hagi, Ilie Nastase) or historical figure (like prince Vlad Tepes or the Count Dracula, as mix between history and myth).
- **A new business tourism environment**: invest focusing on market needs, encourage DMO development, investment and tax incentive system, competitive tourism statistics, research and training system, developing a network of tourism visitor/info centers, coordinating the policies, strategies and plans at all levels (national, regional, local community).

Obviously, all product strategies must be developed under the already chosen brand umbrella, brand that must be strengthened.

Target consumer is the discerning explorer, looking for unique destinations with great nature & landscapes and authentic cultural life and sites. Target audience is characterised by 25-34 and 50-64 ages (empty nesters), highly educated, middle-high income but with high spending potential, frequent travellers, living in medium-big cities. The main motivations and behaviour can be described as: living experience and emotions, satisfying a special interest, learning, getting involved and interacting with local people in a nice environment, with a high level of security, in small groups or in couples (Horwath, 2010).

Target markets are strategic; looking at the foreign tourist arrivals in Romania, the most important markets at the moment are:

- *Strategic markets*: Germany, Austria, Italy, France, United Kingdom, Turkey, Israel, United States, witch count more then 200,000 tourists in Romania every year;
- *Emerging markets*: China, Ukraine, Spain, Russian Federation, Bulgaria, Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia, with an important tourism flow in Romania and with real increasing potential;
- *Diverse markets*: Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Canada, Japan etc.

All markets need to be approached through strong and personalised communication strategies, witches have to include powerful public relations and web strategy (including

also on-line direct booking channels), under the same brand umbrella – "Explore the Carpathian Garden".

5. Conclusion

As tourist resources are practically inexhaustible, tourism represents one of the industry sectors with real long-term development perspectives. The complex capitalizing and exploitation of tourist resources, accompanied by an efficient promotion strategy on the international market may constitute a valuable source for foreign currency income for the Romania, thus contributing to the balancing of the external debt.

Tourism represents a safe market for the workforce and for re-distributing the unemployed resulting from other economic sectors undergoing a restructuring process. Tourism, through its multiplying effect, acts as a catalyst for the global economic system, generating specific demand for goods and services which further generate supplementary increase in their respective productivity and contributing, in turn, to diversifying the national economy sectors. A harmonious development of tourism throughout the national territory contributes to economic and social growth and a lessening of inequalities between various areas, constituting an important source for increasing the level of income of the local population.

Despite the big tourist potential, Romania faces many problems related to the tourism contribution in national economy, quality of services and products, the image as a tourism destination, competitiveness, and strategies' continuity. Although marketing and planning efforts were significant in recent years, adopting different strategies on various market segments, the expected results in terms of revenues or number of tourists were never reached. Furthermore, it noted the lack of synergies in the national economy, that suposed to help tourism sector. Lack of application of the destination management concept is also visible in the field of tourist activities management both at central and local level.

Adopt a new brand strategy must be supported by an improvement in the quality of general and tourist infrastructure, by the attraction of new segments / markets, development of competitive products, services, and destinations, pragmatic and effective regional and local tourism planning and management, all for creating travel experiences related to promised brand and generating further economic benefits.

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Value Creation in Experience-Based Networks: A Case Study of Sport-Events in Europe

Nina Katrine Prebensen
Tromsø University Business School, Tromsø
Norway

1. Introduction

Sporting events struggle to be economically, socially, and environmentally sustainable (Pitts and Stotlar, 2002), either through favourable business conditions (Porter, 1980) or through their internal resources and capabilities (Wernerfelt, 1984; Barney, 1991). To deal with these challenges, organisations tend to turn to cooperation and networking (Achrol, 1997; Achrol & Kotler, 1999; Dyer and Singh, 1998; Nohria & Zaheer, 2000; 2006). In particular, Gulati (1999: 399) claims that a firm's network might offer 'network resources that are the source of valuable information for firms.' An example of such resources is the building of routines for sharing knowledge to enhance values when any firm in isolation cannot generate the value (Dyer & Singh 1998; Möller and Rajala 2007; Gulati 1999). Despite this increase in interest and knowledge regarding value creation in networks, especially for sporting events (e.g., Prebensen, 2010), few studies have actually explored how and why these networks come into existence. Consequently, this chapter explores business nets, e.g., sporting events, with particular focus on the network structure and the purpose of participating in the network. The research questions are: how and why do organizations, e.g., sporting events, cooperate in a network?

Cooperating and co-creating values within the purview of sporting events deals with generating experience value through network interactions (e.g. Achrol & Kotler, 2006; Grönroos, 2006; Gummeson, 2006). Athletes come together to compete, more or less for fun and perhaps also for monetary purposes, and the spectators come to see and applaud their performances. However, people and organizations join these events for numerous other reasons as well (Holt, 1995). And, the more capable and popular the athletes or the events become, the more instrumental the reasons for attending the event are likely to be. Skills and popularity bring more spectators to the scene. More spectators bring more economic value to the event and, along with interest and money, sponsors and media are attracted. As a result, the events become more professionalized and some of them become regular market-based companies (i.e., ltd). The popularity of sporting events has been enhanced by the increase and ease of worldwide communications and transportation (Chalip, Green & VanderVelden, 2000; Delpy & Bosetti, 1998; Schaaf, 1997). Along with this trend, sponsors and the media anticipate vast market potential for their offerings (Trail, Fink & Anderson 2003). Sporting events offer strong emotional value to the spectators (Cialdini, 2000) and help to promote subsequent business propositions for the events and their stakeholders (Prebensen, 2007).

Research recognises that value is something that is created between different actors (Vargo & Lush, 2004). Vargo and Lush point to the significance of focusing on people and interaction in value creation. In the evolving service-dominant (S-L) logic the concept of co-creation is defined as a process of *cooperation* between actors where all actors take active parts in creating value (Vargo & Lush, 2004; 2006). An organization then depends on its stakeholders and their commitment to creating values for the company and for themselves. Relations and networks thus might facilitate and restrain the organisations' ability to perform (Wilkinson, 2008). Relations and networks hence play basic roles in "assessing, combining, recombining and coordinating the activities, resources and outputs of people and firms" (Wilkinson, 2008: 23), and "are the means by which the knowledge, skills and resources required to develop, exploit and commercialise new ideas are marshalled and coordinated" (Wilkinson, 2008: 25). Consequently, networks are essential for most organisations in that they create values.

Sporting events vary in terms of size and economic strength. Some are global; others national or local. For smaller and rural sporting events that are struggling to be economically sound, networking might be of particular strategic value. The most evident reason for cooperation and networking is to promote the sport itself and to augment publicity. More interest and attraction regarding a certain type of sport gives the pertinent events a market potential. Another apparent reason for networking would be knowledge sharing between the organizations. For sporting events, this might include knowledge regarding how to organize and structure the event, what spin-offs could be developed, how to motivate and organize voluntary workers, and how to develop an economically and environmentally sound organization.

An event may attract local, regional, national and even international spectators, depending of its uniqueness, status and promotion. For example, an event might supplement the tourism industry by functioning as an attraction for visitors. Getz (1997: 338) portrays event tourism as "the systematic planning, development, and marketing of festivals and special events as investor attractions, development catalysts, and image builders for attractions and destination areas". Sporting events, as part of the concept of special events, attract visitors and other stakeholders because they are perceived as unique and different from other types of attractions (Getz, 1989). Destinations might benefit economically from events in that the events attract visitors. Addressing the process of co-creating successful events through networking and cooperation with organizers of similar events would help tourism marketers in their work of attracting visitors to the destination and would add value to positioning and branding strategies for destinations.

Research that explores why people attend various events is increasing (e.g., Nicholson and Pearce, 2001; Prebensen 2010). Consumer research literature has in general begun to view consumption not only as rational decision-making, but as a more multi-sensory activity in which emotion and fantasy play important roles (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982). Business research, i.e., Allen and McGoun (2000) and Prebensen (2007), has adopted some of the thoughts from consumer research (Holt 1995) and explored investors' motivations for investing in various businesses. These authors employ Holt's (1995) typology of consumption practices, which uses the purpose of the action and the structure of the action as the basis for a theoretical study. The present study attempts to follow these ideas and utilizes Holt's consumer behavior matrix on networking in sporting

events. The present work employs a network of five different sporting events, all dog-sled races in Europe, as a case study to exemplify value co-creation activities in network (c.f., Van Limburg, 2009; Prebensen, 2010). The goal is to identify value creation by analyzing why and how the events participate in a network to co-create values for themselves and others. Consequently this paper seeks to arrive at a new understanding for value creation in a network framework.

In this chapter relevant theories regarding value creation in networks will be put forward. In particular, theories on the topics of stakeholder, cooperation, relations, business nets and motivation for entering networks will be defined and outlined. The author also turns to consumer behaviour literature (Holt 1995) to reveal how and why these firms cooperate through networks. The reason for utilizing this theory as a framework for acknowledging network processes is that people in these organizations might have various purposes and strategies, for the organization as well as for themselves, in joining these networks. Then the case and the study method are put forward. Next the results are delineated, followed by discussions and conclusions.

2. Network as mediator in value creation processes

Based on Freeman's (1994) seminal work on stakeholders and networks, Galaskiewics (1996) describes network research as "a handmaiden theory", since it is often employed to validate other theories but seldom becomes the focus of its own progress. Values are created within organisations by people. Correspondingly, theories about stakeholders have been used in research concerning organisations (March & Simon, 1958) and business managers (Mason & Mitroff, 1981). Freeman (1984: 25) defines a stakeholder as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm's objectives". Researchers have adopted Freeman's definition and propose a variety of viewpoints. Carrol (1993) suggests for instance that the ability to impact the organisation is the more relevant issue. Clarkson (1995) views the stakeholder as a party who holds authority and/or some resources, i.e., financial resources, human resources, or knowledge which may influence the outcome for the stakeholder in a positive or negative way. Groups normally referred to as stakeholders include employees, customers, local communities, governments, and shareholders. However, stakeholders might also represent competing organisations aiming to cooperate in networking (e.g., Gummeson 2002). The main focus of the present work is why and how values are created in a network of competing and/or cooperating firms. As such the Freeman (1984) definition of stakeholders' is significant.

Networking deals with cooperation between people and organisations. Cooperation is defined by Anderson and Narus (1990: 45) as ``similar or complementary coordinated actions taken by firms in an interdependent relationship to achieve mutual or singular outcomes with expected reciprocation over time.'' Cooperation and networking embody the willingness of stakeholders to build a relationship (Nielson & Wilson, 1994). Cooperation has been conceptualized to include dimensions such as: resource/information sharing, joint action, and harmony and flexibility (Heide & John, 1988; Noordewier & Nevin, 1990; Nielson & Wilson, 1994).

Cultural differences might exist when people and events from different countries aim to cooperate, and as a result difficulties of communication and information sharing could be a major barrier to business (Terpsta & David, 1985). In addition, cultural differences might

be due to the various ways of financing the event organisation. Some organizations are privately-owned entities while others are public- or project-based. The success of a privately-owned company might have more to do with economic surplus than would be the case for public companies and projects that do not need to focus on income and profits to the same extent.

In a network of five events, the development of interpersonal relationships is shown to improve overall commitment to the network (Mummalaneni & Wilson, 1991). Rylander, Strutton and Pelton (1997) claim that commitment, to a great extent, takes place at a personal level. Commitment is described in literature as ``the desire to continue the relationship and ensure its continuance'' (Wilson, 1995: 337) and ``an implicit or explicit pledge of relational continuity between exchange partners'' (Dwyer & Schurr, 1987: 19). Commitment is further depicted to include three components: instrumental, attitudinal and temporal commitment (Brown & Lusch, 1995; Gundlach, Achrol & Mentzer, 1995; Kumar, Scheer & Steenkamp, 1995; Kim and Frazier, 1997). While instrumental commitment deals with economic needs, the attitudinal component represents a continuing intent by parties with some normative or affective attachment to sustain an enduring long-term relationship (Brown et al., 1995; Kim and Frazier, 1997). The temporal commitment deals with long-term relationships in which the stakeholders become more profoundly involved in the relationship (Gundlach et al., 1995; Kim and Frazier, 1997). When people meet they might develop friendships, defined as social bonds, where emotional elements are recognised (Wilson, 1995: 339). Social bonding is also revealed to support the existence of shared values, which leads to an increase in trust and a decrease in opportunism (Morgan and Hunt, 1994).

In addition to commitment, efficient networks and relationships are based on loyalty and trust (Blau, 1964; Zaheer, McEvily & Perrone, 1998). Interpersonal trust is defined by Rotter (1967: 651) as "an expectancy held by an individual or a group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon." The literature also describes trust as a construct in terms of reliability, integrity, competence, honesty, fairness, responsibility, helpfulness, and confidence (Moorman, Deshpande & Zaltman, 1993; Morgan and Hunt, 1994). Trust is further depicted to reduce opportunistic behaviour (Morgan and Hunt, 1994).

Studies also point to the importance of personal relationships in networking (Granovetter, 1985; Uzzi, 1997). Recent research (Pesamaa & Hair, 2007) shows the importance of long-term relationships to friendship, loyalty, commitment and trust, and that commitment and trust are paramount in stimulating successful cooperation. While Blau (1964) claims that cooperation is based on personal relations, Gulati (1995) holds that firms evaluate the relative importance of their options based on previous experience. The most impelling reason for cooperation and networking, however, is that there is something in it for each stakeholder. The reciprocity, i.e., the practice of give and take with a network, is pictured as vital (Portes, 1998). Mavondo and Rodrigo (2001) discuss the idea of norms of exchange where the individuals feel obligated to return favours.

3. Network motivations

As reciprocity in a network deals with give and take, the fundamental motivation for joining a network is to receive a fair portion of the synergistic effects that are created. In a situation where competing sporting events and organisations create a network, goals and motives are

expected to diverge among the stakeholders. An obvious goal for all stakeholders would, however, most probably deal with strengthening the public awareness of and interest in the sport in general, e.g., dog-sledding, and as such result in a win-win situation for all stakeholders.. Other goals might include knowledge sharing and learning to help the respective events become more sustainable. These goals are instrumental ones, and the network provides the means to attain them.

Knowledge creation and sharing have a positive revenue side, but they also include possible costs to the stakeholders. When competing sporting events share knowledge, there is a risk that some stakeholders will gain more and some will gain less knowledge, i.e., the risk of having the value of their knowledge transferred to other stakeholders reduces the value of their knowledge in the marketplace (i.e., decrease of relative attractiveness with athletes, sponsors, and media). Therefore, to achieve a win-win situation for competing events in terms of knowledge sharing, the focus should be on developing sustainable advantages for all stakeholders. To achieve sustainable advantages for all stakeholders should be brought to the network table by each stakeholder. To ensure value creation for all stakeholders in a network it is important to reveal the purpose of participation, what values (type and valence) they expect from the cooperation, and how (with what resources) they should participate in the network (e.g. Fyall et al., 2003). This would increase the network loyalty and prevent some stakeholders from only tapping resources from the network without providing something back.

Value as a business concept has received significant attention in marketing and management literatures. Ulaga and Eggert (2005) identify four characteristics of perceived value: (1) value is a subjective concept, (2) it is conceptualized as a trade-off between benefits and sacrifices, (3) benefits and sacrifices can be multifaceted, and (4) value perceptions are relative to competition. Based on these four characteristics Ulaga and Eggert summarize that "… value is defined as the trade-off between the benefits and the sacrifices in a market exchange". According to these scholars, the main purpose of a sporting event network should be to focus on defining who their customers or stakeholders are, and then deliver expected value in the marketplace. However, a simple focus on value for customers or stakeholders might lose some important perspectives, i.e., value created in and within organisations and networks might be ignored. In particular, value creation as a result of sharing capabilities and competencies in networks might be neglected.

4. The Holt (1995) model within a sporting event network perspective

Holt (1995: 1) asks "what do people do when they consume". Based on Holts (1995) this chapter presents a typology of consumption practices, based on the purpose of the action and the structure of the action (see figure 1 and the subsequent description below). The Holt (1995) model has been discussed in other empirical settings, e.g., investments (Allen & McGoun, 2000; Prebensen, 2007). Viewed with the perspective of these works and with the theoretical discussion above regarding business networks, the present chapter utilizes Holt (1995) as a framework for analyzing organizations, structures and purposes in a network context. The focus is on the action of the actors in the network itself.

The figure shows a typology of consumption practices, named as experiencing, integration, play and classification, which are based on the purpose and the structure of the action. The model is described as follows. The purpose of the action deals with "autotelic" and

"instrumental" actions, while the structure of the action includes actions towards objects or people. Holt presents a model of spectator consumption practices based on thorough explorative research of professional baseball. When spectators make sense of and respond to the sport in itself (autotelic/object action), Holt describes them with a "consuming-as-experience" metaphor. The spectators use various interpretive frameworks to experience baseball; through accounting, evaluating and appreciating the event. In contrast with consuming-as-experience, "consume-as-integration" (instrumental/object action), is about the spectators' use of the sporting event as an instrument to enhance their identity. Integrating practices, i.e., assimilation, production, and personalization are used to break down distances between the consumer and the object. When a sporting event is used as a resource to interact with fellow spectators, the metaphor "consuming-as-play" (interpersonal/autotelic) is utilized. Among baseball spectators, two types of playing are prevalent,--communing and socializing. The fourth metaphor, "consuming-as-classification" (interpersonal/instrumental), refers to situations where the spectators use the event to classify themselves. Classifying practices provide the means to build affiliation and to enhance distinction, and the spectators do so through objects or through actions. Spectators often use symbols, i.e., clothing, and stories in order to classify themselves.

PURPOSE OF ACTION

	Autotelic actions	Instrumental Actions
Object Actions	**CONSUMING AS** EXPERIENCE	**CONSUMING AS** INTEGRATION
Interdependent	**CONSUMING AS** PLAY	**CONSUMING AS** CLASSIFICATION

STRUCTURE OF ACTION

Fig. 1. Metaphors for Consuming (Holt 1995: 3)

Network stakeholders (i.e., owners, mangers, board members, project leaders) would represent their organizations' goals and purposes (e.g., economic, social, environmental), but will also have their own interests in joining these networks (e.g., learning, meeting fellow representatives from other organizations, socializing, and gaining new contacts and acquaintances). Discovering why and how these stakeholders act the way they do would generate new knowledge of network theories and practices.

5. Research approach

The key stakeholders in the present study include the organizers of five sled-dog races in various places in Europe-- France, Sweden, Spain and Norway. The races are The Grand

Odysee (France), La Pirena (Spain), The Amundsen race (Sweden and Norway), Finnmarksløpet (Norway), and Femundløpet (Norway). The organizers play various roles when participating in the network due to their type of organisation, economic strength, and how long they (number of years) have been organising the event, in addition to their motivation for cooperation and value creation for themselves and others.

Values for the respective events are mostly utilitarian, (i.e., economic, promotional and image-related ones). However, hedonic values might also come into existence, in that many of the organisers of the events are engaged due to the hedonic (fun and enjoyment) values of the event (c.f. Holbrook and Hirchmann 1982). These value dimensions might also influence overall perceptions of a local community and its identity (among locals) and destination image (e.g., among potential visitors), and are often part of a regional plan and/or may be sponsored by the local community. In the present work we identify key stakeholders in the network as management, project leaders, owners and/or members of boards of directors representing the respective events. Our primary focus is on their networking activities.

6. Study methods, data collection and data analysis

To explore why and how organizations co-create values in networks, the present study has adopted the Holt (1995) model as a framework. Holt (1995) utilized a constructionist and an integrationist approach in his research. Cooperation and networking are viewed in the present research as a type of social action in which people make use of objects in a variety of ways (Simmel, 1950).

Given the lack of empirical research of stakeholders' participation in value creation in networks of sporting events, this research is exploratory. Consequently, in selecting an appropriate research method, the in-depth analysis found in qualitative research seems most suitable to enhance understanding of value creation in the network context. We chose this method because it acknowledges how actors construct and interact within their social world, which should be thought of as individually constructed and interpreted (Altheide & Jonson, 1994). However, qualitative techniques might explore varying depths (Prebensen, 2007), calling for multiple qualitative perspectives as well.

To explore what people and organizations in fact are doing when they are cooperating in a network of sporting events, several methodological parameters had to be chosen. First, the empirical setting was selected. Since the concept is complex and highly sensitive to social and situational context (Markus and Nurius 1986) this present work required a research method with the ability to phenomenologically explore the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of informants, and to capture and account for the social and situational context of phenomena. The present research is therefore based on various qualitative techniques -- participating observation and discussions during a two-day symposium in Paris, France at the "International Sled Dog Race Organizer Symposium", personal interviews with some of the representatives in the symposium, and group discussions. To get a detailed understanding of experiences among the representatives of the sporting events cooperating in this particular network, informal discussions with the stakeholders were conducted and participating observations were made during the two-day conference/meeting of the representatives. Due to the informal nature of the conversations and discussions, recording them seemed impractical. However, regular notes were written in the research journal as soon as possible following the conversations and the symposium. In addition, relevant

material was collected from web pages, newspapers and television reports to get a more complete portrayal of the phenomenon. When analyzing the data all notes and transcripts were thoroughly examined. In particular, the descriptions of critical incidents, information and comments that were mentioned repeatedly were highlighted. The objective was to recognize and acquire new knowledge about the interaction process and the variety of purposes for building networks. The personal discussions, free talks and presentations during the symposium, by acknowledging the personal relationships between the stakeholders, ensured a better understanding of the task of establishing the validity of the stakeholders' relationships and of the networking proposition as a whole.

Second, the number and type of stakeholders was chosen. Each of the five sporting events , represented by one, two or three persons (managers and/or owners), participated in the symposium and the discussions for the purpose of fully exploring the topic. During the breaks and after the symposium, they were asked about their motivations for participating in this network. When analyzed, different interaction experience types were found. These were based on the stakeholders' motives and interaction.

Third, stakeholders (persons representing all five sporting events), were purposely selected to provide insight into important relationship phenomena in this stage of the research (Erlandson, Harris & Skipper, 1993). The network group (symposium) representing the five events included eighteen people, five women and thirteen men, ranging in age from 25 – 65 years. Only seven of these people, however, were included in the personal discussions. Storytelling about various incidents was the primary focus of the discussions.

The author of the present chapter has been working as a volunteer for one of the races, the Finnmarksløpet. In addition, she has been a shareholder of the company since the foundation of the business in 2001, has been part of the board for 8 years, and has held the position of director of the board from 2005 until 2009. Due to her personal involvement in one of the races, the knowledge received from this learning process must be handled with care. Still, the data are definitely valuable for in-depth understanding of the phenomena being studied, namely stakeholder participation in value creation in a network.

7. Results

7.1 Networking-as-experience

The "networking-as-experience" metaphor is about people's subjective and emotional reactions to an object related to cooperation in the network, and is seen as a psychological/emotional state of mind. These reactions include different levels of arousal and different types of emotional states, depending on the type of network, the level of risk felt, the degree of involvement in the cooperation, and situational factors as well as personality traits. One might reasonably assume that the co-operative process in sporting event-based networks would have its own specific set of working assumptions. In that this is only the second time the symposium has been held, the network is rather new and still developing with many new ideas being put forward. The stakeholders make sense of the risks (time and effort) when entering a network arena. They employ their cognitive schemata and heuristics in the situation to make sense of or compare situations (Simon, 1960; Schwenk, 1988). The stakeholders of the present network perceive themselves as more or less risk averse (i.e., if they intentionally avoid risks or not), depending on their position

in the subsequent event and the type of organization that the event is founded on. Out of the five events in the study, three are based on traditional business ownership and include investors (ltd). The other two events are more volunteer-based and are run by local or regional foundations. Shareholders in ltd-based events seem to be more risk-averse than those running other types of organizations. However, the content of risk must be regarded as having various meanings, e.g. economic risk, social risk, or physical risk (e.g. Peter and Olson 1996). To participate in this type of network, monetary risk is rather low. Spending time and sharing knowledge seem however to be at issue for most representatives.

The stakeholders were invited to the symposium and the meeting to discuss potential cooperation, independent of their size and economic strength. They also varied in terms of experience, knowledge and strategic skills. One of the main issues in the symposium was to get a common understanding of the situation of the sport and how the network could better promote the sport and in so doing bring more attraction and interest to all events. The process of experiencing the network includes "accounting, evaluating, and appreciating" (Holt 1995). For some of the stakeholders, accounting and evaluating involved discussing possible outcomes of networking (more than just financially) with other stakeholders. Strategic discussions for the single events as well as for the destination seemed to be the focus. In particular, questions such as choosing the right profile for sport as a whole, and for the single events separately (so as not to copy each other) were common. The stakeholders tried to structure and understand the strengths and weaknesses of each race to find potential business propositions and values (possibilities and faults) of the event. They also responded to various ideas and proposals regarding product developments, etc. The network represented by the present symposium offered the stakeholders an arena in which to meet and to discuss future developments. The informants articulated that meeting the other stakeholders personally and getting to know each other was very important to feeling comfortable and to increasing trust in and commitment to the network (e.g., Morgan and Hunt 1994). In addition, they often referred to the feeling of being part of a team as valuable. Social identity theory (e.g. Tajfel, 1981) argues that there are two distinct aspects of the "self": personal identity and social identity (collective identity). The self is defined as the "totality of the thoughts and feelings that have reference to the self as an object" (Rosenberg, 1979). In this sense the network gives the stakeholder a type of "value" that enhances the personal and group identity. The event can thus function as a means for building identity for the individual representing the network as well as for the event he or she represents.

7.2 Networking as integration

"Networking-as-integration" is a metaphor that reflects what the stakeholders do when they acquire and manipulate object meanings. Network experience, such as talking to other stakeholders, impacts the stakeholder's integration process. Knowledge is often a key to enhance value in networks (Gulati, 1999) and might influence the stakeholder's motivation to participate in the network in addition to their perceived identity as part of the network. Some would use their experience to share knowledge with others, while others would try to learn to improve their skills regarding sporting events. In this line of reasoning there is also a matter of reciprocity, the practice of give and take (Pesämaa, Hair & Jonsson-Kvist, 2007) which often develops norms of exchange by making individuals feel obligated to return favours (Mavondo & Rodrigo, 2001). Within these cooperating and networking conditions and processes people often have a need to feel in control of their own lives (Skinner, 1995).

Individuals need to feel that they can avoid undesired occurrences and create desired ones, and can influence their own and others' behaviour, emotion, and motivation under conditions of challenge. One example might be how stakeholders say that they wish to avoid unserious stakeholders who want to participate in the network. Control of who to network with (other stakeholders) seems to be of importance. Individuals also create value within the group by discussing business propositions "maybe we can develop a championship cup between mushers participating in several of the sled dog events?" People adopt various roles depending on the context. Roles taken and/or given are socially defined and shared expectations of behaviour for an individual in a particular position. For example, during the "free talks" in the symposium, some stakeholders expressed new ideas and information, based on their event's position and strength.

The most compelling result is that the companies in the network agree that they want to build up and establish a high quality image of the dog-sledding sport all over the world. The stakeholders discussed, for instance, how they could inform the general public regarding how the dogs' health and wellness are provided for, and that they want to improve and coordinate rules and policies regarding the dogs' welfare across international borders. The results are thus in line with the findings of Chetty and Wilson (2003) that companies rely on reputation-related resources such as international image and the credibility of the cooperating competitor in the internationalization process. A central question discussed among the stakeholders is if the network could function to build a stronger image or at least promote dog-sledding as a sport. In these discussions, the stakeholders who had been working with and within the larger events for some years were to a certain degree given the role of "expert". Further, people with the longest or "most interesting" dog-sledding history seemed also to assume the role of an "expert" (e.g., veterinarians with long term experience with dog-sledding). Those with a veterinary background influenced the discussion towards focusing on the wellness and healthiness of the dogs before, during and after the competition. Clearly certain "dog-related" knowledge enhanced individual status and power in the network.

7.3 Networking as play

The "networking-as-play" metaphor includes interpersonal autotelic actions among the stakeholders. The stakeholders communicate and socialize when deciding to unite in a sporting event network. They smile, nod and converse with other stakeholders, thus showing how they feel about the relationship and the situation. Hinde (1995) in Prebensen (2007) suggest the following conditions of interpersonal relationships: 1) relationships involve shared exchange between active and interdependent relationship partners; 2) relationships are purposive, involving at their core the provision of meaning to the persons who engage in them; 3) relationships are multiplex phenomena: they range across several dimensions and take many forms, providing a range of possible benefits for their participants; and 4) relationships are process phenomena: they evolve and change over a series of interactions in the contextual environment. A sporting event might be equated with a theatre scene (Lovelock, 1995). Stakeholders take the role as audience or actors depending on the situation and the importance a stakeholder attributes to these roles. There are no accurate distinctions between the two different "roles". The stakeholders are "on stage" with the group they feel they belong to (in this case the organizers of other sporting-events). The degree of socializing seems to vary among the stakeholders. The reason for this variation

seems to relate to the degree of time available and the strength of commitment among the stakeholders (Yoon, Baker & Ko, 1994).

In tourism, special sights or attractions can attain the status of an "icon" by being perceived as rare, authentic, a marker, etc. (Dann, 1997; Leiper, 1990; Gunn, 1988; MacCannel, 1976). Sporting events could assume the status of an icon, especially if they are rare or of particular interest to the spectators.

7.4 Networking as classification

"Networking-as-classification" reflects the research that focuses on how stakeholders perform in networks. The stakeholders, the informants in the present work, were quite relaxed concerning the fact that they are stakeholders for a special sporting event. They see it as a type of engagement in something positive going on in their area, e.g. product development and profiling the area through various activities. However, there seems to be a division between those engaged in businesses and those representing a less formal organization or a region. Those who represent a region or a destination, i.e., a project, seem to use the network as a means to get hold of new projects. Those with a focus on one sporting event seem to be more concerned with the organization's economic situation. All stakeholders subscribe to the idea of being in the network for reasons such as establishing relationships and acquiring knowledge for future achievements.

One of the stakeholders claimed that learning about how to run an event business was one of the main purposes of participating in the network. This stakeholder hoped to use the knowledge gained in the network for organizing his own events as well as for other types of businesses- The different experience curves among the stakeholders seem to classify them as "professional" in two areas: with the sport "dog-sledding" or management and marketing knowledge in terms of running a business or a project. Another way of classifying the stakeholders was evaluating the strength of their relationships with other dog-sledding events, e.g., with the Iditarod in Alaska.

8. Conclusion

The present work shows that the typology suggested by Holt (1995) on consumption practices is well-suited for the analysis of business networks. By exploring the various stakeholders' purposes for participation in the network and the structure of participating, the results show that there are both economic- as well as non-economic-based actions. A central finding is that all five stakeholders recognize synergies beyond the receiving of new ideas and knowledge to create value for their own sporting event. They point to the fact that promoting the sport is the main goal which will benefit all stakeholders. Reciprocity is thus of importance, not only in terms of the single event, but also regarding promotion of the sport in general.

The findings of the study indicate a change in attitude among dog-sledding events in international competition. Through cooperation between competitors, the firms want to find and develop both practical and strategic international opportunities and thereby increase the attractiveness of the sport, generating business opportunities for the firms. The results further reveal that the different levels of cooperation affect the characteristics of international opportunities to some extent, i.e., business opportunities such as developing a

championship cup versus increased attraction to the sport in general. The network relations have brought international opportunities for the companies and thereby may increase the awareness of the sport in general, enhance both competitiveness (European versus American continents), and value propositions for the respective events.

Furthermore, the various stakeholders participate in the event for somewhat different purposes and with diverse structures (strategies or way of behaving). The differences seem to be based on the following factors; 1) if the person is a shareholder of a sporting event that is organised as a business concept, 2 the degree and type of their experience, 3) the degree of reciprocity, 4) interpersonal commitment, and 5) loyalty to the network.

The results reveal that the representatives of the events in a network not only focus on the utilitarian and instrumental purposes of networking, but also on the hedonic and autotelic sides of being part of the network. Trust and commitment depend on interpersonal contact, which is shown to be of importance for business results as well. Further research on the relationship between interpersonal contacts in event networks should therefore be undertaken. Further research on network behaviour and motivation among event organizers should also be done, with a particular focus on the various phases that networks (initial versus maturing) might occupy. It would be valuable to further develop knowledge regarding the potential and, more importantly, the desirable combinations of different kinds of relations in an international context, regarding not only the strength of the relations but also their practical and strategic implications. Finally, a crucial topic for further research would be to investigate other sources and means for organizers to find and develop economically, socially and environmentally sustainable sporting events.

9. Acknowledgement

10. References

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The Role and Importance of Cultural Tourism in Modern Tourism Industry

János Csapó

University of Pécs, Institute of Geography
Hungary

1. Introduction

The main aim of this chapter is to thoroughly present the role and positions of cultural tourism, as one of modern tourism industry's most dynamically developing branch, in today's global tourism market both from the theoretical and the practical point of view.

With the definition of cultural tourism, we try to point at the complex problems of the term as it is proved to be a controversial issue in tourism, since there is no adequate definition existing. In the absence of a uniformly accepted definition, cultural tourism can be characterised both from the perspective of supply and demand and also from the point of view of theoretical and practical approach.

We can state that cultural tourism is a very complex segment of the 'tourism industry,' its supply is diverse and versatile. The future positions of the discipline will probably be strengthened both directly and indirectly as with the change of the recreational needs the aim to get acquainted with the cultural values is strongly increasing. Mass tourism though will of course never loose its positions, but tourists taking part in the supply of the 4S will become visitors with more diversified needs concerning cultural interest.

So apart from the theoretical discussion, the chapter aims to provide an insight into the tourism segments and attraction structure of cultural tourism as well.

2. The problems and definition of the term 'culture' and 'cultural tourism'

2.1 Defining the term 'culture'

To define cultural tourism first of all we have to determine the meaning of the term culture. In this chapter we do not intend to investigate this very complex concept from different aspects and approaches or with a very detailed analysis but we wish to provide an insight and a starting point since we feel that the determination of the context provides us the basics for the researches on cultural tourism.

So in this approach first of all we intend to highlight one of the first scholars who dealt with the identification of culture by providing a classic approach which is widely accepted in the scope of social sciences researchers. According to TYLOR (1871) culture is „*that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society*" (Tylor, 1871.) This definition seems to be a

favourable approach to our investigations as well since the determination can be used in a wide content opening the possibilities to the possible connection with other disciplines, and at the same time the definition is exact and concrete.

When analysing the meaning of culture we also would like to provide the approach and definition of the Webster's New Encyclopaedic Dictionary which states that culture is "*the characteristic features of a civilisation including its beliefs, its artistic and material products, and its social institutions.*" (Webster's New Encyclopaedic Dictionary, p. 244)

On the other hand we also wish to explain that there is a strong and maybe ever lasting debate on the definition of this very complex term. Anthropology originally stated that culture and cultures are "*unique bounded entities with limits and specific characteristics. Cultures were static, in that they could be captured by anthropological analyses. Their customs, habits, mores, relationships, uniquenesses could all be detailed, and in doing so, the ways in which each culture was separate from all others could be seen.*" (http://www.sccs.swarthmore.edu/users/00/ckenned1/culture.html)

On the other hand recent trends of the research on culture show that culture is not a bounded, unchanging entity. Cultures are not separated from each other providing a chance to continuously interact and contact with each other. Of course this trend would also strongly determine the formation and development of cultural tourism as well.

From the more recent perspective we intend to highlight the definition of HOFSTEDE (1997) who states that: "Culture refers to the cumulative deposit of knowledge, experience, beliefs, values, attitudes, meanings, hierarchies, religion, notions of time, roles, spatial relations, concepts of the universe, and material objects and possessions acquired by a group of people in the course of generations through individual and group striving" (Hofstede, 1997).
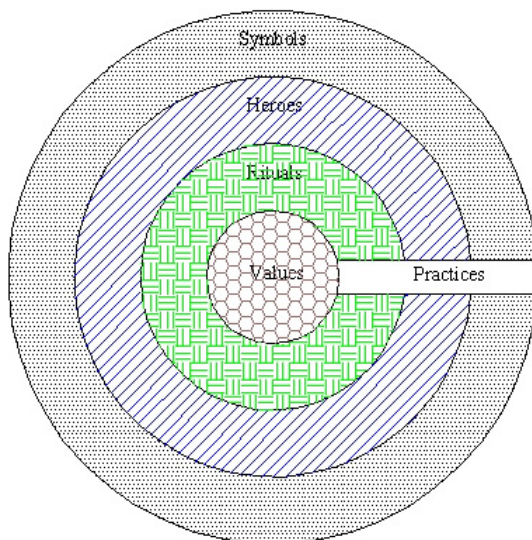
Fig. 1. Manifestation of Culture at Different Levels of Depth (HOFSTEDE 1997)
http://www.tamu.edu/faculty/choudhury/culture.html

According to HOFSTEDE (1997) the core of a culture is formed by the values (*Figure 1*.) which in terms of tourism will be the basics for the attraction of a given destinations well. The different levels of culture will be the rituals, the heroes and the symbols of the given culture which again would serve as a basis for tourism purpose travels.

We also agree with the definition of the Roshan Cultural Heritage Institute according to which "*Culture refers to the following Ways of Life, including but not limited to:*

- Language: the oldest human institution and the most sophisticated medium of expression.
- Arts & Sciences: the most advanced and refined forms of human expression.
- Thought: the ways in which people perceive, interpret, and understand the world around them.
- Spirituality: the value system transmitted through generations for the inner well-being of human beings, expressed through language and actions.
- Social activity: the shared pursuits within a cultural community, demonstrated in a variety of festivities and life-celebrating events.
- Interaction: the social aspects of human contact, including the give-and-take of socialization, negotiation, protocol, and conventions". (http://www.roshan-institute.org/474552)

Based on the above mentioned we can state that culture is part of the lifestyle which a multitude of people are sharing. The similarities in spoken and written language, behaviour, lifestyle, customs, heritage, ideology and even technology connect the individuals to groups of people in a certain culture. So now if we take into consideration cultural tourism these groups will constitute on the demand side on the one hand those tourists who are possessing cultural motivation during their travel and on the other hand from the supply side the destination which is disposing those attraction which are capable to desire the attraction of a culturally motivated tourists or visitor. So based on the upper mentioned we could also state that the altering explanations of cultural tourism could also be derived from the altering meanings and interpretations of the term culture.

2.2 Defining the term 'cultural tourism'

The concept of cultural tourism again is very complex and so there is a long debate among scholars about its definition and conceptualisation (Michalkó, 2004; Richards 2005; Shackleford, 2001) due to which we find numerous definitions for this term. So as one of the most important recent papers on cultural tourism – more exactly cultural city tourism – mentions, "*there are a great number of definitions of cultural tourism in use, resulting in different definitions being used in research studies related to cultural tourism and in the field of cultural tourism.*" (City Tourism and Culture – The European Experience, 2005)

We can clearly see that this approach and the practice itself proves that the discourse on cultural tourism is extremely difficult which could result in false understanding of the term and also – from the point of view of the practical approach – we could highlight that for instance statistical background and research of this discipline seems to be more and more difficult due to the mentioned phenomena. As McKercher and Du Cros (2002) responds to the question: "*What is cultural tourism? This seemingly simple question is actually very difficult to*

answer because there are almost as many definitions of cultural tourism as there are cultural tourists." (McKercher & Du Cros 2002)

When starting with the definitions first we would like to mention the Dictionary of Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Terms published in 1996 according to which "*Cultural tourism: General term referring to leisure travel motivated by one or more aspects of the culture of a particular area.*" ('Dictionary of Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Terms', 1996).

One of the most diverse and specific definitions from the 1990s is provided by ICOMOS (International Scientific Committee on Cultural Tourism): "*Cultural tourism can be defined as that activity which enables people to experience the different ways of life of other people, thereby gaining at first hand an understanding of their customs, traditions, the physical environment, the intellectual ideas and those places of architectural, historic, archaeological or other cultural significance which remain from earlier times. Cultural tourism differs from recreational tourism in that it seeks to gain an understanding or appreciation of the nature of the place being visited.*" (ICOMOS Charter for Cultural Tourism, Draft April 1997). We strongly accept and favour this definition which on the one hand seems to be a bit too long, but mentions and highlights not just the man made attractions connected to cultural tourism, but the surrounding physical environment as well providing a wider spatial scope to this form of tourism.

It is also interesting to mention that the definition has been improved through the years of the committee's practice since their 1976 definition was somewhat simpler and not that precise than the previously mentioned one: "*Cultural tourism is that form of tourism whose object is, among other aims, the discovery of monuments and sites. It exerts on these last a very positive effect insofar as it contributes - to satisfy its own ends - to their maintenance and protection. This form of tourism justifies in fact the efforts which said maintenance and protection demand of the human community because of the socio-cultural and economic benefits which they bestow on all the populations concerned.*" (1976 ICOMOS Charter on Cultural Tourism)

There are other definitions from this era which focus on one of the most important effects of tourism on the tourists, namely the experiences. One of these definitions were set up by Australian Office of National Tourism: "*Cultural tourism is tourism that focuses on the culture of a destination - the lifestyle, heritage, arts, industries and leisure pursuits of the local population.*" (Office of National Tourism 'Fact Sheet No 10 Cultural Tourism', 1997). The earlier mentioned charter of the ICOMOS describes cultural tourism as: "*Cultural tourism may be defined as that movement which involves people in the exploration or the experience of the diverse ways of life of other people, reflecting all the social customs, religious traditions, or intellectual ideas of their cultural heritage.*" (ICOMOS Charter for Cultural Tourism, Draft April 1997).

We provide two more definitions focusing on experience during the trip:

"*Cultural tourism is an entertainment and educational experience that combines the arts with natural and social heritage and history.*" (Cultural Tourism Industry Group, http://www.culturaltourismvictoria.com.au/).

"*Cultural tourism defines the phenomenon of people travelling specifically for the sake of either experiencing another culture or the cultural attractions of a place.*" (Arts Industry Tourism Council, 'Cultural Tourism Development in Victoria', June 1997).

So we see that some of the definitions try to focus on the attraction side of this system, some on the geographical space and some on the experiences but fortunately almost all of them focus on and highlight the role of the local population as well.

Even there are some country or space specific definitions for cultural tourism such as in Australia: "*Cultural tourism is defined by attendance by inbound visitors at one or more of the following cultural attractions during their visit to Australia: festivals or fairs (music, dance, comedy, visual arts, multi-arts and heritage); performing arts or concerts (theatre, opera, ballet and classical and contemporary music); museums or art galleries; historic or heritage buildings, sites or monuments; art or craft workshops or studios; and Aboriginal sites and cultural displays.*" (Bureau of Tourism Research, 'Cultural Tourism in Australia', 1998, p.7).

One of the most important professional initiatives of cultural tourism is provided by the ATLAS Cultural Tourism Research Project which was aiming to establish a transnational database which could provide comparative data on cultural tourism trends across Europe (Bonink et al. 1994). Due to its more than 15 years of activity the ATLAS Cultural Tourism Research Programme has monitored one of the most rapidly growing areas of global tourism demand through visitor survey and studies of cultural tourism policies and suppliers (http://www.tram-research.com/atlas/presentation.htm). The ATLAS program provides us two new definitions from a conceptual and a technical perspective:

Conceptual Definition

"*The movement of persons to cultural attractions away from their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs*".

Technical Definition

"*All movements of persons to specific cultural attractions, such as heritage sites, artistic and cultural manifestations, arts and drama outside their normal place of residence*". (ATLAS, 2009)

When taking into consideration the definition of the term cultural tourism of course we highlight the approach of the UNWTO. The United Nations World Travel Organisation provides us two perspectives of the definition of cultural tourism, namely a broad and a narrow approach:

- "*All movements of persons might be included in the definition because they satisfy the human need for diversity, tending to raise the cultural level of the individual and giving rise to new knowledge, experience and encounters. (broad definition).*
- *Movements of persons for essentially cultural motivations such as study tours, performing arts and cultural tours, travel to festivals and other cultural events, visits to sites and monuments. (narrow definition).*" (UNWTO)

The broad approach can hardly be handled from the point of view of product development and product management aspects since in this respect almost all the recreational travels could be ranged to the scope of cultural tourism as due to the new experiences the tourist will realize new observations and knowledge (Michalkó & Rátz 2011).

If we take into consideration the narrow sense of the UNWTO's definition the programs, events and sightseeings of the so called high or elite culture provides the basic attraction for cultural tourism. In this respect monuments and heritage sites, festival tourism, exhibitions and museums, visiting theatres and concerts and pilgrimage or study tours are the basic products of cultural tourism.

According to MICHALKÓ and RÁTZ – in accordance with our perceptions as well – one has to take into consideration the popular culture also when investigating cultural tourism. In this

respect we can highlight such tourism products as rock or pop music festivals, or "movie" tourism (visiting places where famous films were shot) as well (Michalkó & Rátz 2011).

Based on the above mentioned the definition of the two tourism researchers on cultural tourism is the following: "*Cultural tourism is such a tourism product in which the motivation of the tourist (providing the supply side) is getting acquainted with new cultures, participate in cultural events and visiting cultural attractions and the demand side's core element is the peculiar, unique culture of the visited destination*". (Translated by the authors from Hungarian) (Michalkó & Rátz 2011).

The 2005 report of the European Travel Commission on City Tourism and Culture distinguishes between an inner and outer circle of cultural tourism:

- "*I. The inner circle represents the primary elements of cultural tourism which can be divided into two parts, namely heritage tourism (cultural heritage related to artefacts of the past) and arts tourism (related to contemporary cultural production such as the performing and visual arts, contemporary architecture, literature, etc.).*
- *II. The outer circle represents the secondary elements of cultural tourism which can be divided into two elements, namely lifestyle (elements such as beliefs, cuisine, traditions, folklore, etc.) and the creative industries (fashion design, web and graphic design, film, media and entertainment, etc.).*" (City Tourism and Culture – The European Experience, 2005)

Here we also would like to mention and introduce the widely accepted definition of Stebbins (1996) who states that "*Cultural tourism is a genre of special interest tourism based on the search for and participation in new and deep cultural experiences, whether aesthetic, intellectual, emotional, or psychological.*" (Stebbins, 1996)

Without the aim of listing all the definitions on cultural tourism, we would like to emphasize that according to our point of view the scope of cultural tourism covers those tourism segments that could not be classified to the elements of mass and passive tourism. The classic attractions of cultural tourism can be classified into three groups:

- Built and material values (buildings, material values of different art forms),
- The cultural values connected to everyday life (free time, leisure, lifestyle, habits, gastronomy,
- Events and festivals (Aubert & Csapó 2002).

According to our latest knowledge and as an edification from the above mentioned definitions we should presume that the definitions of culture and tourism reflects together the meaning of cultural tourism. In this case this part or area of tourism is a collecting concept which is multiple and diversified from the point of view of several tourism products – with cultural attraction – which are determined in the next chapter.

2.3 The typology of the cultural tourist

When dealing with the very complex phenomenon of cultural tourism it is also necessary to determine who is a cultural tourist. Based on the above mentioned chapters, according to our point of view, such a tourist takes part in cultural tourism who is not travelling away from home to reproduce the needs and necessities of the home environment in more advantageous and desirable circumstances in a remote land or country but he or she is disposed with the adequate (cultural) motivation getting to know the different and remote (local) culture's social and landscape values. We believe that apart from the – more

traditionally 'used' social cultural values – we should also highlight the role of the natural environment concerning cultural tourism.

When we defined who is a cultural tourist the next step in our research would be the typology of those taking part in cultural tourism. This typology seems to be almost as complex as the previous definitions. In our work we accept and favour the typology of McKercher and Du Gros who differentiated five types of cultural tourists based on the importance of culture in their decision to travel and also the depth of their experience (*Figure 2.*).
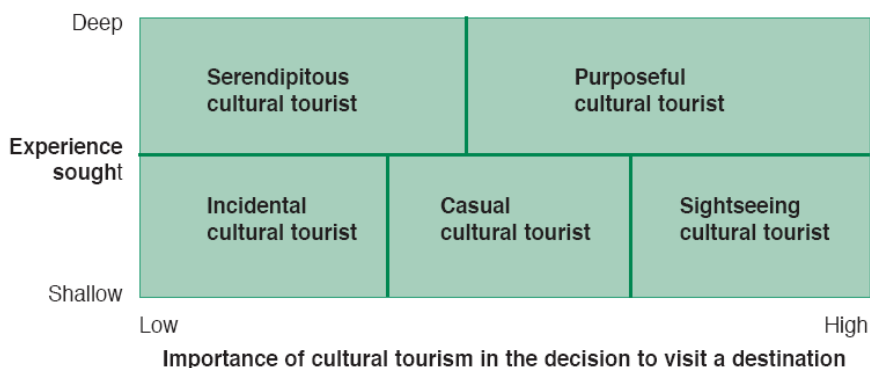
Source: City Tourism & Culture - The European Experience, p. 4.

Fig. 2. The typology of cultural tourist by McKercher and Du Cros

Type of cultural tourist	Short characterisation
The purposeful cultural tourist	Cultural tourism is the primary motivation for visiting a destination and the tourist has a very deep and elaborate cultural experience
The sightseeing cultural tourist	Cultural tourism is a primary reason for visiting a destination, but the experience is less deep and elaborated
The serendipitous cultural tourist	A tourist who does not travel for cultural reasons, but who, after participating, ends up having a deep cultural tourism experience
The casual cultural tourist	Cultural tourism is a weak motive for travel and the resulting experience is shallow
The incidental cultural tourist	This tourist does not travel for cultural reasons, but nonetheless participates in some activities and has shallow experiences

Source: With minor alterations by the author, based on City Tourism & Culture – The European Experience, p. 4. own editing

Table 1. Types of cultural tourists by McKercher and Du Cros

The basis of this distinction is the extent of a tourist involved in cultural tourism. The first three groups create such a demand side in which' decision for travel culture and cultural tourism plays an important role while to 4th and 5th group are such tourists who are only casually and incidentally involved in this part of the travel industry. Naturally, those tourists are involved the most in cultural tourism who belong to the first group.
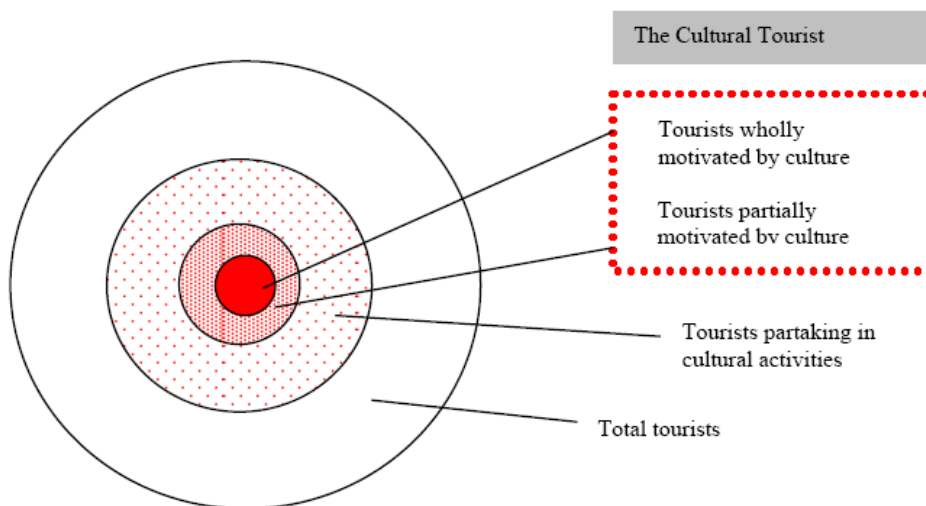
Source: Ontario Cultural and Heritage Tourism Product Research Paper, 2009

Fig. 3. The place of cultural tourists in the complete tourist flow

As we have already seen, tourists can be totally, partially or only incidentally be involved in cultural tourism or in culturally motivated activities. So it is natural that due to this phenomenon we believe that statistically it is very hard to register tourists belonging to whichever category of tourism activities. We can distinguish between specific and incidental cultural tourists but we also have to stress that the boundary between each categories is very hard to be determined as well.

It is also to be stressed that taking into consideration the number of tourists involved in cultural tourism, so in other words the quantitative aspects, the most of the tourists will be registered to the 'incidental' category and the least amount of people will travel to an attraction or destination with a 100% of cultural motivation.

2.4 Types of cultural tourism

In this chapter we intend to introduce and highlight the most important types or in other words elements of cultural tourism from a thematic perspective grouped by the principles of the preferred activity. According to our standardisation we classify cultural tourism in the following way:

Types of cultural tourism	Tourism products, activities
Heritage tourism	• Natural and cultural heritage (very much connected to nature-based or ecotourism); • Material - built heritage, - architectural sites, - world heritage sites, - national and historical memorials • Non material - literature, - arts, - folklore • Cultural heritage sites - museums, collections, - libraries, - theatres, - event locations, - memories connected to historical persons
Cultural thematic routes	• wide range of themes and types: - spiritual, - industrial, - artistic, - gastronomic, - architectural, - linguistic, - vernacular, - minority
Cultural city tourism, cultural tours	• "classic" city tourism, sightseeing • Cultural Capitals of Europe • "Cities as creative spaces for cultural tourism"
Traditions, ethnic tourism	• Local cultures' traditions • Ethnic diversity
Event and festival tourism	• Cultural festivals and events - Music festivals and events (classic and light or pop music) - Fine arts festivals and events

Types of cultural tourism	Tourism products, activities
Religious tourism, pilgrimage routes	• Visiting religious sites and locations with religious motivation • Visiting religious sites and locations without religious motivation (desired by the architectural and cultural importance of the sight) • Pilgrimage routes
Creative culture, creative tourism	• traditional cultural and artistic activities - performing arts, - visual arts, - cultural heritage and literature • as well as cultural industries - printed works, - multimedia, - the press, - cinema, - audiovisual and phonographic productions, - craft, - design and cultural tourism

Ed. Csapó. J. 2011

Table 2. Classification of major cultural tourism forms

The major (directly) connected tourism products for cultural tourism are rural tourism (traditions, lifestyle, local gastronomy), wine tourism (grape and viticulture), conference tourism and eco-tourism (local culture, lifestyle).

In the following parts of the chapter we try to focus on and introduce the major tourism products that can be related to and so characterising cultural tourism.

2.4.1 Heritage tourism

Heritage tourism and its different forms as mentioned in the table above mean nowadays one of the most important forms of cultural tourism. "*Thanks to a global, integrated approach in which nature meets culture, the past meets the present, the monumental and movable heritage meets the intangible, the protection of cultural heritage, as an expression of living culture, contributes to the development of societies and the building of peace. By virtue of its multifarious origins and the various influences that have shaped it throughout history, cultural heritage takes different tangible and intangible forms, all of which are invaluable for cultural diversity as the wellspring of wealth and creativity.*" (http://www.unesco.org/en/cultural-diversity/heritage/)

Based on the above mentioned – in accordance with the definition of the National Trust for Historic Preservation's Heritage Tourism Program (http://culturalheritagetourism. org/documents/2011CHTFactSheet6-11.pdf) – we would state that heritage tourism is an important part of cultural tourism based on experiencing the places and activities that *authentically* represent historic, cultural and natural resources of a given area of region.

Taking into consideration the classification of cultural tourism, The Unites Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) differentiates different types of heritage such as monumental, movable, intangible and world heritage.

If we take into consideration the forms of heritage and heritage tourism we can differentiate between material (built heritage, architectural sites, world heritage sites, national and historical memorials) and non-material heritage (literature, arts, folklore) and cultural heritage sites such as museums, collections, libraries, theatres, event locations and memories connected to historical persons.

We also agree with the identification and classification of Timothy and Boyd (2003) stating that "*heritage can be classified as tangible immovable resources (e.g. buildings, rivers, natural areas); tangible movable resources (e.g. objects in museums, documents in archives); or intangibles such as values, customs, ceremonies, lifestyles, and including experiences such as festivals, arts and cultural events*". (Timothy & Boyd, 2003)

Heritage tourism is quite a new phenomena on the one hand concerning cultural tourism but on the other hand its routes can be traced back to the ancient times of human history. Due to the modern trends of tourism its demand has been rapidly growing from the 1990s but especially in the 21st century.

Of course in the focus of heritage tourism it is heritage itself which mean such a cultural value from the past which is worth to be maintained for the new generations. Within heritage, we can differentiate between natural and cultural heritage as well. So when we would like to define heritage tourism it is essential to highlight that it is such a form of tourism that is based on heritage in which heritage is one the one hand the central element of the tourism product and on the other hand it provides the major motivation for the tourist. (Swarbrooke, 1994)

The recent trends of the extraordinary growth of heritage tourism development are due to several phenomena experienced in social life and the trends of the tourism industry:

- The media participates more and more acutely in introducing the heritage sites;
- By the increase of the education level of the population an increasing need has been emerged to travels with cultural (heritage) purposes;
- Heritages became a product consumable for the tourist due to the intermediary role of the tourism industry;
- The personal and social value and support of heritage and heritage tourism has grown from the second half of the 20th century. (Berki, 2004)

By the end of the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st century new trends have emerged in heritage tourism as well. There were significant changes on the fields of heritage attractions, the need for complex tourism products also has been grown on the demand side

and so the traditional cultural attractions (such as museums) had to revalue their original role. (Richards, 2001)

The characteristic segments for the modern heritage tourism are the following:

- Tourists are represented mainly with a higher educational background;
- The specific spendings of these tourists are higher than average;
- Tourists are rather coming from the urbanised areas and from the more developed "western world".
- Their majority is in their middle ages without children;
- According to the length of stay we can state that in the case of heritage tourism the time for the travel is shorter while the frequency of the travels is higher. (Berki, 2004)

2.4.1.1 World heritage

World heritage sites were created by the UNESCO's Convention Concerning The Protection Of The World Cultural And Natural Heritage adopted by the General Conference at its seventeenth session in Paris, 16 November 1972.

Source: http://whc.unesco.org/

Fig. 4. The logo of the UNESCO's World Heritage Sites

One of the major driving force for this decision was that the convention noted "*that the cultural heritage and the natural heritage are increasingly threatened with destruction not only by the traditional causes of decay, but also by changing social and economic conditions which aggravate the situation with even more formidable phenomena of damage or destruction.*" http://whc.unesco.org/en/conventiontext/

Since this decision in 1972 by today the World Heritage List includes 936 properties both from cultural and natural heritage which the World Heritage Committee considers as having outstanding universal value. http://whc.unesco.org/en/list/ By 2011, this number is classified into 725 cultural, 183 natural and 28 mixed properties in 153 States Parties.

Article 1 For the purposes of this Convention, the following shall be considered as "cultural heritage":	
monuments:	architectural works, works of monumental sculpture and painting, elements or structures of an archaeological nature, inscriptions, cave dwellings and combinations of features, which are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science;
groups of buildings:	groups of separate or connected buildings which, because of their architecture, their homogeneity or their place in the landscape, are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science;
sites:	works of man or the combined works of nature and man, and areas including archaeological sites which are of outstanding universal value from the historical, aesthetic, ethnological or anthropological point of view.
Article 2 For the purposes of this Convention, the following shall be considered as "natural heritage":	
natural features	consisting of physical and biological formations or groups of such formations, which are of outstanding universal value from the aesthetic or scientific point of view;
geological and physiographical formations and precisely delineated areas	which constitute the habitat of threatened species of animals and plants of outstanding universal value from the point of view of science or conservation;
natural sites	or precisely delineated natural areas of outstanding universal value from the point of view of science, conservation or natural beauty.

Source: based on http://whc.unesco.org/en/conventiontext/ edited by Csapó, 2011.

Table 3. UNESCO's definitions for cultural heritage and natural heritage
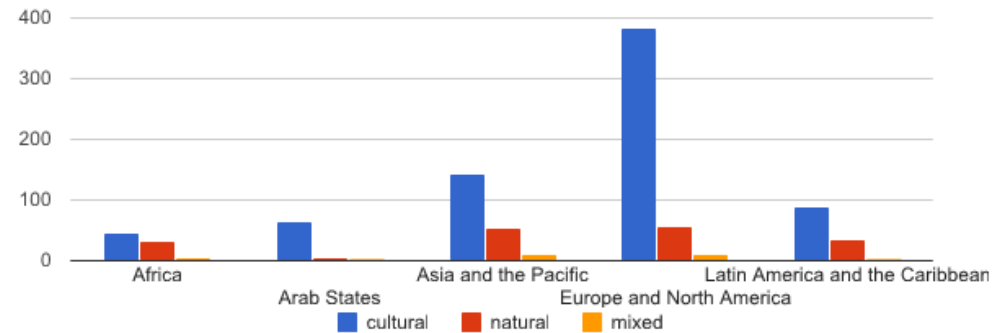
Source: http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&l=en&action=stat&&&mode=table

Fig. 5. Number of World Heritage properties by region
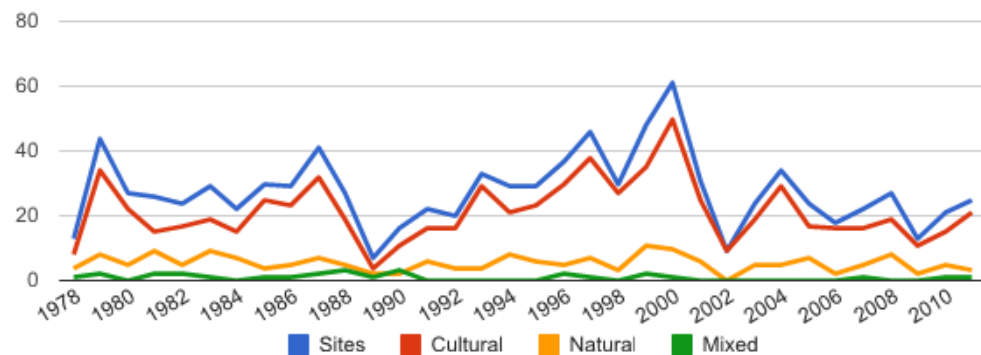
Source: http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&l=en&action=stat&&&mode=table

Fig. 6. Number of World Heritage properties inscribed each Year

2.4.2 The role and importance of thematic routes in cultural tourism

2.4.2.1 The concept and definition of the thematic routes

The direction of the tourism supply development moved towards thematic supplies in the 1980s first in Western-Europe, in the United States of America and in Australia, then in the second part of the decade in East Central Europe and other regions as well.

The thematic supply development means such a planning and realisation that is adjusted to attraction features and uniqueness including all the services that the tourist presses into service. The accentuation of the given region's featuring attractions comes into prominence. The forming supplies and their originated travel products chose such a highlighted feature

of the rural regions which are able to represent independently the attraction of the given area. In many cases however in the core of thematic attraction development there is an artificial attraction (Aubert & Csapó 2002; Berki & Csapó, 2008).

The forming of the thematic routes can be reckoned among the methods of the thematic supply development, so the foundation of the thematic parks, or the destination supply development of the close sense.

The thematic routes – according to Puczkó & Rátz (2000; 2007) – are such tourism products which row up natural or man made attractions accessible by different transport forms around a chosen topic or theme. When developing thematic routes, the more increased application of the given attractions is a general aim due to which this supply will be more strongly taking part in the tourism of the given region and area.

In recent years the number of the thematic routes multiplied, while the forms of the cooperation were transformed as well. The earlier loose networks make their co-operation system increasingly stronger, their activity can be characterised by a long-term co-ordination practice.

The participants of the co-operations in the initial period were the operators and proprietors of the attractions – so in a number of cases local governments or organisations owned by the local governments – to which later on the enterprises of the competition sector joined as well. Besides this, to the lower level of hierarchy the co-operation with only marketing functions is characteristic. In this case the aim of the given characters is the increasing of the efficiency of the advertisements besides the reduction of the specific advertisement expenses. On the higher organization level of co-operations with extended activities a standardisation process is experienced with creating a common image. The appearance of such a supply supposes the creation of travel packages as well due to the connecting attractions. (Berki & Csapó, 2008)

On the successful operation of the thematic routes we find numerous successful methods and examples in an outside Europe. Forming an international co-operation may have a number of advantages but challenges as well to the participants. The creation of the route is seemingly an easy task so the attractions have to be selected and developed adequate to the main theme, and applying management methods as well. It can be referred to the positive effects that considering costs these supplies are created with a small range of investment, they be diverse both spatially and timely, can contribute to the unutilised tourism resources and can captivate a new demand group for the cultural and heritage tourism.

We keep count on the benefits side of thematic route creation that

- They can realised with a relatively small investment,
- Are able to diverse the tourism demand both timely and spatially,
- They are able to utilize unexploited resources,
- A new demand group can be captivated to the given attraction.

Apart from the above mentioned we may interpret as an additional positive economic effect,

- the motivation of the enterprises among local residents,
- support of investments, and development concerning buildings, infrastructure and human resources,
- the settling down of related services, which can also be used by the local residents,
- the effect of the income increase due to the increasing tourism flow,
- and as a result of the above mentioned workplace creation. (Berki & Csapó, 2008)

At attractions functioning in the long haul we can find concrete results so the spatial development effect of tourism can be shown as well. Apart from the economic effects the social effects could be of great importance as well, so as the promotion of the connection system between communities and culture.

2.4.2.2 Standardised thematic routes on high level of hierarchy with common image presenting international co-operation

Here in this section we would like to highlight both cultural and natural attraction-based co-operations that are characteristic and greatly important in Europe's thematic route structure.

Cultural routes in Europe

By far the most important segment of thematic routes is the cultural routes. The first cultural routes were introduced by the Council of Europe in 1987. This cooperation of the Council started first with ten cultural routes marking the stages in Europe's development, realising that Europe's cultural routes cross over and link the local, the regional and the international level as well.

This co-operation for today is one of the most well known and well practicing in Europe. As a result of the experienced fast development in 1998 the Council of Europe wanted to set the project within a more formal co-operation framework by establishing certain Regulations and so created the Atlas of Cultural Routes. These regulations established a reformed network of cultural routes in Europe. (European Institute of Cultural Routes)

The following list of cultural routes is a collection of the most important routes in Europe with a high level of hierarchy and tourist image. (Berki & Csapó, 2008)

European Route of Industrial Heritage (IRIH)

Another remarkable – although future – co-operation of European thematic routes is the European Route of Industrial Heritage with an altogether of thirteen partners from Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands and the UK with jointly invest of €2.6 Million to develop together the first European network dedicated to industrial heritage.

This five year project is led by a German tourist board, building on the findings of a previous project under IIC to demonstrate that industrial heritage can be a valuable resource. The highlighted geographical areas are the German Rühr, the North of England and the Saar-Loor-Lux area. The thematic routes will be developed at transnational level around former industries such as textile, mining or steel. By establishing the so called "Anchor Points" of these areas people will be attracted by 60 important industrial heritage sites with a well developed tourism infrastructure. (http://en.erih.net/)

Transnational Cultural Routes	
The Via Francigena Federation of the Clunisian sites in Europe The Way of St. James Klösterreich	
Romanesque Routes of Europe	
Romanesque road in Saxony-Anhalt (Germany) Romanesque itineraries in Thuringia (Germany) Empire and region - Saxony-Anhalt (Germany) Romanesque art and architecture in Bavaria (Germany) Romanesque churches in Cologne (Germany) Ways to the Romanesque in Lower Saxony (Germany) Romanesque in Osnabrück (Germany) Romanesque itineraries in South Burgundy (France) Romanesque art in Poitou-Charentes (France) Historical routes of the medieval abbeys in Normandy (France)	Romanesque road in Alsace (France) Romanesque art in the Provence (France) Romanesque art and architecture in France Romanesque in Spain Romanesque art in Soria (Spain) Romanesque art in Spain Fundación Uncastillo Romanesque route in the province of Asti (Italy) Romanesque route in Middle Poland The Romanesque album (Poland)
Further thematic itineraries	
The Saint James Way through Saxony-Anhalt The Saint James Way through Germany, Switzerland, France and Spain Open churches in the middle of Germany The Via Imperialis Villas - Stately Homes and Castles in Carinthia (Austria) Città d´arte in Emilia-Romagna (Italy) Sentieri della Luce -Matilda Path (Italy) The Lands of Mathilde of Canossa (Italy) Castles of the duc of Parma and Piacenza (Italy) Pilgrimages in Carinthia (Austria) The Romans route The Route of the Castillian language	

Source: http://www.culture-routes.lu

Table 4. A List of Cultural Routes in Europe

This route system consists of thematic- and regional routes as well (*Table 5*).

Theme Routes	Regional Routes
Theme Route Textiles	
Theme Route Mining	Ruhrgebiet (Germany)
Theme Route Iron and Steel	Industrial Valleys (Germany)
Theme Route Manufacturing	Euregio Maas-Rhine (Germany)
Theme Route Energy	Saar-Lor-Lux (Germany)
Theme Route Transport and	Lusatia (Germany)
Communication	Northwest England (Great Britain)
Theme Route Water	Heart of England (Great Britain)
Theme Route Housing and Architecture	South Wales (Great Britain)
Theme Route Service and Leisure	The Industrious East (Great Britain)
Industry	HollandRoute (The Netherlands)
Theme Route Industrial Landscapes	

Source: http://en.erih.net/

Table 5. Thematic and Regional Routes of the IRIH project

Heritage Tour project

This international project on cultural thematic route development in rural areas is co-financed by the European Union within the INTERREG IIIB CADSES Programme. The project's "main objective is the protection, thematic organisation and promotion of local cultural heritage in remote/rural/mountainous/border areas in forms of regional and transnational cultural routes. The project's long term objective is the preservation of local cultural heritage in European villages, and the economic development of rural areas of the EU by assessing and developing their local cultural values into a tourist attraction, providing a good basis for further development of rural tourism." (HeriTour http://project.heritour.com/)

However the programme is only launched in 2007 we consider it as an important representative for international and cross-border co-operation. The four thematic routes of this programme will be based on Church history, industrial traditions, natural values and folk traditions. (Berki & Csapó, 2008)

2.4.3 City tourism

2.4.3.1 European cities and cultural tourism

Another segment of cultural tourism is city tourism or more precisely city tourism with cultural purposes. Without the aim of profoundly introducing this form of tourism we would like to highlight that still a certain proportion of the cultural tourism arrivals are motivated by city tourism (Michalkó, 1999). According to one of the most important researches in this respect we intend to highlight the scientific results of the World Tourism Organization and European Travel Commission carried out in 2005 entitled City Tourism & Culture - The European Experience.

According to the supply side the research paper classified the European settlements into six groups or clusters with the following major characteristics:

- *"Villages only offer cultural heritage (cluster 1) and no or very limited visual arts, performing arts or the creative industries;*
- *Towns offer cultural heritage (cluster 2) and the visual and/or performing arts (cluster 3), but no or very limited creative industries;*
- *Cities offer cultural heritage and the performing and/or visual arts (cluster 4) and possibly the creative industries (cluster 5);*
- *Metropolises offer cultural heritage and the performing and/or visual arts and the creative industries (cluster 6)."* (City Tourism and Culture, p. 6.)

Product category \ Type of place	Village	Town	City	Metropolis
Heritage	Cluster 1	Cluster 2		
Heritage + The Arts		Cluster 3	Cluster 4	
Heritage + The Arts + Creative Industries			Cluster 5	Cluster 6

Source: City Tourism and Culture, p.5.

Fig. 7. A framework to classify places and their cultural product

Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Cluster 5	Cluster 6
Ávila Bamberg Bern Canterbury Córdoba Delft Granada Heidelberg Luxembourg Oxford Monaco Nicosia Pisa Siena Valleta Würzburg York	Avignon Basel Bayreuth Bologna Bratislava Bruges Florence Gent Krakow Ljubljana Oslo Santiago de Compostela Sofia Tallin Venice Vilnius Zagreb	Athens Antwerp Bucharest Edinburgh Glasgow Hamburg Helsinki Porto Prague Riga Rotterdam Salzburg Seville Warsaw	Amsterdam Barcelona Brussels Budapest Copenhagen Dublin Lisbon Lyon Milan Munich Naples Stockholm Vienna	Berlin Istanbul London Madrid Paris Rome

Source: City Tourism and Culture, p. 6.

Table 6. Classification of some European cities according to the framework

2.4.3.2 European Capital of Culture programme

One of the most important initiatives of city tourism – and also the most prestigious and high-profile cultural events – in Europe was the foundation of the European Capital of Culture programme. According to the European Commission this programme was introduced in 1985 with the main purpose of highlighting the richness and diversity of European cultures, celebrating the cultural ties that link Europeans together, bringing people from different European countries into contact with each other1s culture, promoting mutual understanding and fostering a feeling of European citizenship. http://ec.europa.eu/culture/our-programmes-and-actions/doc413_en.htm

1985: Athens
1986: Florence
1987: Amsterdam
1988: Berlin
1989: Paris
1990: Glasgow
1991: Dublin
1992: Madrid
1993: Antwerp
1994: Lisbon
1995: Luxembourg
1996: Copenhagen
1997: Thessaloniki
1998: Stockholm
1999: Weimar
2000: Avignon, Bergen, Bologna, Brussels, Helsinki, Krakow, Reykjavik, Prague, Santiago de Compostela.
2001: Porto and Rotterdam
2002: Bruges and Salamanca
2003: Graz
2004: Genoa and Lille
2005: Cork
2006: Patras
2007: Luxembourg and Sibiu
2008: Liverpool and Stavanger
2009: Linz and Vilnius
2010: Essen for the Ruhr, Pécs, Istanbul
2011: Turku and Tallinn
2012: Guimarães and Maribor
2013: Marseille and Kosice
2014: Umeå and Riga

Source: http://ec.europa.eu/culture/our-programmes-and-actions/doc2485_en.htm

Table 7. The European Capitals of Culture (1985-2014)

Throughout the years this initiative was not only fostering the 'cultural industry' of the cities but they were a driving force regenerate the cities, raise the international profile of the ECC's and enhance their image from the point fo view of their own inhabitants. They also gave new vitality to their cultural life, raised their international profile, boosted tourism and enhanced their image in the eyes of their own inhabitants. http://ec.europa.eu/culture/our-programmes-and-actions/doc413_en.htm

Since 1985 there was a debate and research on what impacts the ECC title had on the development of the cities or on the change of their image etc. People and researchers were of course criticising the major events or thematics one city was preparing for the given year. Not considering and arguing with these approaches we have to state that so far this initiative became one of the most important ones from the European Union in order to achieve a certain development on the image change and cultural development of major cities in Europe.

2.5 Traditions, ethnic tourism

According to our point of view we differentiate two types of ethnic tourism. One of them is "root tourism" and the other – more widely in practice - is tourism with the purpose of getting to know other people's differing cultural background from an authentic approach. According to SANYAL (2009) ethnic tourism is "*travel motivated by search for the first hand, authentic and sometimes intimate contact with people whose ethnic and /or cultural background is different from the tourists*". http://anandasanyal.blogspot.com/2009/06/ethnic-tourism-is-travel-motivated-by.html So visitors with ethnic cultural motivations travel to another destination in order to be acquainted with a different culture. One of the major motivations in this travel is of course curiosity and also respect to other ethnic groups.

Within ethnic tourism we can differentiate between anthropological and tribal tourism as well, but village tourism (where the living conditions and again the different cultural approaches to every day life can be studied) should be classified here as well. One of the most important advantages of ethnic tourism is that this form of travel can be studied and experienced in almost every part of the world providing a great opportunity for the conservation of culture and heritage and also as tourism is the 'industry of peace', people's tolerance and cultural understanding could lead to a more peaceful approach to modern life and the negative impacts of globalisation as well.

A special form of ethnic tourism is root tourism where the driving force for travel is getting to know the culture of someone's (long-ago) homeland, either originated from the given area or being one of the offspring of someone. Such an example is perfectly presented in Ireland where the quest for the ancient homeland produced a complete tourism industry in the Republic of Ireland supported by the huge masses of the Irish diaspora all over the world but especially from the United States of America. (Trócsányi & Csapó, 2002) Genealogy research is one of the most sensational form of this root-researches. Such examples can be studied of course everywhere in the world where history brought some changes in the country borders (e.g. Hungary) or in certain periods of time masses of people were migrating away from the home country (European countries to the USA in the 1920s, 1930s).

We also would like to stress that one of the most important aims and objectives of this form of tourism is to get to know other's culture without disturbing and negatively effecting the local population because there is a threat in the development of this form of tourism that it leads to mass tourism with all its negative effects on the local culture and population.

2.6 Religious tourism, pilgrimage routes

Religious tourism and pilgrimage routes are the most ancient forms of tourism. If we take into consideration religion as a motivation we have to state that under religious tourism we understand the following activities:

- Visiting religious sites and monuments (churches, clusters, exhibition places)
- Taking part in religious events (holy days, religious cultural and music programmes, visiting religious persons)
- Pilgrimage
- Spiritual training (youth camps, missions etc.) (Nyíri, 2004)

So we can differentiate between different groups of travellers with religious motivation such as:

- Organised groups visiting sacred places as a tourism destinations (either with religious motivation or with a motivation desired by the architectural and cultural importance of the sight)
- Individually organised visitors with their own programme organisation
- Such cultural tourists who have unique interests
- Pilgrims who are attending in an organised way for spiritual training
- Pilgrims who are attending individually for their spiritual training.

Recent researches show that this segment of cultural tourism has produced a tremendous growth especially from the 1990s. The number of visitors taking part in religious tourism and their tourism spendings totalled an estimated 18 billion USD with over 300 million travellers worldwide. (http://www.travelindustrydeals.com/news/5041) It also raises the question of carrying capacity since many of the religious sites are simply unable to bear the amount of people trying to visit the places either connected to any of the world's most important religions. So the great world religions have a high base for the massive religious or pilgrimage tours since millions of people are attracted to visit their sacred places or events. (Csapó & Matesz, 2007)

2.7 Event and festival tourism

Cultural events and festivals again play an important role in the formation and strengthening of cultural tourism in today's tourism industry. These programmes "*offer the tourist additional reasons to visit a place over and above the regular cultural product offered. Often because events are one-off and take place in a limited timeframe and because festivals offer a concentrated and often unique offering in a limited time period, they form an additional reason for cultural tourists to visit a place. They can cause a place to rise on the shortlist of places the tourist has in his or her mindset of attractive destinations. Festivals and events are both effective instruments in attracting first time visitors as well as repeat visitors due to the differential advantage they can offer.*" (City Tourism and Culture, 2005 p. 44.)

According to recent surveys we can state that the majority of cultural tourists are motivated to take part in event and festival tourism as well, since 88% agreed on an internet questionnaire that cultural festivals and events are important reasons for cultural tourists to choose to specifically visit a place (City Tourism and Culture, 2005 p. 44.).

Of course entertainment (of events and festivals) as a motivation in tourism is really diverse to analyse but we can state that these events, festivals and parades mainly cover cultural

thematics such as music festivals and events and all the other forms of fine arts festivals and events (of course we can highlight gastronomy, religion, folk, film, history etc. topics as well). The different festivals can contribute to the development of the given areas or regions and also promote the cognition of the local population or residents of an area.

A very important role of festivals and events that (however they usually produce a timely concentration in the high season in majority) they act against seasonality, since a vast amount of festivals and events are organised in the low season.

On the other hand if we take into consideration the size of the megaevents and the carrying capacity of places for instance – so the huge amount of the number of people visiting these places in a relatively short time – we have to stress that cultural events and festivals could have a seriously negative impacts on the environment and on the local population as well.

2.8 Creative culture, creative tourism

The term creative culture and creative tourism is more and more widely used in recent cultural tourism trends researches and analyses. UNESCO's (2006) working definition of creative tourism is the following: "*travel directed towards an engaged and authentic experience, with participative learning in the arts, heritage, or special character of a place. It provides a connection with those who reside in this place and create this living culture.*" (http://ec.europa.eu/culture/key-documents/doc/study_impact_cult_creativity_06_09.pdf)
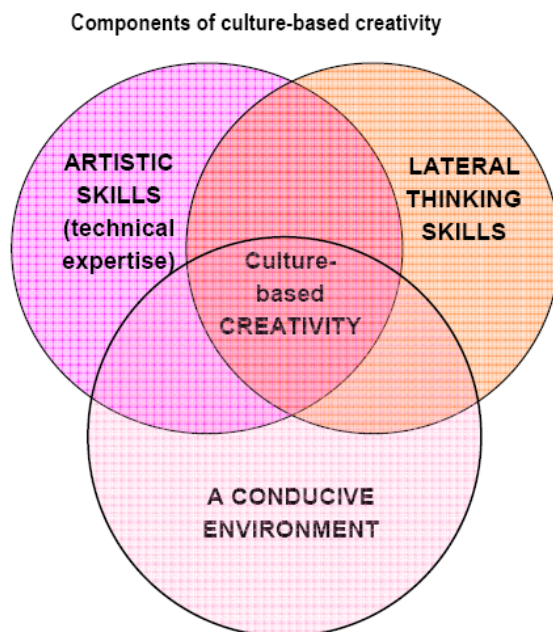
Source: http://ec.europa.eu/culture/key-documents/doc/study_impact_cult_creativity_06_09.pdf

Fig. 8. Components of culture-based creativity

The most recent trends of cultural tourism investigate more and more on the topic of creative tourism. Of course the link between creativity and culture is obvious and it is also natural that those people who are involved in creative industries (artists or professionals that are active in cultural/creative industries) will be in a way or other linked and connected to culture and cultural tourism as well. So as a driving force of the ever developing and diversifying cultural tourism "*culture is taken to encompass traditional cultural and artistic activities (performing arts, visual arts, cultural heritage and literature) as well as cultural industries (printed works, multimedia, the press, cinema, audiovisual and phonographic productions, craft, design and cultural tourism).*" (The Impact Of Culture On Creativity, 2009, p. 21.)

3. The role of cultural tourism in the global tourism market

In the 21st century the tourism global market creates an organic and interdependent system in which the supply and demand side experiences significant changes both in time and space and also from the perspectives of the quantitative and qualitative aspects or components. Newer and newer regions and tourism products will be involved in the international and domestic tourism trends as well and in the ever growing competition only such a tourism destination of tourism actor can survive which or who can provide an ever growing standard of quality.

RICHARDS (2009) states that "*Culture and tourism were two of the major growth industries of the 20th century, and towards the end of the century the combination of these two sectors into 'cultural tourism' had become one of the most desirable development options for countries and regions around the world.*"

According to the recent changes of tourism trends it is obvious that visitors are more strongly involved in cultural activities than earlier although we have to highlight that the role of the 3S (or 4S as sun, sand, sea and sex) in mass tourism will still be (very) dominant. On the other hand as the new generations of visitors appear on the tourism market, now we can talk about a new 3S group or generation of tourists now mainly motivated by *sport*, *spectacle* and *satisfaction*. (Csapó & Matesz, 2007) Also we have to stress that one of the most important motivations for a tourism visit is getting (more and more and as diverse as possible experiences.

Some aspects of cultural tourism is summarized in the following table.

Positive effects	Negative effects
• The development of the regional culture • Protection of the natural habitat • The accentuation of tourism regions • Strengthening of the local traditions and culture • Less seasonal, can extend the tourism season • Can be an important form of sustainable tourism	• Culture become commercialised • Destruction of the environment • Investments in tourism that act against the state of the environment • Architecture not characteristic to the local customs • Carrying capacity problems • Cultural tourism has only a dependent role (need for package) • Conflict source

Source: Based on HORVÁTH, 1999 own editing

Table 8. Positive and negative effects/impacts of cultural tourism

If we take into consideration and observe the impact and importance of cultural tourism on the global tourism market we have to strongly emphasize that according to the recent research data published by the OECD in 2009 entitled The Impact of Culture on Tourism it seems that worldwide almost 360 million international tourism trips were generated by cultural tourism in 2007, accounting to around 40% of all global tourism (OECD, 2009). Furthermore if we take into consideration that these numbers were only directly affecting the tourism industry we have to stress that the indirect contribution of cultural tourism is naturally even higher due to its multiplicator effects. The mentioned study also stresses that the amount of money spent by a 'cultural tourist' is estimated to be as one third more on average than other tourists (Richards, 2009).

In this ever changing system of the tourism industry the role of cultural tourism is rapidly and constantly growing in the latter decades but we also have to highlight that the positions of the classic mass tourism often characterised by the 4S (sun, send, sea and sex) will be the most dominant form of tourism for a very long period of time (*Figure 9*).
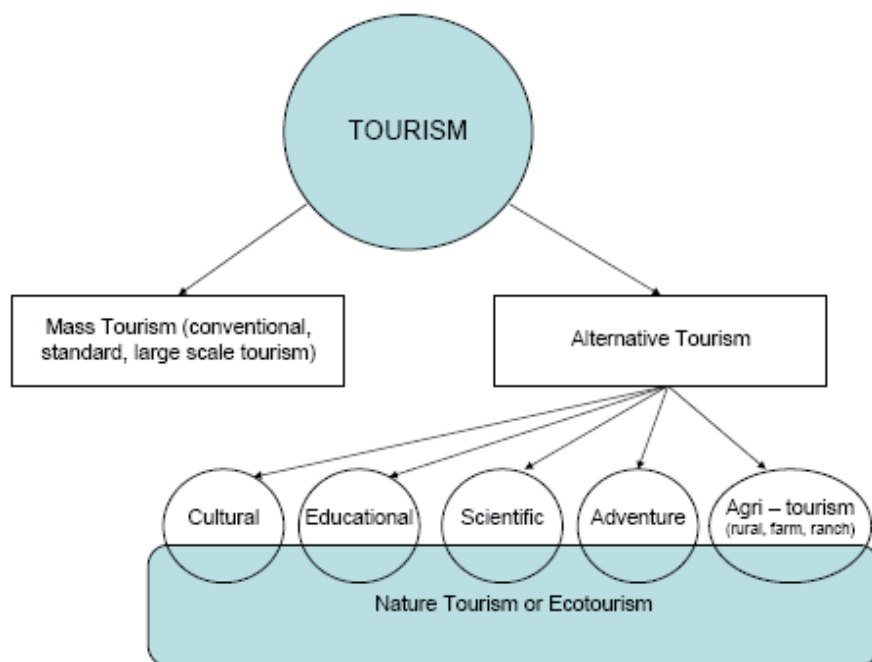
Source: MIECZKOWSKI, 1995 p. 459.

Fig. 9. The role and place of cultural tourism within alternative tourism

The cultural tourism products will only be able to survive and attract more and more tourists – of course taking into consideration the basic principles of sustainable tourism – by applying an up-to-date and competitive cultural tourism product development approach which, according to a recent cultural and heritage tourism product research paper created in Ontario in 2009, is mainly based on quality, distinctiveness, economic benefit and creativity (*Figure 10.*).

CULTURAL EXPERIENCES

QUALITY

DISTINCTIVENESS

ECONOMIC BENEFIT

CREATIVITY

HIGH POTENTIAL
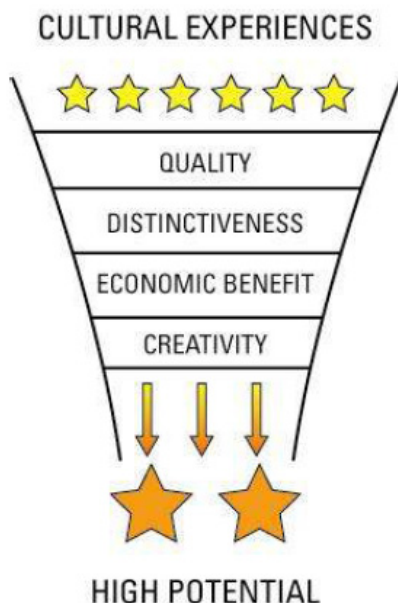
Source: Ontario Cultural and Heritage Tourism Product Research Paper, 2009.

Fig. 10. A 21st Century Framework for Evaluating Cultural Tourism Products

In accordance with the Ontario Cultural and Heritage Tourism Product Research Paper (2009) we believe that there are 5 key trends that will effectively and remarkably characterise the trends of cultural tourism in the near future. These five elements are the new and emerging markets of the ever changing global tourism industry, the appearance and strengthening of the so called creative economy, agency and participation which is very much connected to the characteristics of the 'Y' generation and finally competition of excellence which will be a determining driving tool for cultural tourism product development. (Ontario Cultural and Heritage Tourism Product Research Paper, 2009)

When analysing cultural tourism product development we also have to be aware of the potential stakeholders which are forming the cultural tourism product. Understanding this process we should analyze *Figure 11* which is demonstrating the major stakeholders in the formation of the cultural tourism product. This very complex system clearly shows that cultural tourism and its tourism product is dependent on many aspects from the individuals (either travellers or entrepreneurs), to local governments, NGO's and state organisations etc.

Finally when we try to analyse the cultural tourism product we have to analyse this issue from the statistical perspective as well. First of all we would like to stress that statistical data collection is very often country or location specific or even researcher specific. In this chapter we would like to introduce and present the statistical data collection method of the United Nations World Tourism Organisation which of course we consider to be the basic approach to this question.

Major Stakeholders In The Formation Of Cultural Tourism Product

Source: http://www.culturalrealms.com/2009/07/stakeholders-role-in-tourism-and-the-effect-of-travel-industry-on-them.html
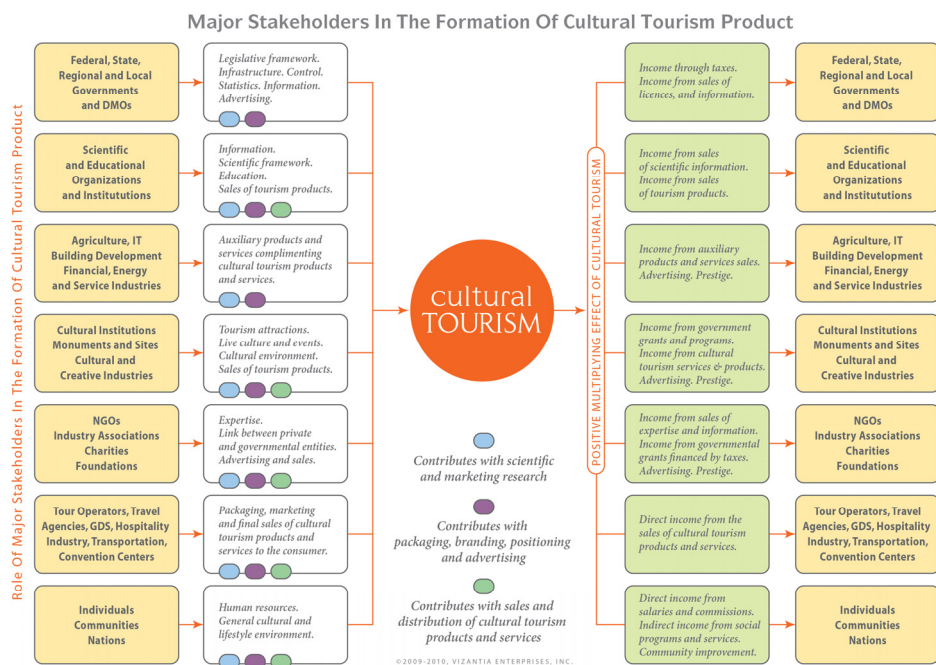
Fig. 11. Major stakeholders in the formation of cultural tourism product

Products	Activities
1. Accommodation services for visitors	1. Accommodation for visitors
2. Food and beverage serving services	2. Food and beverage serving activities
3. Railway passenger transport services	3. Railway passenger transport
4. Road passenger transport services	4. Road passenger transport
5. Water passenger transport services	5. Water passenger transport
6. Air passenger transport services	6. Air passenger transport
7. Transport equipment rental services	7. Transport equipment rental
8. Travel agencies and other reservation services	8. Travel agencies and other reservation services activities
9. Cultural services	**9. Cultural activities**
10. Sports and recreational services	10. Sports and recreational activities
11. Country-specific tourism characteristic goods	11. Retail trade of country-specific tourism characteristic goods
12. Country-specific tourism characteristic services	12. Other country-specific tourism characteristic activities

Source: International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics 2008 p. 42.

Table 9. List of categories of tourism characteristic consumption products and tourism characteristic activities (tourism industries)

The publication of the '*International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics 2008*' from the point of view of tourism statistical data collection provides a list of categories of tourism characteristic consumption products and tourism characteristic activities (tourism industries).

As we can see the 9th point of this elementary categorisation of tourism products and services deals with cultural tourism product and its services. In order to better understand this section of the tourism industry the mentioned research paper provides the more accurate and characteristic tourism statistical data background for cultural tourism in Annex 4 in the following:

9. **Cultural services**
96220 Performing arts event production and presentation services
96310 Services of performing artists
96411 Museum services except for historical sites and buildings
96412 Preservation services of historical sites and buildings
96421 Botanical and zoological garden services
96422 Nature reserve services including wildlife preservation services

Source: International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics 2008 p. 122.

Table 10. List of tourism characteristic products and grouping by main categories according to CPC (Central Product Classification) Version 2

4. Conclusion

Summarizing this chapter we have to state that the cultural tourism product and cultural tourism itself is a very complex segment of the tourism industry, both its demand and supply is diverse and versatile. Its future positions will most probably be strengthened directly and indirectly as well since with the change of the recreational needs of tourists and visitors the demand for cultural travels will rapidly grow as well (additionally when we consider the new appearing sending markets). Of course classic mass tourism will never considerably loose its market positions but the new tourists will have a more and more diversified need to get to know the different cultures and customs of the remote places.

On the other hand we also have to take into consideration that the rapid growth and development of cultural tourism caused various aspects of new problems in the industry.

When analysing these recent trends we also have to stress that not only the needs of local communities has changed but also the motivations of the cultural tourists. According to this perception one of the most important international researches on this area the ATLAS research "*has indicated that the experiences enjoyed most by cultural tourists tend to be those small-scale, less visited places that offer a taste of 'local' or 'authentic' culture. Tourists increasingly say that they want to experience local culture, to live like locals and to find out about the real identity of the places they visit.*" (Richards, 2009)

In the analysis of a tourism product we have to be aware not only the positive effects but the negative aspects of tourism development as well. The ever growing and rapidly increasing cultural tourism in the recent years has raised the question whether it really serves the needs of sustainable tourism especially in small communities. Cultural tourism started as a form of alternative tourism and nowadays it can be considered – in certain tourism destinations – as a dominant part of mass tourism.

Local communities have to face with the degradation of their 'original' culture so "there are a growing number of places in search of new forms of articulation between culture and tourism which can help to strengthen rather than water down local culture, which can raise the value accruing to local communities and improve the links between local creativity and tourism." (Richards, 2009) According to this new trend, it seems that one of the most important trend and development of cultural tourism in the recent years lead us to the establishment of creative tourism which serves the needs of a more sustainable cultural tourism in today's tourism industry. So based on the vulnerability of the destinations we strongly have to stress that only conscious tourism planning methods and practice will be able to take into consideration the principles of sustainability and carrying capacity in the given (cultural) tourism region.

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World Heritage Listing and Implications for Tourism – The Case of Hue, Vietnam

Jo Vu and Quynh-Du Ton-That

Victoria University, The Australian National University
Australia

1. Introduction

In 1993, the complex of monuments built around Vietnam's former capital city, Huế, was inscribed on World Heritage List. The complex included the Citadel, a walled city that used to house the Royal Court and its administration but is now a residential district of Huế, the Imperial City within it, and the royal burial complexes nestled in the surrounding foothills. Built during the Nguyễn Dynasty (1802-1945), the complex of monuments is regarded as 'an outstanding demonstration of the power of the vanished Vietnamese feudal empire at its apogee in the early 19th century', and 'an outstanding example of an eastern feudal capital', justifying their inclusion on the World Heritage List. (UNESCO, 1993)

The inscription of Huế's complex of monuments on World Heritage List came at a time when Vietnam's economic reforms combined with the lifting of the United States of America trade embargo in 1994 to create a favorable environment for economic development and tourism in Vietnam. As a new destination, previously out or reach due to the Vietnam war, Vietnam attracted an increasing number of tourists drawn to the country for a number of reasons, including to visit the country's legacy of the well-known war. (Johnson, 2010; Laderman, 2009) Like other modern international tourists, cultural aspects of their total experience are important; they are keen to 'interact with the people of that culture and not simply to have a visual experience of an iconic structure.' (Vu & Fernando, 2007) The international recognition of the city's cultural heritage was expected to raise its profile and attract mass tourism to the city, but by and large these expectations have not been realised.

This chapter examines the attractions that Huế offers to tourists, including the complex of monuments inscribed on UNESCO World Heritage List. It provides an outline of the historical significance of the monuments and the friction that arises at the intersection of heritage and history. It notes the impact of the listing on the prominence of Hue as a tourist destination, which in turn helped to restore and revitalise its cultural assets. The general strategy adopted by Hue's tourism authorities is to showcase the monuments to tourists for their aesthetics appeal, and to revive past cultural practices as a representation of Hue identity. The chapter then looks beyond the aesthetics and examines the historical and spiritual significance of the monuments in an attempt to explore ways in which the city's cultural heritage could be more deeply integrated into heritage tourism.

2. Hue as a tourist destination

As a tourist destination, the city of Hue is often praised in literature for the beauty of its natural settings and for being Vietnam's former capital city. It is situated in the Thừa Thiên – Huế province of the central region of Vietnam, in a narrow strip of land hemmed in by the rugged Trường Sơn mountain range to the West and the South. To the north lies the province Quảng Trị, to the south lies the Hải Vân pass 'winding like a dragon coiling itself around the slopes of the interconnecting mountains to provide a link to Quảng Nam province.' (Nguyen, 1992) The author Nguyễn Hữu Thông describes the natural settings of the areas around Huế in the following terms, quoted at length for the evocative style, its beautiful and vivid descriptions as well as its informative content.

> The Trường Sơn Mountain range, Huế's point of reference, spreads gently westward and plateaus to form the relatively flat highland of Tahoi in Laos, but the Eastern side drops precipitously with sheer cliffs and steep slopes, forming a wall of richly varied sceneries reminiscent of ink brush paintings, creating a climate that is at once 'difficult' and 'character building'. The Eastern slopes contrive with the gathering rains to form the many streams and rivers cutting through the landscape. […] Nature has given Huế the gentle, clear water, Hương river. It provides living space for its water-born residents, a meeting point for writers, poets and creative artists, a place for young men to display their strength and skills during festive times, and a sparkling foundation for those wonderful lantern floating nights.

On the northern side of the Huong river lies the Citadel which used to house the most important organs of the Imperial government, but nowadays a mostly residential district. The walled citadel, constructed between 1805 and 1832, formed the frame for everything else. It was located and laid out in accordance with eastern principles, but its construction followed modern concepts of military science according to the design of the famous French military engineer Vauban. The most important part of the Citadel is the Imperial City, and the Forbidden City within it. Originally intended for those directly connected to the royal court and its administration, over the years, large areas inside Citadel have now become residential quarters for a large portion of the population, forming a District of the city of Huế. The Imperial City, however, has remained a non-residential area.

Since its construction, the passage of time has brought wars and much destruction to the Citadel and only a small number of the original buildings are still standing. It suffered tremendous damage on three occasions: in 1885 when the French forces sacked the city by force and razed the city to the ground; in 1946 when the Viet Minh withdrew from the city after taking its control from the abdicating king Bảo Đại and applied scorched earth tactics in their retreat; and most recently in 1968 during the Tet Offensive, when modern heavy weapons were used heavily in an intensive battle to retake the city. With some of its royal palaces and temples restored recently, it is the most commonly visited tourist attraction in Huế. (Laderman, 2009; Johnson, 2010).

Outside the Citadel there are associated monuments of importance. These include the burial complexes of the Nguyễn kings and other buildings related to the spiritual life of the dynasty. All the royal burial complexes are situated in a secluded area west of Huế, because the sun symbolises the king in his life and the setting sun symbolises the passing of the king. Most of these burial complexes were built when the king was still alive, taking many years

to complete, consuming much manpower and resources. The aesthetics of the burial complexes incorporate the topology of the much wider surrounding space. For example, the setting of king Gia Long's (1802-1820) burial complex, although itself sparsely built and austere, 'takes up an area of 2,875 hectares, dotted with forty two mountains standing guard, the focal point of which is the burial site itself.' (Phan, 1995:70) Underpinning the design of the royal burial complexes of Huế is a philosophy that regarded death not as the final end. The layout of the overall landscape consists of two separate areas, one where the king is buried and a larger area where palaces, pavilions, halls, theatres and libraries were built so that the king, when alive, would sometimes spend time there, away from the Royal Court. As a result, the burial complexes of the Nguyễn Kings feel like 'beautiful parks set in a vast expanse of mountains and forests, where the birds sing, the flowers bloom, the creeks burble and the wind whistle through the pines'. (Phan, 1995: 70)

Apart from the public monuments recognised by UNESCO, the material heritage of Hue also includes the pagodas, numerous substantial garden homes, some of which are family worship places, communal houses and smaller places of worship. Altogether they form a widespread network of small and varied architectures that represent a substantial heritage in their totality. In a way they provide the texture and the background upon which the larger structures stand and without which the larger monuments would seem out of place.

3. The listing of the monuments

Apart from providing the visitors with a pleasing visual experience, the complex of monuments, as vestiges of a time past, provide a connection to the history of the place. The inscription of the complex of monuments on the World Heritage List helped highlight that connection and renewed interest in a heritage that had up to then been largely neglected by the state, a politically inconvenient legacy.

It is a legacy of international and national importance, but it is also a legacy that's associated with the Nguyễn dynasty, regarded by the present communist regime as feudalistic and reactionary. In the context of Vietnam's post-war politico-cultural agenda, Huế's association with the Nguyễn dynasty remains the most problematic. Paradoxically, it is the historical circumstances that bequeathed the city its universally recognised cultural heritage that pose difficult issues for its management: the responsibility for the management of its heritage sites, including tourism development, lies within the powers of state instrumentalities of a modern socialist government antagonistic of the nation's feudal past (Long, 2003). In terms of its management, the impact of having such negative historical baggage was real, especially in the period immediately after the end of the Vietnam war. With the nation's attention and energy being focused on post-war immediate needs, the maintenance and preservation of the monuments around Hue, badly damaged during the war, was of secondary importance, as noted by the historian Trần Đức Anh Sơn.

> After the nation was reunified (30-April-1975), the nation's history turned a new page but the fate of the heritage of Hue did not immediately improve. With a perspective full of prejudice of a number of people at the time, the complex of monuments of Hue was lumped together with the "feudal reactionary" Nguyen Dynasty, and therefore continued to be neglected, if not to say mistreated. […] There will be contrary views, but the reality was that political prejudice weighed heavily on the heritage of Hue,

causing people to take inappropriate courses of action with these monuments. (Tran, 2004: 24-25)

Since the decision in 1993 by UNESCO to inscribe them on the World Heritage list, with international assistance, the maintenance and restoration of the monuments around Huế have made some progress. The renewed interest in the cultural heritage value of the monuments of Hue brought about an increase in heritage tourism, with the number of visits to the historical sites of Hue rising from 243 thousand in 1993 to 1.3 million in 2002, to 1.55 million in 2007. In recent years, the number of visitor arrivals has stagnated and the rate of repeat visits remains low. The number of visitor arrivals has recently ceased to be of central importance as a target for tourism development strategies for Hue. Hue's tourism authorities now consider their role to be 'one of supporting the conservation of cultural and nature heritage sites, rather than as a means of attracting tourist arrivals and increasing revenue for the government.' Instead, the goal is to 'restore the sites and the traditional culture associated with them, not only by conserving the tangible remains, but also through the revitalisation of Hue's cultural heritage.' (Bui, 2006)

Since the inscription on World Heritage List, there has been quite a transformation of how the heritage of Hue is presented, a transformation that fit a wider pattern of marketing tourism practices in Vietnam, in which both the history of conflict and colonisation is airbrushed to suit the perceived interest and taste of tourists (Kennedy & Williams, 2001). Funded with international assistance and underpinned by serious research and expertise, the restoration of the monuments has returned some of their former glory and provided a focus for efforts in tourism planning. In turn, the prominence accorded to Hue's heritage has helped revitalise interest not just in the monuments themselves but also in cultural aspects associated with them. A biennial cultural festival, the *Hue Festival*, with exhibitions, performances and re-enactments of old rites, has been held every two years since 2000 to showcase cultural aspects of the heritage of Huế. The development plan for Huế tourism, 2005-2010, aims to achieve conservation and maintenance of its cultural heritage through cultural tourism (Bui, 2006).

This transformation sidesteps historical connections that are awkward and inconvenient. It negotiates around the historical – heritage intersection by focussing on the aesthetics and creativity of the monuments in a process described as de-politicisation of it heritage celebrations (Long, 2003; Johnson, 2009). It doesn't quite amount to an erasure of an inconvenient heritage (Dearborn, 2010), but the net effect is the construction of a narrative that tells a part of the whole story. While there 'cannot be said to be one single correct narrative associated with a heritage attraction' (Suntikul, 2010:203) the current 'official scripting of the Hue Monuments in terms of aesthetics is not simply about reconstructing a past that does not challenge dominant versions of revolutionary history' but Hue's renovation is also 'an important part of recent attempts to define an enduring set of symbolic materials […] that define the best of Vietnamese national culture,' promoting it as one of the pre-eminent sites for the renewing of arts and culture. (Johnson, 2009:177).

The focus on the arts and culture helps to present Hue's heritage in a readily digestible way to the visitors, offering them an experience wrapped in the physical beauty of the restored monuments, in the colours of festivals, the revived performances and highly visual re-enactments of rituals. However, the emphasis on aesthetics may lead to glossing over some

deeper significance: historical and spiritual aspects of Hue's heritage do not feature in a meaningful way in the official scripting of Hue tourism.

4. Beyond aesthetics: Historical and spiritual aspects

If tourism to Hue is to be developed from the strengths of its cultural heritage, the experience offered to the visitors should be built around what Hue's heritage has to tell, in terms of its historical significance and the cultural beliefs and practices of the time. The monuments of Huế are not simply a reminder of a long gone political system, but one laden with historical significance and spiritual values. They have a story to tell. The stories behind their construction can reveal the historical circumstances, their design reflects the prevailing taste and aesthetic sensibilities, and their usage reflected the customary practices and the belief system of the people at the time.

This chapter now examines in detail one of the most popular tourist destinations of Hue, the burial complex of King Tu Đuc (1847 - 1883), whose reign was the longest of all Nguyen kings, in order to tease out its historical and spiritual significance.

The construction of king Tự Đức's burial complex took place at a turbulent time for the nation and an extremely difficult time for the king himself. When he assumed the throne at the age of twenty, Vietnam was at peace with its sovereignty intact. By the time the construction of his burial complex began in 1864 the nation was at war with France and three provinces in the South had already been conceded to the French. Initially planned to take 6 years to complete, with 3000 soldiers and workers on three month rotation, the construction was accelerated to be completed within 3 years. The disaffected workers and soldiers staged a mutiny in 1866 that almost toppled king Tu Duc, being stopped at the last minute inside the Forbidden City by the Imperial Guards. For weapons, many of the mutineers took up the pestles used at the construction site to crush lime, and the mutiny is referred to as the Lime Pestle Rebellion. Thus, despite its tranquil setting and poetic harmony, the monuments were conceived and constructed at a time when Vietnam was under military threats from outside and considerable unrest from within. Despite having to deal with the weighty matters of the state and the grave situation facing the nation, Tự Đức nurtured his love for poetry with great passion. One of his compositions, the *Khiem Cung Ky* – Notes for Khiêm Cung, engraved on a stone stele at his burial complex, is a five thousand word literary essay on his times, with reflections both philosophical and personal, an historical text in its own right.

Aesthetically appealing and certainly the most popular with tourists as well as local visitors, king Tu Duc's burial complex is defined from its surrounds by a walled enclosure occupying some twelve hectares of land. Water from a small creek that flowed through the area was diverted to create a man-made lake with a small islet in the middle. Curved paths meander around the ground, halls and palaces are grouped together without an axis of symmetry. The burial complex contained dozens of buildings, palaces, hall, library, theatre, and living quarters, to provide and support the daily activities and pastimes of the king, his family and his entourage.

For almost ten years, between the completion of the construction and his death, this complex served as a second place of residence for the king, a retreat from the hustle and

bustle of the capital city, and also an alternate place for the Royal court. It would have been here that king Tu Duc held court with his inner circles of mandarins discussing matters of state, met his fellow scholar poets to discuss and compose poetry. In short, here the world of the present life made its presence felt in the space intended for the after life.

After king Tu Duc passed away in 1883, all these structures were maintained and preserved for his worship. His wives and concubines moved their residence here to continue to care for his soul, and this was where they spent the rest of their lives, showing their total loyalty and devotion to the late king. The customs at the time prohibited the king's wives and concubines from remarrying. After his death, if they were childless, as was the case for all of king Tu Duc's wives and concubines, they could not move out of the burial complex to live with their children. The other option would have been to take a Buddhist vow and lead the life of a practicing Buddhist nun inside a temple or a pagoda. In 1994 a nephew of one of king Tu Duc's concubines, recalled with clarity the times of his childhood spent there with his aunt, including an occasion in 1922 when a visiting French woman artist composed a water colour portrait of his aunt. Thus some 39 years after Tu Duc's death, at least one of his former concubines was still living there in the complex. (Ho, 1998)

This intermingling of the activities of the present life in the space intended for the next life is compatible with the belief '*sinh ký tử quy* – in life we entrust, in death we return' – which regards life in this world as ephemeral and impermanent. It underpins the traditional Vietnamese rituals associated with ancestor worship, which on days of special significance, acknowledges the spiritual presence of ancestors in the present world.

In short, the burial complex of King Tu Duc represents much more than just a burial site. Its construction reveals the historical circumstances of the time, its design reflects the personal taste and aesthetic sensibilities of the king, and its usage prior to and after the death of the king reflects the customary practices and the belief system of the people at the time. Therein lies much of the deeper historical and spiritual significance of the site, which at the moment doesn't enjoy a prominent place in the official narratives associated with the sites.

5. Conclusion

It is clear that World Heritage listing has brought material benefits to the city, largely via the conduit of tourism. The impact of listing was two-fold. On the one hand, it stimulated interest in the city's cultural heritage and brought an increase in tourist arrivals. On the other hand, international resources and expertise, made available for the protection and renewal of their cultural asset, have facilitated a transformation in the way the city's cultural heritage is presented for tourists, which in turn, re-positioned Hue's heritage in light of its aesthetics and cultural achievements.

The initial expected increase in mass tourism to the area in the wake of the World Heritage listing has not materialised, which is understandable, given the moderate intrinsic values of the monuments as a modern day tourist destination. The complex of monuments of Hue is of national and international significance, but it is of a moderate scale, its construction relatively recent. It does not have the pulling power, the imposing grandeur, nor the antiquity of mass tourist drawcards such as the Angkor Wat, or the Great Wall. It is situated in a region without a strong industrial or commerce base; its infrastructure ill-equipped to

provide for the needs of the modern day international tourists. In this context, the steps taken by Hue's tourism authorities to lean towards heritage tourism are understandable.

The monuments of Huế are not simply a reminder of a long gone political system, but one laden with historical significance and spiritual values. As such they should be accommodated with a national strategy to manage the memories of the past and to celebrate the nation's heritage within the framework of its history. As shown in the study of the burial complex of king Tu Duc, the historical and spiritual significance of these sites represent a wealth of heritage resources that could be utilised to inform and enrich tourism experience predicated on the cultural heritage of Hue.

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Cultural Districts, Tourism and Sustainability

Giulio Maggiore[1] and Immacolata Vellecco[2]
[1]Unitelma Sapienza University
[2]Institute for Service Industry Research, National Research Council,
Italy

1. Introduction

Tourism may be an important development opportunity for many regions, especially for those who do not have a solid industrial tradition but a good amount of cultural resources. These resources, in fact, can become the key attraction on which a tourist destination may be built, setting in motion a process that can offer an important contribute to the local community's well-being. But resources are not in themselves a guarantee of success. All the most important stakeholders have to be committed to the purpose and coordinated in order to make possible the achievement of this goal. A clear and shared vision must be supported by a strong collaborative network rich in social capital.

According to this perspective, literature on destination management has flourished in the last years, drawing attention to the importance of a systemic approach to organise and promote a territory as an attractive tourist product. This approach can effectively bring to good results in terms of increase in tourist flows, with all the consequent benefits to the local economies. Nevertheless, it is not always able to ensure a sustainable development path. The emphasis on the tourist success of the destination and on the immediate economic returns to the specialized firms in the region may induce to neglect the need for an effective valorisation of cultural resources. The tendency to exploit the resources may prevail against the attention to develop their deeper potentialities.

To avoid this risk, it may be useful to employ the concept of "cultural district", where *culture* is considered a potential source of attractions for tourists as well as an opportunity to enhance local human resources and increase creativity and innovation in local production systems. Since the nineties, many studies have used this term referring to local development models based on tourism and culture, but the discussion about the nature and the characteristics of cultural districts is still ongoing. A general ambiguity characterizes the debate on the subject, as different concepts are collected under the same label, thus concurring to create a lot of misunderstanding also as far as active policies for local development are concerned.

This work aims at giving a contribution to clarify the concept of cultural district as an innovative opportunity for sustainable development, on the one hand highlighting the differences with other similar models and, on the other hand, identifying its very distinctive features. A clearer understanding of the model and of its strengths can, in fact, help to define the mechanisms of value creation that it is able to activate.

The virtuous circle of a sustainable development may, actually, be realised only on condition that culture is considered not merely as a "product" to sell, but as a synergistic agent that provides all the local industries with production systems, operational contents, management tools, creative practices, symbolism and identity. In this way, culture can offer a fundamental contribution to enhance creative potential, identity and social capital, allowing the integration between various local businesses, in order to start and carry on the development of a diversified economy in the long term.

After having explored the various implications of the peculiar way cultural district can create value and spread it over the territory, we focus on the issue of the district "creation", which is essentially the main concern for policymakers. The problem is that districts cannot be created, as they are the result of a spontaneous process where local actors progressively develop a common vision, become aware of their territorial identity and discover their mutual interdependencies. Only a full immersion of local stakeholders in the "industrial atmosphere" and the accumulation of social capital can give policymakers a concrete chance of success. On the other hand, the cultural district requires also a strong governance by an authoritative leader, able to drive the change process and create the institutional conditions to facilitate the achievement of the mission.

The final part of the work aims at exploring the delicate role of public institutions, pointing out some possible policies and actions that can be carried out in order to foster the birth of a cultural district in the territory.

2. Cultural districts as a key for local development

2.1 The concept of sustainable development

Researches related to the issue of sustainability show that sustainable development is a complex and multidimensional concept, which combines efficiency, equity and intergenerational equity. Ciegis et al. (2009) stated that economic literature offers over 100 definitions of sustainable development and cited the work of Jacobs (1995) mentioning as many as 386.

The Brundtland Commission's brief definition of sustainable development as the "ability to make development sustainable – to ensure that it meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" is surely the most famous definition.

The concept includes two goals that, despite seeming to be contradictory, have to be achieved simultaneously (Ciegis et al., 2009):

- to ensure appropriate, secure, wealth life for all people (the goal of development);
- to live and work in accordance with bio-physical limits of the environment (the goal of sustainability).

As a general concept, sustainable development encompasses three fundamental approaches: economic, environmental, and social development, which are interrelated and complementary. These three "pillars" of sustainable development were indicated in the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development, marking a further extension of the standard definition.

The economic sustainability seeks to maximize the flow of income and consumption that could be generated while, at least, maintaining the stock of assets or capital and safeguarding its optimal amount for the future generations. The environmental approach pays attention to stability of biological and physical systems. According to this approach, the task of economic development is to determine the natural systems limits for various economic activities. Socio-cultural sustainability concept reflects the interface between development and dominant social norms and strives to maintain the stability of social and cultural systems and their ability to withstand as stocks. It also implies preservation of social capital and shared global responsibility for the planet, including corporate social responsibility.

It was also noticed (Kates et al., 2005) that, in the wide debate on sustainable development, the concept maintains a creative tension between a few core principles and an openness to reinterpretation and adaptation to different social and ecological contexts. The original emphasis on economic development and environmental protection has been broadened and deepened to include alternative notions of development (human and social) and alternative views of nature (anthropocentric versus ecocentric). Indeed, nature and environment can be valued for their intrinsic value or for its utility for human beings and as a source of services for the utilitarian life support of humankind. The concept of development, originally focusing on economic activities and productive sectors providing employment, desired consumption and wealth, extended its scope to human development and included an emphasis on values and goals, such as life expectancy, education, equity and opportunity; on the value of security and well-being of national states, regions, and institutions as well as the social capital of relationships and community ties.

A further aspect has been recently introduced (Helm, 1998) that is to say, the institutional/organisational aspect, due to the importance and significance of institutions in the policy. Effective and properly functioning institutions and institutional capital are essential for sustainable development in the realisation of the social, economic and environmental aims set by society.

Sustainable development is an overarching objective of the European Union launched in the EU Sustainable Development Strategy in Gothenburg in June 2001 and reaffirmed in the Renewed Sustainable Development Strategy (SDS), in June 2006.

If tourism is adequately addressed toward the path of sustainable development, it can represent an effective chance to promote economic growth, employment, social progress, as well as the protection and enhancement of cultural and environmental heritage. In addition, ensuring the economic, social and environmental sustainability of tourism is also crucial for the continued growth, competitiveness and commercial success of the industry itself. In this regard, in the Communication Agenda for a Sustainable and Competitive European Tourism, the European Commission provided all actors with some basic guidelines to create "the right balance between the welfare of tourists, the needs of the natural and cultural environment and the development and competitiveness of destinations and businesses" (Comm, 2007, 621). A long term planning and a continuous reporting are recommended, as well as an integrated and holistic policy approach where all stakeholders share the same objectives.

As real-world experience has shown, however, achieving agreement on sustainability values, goals, and actions is often difficult and painful work, as different stakeholders values

are forced to the surface, compared and contrasted, criticized and debated (Kates et al., 2005).

2.2 The role of culture in local development

Culture may play a main role in supporting sustainable development processes, not only because it can provide some important tourist attractions which can help to enhance the competitiveness of a territory, but also because of its social implications. Indeed, cultural development is generally considered to be an essential part of social development, and cultural diversity provides sources for creative expression that are increasingly being harnessed by players in the creative industries.

One definition of "culture" given by Throsby (2001) refers to the set of attitudes, practices and beliefs that are fundamental to the functioning of different societies and groups defined in geographical, political, religious, or ethnical terms. Culture thus finds its expression in a particular society's values and customs, which evolve over time as they are transmitted from one generation to the next. Accordingly, culture is both tangible and intangible. The stock of tangible cultural capital assets consists of buildings, structures, sites and locations endowed with cultural significance and artworks and artifacts existing as private goods, such as paintings, sculptures, and other objects. Intangible cultural assets includes the set of ideas, practices, beliefs, traditions and values which serve to identify and bind a given group of people together, however the group may be determined, together with the stock of artwork existing as public goods in the public domain, such as certain instances of literature and music.

Several recent studies emphasize that the field of culture and creativity is launching a much needed boost to economic activity and employment dynamic in all advanced economies (KEA, 2006). Moreover, it seems to be at the basis of the exponential growth processes that Asian economies have being registered over the last decades (Yusuf & Nabeshima, 2005).

Research has also emphasised the potential of these industries in developing countries (UNCTAD, 2004). Creativity, more than labour and capital, or even traditional technologies, is deeply embedded in every country's cultural context. Excellence in artistic expression, abundance of talent, and openness to new influences and experimentation are not the privilege of rich countries. With effective nurturing, these sources of creativity can open up new opportunities for developing countries to increase their shares of world trade and to "leap-frog" into new areas of wealth creation. Because the marriage of technological application and intellectual capital provides the main source of wealth in this sector, continuous learning and a high degree of experimentation are key to achieving sustained and cumulative growth. This mixture can produce very fast growth.

The cultural sector is a powerful driver of development, through the attraction of businesses and talented people (Florida, 2002) . This concept focuses on a further dimension of culture, as location factor in attracting skilled and creative people and promoting social cohesion, which can stimulate or increase the dynamics of personal and business networks.

So culture makes the difference and can produce important opportunities for local development, as the cultural paradigm is the tool which re-defines the significance of place in terms of identity, territoriality and functionality (Battaglia & Tremblay, 2011). This result

can be achieved only if the territory is able to find effective forms of self-organisation which enact the virtuous circle of a local development based on cultural resources. Recent literature agrees that the model of cultural district can be a good answer to this problem.

2.3 Cultural district

Cultural district emerges as an innovative model of sustainable development where renewable resources as culture have been assigned a role in the production of income and employment. In a general meaning, cultural district is a conceptual model to build up a local development strategy based on the cultural dimension and inspired by the logic of sustainability.

Cultural district is an innovative concept for land use planning based on the set of values that characterise the local identity and transform cultural heritage into a tool for the community development, targeting decisions, planning, investments. The recognition of belonging to a specific local culture is a prerequisite to enable networks and projects, within the cultural sector, aiming to harness the potential hidden in the territory (Carta, 2002, 2004).

Culture enhancement can be driven by cultural managers in traditional ways, nevertheless contributing to creation and development of other productive activities of the cultural sector: such as research, cataloguing, custody, implementation of educational practices, exhibition activities (Valentino, 1999). In a broader sense, the enhancement of cultural resources is conceived as a tool to attract tourists in a territory and, as a consequence, to increase the demand for goods and services that caters to the local market. In this case, the enhancement process works as a policy measure; it involves a greater number of stakeholders and economic activities, but requires a context of higher quality (architectural and relating to landscape, but also social) as well as an adequate supply of hospitality services and infrastructure.

The artistic and cultural heritage is the factor of production enabling the formation of a cultural district as *High Cultural Local System* (Lazzeretti, 2001) and its enhancement is an investment to create network and learning economies. Art City is considered (Lazzeretti, 2001) as "an incubator of new entrepreneurship, as the link between economic and social community, as the connector between the different cultures " and then "as a possible form of organisation of socio-economic-territorial space within which different sectors are characterised by spatial proximity and cultural organisation of work" where research has to focus issues of governance and identify key players, measuring the density and discovering the shapes of the networks.

The identification of urban cultural district as a cluster of buildings and spaces dedicated to arts, cultural services and production of goods based on culture (Santagata, 2005) is also reflected in a large field of studies pointing on the use of artistic and cultural services to tackle the industrial and economic decline and draw a new image of a city capable of attracting visitors and leveraging on tourism to boost the local economy .

In this case, the district is also the result of an urban planning favourable to the arts and cultural activities (museums, libraries, theatres, art galleries, concert halls), enabling industrial activities based on culture (film studios, rooms music recording, television stations), as well as activities traditionally addressed to the attraction and reception of

visitors and tourists (restaurants, bars, gift shops and gift items, high quality clothing). Cultural quarters and creative quarters[1] are the product of interactions between urbanisation, culture and creativity, especially if we pay attention to the role of networking activities and clustering processes in specific urban areas. A regeneration process based on cultural quarters can be significant and has to be supported by an official objective of development, regarding social and economic concentration of actors which are interested in boosting culture and creativity, and their impact within local contexts (Landry, 2000; Santagata, 2002; Roodhouse, 2006). They increase the strategy of regeneration and renewal of complex of buildings and of depressed urban areas, supporting social inclusion and territorial cohesion as the main driving forces of socio-territorial innovation processes (Tremblay et al., 2009).

Local development arises in a new urban landscape made by powerful regional economies based on the city, where creativity and cultural production play an essential role in sustaining economic growth. Within this context, the importance of the proximity of individuals emerges, enabling the human act to produce creative thoughts and innovation (Bucci & Segre, 2009). By allowing the knowledge of one individual to spill over onto others, the productivity of the others is improved in a virtuous circle. Furthermore, the widespread diffusion of knowledge derived from knowledge spillovers enhances productivity not only among individuals working within the same sector, but also across different and sometimes apparently very distant sectors, creating a process of cross-fertilization.

The usefulness of cultural district regardless of its ability to generate profit for itself is affirmed by Sacco and Pedrini (2003), who stated that this model has value and meaning because of its ability to complement other sectors of the local system, resulting in innovative synergies otherwise unattainable. The competitive ability is linked even more to orientation towards innovation; so, culture is assuming an increasingly strategic role as a synergistic agent that provides other sectors of the production system with contents, tools, creative practices, value added in terms of symbolic value and identity. That induces many local systems to invest more heavily in offering not only culture, but also in allowing a deeper integration between culture and the various aspects of social everyday life.

Many cities have sought to create cultural districts, directed primarily at attracting suburbanites, tourists, and conventioneers. But most cities already have cultural districts, neighbourhood-based cultural clusters that have emerged without planning or massive public investment. What is more—because they are complex ecosystems that combine artistic production and consumption and a mix of institutional forms, disciplines, and sizes—they have a degree of sustainability that a planned cultural district is unlikely to

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[1] Evans (2009) suggests a classification of cultural quarters and creative quarters, defining specific features depending on an economic, a social and a cultural framework. The first type is founded on a process of local economic development with a high range of place-making branding, where the zoning and the regeneration, in terms of "culture", are key elements of orientation. These cultural quarters have a high level of historic preservation and conservation and are identified as festival and cultural centers in cultural city. The second type of creative quarter is mixed-used, with more diversity and urban design quality in terms of buildings, facilities and landscapes. They have an area of polarization and attractiveness expanded on the city-region and they are based on the knowledge economy. They produce new high-technology services, creative products as well as innovation spillovers. Often cultural and creative characteristics are present in the same creative and cultural clusters which develop a multi-dimensional identity and multi-functional uses.

match (Stern & Seifert, 2007). Recognizing the importance of natural cultural districts to the metropolitan arts world turns our understanding of cultural planning and policy on its head. The goal of policy and planning should be to nurture grass-roots districts, remove impediments that prevent them from achieving their potential, and provide the resources they need to flourish.

The identification and involvement of key stakeholders was also identified as pivotal; consensus-based decision making importance has been widely recognised also in the tourism literature (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Jamal & Getz, 1995) as well as the role of information sharing for the attainment of both short and long term objectives.

Anyway, the concept of cultural district is very wide and ambiguous, as it covers a wide range of different meanings which reflects its multidisciplinary origins and its heterogeneous practical applications. A possible classification distinguishes five typologies based on the different cultural resources which play the focus role within the district (Santagata, 2005):

- industrial cultural districts of material culture, based on the production of goods and services of material culture, enhanced through a wise use of institutional rules;
- museum cultural systems, usually located in the historical urban downtown and based on a process of urban planning act to enhance the artistic and historical heritage by using an innovative network capable of producing a very strong collective image (brand);
- tourist cultural districts, characterised by the supply of traditional cultural services (heritage, folklore, museums, spas), a high concentration of hotels and hospitality-related activities and a local production of craft art and material culture;
- cultural heritage systems, taking the form of a circuit or network that connects individual sites or monuments, characterised by a common identity, reinforced by the production of collective services;
- urban cultural districts, also known as "American Cultural Districts", that is to say a cluster of buildings and spaces dedicated to arts, cultural services and the production of goods based on culture, aiming at revitalizing declining urban areas by developing artistic and cultural services.

This distinction shows that the term "cultural district" in a broad sense may become an "umbrella expression" where many different kinds of local clusters of organisations can be included, from the classical industrial district up to the more recent forms of metropolitan quarters. This "ecumenical" approach can belittle the interpretative value of the concept of cultural district, as "in the night all cows are black".

A narrower definition of the concept, which emphasises its differences with the other kinds of districts (specifically industrial and tourist districts) may help to highlight its peculiar characteristics that make it an innovative model capable of showing new and original development opportunities.

3. Similarities and differences among cultural, industrial and tourist districts

The term "district" is a very fashionable label used to categorise several successful economic experiences based on the aggregation of many small enterprises sharing the same geographical space of action. The expression "industrial district" - first used by Alfred

Marshall in his *Principles of Economics* (original edition in 1890) – was rediscovered by Italian industrial economists in the 1980s to explain the success of Italian SMEs located in some dynamic regions in the North of the country (Becattini, 1987, 1989; Bellandi, 1982, Dei Ottati, 1986; Brusco, 1989). The district model perspective outlined the importance of intangible values, such as "industrial atmosphere" or tacit knowledge sharing, as key factors to foster the competitiveness of all the companies included in the local cluster. This became a model even for other countries, to find an alternative to the tradition of Fordism and mass-production (Piore & Sabel, 1984).

Despite the fact that globalisation has recently cast many doubts on the fitness of the model for the new challenges of international competition (Varaldo, 2004), the success of the term has been proven by its diffusion in other economic industries and contexts, so that now we have "technological districts", "tourist districts" and "cultural districts", just to mention the more common labels derived from the original conception of "industrial districts". In fact, the semantic ambiguity caused by the abuse of this terminology is very high, as the same words are often applied to describe very different conditions.

We have just described the large variety of different theoretical understandings of the concept of "cultural districts" and we can say that the situation is not less intricate with regard to the other typologies. Nevertheless, it is possible to point out some features of these models which can contribute to a clearer definition of the peculiarities of each of them. In particular, the concept of "cultural district" may be enlightened by a comparison with the other closest ones, that are those of "industrial" and "tourist" districts[2]. This comparison does not aim to entrap the theoretical fluidity of this issue into a rigid framework; on the contrary, the purpose is to use some ideas commonly shared by scholars in order to reduce the space of ambiguity and gain a better understanding of the phenomenon.

The features common to the three models, which justify the use of the same label of "district", are those referable to the Marshallian theory (Belussi, Caldari, 2009) which represents the main reference for the majority of scholars in the field. These factors allow the network externalities which are the main distinctive characteristics of districts:

- the role of "industrial atmosphere" as a cultural glue, able to put together the economic and social actors of the local community;
- the presence of a qualified and specialized workforce;
- the free circulation of tacit knowledge;

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[2] The explicit reference to the concept of "district" within tourism industry has been introduced by Santarelli (1995), who used it to describe the specific situation of the Adriatic Coast of Romagna and Marche. Antonioli Corigliano (1999) applied the concept to food and wine tourism, where the boundary between tourism and manufacturing activities appears, moreover, particularly ambiguous. In 2001, then, ACI-Censis study has provided a systematic mapping of the Italian "tourist districts" (ACI-Censis, 2001). The term district is present in Anglo-Saxon literature (Stansfield & Rickert, 1970; Judd, 1993; Pearce, 1998), but generally refers to a neighborhood of a metropolitan area (*urban district*) in a different meaning from that used in most of Italian literature, where the regional scope is much broader and refers to the concept of a tourist destination. Other similar territorial models of systemic approaches applied to the tourist industry are that of *tourist milieu* (Michalkó & Rátz, 2008), deriving from the French and Swiss literature, or that of *tourist cluster* (Gordon, Goodall, 2000; Van Den Berg et al., 2001; Svensson et al., 2006), inspired by Porter's work (1998).

- the sharing of common values;
- the proximity of complementary companies;
- the mutual trust among local people.

If these factors are common to every kind of district, it may be useful to distinguish other features among the three typologies we are comparing. These are:

- the "*catalyst*" *of the district*, that is the component capable of activating local resources, combining them with each other in such a way as to make possible the development of the network externalities which, as we have seen, are the lifeblood of any district;
- the *role played by territory*, that can be expressed with a "metaphor" in order to synthesize its function towards the district;
- the "*mission*" *of the district*, that is the reason why it exists, according to the point of view of its economic actors;
- the *model of governance*, that is the mix of solutions adopted to coordinate the strategies and the actions of the local actors.

It is possible to point out the differences among industrial districts, tourist districts and cultural districts by focusing on these four features.

3.1 Industrial district

In the case of industrial districts, the role of **catalyst** is played by a specific manufacturing activity in which local businesses develop a meaningful and productive specialisation. It becomes increasingly part of a tradition that involves all local stakeholders: firms, public institutions, non-profit organisations, training agencies, professionals, individual residents. Everyone contributes to consolidate and develop the system of skills, facilities, infrastructures which innervate the district, determining its identity. In this case **territory** is experienced as a "factory", an open and fragmented space, where production lines are replaced by a network of small and independent businesses, while many small firms, serviced by a few skilled workers, take the place of crowded manufacturing plants. This perspective reflects the thought of Marshall, who theorized the district as a mode of organising production alternative to the large enterprise, where network externalities are used to compensate for the loss of economies of scale.

The *mission* of the district is the competitiveness of local enterprises, which is pursued through different levels of awareness by the various stakeholders acting in the system. Entrepreneurs aim to reinforce the competitiveness of their own enterprises, but the mutual interdependencies existing within the network make it clear that each firm can be more competitive only if the same happens to the other complementary firms belonging to the same district. The same can be said even for other stakeholders, such as public institutions, educational organisations or nonprofit associations, which tend to give a particular attention to the needs and requirements expressed by local enterprises, as they know that the well-being of the local community depends on the success of the industrial district. The system relies on the action of an "invisible hand" that binds individual to collective interests into a unique network of interdependencies.

The *model of governance* of the industrial districts is generally based on a tendency to spontaneous coordination, typical of polycentric networks lacking in a leader subject.

Informal relationships and rules, often implicit, ensure the proper functioning of the system[3]. Even if there is the emergence of a leader - usually a more dynamic and competitive enterprise - the district still tends to rely on traditional spontaneous coordination mechanisms (Lazerson & Lorenzoni, 1999), while local institutions tend to have a secondary role, aiming at facilitating the dynamics of the district rather than driving them, according to a model of "heterarchical" governance (Sacchetti & Tomlinson, 2009).

3.2 Tourist district

In the tourist districts the role of *catalyst* is carried out by "destination", where this term is intended to mean more than territory itself[4]. The destination is, in fact, a physical space, but also a "mental space", which corresponds to the image of the area as perceived by its stakeholders (first of all, the visitors, but also all the operators and the residents themselves). The perceived image of the destination becomes the point of reference for the efforts of the actors in the district, all committed to consolidating and fostering this perception. So, for instance, if the cultural district has taken root, all restaurateurs, hoteliers and operators will adopt behaviors and attitudes consistent with the destination image, aware that the success of their companies depends on that of the whole territory.

Here *territory* acquires the connotations of "product", as it is not only the location where the production is organised, but also the heart of the supply system. While in the industrial districts territory is just a place of production, ignored by the majority of those who use the manufactured goods produced in that place, in tourist district there is the physical and temporal coincidence of production and consumption. Thus, territory changes its function: consumers become part of the system and play a main role within the process of integration which produces the network externalities. Territory is not a simple back-office for production activities, but the focal point where the "moment of truth" takes shape (Normann, 1984), thus becoming the core issue for the destination marketing mix.

Therefore, the *mission* of tourist district is the increase in the flow of tourists, which is the vital condition of any possible development process. All the stakeholders in the territory are, in fact, focused on providing services which can enhance the capacity to satisfy the tourist demand. Everyone is important, as the overall experience of a visitor is determined by the combination of a large amount of little events occurring during the visit. Everybody and every situation he meets during his experience, may offer a positive or negative contribution to his perception, influencing his level of customer satisfaction. The stakeholders must cooperate to deliver an effective response to user requests, even sacrificing their immediate interests to contribute to the overall competitiveness of the destination. This is the only effective way to guarantee the attractiveness of the territory in order to increase the tourist traffic, with clear benefits for the local economic system.

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[3] Even Marshall in his first conceptualization stresses the importance of time for the spontaneous development of a district, a place where "the mysteries of the trade become no mysteries; but are as it were in the air, and children learn many of them unconsciously"(Marshall, 1920, p. 271). Only time may contribute to the birth of a district, while planning intentions cannot play a key role.

[4] Literature on touristic districts is strictly connected to the mainstream of Destination Management (DM), flourished in the 1990s (Ritchie, 1993; Buhalis, 2000).

Concerning the need for coordination, it is adopted a *model of governance* based on the leadership of a subject which assumes the responsibility of guiding the system, as the "product territory" must be organised and put at the center of an effective marketing mix, oriented to the expectations of a well-defined target market. This role of leadership can be taken by public or private bodies, including aggregations of operators, as in the case of consortia. The leader which acts as a "Destination Management Organisation" (DMO) can have a more or less strong relationship with other subjects of the territory, according to different contexts and institutional arrangements that define specific powers, responsibilities and limits of delegation. Usually the effectiveness of a DMO's action depends on its legitimacy: if it is accepted by the majority of the local community members, it can do a good work. Otherwise, its efforts risk to be vain, as demonstrated by the failure of the attempts to impose a subject intended to fill this role, without creating the conditions to sustain its legitimacy.

3.3 Cultural district

In cultural districts the *catalyst* of local development processes is "culture" itself. The enhancement of local cultural resources are considered as a basic element of any dynamic evolution of the territory, while the success of local industries and tourist activities may be seen as a possible consequence of culture. The difference may seem very blurred in practice, but it has a decisive impact on the criteria adopted to establish priorities and define economic policies. Putting culture at the heart of the development model means accepting that times are those of culture, rooted in past centuries, with processes of change which can take decades to achieve visible results. It also means not to focus on a single aspect that reveals a side of that specific culture (a product or a tourist attraction), but try to get all the possible dimensions, exploring new fields of application and new forms of cultural manifestations. It is much more than just exploiting local resources: it deals with using culture as a great opportunity to support durable and sustainable process of growth, which combines economic, social and environmental benefits.

The role of *territory* may be effectively expressed with the metaphor of "source". Indeed, it is not just a region fit for a particular industry or a destination for incoming tourists, but a source of values and opportunities that can foster different developmental processes. The fundamental difference is that a dynamic view prevails, where territory is not only a physical place, but a "space of possibilities", which can evolve in multiple directions depending on a dialectical relationship with the people who inhabit it. Success depends on the richness and abundance of "source territory", but also on the ability to address the potential energy residing in the cultural resources towards effective purposes, by activating virtuous circles in the local social system.

In this context, the *mission* of the district is the increase in value of cultural resources, where the expression "increase in value" should be considered as something more complex than just using tourist attractions to generate touristic flows (as in tourist districts) or leveraging local competences to support competitive enterprises (as in industrial districts). It is, instead, a process that can include all these factors, but it can and should go much further, up to promote indirect effects, involving the activation of creative resources of the territory and, generally speaking, determining rise in quality of life.

In cultural districts the *model of governance* is generally "hybrid", as different conditions and styles of leadership coexist. The resources to be involved in the development process are, in fact, usually managed by different parties, in both the public and the private sector. On the public side, there is often a mix of overlapping responsibilities involving different authorities with territorial or specialised competences, often in a conflictual relationship, as they pursue different objectives (local development, protection and conservation, promotion, etc.). On the private side, there are different organisations, belonging to the profit or nonprofit sector, which give contributions to local culture and have a specific interest in taking part to the decision-making process. This situation requires the recourse to models of "public governance", where the institutions are called to trigger a virtuous relationship with other regional actors, overcoming the reasons for conflict and enhancing the initiatives to meet the expectations of all the stakeholders involved.

3.4 The originality of cultural districts

The proposed considerations allow us to draw an overall picture, sketching a conceptual positioning map of the three models, where the cultural district seems to be located in an intermediate position between the industrial district and tourist district (Fig. 1).
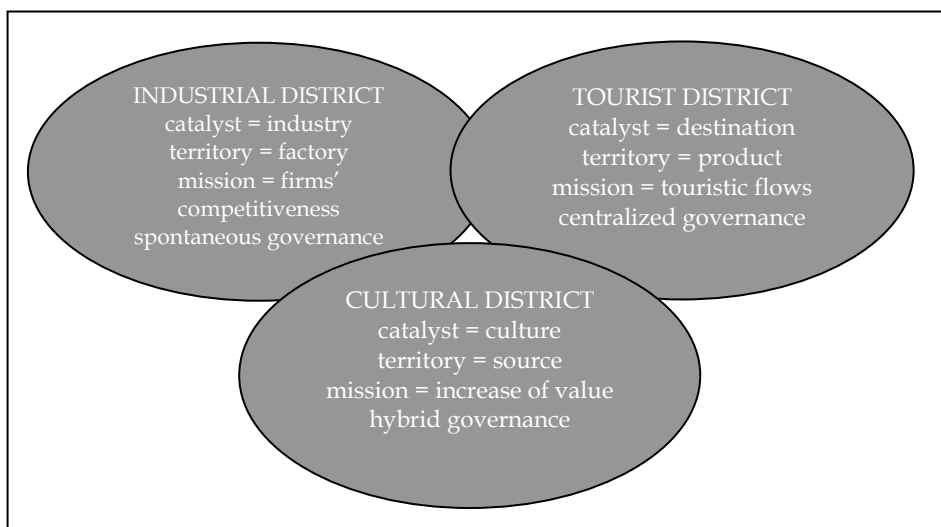
Fig. 1. Conceptual positioning of the models of industrial, tourist and cultural districts

While the latter, in fact, reveal a clearer identity , which emerges from the different focus in terms of catalyst, vocation of the territory, mission and governance models, cultural district seems to be characterised by a more nuanced profile, consisting of elements drawn from both, in varying combinations, which may reflect the peculiarities of the territories. In some cases, the district may take cultural characteristics closer to those typical of the industrial district, as happens for the "material cultures of the districts", while, in other cases, it will tend to converge toward the model of the tourist districts, when it is developed around highly attractive resources (Santagata, 2005).

This ambivalence does not mean that cultural district is just a "variant" of the other two models, without a specific identity: in this case, it could be considered as an unnecessary complication, which adds little to the understanding of the phenomenon. On the contrary, it has a specific profile that can be effectively outlined through the reference to the central role of culture as a catalyst of the local system. Culture is more important than immediate industrial or touristic success of the territory, as local stakeholders accept to invest on an intangible asset which can become a source of opportunities in the medium term. To escape the risk of trivializing the concept and emphasise its full sense of originality, some authors have added the word "evolved" after "cultural district", marking thus a clear distance from those who tend to provide a narrower perspective (Sacco & Pedrini, 2003).

According to this view, cultural district is an original socio-economic model for local development which shares some elements with the other two types of districts (industrial atmosphere, informal relations between SMEs, spontaneous circulation of knowledge, sharing of values rooted in the territory, etc..), but, at the same time, it is based on a different vision about the process of value creation related to the resources of territory. The basic assumption of the model is, in fact, that the value generated by the local "cultural resources" is not only connected to their immediate economic impact originated by the local typical product sold or by the money spent by tourists during their visits, as there are other sources of value, connected to possible derivates of culture, such as individual liberty, innovation, creativity or quality of life, which can support processes of growth perhaps less fast but usually more sustainable.

4. The process of value creation based on cultural resources

The analysis of the dynamics of value creation based on cultural resources allows us to fully understand the specific features of cultural district model , as described in this work. In particular, it can help to highlight the differences with respect to the model of the tourist district, which is the main point of comparison, given that we intend to evaluate the contribution that cultural district can offer to a perspective of sustainable tourism.

To fully understand the dynamics of economic and social characteristics of cultural district, it is necessary to grasp the relationship existing between culture and value in all its nuances: this is a complex time and space relationship that takes years to express its most significant effects, often escaping attempts to quantify them.

The first factor of complexity is, of course, the fact that institutions and cultural activities have direct impacts at different levels: cultural, social, economic, fiscal, employment, environmental, real estate. As a result, to evaluate the effects of a resource or initiative in the field of culture, we should provide ourselves with different interpretations and tools, capable of measuring the effects in all the fields, even in contexts where it is difficult and questionable any attempt to quantify.

Moreover, it should not be overlooked that very different economic activities can be considered as "cultural", from the organisation of a music festival to the management of an archaeological site or a museum, from the provision of tourist routes to the preparation of a library, up to the staging of theater shows. It is obvious, as each type of cultural activity can generate different dynamics of value creation.

However, the typical perspective of cultural districts, which tends to a comprehensive interpretation of cultural resources and territory, highlights the limitations of a reductive approach, focused on the analysis of economic flows that relate to an individual asset or a single cultural initiative. Instead, it appears better to expand the scope of the analysis, by adopting a broader concept of "economic impact", which - going beyond the boundaries of the individual organisation or initiative - extends to all the economic effects arising from the presence of a group of sectors, companies or cultural institutions. In the latter sense, the focus of the analysis is mainly on the quantification of the "contribution" rather than the quantification of the "'impact" of culture in terms of production, employment, exports, etc. (Throsby, 2004).

A large literature has analysed the economic impact assessment produced by cultural heritage in a specific territory, pointing out four main effects:

- the generation of permanent (i.e. museums) or temporary (i.e. exhibitions and festivals) employment;
- the generation of revenue for companies belonging to the supply chain of services related to culture and heritage (protection, conservation, fruition) and for their suppliers of products and services (office furniture, security devices, hardware, software, storage products, construction materials and services, audio guides, merchandising, etc.).
- the attraction of tourism-related institutional initiatives and other cultural activities, which may function as attractions in themselves, calling tourists even during the low season and improving the image of the territory;
- the attraction of public investment, due to the presence of significant cultural resources that gain more attention from policymakers, encouraging the concentration in the territory of funding for the creation of infrastructure and the start of local development projects, with benefits disseminated to all stakeholders.

If we limit the analysis to economic effects, generally there are three levels of impact[5]: those of *direct spending*, *indirect spending* and *induced spending*. This is the basis for the assessment of the value created by culture, but it is not enough. Actually, if we completely accept the perspective of cultural district in its "evolved" meaning, we should also focus on the size of the social impacts of cultural activities, which do not produce immediate economic results, but can trigger processes for development in the medium to long term and make a most significant contribution to lasting value creation.

Many are, in fact, the non-economic benefits linked to the cultural heritage of a territory: the education of young people, the strengthening of the identity processes, the inclusion of disadvantaged social groups or minorities and immigrants, the development of a culture tolerance and human dignity based on the knowledge and protection of cultural diversity (EU, 2007). Culture is also a means of social re-integration or inclusion, because it gives people the opportunity to initiate and carry out their new projects and acquire new skills

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[5] Even this distinction is characterized by a large ambiguity: in fact, numerous studies, especially abroad, have given rise to a variety of models and estimation procedures, which do not always agree on the definition of the types of expenditure. For instance, it has been pointed out how it should be considered separately in the analysis the expenditure made by visitors from that sustained by the organisers (IReR, 2006, pag. 35).

that restore confidence and self-esteem. Culture nourishes the human personality; it is the basis of educational processes and enriches the endowment - concepts, images, information, emotions - available to individual and community, thus facilitating reasoning, logic and semantic associations, analogies and contamination and providing people with more opportunities and a general ability to find solutions to problems as well as a flexible attitude in dealing with the "new".

These processes enacted by culture can create value for individuals, organisations and territories, due to the virtuous interactive connections which can be established between culture and creativity. The impact of culture on creativity and, indirectly, on the potential of economic and social innovation of a local community has been explored by recent studies which have highlighted all its many implications (KEA, 2009). According to these studies, culture can offer a crucial contribution to the development of new products and services, (including public services), driving technological innovation, stimulating research, optimising human resources, branding and communicating values, inspiring people to learn and building communities[6]. In other words, it is a key resource for the competitiveness of a territory. Furthermore, the presence of cultural amenities can contribute to attract creative talents, who, once gathered in a specific place, will create synergies and fruitful collaborations, thereby fostering further creativity (Florida, 2002).

In order to reflect this important opportunity of value creation specific to cultural district, the analysis of economic impact must go beyond the levels associated with the direct, indirect and induced effects, typically considered in the literature, to embrace an additional "layer" of benefits, which reflects the process of development of the area triggered by cultural resources through the power of creative potential, local identity and social capital. This fourth level of economic impact can be described as the "spread value ". It is very difficult to detect immediately, as it does not generate clearly identifiable expenses as economic benefits for local actors, but it builds up through long-term processes, gradually spreading and consolidating in the territory, turning out to be a decisive asset for local development opportunities (Fig. 2).

The focus on the "spread value" is decisive to understand the prescriptive relevance of cultural district model, whose utility relies on its capacity to "use" culture as an opportunity to produce development. Usually, investments on culture cannot be justified by their immediate economic returns, but the consideration on the "spread value" of culture may change the perspective, as it could prove that this kind of investments is affordable even according to an economic rationale, at least in a long-term view.

This is particularly true if we consider the purpose of sustainability with regard to tourist destinations. An excessive emphasis on the immediate economic returns connected to the first three layers of the value creation model may induce to stimulate flows of visitors even by exploiting local cultural resources. These are perceived as mere attractors of tourist

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[6] "Culture-based creativity is an essential feature of a post-industrial economy. A firm needs more than an efficient manufacturing process, cost-control and a good technological base to remain competitive. It also requires a strong brand, motivated staff and a management that respects creativity and understands its process. It also needs the development of products and services that meet citizens' expectations or that create these expectations. Culture-based creativity can be very helpful in this respect" (KEA, 2009, p. 5).

interests and not as sources of creativity which must be integrated in complex processes of interaction with the local community to unveil all their potential of "spread" value creation. Consequently, they are treated as dead objects that belong to the past and are presented to visitors as a quality pieces of an "open air" museum, which have nothing to do with the present or with the future. This approach may produce good outcomes in the short, as the local community may take advantage of the economic effects of tourist flows, but it can be very risky in the long term, as the cultural assets of the region are not renewed and may be reduced by an excessive exploitation.
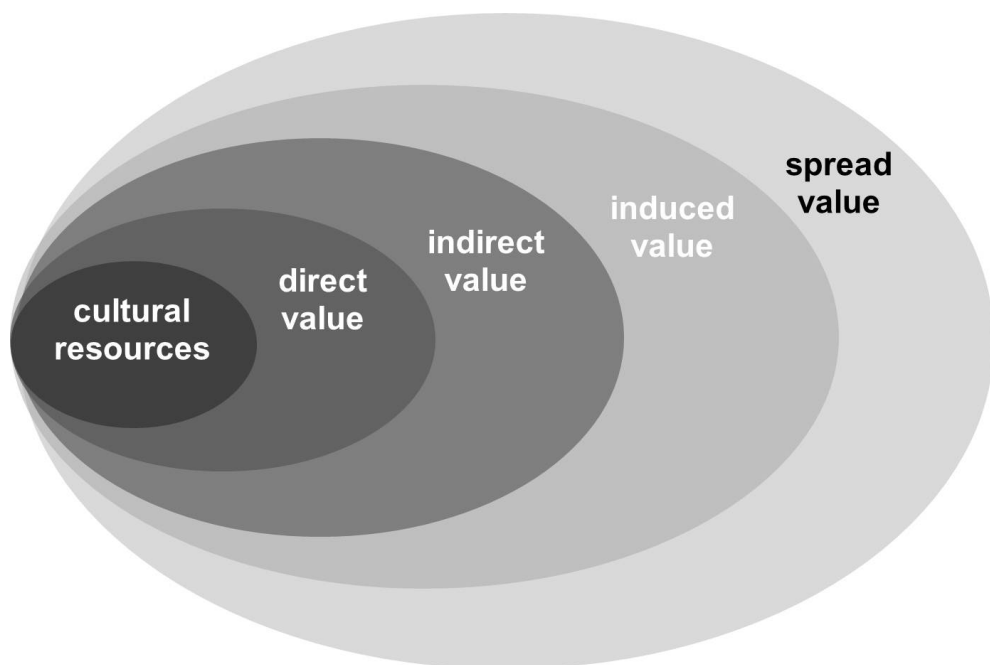
Fig. 2. The process of value creation enacted by cultural resources

The model of cultural district suggests a very different way to draw development paths based on the resources of the territory. It considers culture as a vital value, which must be put in the center of social and economic processes, but not just as a tourist attraction. It has to become much more: a real engine for local society, capable to mobilize the best energies of the community in order to support a sustainable development process. Tourists are important, but citizens too. Culture is a "stock" of historical resources accumulated in the past centuries, but it is also a "flow" of new resources which can become tomorrow's stock.

5. Creating a cultural district: The requirements puzzle

Even if you agree with the idea that cultural districts may represent a useful chance to support sustainable and durable development, especially in areas that are poor in terms of economic resources but rich in terms of cultural heritage, nevertheless the passage from this belief to the effective "creation" of a cultural district is not an easy step. As a matter of fact, it

requires a long term perspective and a strong commitment of all the main stakeholders in the territory, but the most complex issue is the search for a balanced mix between top-down planning and bottom-up spontaneous inventiveness. As stated before, the development of a cultural district requires a "hybrid governance", where a clear vision of a leader, responsible for planning, coordinating, stirring the local initiatives within a coherent framework, must coexist with a pluralistic and unstructured network of projects and casual actions, activated by local stakeholders.

Top-down programs aimed at creating districts where the "ground" is not ready have no hope of success, as well as the expectation of a completely spontaneous development, which may turn out to be a frustrating experience. A cultural district may emerge only from a process where an inspired strategy meets the interests and intentions of the most significant actors of the local community, planting its roots in a solid background of traditions and cultural assets. Therefore, those public administrators committed to the start-up of an experiment on a cultural district must focus their attention on facilitating the conditions for its development rather than on wasting time in accurate planning efforts which leave the community out.

Local policies should try to create these conditions which compose the ideal "humus" for the development of a cultural district. Sacco and Ferilli (2006) identify ten of these policies (which are also functional characteristics of the system): 1) Quality of the cultural offer; 2) Capacitation and training of the local community; 3) Entrepreneurial development; 4) Attraction of external companies; 5) Attraction of talent (artists and intellectuals); 6) Management of social and marginalization problems ; 7) Development of local talent; 8) Participation of citizens and local community; 9) Quality of local governance; 10) Quality of knowledge production. It is a good - even though not exhaustive - list of ingredients but not an ultimate recipe, as an ultimate recipe does not exist. Actually, every policy must be driven by a deep knowledge of the specific territory and of the dynamics which can help to convert cultural assets into creative processes in order to support sustainable development.

In a general vision of the functioning of cultural districts, the creative value chain starts from the cultural and artistic dimension and, then, drives economic systems into the field of applied research and creative production. Within this context, the pure cultural artistic dimension of the district and the creativity diffusion process which arises from it represent the key explaining factors of culture-led economic development. An effective strategy has to encourage investment in human and financial resources to prepare individuals to meet the challenges of the rapidly evolving post-industrial, knowledge-based economy and society. At the heart of this effort there is the identification of the vital linkage between art, culture and economic systems: the diffusion of knowledge is greatly influenced by cultural production, which originates in socially and economically embedded creative processes.

Some key elements are considered as fundamental to activate development dynamics:

- research and discovery of a shared social identity based on culture;
- production of innovation, knowledge and human capital through educational experiences, formal and informal networks, projects;
- dissemination of knowledge and cross-fertilization among productive sectors, in order to develop diversified economic activities and generation of new entrepreneurship;
- a view of the development of the territory as the ability to reach sustainable economic and social performances;

- strategic planning, with a strong involvement of local stakeholders.

The common cultural identity becomes the prerequisite for building specific development strategies for the territory based on the cultural dimension and inspired by the logic of sustainability. Social identity is one of the positive externalities associated with the processes of valorisation of cultural heritage, together with the production of research, innovation and knowledge which, if exploited in the area, through appropriate scale integration processes, increase the value produced by the region.

The enhancement of cultural assets targeting local stakeholders enables the recognition and strengthening of the local cultural identity. This is a set of values to rediscover and strengthen: they are related to the structure and features of the tangible and intangible cultural heritage and they also depend on social traits of identity, in terms of participation and empowerment of the community as well as educational experiences, information networks, sustainable development demands: the district is, therefore, the "future project" the local community aims to achieve by policy makers.

Local networks are unanimously recognized as a basic element and condition of possibility for the realization of the effective district, even when the main factor of production is culture that generates new business through the activation of productive connections among the economic actors. Districts as clusters are obviously studied for different purposes and by means of different methods in respect to districts as projects for local development; therefore, networking measures can be used as a proxy of the degree of consolidation and strengthening of a district.

Tourism flows are also a proxy of level of development as well as of sustainability, but the management of tourist flows is, in many cases, a completely different issue, which concerns the protection of natural and cultural resources by human impacts, eventually too hard or too concentrated in time.

The concept of value chain of cultural heritage is sometimes used to identify actions creating a stronger integration between the production processes of different firms and economic activities, paying attention to the constraint of ensuring the necessary economies of scale to ancillary industries and a demand for their products.

Although the enhancement of cultural resources presents enormous potential for local development, some areas are struggling to obtain significant results, in spite of substantial investment and it is necessary to focus further on the other elements useful to understand the reason of it. Regional development policies may implement measures that are mainly focused on enhancing the attractiveness of local culture for tourism. A limited effectiveness can be caused not only by the management of cultural resources, but also by the difficulty in optimising the other elements of the tourism product provided by the destination (accessibility services, accommodation, catering), their quality levels or, still, the aspects related to their communication. Conversely, all the components and cultural attractions of the area should be integrated within a distinctive image of the tourist destination, properly passed through traditional and innovative marketing channels.

In addition, although cultural tourism is considered a phenomenon that will grow strongly in coming years, tourists are always more demanding and paying attention to the continuous renewal of cultural activities and events through which destinations seek to

sustain competitiveness. They are also sensitive to the sustainable management of territories and of natural environment, as well as to authenticity and creativity in tourism experiences (Richards & Wilson, 2006). In this view, the availability of cultural resources is not the only determinant for the success of the destination; the originality of the mixture of cultural resources, the ability to continually renew the cultural program, and appropriate targeting and communication give destination a lasting competitive advantage. It is, in short, the ability to link cultural heritage to cultural industries that allows usable and marketable production, new wealth and job creation. New business initiatives can start-up, based on a creative use of culture and heritage embedded in the historical, artistic and human resources.

Furthermore, culture is a cross-functional input to all productive sectors - like research and information technology - and the pattern of penetration is not predictable a priori. Therefore, the more cultural marketing actions target the residents rather than tourists, the more they represent a long-term investment rather than a quick return promotion of the territory. Nevertheless, the conditions for sustainable development accrue, depending on collective learning, inter-generational transfer of skills and generation of new businesses as innovative cultural experiences.

The high levels of uncertainty that firms producing cultural products typically face in final markets accentuate the network or transactions-intensive character of production, as uncertainty tends to induce high levels of vertical disintegration as a way of reducing intrafirm misallocation of resources (Scott, 2006). Anywhere, there is "little or no room in the analysis … for claims that advanced forms of creativity in cities can be induced simply by making them attractive on the consumption side for individuals with high levels of educational attainment and "talent". Such individuals are incontestably necessary for the effective functioning of creative cities in the modern era, but they by no means represent a full set of sufficient conditions as well. Creativity and its specific forms of expression in any given city are induced in complex socio-spatial relationships constituting the local creative field, which in turn is centrally rooted in the production, employment, and local labour market dynamics" (Scott, 2010).

Building cultural entrepreneurship has the advantage of captured local markets, but it must also be outward-looking, both regionally and globally (UNCTAD 2004). Specific attention has to be paid to the identification and involvement of key stakeholders; although legitimate stakeholders having the right to be involved in a collaboration "must also have the resources and skills (capacity) needed to participate" (Jamal & Getz, 1995, p. 194), the enrolment process should be broad-based, to include all possible categories of stakeholders, but mediated through institutional representatives (e.g. trade and industry associations, mayors of local municipalities, cultural bodies) and fact-building, showing the potential benefits for each stakeholder as well as threats and weakness discouraging unrealistic expectations (Arnaboldi & Spiller, 2011).

6. Conclusion

Cultural district emerges as an innovative model for local development, with a precise conceptual and practical identity, well distinct from other similar forms of territorial clusters which share the same label of "district", such as industrial or tourist districts.

This work highlights why the peculiarities of this model – culture as a catalyst of local resources, territory as a source of creativity, a mission focused on increase of values and cultural assets, a hybrid governance which combines centralized and spontaneous coordination – are distinctive elements that can become key factors in supporting a long term process of sustainable development. In particular, it may be stressed the central role played by culture as the trigger of a virtuous circle which can produce creativity-based innovation and "spread value" for all the stakeholders.

This emphasis on culture overshadows other important purposes in local development, such as the commercial success of local companies or the increase in touristic flows. These are considered as natural outcomes of a successful cultural district, but not as its priorities, as the basic idea is that cultural resources are the heart of the system: a heart that pumps blood throughout the territory, ensuring its survival and growth. This approach requires a long time to express all its potential, but has the indisputable advantage of ensuring the best conditions for a durable and sustainable development, which combines economic and social well-being with environmental protection.

In this sense, the model of cultural district seems to be an ideal solution, particularly fitting for those regions where a rich endowment of cultural resources goes with a lack of business ventures. The problem is that the creation of a cultural district is very awkward, due to the fact that cultural district cannot be "created". They can only emerge as a match between a wise top-down strategy inspired by a long term vision and the bottom-up inventiveness of local stakeholders, which both must found their action on the cultural assets of the territory.

Policymakers should, therefore, avoid the excess of planning which often distinguishes their work and try to take on a less assertive methodology, more respectful of the local community. In this effort they could be inspired by recent theories of strategic management, which have given up the myth of strategic planning, accepting the idea that the formalisation of strategy is a sense-making event that helps to rationalize past decisions, where emergent actions prevail on deliberate intentions (Mintzberg & Waters, 1985). Another good input that policymakers can draw from strategic management theories is the focus on resources and capabilities rather than on abstract plans. Since the 1980s a wide literature on resource-based view (Wernerfelt, 1984; Rumelt, 1984; Barney, 1991) has assumed that the basis for a competitive advantage of a firm lies primarily on the application of the bundle of valuable resources at the firm's disposal, while most recent studies (Teece et al., 1997; Teece, 2007) have pointed out that in a rapidly changing environment the durable success of a firm depends on its dynamic capabilities, that is "the capacity of an organization to purposefully create, extend, or modify its resource base (Helfat et al., 2007). If this is true for firms where hierarchy can ensure a stricter coordination among people, it is much more appropriate for territories where competitive processes are managed by complex networks of independent and heterogeneous organisations.

A strategic plan can never be imposed to a territory as a top-down decision. Policymakers have to understand that a path of sustainable development cannot be the fruit of a wishful desk work that brings into being an abstract design of the future of their territories. They have to carry on a long-term process driven by a strong vision to consolidate and increase the key resources of their region, those which can sustain their competitive advantage,

starting from the building of a clear community identity and a solid social capital, the two main components of successful cultural district, together with some distinctive cultural assets. They must create the best conditions to enact the virtuous circle which links together culture, creativity and innovation, as this "circle" will also ensure the development of those dynamic capabilities which can maintain the competitiveness of a territory along time. A region where culture is the lifeblood of the local community will, in fact, be ready to "sense" and "seize" the best opportunities, addressing a continuous "transformation" process in order to keep a strong stock of competitive resources[7]. Creativity and innovation will be a stable attitude within all the district, so that everybody will give a contribution to sustain and renew the overall competitiveness of the system.

The development of effective conceptual models and useful management tools that can help policymakers to interpret the dynamics of the process of generation and functioning of a cultural district may be a challenge for practitioners but also for future research. Actually, if the first aim of policies must be the "facilitation" of these process, the decision-makers cannot face such a task without a deep understanding of the phenomenon, which is not yet provided by present theories.

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[7] In Teece's theoretical model, sensing, seizing and transforming are actually the three fundaments of dynamic capabilities, which can allow a firm to develop and consolidate its resource base (Teece, 2007). Of course, this approach may be extended to the territorial strategy too.

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The Bottom-Up Approach of Community-Based Ethnic Tourism: A Case Study in Chiang Rai

Polladach Theerapappisit*

School of Social Sciences and Psychology, University of Western Sydney
Australia

1. Introduction

This chapter introduces the concept of community-based tourism, as a part of economic development plans in Thailand. It presents alternative tourism experiences initiated by an ethnic minority community and a non-government organization in the Northern Province of Chiang Rai. The discussion focuses on the dynamic experiences of tourism and factors in a 'bottom-up' planning approach towards desirable development outcomes. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the future implications of the implementation of the approach upon tourism policy involving ethnic minority communities applied beyond a single destination community.

1.1 Community development towards sustainable tourism

The concept of sustainable tourism has complex origins and can be interpreted somewhat differently in different cases and locations. The World Tourism Organization (WTO) defines sustainable tourism development (STD) as a broad concept involving fulfilment of economic, social and aesthetic needs while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems (Inskeep, 1998, p. 21).

Inskeep (1991, p. xviii) defines STD as being rooted in the sustainable development paradigm. He suggests that the sustainable community development approach can be applied to any scale of tourism development from large resorts to limited-size, special-interest tourism facilities. He believes that sustainability depends on how well the planning is formulated relative to the specific characteristics of an area's environment, economy and society, and on the effectiveness of implementation of plans and continuous management of tourism resources. Butler provides a comprehensive definition of sustainable community development in the context of tourism:

> "…*tourism which is developed and maintained in an area (community, environment) in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment (human and physical) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well-being of their activities and processes.*" (Butler, 1993, p. 29)

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* Corresponding Author

Finding a balance between the use of resources required for tourism development and preservation of those resources at tourism destinations is always very difficult when the goal is ethical and sustainable community development. In other words, trade-offs between the tourism industry and other groups of stakeholders, such as the people living in destination communities, are issues that have been discussed.

This debate requires some critical questions to be answered, including what is to be the top priority in implementation of policies. Choices range from conservation of natural and cultural heritage resources to economic development of tourism facilities and activities. In addition, there is the issue of what groups of people should be involved in the policymaking processes. These can sometimes appear to be intractable questions for public policymakers and tourism planners who are attempting to find desirable common interests of all parties such as tourists, local residents, tour operators, developers and government agencies.

Richards & Hall (2000, p. 6) suggest one of the principles should be to balance the costs and benefits in decisions about different courses of action by consideration of how different individuals and groups will gain and lose. However, it should be noted that the fundamental problem might be a lack of initial discussion in terms of whether or not tourism development should be promoted (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002, p. 14). Alternatively, if tourism is to be developed, what possible policy options would build on an understanding of all stakeholders' interests to develop a consensus based vision (Bramwell & Lane, 2000, p. 55)? Font and Sallows (2002, p. 27) agree and point out that local communities must take part in defining what sustainable tourism means to them, and should actively have input about decision-making processes.

Rather than a single formula or framework that fit all scales and types of tourist destinations, there might be some particular or unique complex issues related to achieving the successful implementation of STD in any given locality. Butler (1999, p. 70) concludes that success and failure factors for implementing STD are place and time specific, as well as relating to the nature of the specific development. Furthermore, sustainable development is a positive socio-economic change that does not undermine the ecological and social systems upon which a community and society are dependent. It can be argued that its successful implementation requires integrated planning and social learning processes; its viability depends on the full support of the people, their relationships with governments, their social institutions and their private activities (Ryan, 2002; Mastny, 2001; Roseland, 2000; Reed, 1997; Stabler, 1997; Wahab & Pigram, 1997; Coccossis & Nijkamp, 1995; and Inskeep, 1991).

The concept of sustainable tourism requires impact assessment as to whether local communities have been able to benefit from tourism development (Richards & Hall, 2000, p. 25). These authors suggest that the two major objectives of STD should be to improve the quality of life for the community and to increase the economic benefits that tourism brings to the local community. The achievement of these objectives would seem to depend on how planners approach policy about tourism development. In particular, the options are imposing planning from the top down, deriving from the local communities, or negotiating between the top-level policymakers and the locals.

2. Community-based tourism: A 'bottom-up' approach

A policy option derived from the grassroots has not usually been a preferred choice for top-level policymakers. There are intermediate bodies to help facilitate and mediate dialogue

between top-level policymakers and locals. Nevertheless collaborative planning is often complex because the interactions between various groups of stakeholders, as well as the nature of tourism development impacts on local resources, are markedly different from one area and country to another, and are often rapidly changing (Hall, 2000, 1999; Murphy, 1985).

For example, destination communities are literally sold as part of the tourist product, and they are often expected to conform to the tourist's image of the idealised community (Richards & Hall, 2000, p. 301). However, the impacts of tourism development and changes on rural communities at the village level are likely to be more than in urban communities where modern facilities have been developed.

Figure 1 shows the conceptual relationship between the three main policy approaches: top-down, intermediate and bottom-up. There is, of course, no one right answer to the dilemma of how to balance top-down and bottom-up forces, either by reference to the criteria of democratic participation or efficiency in planning and management processes (Carley & Christie, 2000, p. 124).
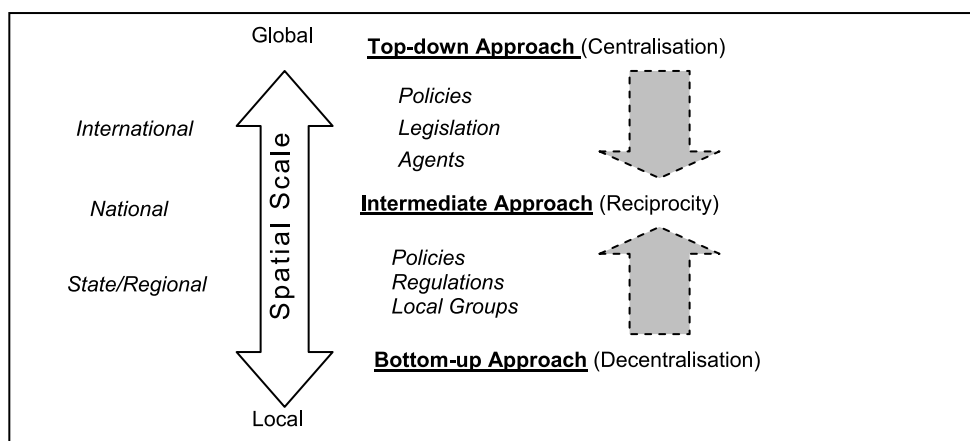
Source: Sofield, 2003, p. 281; Howitt, 2001, p. 18; Carley & Christie, 2000, pp. 186–89.

Fig. 1. Conceptual Diagram of Policy Approaches

Kelly and Becker (2000, p. 8) suggest that the role of professional planners is to help communities make their own plans. The concept of a 'bottom-up' policy approach reflects a principle for local communities to set their own goals and make decisions about their resources in the future, including heritage preservation, development of buildings, parks, open space and landscapes, and other conservation or development activities.

A decision-making process in this policy approach is initiated by local groups, without having derived their ideas from local, regional, central or international government agencies. The initiatives taken in this process usually reflect and construct diverse (even contradictory) visions of alternative futures consistent with local values and experience (Howitt, 2001, p. 18). Edwards (1985) suggests that this process from the ground up leads to an appreciation of indigenous knowledge systems and popular participation towards various future alternatives centred on people and the environment.

In the context of community culture†, local knowledge helps each community to answer questions of who they are, and how and why they differ from others, and which allocates them to social categories constructed on the basis of age, gender, descent, material status, wealth, occupation, skill, power and so forth (McCaskill & Kampe, 1997, p. 41). A challenge is whether or not people in general will have respect for local knowledge as valid knowledge of each locality, and for the resident community's role in governance of their place (Brown, 2001, p. 6).

In a tourism context, the 'bottom-up' policy approach indicates challenges and opportunities for destination communities to work with the public and private sectors. However, the key question is whether or not all tourism stakeholders are involved at the beginning of development plans, not at the end! This concept of participatory tourism planning is initially developed from the grassroots and extends to the global level by incorporating local wisdom, knowledge, culture and needs through alternative future scenarios of possible global tourism transformation. Continuity of pride amongst people living in destination communities might encourage local participation and maintain a sense of community and social equity for local residents.

3. Case study: Bottom-up tourism development approach

3.1 A brief review of tourism development in Thailand

The Thai tourism industry has generally performed very well for the last forty years, with growing numbers of tourists visiting Thailand, from only 81,340 foreign visitors travelling in Thailand in 1960 (TAT, 2000, p. 20) to almost 15 million in 2007 (TAT, 2008). The forecasts from the WTO (2001, p. 20) are 18.6 million in 2010 and almost 37 million in 2020, with an overall growth rate of about 7 percent per year. A challenge for the Thai Government, however, would seem to be to sustain an increasing recognition of the tourism attractions of Thailand while achieving the highest standards for tourist satisfaction with the least negative long-term tourism development impacts on destination communities.

One of the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT)'s tourism marketing policies is to promote cooperation at all levels, from the domestic to international, in the promotion and development of tourism markets so as to remove all hindrances to the industry and to pave the way for Thailand to be the tourism hub of Southeast Asia and the Greater Mekong Subregion. Although this policy sounds plausible, it may not be so smoothly implemented by government agencies, both national and international, because of the nature of conflicting goals. For example, the economic development goals for promoting new transport networks may conflict with the goals of environmental conservation and preservation of tourism attractions.

As a result of the increasing scarcity of natural resources, it has become more difficult for villagers to make a living in traditional ways, and engaging with tourism has become a necessity for many. Trekking tours are now a relatively common form of activity (Bartsch,

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† A community has its own culture. It is a culture which values human beings and a harmonious community. Community culture is the most critical driving force behind community development; it can be utilised when the consciousness of its members is raised to achieve an awareness of their own culture (Nartsupha, 1991, p. 119).

2000, p. 198) and theoretically this should be a positive development, but it has also not been free of problems. Towards the mid-1990s the trekking market had been transformed to also include 50% older, more conventional tourists, as part of the development of the new ecotourism fashion (Weaver, 1998, p.169). The problematic results of this are exemplified by remote upland Karen villages in Northern Thailand, where undesirable effects have included pollution caused by the litter dropped by tourists, noise pollution late at night, encroachment on the norms and values of the villagers, and tensions produced amongst the local people themselves (Bartsch, 2000; Dearden 1996; Toyota, 1996).

A review of the Thai Tourism Planning and Policy, conducted by the Ministry of Tourism and Sport during 2003 to 2006, makes it quite clear that there are a number of conflicting policies (Chaisawat, 2006, p. 5). For example, the Ministry has policy goals aimed at sustainable tourism development, with no integrated plans and legislative framework across other relevant Ministries to manage natural and cultural heritage resources in protected areas like national parks and world heritage sites. Moreover, there is no policy to limit the number of tourists, with mass marketing funded through TAT. Chudintra (1993) also points out that there have been no direct legal measures to control business and investment related to the tourism industry in Thailand, while Parnwell (1993, p. 293) points out that 'planners and practitioners may lack the authority which is needed to enable them to enforce environmental legislation, be it in connection with tourism or other forms of economic activity'. There is also a confused Ministry policy approach to standardise tourism products, offering the same certified products to all market segments, while also wanting to develop a variety of tourism products to satisfy quality tourists in niche target groups (Chaisawat, 2006, pp. 4–5).

The Thai government, nevertheless, has implemented two major proactive tourism policies since 2000, namely 'long-stay tourism' providing full-cycle services and facilities that cater to the needs of individual foreign seniors or retirees, and the 'OTOP' (One Tambon One Product) project (TAT, 2001) to promote local Thai products and tourism for every *Tambon* (Sub-district) in Thailand. However, Phongpaichit and Baker (2000, pp. 249–50) argue that the Thai government finds it easier to sell new tourism products to domestic visitors than to international patrons and creditors.

3.2 Community-based tourism development policies

Local communities occasionally seek alternative forms of tourism and associated development in order to balance opportunities and costs. There have been a number of research papers reviewing community-based tourism (for example: Hatton, 1999; Parnwell, 2001; Pleumarom, 2002). However, there has been not nearly enough attention paid to political and ethical factors. Nevertheless, because of the diversity of values within communities, what is appropriate to achieve sustainable tourism development must be determined equitably, and this means that a relevant system of guiding ethical principles must be consciously brought to bear in the expansion of this industry (Smith & Duffy, 2003). The quotation below manifests an emerging sense of cultural crisis towards tourism development in many Southeast Asian countries including Thailand.

> "*To what extent can tourism be encouraged and developed without destroying the very essence of what tourists have come to experience and see? The host communities should not have their*

culture and unique environment totally submerged in the trivia of western civilisation, or even under some of the worst aspects of modern Asian lifestyles…" (PATA, 2000, p. 10)

In Chiang Rai, Northern Province of Thailand, a tourism development project is being undertaken by local communities from the hill-tribe village of 'Jalae'. Its implementation, as an example of the bottom-up approach in community-based ethnic tourism development, has been supported by a local Non-Government Organization (NGO) called the Mirror Cultural Arts Centre (MCAC).

The MCAC, is a local non-profit organization with sixteen core members, originally from Bangkok but extended to include local ethnic people, local and foreign volunteers, and a rotating staff of volunteer teachers and workers, all striving towards the common goal of rebuilding strong, active hill-tribe communities. Their funding comes from various donors and organizations, from international to local levels (e.g. the Rockefeller Foundation, Singapore International Foundation, Thailand Research Fund) as well as donations from teacher volunteers visiting every month and income from souvenirs sold from the shop in the centre as well as via the Internet. This NGO began introducing social activities in 1991, using drama and camping as main activities to promote learning among children and the community.

Since 1998 MCAC has developed a number of community development projects in the area of Mae Yao Sub-District in the Muang District of Chiang Rai Province. This area contains 14 villages located in a mountainous region that has approximately 50 clusters of households with a total population of 12,000 from three different hill-tribe ethnic groups – Akha, Lahu, and Mien.

The MCAC is alert to problems with the implementation of projects from the point of view of local residents in the area. For example, there have been projects to address drug abuse, illegal migrants and lack of education. The NGO has also promoted the sale of artworks, weaving and agricultural products through local markets, has initiated e-commerce and has encouraged walk-in tourists, as well as bringing in volunteer teachers.

The policy objectives of the MCAC are to build a strong community and create an environment that fosters learning for local residents, rather than promoting tourism as an end in itself. The MCAC has been working with local community committees to analyse and develop strategies to minimise social problems. The aim has been to create jobs for villagers, especially for the youth and women who have increasingly been moving out of the villages to seek higher income working as labourers, factory workers or sex workers in Bangkok and Chiang Mai. It should be noted that one of the strengths of the MCAC has been its use of the Internet as a means for promoting activities and to set up dialogue with readers around the world. They have advertised community development projects, raised money from donations, and sold products handmade by local people through their website (www.bannok.com).‡ This website is linked to another website – www.hilltribe.org, to promote understanding of hill-tribe cultures.

In 1999, the MCAC was asked by a group of local residents of Jalae village to plan and develop tourism facilities and activities within their village as an alternative source of income to supplement farming. In response, the MCAC organized a new team to help the

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‡ *Bannok* in Thai means 'rural' but is often used in a derogatory sense by people in the cities.

community collect data about the village history, including research on hill-tribe culture and traditions in the area. During this process, in-depth interviews were conducted with key village informants, especially older people. They also produced video documentaries of cultural festivals which included stories about hill-tribe culture, tribal music and tour programs, to allow potential tourists to better appreciate the attractions of the area. Two years after this project was launched, a community-based tour initiative, that had been given the name 'Hill-tribe Cultural Experience', expanded to other villages. The MCAC team, working as facilitators, has had a vital role in ensuring the feasibility of the project, particularly by assisting with funding applications and volunteer recruitment to build a museum in the village as well as other tourist facilities, with marketing, and in training villagers in communications and business management skills.

3.3 The study area of Jalae village

Jalae is a village in Mae Yao Sub-district, located 20 kilometres from Chiang Rai city and 11 kilometres from the MCAC headquarters with convenient transport access from the main highway.

Information posted at the village Information Centre§, gave the population in 2000 to have been 332, with 90 families housed in 59 households. The main ethnic group was the Lahu with 40 households but there were also 19 Akha households. The village and its immediate surroundings are shown in Figure 2. Other villages in the immediate area are also composed of different ethnic groups, namely Lahu (Ya Fu village), Akha (Apa, Aja, and Pukao villages) and Mien (Yao village).

The main natural attraction in Mae Yao Sub-District is the Huey Mae Sai waterfall located in a forest reserve area. Most tourists to the village are independent travelers or backpackers who pass through the village on their way to the Huey Mae Sai waterfall (personal communication with local people and site observations). In 2005, the Baan Jalae Hill-tribe Life and Culture Centre and the Virtual Hill-tribe Museum were established, as additional attractions with support from MCAC.

A few tour operators had attracted tourists to the area for trekking and home-stay activities, with the tourists paying between $25 and $80 (Australian) per person per night. However, hill-tribe families themselves received less than one Australian dollar per night per tourist for use of their homes, including dinner and breakfast. Tour guides asked host families not to ask for tips from tourists at the end of their stay, but they were pressured to provide full hospitality. These tour guides came mainly from agents located in the city areas of Chiang Mai and Chiang Rai.

The researcher also observed that not all of the tour guides could accurately explain hill-tribe culture to tourists. It was customary for them to encourage tourists to visit specific handicraft shops in the village from whose owners they received commissions. Villagers knew about this practice of the guides and therefore were keen to take control themselves in order to derive more income. However, they realised that they would need people to train and support them in hospitality skills.

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§ The local information was the most up-to-date data the researcher could obtain during the fieldwork.
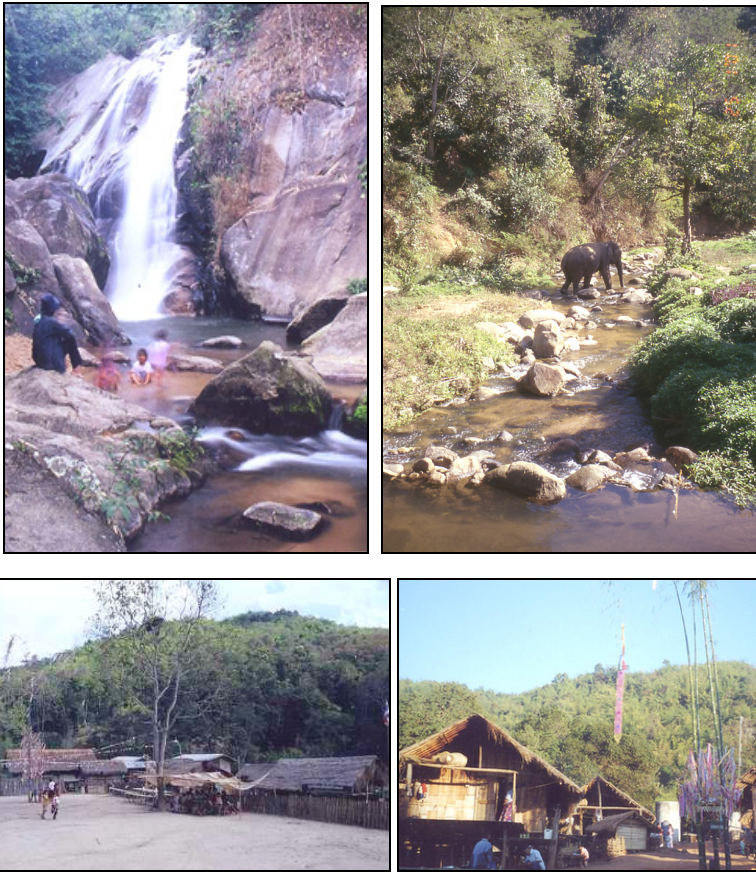
Photos: Theerapappisit, P. Jan. 2001.

Fig. 2. Jalae Village and its Surroundings

4. Data collection and analysis

Data was collected at Jalae village using various techniques from reviewing the public policies to interviews, questionnaires and focus group discussion so that both quantitative (degrees of importance) and qualitative (contextual analysis) methods of data analysis were integrated.

4.1 Policy review

The development policies of Jalae village are based on a 5-year (2002-2006) development plan and an annual development plan (2001) drafted by Mae Yao Sub-District Administration Office (MY-SAO) for which information which can be found on the MCAC website. The development policy and budget allocations of MY-SAO were reviewed and supplemented with visual observation and photographs to examine existing social and physical resources in the village. Later email and phone

communication was maintained after the fieldwork in 2001 with one of the responsible MCAC staff-members. A follow-up visit to the village was undertaken in May 2006 combining further interviews with MCAC staff and direct observation of the activities of the village. The focus of the research was the annual Lahu New Year festival in February, since this was a peak season for tourism.

4.2 In-depth interviews

In-depth interviews in this case were conducted mainly with members of committees in Jalae Village and the MCAC team. There were then regular checks via email and telephone with one of the MCAC staff members in order to assess progress in project implementation, and the 2006 return visit.

Keeping an open line of communication with the MCAC team was very important. Interviews were more casual than in the former two cases as no formal letters were needed to introduce the researcher before the visit. An informal style of working was also the prevailing preference for the MCAC.

4.3 Focus group discussion

The village information centre was used for conducting the focus group discussion because of its central location and large space. A research assistant acted as interpreter and a local volunteer also assisted in communicating with people in the meeting (see Figure 3).

Photos: Theerapappisit, P., Jan. 2001.

Fig. 3. Atmosphere of the Focus Group Discussion at Jalae Village

There were thirty-five available and willing participants in the meeting from diverse groups in the village. The ratio of male to female was 60% to 40%. Only 3 young people aged between 15 and 24 (out of a total of 95 in the village) appeared. Details about respondent numbers are shown in Table 1.

4.4 Questionnaires

Sixteen questions were posed to identify attitudes to problems and benefits of local participation in tourism planning. One respondent was chosen for each household in this village (see Table 2 for sample sizes and characteristics).

Adults and elders		Youths		Total numbers of participants
Male	Female	Male	Female	
19	13	2	1	**35** (11 % of 332, total population in the village)
32 (14 % of total 237)		3 (3 % of total 95)		

Source: Data collected on 28 January 2001 at Jalae village information centre.

Table 1. Comparative Numbers of Local Representatives

Numbers of respondents		Total numbers of respondents	Total households
Male	Female		
28	13	**41** (70%)	59

Table 2. Comparative Numbers of Respondents

4.5 Participant observation and informal interviews

For this case study village, the researcher stayed in Jalae village for three weeks in January 2001. The observation and informal interviews were conducted in the village and local areas by talking with villagers, MCAC staff, tourists and visitors, and by observing daily activities as well as taking photographs. The researcher was introduced by one of the heads of the MCAC team to the village head and key informants in the village. This close network resulted in a warm and unreserved welcome for the researcher to participate in daily activities and traditional festivals in the village. Interviews were also conducted on a few occasions in surrounding villages and at the local government office. There were also a number of meetings between MCAC staff and community members at which the researcher became an observer.

5. Results

5.1 Policy review

5.1.1 Integrated development policies for the local community

A MCAC team has worked with local representatives in Jalae village on various community development projects since 1998. These projects focussed on alleviating poverty and social problems, such as obtaining basic human rights for the hill-tribe people, dealing with drug abuse, Thai citizenship, education, land use and agriculture, and so forth. There was also a network of more than 2,000 volunteer teachers who visited these hill-tribe villages and stayed in the village for four to five days every month.

The theme of one particular community-based tourism development program organized in cooperation between the MCAC team and hill-tribe village representatives in the Mae Yao Sub-District was 'cultural experience' (see atmosphere and activities in Figure 4). Jalae village was selected as a pilot study to launch a tour program in September 2002. Local

villagers wanted to have trial home-stay activities. A website to promote this project (in English, Japanese and Thai) can be found at www.hilltribetour.com. This website has played a vital role in promoting the tour programs. It contains images of village activities, up-to-date stories, tour itineraries, information on hill-tribe cultures, codes of conduct (e.g. local customs, "do's" and "don'ts", the cultural protocol), monthly e-newsletters and web-board discussions.

Volunteer youths in each village were trained in hospitality service skills by one of the MCAC staff who had worked in the hill-tribe tourism industry for more than 10 years. The most common tasks that local people wished to perform were as local guides or in home-stay activities (such as cooking, housekeeping). Thai tourists had no problem with local villagers and adjusted themselves to hill-tribe culture. However, one of the MCAC team leaders said that there were problems dealing with foreign tourists, such as communication in English, too much pressure being exerted on visitors to buy hill-tribe products, inconvenience of sleeping on the floor without mattresses (e.g. for older people) and the unfamiliar toilet system (lacking hygiene and convenience).

Photos: Theerapappisit, P., Jan. 2001.

Fig. 4. Atmosphere and Activities at the MCAC

Local villagers who were involved in the tour program agreed to share the income from the total revenue of Baht 1,300 (or around $55 (Australian)**) per tourist for a 3-day tour (two nights) on the basis of a division according to the various roles as shown in Table 3 (MCAC supplied information).

** Average exchange rate as of January 2003: around 23.6 Baht to $A1.

Items	Income offer and paid to host villagers (Baht)	
	Paid by Tour operators*	Paid by MCAC
Accommodation (home-stay owner)		50 x 2 nights = 100
Housekeeping tasks	20 x 2 = 40	300
Cooking for 3 days (2 meals/day)		50 x 6 (2x3 days) = 300
Local guide (2 days)	n/a	150 x 2 = 300
Total income	**40**	**1,000** (77% of 1,300)

Source: * Based on interviews with host families, January 2001.

Table 3. Comparative Income Breakdown for Host Villagers

As Table 3 shows, each household under the MCAC payment system got almost 80% of the total income, or 25 times more than they used to get from outside tour operators. Some elderly women and children in the village got extra income by selling handmade woven products and from tourists' donations for cultural shows such as dance performances. The MCAC team assisting in the administrative and financial management of the village kept the remaining profits to pay for transport, telecommunication and other operating costs.

After reviewing the trial program the MCAC team and local representatives agreed that it would be better to encourage longer tour programs because it would lead to greater cultural learning experiences for both tourists and the host communities. In addition to this positive effect, local people would also received economic benefits from related trekking activities. The proposed long-stay programs[††] (from one to two weeks or more) were devised as follows:

- Tailor-made group camping tour (around 10-20 people/group);
- Study tour or cultural-exchange tour program (focusing on overseas countries);
- Active holiday tour program (focusing on volunteer activities such as teaching children in the villages, basic infrastructure development activities according to specific local needs, etc.);
- Village research and development tour program (co-research projects with students from academic institutes, both in the domestic and international markets).

The proposed activities were to be varied depending on the objectives of each tour group. The programs proposed by the MCAC and local representatives were usually diverse. For example, weaving, cloth-making, product making from bamboo or wood, embroidery, hill-tribe cookery, food cultivation, harvesting and processing, teaching of English, making campfires, playing games with children, riding elephants and excursions to museums, were just some of the proposed activities.

[††] Source: http://www.hilltribetour.com and email communication with MCAC staff, January 2003.

5.1.2 Local government development plans

Representatives from 14 villages in Mae-Yao Sub-District had the chance to participate with the local government in decision-making about future development plans only once a year (MY-SAO, 2001, p. 23). The problem of insufficient participation in conservation and development of tourism attractions in the villages was also addressed on these occasions (MY-SAO, 2001, p. 11). Budgets for tourism development planning in 2002–2006 provided for improved physical landscape development, tourist accommodation and shop-houses, a cultural centre and museums, parking, signage and leaflets for public relations, and a database of tourist attractions (MY-SAO, 2001, pp. 34–8).

In 2001, the tourism development plan for Mae Yao Sub-District proposed three major projects: a flower plantation, site development and tour service support (MY-SAO, 2000, pp. 10–1). These items comprised only around 10% of the total annual community development budget (176 million Baht), as compared to about 70% for physical infrastructure development programs (MY-SAO, 2000, pp. 11–31). The remaining 20% of the budget was for agricultural development, environmental conservation, education and training, social welfare and public health. Surprisingly, the public tax revenue in this Sub-District collected by local government in 2000 was only 4.5 million Baht (MY-SAO, 2000, p. 7). Although the budget for local development can usually be subsidised from the central government and need not rely only on local revenue, there was a significant imbalance between local revenue and the proposed development budget for the Mae Yao Sub-district.

5.2 Views of local residents

5.2.1 Results of in-depth interviews

5.2.1.1 Impacts of tourism development

After operating tours, key staff of the MCAC were concerned that cultural commercialisation was going to conflict with sustainable tourism development. For example, although there is a museum and souvenir shop, some hill-tribe villagers sold their authentic costumes and ornaments directly to tourists when they visited and/or stayed at their homes. The villagers might be left without these items because of their rarity and the difficulty of producing them as it requires time consuming effort, and only a handful elderly people who can authentically make them. From the community point of view this situation was also seen as a matter of concern by at least one elderly villager who expressed concern that the oversupply of tourism facilities and increasing interactions with outsiders over time might degrade hill-tribe traditions and customs. Another villager was afraid that tourism promotion in the village and home-stay activities might lead to temptations for villagers to offer sex for money. MCAC staff saw these issues as a challenging task for host communities to work on together, in order to avoid future harm from tourism development.

Changes imposed by government development policies could also be seen as a source of problems. One elderly respondent maintained that tourist numbers had dropped after Jalae village was legally forced (in 1999) to move out of a forest preservation area, the catchment area for the Huey Mae Sai waterfall. The impacts from this village relocation included changes to the vernacular architectural style, increased interaction between villagers and lowland people, more convenient infrastructure and education access and hence also a

greater chance for the younger generation to be influenced by different cultural attitudes, such as modern costumes and lifestyles.

A different perspective was provided by one youth leader in the village who thought that the location of the village was not the most important factor related to tourism impacts. In his view, leadership of the village by the headman was most important in getting support from villagers for improved tourism development activities and services. One member of the village committee suggested that to instil a sense of trust, commitment and dedication in everyone depended upon having a democratic governing system and this would need to be instigated by the headman. While this appears paradoxical, it reflects the fact that democratic processes probably do need to be introduced gradually in a transition from other systems.

According to feedback from MCAC staff, the village headman and his team had a willingness to become involved in the coordination of various community development projects. The most successful was the anti-drug campaign which was a joint effort by local government officials, police and the MCAC staff. This project sponsored 45 drug users for treatment at a rehabilitation centre in Chiang Mai for one year. In addition, the village committee instituted disciplinary penalties for anti-social acts, ranging from warnings, to fines, to imprisonment and being evicted from the village. Both the MCAC team and the village committee felt that without a healthy drug-free community, sustainable community-based tourism would be impossible.

MCAC staff pointed out that there would be the possibility that some villagers might take advantage of tourists by offering illegal services. On the other hand, tourists might also ask for opium or illegal drugs or seek sex from children, regardless of codes of conduct posted on the Internet and on-site orientations about what tourists should and should not do while staying with host villagers. There was an acute awareness among both the MCAC team and village committee that over-development of home-stays might cause social problems such as sexual harassment, child prostitution, sexually transmitted diseases and drug abuse. Although there have been no such cases reported as yet in the village, concerns about these issues must be addressed and incidents prevented or minimised.

5.2.1.2 Problems and benefits of local participation in tourism planning

It was a widely-held view that the village headman and the village committee played a vital role in encouraging villagers to become involved in meetings to discuss matters of public interest and benefit, such as traditional festivals, environmental conservation, and coordination with local government officials and the MCAC team. With regard to attendance at meetings, although the village headman believed that meeting times had not interfered with agricultural work, some male farmers argued that they preferred to pay attention to their agricultural and livestock farming rather than to participate in public meetings. To solve this problem, the headman advocated imposing a penalty of 50 Baht on villagers who did not attend the village committee meetings. One elderly man also pointed out that it was more critical to educate the younger generation on the importance of public participation in community development. There were only a few youth representatives who consistently attended the meetings because most thought that the issues discussed were only for adults.

On the other hand, there was clear evidence of positive results derived from the meetings. One was a sign setting out rules for visitors located at the village gateway. More

importantly, greater negotiating power and control of the activities of external tour operators and walk-in tourists were also positive outcomes. This was reflected in discussions about problems that needed to be avoided. While most villagers wanted to get income from tourism, the village committee expressed concern about tourist numbers and the amount of time that visitors should be limited to when staying in home-stays and going on trekking adventures, because if the tourists took up too much time they would interfere with the normal life and needs of the villagers.

The general issue of participation was recognised as needing attention. A group of older villagers said that they would like to see coherent long-term education and training concerning the benefits of local participation in tourism planning, as supported by the local government.

5.2.2 Results of the focus group discussion

During the focus group discussion questions about heritage resources and tourism attractions were discussed. Figure 5 shows what local respondents in Jalae village identified as being natural and cultural heritage resources. The significant natural resources are the Huey Mae Sai Water Fall, the local creek, mountainous landscape and livestock, particularly elephants. Local residents perceive Lahu cultures such as their festivals, rituals and ceremonies with traditional costumes, folk music and dance as their cultural heritage resources.
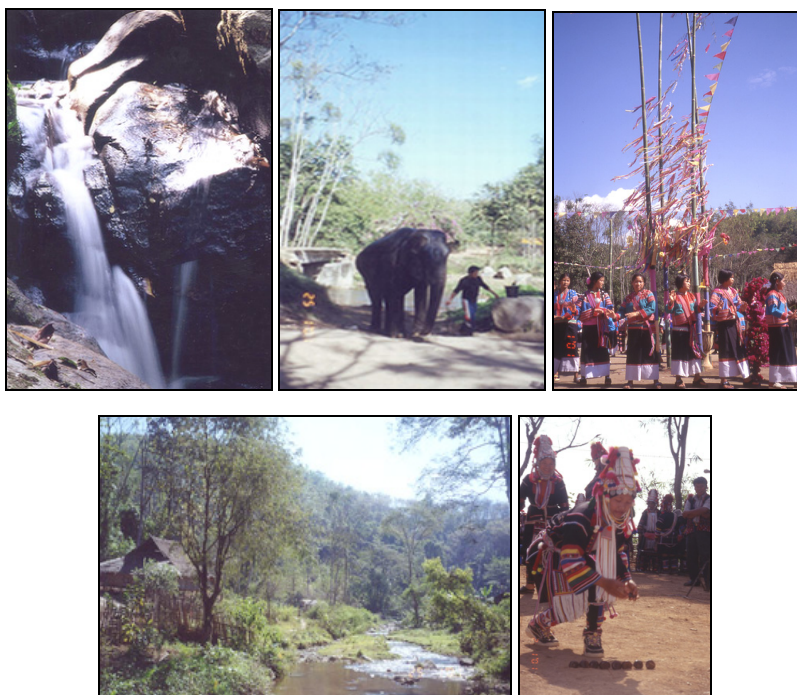
Photos: Theerapappisit, P., Jan. 2001

Fig. 5. Heritage Resources and Tourist Attractions

The focus group discussion also employed a voting process to assess existing problems and future benefits in terms of economic, environmental, socio-cultural and personal aspects. The numeric values are based upon average on mean score marking values of importance with the highest value being 3. Votes were translated into mean scores for each item of both problems and benefits.

5.2.2.1 Perceived problems

Overall, environmental and socio-cultural problems received higher mean ratings than both economic and personal aspects. However, the highest mean for a perceived problem was related to communication in Thai (M=2.67). This result suggests that these hill-tribe people realise that their limitation in speaking the Thai language resulted in misunderstanding of laws and regulations, and this was a significant problem limiting community development. Problems of migration of local residents to cities to work as labourers and insufficient social welfare programs were also rated as very important social problems (M=2.57 and M=2.50, respectively).

The lack of Thai citizenship was also a problem for many hill-tribe people (M=2.44). The MCAC team provided consultation services and legal support so that villagers could gain lawful permission to work, including in the tourism industry. Local villagers perceived these negative factors as disadvantaging community development and limiting their ability to obtain social welfare benefits from the government. These factors related to development impacts irrespective of the presence of tourism.

In addition, the insufficiency of job opportunities and low wages (M=2.38) and migration of labour to the main cities (M=2.57) were also identified as problems. In interviews, local villagers suggested that they were taken advantage of by tour companies that provided them with low incomes for their home-stay and trekking operations. Understandably, villagers would prefer to get a fairer share of the revenue for their services. To ensure tourist satisfaction, training in Thai, English and hospitality services was regarded by MCAC and local villagers as crucial to the success of future community-based tourism.

5.2.2.2 Desired needs/benefits

In the focus group rating of issues, the highest score received was in relation to adequate and consistent year-round tourist numbers (M=2.64). However, this expectation might be difficult to achieve because most tourists, both domestic and international, tend to prefer to visit villages at the peak periods of the year when ethnic ceremonies or festivals are happening. Whether a more regular flow of tourists would result in overall economic needs for the majority of villagers is also questionable as catering to regular tourism activities throughout the year could lead to conflicts with farming activities and other aspects of daily life. Additional benefits with regard to tourism development that were identified include:

- Control of community handicraft shops (M=2.60) and distribution of proceeds to all stakeholders.
- Preservation of hill-tribe costumes (M=2.36), given increasing costs and changing attitudes of the younger generation.
- Balancing budget priorities with respect to road upgrading (M=2.48) and landscape improvement (M=2.35).
- Upgrading English training (M=2.29).

Although environmental, socio-cultural and personal problems were identified in the analysis above, the overall results suggest that local representatives perceived the benefits of tourism more importantly as being economic.

5.3 Questionnaire results

Questions about problems and benefits associated with local participation in tourism planning processes were asked of 41 villagers (the same questions as were asked in the other two case studies). Table 4 and Figure 6 show the comparison of results in relation to the 16 questions (shown as mean scores). These results show this group of local people had fairly strong agreement across most of the 16 questions (means between 1.2 and 1.4).

Jalae Village (N)	Attitude* means for the 16 questions															
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Means (41)	1.4	0.7	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.3	-1.1	1.2	1.4	1.2
Standard deviation	0.5	1.1	0.8	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.4

*Attitude: 2 =Strongly agree, 1 =Agree, 0 =Neutral/Don't know, -1 =Disagree, -2 =Strongly disagree

Table 4. Attitudes about Local Participation in Jalae Village
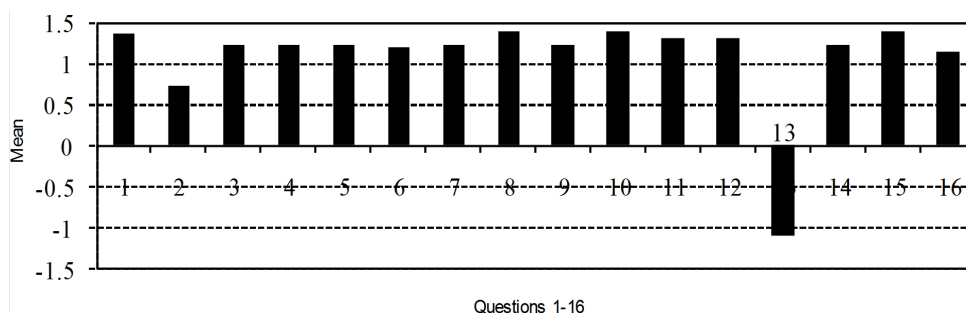
Questions, by numbers, were: In your village, what do you think about the following statements:

1. Tourism planning needs local participation.
2. You have no input into tourism planning.
3. The current level of local participation in tourism planning is good.
4. More diverse representation of interest groups is needed in participation.
5. Local participation in tourism planning could bring more benefits than problems.
6. More satisfaction about shared benefits for all groups results from local participation.
7. Economic benefit is the most important incentive for local participation.
8. Better understanding and more education about local participation are needed.
9. Better consideration in respect to place and time for local participation is needed.
10. More involvement in the early stages of decision-making process is needed.
11. More accessibility of information for local participation is needed.
12. Conflicts amongst different groups make it more difficult to achieve local participation.
13. External influences are more important than internal factors in local participation.
14. Increasing negotiation power with external bodies results from local participation.
15. Trust in future political commitment affects willingness for local participation.
16. Networks and understanding among stakeholders result from local participation.

Fig. 6. Results of Questionnaire: Mean Ratings by Question

The overall response from the 41 respondents about having input in tourism planning was neutral (Question 2, M=0.7). It seems likely that this is because they already felt involved in formal meetings arranged by the village committees or/and local government agencies, and besides, most had trust in the village headman as they usually reported their needs directly to him. This feedback is reflected in response to Question 13, which was that they did not believe that external bodies would be more influential in local participation than internal factors in the village (M= -1.1).

Answers to open-ended questions regarding the reasons why they believed that more education and access to information were needed (Questions 1 and 8) indicate that villagers want a supporting body like the MCAC to help them develop more efficient methods for participation in developing tourism plans for the village, in language translation and in public relations. They also expressed the view that the MCAC team had significantly assisted them with financial administration, pre-tour communication and management, with minimum investment costs.

Villagers suggested the main reason for their preference for being involved in the early stages of planning (Question 10), was that it would be difficult to change decisions after action plans were implemented. In addition, they thought they would be more willing to participate in the process if they could trust future political commitments (Question 15) as this would assure them they were not wasting their time and energy.

5.4 Results of participant observation and informal interviews

As previously mentioned, the researcher lived with the MCAC team and afterwards kept in touch with them via email and by other forms of communication. This NGO consistently expressed interest in enhancing the strength of human resources in local communities and focussed on resolving social problems rather than promoting tourism as a priority. Various parallel community development programs were initiated, such as a youth network, self-reliant agriculture, information technology development, an anti-drug network and community music programs. It became clear in informal interviews that the MCAC team believed that these programs would result in positive learning outcomes, especially for young people to become interested in developing a long-term vision for their own community.

In order to build strong and healthy families and supportive social environments, the MCAC team developed a policy of working together with the village committees and local representatives to build strategies for community planning and tourism development. Diverse styles of local handicrafts were promoted at local shops and via a website (www.ebannok.com). This included cloth weaving of tribal-style bags, shirts, skirts, home decorations, necklaces and clay whistles. These skills could generate income for hill-tribe women not taking drugs, or those trying to give them up.

The distribution of profits was organized according to a coding system to identify the villagers who produced particular products. Each producer would get a 30% share of the sale price after passing a quality control procedure and a further 40% of the total sale price when products were sold. Thirty percent of the profit was used for administrative and operational costs. Villagers also organized a system of rotation of host houses for tourists to ensure equal distribution.

It was found that a major impact on tourism was the relocation of Jalae village from state-owned highland forest preservation land to a lowland plain area as a result of the Thailand Community Forest Bill in 1999.‡‡ This is because the new location has basic problems needing future attention such as lack of shade from trees and loss of unique traditional-style houses. In addition, the new location needed a garbage collection system, and informative signage and town maps (see Figure 7). The MCAC team fought for increased budgets from both local government agencies and overseas aid organizations, at the same time as promoting community development and environmental conservation programs.

Photos: Theerapappisit, P., Jan. 2001.

Fig. 7. Physical Problems in Jalae Village

Elderly people suggested during informal interviews that there was an attitudinal change amongst young tribal people over the last 30 years leading to decreasing pride in their

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‡‡ *The Community Forestry Bill of 1999 was passed to rehabilitate degraded reserved forest lands, especially in National Parks, and people were no longer permitted to live in state-owned preservation areas. Thailand's laws governing national parks, which were enacted in the early 1960s, assumed that human use and nature preservation were incompatible, and are therefore particularly strict on habitat protection. However, their enforcement has often been applied against local villagers seeking to use the resources to which they previously had access, rather than against rich and influential entrepreneurs. (Jantakad and Gilmour, 1999)*

indigenous culture and loss of self-confidence. Young people no longer wear indigenous dress except at special village festivals or for ceremonies. Traditional musical instruments have also disappeared because missionaries told them that they should not perform their own rituals and ceremonies, of which the instruments were an integral part. It was observed that the pattern of traditional lifestyle had been disrupted by modern media influences such as television programs, movies, music, magazines and the Internet. It was pointed out that these external influences might be resulting in hill-tribe teenagers feeling disconnected from their own physical and cultural environments and their religions and traditional rituals.

However, there have been some cultural improvements partly due to tourism. Women were observed to have a higher degree of influence in maintaining traditional costumes and cultural performances at village festivals and ceremonies (see Figure 8).

Photos: Theerapappisit, P., Jan. 2001.

Fig. 8. Cultural Festivals and Tourism Activities

A foreign volunteer pointed out that these events were what most tourists expected to experience in the village. As Cohen found, the women in a unique ethnic village could become a standard attraction for tourist excursions. However, he raises the issue of hill tribe people mostly playing a passive role in otherwise contrived situations created and managed by outsiders against their will (Cohen, 2004, pp. 305–6). This is clearly most likely to occur where there is no local involvement in tourism development planning.

There is a hill-tribe youth network composed of fourteen village representatives in all fourteen villages of the Mae Yao Sub-district, some of whom used to be drug addicts. They had been trained in computer skills and given English and Thai lessons by lowland Thai youths at the MCAC. The main goals of these activities were to develop leadership skills, to encourage active roles as tour guides, to build relationships between these groups and to eliminate cultural misconceptions. In order to build a sense of pride for the local communities the making of traditional handicrafts, such as weaving and bamboo work, was encouraged. Children spontaneously exchange their ideas, knowledge and experiences at a home-stay and with tourist trekkers.

6. Discussion

This section integrates the results from the various data sets to show that community development through effective local participation can be a useful tool for promoting long-term tourism outcomes.

6.1 Bottom-up: Community and NGO working together

The integrated results from a review of policy documents, in-depth interviews, participant observation and informal interviews suggest that the MCAC team played a significant role as a facilitator and supporter of community-based tourism planning. The local community derived definite benefits from this process. For example, there was a mutual interest between Jalae village representatives and the MCAC team in developing a network of tour guides. The youth network project also convinced many youths, both in the village and those from the lowland, to learn and work together towards the same ultimate goal of achieving desirable community-based tourism development. Jalae village has an advantage in its location, in which people from two different hill-tribes, Lahu and Akha, live in the village with a Mien village that is located nearby. This provides the possibility of expanding tourism activities in the local area to include a diversity of cultural attractions, for example, via trekking on elephants or horses to more remote villages.

It was found that ordinary villagers were willing to trust their village headman, local committees and representatives to effectively voice their needs to the local government. The small size of the village (59 households) may help villagers feel comfortable about communicating with their representatives. The nearness of MCAC to the village and to other projects of the MCAC might be factors contributing to effective teamwork in undertaking participatory activities between various groups of villagers and the MCAC team.

There was a clear economic benefit from the sale of locally made products sold via the Internet. The income derived from these sales was seen to enhance interest in villagers working together to develop quality products with the MCAC team. This 'bottom-up' approach to job creation might help to stop young people from leaving the village to find work in the cities.

6.2 Changes in local resources and communities

The combined research findings indicate that there had been changes since the village was relocated. For example, the focus group discussion revealed that environmental and socio-

cultural impacts, such as garbage collection, loss of traditional-style housing features, labour migration, social welfare, drug abuse and Thai citizenship, were important issues to address. It should be noted that these impacts may not directly be derived from the tourism industry, but rather are bigger problems facing the community.

Table 3 indicates that there was a significant economic benefit gained from community-based tourism as co-arranged by the MCAC team and the villagers. The almost 80% of the income going to the villagers is a significant improvement from what they used to receive from private trekking tour companies. Michaud found that a trekking agency in Chiang Mai could earn as much as 97.7 % of total charges paid by the tourists while the host villagers normally only received between 1.5 and 2.3 percent share of income (1997, pp. 142–4).

An evaluation of the identified policy views of the MCAC team and the community suggests that they felt it was important to mitigate possible negative impacts resulting from tourism development by focusing particularly on human resource development, such as increasing education and skills training. It was also felt necessary to seriously consider conservation of environmental and socio-cultural resources in order to sustain tourism attractions. Cohen (1996, pp. 140–1) noted in five hill-tribe tourism case studies in Northern Thailand that a balance was often achieved between heritage conservation of the different spheres of village life, that is, in working, social and family life, and tourism development. He observed:

> "…although some of the villages may have been 'spoilt' by tourism, and hence are no longer as 'authentic' as they used to be in the past, intensive penetration of tourism has not had a markedly disruptive impact on the economic and social life of the villager."

It also became clear from informal interviews and participant observation that the attitudes of hill-tribe youths have been influenced by modern media, as can be observed in their clothing. As mentioned earlier, it will be a very challenging task for the MCAC team and Jalae villagers to work together to conserve the Lahu people's heritage resources and the area's natural environment, while developing more and better quality tourism facilities.

Analysis of the children's pictures revealed some common interests with regard to local culture and the natural environment. The children's pictures show physical changes in the natural environment and cultural changes in the village and surrounding areas. Most foci of the pictures are environmental and socio-cultural aspects. These findings suggest that young people appreciated the benefits of tourism but not at the risk of environmental and socio-cultural degradation, such as loss of traditional-style houses and other features in the cultural landscape.

6.3 Factors contributing and hindering on local participation

Findings from the questionnaire, as summarised in Table 4 and Figure 8, and results from in-depth interviews are linked to evaluate perceived problems and benefits of local participation. These have been found to include:

- A need for more education about participation, particularly during early stages of tourism planning, and political commitments (M=1.4 equivalent in Questions 8, 10 and 15);

- A need for more access to information about participation in order to minimise possible conflicts of interest amongst various stakeholder groups (M=1.3 in both Questions 11 and 12);
- A need for more diversity in representation by interest groups (Question 4, M=1.2), by including disadvantaged groups such as women and young people;
- A need for more active involvement in the process of tourism planning (Question 2, M=0.7) to strengthen trust in final decisions based on democratic processes.

Local participation in tourism planning was perceived as the key to reaping benefits and minimising problems (Question 5, M=1.2), due to the community's ability to deal effectively with external bodies such as tourists and tour operators (Question 14, M=1.2). A sense of hope for economic improvement was identified as the most important incentive to participate in the planning process (Question 7, M=1.2). This may be because villagers could not afford to participate in the meetings during daytime hours when they needed to work for their living. One respondent suggested a warning or penalty system as a practical means of enforcing participation in the planning process. However, encouragement through more positive measures to foster the willingness of local villagers to participate without regulatory sanctions and economic incentives would seem likely to result in longer lasting changes in attitudes.

Local leadership was found to affect the degree of local participation in tourism planning (Williams & Lawton, 2001). This result was confirmed by comments by local villagers who said that leadership by the village headmen was the most important factor affecting their commitment towards participating in tourism development planning. This suggests that improving leadership skills could lead to more effective network building for local people resulting in more confidence in expressing opinions.

Two further suggestions about the desirable outcomes of local participation in the planning process were revealed from the results of the questionnaire. Firstly, greater sharing of economic benefits needed to be achieved (Question 6, M=1.2). Secondly, greater networking and understanding among various groups of stakeholders was needed (Question 16, M=1.2). It will not be easy, however, to satisfy all stakeholders in practice and attempts to increase public interest in the future of tourism development rather than in merely furthering individual profits are needed.

There the only real conflicts were between the NGO and the local drug mafia, and with those tour operators and other commercial interests who found themselves losing profits as a result of the community-based development initiatives. There are still very complex social issues and problems of human rights in the area, which have the capability of affecting the tourism project, but these are likely to be lessened by the tourism initiative, rather than exacerbated.

There are numerous small-scale examples world-wide of where tourism has resulted in economic benefits as well as contributing to the safeguarding of cultural and natural heritages in rural villages. Currently, however, such knowledge is beyond the reach of the remote northern Thai villages studied in the present research as there is a lack of education and training accessible from responsible public agency such as the Sub-district Office. In-depth knowledge and understanding through proper education programs about the nature

of tourism and associated development is necessary in emerging tourist destination communities because undesirable impacts of tourism development can then be possibly managed and controlled.

7. Conclusions

Community-based tourism is complex and involves complicated processes to be undertaken by destination ethnic communities (Singh, Timothy & Dowling, 2003). Collaborative planning is undertaken through the political process and it is via this process that the views of participant stakeholders are developed and evolve. Steps towards successful local empowerment or local capacity building are often difficult and not necessarily achievable for all communities (Burn, 2004; Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Hall, 1999).

The three most common problems were identified as the impacts of the physical development of local communities and of tourism infrastructure on natural and cultural heritages, conflicts of interest amongst stakeholders and ineffective local participation in the planning process. There is a clear interrelationship between all these factors, and a universal dimension to all of them, as they are local reflections of issues of development needs. Nevertheless, they are indeed local in their expression, and it is therefore important for planners and policymakers at all levels not to simply apply a 'single formula' planning framework to all cases, as the issues at the local level are often unique and complex.

The findings presented in this chapter suggest that cooperation in tourism planning between host communities and a local NGO can be successfully used to find a balance in setting down rules for economic development beyond a single destination community. The important assets for tourism planning are recognized to be the socio-cultural and environmental resources of the village and surrounding areas but a significant factor in ensuring success in economic development of tourism is seen to be skills training such as in hospitality services and language and computer skills. The existing youth network in Jalae village in which volunteer youths in each village have been trained in hospitality service skills can probably be expanded and developed to efficiently incorporate neighboring communities in Mae Yao Sub-District.

Eventually it is to be hoped that the best possible experience for villagers and tourists alike can be developed beyond economic aspects by building long-term host/guest relationships that lead to increased tourist visits through 'word of mouth' communications with other potential tourists.

The integration of tourism into the broader economic development plans of the community necessitates encouragement of all stakeholders to take an interest in tourism issues and deal with conflicts within broader contexts. This chapter suggests that 'conflicts of interests' between tourism stakeholders are likely to happen because of differing perceptions and attitudes within communities. Evaluation tools for planning need to be adaptable to local socioeconomic situations taking account of cultural heritage values and personal/human aspects in addition to the physical environment and natural resources.

8. Acknowledgement

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Section 3

Tourism Industry – Different Topics for Strategy Development

Modern Cableways –
The Base of Mountain Sports Tourism

Sergej Težak

Faculty of Civil Engineering, University of Maribor
Slovenia

1. Introduction

Most of the population nowadays lives and works in surroundings that not always healthy and clean. Therefore, the need to take a rest in clean natural environment is so much greater. Mountain regions feature the largest surface of clean natural environment where people go for a holiday. These places are accessible by a road, cableway and via footpaths and cyclist paths. Trends nowadays are active holidays that are offered by mountain sports centres during winter and summer. (Rauzi, 2008) In winter time main activities are alpine skiing, cross-country skiing, sleighing, skating and others performed in natural environment. In summer time, main activities are mountaineering, mountain tracking, cycling and others. Cableways are mostly used by skiers with bigger demands than in the past, this results in greater disturbance of natural environment. Parking places are a special problem. Locations of parking places mostly depend on accessible cableways. In economical and ecological point of view, a difference exists in whether parking places are located at the foothills of the mountain or in hilly or woody areas.

Cableway companies involved in the transport of passengers in mountain areas realize most traffic during the winter months, when passengers are mainly skiers. Ever cableway company tends to offer best quality service and long queues of skiers waiting in front of slow cableways may have very negative influence on the quality of service of mountain tourist centres. The problem of the skiers queuing in front of slow cableways may be solved by limiting the number of sold skier's tickets, but this does not mean the skiers in a major ski centre with several cableways would be uniformly distributed per cableways. Similarly, by selling seasonal ski tickets it would be impossible to determine which would be the peak days, i.e. on which days there would be fewer skiers on the ski slopes.

Most frequently, the problem of queuing skiers at cableways is solved by installing faster cableways with greater capacities, i.e. introducing chairlifts with detachable grips into service. These make possible to detach the chairs in the starting and final station from the carrying-hauling rope, thus providing comfortable loading and unloading. Modern chairlifts with detachable grips enable faster carriage of passengers. They have the possibility of transporting more passengers over the same distances. However, this one-sided solution, the replacement of an older chairlift with fixed grips by the new chairlift with detachable grips can lead also to some unexpected consequences that may have a

negative impact regarding the quality of the entire service of the mountain tourist centre. Such chairlifts with detachable grips allow transport of skiers over greater distances and therefore must have respective ski slopes covering wider areas which in turn affect the expansion of the mountain tourist centres. The cableways with detachable grips require more knowledge and personnel to manage and maintain them.

For safety skiing a skier needs an indispensable ski run area. It depends on different factors, and the most important among them is the skier's speed. Skiing techniques are being changed, and along with them the values for the ski run area a skier needs it for safety skiing. And the ski run capacity also depends on these values. The skies shape and material are being improved, likewise the technique, as well as the ski runs stamping down technique. This enables skiers to achieve higher and higher speeds on ski runs. Thus the thread to all the skiers who ski on ski runs is increased. Injuries due to falls and skiers collisions with others are worse, and this problem is also pointed out by a fatal casualty on the ski runs which happened during this season. During greater visit days (weekends and holidays with snow and nice weather) the ski runs are much more crowded. Thus, it may happen that skiers do not have the safety skiing required area – the ski run capacity is too small.

2. Characteristics of cableway traffic and cooperation or competitiveness with road traffic

Being a subsystem of the traffic system, cableway traffic holds a specific place because it makes accessible those places that are interesting from the aspect of tourism as well as those that due to the specific relief are difficult to access via other traffic subsystems. (Sever, 2002) Cableway traffic is carried out with cableways which encompass all aerial ropeway facilities. With respect to function and legislation, cableways encompass aerial ropeways, surface lifts and funicular railways. Aerial ropeways include reversible aerial ropeways, gondola lifts and chair lifts. (Težak et al., 2011)

Cableway traffic in Slovenia and abroad is characterized by increasing capacities of cableways (especially higher speed which is possible by detachable grips). Carriers of circulating aerial ropeways attain higher speeds on their route (higher rope speeds) and lower speeds at station facilities (boarding and alighting) because they are detached from the rope. (Toš, 1989) High performance aerial cableways can transport 3000 persons/hour and more at the distance of some kilometres and can surmount the vertical drop of 2000 m and more. Cableway traffic is one of the safest and environment-friendly (Oplatka, 2008). Because the possibility of human error is low, the safety is high. In most cases, cableways are driven by an electric motor which is characterized by minimal noise and no hazardous emissions of exhaust gasses.

To access individual mountain sports tourist centres there are generally two possible alternatives. We can build an access road or an access cableway. In Slovenia there is often a combination of the two traffic systems, as in most cases the access to the centre is possible via a road and a ropeway. In practice dilemmas occur as to which facility should have priority, i. e. a reconstruction of the access road or that of the access ropeway. The bellow comparison table illustrates possible advantages of the one or the other system.

	Road traffic System	Cableway traffic system	Notes
Capacity (performance?)	Higher		Due to new technical solutions capacities of cableways increase.
Use of space (natural environment		lower	Cableways can surmount greater vertical drops, therefore the route is shorter.
Noise		lower	Noise depends on the technological development of road vehicles and on structure of the pavement.
Emissions of exhaust gases		lower	Emissions depend on technological development of road vehicles.
Time of transport		shorter	
Parking lots	Exist	located at the foothill	If there is an access cableway, parking lots can be located at the foothills of the mountain and interfere less with the environment.
Influence of weather snow, ice wind			Road traffic is extremely influenced by snow and ice. Cableways can not operate in windy conditions
Maintenance			Necessary in both systems
Safety		greater	
Comfort			Depends from the point of view: - in transport with a cableway acceleration and deceleration are slower - in transport with a car, there is no need toreload luggage
Length of transport		shorter	
Investments	Lower		The reconstruction of a gondola lift is considered here. The price of the reconstruction of a chair lift with fixed grips is approximately equal.
Transport price	Lower		This is the price paid by the user.
Investments	Lower		
Functional support to local inhabitants	Higher		

Table 1. Comparison of possible advantages of the road and cableway traffic system in assuring access (subjective assessment)

It is evident from Table 1 that crucial criteria for decisions depend on individual judgement. Yet, if we consider important ecological criteria, cableways have the advantage over roads. They are more appropriate due to less noise, lower emissions of exhaust gases, less space requirements and favourable locations of parking lots. They are, however, less comfortable for the user, as he/she has to change twice; a ride in a car is more comfortable.

In the past, the priority was given to road access to sports centres in Slovenia. Access cableways were built only in regions where road access was not possible (Kanin, Vogel, Velika planina) or the costs for the erection of a quality access road would be excessive. An

exception to the rule was the Pohorje aerial ropeway at the Maribor Pohorje, with additional road going to the upper cableway station.

With the development of the snowmaking machines technology ski trails started to be built on lower slopes towards the valley. In these cases, the cableway does not have the function of access only, but also the function of the transport of skiers. Although the costs for the erection of a new cableway facility are higher than those for the reconstruction of an access road, the economic calculation speaks for cableways also in this case. Such an example can be seen in the sports centre Rog Črmošnice, where a decision was made to build a chairlift and a ski trail to the foothills of the mountain with necessary parking places also being located there. There is a macadam road going to the upper station which has not been reconstructed yet. The same situation can be observed in the sports centre Stari Vrh.

Decision making about whether to reconstruct the access road or to erect a new cableway facility going to the foothills of a mountain is influenced also by the largeness of a sports centre and density of permanent population in the vicinity of a sports centre. An asphalt two-lane access road to a big ski centre costs as much as a road to a small ski centre. A cableway facility of high performance (circulating gondola lift with detachable grips) on the other hand can cost three times as much as a cableway facility with low performance (two-chair lift with fixed grips). Where there are numerous inhabited villages around the ski centre, this road has also a social function enabling access for local inhabitants.

3. Modern chairlifts with detachable grips

Chairlifts cableways are devices in which chairs are fixed to the carrying-hauling rope, travelling in the same direction. At the beginning of the appearance of chairlifts, the chairs were fixed to carrying-hauling rope. The possibility of fast transport of skiers in such chairlifts is low, since the maximum speed is limited (2 m/s for passengers - pedestrians or 2,5 m/s for skiers) due to the method of entering the cableway, since the passenger has to sit on a chair which is moving at the speed of the carrying-hauling rope.
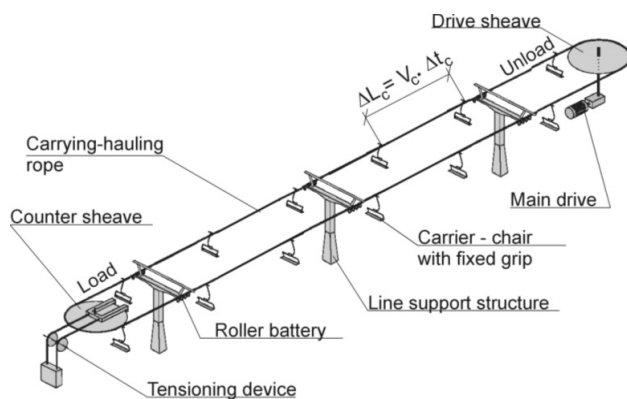
Fig. 1. Chairlift with fixed grips (Günthner, 1999)

The appearance of detachable grips on the chairlifts has made it possible to reduce the speed at loading and unloading of passengers. This facilitates greater comfort, since the passenger

can sit on a chair that at loading or unloading moves at very low speed (max 1m/s for passengers – pedestrians or max 1,3 m/s for skiers) (EN 12929-1, 2005). The possibility of fast transport of passengers in this example, because the speed of the carrying-hauling rope is higher (5 m/s). (Günter, 1999)

The mentioned advantages result from the possibility of detaching the grips of the carrier at the station from the carrying-hauling rope, which allows the chair at the station to move at a lower speed by means of the conveyor.
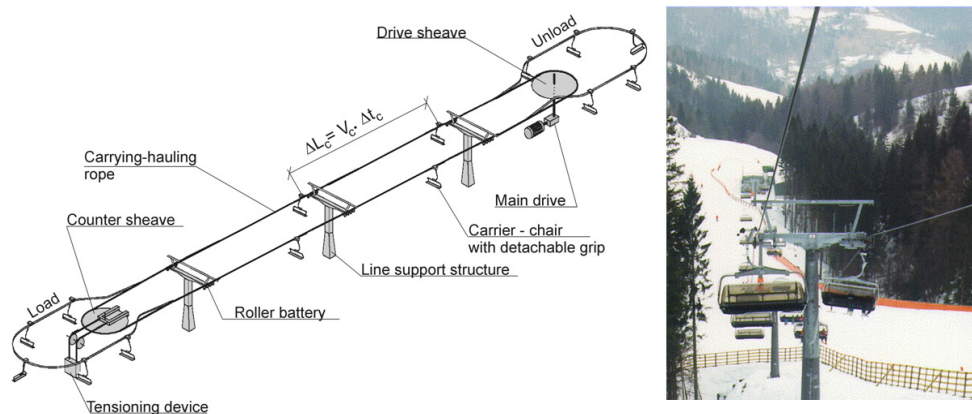
Fig. 2. Chairlift with detachable grips

The detaching of the chairs is provided by the detachable grips and all the other mechanical and electric equipment at the station.
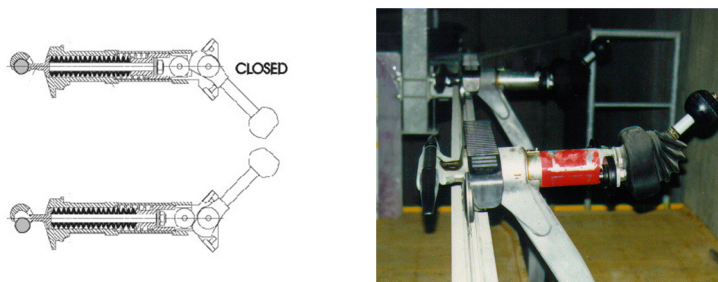
Fig. 3. Detachable grip (Doppelmayr, 1997)

In case cableways with detachable grips various procedures are performed in different zones at the station (Fig. 4):

- *Grip opening zone:* when the carrier (cabin or chair) arrive at the station, it is detached from the rope in the grip opening zone. The carrier reaches the running rail, actuating then the signal for opening the grip and detaching from rope. Thus the carrier can move independently of the rope speed.
- *Deceleration zone:* when the grip is open and lies with its bottom surface on the sheaves and lies with its bottom surface on the sheaves which lie along the running rail guides

the carrier through the station. The breaking force is transferred by means of the sheaves and the friction to grip which causes the carrier to decelerate.

- *Regulating line:* regulating line maintains the necessary spacing between the carriers. The more recent cableways have in this section a detached conveyor with its own propulsion
- *Curve conveyor:* in this zone the carrier moves at the transit speed, which is much lower than the speed of the ropes through the station. The curve direction of the carriers is determined by the conveyor. The carriers move by means of a conveyor. In this zone the carrier is loaded.
- *Accelerating zone:* when the carriers are loaded with passengers they reach the accelerating zone. The grip is still open, the accelerating force is transferred over the sheaves to the bottom friction surface of the grip. The speed of the carrier increases up to the speed of the carrying-hauling rope.
- *Grip closing zone:* in this zone the grip closes onto the carrying-hauling rope. Before the carrier leaves the station the closure of the grip in the rope is controlled.
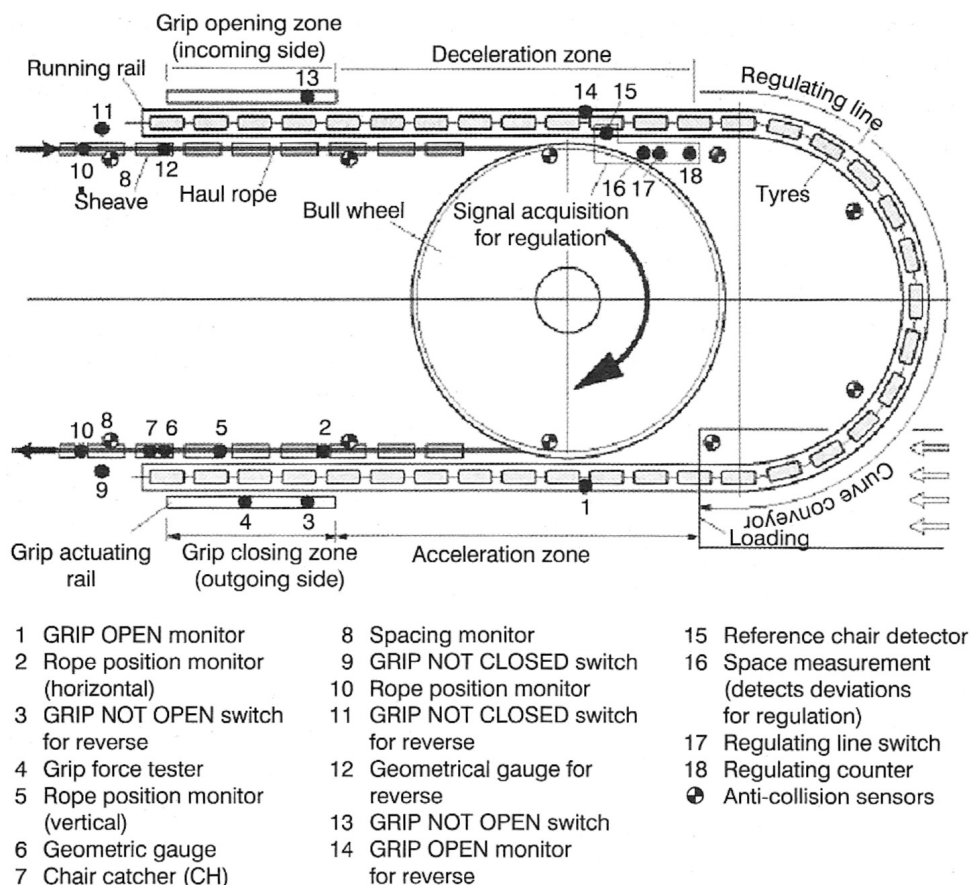
Fig. 4. Mechanical equipment and safety devices in station of cableway with detachable grips (Doppelmayr, 1997)

For proper functioning of all described procedures safety devices and signalling devices are necessary and they control all the described procedures. Should these devices register a malfunctioning, they have to alarm the workers or automatically stop the cableway.

4. Reconstruction of chairlift and influence on the quality of mountain tourist centre offer

Recently new cableways are constructed most frequently as 4-seat chairlifts or 6-seat chairlifts with detachable grips or chairlifts with fixed grips and conveyor belt for skiers at the entrance. These cableways can be installed as new construction with new accompanying ski slope or as reconstruction i.e. change of the old chairlift into a new one. Most often the new chairlift is installed on the tracks of the existing one – as reconstruction and the existing ski slopes are used, since in this case the installation of the chairlift does not represent such a great intervention into the nature. This may be a wrong way of thinking since the more recent chairlifts also feature higher speeds and higher capacities, which may disturb the balance in the capacity between the cableway and the ski slope.

This balance is very important for the quality of service, which can be seen from the following:

- chairlift capacity (persons/h) = ski slope capacity (skiers/h): no queues in front of the chairlift and the ski slope is not overcrowded,
- chairlift capacity (persons/h) < ski slope capacity (skiers/h): queues in front of the chairlift in case of greater number of skiers and ski slope is not maximally loaded,
- chairlift capacity (persons/h) > ski slope capacity (skiers/h): in this case there are too many skiers on the ski slope and the skiing safety is reduced.

The following example shows the influence of the special characteristic of the chairlift type on the respective ski slope, which is in any case the same. These examples show a case of reconstruction i.e. replacement of the old chairlift by a new one.

Example: The ski centre has 2-seat chairlift with fixed grips in the length of 1,2 km and one ski slope in the length of 1,2 km, which can accommodate at a time a maximum of 200 mid-skilled skiers.
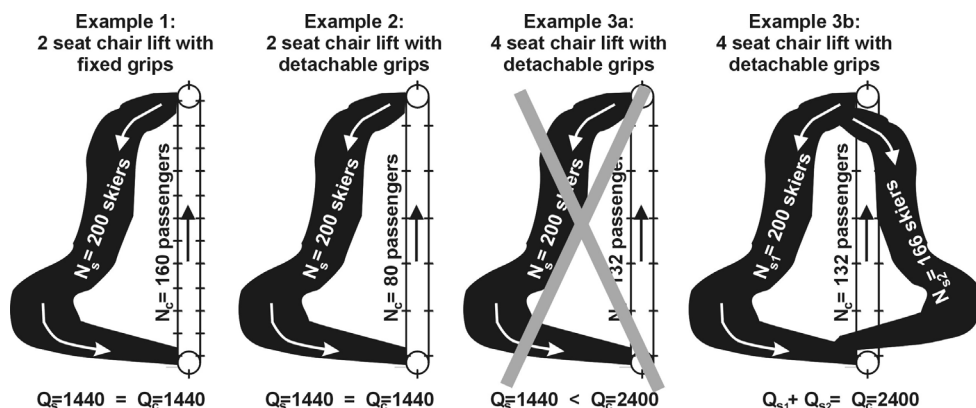
Fig. 5. Example of installing three different chairlifts along the same ski slope

Type of data	Symbol and equation for calculation	Existing 2-seat chairlift with fixed grips	New 2-seat chairlift with detachable grips	New 4-seat chairlift with detachable grips
Number of seats on carrier	n	2	2	4
Chairlift length	L_C	1000 m	1000 m	1000 m
Max. allowed chairlift speed	V_C	2,5 m/s	5 m/s	5 m/s
Minimum interval between the carriers	$\Delta t_C = 4 + \dfrac{n}{2}$	5 s	5 s	6 s
Distance between carriers attached to the carrying-hauling rope (Fig.1, Fig.2)	$\Delta l_C = \Delta t_C \cdot V_C$	12,5 m	25 m	30 m
Chairlift capacity	$Q_C = \dfrac{n}{\Delta t_C} \cdot 3600$	1440 persons/h	1440 persons/h	2400 persons /h
Number of skiers who are carried by the chairlift	$n_C = \dfrac{L_C}{\Delta l_C} \cdot n$	160 persons	80 persons	132 persons
Ski slope length	L_S	1200 m		
Max. number of skiers on ski slope	n_s	max. 200	Ski slope is in all cases the same	
Ski slope capacity (it balanced it equals the cableway capacity)	$Q_S = Q_C$	1440 persons /h	L_S=1200 m n_S=200	
Average interval between the skiers on the ski slope	$\Delta t_S = \dfrac{3600}{Q_S}$	2,5 s	V_S=2,4 m/s $\Delta t_S = 2,5$ s	
Average speed of the skiers on ski slope (including stops)	$V_S = \dfrac{L_S \cdot \Delta t_S}{n_S \cdot}$	2,4 m/s	Q_S=1440 persons/h	
Number of skiers on ski slope and chairlift	$n_C + n_s$	360 persons	280 persons	332 persons
Number of downhill runs per hour of one skier per ski slope	$n_{HS} = \dfrac{3600}{\dfrac{L_S}{V_S} + \dfrac{L_C}{V_C}}$	4 downhill runs/h	5,14 downhill runs/h	5,14 downhill runs/h
Occupancy of chairlift at 100% occupancy of ski slope	$\eta_C = \dfrac{\Delta t_C}{n \cdot \Delta t_S} \cdot 100$	100%	100%	60%
Occupancy of ski slope at 100% occupancy of chairlift	$\eta_S = \dfrac{n \cdot \Delta t_S}{\Delta t_C} \cdot 100$	100%	100%	166,6%
Ski centre capacity if additional ski slope is set	$n_C + n_s \cdot \eta_S$			465

Table 2. Calculation of data for different types of chairlifts that relate to the same ski slope

The capacities of the cableways and ski slopes are the same which means that the chairlift supplies precisely the chairlift with detachable grips can be performed with no additional problems. If there are no queues at the chairlift, the skiers have the possiblity of skiing more. The total capacity of the ski centre is reduced, since there are fewer skiers at the same time on the chairlift. This would reduce the number of sold ski tickets, so that in practice the 2-seat chairlift with detachable grips are not used. In case of constructing a 4-seat chairlift with detachable grips one can see that both the speed and the capacity of the this cableway are much higher. Therefore, if this cableway were constructed the capacity of the existing ski slope would be exceed by 66 percent, which would be very risky for the skiing safety on this slope. The problem can be solved by expanding the existnig ski slope or by constructing an additional ski slope along the newly constructed chairlift (figure 5, example 3b)

5. Influence of chairlift with detachable grips on the expansion of mountain tourist centres

Chairlifts are cableways with open chairs and therefore the passengers are more exposed to weather elements, wind, rain and frost. The transport of passengers is time-limited to 10 minutes (600 s). Maximum speed of the chairlift with detachable grips is 5 m/s. It is higher than the speed of chairlift with fixed grips (2,5 m/s for two-seat chairlift if the passengers are with skiing equipment), and therefore the length of the line of the chairlift with detachable grips is greater.

Maximum length of the chairlift:

- for the chairlift with detachable grips:

$$L_{Cmax2} = t_{max} \cdot V_{C1} = 600 \text{ s} \cdot 5 \text{ m/s} = 3000 \text{ m}$$

- for the chairlift with fixed grips:

$$L_{Cmax2} = t_{max} \cdot V_{C2} = 600 \text{ s} \cdot 2,5 \text{ m/s} = 1500 \text{ m}$$

Based on these results one can conclude that modern chairlifts enable reaching greater lengths and therefore the skiers have better possibilities for skiing. For better skiers this possibility is necessary, since this is made possible by the latest skiing equipment, preparation of ski slopes and compact snow. The skiers` speed are higher, the average speed being 45 km/h and V_{85} = 59 km/h. (Lipičnik&Sever, 2000)

Considered from the aspect of economy, the construction of the longer cableway is certainly more economical, since the most expensive cableway assemblies are precisely at stations where the most of the mechanical and electrical equipment is concentrated. The investments costs per km also lower in case of longer cableways.

By constructing several chairlifts with detachable grips allows the mountain tourist centre to cover larger areas (Figure 6). In this way the quality of offer is increased, since they can offer more kilometres of ski slopes and the skiers can ski longer, wasting less time on the cableway ride. However, such expansion would also mean greater intervening with the environment in which the mountain tourist centres are located.
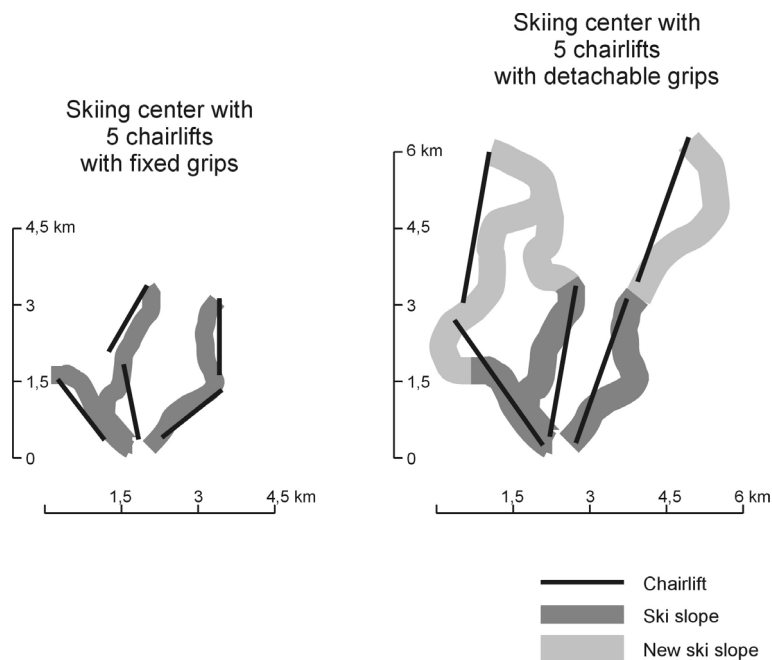
Fig. 6. Occupancy of the mountain tourist centre area by chairlifts with fixed grips and chairlifts with detachable grips (Težak et al., 2005)

6. Modern cableways as an important support to skiing

In mass transport, cableways have mostly the function of a support to skiers. Demands in skiing sports have greatly changed in the last few years. Due to better skiing techniques, skiing equipment, artificial snow and new technology for preparing ski trails, the speed of skiing has greatly increased. Average skiing speeds are above 40 km/h, while speeds up to 70 km/h are quite normal. (Toplak, 2000; Renčelj, 2000). The increase of speeds resulted in higher skier's demands. They can cover large distances per a day, therefore the transport with cableways must be as fast and as time-efficient as possible.

Cableways, too, have greatly developed. The application of detachable grips on chair lifts has greatly enhanced the efficiency, as transport speeds have increased from 2.5 m/s to 5 m/s. A modern four-chair lift has thus four times higher capacity than older two-chair lifts. The transport time for skiers taking a chair-lift is very short.

In the past, ski trails were designed for lower skiing speeds and slower cableways sufficiently handled transport. Now that skiing speeds are higher, it is desirable that a new faster cableway (higher capacity) is built along the skiing area to give skiers support of high quality.

In skiing, however, every skier needs a certain skiing surface so as to be undisturbed and safe when skiing. How many m² of the terrain are needed per a skier depends especially on his/her speed. Austrian guidelines from the year 1978 (Österreichisches Seilbahnkonzept,

1978) define the average surface of the terrain per a skier for safe skiing in dependence on skiing speeds. The figures are evident from the bellow table and diagram (fig. 7).

Sort of skiers	Speed of skiers (km/h)	Necessary area of ski slope (m²) per skier
Beginners		226
Average skiers (1. level)	12,3	226
Average skiers (2. level)	17	332
Average skiers (3. level)	21,5	520
Good skiers	25,9	1174
Very good skiers	33,6	2000

Table 3. Types of skiers, their speed and necessary skiing surface per one skier for safe skiing (Österreichisches Seilbahnkonzept, 1978)

In 2000, speeds of skiers were measured by the team of the Faculty of Civil Engineering (Lipičnik&Sever, 2000) who found out that the average skiing speed was 45.3 km/h (V85 = 59.75 km/h), which is much more than speeds established by Austrian guidelines from 1978. It is evident from the diagram that the surface needed per a skier increases with his/her skiing speed. This interdependence is shown with a polynomial function of the second order (regression function).
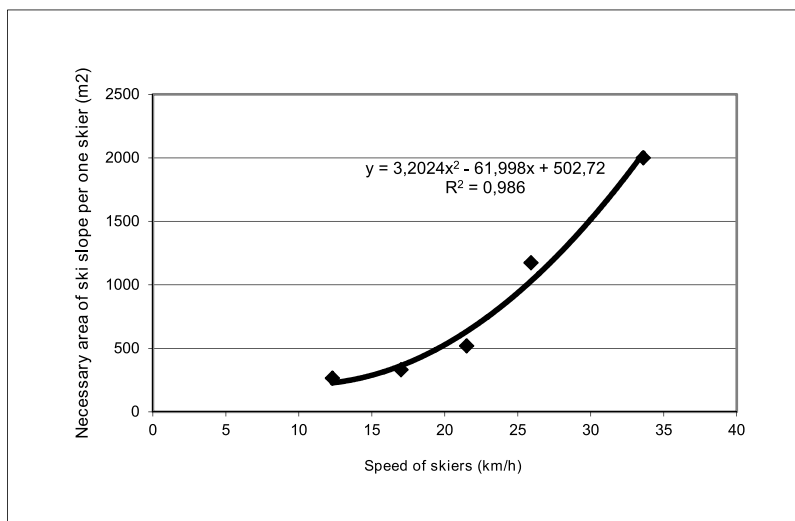
Fig. 7. Necessary area of ski slope per one skier (table 3)

It is evident from the diagram that a skier needs about 300 m2 at the speed of 15 km/h for safe skiing, while this number increases to 1500 m2 at the speed of 30 km/h, which is 5 times more. These findings are valid up to the speed of 35 km/h, which is low for skiers of today. We still do not know the amount of surface needed per a skier at speeds of 45 km/h or 60 km/h. (Težak, 2002)

We can conclude from what was said above that in the case of a reconstruction or replacement of an old cableway with a new, modern and faster one an additional ski trail must be prepared for safe skiing. The preparation of a new ski trail, however, greatly disturbs the environment because it requires cutting down forests and mining of rocky regions.

From a non-ecological point of view it must be pointed out, however, that the Slovenian countryside is getting overgrown with forests. Additional grassy areas for ski trails will thus keep the balance. Outside the skiing season, grassy areas also offer fine possibilities for natural pasture of cattle, which is nowadays of great importance. (Težak, 2009)

7. Proposals to control ski runs with an objective to prevent ski runs overcharging

The ski run capacity should be adjusted to the belonging cable device capacity (persons/hour). By reconstruction of the cable device the capacity of this device is most often increased, while the ski run capacity is forgotten, and beside this newer device a new ski run is not constructed. In this case, during a greater visit day the cable devices "supply" more skiers than ski runs can accept (sources are greater than sinks). In this case there are no lines in front of cable devices, but safety on ski runs is threatened.

The ski run whereupon a skier is skiing offers ideal options to analyse the picture, as the grounding of the photograph is white, and there is a skier who is usually of a darker colour and represents a "stain" on the white grounding (Fig.8). On the basis of this picture analysis (Lep&Težak, 2008), and by means of a computer, we can define parameters which are of essential importance to calculate the ski run capacity.
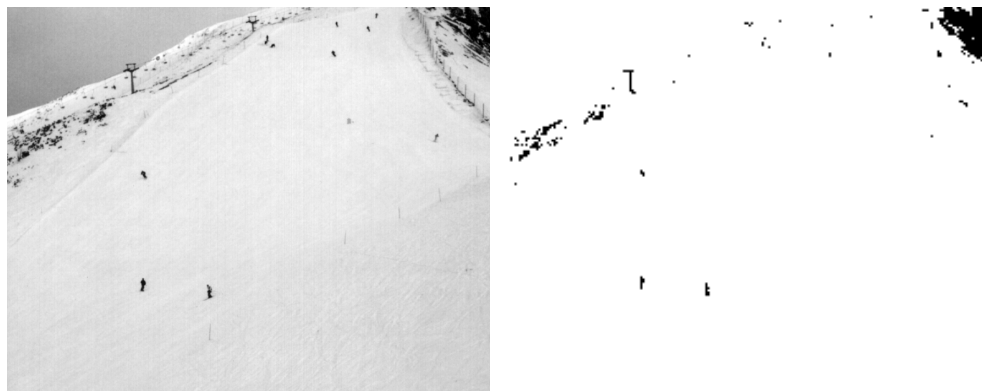
Fig. 8. Picture (left) and black&white raster image (right) of the ski run

7.1 Static visual-computer system to determine the ski run occupation

This system requires a digital camera, a computer with the programme to analyse raster images, and a warning system for skiers. The number of skiers who can safely ski on a certain ski run can be calculated according to the aforesaid method provided the skiers pertaining to sport is evaluated from experience. By means of the ski run photograph, and by its computer analysis (an empty ski run image comparison with the picture being

analysed) the number of skiers on the ski run can be established. When this number is greater than the calculated ski run capacity, it means that the ski run is satiated.

7.2 Dynamic visual-computer system to determine the ski run occupation

This system works similarly as the static one. To analyse the ski run picture whereon there is a skier, the computer detects the skier and calculates the skier coordinates in the picture. Certainly, these skier coordinates in the picture are only a projection (perspective) of the skier position. The skier position correct coordinates can be obtained by means of the ski run 3D model (the most accurate possible geodetic photograph of the ski run). Such a system operation is illustrated in Fig. 9. The equipment for such a system is equal as for the static system, but there is additionally required a geodetic photograph of the territory the coordinates of which are in the computer.

The system should first be calibrated. The points on the ski run which of we know the x, z, y coordinates should be defined the x_p, y_p coordinates in the picture – projection by calibration. Since we have several known points which define the territory 3D model, and their coordinates in the projection (x_p, y_p) known, we can calculate the skier coordinates in the projection (photograph) by means of a linear interpolation (which is the simplest one), and thus indirectly the skier coordinates in the territory 3D model. In this way we can determine the skier position with certain accuracy by means of the territory image (photographs).
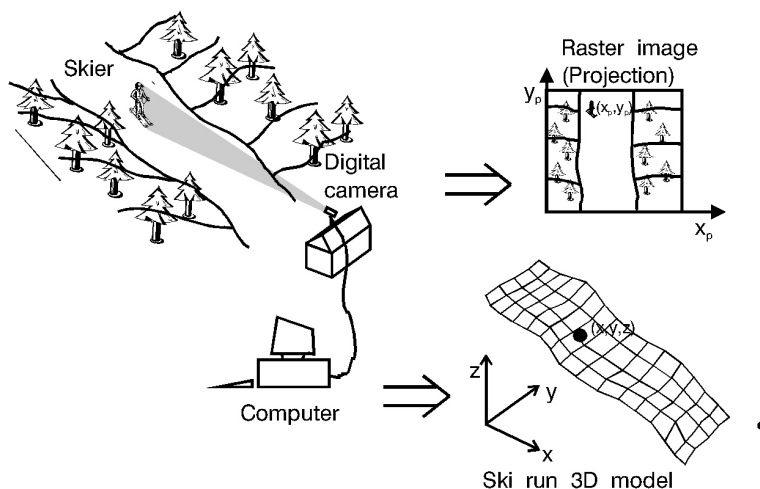
Fig. 9. Monitoring skiers by means of the dynamic visual-computer system (Težak & Lep, 2008)

If the procedure is repeated in certain time intervals, the skier position change in the picture (photograph) can be determined, and consequently the position change in the territory 3D model. In this way it is possible to determine the skier's speed. By prompt enough computers which quickly analyse images (projections) of the ski run with skiers, and determine the skier position in the picture, and also in the ski run area 3D model, we can determine the route, speed, acceleration, charges,… of skiers.

But this system does not function if the digital camera is not set up correctly. In this case there appears singularity, as to one point in the projection can correspond 2 or more points in the 3D model in the original. This example is shown in Fig. 10.
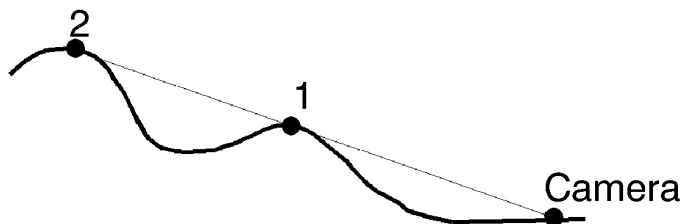
Fig. 10. Example when the digital camera is not set up correctly (Težak, 2000)

On the basis of this system each skier recorded by the digital camera on the ski run can be determined the skiing speed, and this speed is added the required ski run area for safety skiing. In this way the then ski run capacity can be calculated. If on the ski run there are fast skiers, this ski run capacity is smaller as if there are slower skiers.

In case when the static or dynamic visual-computer system perceives the ski run capacity overcharging, a signal is activated, and launches warning systems like:

- electronic inscription SKI SLOW – SKI RUN IS FULL at the entrance of the ski run, or
- red light is lit up on traffic lights, and it bans on entrance of new skiers to the ski run,
- in the extreme case a temporary stop signal to the cable device belonging to this ski run can be sent.

8. Conclusion

The influence of cableways on the environment can be discussed from two points of view. Being a part of the traffic system, cableway traffic is one of the most friendly to the environment. From the point of view of ecology, cableways have advantage over access roads, because of lower emissions of noise and exhaust gases. They also use up less natural space than roadways (shorter lengths due to higher rise).

The construction of new chairlift or replacement of older chairlift by a newer one which features the technique of detaching grips on carriers from the carrying-hauling rope at the station can generate various problems. The cableway companies are trying to solve the problem of queues in front of cableways by replacing the older cableways with the newer ones which are faster and have higher capacities. By installing such chairlifts with detachable grips the balance between the capacities of the ski slopes and chairlifts is disturbed, which results in the overcrowded ski slopes in the peak days, so the quality of offer is reduced. Chairlifts with detachable grips are faster and enable carriage of passengers over greater distances, which on the other hand results in the need for larger areas in the nature.

Bearing in mind the support to skiing, we can conclude that modern cableways of high capacities can transport more skiers who, on the other hand, need larger surfaces for their activity. So, additional ski trails must be built, which is a disturbance to the environment, especially in woody areas.

From the economic point of view, it pays to build cableways that go as far as the mountain foothills. There, also parking places for cars can be located. The function of these cableways is twofold: the access and indirect support to skiers.

Safety on ski runs is quite a serious problem. The non-compatible cable devices and ski runs construction can cause a safety decrease on ski runs. Cable devices can be reconstructed into more efficient on the same line without greater complications, while the existent ski run widening, or construction of an additional ski run is difficult (collecting of all approvals, intervention into the natural environment – wood cutting, blasting, etc.).

When deciding about building additional skiing capacities, i. e. high performance cableways, several new ski trails, accommodation and other infrastructure, a compromise should be found between the interest to protect the environment and the interest to develop the local community. This should be included into state plans. We must be aware that tourism of high quality (lately also in agreement with the environment) is one of good possibilities for quality local and regional development. (Težak et al., 2010)

To establish the ski run occupation it is possible to decrease, by the modern technology, the skiers accidents probability which occur due to the ski super-satiation. A significant contribution to this is a possibility of the territory digital photograph application. The raster image computer analysis programmes already exist, and have already been applied (e.g. assessment of cars number which stay in front of traffic lights). They just need to be adjusted to the skiers monitoring application.

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Exploring the Energy-Saving and Carbon Reduction Literacy of Restaurant Employees

Meng-Lei Hu[1], Jeou-Shyan Horng[2],
Chih-Ching Teng[3] and Sheng-Fang Chou[4]
[1]Dept of Food and Beverage Management
Jinwen University Science and Technology, Taipei
[2]De Lin Institute of Technology, Taipei
[3]Dept of Restaurant, Hotel & Institutional Management
FuJen Catholic University, Taipei
[4]Division of Hospitality Management & Education
Dept. of Human Development & Family Studies, National Taiwan Normal University
Taiwan

1. Introduction

In the era of industrial and commercial advancement, the comprehensive and cross-national impact on the safety of life, ecology, socio-economic well being, health, disease quarantine, waste, or food safety has become a major global issue (e.g., Heaton, 2010). Currently, environmentally sustainable issues and ecological literacy are more important than ever, and environment education has emerged to teach the relationships and interactions between natural and human systems (Goudie, 2008; Stapp, 1998). Company actions to implement sustainable management solutions implicitly assume that managers and employees are aware of the corporate sustainability policies and procedures. However, the assumption can be a leap of faith—many employees may be unaware of sustainability issues beyond their work responsibilities. As a result, we still need to explore how technical, action, and social learning can be used by large corporations to embed sustainability across the organization (Haugh & Talwar, 2010).

Food production has a wide range of sustainability implications, including changes in global biogeochemical processes, such as water consumption (Hoekstra & Chapagain, 2007). Meanwhile, the food service contributes to the global emissions of greenhouse gases (GHGs) relating to agriculture, food processing, transportation, and meal preparation. Food consumption is widely recognized as an important part of the tourism experience (e.g., Hjalanger & Richards, 2002). From the view of sustainable tourism research, consumers are attaching an increasing importance to tourism, whereas restaurant service is an industry that has become an essential part of people's lives (Leslie, 2007). Given that restaurants interact intimately with consumers in the service, the industry plays a significant role in tourism. As a result, the energy and environmental pollution issues of restaurants have become important.

The energy and environmental pollution issues of restaurants have not been adequately studied. The literature on the relationship between restaurant management and environment change is sparse (e.g., Gössling et al., 2011). From the supply and demand perspective, operators, employees, and consumers now have increased awareness of energy conservation and carbon reduction issues. However, the right knowledge is needed so that energy conservation and carbon reduction emissions actions can be implemented to allow the tourism hospitality industry to attain sustainable operations. This is the reason why the environment and eco-related literacy issues are increasingly becoming more important these days (e.g., Balgopal & Wallace, 2009).

Food services provided by restaurants in the global hospitality industry are highly homogeneous, making competition fierce. Although restaurants could enhance sales through marketing, the depletion of food ingredients and energy is projected to reach 50% in the next few decades (Blas, 2007). In terms of the overall work environment, despite the gloomy economic forecast, the injection of human capital, including personnel cost and productivity, is essential. The restaurant industry also faces intensified competition and the challenges of sustainable management (Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs, 2007). In Taiwan, an island of scarce energy reserves, massive volumes of greenhouse gases are produced each year due to the large fossil fuel consumption. In 2007, CO_2 emissions from energy use totaled 276.18 million tons, or 0.95% of the world consumption; CO_2 emission per capita volume was 12.08 tons. These figures are among the highest in the world (International Energy Agency, 2009). Currently, energy efficiency and carbon emission reduction are Taiwanese government's important policies.

Organizational learning, change mechanisms, and literacy can assist the holistic understanding of sustainability knowledge and practice (e.g., Benn & Martin, 2010). Developing ESCR literacy contents for environment and hospitality education programs and/or the reward eligibility criteria of hospitality industry and education is a challenging task that needs improvement. To build on prior research and to promote and implement ESCR practices effectively such as energy saving and carbon reduction in the hospitality tourism industry, the current study aimed to explore restaurant employees' ESCR literacy content, especially regarding energy saving and carbon reduction in Taiwan.

2. Literature information

2.1 Corporate social responsibility in the restaurant environment

The Earth's resources are limited and competition is global; hence, environmental issues have become important. Raising the social responsibility of businesses is an inevitable trend. Both consumers and investors are beginning to see more clearly the relationship between business performance and environmental quality (Bansal & Roth, 2000; Chung & Parker, 2010; Scanlon, 2007).

Berry and Rondinelli (1998) noted that progressive corporations are now looking at environmental performance from a far different perspective than they did a decade ago. Beyond complying with increasingly more stringent regulations, they must protect or enhance their ethical images, avoid serious legal liabilities, and satisfy the safety concerns of employees. For the tourism, hotel, and food and beverage service industry, the competition for scarce resources such as clean water, energy, and arable land will intensify in the face of global warming and an expanding global population (Dubois & Ceron, 2006; Tip, 2009).

Learning what we can do now to conserve resources and acting on that information is critical for the future sustainability of the food system (American Dietetic Association, 2007).

The hospitality and tourism industry is under pressure to become more environmentally friendly. Therefore, restaurant operators will begin to focus on social responsibility, the concept of industrial ecology, and environmental management issues (Burstrom & Korhonen, 2001, García Rodríguez & del Mar Armas Cruz, 2007; Manaktola & Jauhari, 2007). For example, according to American Yum! Brands, Inc.'s first corporate-responsibility report, the company is stepping up efforts to lower its carbon footprint and operate more eco-friendly restaurants. The report also stated that Yum is attempting to reduce its worldwide environmental impact by implementing equipment retrofits and energy-efficient innovations, employing better energy and waste management systems, and recycling paper and other packaging.

2.2 Energy saving, carbon reduction, and literacy in the restaurant industry

There is growing recognition of the rapidly increasing impact of green, energy saving, carbon reduction, and the importance of sustainability (e.g., Laing & Frost, 2010). The Green Restaurant Association (GRA), a non-profit organization that helps food service operations become more environmentally sustainable (GRA, 2010), has been building the world's largest database of environmental solutions for the restaurant industry since 1990. The association believes restaurants should adopt safety, health, and environmental protection concepts, use energy and resources efficiently and economically, utilize organic ingredients and environmentally friendly products (such as environmental protection tableware), and use non-toxic and environmental-friendly building materials and cleaning products. According to Manaktola and Jauhari (2007), a green hotel and restaurant is a term that refers to a lodging establishment that has made a commitment to various ecologically sound and green practices, such as saving water, conserving energy, and reducing solid waste (www.hometravelagency.com).

For the sustainable environment, reduction of greenhouse gas, self-carbon offset becomes popular for consumers. The rapid growth in such supply of carbon neutrality organizations, they may restrict carbon trading in the aviation industry. The main purposes of the act are to achieve carbon neutrality and low carbon consumption and to promote responsibility for sustainable tourism (Sisman & Associates, 2007). Energy consumption and energy conservation have been widely discussed in the studies of environmental protection issues (e.g., Boyle, 2004). Implementing energy-conserving practices is reportedly essential for ensuring competitiveness in the hospitality industry. Chan (2005) investigated environmental actions in three hotels, including electricity conservation measures, gas and fuel oil conservation initiatives, and consumption assessment. The results of these studies indicate that energy conservation equipment can substantially reduce electricity and water usage in the restaurant industry. The same studies demonstrate that monitoring energy and using high-performance, low-wattage facilities are the most effective energy conservation measures in the restaurant industry.

Literacy implies not only the understanding of a particular, relevant body of knowledge and a set of relationships but also the ability and willingness to use that knowledge in a functional manner—to read and write. DeWaters, Powers, and Graham (2007) defined

energy literacy in terms of knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors. This definition creates important questions for discussion: How much and what kinds of knowledge are important for energy literacy? What types of behaviors and attitudes typify an energy literate individual? DeWaters, Powers, and Graham (2007) created an energy literacy scale that included three outcomes: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. Cognitive outcomes (knowledge) include topics that address the understanding of basic scientific concepts such as the laws of thermodynamics (conservation of energy; efficiency of energy conversion) and definitions and units of energy and power. Affective outcomes (attitude) include topics that are less specific and are intended to measure individuals' feelings about the urgency of the energy problem, their desire to learn and do more about energy conservation, and their belief in the relevance of their own decisions and actions to the overall global energy. Finally, behavioral outcomes include a handful of opportunities for demonstrating intentions and behaviors designed to gauge individuals' willingness to conserve energy with their everyday behaviors and their general capabilities for objective, critical evaluation of new ideas (e.g., Ramsey, 1993).

Hungerford and Tomera (1985) were the first to propose the environmental literacy model, which contains eight variables: ecology concept; locus of control; the problem of knowledge, beliefs, values, attitudes, and environmental sensitivity; and knowledge of environmental action strategies. Stables and Bishop (2001) and Pe'er, Goldman, and Yavetz (2007) pointed out the importance of environmental literacy, which is a personal issue for the environment with the knowledge and attitude to resolve the environmental problems of skills and motivation, as well as active involvement in maintaining the quality of life and the dynamic balance between environmental quality. Balgopal and Wallace (2009) created a cognitive-affective-behavior writing to learn model to enhance ecological literacy.

3. Research method and conceptual model

The researchers adopted a qualitative research method and conducted in-depth interviews with 16 F&B or engineering directors, educators (or researchers) of hotels and restaurants, and EPA employees. Through in-depth interviews, the researchers attempted to understand complex behavioral patterns without imposing any prior categorization that might limit the field of inquiry. Concepts were derived inductively from an initial set of qualitative descriptions, in this case the transcripts of interviews with F&B or engineering directors of hotels and restaurants and educators (or researchers) with regard to their ESCR practices. When these concepts were coded into rudimentary categories, they led to the collection of more descriptions. These initial descriptions were meaning units, which were extracted from the interview transcripts and could stand alone to convey ideas. To guarantee this project's credibility, participants were provided with documents, such as related ESCR action projects, official files, and photographs, thus enabling the researchers to conduct a triangulation analysis. Finally, to ensure the project's validity, the researchers used reflection notes to document their research methodology and the implications of their findings with regard to ESCR practices.

Data were collected during a two-month period, in which the researchers visited hotels, restaurants, hospitality schools, and EPA employees. All interviews followed a prescribed schedule to ensure that all the issues were discussed. Guaranteed confidentiality, 16 respondents were informed about the purpose of the project, and the interviews were

conducted using semi-structured, open-ended questions. This format allowed the researchers to ask more precise and tailored questions, and enabled individuals to be more expansive in providing illustrations, narratives, examples, and other relevant insights. The interviews were conducted individually and lasted about two hours each. Interviews were carried out at the respondents' convenience; most were held at the researchers' on-site location or in a quiet area of the subject's office. Each interview included questions on the following: subjects' individual backgrounds, corporate social responsibility, eco-friendly actions, ESCR practices used, and factors influencing the ESCR practices. The interviews were audio-recorded and fully transcribed. All respondents participated in the project voluntarily; the researchers had given them prior notice, and the respondents were later informed by the researchers' supervisors about the visit.

4. Results

According to the analytical results of the interview transcripts and upon modifying these with certain aspects of other literacy models (Hungerford & Tomera 1985), the researchers then structured an eight multi-dimension conceptual model of ESCR literacy: knowledge of issues; concept of industrial ecology; ESCR attitude; value; beliefs; locus of control; ESCR sensitivity; and ESCR action strategies (see Table 1 and Figure 1). The underlined statements below were direct quotes from the interview transcripts.

Dimension	Items
1.Knowledge of issues (7 items)	• Knowledge of restaurant equipment energy usage • Related knowledge on the importance of sustainable foods • Related knowledge of greenhouse gas, such as carbon footprints • Related knowledge of ESCR architecture • Knowledge of energy saving and water usage • Knowledge of reducing restaurants' environmental pollution issues • Related knowledge of waste reduction and recycling of resources
2.Concept of industrial ecology (5 items)	• Attentiveness to global warming and the role of the restaurant industry • Understanding the inter-dependent relationship between man and ecology • Respect for the effect of restaurants on the ecology of community environment • Understanding the possible environmental pollution problems caused by restaurants • Paying attention to the urgency of environmental issues
3.ESCR attitude (5 items)	• Agree that technology cannot fully address the environmental problems caused by mankind • Provide consumers with comfortable service and enable them to adopt an active attitude toward environmental preservation • Willing to fulfill social obligation and strive toward the alleviation of global warming

Dimension	Items
	• Willing to support the various energy-saving and carbon reduction measures adopted by the restaurant • Strive for the high efficiency and low-cost usage of resources
4.Value (4 items)	• Adopting energy-saving and carbon reduction measures in the restaurant can contribute to the environment • Avoid using food ingredients with food mile to enhance the overall F&B quality • For the purpose of moral conscience, restaurants should avoid using environmentally unfriendly food ingredients and products such as high-pollutant lotions • Should conduct an environmental evaluation of the restaurant and then publicly announce the results
5.Belief (4 items)	• Energy saving and carbon reduction rely on human effort; it all depends on whether we have the heart • Believe that the impact of the restaurant on the environment can be improved by integrating consumers' power • Believe the environment can be improved through a long-term evaluation of the results • Believe better results in energy saving and carbon reduction can be achieved through restaurant management
6.ESCR sensitivity (5 items)	• Perceive that environment problems cannot be resolved by over-reliance on technology • Understand that Taiwan lacks resources and relies heavy on imports • Perceives that the environmental pollution problems of the restaurant industry can lead to serious consequences • Pay attention to the energy wastage situation of the restaurant • Pay attention to the environmental pollution problem caused in the service process
7.Locus of control (3 items)	• Believe man has the ability to change the interactive relationship of this system • Believe the objective of energy saving and carbon reduction can be achieved through data analysis • Believe the emission of green-house gases can be reduced through efforts to clamp down on inappropriate behaviors
8. ESCR action strategies (10 items)	• Willing to use ESCR equipment • Respect the sustainability of food and use local ingredients • Centralize handling of food semi-products to reduce resource waste • Examine service flow, such as providing the appropriate food portion, and reducing food packaging and cleaning frequency • Pay attention to the reduction of garbage and kitchen waste by reducing garbage, recycling resource, and pursuing a paperless

Dimension	Items
	system
	• Use low-wattage culinary methods to reduce smoke, water pollutants, and chemical matters
	• Promote ESCR architecture, such as using local construction materials and low-pollutant decoration
	• Urge the government to implement restaurant environmental protection regulations
	• Urge the government to establish environmental protection incentive measures
	• Urge the government to promote ESCR restaurant certification and incentive measures
	• Willing to communicate energy-saving and carbon reduction concepts to colleagues and consumers

Table 1. Multi-dimensions of restaurant employees' ESCR literacy
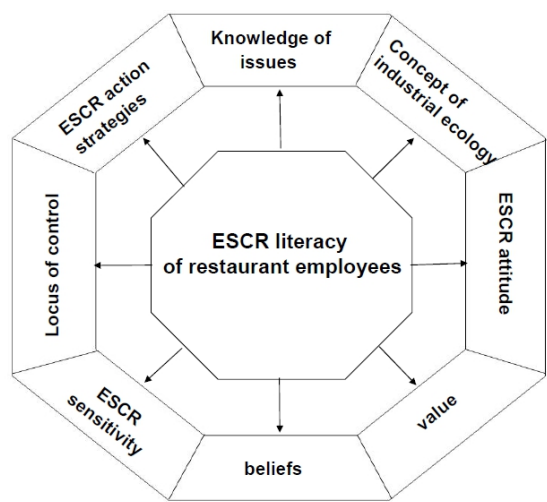
Fig. 1. ESCR literacy model of restaurant employees

4.1 Knowledge of issues

Experts of in-depth interviews agreed that the ESCR literacy of restaurant employees includes the knowledge of environment and ESCR issues, such as energy use, importance of sustainable food, waste reduction, and recycling, carbon disclosure and carbon footprint, ESCR construction and operating positions, and reduction of environmental pollution. Moreover, total environmental and ESCR knowledge includes the understanding of ecological principles and processes that are fundamental to comprehending the effects of humans on natural systems; the interrelationship between social systems and natural systems; the environmental issues arising from these complex interactions; and strategies of environmental action.

Hungerford and Tomera (1985) asserted that knowledge of issues may promote changes in human values and lead to overt action with respect to those issues. The results of their study describe ESCR knowledge of environmental issues as one's understanding of specific environmental issues that are important to ESCR literacy. These results also support other related studies, such as those by Ramsey (1993); Leeming, Dwyer, and Bracken (1995); Morrone, Mancl, and Carr, (2001); von Malmborg (2004); McMillan, Wright, and Beazley (2004); and Pe'er, Goldman, and Yavetz (2007).

> "To reduce carbon, one should understand the power efficiency of machines when designing the kitchen... and the noise pollution of range hoods.
> Cooks should possess the knowledge of ESCR dishes, such as adopting local, in-season food ingredients or use simple culinary techniques to preserve the original flavor."

4.2 Concept of industrial ecology

Restaurant employees noted that industrial ecology concepts include the understanding of the environmental impact of food and the human environment, the role of global warming, environment and the relationship between dietary behavior, and noting the urgency of the issue. These results support other related studies of industrial ecology concepts, such as those by Ramsey (1993); Burstrom and Korhonen (2001); and McMillan, Wright, and Beazley (2004).

> "Of the quantity of carbon that a cow produces, how much water and cereal products it consumes? Then, with such a consumption of cereal, how many of Africa's hunger population can we feed? Too much meat dietary is not suitable for our physical structure... also, the cost of a meat dietary is high and thus the social cost is high."

4.3 ESCR attitude

ESCR attitudes may reflect the initial enthusiasm characterizing a restaurant employee at the onset of a new ESCR direction. ESCR attitudes apply to general feelings toward ecology and the environment, feelings and concern for specific environmental issues, and feelings toward acting to remedy ESCR problems. Personal responsibility represents an individual's sense of obligation toward the environment, either in general or to a specific aspect (e.g., reducing air pollution or recycling).

The researchers extracted four ESCR attitudes from the analytical results: restaurant employees understand the relationship between technology and the environment; the F&B environment can adopt a positive and active attitude that incorporates consumers' comfort and environmental protection; fulfill social responsibility and willing to comply with the restaurant's energy-saving and carbon reduction measures; and support the restaurant's environmental regulations to improve environmental quality. From this result, the researchers concluded that through education, individuals can place more emphasis on the quality of the ecological environment, participate more in solving environmental problems, and gain more awareness of related environmental issues (Stapp, 1998). The above findings support other related ESCR attitude studies, such as those by Hines, Hungerford, and Tomera (1986/1987); Schindler (1999); and Cordano, Welcomer, and Scherer (2003).

> "I personally believe that saving energy and reducing carbon depends on human effort. We have to dedicate toward it.

> We should consider the attitudes in technology and the environment and the effect on Taiwan's restaurant environment issues."

4.4 Value

"Value," or "sense of value," is an abstract concept. The affective strand, concerned with the attitudes and values necessary to motivate the transformation of knowledge into responsible environment behavior, is also an important component for developing ESCR literacy. Environmental value can be classified into ecocentrism and anthropocentrism. These two types of value both respond positively to environmental preservation. What is different, however, is that ecocentrism indicates that human beings would protect the eco-system because they believe that it has an essential value; meanwhile, anthropocentrism concepts represent the belief that protecting the environment is important because nature provides human beings with rich resources (Dunlap & Van Liere, 1978). The researchers have extracted four values from the analytical results, such as "Avoid using food ingredients with food mile to enhance the overall F&B quality" (see Table 1). These values support the results of other related ESCR values studies, such as those by Hungerford and Tomera (1985), and Cameron, Brown, and Chapman (1998).

> "Restaurant operators conduct energy diagnostics for the sake of saving energy… the underlying value is that their efforts can actually contribute to the environment.
> F&B operators rarely use ESCR detergents because of their high price. Therefore, this involves a sense of value, namely business intuition."

4.5 Beliefs

A belief is not more than an idea that a person holds to be true, and a person's perspective about an issue depends heavily on his/her beliefs. If the belief is erroneous, the individual's values and attitudes can be biased in an ecologically faulty manner (Hungerford & Tomera, 1985). The researchers extracted four beliefs from the analytical results, such as "Believe that the impact of the restaurant on the environment can be improved by integrating consumers' power" and "Believe the environment can be improved through a long-term evaluation of the results." These belief results are related to the individual's value and attitude, which would then influence behavior. The results also support the findings of other related ESCR attitude studies, such as those by Hungerford and Tomera (1985), and Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, and Jones (2000).

> "I believe our hotel and restaurant is able to do a good job in energy management because of human effort. We have to dedicate toward it."

4.6 Locus of control

Locus of control refers to the understanding that the ecological system is composed of humans, culture, living organizations, and physical environment, and that mankind has the ability to change the inter-relations of such a system. The empirical findings of the current study show that individuals with internal and external locus of control tend to take action on an issue because they feel their actions would help alleviate issues such as believing that they can improve restaurant service's impact on the environment by integrating consumers' power, and that they can achieve the objectives of energy saving and carbon reduction

through evaluating data and long-term results. These results are also factors associated with an individual's perception of whether a particular behavior will result in an anticipated reinforcement for acting. Other studies have argued that locus of control denotes an individual's perceptions of his/her ability to bring about environmental change through personal behavior. Someone who attributes change to external factors and not to personal behavior (external locus of control) is considered to be less inclined to influence a situation. Internal locus of control describes people who believe in their ability to bring about change through personal actions (Hungerford & Volk, 1990; Allen and Ferrand 1999). The results of locus of control include internal and external locus of control, and both are important dimensions of the ESCR literacy of restaurant employees.

> "Do we have to control the direction of energy management? The simplest way would be to install water and electricity meters in every restaurant and then we can collect information afterwards.
> As a citizen of Taiwan, I believe that I can integrate the powers of consumers and operators to improve the impact of restaurants on the environment."

4.7 ESCR sensitivity

ESCR sensitivity is an empathetic or understanding view of the environment. The interview results of the present study yielded the following four major ESCR sensitivity concepts: cannot rely on technology to address environmental pollution problems caused by restaurants; the major impact of the restaurant industry's smoke and wastewater emission on the environment; the carbon emission and energy exhaustion caused by restaurant locations; and the environmental risks caused by restaurant management. These results also support other related studies of sensitivity such as those by Chawla (1998) and Ramsey (1993), which defined environmental sensitivity as the predisposition of a person to empathize with the environment.

> "We should let everyone know that Taiwan's energy sources are inadequate since some countries produce power through coal or nuclear power. For water emission, if we don't handle it properly then water pollution may result. This is also a form of environment sensitivity.
> We should have the concept of geographical location. For example, what is the best location to establish a restaurant?"

4.8 ESCR action strategies

Restaurant employees showed an understanding of energy saving and carbon reduction strategies, including the knowledge of attitude change and initiating the efforts to propose actions and strategies related to environmental issues. The following ESCR action strategies were extracted from the interviews conducted by the researchers: willingness to use environmental protection/high performance/high efficiency equipment; changing the service flow to control serving portions; reducing food packaging and cleaning frequency; communicating and promoting knowledge about energy saving and carbon reduction to consumers; educating and transforming restaurant employees' concepts and developing their good habits; paying attention to waste reduction measures, such as implementing paperless systems, decreasing the number of one-time garbage disposals, recycling, and reducing range hood smoke, water pollutants, and chemical matters; using low-wattage

cooking methods and focusing on ESCR purchases; using a centralized kitchen to handle semi-finished products to reduce resource waste; respecting the sustainability of food and willingness to use local ingredients; creating energy-saving and carbon reduction plans; promoting ESCR education and using local construction materials; and urging the government to implement F&B environmental protection regulations. Stapp (1998) noted that when people confront environmental issues, they need to understand how to address these problems, fulfill their citizen obligation of supervising the government and providing solutions. These results support other related studies of ESCR action strategies, such as that by Kollmuss and Agyeman (2002).

> "Use ingredients of the current season and simple culinary methods can preserve the original flavor of the dish. Also, the appropriate serving portion has to be considered.
> In the restaurant industry that spans small eateries to large hotels, it is important to implement these energy-saving and carbon-reduction concepts (HC-083).
> Adopt a centralized kitchen concept to handle ingredients! For example, the fish bones left over could be centralized and reused.
> Restaurants adopt ESCR mark products and use local ingredients because the quality is good and cost is low."

5. Discussion

Hospitality managers and educators are encouraged to incorporate environmental contents into the formal training and educational practices (e.g., Guane & Parsa, 2006). Prior studies emphasized and suggested that environmental education fosters awareness, understanding, and concern that motivate students to take action in their personal and organizational lives to facilitate environmentally sustainable behaviors (e.g., Rands, 2009). The results of the current study indicated that ESCR literacy contents include 43 items in eight categories: knowledge of issues; concept of industrial ecology; ESCR attitude; value; beliefs; locus of control; ESCR sensitivity; and ESCR action strategies. These results are congruent to other related studies, such as those by Goldman, Yavetz, and Pe'er (2006), and Wright (2008).

The eight-dimension ESCR literacy model of the present study is similar to other environment-related models such that the dimensions of knowledge, affective state, (attitude), and behavior are included (Balgopal & Wallace, 2009; Pe'er, Goldman, & Yavetz, 2007). Moreover, the ESCR literacy model is also congruent with the eight dimensions contained in Hungerford and Tomera's (1985) model (ecology concept; locus of control; the problem of knowledge, beliefs, values, attitudes, environmental sensitivity; and knowledge of environmental action strategies). Many studies have argued that attitudes are typically considered to have knowledge, emotional (affective), and behavioral components (Hungerford & Tomera, 1985), citing the affective (attitude) portion of ESCR literacy as the most important because it includes three dimensions: ESCR attitude, locus of control, and ESCR sensitivity. The cognitive component of literacy includes two dimensions: knowledge of issues and concept of ecology; on the other hand, there is only one dimension in the behavior component of literacy: ESCR action strategies.

In conclusion, the current research presents a unique contribution to the existing body of ESCR literacy of restaurant employees. This study provides educators and the industry with a model of ESCR literacy content that highlights the essential components for the restaurant industry. Prior studies only discussed energy saving and the carbon reduction of food

related to footprint management (Gössling et al., in press), agriculture (Popp, Lotze–Campen, & Bodirsky, 2010), and metaphor. In addition, Oliver (1999) only explored food metaphors to discuss corporate strategy, including images of cooking involving mixing, using heat to transform things, and waiting for them to be finished. The results of the present study suggest that restaurant managers can improve the ESCR literacy of employees by training them in the components related to the cognitive, attitudinal, and behavioral dimensions. Doing so could foster an ESCR and ecologically sensitive working environment, activities, and behaviors for restaurant employees. Moreover, incorporating these ESCR literacy statements into training programs and the curriculum and/or reward eligibility criteria of the hospitality industry and environment education can improve the eco-friendly and ESCR practices of restaurant employees and enhance the food service industry's customer satisfaction and sustainability.

6. Vision for the industry

Although many hospitality studies demonstrate the need to address environment management and climate change, few studies attempt to identify the specific content of ESCR literacy of restaurant employees. The current study explored the important ESCR literacy contents to empower restaurant employees with a belief in their ability to contribute to environmental solutions through personal behavior. Related knowledge and skills are critical for the successful ESCR implementation of the hospitality industry.

7. Acknowledgements

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The Early Stages of Historical Documentation and Modern Archives in Jerusalem Society at the End of the Ottoman Period

Oded Shay

Dept. of Jewish History Ben-Gurion University
Israel

1. Introduction

The period of Ottoman rule in Palestine, lasted for four hundred years, from 1517 until the British conquest of the country. "The Unchanging East" – reflected the position of traditional-conservative society and tinged somewhat with envy, towards the Europeanization of Palestine. Indeed, the popular picture of Palestine, and the whole of the Levant – as the unchanging east, backward and resting on its laurels, as described by many European visitors, was far removed from the truth as far as previous centuries were concerned, and just as removed from the truth in the 19th century. "The East" was changing steadily, in stages, and the image of Palestine at the end of the period, on the eve of WWI, was substantially different from its image at the turn of the century. Political and social reform was in the offing whose objective was centralized control and modernization of its administration while granting equal rights to non-Muslim minorities.[1]

It should be noted that in 1800 and 1890, non-Muslim minorities (Christian, Jewish) made up 10.4% and 18.8% respectively of the total population of Palestine.[2] The country opened up to prolific and diversified political, economic and cultural activities on the part of the European powers as a result of the strengthening of their interests and desire to influence events in that part of the world. Crusaders, missionaries, holy men and even settlers arrived in Palestine, who developed a network of foreign institutions, such as churches, monasteries with hostels, schools, hospitals, businesses and financial enterprises. European powers, including England, Prussia, France, as well as the USA, Austria and Russia, opened up permanent consulates in Jerusalem, in Jaffa and in Haifa. The foreign consuls exerted a great influence, and acted as leaders for the minorities who benefited from the capitulations arrangement. The consuls maintained close ties with the churches and missionary institutions of their compatriots.[3]

Evidence of libraries and archives in Palestine in the second half of the 19th century can be found in the journals of tourists, pilgrims and explorers of Palestine. Modest collections of religious and legal books containing original works were found in the Muslim communities, in mosques and Muslim law courts. A number of large and valuable private collections existed in the homes of distinguished town-dwelling families. By comparison, the Christians

in Palestine established libraries: 1. in monasteries, in churches and missions; 2. in educational and research institutions whose objective was the study of the Holy Land; 3. in consulates. Monasteries and churches in Palestine maintained libraries that preceded all the other libraries. At the same time, these libraries should be viewed as archive collections and not as organized libraries for the benefit of subscribers. They contained mainly manuscript collections that were scattered among the monasteries and churches of the different sects. When we write modern archives in Jerusalem society, we mean that in multicultural comunitis in Jerusalem there were many generic archives which also existed as libraries, but only for inners needs.

The legacy of memory was archived by rolling the memory back and its presentation in a manuscript or antique document, which is different in history. Because of the contradictions that exist between memory and history, the combination of basic historical learning tools and the most symbolic objects of the memory: archives, libraries, museums and dictionaries, were like memorial ceremonies, festivals, eulogy deliveries, etc. Therefore, minorities gave these institutions a deep significance in cognition of the memory and preserved them zealously in locked shelters. Over time, collectors, learned men and monks came and devoted themselves to accumulating documentation, on the periphery of a society advancing without them and to a written history without their involvement. Later, the history of memory placed this treasure at the center of learned work and the result issued through society's channels of communication. The memory became an autonomous institution of archives, museums, libraries, caches, documentation centers and data banks. As the traditional memory fades away, a sense of obligation exists to the public of adherence to relics, evidence, documents, pictures, etc., that provide confirmatory signs of what happened in the past and as proof in an historical courthouse.

Within this process, an archive, visitors' center or museum was established by an individual or group of people whose objective was to perpetuate and preserve. The individual could well be one with initiative (a freak), totally dedicated to the establishment of the archive, exemplified by Jewish pioneers, Rivka and Alexander Aaronson who in the early twenties of the 20th century began to collect the voluminous material found in the Agricultural Experimental Station and literary vestiges of their brother the scientist Aaron Aaronson.[4] The purpose in this article is to show the nature of historical activity regarding archival and library materials in Jerusalem at the end of the Ottoman period. Later, a number of examples were brought to the archives, where material was cataloged and dealt with according to modern authentication, at Christian and European religious and research institutions, as well as by the Arabic society of Jerusalem at the end of the Ottoman period.

2. Archives and libraries at Christian religious institutions

The advent of archives and libraries in churches and monasteries began with manuscript collections, archeological findings and Christian ritual objects. One of them was in Santa Katarina monasty in Sinai.[5] As the main spiritual preoccupation of the monks was the study of holy writings and litany, a location for a library and archive was allocated in the monastery, containing ancient manuscripts and books, some of which were written or copied by the monks themselves. Manuscripts are considered by Christianity as holy treasures, to be preserved at all cost, and comes the time, a guarantee of salvation for all

those who have obeyed the commandments. Often, manuscripts were donated to a church or monastery, leading to the establishment of archives and libraries in monasteries. Monasteries that flourished under Christian rule in Palestine (Byzantine, Crusader) were renewed in the 19th century. It should be pointed out that the writings and books were intended for internal use in the monastery, and most outsiders visiting the monastery were denied access to the writings and books. In the 19th century with the restoration of the monasteries, the monks amassed in the monasteries manuscripts found in their immediate surroundings. The most richly endowed archives and libraries in Jerusalem were found in monasteries at the beginning of the 19th century. In the early 20th century, the number of collections and libraries in Jerusalem was reported to be increasing yearly.[6] Examples of these collections in Jerusalem are given below:

2.1 The archive and library of the Greek-Orthodox Patriarchy

Within the framework of renewal in the 19th century, the Greek-Orthodox Patriarchy decided, on the initiative of the Patriarch Nikodemus,[7] the office holder at the time, to collect ancient manuscripts from a number of monasteries in Palestine and concentrate them in a single location. The task was given to the monks, such as the monks of Mar Saba monastery in the Judean Desert, who restored the theological library of the existing patriarchy in Jerusalem dating from the beginning of the 3rd century. This library, containing many manuscripts, referred to in ancient sources, served as a center of learning of major importance, patronized by the first ecclesiastical investigators, such as Osavius, Origanus and Hironymous. In 1800, most of the manuscripts in monasteries in Palestine were taken to Jerusalem.[8] The person responsible for centralizing the various manuscripts was the Greek scholar Athanasios Papadopoulos Kerameus, who was invited, in 1883, to serve as secretary to the Patriarch Nikodemus.[9]

During a visit to the Mar Saba monastery in the Judean Desert in 1821, the German researcher, Johann Martin Augustine Scholz, discovered some 200 abandoned manuscripts in total disorder. In addition, manuscripts from the 8th and 9th centuries and many from the 12th and 13th centuries were found in a preserved condition. He himself marked them clandestinely sequentially in order to refer to them in his writings. Many of the manuscripts were theological essays or copies of Greek holy works, but there were also 20 Arabic manuscripts and 50 printed books.[10] In 1837, 700 manuscripts were handed over to the Patriarchal library in Jerusalem.[11]

This air of renewal awakened in the monasteries, that were mainly completely unoccupied or partially unoccupied by monks. Gradually, monks sent to Palestine together with the Crusaders restored the ancient monasteries in Ashkelon, Beit Govrin, Beit She'an, Mt. Tabor, Tiberias and in Gaza, as well as the refurbished church in Caesarea. At the same time, a monk at Beit Govrin collated ancient in-situ manuscripts, while in Caesarea, one of the monks gathered together heads of statues and coins. During this period, a seminary was established at the Monastery of the Cross headed by Father Kleophas who carried out research and published books on Christianity and the geography of Palestine. According to Scholz, the archive and library of the main Greek monastery were the largest in the city in his time. There he found 60 manuscripts and 500 books, most relating to theology, however, among the manuscripts he would come across musical subjects.[12]

The library contained manuscripts and books in Arabic, Syrian, Ethiopian, Slav and Greek, as well as books on geography. At the beginning of the 20th century, the librarian was Hippolyta Michailidis. A similar library, but larger than in Jerusalem, was that of the Greek Patriarchy in Cairo which contained mainly ancient manuscripts.[13] A 1911 tourist guide mentions that most of the valuable books in the Church of the Cross were transferred in recent years to the great monastery within the city, and this library contains writings from the Mar Saba monastery.[14]

Other archives and libraries written about by Scholz were found in the chapel of Nicholas the Holy One (adjacent to the Patriarchy, today the museum of the Greek Orthodox Patriarchy), containing 180 volumes and miscellaneous manuscripts, and also at the Monastery of the Cross.[15] In 1856, the monastery was converted into a theological school, and its interior underwent structural changes in order to meet its new requirements.[16] Before changes were carried out, new wings were added, two stories with sumptuous chambers for receptions and ceremonies, an archive, and museum, as well as administrative offices for the school. Scholz discovered in this monastery 400 manuscripts from the Gregorian period, written in that language, and which the Greek monks were forbidden to peruse. The archive was also a preserve for 15 Syrian manuscripts, 10 Arabic manuscripts, 12 Armenian manuscripts, 14 Greek manuscripts, 4 Slavic manuscripts and printed books.[17]

Twenty years later, a researcher of the Sinai monastery library, Constantine von Tischendorf, who visited Palestine in 1844, reported that most of the Gregorian manuscripts were sold in Europe. He also discovered an additional archive in the Mar Elias monastery, concealed from tourists in a solitary tower next to the monastery, containing manuscripts of Greek, Russian, Wallachian (a region of Romania), Arabic and Syrian origin. He particularly made mention of ten beautiful Ethiopian manuscripts written on parchment. The monks told him that a member of the Russian church had compiled a complete list of manuscripts at the site. After some time, he heard that an additional collection of manuscripts had been discovered at the Mar Saba monastery, but did not have the time to peruse them.[18]

During the years following WWI, the Greek library in the Old City was opened, evidence of which can be found in a book by the Jewish geographer Yeshayahu Press, published in 1921, which mentions the library and collection of ancient Greek Orthodox manuscripts.

A number of years later, on the initiative of Greek Bishop Temotaus, the museum of the Patriarchy was officially established, containing the library and archive. The museum was inaugurated in 1922, and opened up to the public. The library and the museum are mentioned in the 1946 tourist guide, where it is written that the Greek Patriarchy maintains a library of ancient Greek manuscripts and a museum with collections of antiquities and paintings. Today, the library contains some 2,300 ancient manuscripts and some 10,000 antique books.[19]

2.2 The archive and library of the Armenian Patriarchy

The first we learn of the Armenian archive and library in Jerusalem was from the writings of the German researcher Titus Tobler, who was residing in Jerusalem at the beginning of the 19th century, and wrote of the existence of a library in the Armenian monastery, containing

an archive.[20] 'The American Eastern Society' report from 1860, states that Armenian manuscripts and artistic exhibits were on show at museums in Istanbul and Jerusalem, in private collections and in the royal library in Paris. At the same time, there was no clear distinction between the library and the archive on the one hand and the museum, and artistic exhibits and manuscripts preserved together.[21]

The founder of the library and archive, the Armenian patriarch Esayi Garabedian, was acting patriarch from 1864 to 1885.[22] He initiated the establishment of the Armenian museum and library in 1854, while still a priest. Esayi was technically very versatile, which was put to effect in his work in the Armenian monastery in the years 1848-1851. Among other abilities, he was an expert calligrapher and engaged in gold plating of metals and zincography. He prepared the first catalog of the books and manuscripts in the Armenian library in Jerusalem. According to his listings, the library contained 1,004 volumes in 1857. This library began to expand from the middle of the 19th century following the persecution of the Armenian people by the ruling Ottomans. An operation was put in place to rescue manuscripts by transferring them to Jerusalem.

The establishment of the Armenian library and archive is linked to processes taking place in the Armenian Church during the time of Esayi, and even earlier in and away from Palestine. After Esayi was conferred with the Episcopalian appointment, at the behest of the Armenian center in Etchmiadyin, he spent time in Istanbul in order to solve, together with the Ottoman regime, urgent problems relating to the Armenian Church. The central committee of the Armenian community entrusted him with two objectives: to make a fixed payment totaling 120,000 piasters from the treasury of the Armenian Patriarch administration; to establish an advanced theological seminary, a modern printing press and museum-library, all in Jerusalem. The establishment of the seminary, printing press and library necessitated large sums of money. Esayi requested that at least one or even two of these projects enjoy unlimited funding. The central committee agreed and authorized him to arrange the appropriated budgeting.

On his arrival in Jerusalem, he adopted a liberal and progressive attitude towards the Patriarchy. He sent emissaries to different countries to raise funds for the projects of the Jerusalem community and carried out reforms in the local patriarchy. Because of these reforms, many changes were made to the seminary study program, for example; study of languages, music and painting in the curriculum. Esai and those that came after him, made every effort to ensure that the level of studies at the seminary was up to academic standards, in order to equip religious leaders with a broad education for service in the Armenian communities in Syria and Lebanon.[23]

2.3 The manuscript archive of Father Antonin in the Russian Orthodox Church

Father Ivanovitch Kapustin (1817-1894), known by name and title as Archimadrite Antonin, conferred on him as a senior religious scholar in the Russian church, initiated the establishment of a manuscript collection in the Russian Orthodox Church in Jerusalem.[24] Father Antonin was a man of research and wrote extensively about Jerusalem and holy places in Palestine. He was active in excavations and the discovery of archeological remains in the framework of the scientific activities of the 'Parvoslavic Imperialist Society,' as well as

a member of the 'German Society for Exploration of Palestine' whose membership included non-Germans. Father Antonin headed the Russian mission delegation in Palestine and added to Russian real estate assets throughout Palestine, especially in Jerusalem. These assets included the present day 'Russian Compound,' and other locations on the Mount of Olives, in Ein Kerem and elsewhere. Whilst in Jerusalem, he engaged in archeological digs and exploration of Palestine. He travelled throughout the countries of the Middle East and went on archeological expeditions in Palestine and surrounding regions.[25]

In 1870, Antonin travelled to the Sinai desert, residing at the Santa Katrina monastery for a period of two months. During his stay, he visited the library that contained a large number of manuscripts and cataloged the Greek manuscripts. A Greek translation of the 'Codex Sinaiticus' convocation was later transferred to the Hermitage Museum in Russia.[26] Antonin made a practice of cataloging manuscripts in the monasteries that he visited, for example, he cataloged manuscripts in Greek monasteries.[27]

During the eighties and nineties of the 19th century, brisk trading began of fragments from the 'Cairo Geniza' which found their way to capitals and cities in Europe, including Oxford, Budapest, Berlin, Vienna, Paris, Frankfurt am Main, Cambridge and Strasbourg. At the same time, Jerusalem also became a center for trading of Jewish manuscripts from the 'Cairo Geniza.' Father Antonin, who had settled in the city at the time, selected wisely the choice items from the Geniza fragments for his collection. It was possible that the selection was made by traders in Cairo, and Father Antonin only received selected fragments, as a result of which he himself travelled to Cairo.[28]

Father Antonin received funds for land purchase, as well as assets from Russian donors. From some of the donors, he purchased ancient manuscripts, mainly of Greek origin, as well as fragments from the 'Cairo Geniza,' which he bequeathed to the public library in St. Petersburg. These manuscripts are preserved to the present day in a special collection named after Father Antonin in the Saltykov-Schedvin public library in St. Petersburg.[29] The collection of Cairo Geniza fragments includes 200,000 manuscripts, including the Antonin collection, relatively smaller than other Geniza collections, totaling 1,200 fragments. This collection is known to researchers and scholars of Jewish studies and some of the fragments have been published.[30]

Within the framework of archives and libraries of monasteries in Jerusalem, we can include the St. Salvador monastery (Franciscan), the St. George cathedral and college (Anglican), the Dormation monastery (Benedictine), the Ratisbonne monastery (Catholic), St. Etienne (Dominican) and St. Paul hospice (Catholic), Santa Anna (Melkite), the "Soeurs de Sion" site (Catholic), the St. Mark monastery (Syrian) and Dir el Sultan (Ethiopian).[31]

2.4 Archives and libraries in European research institutes

Much has been written about the activities of foreign, non-Jewish researchers and institutes that were active during the period of Ottoman rule, researching Palestine in the 19th century.[32] A number of these European research institutes, discernable by their activities that bore not only a scientific and historical research character, as during the mandate, but also included western institutions and researchers, mostly Christian, in an eastern Moslem

country. The European powers and Christian churches supported the activities of researchers and at times exploited these activities for their own political and religious interests. These research institutions maintained archives and libraries mainly for the purposes of interested researchers. A few examples in Jerusalem are given below:

2.5 The library of the Jerusalem Literary Society

On November 20 1849, James Finn established the 'Jerusalem Literary Society'.[33] The Protestant society members engaged in scientific research of the history, coins, manuscripts, statistics, commerce, economics, agriculture, customs and languages of Palestine. The society even established an experimental botanical garden, museum and library containing ancient manuscripts. 'The Jerusalem Literary Society' was one of the independent Protestant institutions in Jerusalem, with specific objectives and program. The society's objectives were to address literary and scientific issues relating to Palestine, as well as to encourage studies of other subject matter. The main objective of the 'Society' was to engage in subjects related to holy writings and to publish a selection of pages to be read at weekly meetings.[34]

In the fall of 1849, a group of seven was formed in the home of Consul Finn in Jerusalem, six of whom were Englishmen resident in the city, including a one missionary. In the course of time, additional members joined the society. A detailed account of the beginnings of 'The Jerusalem Literary Society' and the establishment of the library appears in the book of reminiscences of the British Consul's wife, Elizabeth Anne Finn (1825-1921)[35]:

'In November 1849, when Mr. Finn returned from a trip up north, we founded 'The Jerusalem Literary Society.' Four men and three women attended the first meeting. Subjects touched upon covered the study of all subjects relating to the Holy Land, including antiquities, natural history and investigation of different subject matter. The only subject not investigated was the issue of religious schism. … We were well satisfied when we arrived at the structure for the "Society," being the structure of "The Society for the Exploration of Palestine." We established a library containing thousands of volumes and a small but very important museum… in January and February 1851 … one day, a batch of crates full of books for the "Society's" library arrived from England.[36]

Apart from the lectures and weekly meetings at the British consulate, the library-archive was established, containing ancient manuscripts.[37] The library, museum, experimental botanical garden and sun clock, were established relatively quickly and completed within six months.[38]

Finn mentions that one or two volumes of ancient Samaritan manuscripts were donated to the library, and members of 'The Jerusalem Literary Society' sent other manuscripts to the British Museum. The library included a department for manuscripts and books written in Asian languages.[39]

The Baedeker guide of 1876 makes mention of the library of 'The Jerusalem Literary Society' under the patronage of the Prince of Wales and the residing British consul in Jerusalem, as well as its opening times.[40]

2.6 The Prussian Consulate Library

The Prussian consulate maintained its own library that was linked briefly to 'The Jerusalem Literary Society.' The library was established during the tenure of the German consuls in Jerusalem, Ernst Gustav Schultz and Georeg Rosen.[41]

The Prussian Consulate Library, containing manuscripts, rare books and historical documents, was established in 1847. Schultz, who carried out a preliminary survey of libraries in Jerusalem, concluded that the library objective should be that manuscripts and documents purchased be made available to European researchers for their investigations, as well as to make copies of manuscripts and documents for libraries in Prussia. Schultz wrote a detailed proposal of his program that was submitted to Prussian governmental offices and the advisors of King Frederick Wilhelm IV. A ministerial directive of the Prussian Minister of Education dated March 10 1847 called for the setting up of a library, to be named (The Royal Jerusalem Library), its location and budget for a base collection. Links were established with the Royal Library in Berlin and information exchanged relating to important manuscripts and rare books. University libraries in Prussia were requested to transfer copies to the library in Jerusalem. Schultz was also requested to offer these libraries purchasable manuscripts. The library was maintained within the consular framework until 1904.

The library provided a service to researchers, tourists and members of the local evangelical church, those active in the Prussian Mission and pupils attending the mission school. Towards the end of the 19th century, the library was hardly being used. The library was planned and designed in the best tradition of German academic libraries and was the very first research library in Palestine. Because of its activities, for the first time, books for research were brought to Palestine from Europe, whilst on the other hand, manuscripts and books from local collections found their way to libraries in Germany.[42]

2.7 Archives in the Arabic-Moslem society

We are not party to information about libraries in Arab society in the 19th century, but doubtless, Moslem sites and mosques housed limited collections of religious works, containing manuscripts and printed books. Likewise, privately owned libraries existed, the most famous being the library of Rajib Haladi in Jerusalem, containing more than five thousand Arabic manuscripts and almost the same number of volumes in Arabic, Parsee, Turkish, French and English. Some of these were original works from the Mamaluke period. The collection was opened to the public as the El Halidia Library at the outset of the 20th century.[43]

3. Conclusion

Within the framework of the renewal and awareness of the past prevalent in Jerusalem in the 19th century, attention was given to preserving the assets of the church and its treasures, especially its ancient manuscripts and books. For the first time attention was given to the importance of preserving and cataloging ancient manuscripts in archives and libraries. This was complemented by a cultural flowering and granting of rights to Christian sects in the

city by the Ottoman regime that heralded reorganization of religious institutions, as well as erection of new buildings and restoration of existing buildings. Reorganization, particularly the Greek orthodox and Armenian patriarchy, paved the way for new buildings for the preservation of church treasures, including manuscripts that were scattered among various monasteries in Palestine.

The preservation of the past and historical documentation of Palestine played a part in the infiltration of the Ottoman Empire by European powers, thus scientific activities and ecclesiastical activities acted in unison. Similar to the preservation of antiquities in museums and private collections, monks, holy men and researchers also collected manuscripts in libraries and archives, cataloging them and caring for their preservation. Previously, these manuscripts and books in some locations were not preserved; some were thrown into storerooms, and in certain cases were used for combustion purposes and destroyed.

Those with initiative and the ability to perform, for example, the patriarchs Nikodemus and Esayee, Father Antonin, the consuls Finn and Schultz and others, were able under these conditions to act and focus their attention on preservation and to persuade, and at times, even to carry with them the leaders and society at large towards their goal.

Research bodies and foreign consulates, established in the first half of the 19th century, acted side by side with the churches and monasteries. Their activities bore a scientific character, combining biblical research, the land and material civilization, as well as leisure activities of the European community in Jerusalem and social entertainment for Europeans in the city. The changes brought about by the European factions in Jerusalem at the 19th century, included established of modern archives, even influenced at a later stage local society, both Moslems and Jews, at the 20th century.

Oded Shay is an historian of modern Land of Israel Studies, specializing in Jewish nationalism, religion, and Culture and the history of Palestine under the Ottoman and British Mandate. He holds a doctorate in history from Bar Ilan University about *The Beginning of Museums and Collections in Late Ottoman Palestine (1848 – 1917)* and a master's degree in Land of Israel Studies from the same University. He has taught history at Beit Berl Collage, and now he is teaching modern Jewish history at the Dep. of Jewish History Ben-Gurion University, Kampus Eilat.

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The Changes in Rural and Forest Landscape and Their Use in the Slovenian Alps in the Last Centuries – A "Back to Nature" Tourism with Impacts, a Case of Western Capercaillie

Miran Čas
Slovenian Forestry Institute, Ljubljana,
Slovenia

1. Introduction

The historical agricultural, forestry and industrial activities changed the landscape drastically. In particular in the Alpine region over 70% of the naturally occurring forests were cut or otherwise changed and destroyed (Čas 1996, 2002, 2006; Čas & Adamič 1998, Johann 1998). Intensive exploitation of forests from 11th to 18th century resulted in massive shrinkage of forest cover and loss of virgin forest landscapes which were turned into pastures or degraded to torrential soil (Čas 1988, 2001; Eiberle 1984; Erjavec 1868; Granda 1985; Johann 2007; Valenčič 1970; Wessely 1853). The removal of forest vegetation for agricultural land and the lack of proper land management exposed the cleared areas to erosion (Čas 1988, 2001; Erjavec 1868). Felling of trees for firewood, iron industry, charcoal production, mining industry, glass making, etc. were the dominant causes for severe reduction in forest cover until 20th century (Čas 2006; Johann 1998; Medved 1967; Valenčič 1970). By 19th century natural structures of old mixed forests with autochthonous wildlife species (e.g. capercaillie, lynx, brown bear, etc.) mostly disappeared or were conserved only at inaccessible sites, in particular at high altitude areas, and embedded in the mosaic of devastated forests and wide pasture areas (Čas & Adamič 1998; Čas 2001a; Didier 2001; Erjavec 1868).

The drastically reduced forest cover in the 18th and 19th century in combination with increased awareness of the dangers of natural disasters (floods, soil erosion) urged for a development and introduction of systematic forest management in this area. The revolutionary societal changes following the "*Spring of nations*" uprising in 1848 and the advancement of traffic associated with the introduction of steam engine changed the demand for wood and its prices at the end of the 19th century. Consequently many people abandoned their fields and pastures in search of a more prosperous life style, which left these abandoned agricultural areas to the natural regeneration – e.g. the slow return of natural vegetation, the forest (Čas 1988, 2001, 2006; Didier 2001; Johann 1998, 2007; Medved 1967; Žumer 1976).

At the same time in the 19th century wealthy forest owners introduced plantations and cultivation of profitable coniferous trees, especially Norway spruce (*Picea abies* Karst.) and

began with a short-sighted forest management system in the form of 100-year-cycles of clear-felling with re-forestation (Čas 1979, 2001, 2006; Mlinšek 1954, 1968). Thus the native vegetation (beech and beech-fir forest associations) was not only removed but also replaced by profitable coniferous trees, which did not reflect the natural situation and was far from being suitable for many indigenous plants, animals and fungi. Today many sites covered by conifers are at the end of the 3rd cycle of such spruce monocultures (Čas 1979). These Norway spruce-dominated forest stands are labile and prone to further degradation of the forest ecosystem biodiversity and fertility (Čas 2001a, 2001b, 2002, 2006; Kutnar et al. 2005). In the middle of the 19th century spruce monocultures also began to invade the remote and mostly abandoned mountainous pastures and native primary forests – mixed beech-fir forests with increasing proportion of indigenous alpine larch (*Larix decidua*) towards the forest line at 1700 m a.s.l. (Čas 1988). The result of these processes was the formation of secondary coniferous forest landscapes of Norway spruce and European larch with some beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.) and silver fir (*Abies alba* L.) covering the alpine region in most of Europe today (Čas 1988, 2001, 2006; Eiberle 1984; Didier 2001; Johann 1998; Robič 1998; Wraber 1969).

The continuing intensification of industrialisation following the Second World War led to a further mass abandonment of the farming way of life and emigration of people from rural (alpine high altitude) into urban areas. This phenomenon increased the overgrowing of rural landscapes at mid and high altitudes with forests even more. At the same time systematic forest management activities began in Slovenia with a natural thinning silviculture approach and intensive study of natural rejuvenation (co-natural multipurpose and sustainable forest management) (Mlinšek 1968). Such a practice was used in Switzerland in the past (Ott 1998), but it is currently only adopted in Slovenia.

The forests ecosystems were under an intense influence of human activities in the last 3–5 decades with fast (exceeding forest adaptation capacity) changes in their primary use and demands. The wood production oriented forest management was intensive, especially after 1960, and also included the construction of a dense network of forest roads (Robek & Kljun 2007). The construction of the network of forest roads has allowed not only the exploitation of forests but also increased the accessibility of mountain forests for mountain tourism with a consequently more intensive influence on forests by non-foresters and also a higher interest of wider scientific community. The last three decades also saw a change in peoples' mentality towards "back-to-nature" way of life. Consequently more and more people have started visiting rural areas – hiking, skiing, picking forest fruits, herbs and mushrooms or managing ecotourism activities. Additionally, many abandoned farms in the mountainous and forested areas were reconstructed or rebuilt into wooden or stone huts serving as weekend and holiday getaways. In some rural mountain areas people also found a new source of income in the form of tourist farms and ecotourism or ski and recreation centres which have developed into profitable businesses. The fast changes of forest use and management have resulted in an increased endangerment of many plant and animal species in the alpine forests, both those from the remnants of primary forests and those of all stages of secondary forests.

Western capercaillie (*Tetrao urogallus* L.), the largest member of the grouse family (*Tetraonidae*) will serve as an example of how human activities and swift changes thereof influence this rare species' habitat, sources of food and other requirements for living in the Alps (Adamič 1987; Čas 1999, 2006, 2010; Čas & Adamič 2007; Menóni et al. 2006; Purnat et

al. 2007; Thiel et al. 2007, 2008) and in the mountains of South-Eastern Europe (Gačić et al. 2009; Radović et al. 2003; Raguž & Grubešić 2006; Petrov 2008; Zubić 2009) and other regions of Europe (Storch 2007).

Western capercaillie population densities have been declining continuously over the last decades in Central Europe (Adamič 1987; Braunisch & Suchant 2008; Čas 1999, 2006; Klaus & Bergmann 1994, Storch 2007). Western capercaillie is considered a rare and endangered umbrella species of temperate and boreal forests in Europe (Angelstam 2004; Čas 2001b; Sachot et al. 2003; Suter et al. 2002). Several different habitat disturbances were recognised as causes of Western capercaillie decline in temperate Europe (Adamič 1987; Čas 2001a, 2010; Eiberle 1984; Klaus et al. 1997; Saniga 2002, 2004; Storch 1999, 2007; Thiel et al. 2007). The populations at the southern edge of the species' distribution range have suffered the most severe population reduction (Adamič 1987; Bajc et al. 2011; Blanco-Fontao et al. 2009; Čas 1999, 2010; Cattadori & Hudson 2000; Gonzales & Ena 2011; Poolo et al. 2005; Radović et al. 2003; Quedo et al. 2006; Storch 2007; Zeiler 2001; Zubić 2009), and shrinkage of habitat in the last decades due to forest and climate change (Anič et al. 2009; Čas 2006; Čas & Adamič 2007; Kutnar & Kobler 2011).

Habitat destruction due to forest cutting was recognised as one of the main causes for Western capercaillie population decline in the boreal zone as well (Angelstam 2004; Beškarev et al. 1995; Rolstad & Wegge 1987; Kurki et al. 2000), as were the impacts of climate changes on grouse habitats (Moos et al. 2001; Selas et al. 2011).

Western capercaillie habitat in Slovenia represents the south-eastern edge of its distribution range in the Alps (90% of total Western capercaillie habitat area in Slovenia) and north-western edge in the Dinaric Mountains (10% of total Western capercaillie habitat area in Slovenia). The most suitable Western capercaillie forest habitats are found in remote locations without human influences (Čas 2006; Erjavec 1868). The habitats in Slovenia are concentrated in old coniferous and mixed forests of spruce, fir and beech with some pastures (with bilberry) where leks are distributed in chains on the slopes or in networks on plateaus of the mountains (Adamič 1987; Čas & Adamič 1998; Čas 2001a, 2006; Purnat et al. 2007). The hunting of Western capercaillie in Slovenia has been banned by the Slovenian Hunting Association since 1984 and by law since 1993 (Official Gazette of RS 1993/57).

Finally the example of Western capercaillie will show us how an animal species can be the key factor for increasing the awareness of people of the delicate balance and sensitivity of Alpine forest ecosystems and how scientific community and general public can benefit from it.

1.1 Objectives and concerns

The main objective of the chapter is to sum and present the history of changes in cultural landscape and forests and their use in the Alpine region. Special attention is given to the forest cover dynamics as an indicator of changes in the use of the mountain landscape in relation to industrial, economic and societal development. Chapter provides an overview of the reasons behind the phenomenon of "back-to-nature" mountain tourism and its impacts on the sensitive mountain ecosystems. The results of this study present an important base for the long-term planning of the mountain landscape management and preservation of vital natural resources in Slovenian mountains. As an example of an organism that is highly dependent on suitable forest habitats and specific habitat conditions we reviewed the life of,

and researched the threats to the Western capercaillie (*Tetrao urogallus* L.), an endangered grouse species (*Tetraonidae*), in Slovenia.

The motivation for the chapter is primarily the maintenance of active countryside and to increase the awareness of the audience of the importance of forest ecosystems and landscape, their vulnerability and triggers that led to forest degradation associated with changes in the society and phenomenon of mountain tourism and ecotourism; benefits for inhabitants and influence on wildlife (Western capercaillie as an example of endangered grouse species).

The purpose of this study conducted in Slovenian Alps was to analyse (1) the changes in land use, lifestyle and forest cover in the last centuries; (2) demographic changes associated with changes in land use; (3) the history, the development and the impact of mountain tourism on natural environment; (4) the main reasons for the decline of Western capercaillie population, including the impact of mountain tourism on this species' habitat and (5) assess the importance of findings of this study for the development of conservation strategies with adapted forest and wildlife management and sustainable management and development of tourism in the SE Alps.

2. Methods

2.1 Cultural landscape and forest cover change in SE Alps in Slovenia since the mid-18th century until today

2.1.1 History of forest cover and land use

The history of forests and forested areas is relatively well preserved in archival documents with an intensive and thorough mapping dating back to 1763-1787 (Joseph II military cartographic measurements and maps). More ancient data is scarce while the bulk of the more recent documents are kept at the National Archive of Slovenia and at the Slovenian Forestry Institute. The analysis of land use are conducted by using customized GIS methods (digitizing old maps). The change of the extent and fragmentation of forest cover are a reflection of, and an indicator of changes in human life style and the use of cultural landscape (Čas 1988, 2006; Medved 1967; Švab 1996; Žumer 1976).

2.1.1.1 Forest covers change in Slovenia

We analysed changes in forest cover based on the available data for the territory of the Republic of Slovenia (20,273 km², Figure 1) in last 135 years (since 1875). Forest cover is associated with changes in people's life style and land use. The analysis was conducted by examination of available data for the studied territory in the period from 1875 to 2010 (Čas 2006).

The main landscape types on the Slovenian territory falling into the studied period were known by different names under the administrative authority of several basic countries in the studied period: as Carniola under the Austrian Empire (AuE) and then under the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy (AHM) 1867–1914; as the Drava Province in the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes (1918–1941) (KSCS); as the Socialist Republic of Slovenia (SRS) in the Socialist Federative Republic of Yugoslavia (1945–1991); as the independent Republic of Slovenia (RS) since 1991, which became a member state of the European Union (EU) in 2004.
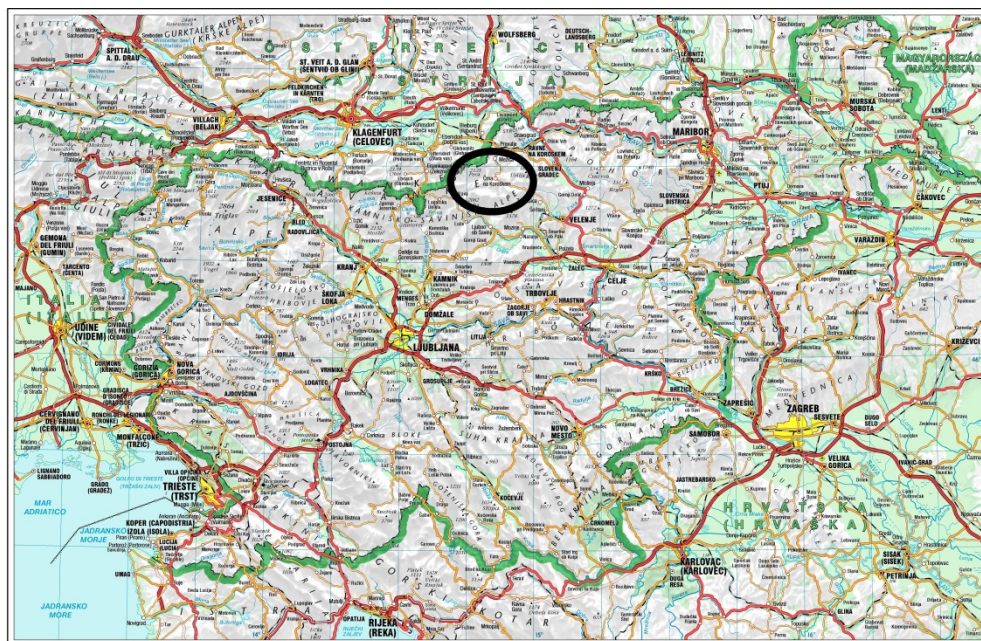
Fig. 1. Slovenia is situated in the transitional territory between Central and Southeast
Europe. Vegetation conditions vary between different phyto-geographic regions: between
the Alps and the Dinaric Mountains and between the Sub-Pannonian and Sub-
Mediterranean regions considerably. The black circle on the map is the model research area
covering the region of Mt. Peca and Mt. Smrekovec in Southeast Alps in northern Slovenia.

2.1.1.2 The change in landscape use and forest cover in a model region of the SE Alps and specifically in the rural research area of Topla at Mt. Peca in the last 240 years

We analysed the **changes of cultural landscape and forest cover since 1763**, changes of
human lifestyle, people demography and also what effects these changes had on the forest
structures and habitats of endangered grouse species (Čas 1988, 1996, 2006). Within the
studied area we analysed **the northern slopes of Mt. Smrekovec** (1684 m a.s.l.) (52.64 km²)
which are less suitable for farming and **the southern slopes of Mt. Peca** (2125 m a.s.l.) (51.92
km²) which are more suitable for farming. Both mountains are located in the South-east Alps
in northern Slovenia (Figure 1). The total studied area measured 104.56 km² at 700–2125 m
a.s.l with the forest line at 1650–1700 m a.s.l.

Basic research area (RA) comprised two representative surfaces with different suitabilities
for agricultural use in the upland areas in the Upper Mežica Valley with a total surface of
104,56 km². RA on Mt. Peca (51.92 km²) included the following cadastral municipalities
(c.m.) or their parts: Topla, Podpeca, Meža-Takraj -part, Koprivna-part and Črna -part. RA
on Smrekovec (52.64 km²) included the following c.m. or their parts: Koprivna -part, Bistra -
part, Ludranski Vrh, Črna -part, Javorje -part (Figure 2).

We also analysed demographic changes in the territory of municipality Črna na Koroškem (156 km²) in Carinthia (Koroška) in Republic of Slovenia for the period from 1869 to 1961 (Medved 1967, Čas 2006) and to 2010 (Mazej 2011) in relation to changes in people's life style and land use. We analysed population changes in the period from 1869 to 2010 separately for different sub-areas within the research area: (1) the rural cadastral municipalities (Topla, Podpeca, Koprivna, Bistra, Ludranski vrh, Javorje, Jazbina-Žerjav) with a total surface of 141 km²; (2) c.m. Črna na Koroškem (7.5 km²), an urban and trade centre; and (3) a specific area of c.m. Žerjav (7.4 km²), an industrial and mining centre that has been in the process of closing since 1988 (Ur.l. SRS, št. 5/1988) (Figure 2). Demographic changes were analysed by calculating the proportions of different segments (rural, industrial, urban) of the population and the relative changes of each segment and the total population.

Additionally we analysed the change of cultural landscape in one specific model rural territory **–** the c.m. **Topla at Mt. Peca**. The Topla region is a valley covering an area of 13.45 km² between 700-2125 m a.s.l. in the eastern part of Karavanke Mountains at Slovenian-Austrian border (Figure 1).
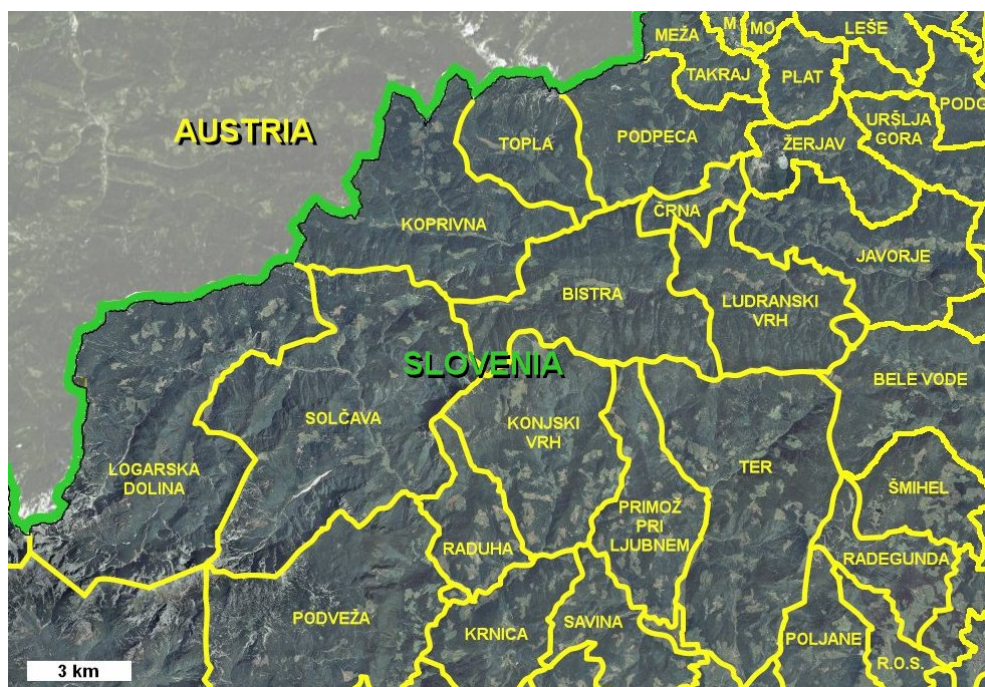
Fig. 2. Cadastral municipalities in the research area of eastern Karavanke and eastern Kamnik-Savinja Alps in SE Alps in Slovenia. The abbreviations mean: R.O.S - Rečica ob Savinji; M. - Mežica; MO - Meža Onkraj; Podg. - Podgora (Composite image produced by Marko Bajc using data from Surveying and Mapping Authority of the RS).

Individual and systematic historical records, land use inventories, records, maps and descriptions of forests are of great importance for the studies of change of forest cover, history of land use, changes in forest management etc. The most important sources of

information for the studied period and area used in this study were: Joseph II Military
Cartography records (maps) (1763-1787), Francis Joseph cadastre (1827) and its adaptation
from 1863 and 1877 (Archives of Slovenia), Statistical Yearbook (Statement of land ..., 1927,
Statistical Yearbooks of the SRS 1947-1990 and later of the RS). Additionally, individual
records and research of change in land use and forestry in the wider Alpine area were
analysed (Čas 1976, 1979, 1988, 1996, 2006; Medved 1967; Mlinšek, 1954; Valenčič 1970;
Wessely, 1853; Žumer 1976), as were some historic sightings in the field (Erjavec, 1868;
Rebolj, 1940) and data obtained from experts through personal communication (Johann,
2005; Košir, 2003). Joseph II military maps and descriptions were the most authentic and
accurate historical records of the forest cover until introduction of the Francis Joseph
cadastre (Korošec, 1993; Rajšp & Ficko, 1994).

Information gathered from archival documents were analysed and combined in a single
spatial comparison analysis aimed at detecting changes of cultural landscape and habits of
people.

The forest cover for the RA in the second half of 18th century was assessed by measuring the
surface of forest patches in digitalised maps (1:25,000) from Joseph II military maps for the
period between 1763 and 1787. Land use and forest cover for the period from 1825 to 1828
were determined from data in Francis Joseph register for Carinthia and from digitalised
maps (1:2.880) for the areas not covered in the register. For the parts of c.m. Črna and c.m.
Koprivna in RA, we considered the average for each c.m. data.

2.1.2 The changes in rural lifestyle and land use in SE Alps since 1763: c.m. Topla on Mt. Peca as a case study

The past land use (including many non-forest habitats in particular period), local and
regional economy, demography of people and their lifestyle, yields of their crops and
livestock inventories at larger (over 50-200 ha) and economically independent mountain
farms prevailing in region of RA (Čas 1988; Medved 1967; Vrišer 2005) with several (5-8)
buildings were investigated based on a descriptive part of the cadastre (Cadastre of Francis
Joseph) for the cadastral municipalities included in the study, mostly dated from 1827 (Čas
1988). Descriptive parts of the old registers from Austrian monarchy for the analysed region
of c.m. Topla were translated from the old German writing and language.

For the more recent decades we gathered information on population census, forestry,
livestock numbers, farm economy and field inventories for the period from 1987 to 2011
performed by the author and Mr. Janez Končnik, a farmer from Topla.

2.1.3 Tourism and mountain tourism in Slovenia and in research area of SE Alps

We had done overview of available data enriched with author's own observations and
experiences about the tourism and the mountain tourism and their impact on the natural
habitats (mainly forests) in Slovenia. Also, we verified information on the number of tourist
visits and their recorded activities with special emphasis on their influence to natural
habitats in the research areas on Mount Peca and Smrekovec today, in 2011. Types and
purpose of mass tourism in the natural mountain area was studied in a series of survey in
mid 80ies (1982-1984) at the Peca Mountain above Črna and Mežica city (Čas 1988).

2.1.4 Western capercaillie population decline and impacts of different disturbances in relation to mountain tourism in since 1979

Due to various causes the Western capercaillie numbers in Slovenia have been in decline since 1961 (Adamič 1987; Čas 1999, 2001, 2006). The impact of various forms of mass tourism on vulnerable mountain forest ecosystems was examined in the case of an endangered and sensitive indicator animal species, the Western capercaillie. Additionally we assessed the relative contributions of the most prominent threats to the decline of the Western capercaillie expressed as a percentage of affected leks at which population decline had been observed.

The study area covered about 1,588.6km², mainly represented by the all Alpine (86 %) and the Dinaric potential habitat area (14%) in Slovenia (Čas 2006). We included all altitudes in this area from the low elevation of todays' population distribution (above 800 m a.s.l.) to the high altitude at the forest line (about 1700 m a.s.l.) (Čas 1999, 2001). The capercaillie population fluctuations and causes for the decline were studied in two 3-year large-scale monitorings with, the first concluded in 1980 and the second in 2000 (Čas 2001a, 2006, 2010), and in a smaller-scale monitoring conducted in 2009. The 315 Western capercaillie leks were inventoried in 2009 in Slovenia, with similar methods of birds counting and lek habitats survey near sunrise in the spring mating time as Western capercaillie in Central Europe (Braunisch & Suchant, 2008) or the Sharp-tailed Grouse (*Tympanuchus phasianellus*) in Alberta (USA) (Hamilton & Manzer, 2011). Western capercaillie leks and subpopulations densities were monitored in several research projects at the Slovenian Forestry Institute since 1979 (Adamič 1987, Čas 2000, 2006, 2010-unpublished). Disturbances at leks were defined as descriptive parameters of the monitoring questionnaire, where each expert filled in the main reasons for lek or subpopulation decline for each endangered or extinct lek. All together 460 voluntary experts (hunters and foresters) studied leks for consecutive years in all monitoring periods (Čas 2008). From the returned questionnaires we extracted and summarised the most frequent reasons for lek subpopulation disturbance and devastation (Table 6) and used them for statistical analysis and comparison between different monitoring periods.

The impact of different causes behind the population decline was ranked according to the proportion of endangered leks they affected.

For the purpose of this chapter we also assessed the impact of mountain tourism on endangered Western capercaillie subpopulations for the last 30 years by comparing the Western capercaillie leks inventory data from 1980 (1979-1981 monitoring), 2000 (1998-2000 monitoring) and 2010 (2009 monitoring).

This review was based on the published original research of the author and other professional or amateur researches of the topic (land use changes, forests, human habits, Western capercaillie, mountain tourisms).

3. Results

3.1 Forest cover and land use change

3.1.1 Forest cover change in Slovenia between 1875-2010

The change in cultural landscape and in rural lifestyle has resulted in overgrowing of abandoned pastures and farm fields and an increase of forest cover since 1875. The rate of

increase of forest cover fluctuated over the studied period, due to different societal-economic events and reasons, but increased from 37,0 % in 1875 to 58.5 % in 2010, that is 21,5% of the total surface area (Table 1).

Year	Forest cover in Slovenia (%)	Reference	Year	Forest cover in Slovenia (%)	Reference
1875	37,0	Žumer, 1976	1961	46,6	Statist. Yearbook, SRS
1880	38,7	"	1970	50,2	"
1890	41,2	"	1980	51,6	"
1900	41,0	"	1990	52,0	Statist. Yearbook, RS
1910	41,8	"	1995	53,7	Bončina / Mikulič, 1998
1930	43,7	Žumer, 1976, by Mohorčič	2000	53,9	R. Ogrizek, SFS, 2000
1950	44,5	Statist. Yearbook, LRS	2010	58,5	Report of SFS, 2011

Table 1. The change in forest cover in Slovenia between 1875 and 2010
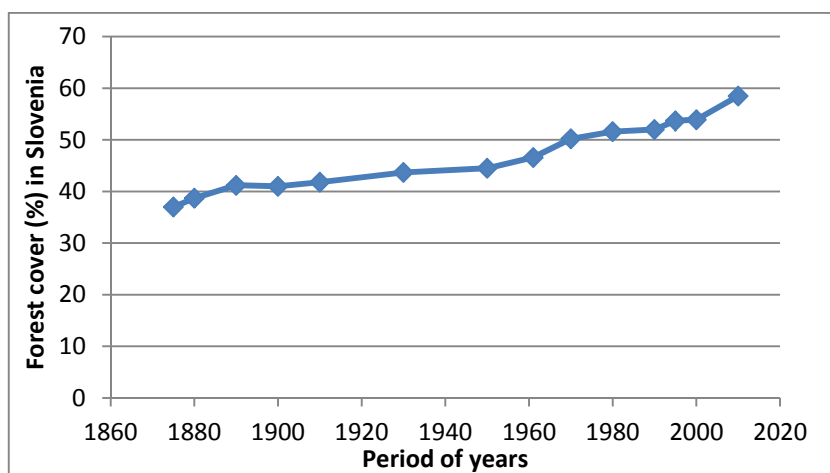
Fig. 3. The change in forest cover in Slovenia between 1875 and 2010

The increase in forest cover has been slower during the world economic crisis and during the 1st and 2nd World War and in the period of increased reliance on agrarian activities (the period of Drava Province in KSCS). Consequently the rate of increase in forest cover stagnated or slightly increased in sixty years period after 1890 (for 3,3 percentage points /p.p./), contrary to the sixty years period after 1950 with markedly increases (for 14,0 p.p.) (Table 1, Figure 3). Assessment of forest cover based on remote sensing data conducted in 2010 showed an even higher forest cover — over 63%, corresponding to an increase of 26 percentage points since 1875. The increasing forest cover and planning development of forest vegetation caused erosion reduction and the revitalization of soil fertility including the improving wildlife habitats, biodiversity and multipurpose forest functions.

3.1.2 Landscape use and forest cover change in a model region of the SE Alps and inside them in the rural research area of c.m. Topla at Peca Mt. since 1763

3.1.2.1 Landscape and forest cover change at two different agriculturally suitable areas in SE Alps

Forest cover in the research area of the Upper Mežica valley in eastern Karavanke and eastern Kamnik-Savinja Alps was only 25.8% two centuries ago (1763-1787). The Forest cover in both mountain ranges has increased by 53,6 percentage points in the last 240 years to 79,4% by the end of the 20th Century (Table 2). The increase in forest cover in this period followed different dynamics in these two neighbouring areas: (i) On agriculturally less suitable shady and silicate rock (tuff) northern slopes of Mt. Smrekovec, the forest cover had increased to over 70% already by the early 19th century (1827) (Čas 1996, 2002, 2006) and to 83,5% at present time resulting in an overall increase of 48,9 percentage points (Table 2); (ii) on agriculturally more suitable carbonate rock southern slopes of Mt. Peca, the forest cover only reached 70% in 1960s, that is at least 135 years later than on Mt. Smrekovec, and increased to 79,4% by present time for an overall increase of 53,6 percentage points (Table 2).

Year		RA Mežica valley	Peca-south	Smrekovec-north	Reference
1763-1787 (1775)		25,8	16,8	34,6	GIS-analysis
1827		52,1	29,3	74,5	Francis cad. (AS)
1874-1890 (1882)	Forest cover (%)	62,7	41,6	83,6	Medved, 1967
1927		62,5	47	77,7	Statement, 1927
1962		75,8	70,3	86,3	Medved, 1967
1985-1992 (1990)		79,4	75,3	83,5	Čas, 1996
Difference (percentage points)		53,6	58,5	48,9	

Table 2. The forest cover change at northern slopes of Mt. Smrekovec and southern slopes of Mt. Peca in South-Eastern Alps in Slovenia between mid-18th century and the end of the 20th century

The natural overgrowing of abandoned mountain pastures and promotion of coniferous species (Norway spruce, Alpine larch) has led to an increase in the area of suitable habitats for grouse species such as Western capercaillie and hazel grouse (*Bonasa bonasia*) till 95% cover of management forests in areas (Čas & Adamič 1998; Čas 2001a, 2006).

3.1.2.2 Change in cultural landscape and forest cover in rural cadastral municipality Topla since 1763

The area of c.m. Topla in the period from 1763 to 1787 was characterised by a generally low forest cover, rustic lifestyle and a stabile structure of different types of agricultural land (Table 3, Figures 4 and 5). The forest cover in this period fluctuated between 11% (1763–1787) and 22.8% (1827) (Table 3). According to Francis Joseph cadastre for 1877 the proportion of land used for pasture was 67.6%, while forest cover was 16.4%. Major societal changes and changes of lifestyle starting in 1848 led to a massive emigration of people from countryside to industrialised urban areas (Medved 1967, Čas 1988) resulting in an abandonment of mountain pastures and an increase in forest cover which reached 66.7% by 1962 (Table 3, Figure 5).

Since 1962, the land use has not changed significantly and the proportion of agricultural
land has stabilised once again. In 2000 forest cover in c.m. Topla was 66.8%, 16.3% of the
land were pastures, 4.1% fields and 12.9% infertile open land (rocky slopes). In the c.m.
Topla the proportion of land used for pasture and farm fields decreased by 55,0 and 1,1
percentage points respectively, while forest cover increased by 55,8 percentage points since
1763 (Table 3, Figures 4, 5 and 6). The proportion of fields and meadows in c.m. Topla has
not changed dramatically and has remained at about 5%, as has not the proportion of
infertile open land which fluctuated between 12,5% and 12,9%.

Year	Forest (%)	Pastures (%)	Fields (%)	Reference
1763-1787	11,0	71,3	5,2	digitalization
1827	22,8	58,5	6,2	Čas, 1988
1877	16,4	67,6	3,5	Čas, 1988
1890	19,0	62,2	6,3	Medved, 1967
1927	45,9	36,0	5,6	Statement, 1927
1962	66,7	15,9	4,9	Medved, 1967
1992	66,8	15,6	5,1	Čas, 1996
2000	66,8	16,3	4,1	Košir, 2003
Difference 1763 to 2000 (percentage points)	55,8	-55,0	-1,1	

Table 3. Change of land use and cultural landscape in c.m. Topla between 1763 and 2000

3.2 The change of lifestyle and livelihood of the rural community in a model region in SE Alps since the 19th Century

3.2.1 The change of lifestyle and people demography in a model region of municipality Črna na Koroškem in the SE Alps in Slovenia from 1869 to 2010

There have been considerable changes in lifestyle and people demography in municipality
(m.) Črna na Koroškem (156 km²) in the period from 1869 to 2010. At the middle of the 19th
century, rural population was predominant with 64,2% (2742) of people, while urban
population and industrial workers in settlement and trade center Črna represented 15,0%
(641 individuals) of the total population of 4273 inhabitants in municipality Črna in y. 1869.
The mining and industrial settlement Žerjav accounted for 20,9% of all inhabitants (890) in
the region in 1869 (Table 4, Figure 7).

By the 21st century proportions of people associated with specific activities in m. Črna
changed dramatically: rural population decreased by 43,1 percentage points (equivalent to a
decrease of 72%) from 1869 to 2010 and represented only 21,1% of the total population of
3602 people in m. Črna in 2010, whereas urban population in c.m. Črna increased by 52,9
percentage points (equivalent to an increase of 283%) in the same period (Table 4).

Proportion of people in industrial and mining settlement of c.m. Žerjav decreased in the
period from 1869 to 2010 from 20,9% to 11,0% of all people in m. Črna (a decrease by 56%).
The number of all people in the research area of m. Črna decreased from 4273 in 1869 to
3602 in 2010, that is by 671 individuals (a decrease by 16%) (Table 4).

Changes in the demographics of the population of municipality Črna in the last 140 years were associated with economic and societal changes which resulted in abandonment of rural lifestyle and migration of people to villages and urban areas in the valleys. Overgrowing of agricultural land and pastures in the studied area by forest vegetation can be considered as a direct consequence of the above mentioned demographic changes.
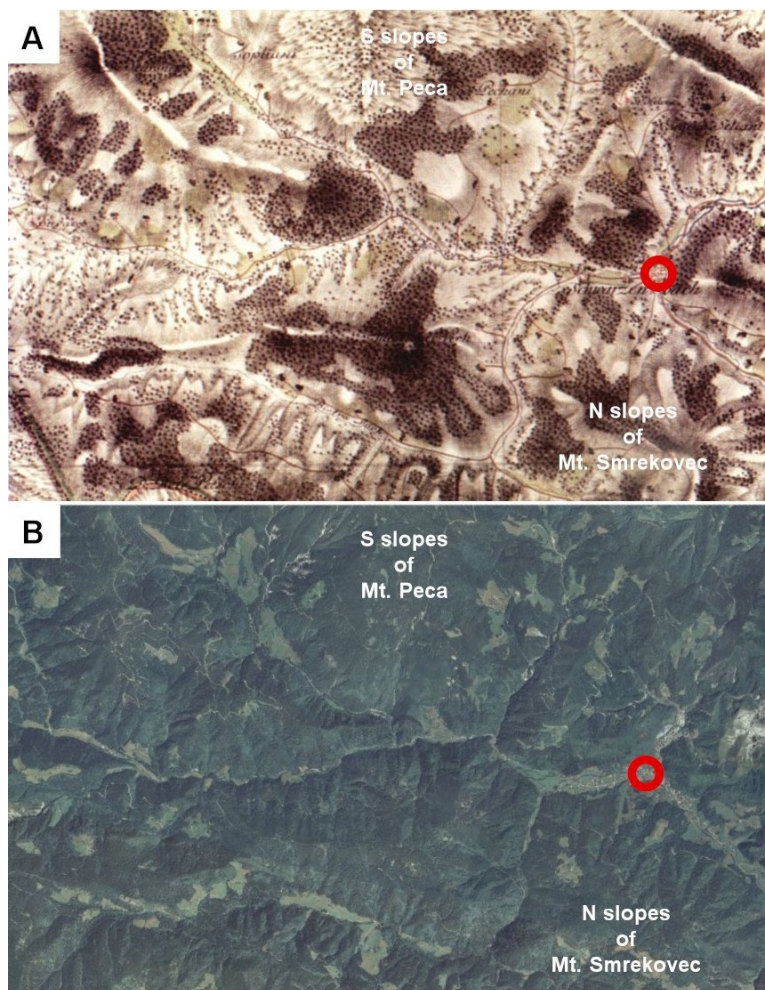

Fig. 4. Research area of c.m. Topla (Mt. Peca) and c.m. Bistra (Mt. Smrekovec) in the Upper Mežica valley. A: Joseph II military map of the research area in 1763-1787. Significant reduction in forest cover (to between 11% and 25%) as a result of agricultural (pasturing) and industrial (iron and lead-zinc ore processing) activities is evident; B: Satellite imagery of the research area in 2011. Today the forest cover in this area is between 70% and 85% (Photo B: Surveying and Mapping Authority of the Republic of Slovenia, 2011). The village Črna (Schwarzen Bach) is marked with a red circle in both images (images juxtaposed and edited by Marko Bajc).
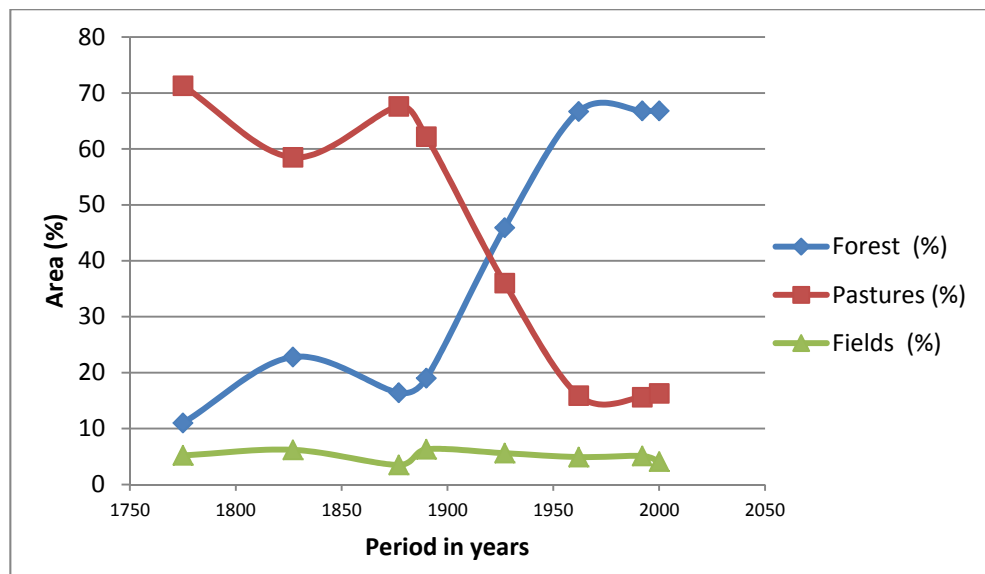
Fig. 5. Changes in land use and cultural landscape (% of area) in c.m. Topla in the period
between 1775 and 2000

Fig. 6. Secondary larch-spruce forests with some red pine (*Pinus silvestris* L.) in the present-
time Topla area on Mt. Peca that have been overgrowing abandoned pastures since 1848
(photo: M. Čas, 2003).

Segments of population of municipality Črna by year	1869	1900	1931	1948	1961	2010	Difference 1869-2010 (percentage points)
Rural population (proportion of total)	2742 (64,2%)	2584 (61,8%)	2482 (58,8%)	2009 (45,5%)	1720 (34,8%)	760 (21,1%)	-43,1
Change in rural population in comparison to 1869 (%)	0	-5,8	-9,5	-26,7	-37,3	-72,3	
Industrial workers in c.m. Žerjav (proportion of total)	890 (20,9%)	933 (22,3%)	688 (16,3%)	998 (22,6%)	1028 (20,8%)	396 (11,0%)	-9,9
Change in the number of Industrial workers in c.m. Žerjav in comparison to 1869 (%)	0	+4,8	-22,7	+12,1	+15,5	-55,5	
Urban population of c.m. Črna (poportion of total)	641 (15,0%)	665 (15,9%)	1051 (24,9%)	1408 (31,9%)	2199 (44,5%)	2446 (67,9%)	+53,0
Change in Urban population of c.m. Črna in comparison to 1869 (%)	0	+3,7	+64,0	+119,7	+243,1	+281,6	
Total population	4273	4182	4221	4415	4942	3602	-15,7
Change in total population (%)	0	-2,1	-1,2	+3,3	+15,7	-15,7	

Table 4. Demographic changes in municipality Črna between 1869 and 2010
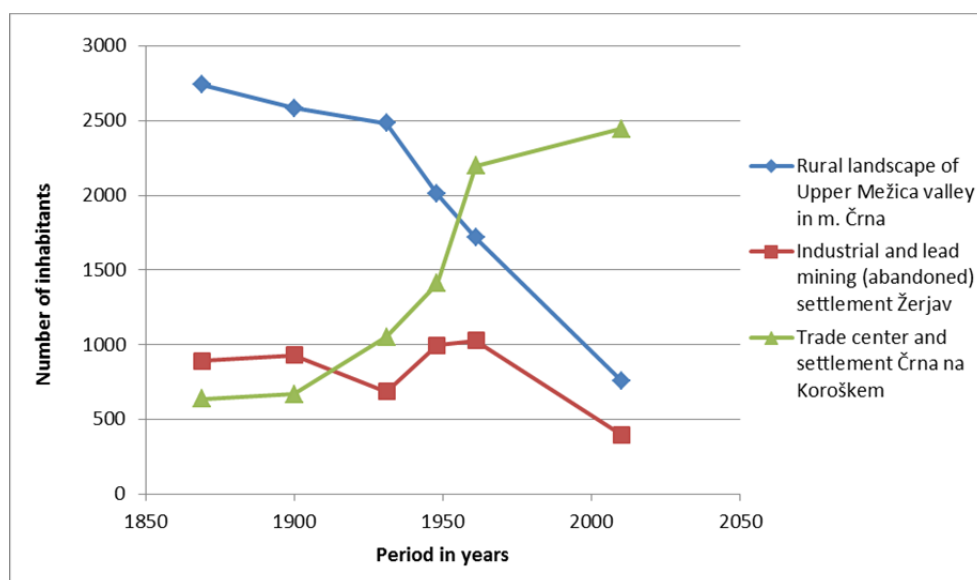
Fig. 7. Demographic changes in municipality Črna from 1869 to 2010

3.2.2 The change of lifestyle and livelihood of the rural community in a model region of the c.m. Topla from 1827 to 2011

There have been considerable changes in lifestyle and land use in c.m. Topla in the period from 1827 to 2011. At the beginning of the 19th century, crop cultivation and livestock breeding represented a major part (80%) of income for the rural community of c.m. Topla, while forestry represented only 20% of income. By the 21st century this has changed completely as crops cultivation has been almost completely abandoned with forestry and timber sales (80%) and intensive livestock breeding (20%) becoming the main sources of income (Table 5).

Human population	Year	1827 Carniola in AuE	1987 SRS in SFRY	Change in 1827–1987	2011 RS in EU
household	No.	6	6	0	5 (8)[1]
farms	No.	5	5	0	5
families	No.	11	9	-2	7 (10)[1]
People - all	No.	57	29	-28	27 (34)[1]
of servants	No.	30	0	-30	
Livestock					
cows and bulls	No.	15+2	25+0	+10, - 2	30
young cattle	No.	10	71	+61	35
pigs	No.	25	25	0	10
sheep	No.	300	20	-280	30
Working cattle/machines					
oxen	No.	24	0	-24 +38 machines +15 connectors	0 a little more - similar
horse	No.	2	0	-2	0
Agriculture					
cereals (wheat, rye, oats, barley)	Estima-tion	many	market	- many	market
flax, hemp	- "-	many	market -shop	- many	market
cabbage	- "-	many	market -shop	- many	market
potatoes	- "-	a little	medium-market	+ medium	+ medium
Land yields					
Agriculture	80%	Many	Very little	- many	only potatoes
Livestock		Medium	Many 25%	+ many	20%
Forestry	20%	A little	Many 75%	+ many	80%

[1] Number of all inhabitants, not only farmers (Mazej, 2011)

Table 5. The changes of rural lifestyle on farms in c.m. Topla on Mt. Peca from 1827 to 2011

Because southern slopes of Mt. Peca are agriculturally suitable, the number of farms, households and families remained fairly stable in 1827–1987, but registered a severe decline in total population. Changes in lifestyle associated with liberties installed by societal

changes starting in 1848 resulted in 30 servants leaving the area in search of better life in the valleys and urban areas reducing the total population from 57 in 1827 to only 29 people in 1987. Due to the lack of manpower grazing was abandoned (Čas 1988; Medved 1967) with a resultant drop in sheep numbers from 300 heads in 1827 to only 20 heads in 1987. Farmers have also completely stopped using working cattle that were replaced by machines — 24 oxen and 2 horses in 1827 were replaced by 38 machines and 15 implements by 1987.

The situation of the rural community of c.m. Topla has changed very little from 1987 to 2011. Due to EU regulations and subsidies, farming has become more bureaucratic from 2004 on. There has been a slight increase in the number of sheep and a reduction in number of pigs and young cattle for sale. The importance of forestry has increased and currently represents 80% of income with livestock breeding representing the remaining 20% of income (Končnik J., pers. comm., October 2011) (Table 5).

Stressful and busy everyday life in urban and industrial centres has led many people to seek relief in the nature. Such activities, including ecotourism, mean that more and more people venture into the mountains and their vulnerable forest ecosystems.

3.3 Mountain tourism and its potential impacts on the nature in Slovenia

3.3.1 Past and recent mountain tourism in the Alps

The Alps are with the 50 million holiday guests and more than 100 millions of visitors the largest continuous and ecologically rounded tourist region in the world (Jeršič, 1999). Since the end of the 19th Century Alps have been considered a major attraction due to their aesthetic values, expressed as an effect of the dominating mountain scenery with a mosaic of agrarian land, rugged rock and glacial areas. Today's tourists visiting the region in majority still appreciate Alps for the same aesthetic reasons as the visitors two centuries ago did (Bätzing, 1991). The adventurous quality of the landscape remained the major tourist attraction of the Alps also in the first stage of the modern mass tourism starting around 1955. In this stage of the modern mass tourism, summer time was the key period for visiting Alps (Jeršič 1999). The second stage of modern mass tourism in the Alps, starting around 1965, was closely associated with the popularisation of alpine skiing, consequently attracting tourists to Alpine region also during the winter. Since the onset of the second stage of mass tourism, not only the aesthetic, but also, if not primarily, the sporting and recreational potential of the Alps attracted most visitors. The past mountaineering tourism can be regarded as an extensive influence on the Alpine region.

With the advent of mass tourism in the Alps a number of tourist regions developed with accompanying facilities dedicated to sport activities during the day and entertainment during night (discotheque, restaurants, swimming pools). These were mainly accumulated in several mountain tourism regions and sites of special interest. By the mid-1970s the number of sports and entertainment oriented visitors sharply increased in contrast to the "traditional" mountaineers and hikers. Later, in 1980s, the sport activities diversified to various summer time sporting activities of "Back to nature", including extreme (adrenalin) sports. The mountain sports tourism increased the competition for alpine space in the Alps and also a competition among tourist facilities. The Alpine landscape is now developed as a bi-seasonal (summer and winter) tourist area. The most important area for mass tourism is

located at altitudes between 1200 and 2000 m a.s.l., rarely any higher (Jeršič 1999). In the last three decades the tourism pressure in Alps started to stagnate or even decrease, causing an increase in competition between tourist centres and a subsequent increase of investments and diversification of the activities aimed at attracting more visitors (Jeršič 1999). As a consequence we have observed an increasing pressure on and in many cases also the destruction of some Alpine ecosystems for the sake of tourism promotion and development (Čas 2010; Thiel et al. 2007).

3.3.2 Slovenia and its tourist potential

Slovenia is an independent country in the European Union covering the area of about 20,000 km² with about 2 million inhabitants. The majority (but not all) of the country belongs to the Alpine or Sub-Alpine area. The Alpine and the Dinaric Alpine (Sub-Alpine) areas pass through hilly and lowland areas in central Slovenia towards the SE and to the lowland region of the Pannonian basin in NE. In the SW the country descends to the Adriatic Sea forming a region with Mediterranean characteristics. The majority of the country is situated on the young geologic sediments forming the famous Karst structures. The particular plateau of Kras (Karst) even gave the name to these typical geological structures (sharp mountain peaks, caves,…) which are among important tourist attractions. From the biotic part of view this diverse climatic area results in four different vegetation types: Alps and the Dinaric Mountains, the Subpannonian and Submediterranean regions (Wraber 1969).

These come together in the central part of the country resulting in an array of important natural habitats and high potential for nature-related tourism.

Cultural and natural heritage, including the biodiversity of natural ecosystems is still relative well preserved and depicted by many rare habitats and plant and animal species. Consequently, the area of Slovenia is characterised by natural beauty and pristine nature scenery. Highly preserved natural sites cover over 1/3 of the country area and are mainly represented by forested areas. The system of these sites is organised into several levels of official protection, from the natural park to a system of Natura 2000 sites and locations (Kutnar et al. 2011).

Slovenia is considered a medium developed tourist country. Statistics show that tourism in Slovenia represents 11.8% of gross domestic income (Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia (SORS), Banka Slovenije), 2011. The annual number of tourist arrivals (transit tourists) and overnight lodgings has been gradually increasing in the last decade. The number of transit tourists increased from approximately 2 to approximately 3 million in addition to an increase of overnights from 7 million in 2001 to 8.9 million in 2010 (SORS, 2011). Over 56 % of all tourist nights are represented by the visitors from abroad (WTTC - World Travel and Tourism Council). Among other reasons for satisfactory tourism development in the country is a high level of safety of the country. According to the index of global security position Slovenia is at the 11th place Global Peace Index). The International index of tourism competitiveness positioned the country at the 33rd place with increasing index in year 2010 (The World Economy Forum, Competitiveness index in 2011). Terrain with numerous streams and rivers, taking over 63% forest cover countries rising from the sea coast over decorated and impressive karst caves to the high alpine peaks over 2000 m above sea level, up to the highest mountain in Slovenia the Triglav (2864 m) (www.slovenia.info/rr 2011).

3.3.3 Mountain tourism in Slovenia 2010

The Alps represent 84% of the mountain area of Slovenia while the Dinaric Mountains represent only 16% (Čas 2006). Overall the high mountain tourism contributes up to 25% of all transit tourists and tourist overnight stays in the country (SORS, 2011). The main activity of mountain tourists in the winter season is skiing. In the summer, hiking and mountaineering were traditional activities. In recent years other possibilities have been discovered or organised, such as mountain biking, kayaking, rafting, climbing, paragliding, and also tennis, golf and camping in organised tourist centres. New activities such as hiking and cross country skiing, snowboarding, ice climbing, driving snowmobiles, paragliding are quickly gaining popularity in the winter as well (Jeršič 1997). Several of the recently introduced activities represent an aggressive invasion into the fragile mountain environment, mainly the off-road motor vehicles use, motocross motorcycles, quads, and in winter snowmobiles. The current legislation in Slovenia strictly limits these disturbing activities. The enforcement of these laws is, however, rather lax and there is a strongly lobbied tendency to loosen the regulation and allow even more aggressive human impact on this fragile mountain environment.

3.3.3.1 Mountaineering in Slovenia

The popularisation of mountaineering in Slovenia can be traced back to the 19th Century. The Mountaineering Association of Slovenia is celebrating the 110th anniversary and includes about 245 mountaineering clubs, with more than 50,000 members and managing over 170 mountain huts and maintaining approximately 7,000 km of mountain trails. Most tourists come to the mountain area in July, August and September, totalling 80% of annual overnight lodgings (approximately 93,000 in 2003) (Černič 2011). Mountaineering and hiking on managed and marked hiking trails generally has negligible impact on natural environment, which is also a consequence of a high level of nature conservation awareness of Slovenian mountaineers. A more negative impact on natural environment can be observed in mountain areas close to urban centres due to the high volume of traffic and hiking off the marked trails and also forms of tourism and recreation involving different types of vehicles and overharvesting of forest berries, herbs and mushrooms.

3.3.4 "Back to nature" - The development of mountain tourism - The threats and impact

In the Slovenian Alps, the tourism is of much lower intensity when compared to other alpine countries. In this context, Slovenia has a benefit of hindsight and an opportunity of taking into account the negative experiences of other alpine countries when planning future strategies for the development of mountain tourism, which undoubtedly should be ecologically and socially sustainable (Jeršič 1999). It is very important to coordinate the interests of tourism enterprises with the local rural population, which has been subject to disturbance and conflict, and often placed in an unfavourable position in the marketing of mountain tourism. Thus we have been observing an increase in rural-tourism and eco-tourism in the mountain areas of Slovenia in recent times, for example on Pohorje Mountains (Jug et al. 2007).

In addition to the economic activities involving sustainable use of natural resources in the Alpine area (forestry, agriculture, hunting, fishing, hydropower and small hydropower

plants) there is also a new activity which is often disruptive to forest and other fragile mountain ecosystems — the mass tourism.

Unregulated use of the mountain landscape for human recreational and tourist activities is negatively impacting the sensitive habitats of many rare, endangered and protected plant and animal species (Official Gazette of RS 1993/57). Among the most sensitive and endangered species in the Alpine mountain region are certainly the forest grouse species (*Tetraonidae*): Western capercaillie (*Tetrao urogallus* L.), hazel grouse (*Bonasa bonasia* L.), black grouse (*Tetrao tetrix* L.) and rock ptarmigan (*Lagopus mutus* Montin) (Čas 1999, 2001, 2006; Eiberle 1984; Storch 1999, 2007; Thiel et al. 2007).

Jeršič (1999) states that tourism experts determined that the area between 1200 to 2000 m a.s.l., is the most interesting for the development of mountain tourism, especially around 1500 m a.s.l. This area, however, has been reported as the major and long-standing core area of preserved habitats for rare species of forest grouse at the southern edge of their distribution (Čas 2006; Adamič 1987).

3.3.5 Mountain tourism in the research area of Peca and Smrekovec mountain

Smrekovec and Peca mountain range is annually visited by 31 to 35-thousand visitors, of which over 90% are mountaineers or hikers. Visitors come mostly from the surrounding towns and villages along the marked hiking trails. In recent decades, the number of visitors has increased, but more importantly so has the number of sports enthusiasts, especially mountain bikers and drivers of motor vehicles (2- and 4-wheeled) or snowmobiles in the winter. But there is a detectable increase of visitors in a form of a new genre of mountain tourists, using roads accessible by cars to visit the mountain huts in last decade. Overview of visitors of the mountain hut Travnik (1548 m a.s.l.) on Mt. Smrekovec has shown that of the 3000 total annual visitors, only 30% were mountaineers and hikers, with the other 70% being visitors using motor vehicles (Vrčkovnik B., manageress hut, pers. comm., October 2011). Similarly, Smrekovec hut (1377 m a.s.l.), where the mountain range is annually visited by about 13000 people, most of the cars. Especially in the summer and early autumn are a mass visit gatherers blueberries and cranberries, mushrooms and herbs that occupy forests and pastures throughout the mountain ridge and strongly disturb the natural environment and habitats (Fika- Povsod V., manager of the hut, pers. comm., October 2011).

Based on the analysis of entries in the log book in the mountain cottage on Mt. Peca (1665 m a.s.l.), (Mountaineering Club Mežica, 1982, 1983, 1984) conducted in 1982, 1983 and 1984, between 3,000 and 5,000 people visited Mt. Peca annually (Čas 1988) and in year 2010 about 15,000, (no road to the hut) with at least half an hour of hiking (Blatnik V., former manager of the Alpine Association Mežica, pers. comm., October 2011).

The analysis of 267 survey sheets filled by visitors of the cottage on Mt. Peca in 1983 and 1984 revealed that most people visit Mt. Peca from June to September, 72% of which during weekends. Most visitors came from the neighbouring Mežica valley (42%), 40% from the lowland region of NE Slovenia, 13% from the more distant regions of Slovenia, 3% from other republics of the former Socialist Federative Republic of Yugoslavia and 2% from other countries (2%). The number of visitors from the neighbouring Austria was insignificant (Čas 1988). 56% of the visitors were young people, the group most likely to take on different sport activities in the mountains.

Most visitors (50%) came to Mt. Peca to enjoy the beauty of the mountains and the natural environment, and the tranquillity of the locale, some to visit the cave of King Matjaž (a figure in Slovenian mythology), some for the company and due to the general popularity of the site, and some for hunting, forestry and recreation. In 75% of cases the weather was nice. Most visitors complimented the staff on homeliness and service, while a few expressed criticism of forest roads roughly intersecting the hiking trails (Čas 1988).

According to local mountaineers, the structure of visitors has not changed significantly by 2010, except for a higher number of visitors using motor vehicles and mountain bikes (on marked and managed bike trails). Unfortunately, a growing number of visitors using wheeled motor vehicles or snowmobiles off-road have been recorded in the last decade, causing disturbance and destruction of the natural environment on both mountains (Maks Potočnik, pers. comm., October 2011).

3.4 Causes for the Western capercaillie population decline and shrinking of the habitat between 1980 and 2010 in relation to the impacts of mountain tourism

Western capercaillie population size in Slovenia has been constantly decreasing since 1961 (Čas 2006, 2010). Results of intensive monitoring conducted in 1980 and 2000 revealed that the number of Western capercaillie individuals dropped by 37% and the number of active lek sites by over 50% in the studied period (Čas 2001a). In 2000 there were 1250 reported individuals in Slovenia (Čas 2001a). Preliminary results of monitoring conducted in 2009–2010 by voluntary participation of hunters and foresters suggested the continuing decline of Western capercaillie population in Slovenia (Čas 2011, unpublished). Some Western capercaillie populations in SE Europe remain poorly studied and call for an investigation into their demographic and genetic status and a review of potential threats (Čas 2001a, 2010; Bajc et al 2011).

In the 1979-1981 period we examined 39 endangered leks (8.4%) of a total of 466 observed leks to determine the causes of Western capercaillie population decline and habitat destruction. The main threats to Western capercaillie at the examined leks were: (1) cutting of old forests (affecting 71.8% of endangered leks or 28 leks), (2) construction of forest roads (7.7%), (3) overgrowing of pastures in mountain forest areas (7.7%), (4) picking of forest fruits (5.1%), (5) human disturbance by mountain tourism activities (motor vehicles, sledges, recreation) (5.1%) and (6) predators (fox, marten, wild boar, lynx, hawk, eagle, etc.) (2.6% or one lek) (Table 6) (Čas 2010).

In the 1998-2000 period we examined 92 endangered leks (15.4%) out of 599 observed leks. The main threats to Western capercaillie at the examined leks were: (1) different forms of mountain tourism (affecting 26.1% or 24 of endangered leks), (2) cutting of old forests (19.6%), (3) predators (18.5%), (4) forest management in spring mating and nesting time (9.8%), (5) wild pasturage of sheep in forests (6.5%), (6) overgrowing of pastures in mountain forests (5.4%), (7) picking of forest fruits (5.4%), (8) construction of forest roads (4.3%), (9) "disrupted reproductive cocks and hens" (3.3%) and (10) infrastructure (power lines) (1.1%) (Table 6) (Čas 2010).

In the most recent monitoring started in 2009 we examined 151 endangered leks (47.9%) out of 315 observed leks. The main threats to Western capercaillie at the examined leks were: (1) different forms of mountain tourism (41,6% of endangered leks or 63 leks), (2) cutting of old forests (16.6%), (3) overgrowing of pastures in mountain forests (15.2%), (4) predators (12.6%),

(5) forest management in spring mating and nesting time (8.6%), (6) wild pasturage of sheep in forests (5.3%), (7) construction of forest roads (0.7%), (Table 6) (Čas 2009, unpublished data).

When comparing the three studied periods (1979-2009), the highest changes in contributions of different threats to Western capercaillie at leks were linked to (1) an increase in the negative impact of mountain tourism (motor vehicles, sledges, etc.) by 36 percentage points; (2) overgrowing of pastures in mountain forests, the impact of which increased by 10.1 percentage points; (3) an increase in negative impact of predation by 10.0 percentage points; (4) an increase in the negative impact of forest management in the spring mating and nesting time (openness of forests with roads) by 8.6 percentage points and (5) an increase in negative impact of pasturage of cattle and sheep in forests by 5.3 percentage points. On the other hand, (1) a significant decrease in negative impact of the cutting of old forests at leks by 55.2 percentage points, (2) a decrease by 7.7 percentage points in impact of picking of forest fruits (bilberry, cranberry, raspberry) and a decline in negative impact of forest roads construction by 7.0 percentage points were observed in the last 30 –years period (Table 6, Figure 8). Among the reasons for the decline of capercaillie leks in the last ten years since 2000 the tourism had the most negative impact (15.0 p.p).

Threats at leks	Relative contribution in 1979-1981 (%)	Relative contribution in 1998–2000 (%)	Relative contribution in 2009 (%)	Changes (p.p.), 1980-2000	Changes (p.p.), 1980-2010
Cutting of old forests	71.8	19.6	16.6	-52.2, - 3.0	-55.2
Construction of forest roads	7.7	4.3	0.7	- 3.3, - 3.6	-7.0
Forest management at the time of mating and nesting	0.0	9.8	8.6	+9.8, -1.2	+8.6
Mountain tourism (motor vehicles, sledges, hikers, m. bikes, skiing, camping etc.)	5.1	26.1	41.1	+21.0,+15.0	+36.0
Predators (fox, martens, wild boar, raptors)	2.6	18.5	12.6	+15.9,- 5.9	+10.0
Picking of forest fruits (bilberry, cranberry, ..)	7.7	5.4	0[1]	- 2.3,- 5.4	-7.7
Wild pasturage of cattle and sheep, wire fences	0.0	6.5	5.3	+6.5,- 1.2	+5.3
Overgrowing of pastures in mountain forests	5.1	5.4	15.2	+0.3,+9.8	+10.1
No normal cocks and hens	0.0	3.3	0[2]	+3.3, 3.3	0.0
Infrastructure (power lines)	0.0	1.1	0	+1.1, -1.1	0.0
Common number of observation leks	100.0	100.0	100	/ /	/

[1] Picking forest fruits disturbance is frequent but not the main cause for population decline
[2] No normal males on leks were sporadically present, thus not recorded

Table 6. Disturbance of Western capercaillie at leks in Slovenia by causes and their contributions in 1979–1981, 1998–2000 and 2009 (2010)
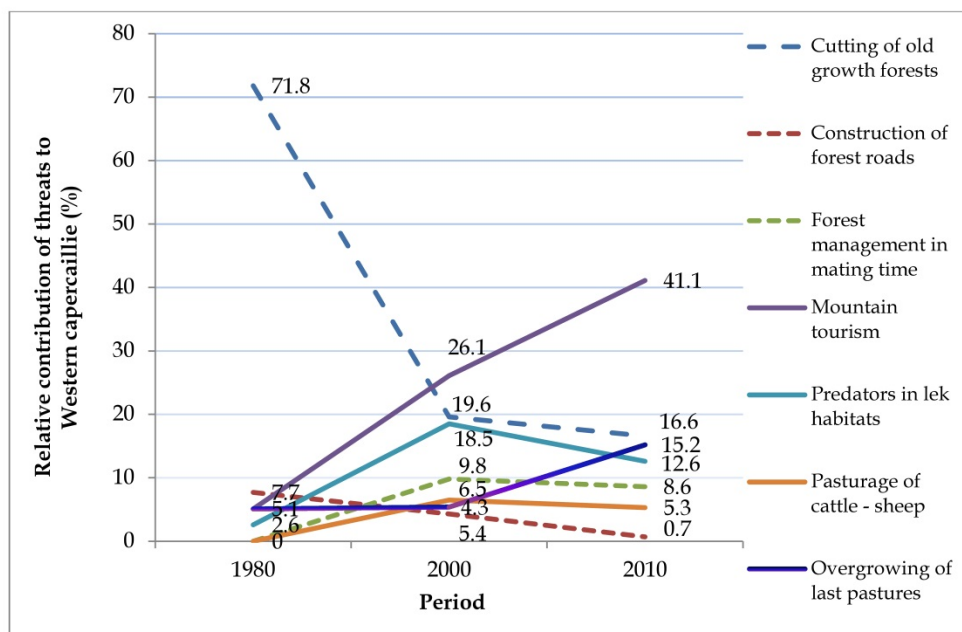
Fig. 8. The main threats and their contributions to endangerment of Western capercaillie at leks in Slovenia between 1979 and 2010

4. Discussion

Humans are evolutionarily intimately interlinked with manual labour and farming and hunting lifestyle and have survived millennia through cognitive adaptation to the natural environment. This study is an overview of human activities and land use, and changes in lifestyle in the Alps in the past centuries including mountain tourism, and their impacts on natural environment.

The Alpine region has long been influenced by human activities which caused severe and in many cases irreversible changes of the Alpine landscape, in particular of the high altitude forests. As a consequence of unregulated exploitation of forests starting as early as in 11th to 13th century, only remains of primary forests exist today in Slovenia, while most of the present forests are in various stages of secondary forest succession. In the area researched in this study, the abandonment and overgrowing farmland began first on the less fertile northern slopes of non-carbonate mountain ranges (Mt. Smrekovec) towards the end of 18th century and 130 years later also on the more fertile southern slopes of calcareous mountains (Mt. Peca). Changes in forest cover can thus be considered as a good indicator of changes of the rural lifestyle and the use of land in Slovenia in last centuries.

The intensity and frequency of human activities in the mountain areas have lately been constantly increasing and there appears to be no let-up therein in the foreseeable future. Demographic analysis in the SE Alpine research area of municipality Črna na Koroškem in

northern Slovenia revealed that the population structure had changed inversely in the period from 1869 to 2010. The rural population decreased from 2742 in 1869 to 760 individuals in 2010 (by 72%), while the number of inhabitants of the local urban commercial and industrial center of Črna increased from 639 inhabitants in 1869 to 2446 in 2010 (by 283%).

The forest cover in the research area of common region on northern slopes of Smrekovec Mt. and southern slopes of Peca Mt. in the Alpine region (104.6 km²) of Slovenia has increased since the end of the 18th century to the early 21st century from 26% to 80%. In the last two centuries the extent of pastures in the rural research area of c.m. Topla (13.4 km²) decreased from 71 % to 16% of the total area mainly due to the natural (non-managed) reforestation, and forest cover increased from 11 to 69 %. The key reasons behind the reduction of agricultural land were fast changes in the demands of the industry and financial value of the forests in different periods. Since the beginning of the 19th century the income from agriculture and livestock in the research rural area decreased from 80 % to 20% of the total income by the beginning of 21st century. Inversely, the income from forestry (wood) increased from only 20% in 1827 to 80 % in 2010.

Overgrowing of the abandoned farmland and forest development in the studied region in the SE Alps in the last two centuries is the result of societal and economic development, development of and changes in forestry and timber trade, the abandonment of extensive and the promotion of intensive forms of farming and forestry. The changes of population structure and size in the studied region can also be attributed to changes in lifestyle and livelihood.

Development of urban trade and industrial centres in valleys and planes has been increasing intensively, and urban people have begun seeking relief from the stressful daily routine in the form of recreational and leisure activities in the nature, including the sensitive ecosystems of the Alps.

Today the tourism is a promising »industry« for the Alpine region but also a problem in terms of negative environmental impacts. The majority of visitors of the Alps are younger people from industrial and urban centres and can be regarded as rather poorly educated about the proper behaviour in Alpine forests. This can inattentively lead to conflicts with natural processes in the Alpine forest, as is the example of the endangered Western capercaillie, habitats of which are severely affected by the mountain tourism, especially by the use of motor vehicles or mass visits in the improper time of the year.

Based on the results of monitoring of Western capercaillie leks, at which a decrease in the number of individuals was detected in Slovenian Alps in 2010, we identified four major groups of threats to Western capercaillie and classified them according to their relative contribution expressed as a percentage of affected leks: 1st Mountain tourism (41,1%); 2nd Forestry (cutting of old forests, construction of forest roads, forest management in mating and nesting time) (25,9%); 3rd Agriculture with pasturing (dangerous wire fences) in forests and overgrowing of pastures causing deterioration of habitat suitability (e.g. availability of bilberry, herbs, ant -hills, etc.) (Čas 2006; Bollman et al. 2005; Storch 1993, 2002) in forests (20,5%) and 4th Predation at leks (12,6%) and lack of hunting for predators (especially red fox, martens, wild boars) in winter time (Čas 2010), when reduced the core of grouse populations (Sandercock et al. 2010). Because Western capercaillie is considered an indicator

species of well-preserved forest habitats and sensitive to disturbances thereof, the above listed threats probably also negatively affect forest ecosystems and their biodiversity in general, named the umbrella species (Angelstam 2004; Čas & Adamič 1998; Čas 2001b; Sachot et al. 2003; Suter et al. 2002).

By 2000 mountain tourism with its many different forms, has become the activity with the most negative impact on Western capercaillie in Slovenian Alps. Similar findings were reported for other Central European countries as well (Menóni et al. 2006; Storch 1999; Thiel et al. 2007; Thiel et al. 2008). The biggest increase of relative contribution of negative impact on lek habitats suitability in Slovenia since 1979 was identified for mass mountain tourism (motor vehicles, sledges, mountain bikes, skiing off the managed slopes, hiking, camping, gathering of forest berries, herbs and mushrooms, etc.) with an increase of 36 percentage points (p.p.) — from 5.1% in 1980 to 41.1 % in 2010. The increase in negative impact of mountain tourism on Western capercaillie was further supported by the results of ongoing surveys of mountain tourism in the Alpine research area in northern Slovenia since 1982 (Čas 1988, sub-chapter 3). The construction of forest roads at the beginning of the 1980s (Robek & Kljun, 2007), increased the accessibility of forests for mountain tourism which has been developing the most intensively, in the area between 1000 and 2000 m a.s.l. (Jeršič 1999), the core habitat area for grouse species in the Alps (Čas 1999, 2006; Storch 1999, 2007).

Agricultural activities and the changes in use of farmland ranked as the second in the term of negative impacts on Western capercaillie habitat in the Alps in the last 30 years. The general reduction in intensity of agricultural activities and the decline of the rural population (Tables 4 and 5) resulted in an increase of forest cover by overgrowing of abandoned farmland, the contribution of which to the combined negative impact on Western capercaillie habitat increased from 5.1% to 15,2% in the 1980–2010 period (Table 6; Čas 2006). Although the negative impact of the expansion of forest cover on behalf of the abandoned farmland on Western capercaillie appears counterintuitive, previous studies confirmed that forest landscape intersected by 3–5% of open land (including farmland) is the most favourable for Western capercaillie (Čas 1996, 2006; Gulič et al. 2003), considering there were no dangerous wire fences present or toxic agro-pharmaceutical agents applied (Catt et al., 1994; Čas 2010; Gačić et al. 2009; Purnat et al. 2007; Zubić 2009). Findings relating to negative impacts of agriculture on Western capercaillie habitat suitability underline the need for the adoption of a more sensitive planning of and a more sustainable management of rural landscape in the mountainous regions of Slovenia.

Forestry has a potential to dramatically affect the forest landscape, its habitat suitability and biodiversity. The results presented in this study (Table 6) showed that the negative impact of cutting of old well preserved forests on Western capercaillie decreased by 55.2 percentage points in 1980–2010 period, it however still had a reasonably high impact by affecting 16.6% of endangered leks in 2010. The negative impact of construction of forest roads became negligible in 2010 as most of these roads were constructed in 1980s and therefore do not affect the surviving Western capercaillie leks (Table 6, Figure 8). Furthermore, forest roads can have a beneficial effect on the suitability of forest habitat for Western capercaillie, particularly in managed dense mixed forest stands dominated by Norway spruce and European beech. Forest can roads provide Western capercaillie with the necessary open space and access to bilberry, insects and gastrolites (Čas 2006).

The impact of forest management in mating and nesting time increased to 9.8% in 2000 and only marginally decreased by 2010 (to 8.6%) (Table 6; Figure 8). The curbing of the impact of forest management in Western capercaillie mating and nesting time is very likely a consequence of the implementation of national policy of management of natural forests outside the mating, nesting and breeding time of wildlife animals (Regulations on the Protection of Forests, 2000). The process of forest development towards more deciduous stands and the shrinking of habitat due to the climate and vegetation change is affecting Slovenian forests (Čas & Adamič, 2007; Kutnar & Kobler 2011) and the wider European territory as well (Anić et al. 2009; Fanta, 1992; Marrachi et al. 2005; Stutzer, 2000).

The overall increase (by 10.0 percentage points) in negative impacts of predation (fox, martens, wild boar, lynx, raptors, etc.) at Western capercaillie leks in the last 30 years (Čas 2010) can be attributed to the combined effects of habitat fragmentation (Kurki et al. 2000; Storch et al. 2005), change of land use, negative consequences of nature conservation policies resulting in less intensive hunting of generalist predators in post-industrial society (Čas 2010; Angelstam et al. 2001).

The human disturbances at the southern edge of Western capercaillie distribution area and habitat suitability in combination with the impact of air pollution and climate change on forests in the region (Anič et al. 2009; Čas & Adamič 1995, 2007; Klaus et al. 1997; Kutnar & Kobler 2011) and predator pressure (Čas 2010) are detrimental for the survival of Western capercaillie (Angelstam et al., 2004; Blanco-Fontao et al. 2009; Čas 2006, 2010; Gonzales & Ena 2011; Poolo et al. 2005; Storch, 1999, 2007).

The combined findings of studies presented in this chapter have the potential to serve as important guidelines for future planning of forest and rural landscape, hunting and tourism management strategies and sustainable use of natural resources ensuring the persistence of autochthonous wildlife species, including the endangered Western capercaillie (Bajc et al. 2011; Čas & Adamič 1998; Čas 2001a, 2002, 2006, 2010; Golob & Polanšek 2009; Kutnar et al. 2005) and other grouse species.

5. Conclusion

Overgrowing of the abandoned farmland and forest development in the studied region in the SE Alps in the last two centuries is the result of societal and economic development, development of and changes in forestry and timber trade, the abandonment of extensive and the promotion of intensive forms of farming and forestry. The changes of population structure and size in the studied region can also be attributed to changes in lifestyle and livelihood. Changes in forest cover can thus be considered as a good indicator of changes of the rural lifestyle and the use of land. Demographic analysis in the SE Alpine research area of municipality Črna Na Koroškem in northern Slovenia revealed that the population structure had changed inversely in the period from 1869 to 2010. The forest cover in the research area of common region on northern slopes of Smrekovec Mt. and southern slopes of Peca Mt. in the Alpine region (104.6 km²) of Slovenia has increased since the end of the 18th century to the early 21st century from 26% to 80%. Since the beginning of the 19th century the income from agriculture and livestock in the research rural area decreased from 80% to 20% of the total income by the beginning of 21st century. Inversely, the income from forestry (wood) increased from only 20% in 1827 to 80% in 2010. Development of urban

trade and industrial centres in valleys and planes has been increasing intensively, and urban people have begun seeking relief from the stressful daily routine in the form of recreational and leisure activities in the nature, including the sensitive ecosystems of the Alps. Today the mountain tourism is a promising »industry« for the Alpine region but also a problem in terms of negative environmental impacts. This can inattentively lead to conflicts with natural processes in the Alpine forest ecosystems and landscapes, as is the example of the endangered Western capercaillie (*Tetrao urogallus* L.), habitats of which are severely affected by the mountain tourism, especially by the use of motor vehicles or mass visits in the improper time of the year. Based on the results of monitoring of Western capercaillie leks, at which a decrease in the number of individuals was detected in Slovenian Alps in 2010, we identified four major groups of threats to Western capercaillie and classified them according to their relative contribution expressed as a percentage of affected leks: 1st Mountain tourism (41,1%); 2nd Forestry (cutting of old forests, construction of forest roads, forest management in mating and nesting time) (25,9%); 3rd Agriculture with pasturing (dangerous wire fences) in forests and overgrowing of pastures causing deterioration of habitat suitability (e.g. availability of bilberry, herbs, ant-hills, etc.) in forests (20,5%) and 4th Predation at leks (12,6%) and lack of hunting for predators (especially red fox, martens, wild boars) in winter time, when reduced the core of grouse populations. Because Western capercaillie is considered an indicator species of well-preserved forest habitats and sensitive to disturbances thereof, the above listed threats probably also negatively affect forest ecosystems and their biodiversity in general, named the umbrella species.

In conclusion, the sustainable dynamic conservation of the remaining old and well preserved forests with a moderate road density and pastures combined with unaggressive and sustainable mountain tourism directed outside of the sensitive ecosystems areas is crucial for sustenance of forest habitat suitability in the mountains. Based on the results presented in this study we can assume a threat of positive correlation between the development and intensification of mountain tourism and an increase of endangerment of rare and protected forests species.

The combined findings of studies presented in this chapter have the potential to serve as important guidelines for future planning of forest and rural landscape, hunting and tourism management strategies and sustainable use of natural resources ensuring the persistence of autochthonous wildlife species, including the endangered Western capercaillie and other grouse species.

Analysis of the existing data and future monitoring of habitats of endangered forest grouse species in mating time should also include the spatial analysis of the impact of mountain tourism by type of activity as a guide for a more coordinated planning of sustainable use of mountain landscape.

6. Acknowledgement

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An Approach of Co-Design in Mobile Services in Luxembourg Tourism Context

Eric Miglioranzo, Damien Nicolas and Pierre Brimont
Public Research Centre Henri Tudor
Luxembourg

1. Introduction

In the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, after a century of industrialization, time is now to the development of tertiary industry and services. In tourism, the country, with a rich historical past, has a good potential of development based on existing host structures and efficient traveling options. However, if many actors, institutional and private, already offer a lot of solutions, recent developments of ICT lead to the emergence of new services. Moreover, the massive Wi-Fi equipment of cities for data dissemination and the strong interest of users to the latest generation of smartphones accentuate this trend. Yet, according to the new discipline of service science initiated by IBM, any innovative service development requires the respect of the principles of value co-creation, user-centricity and multi-disciplinary. This methodology, not yet widely applied, leads to the mobilization of concerned stakeholders around a common design of the future service. Regarding this issue, CRP Henri Tudor has developed a tool for context aware services rapid prototyping. Based on the results of several research projects, it aimed at reconciling the interests of each party involved in the service system, while promoting creativity.

2. Tourism context and technologies

2.1 Historical situation

From the Romans in the year 60 after Jesus Christ, to the Prussians, all the peoples of Europe have contributed to the richness of cultural heritage, source of tourism quality.

Today, after a century of steel industry, it's time for reconversion of blast furnaces to cultural and tourist purposes. Thus, the CNCI (National Centre for Industrial Culture) has launched a project to transform the two last blasts of Belval into the cultural city of sciences center. This will to convert industrial heritage shows the awareness of the Grand-Duchy to conserve, enhance and promote, its rich industrial heritage as much as it does for its cultural heritage.

Those transformations are done in order to ensure that current and future generations won't forget fundamental values and good governance principles of this country firmly involved in European expansion. Most of the citizens are aware that the culture of such a small country shouldn't lose his uniqueness by suddenly focusing on external influences. And

this, even if the country remains open to international, by developing its capacity to material logistics, digital and tourist services.

Fig. 1. The Grand-Duchy of Luxembourg

The cultural, economic and social diversity that characterize the Luxembourg generate a wide-ranging and varied tourism, and the variety of landscapes is not the only major attraction of the country.

To fully understand the context, it should be noted that the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg has barely more than 500,000 inhabitants. It is as large as the city of Lyon, in France. With more than 40%[1] of foreign origin people, its population is growing strong and fast, due to an intense immigration, mostly from Europe.

If the national language is Luxembourgish since 1984, French, German and English are the other three key languages used in administrative, public and professional contexts. Not less than 170[2] different nationalities are present and, consistent with national education policy,

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[1] http://www.statistiques.public.lu/catalogue-publications/luxembourg-en-chiffres/luxembourg-chiffres.pdf

[2] http://www.cdaic.lu/pdf/mom/nationalites.pdf

language learning is promoted in order that young people to communicate easily from the earliest age. In architecture, the neighborhood historic and some Luxembourg-city's fortifications have been declared "world heritage of Unesco" in 1994. This important heritage, combined with its european capital vocation and its financial center qualifications give a cosmopolitan character to the city.

2.2 Tourism context

In 2009 tourism industry represented about 8.3%[3] of the GDP (Gross Domestic Product) and kept around 25,000 employed, meaning 11.7%[4] of the working population. Thus, Luxembourg considers it a key sector and, despite to the economic crisis, still continues its investments. As an economic actor of great notoriety and wide supporter of ecological values, the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg is still concerned by the well-being of its citizens , and attached to ensure high quality welcome to tourists. Through the MICE infrastructure (MICE = Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions), the Ministry of tourism himself, underlines "an international competitive and privileged environment, combining a fast-paced urban lifestyle with vast forests, beautiful landscapes and picturesque historical sites, all accessible within minutes". To remain competitive the Tourism Department has also promoted a main concept named "quality of life and quality of tourism". The vision is to consider the activity as a double perspective of population living conditions improvement as well as a sustainable and quality tourism product offer[5]. This policy is at the origin of different initiatives: set-up of well-known luxury shops in Luxembourg downtown, creation of night bus line, VIP pass to the new airport, distribution of an english-language promotion manual dedicated to international business people, etc.

At another level, the Luxembourg, located between Belgium, east of France and Germany, is sometimes referred as a "country of transit", which operates its privilege by stimulating local economic tourism. Therefore, border people, including 148 000 workers, benefit less taxed products such as tobacco, alcohol, and fuels. Also, it is not surprising that the few Luxembourgish service-stations located on the highway connecting France to Belgium, are the largest in Europe.

2.3 Technological infrastructure

Regarding technological and transport infrastructure dedicated to tourism facilities, public authorities work at national, regional and communal levels to foster Luxembourg's attractiveness, and strengthen the hospitality.

Since the end of the 90s, the growth of new technologies used in all professional sectors is very important. The cultural domain did not depart from this rule, and, gradually, most public institutions have produced some internet websites publishing tourism information with a constant concern of quality. The CNA, (Centre National de l'Audiovisuel) has been the first to produce a website according to a list of graphical recommendations. Such

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[3] http://www.352luxmag.lu/?p=edito&a=external&id=107145

[4] http://www.352luxmag.lu/?p=edito&a=external&id=107145

[5] Ministère des classes moyennes et du tourisme – Département du tourisme
(http://www.mdt.public.lu/fr/ministere/index.html

requirements based on normalization criteria have then been gathered in a unique charter and used by each public national institution. Despite this effort of standardization, we can notice that, no similar initiative has been taken yet, regarding diffusion on mobile terminals like smartphones or touchpads.

National strategy broadband

During these same years, the Luxembourg has adopted an active approach to develop its infrastructure, positioning itself among the European leaders in terms of broadband penetration.

Access of all citizens and all companies in the "ultra-high" flow is a key element of the future development of the national economy. To move forward quickly and effectively, the Luxembourg has developed a national strategy to position itself among the leading countries in the future field of "ultra-high" flow. Disposing of a broadband network infrastructure has positive socio-economic impacts. Such technologies allow to reach speeds up to 1 Gigabit per second (Gbps) for fixed networks, and up to 150 megabits per second (Mbps) for mobile networks (the "ultra-high" flow). The success of the diversification of a service economy is heavily dependent on access to competitive cost "ultra-high" flow. According to a first plan of migration, the objective is to ensure coverage of 95% of the population in 2011[6].

If the deployment of this strategy is supported by the Department of State media and communication services as well as the Ministry of economy and foreign trade, the means implemented do not consist in support plan with public aid, but to act to favourably influence the cost of the deployment (and then and possibly financially assist innovative actors). Thus, competition of technological players enabled to ensure access to diverse and innovative services.

Mobile broadband

The Luxembourg is one of these countries where access to fixed and mobile phone is widespread: Wi-Fi is the most common technology deployed in Grand-Duchy and 75% of households are equipped. And concerning the mobile phone, almost 90% of the population owned a 3G phone in April 2010[7].

And the Luxembourg is and remains a large market: in 2011, a survey says that the number of mobile subscriptions stood at 727.000 units at the end of 2010, or 145% of the resident population.

Actually, new communication networks based on modern technologies have increased and, as major phone operators are physically located in Luxembourg, professional companies bring new dynamic to the service offers on mobile device.

2.4 Public and private initiatives

The city of Luxembourg is entirely covered by a Wi-Fi mesh, known as the HotCity network. At least around three hundred hotspots distributed in the city of Luxembourg

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[6]http://www.mediacom.public.lu/institutions/Institutions_nationales/smc/20100309_ngn/Strategie_nationale_pour_les_reseaux_a_ultra-haut_debit.pdf

[7] http://www.ITU.int/NET/itunews/issues/2010/03/09-fr.aspx

cover its entirety. Dedicated to people in situation of mobility, the town offers access to free web services such as "find in the city". The outdoor location of the user allows him to identify points of interest nearby: administrative buildings, cinemas, restaurants and so on. As another example of offered service is the "Screw - IT" that is a practical guide to the main useful addresses, culture and recreation sites, thematic or custom routes.

In addition the iPass company has developed a specific offer for companies enabling the access to thousands of hotspots in the world and for which payment is based on a pay-per-use model.

If the city of Luxembourg is largely active in the promotion of the city, the municipality wishes to capitalize and leverage its achievements with other municipalities. In 2010, the city of Esch sur Alzette, second largest one of the country, signed an agreement to be equipped and to benefit from experiences and synergies. Other municipalities in the south of the Grand Duchy, or even in the near region of Lorraine in France, have also initiated discussion to take advantage of the Hotcity portal.

In fact, the offer is promising: a Wi-Fi network enables greater efficiency than a 3G network, at least for data connections. Hotcity has the monopoly of urban Wi-Fi operation, with respect to the objectives of public actors: defend a service quality policy and improve the hospitality building.

Technological infrastructures have been developed to promote the digital economy and its growth through a structural and regulated approach. Another significant example is constituted by the tourist information center from Luxembourg city that is an important organization with the aim to promote existing infrastructure and services. In smaller municipalities, natural, cultural and economic attractiveness of territories justifies to some extent that the tourist office are managed on a subsidiary volunteer-based.

Municipal, cantonal and national initiatives are usually deployed for specific user segments. And of course, the intentions in mind are always for the quality of service for the residents and other, at work or on cultural or tourism trip, for young or senior citizens, for valid or people with disability, polyglots or not.

2.5 The iPhone revolution

At the same time, the iPhone[8] has changed significantly the uses and the ways of thinking, selling, acting and being mobile.

Boon for users, boon to nomadism, boon to mobile marketing, boon to all novices and revolution of design, the iPhone is a huge step in the ergonomic field. In addition it gives back sense to two neglected concepts: simplicity and common sense.

If its economic model imposes specific requirements and strong competitive skills, it helps to consider the design of services with a new point of views: to not target a segment but to offer a service to a client, to delineate the center of interest, to make sequences reduced and to use simplicity to achieve relevant results in less stages: as example, we can take an application giving only the closest restaurants to the user. Even if there are twenty results, the user will be able to choose the one he wants. In contrast, an application that requires

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[8] http://www.apple.com/iphone/

information profile, interests, sewer systems, recreation, availability, and so on is considered to be too complex and would become quickly obsolete.

By pushing the technology, the iPhone sets free usual practices, promotes the Web 2.0, allows professionals to be in and generates a less smartly designed offer of smartphones because the economic good sense generally leads to copy concepts.

The importance of penetration of smartphones and the iPhone specifically, demonstrates that this mobile device has become a real economic issue.

Internet access is in the user's pocket and supports, as a result, exchange through social networks; provision of augmented reality applications on the location such as context-based becomes a "life tool" for mobile users.

However, it is a advantage for proximity marketing. 57% of the mobile users own at least a branded application and search for a specific service, promotions, news concerning their orders, the location of stores, games, competitions and information.

That said, in the age of the protection of personal information, users authorize to be located and therefore to be the target of proximity marketing: applications, outdoor and indoor positioning, augmented reality and adapted barcode give the ability to define the outlines of an extension of the marketing field.

This change in the user behavior around the world is generated by this new generation of smartphones, but also by the emergence of social networks. And it is clear that the addiction of the user in the Grand-Duchy of Luxembourg seems to be specifically stronger. It is easily understandable regarding to the cosmopolitan context and the constant bubbling of the country. The smartphone is adopted as the terminal device for accessing to the Internet. This evolution in behavior is explained by the multiplication of smartphones, but also by the generalization of unlimited internet offers proposed by the phone operators, and finally thanks to the optimization of web content by major publishers of content.

Before this explosion of uses, the smartphone has affected a wide audience who is finally free to choose what could become his addictions. Mobile operators offers should be broad and address the whole public and not a public in particular and thus tend to allow bulk subscribers, offering a broad and flexible offer to connect, while services and applications are piling up with this potential likelihood of receiving an unexpected public: success will be or will not be. Currently, an average of twenty-seven applications are downloaded on a smartphone, and it is certain that technology trends foreshadow great promise for the mobile sector. For example, the emergence of the QR Code (89% of respondents have already seen a QR Code) and the liberalization of the geo-location (71% of the mobile owners already used the geo-location), should strengthen the impact of the mobile for daily use including the purchase action. If it is not strictly speaking an effusion of new business models for mobile services based on geo-location, these are good reasons to integrate at this moment in time the marketing field at the heart of all promotional campaigns.

2.6 Innovation in services in the city, it is innovate by the new uses

Then this problem rises in strategies to promote tourist cultural institutions and territories in a more widely way. Public institutions are not necessarily in line with these new

technologies regarding the promotion of their services on a broader scale and thus to attract new visitors.

Issues related to the launch of these services are economic, cultural, and societal. But whether in telephony 3G, Wi-Fi or GPS terminals, these new technologies must be adapted to the moving demand and must offer new services to the consumers. If the last few decades have allowed the development of technological infrastructures and have promoted new collaborations between institutional actors, the conditions for the improvement of the tourist attractiveness by innovation in practice are propitious.

However, no innovation is possible without advanced collaboration of stakeholders in tourism: "Office National du Tourisme", Luxembourg city tourism Office, regional tourism centers, inter-communal union for the promotion of township, and so on. Some initiatives and dissemination actions exist, but with a total separation of the implicated actors. It is indeed the mode of sustainable collaboration of implicated partners, which certainly is the solution to make practical research, development and innovation. And the city is a field of experimentation that brings together all the conditions of success for the development of new digital mobile services available to residents, visitors and the people who work there.

But it appears that the push of innovation to this area of mobile services can only come from public actors. There is still some reluctance to imagine the evolution of services for the tourism sector, specifically for a small country where actors are very scattered. The major issues on which persist uncertainties are the evolution of technologies, the lack of control of the application client and the difficulty to adopt a strategy. Indeed, the first two concerns are not necessarily enough challenging to encourage a public institution to go ahead to an in-depth reflection on the interest to integrate new mobile services for the benefit of its users. Then, even if the perception of the potential of context-aware mobile services is good, the difficulty resides in the capacity of public actors to develop a strategy to integrate geo-location services. The innovation actors cannot be then the users themselves.

Simply open a financial newspaper or pay attention to analysts to figure out that this development of the service sector is a general trend in Europe. In this regard, Luxembourg is not an exception. According to Global Finance Magazine[9], the part of services in the Grand-Duchy represented 87% of GDP (Gross Domestic Product) in 2010. Beyond the tourism sector, it is therefore necessary to consider the characteristics of this activity's area and to examine the conditions for the emergence of new services.

2.7 Service definition

For many years the notion of service is subject to many definitions. Among the most significant it is worth mentioning Lovelock et al.[1] identifying a service as: " An act or performance offered by one party to another. Although the process may be tied to a physical product, the performance is essentially intangible and does not normally result in ownership of any of the factors of production" or Vargo and Lusch [2] stating that "services are the application of specialized competences (knowledge and skills) through deeds, processes, and performances for the benefit of another entity or the entity itself." Based on

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[9] http://gfmag.com

these two assertions, it appears that services can be recognized as an economic activity, whether remunerated or not, that does not require the creation or transfer of tangible property. As reflected by R. Larson [3] the concept of service is defined by "subtraction" because it refers to " every job that is not directly related to agriculture, manufacturing, or resource extraction and harvesting." It thus appears that we are surrounded of services.

Whether they are banking, administrative or related to health, among others, the world in which we live is based on services, and this for many years. If the modernization launched since the second half of the 20th century has speeded up their development, explaining the appearance of a dedicated sector industry, their nature has not changed dramatically. To consider the examples suggested, completing a transaction with his bank, obtaining a birth certificate, or consulting a doctor remain similar activities as in previous decades. It involves the concepts of particular *skills*, whether financial, administrative or medical, running a number of tasks, described by a specific *procedure*, established in order to meet the demand or need for a *client*, patient or a citizen.

2.8 Information technologies & services

However, if the needs remain the same, the way to address them has changed dramatically. Who, among us, still takes care to get to the bank office to withdraw some cash? Who moves to the town hall to obtain administrative documents easily accessible through the Internet? Who refuses to use the smart card containing his medical records for consulting his doctor or launching the procedure for reimbursement of his drugs as he passes at the pharmacy? If services have remained the same, the massive use of computers and electronic technologies (ICT) has radically changed the way they are executed. Again, according to R. Larson [3] « (…) over the past 60 or so years,(…) in many services, as with telephones, humans have been replaced by technology. In others, such as self-serve gasoline 'service stations,' the consumer has become the server! And in many cases, both changes have happened at once: technology removed the human server and the customer performs the service, as with ATMs and elevators." Nowadays technology has become indispensable and has invaded the world of services, up to become one of the central elements either in their design, their operation or maintenance. Moreover, the rapid adoption and large scale of the new mobile communication means as well as the improvement of their computing capacity have increased the opportunities for automation and promoted their development. Increasingly efficient and sharp the emergence of these new services is now the object of new scientific studies at the intersection of fields or disciplines as economics, sociology or ICT.

2.9 Service system

To consider more accurately each component involved in the implementation and the deployment of services, let's look at the following example: Mr Smith, leaving the Museum of Modern Art in the city of Luxembourg, decides to enjoy the sunny day and stroll a few minutes along the verdant aisles of a near public park. On the way, he chooses to order a packed meal to be delivered on site. He picks up his phone, consults a search engine that forwards his request to a community website dedicated to the evaluation of fast food in the European capitals. Not knowing the exact name of the park, he grants permission to the mobile application to locate himself in order to select a first list of the nearest restaurants and performs his final choice based on the assessment of the community. Then, he then

orders his meal and continues to wander while waiting quietly the delivery. After receiving and tasting, pleased of the assistance of the community, he submits its own rating with a small text of recommendation. Nothing is more usual. Yet, except for the meal itself, which is, as noted above, similar to a tangible product outside of our study, this service involves several complex concepts including:

- *The use of technologies*. In this case, Mr Smith uses his phone for accessing internet, locating the park, and calling the restaurant.
- *The need of know-how*. The preparation of the meal, as well as its delivery, are activities that require the intervention of qualified and specialized people.
- *Information sharing*. The use of a website referencing the restaurants of European capitals, and giving access to ratings from a community is an important added value of the service.
- *Partnership involvement.* The preparation of the meal requires the prior purchase of food from suppliers and the delivery can potentially be outsourced to a company specializing in the field.
- *The implementation of a procedure.* The call made by the customer is the first step of a previously established procedure, starting from receipt of the call and ending to delivery by going through the assembly of the food components, meal packaging and the call to the delivery company.
- *The concept of user experience*. Mr Smith, aware of the assistance the community has provided through its recommendation, has sought to fill up the evaluation form, based on his own perception of the quality of the service provided.
- *The concept of value*. He also realizes the complexity of the service and agrees to pay a fair price in relation to the final product quality and the conditions for obtaining it. As we will see later, the experience of the service itself is also part of the service.

We note that elements constituting the fast food delivery service are concepts common to all services delivered today and can be seen as the components of what is called a *service system*. According to the Cambridge University [4], « A service system can be defined as a dynamic configuration of resources (people, technology, organisations and shared information) that creates and delivers value between the provider and the customer through service. In many cases, a service system is a complex system in that configurations of resources interact in a non-linear way. Primary interactions take place at the interface between the provider and the customer. However, with the advent of ICT, customer-to-customer and supplier-to-supplier interactions have also become prevalent. These complex interactions create a system whose behaviour is difficult to explain and predict." In addition to the procedure itself, the emphasis is focused on the interactions between the different parts that constitute the service, and especially on those that directly involve the customer. He is definitely the center of the system. Of course, it is necessary to implement the recommendations common to each application software, such as improving the performance or checking availability and security of the data exchanged, but pay attention to the quality of service delivered is also up to worry about the real needs of the user. According to Lewis & Boom [5], this is the heart of the matter. They suggest that the "service quality" which is "a measure of how well a delivered service matches the customers' expectations" is unavoidable and necessary to the success of any initiative.

Yet is it enough? The number of services made available is so important that it is now suggested to add a notion of "experiential marketing" in order to ensure its promotion. What would be the Starbucks coffees without their specific surrounding? What would be a place of "Crush's coaster" in Disneyland Paris without the heroes of the cartoon Nemo and associated staging? Probably no more than a cup of coffee and a round of classical coaster. It is the customer experience, cleverly orchestrated by marketing elements that bring additional value to the service itself. Pine & Gilmore argue that marketers must orchestrate memorable events for their customers, and that memory itself becomes the product - the "experience".

2.10 Service innovation & service science

Thus, assume the user as the focal point of the system and develop solutions tailored to its situation seems indispensable. This notion of *user centricity* is one of the axes of the new scientific discipline associated with the services. Initiated in May 2004 by IBM, Service Science is defined by Ng & Maull [7] as "an integrative discipline of engineering, technological and, social sciences (including business and law) for the purpose of value co-creation with customers, much like medicine is an integrative discipline of physical and biological sciences for the purpose of healing."

Linked to the concept Service Innovation, Service Science is established on three major principles that emphasize a multidisciplinary approach, respecting the will of value co-creation in order to develop user-centric services. According to these same authors [6], the notion of value co-creation implies customers "abilities to co-create value (e.g. in knowing how to use an ATM, informing the hairdresser how s/he would like his hair cut, understanding how to get around an airport, or a leasing company's ability to operate aircraft), where the word customer is here understood "in the broadest sense (…) e.g. the end customers who actually pay and receive the service or organizations/customers in public services and even customers who use services and do not directly pay for them (e.g. Broadcasting and Google). " Whereas "(…) traditional disciplines are strongly goods-based, more often involving linear supply chain models and linear models from design to manufacture, (…) value co-creation thus demands a major rethink of traditional disciplines from management and technology to the engineering and manufacturing of tangible products."

This mutual design effort, however, can't be conceived without multidisciplinary. The ability to master the technology is no longer the only vector for success, and it is necessary to mobilize other expertise, closer to the human sciences such as marketing, sociology or even psychology.

According to R. Larson [3], "the sub-sciences of what we might call Service Science are analogous to the constituent sciences of the physical sciences or of the social sciences. The good news is that each is accomplished, usually with great reputation. The bad news is that these fields are often over specialized, sometimes becoming deep narrow canyons of knowledge whose arcane vocabularies are so obscure that only a few hundred people in the world would understand them." J. Spohrer [8], from IBM, points out that this approach will lead to "curricula, training, and research programs that are designed to teach individuals to apply scientific, engineering, and management disciplines that integrate elements of computer science, operations research, industrial engineering, business strategy,

management sciences, and social and legal sciences, in order to encourage innovation in how organisations create value for customers and stakeholders that could not be achieved through such disciplines working in isolation."

It would thus lead to the formation of specialists able to understand and assemble assets of each discipline in order to make innovation happen. Usually called T-people - skilled in traditional disciplines (from the vertical of the T) and in applications-oriented interdisciplinary analysis (the horizontal part) - the future development of these skills is presented as the main issue of service science in the coming years.

2.11 Architecture tour, an instance of service

Designed with corporate partners of the Centre Henri Tudor from the construction sector, the example of the "architectural tour" service is a good illustration. The scenario is based on the use of a shared database between architects of the "Grande Region". Made up of business data of the domain, such as facades, roof structures, or any other noticeable item relating to architecture, this database is the result of years of collecting noteworthy assets on buildings from the eastern region of France, Belgium Wallonia, and Grand Duchy of Luxembourg.

The purpose of the service is simple: it offers each architect making a trip - business or leisure - a list of interesting buildings close to his ride. Accessible from his smartphone, the system relies on the GPS device and calculates the presumed optimal path at each moment of the travel. Combined with a profiling mechanism, it dynamically performs a selection based on various elements of the context such as the weather, the opening schedule of buildings to visit, or the user preferences. During his trip, the traveller can also improve the database by inserting his own remarks on the building components discovered and retrospectively share his impressions with the community of architects.

Through this simple example the three concepts from the principles of Service Science and Service Innovation appear:

First, the *multidisciplinary* aspect: The design of such a service is the result of crossing many stakeholders perspectives including the community of architects, as the main customer, the IT company, in charge of mobile application's development, ergonomists from cognitive science, to produce a GUI adapted to each user's profile, a public entity, as the main client, representing the territorial authorities, a telephone operator and even a reseller of mobile terminals supporting the service. Even if this list is not exhaustive (not taking into account any research aspects, for instance), it shows that, each one having its own interests, service designers must report solid T-skills in order satisfy all the stakeholders requirements.

Second, the *user-centric* approach: Even if the service uses advanced geo-location terminal capacity similar to TomTom® or Garmin® for car navigation, it is by no means a generic service sold to a wide clientele. As a real context aware service, the target is much more limited and takes into account specific aspects of the architects job, the specificities of the Grande Region, and the business interest of the traveller.

Finally, the principle of *value co-creation*: In addition to the tangible financial aspects related to the sale of digital terminals and the operation of the service itself, other activities like

knowledge sharing with a community, GUI configuration based on preferences or advanced requests in a professional database, involve the user in the service system and increase its value. We are far from simple consumption of a product for the only financial benefit of one supplier.

2.12 Service Innovation & creativity

The complexity of such a service system becomes obvious: The large number of stakeholders involved in multiple issues - financial or not - the information being shared between the users, the mobilization of digital communities and the use of very new technologies with a low degree of maturity are key factors to the success. Therefore, how to create such innovation? Who is in charge of initiating its design? Is this the telephone operator or IT solution provider? Both have financial interests in the operation of such an application. But none of them is able to deeply understand the content of the delivered information. Is it rather the territorial authority managing the public data? It might be, as a part of its mission is to address the recommendations of open-data initiatives[10] from European Community. It would be thus recognized as the main actor to foster the operation of this public information. But this kind of application can only be considered as a seamless cross-border service, and requires a mobilization of several neighboring countries working together. Such spontaneous initiative in favour of a common project appears to be slightly utopian.

So what about the users themselves? According to the paradigm of service science discipline, they are at the center of the system. Who could, better than the customer himself, express the needs of a future user-centric service? It then amounts to applying the traditional methods of requirement engineering. First step of any software realization, the activity aims to capture the needs of users in order to analyze and formalize them, before forwarding them to developers. They are then responsible for producing an IT solution best suited to the expression of the initial needs. This methodology is widely used in companies. Commonly referred to as Business-IT alignment, the main idea is to improve the agility of the deployed IT solutions. In other words, the objective is to promote a dynamic adaptation of the IT solution to the changing needs of a business in perpetual mutation. Besides some exceptions, the concept of agility is widely accepted as to apply on a top-down one-way basis. While digital technologies are developing faster and faster, it is regrettable that those emerging solutions are not taken into account at the business level. The main difficulty lies in poor communication between IT professionals - insensitive to the business needs - and business professionals - ignoring the rapid development of technological capacity-. This gap can be generalized. In our example of service, it is difficult to require from mobile solutions developers a deep knowledge of the architecture domain. At the opposite, can we reasonably expect from an architect to perfectly know the latest in ICT?

In the early 20th century, Henry Ford, said about his Ford T: "If I listened to people, I would have made the horses run faster and longer". More recently, Steve Jobs [9] from apple stressed: « It's really hard to design products by focus groups. A lot of times, people don't know what they want until you show it to them. » In other words, if the design of user-centric services is an interesting recommendation, it would be dangerous to identify

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[10] http://ec.europa.eu/information_society/policy/psi/open_data/index_en.htm

innovation opportunities from the unique user needs expression. Similarly, relying only on the latest digital inventions to propose an innovation, regardless of the operating environment, is also a strategy doomed to failure. The truth probably lies in the middle. Hence, the design approach based on prototyping may appear as one of possible solutions. It consists of a rapid development of a first concrete draft, fully functional, to reconcile the views of each stakeholder, prior to the real development of the service itself. Return to the instance of service architectural tour. Gathered around a demonstrator, the client public entity as well as architects customers can validate the relevance of features and ensure the prototype meets their initial expectations, while taking really aware of the potential of the application. This step allows them to adjust their level of requirement and directly discuss the technical feasibility of new applications with the designers. Sometimes called "technology push", this approach, which promotes creativity through technical innovation, is behind the development of a rapid prototyping tool of context services at the Centre Henri Tudor.

This tool, tested on around ten people, is a good example of the added value for the users themselves of being able to prototype a mobile service, by using a co-design approach.

3. Co-design approach for service design

[10] define the co-design approach as « a collective creativity as it is applied across the whole span of a design process » and the co-creation as « any act of collective creativity, i.e. creativity that is shared by two or more people ». These two new concepts have acquired a certain reputation of efficiency as well as popularity in many business and organizations as highlighted by [11]. Before to describe in details the framework and the associated authoring tool developed at Centre Henri Tudor, advantages and benefits of adopting such approach in designing services will be presented through a review of the past studies during the last ten years. In this section, we are in line with the definition of "service design" given by [12] as a reference of "planning and organizing people, infrastructure, communication and material components of a service, with the goal of improving the service's quality, the interactions between a provider and its customers, and the customer's experiences".

A first study, conducted in 2002 by [13], identified three ways of interaction process with users and customers: « say », « do » and « make ». The co-design approach is in the third one with the apport of help to organize creativity by treating as distinct the « say » and « do » actors. This way of doing enables the observation of what other people « do » and their manner of using products or services, with the aim to jointly extract, in creative workshops, the « making » of future services and solutions. [14] studied in deep the benefits linked to the user involvement in the design of a service. It highlighted that such user's implication improve the quality of system requirements, the system quality in itself and reduce the gap between the system and user's needs and give to the users or customers a best satisfaction. [15] identified the following benefits: reduction of development time, education of users regarding the use, attributes and specifications of a new service, quick spreading and better market acceptance, improved public relations and better long-term relationships between service providers and customers. Others studies [16,17] make attention of various participatory design methods and practices with some interesting results such as: improving mutual learning and understanding, combining and integrating different people's ideas, enhancing communication and cooperation between different people, and joint creation of

new ideas. A significant result, highlighted by [18], was that the users have ideas that have more useful inputs for service innovation (in this case of mobile ICT domains) than the professional developers ones. However this study expressed that the professional developer's ideas are more technologically feasible, in terms of "productibility", than the ideas of the users. Users should also be recognized as experts – experts of their experiences, their « social circumstances, habits and behavior, attitudes to risk, values and preferences - as explained in [19]. Others benefits such as access to customer's or user's experiences, increase speed to market, better quality of products, higher satisfaction of customers and users, best loyalty of customers or users and lower costs have been also identified by [20]. In addition, [21] identified advantages of a co-design approach by the improvement of the efficiency or effectiveness by the possibility to substitute the professionals apport by the users one and by facilitating the continuous improvement of products and services and by a better adequacy between user's needs and final products.

To conclude this literature review, it seems that adopting a co-design approach is essential and even necessary to assure the success of innovative service design.

4. OSAMI authoring tool

In most cases service providers do not have necessarily the technical knowledge, but do have the domain knowledge. Also, the idea is to provide them with a tool that stimulates their creativity for designing services without being hampered by technical feasibility. In the literature, most proposals focus on services compositions and validation from a technical point of view, like [22] [23], but only few of them propose a rapid prototyping of mobile services. Among them, we can find tools for design and deployment of services for specific domains, in particular the telecommunication and rich multimedia content domains: [23] proposes a service creation tool for mobile devices in order to provide rich content media, [24] and [25] are dedicated to the telecommunication services: the first one provides a tool generating services based on templates; the second one proposes an automated support for testing when desirable to speed the service verification phase and to increase the completeness of the set of test cases. Finally, two of them allow to quickly creating a service prototype. First, Google App Inventor[11] provides a graphical tool aimed at designing and testing an application, dedicated to the mobiles running on Android. Second, Yahoo Pipes[12] proposes a graphical tool allowing to design a service that uses some other remotely available services (like RSS, JSON, KML) as well as geo-coding.

The authoring tool, co-financed by the European Regional Development Fund through its "Competitivité Régionale et Emploi 2007-2013", involved in the phases of service innovation and exploration, proposes to combine some of the previous elements: a tool that anyone can use, to rapidly and graphically prototype a service (which can be a composition of services, remote or not), deploy it, test it and finally validate its functionalities. While Google App Inventor proposes to do a complete application, only for Android mobiles, and Yahoo pipe gives the way to use rapidly some services available on internet; the authoring tool is able to generate a prototype testable on several mobiles and with specific services according to domain or business case. The authoring tool, whose goal is to support the design of mobile

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[11] Google App Inventor, http://appinventor.googlelabs.com
[12] Yahoo Pipes, http://pipes.yahoo.com

services, is a graphical tool composed of two main parts: a toolbox and a creation space. The description of this tool and associated services is based on the work done by [26].

4.1 Services

The toolbox proposes a set of reusable services that the service designer can decide to use in the creation space. These services are then configured and composed to constitute the final service. The sequence of reusable services is represented in the form of a graph, inspired from BPMN[13].

As shown on Fig. 1, this view has been adapted to the targeted users: it has been simplified and each "box" provides a synthesis of the reusable service instance and its configuration. Moreover, configuration of reusable services has been reduced: no need to configure variable names, nor visual result, as the user interface aspect does not need to be covered at this stage.
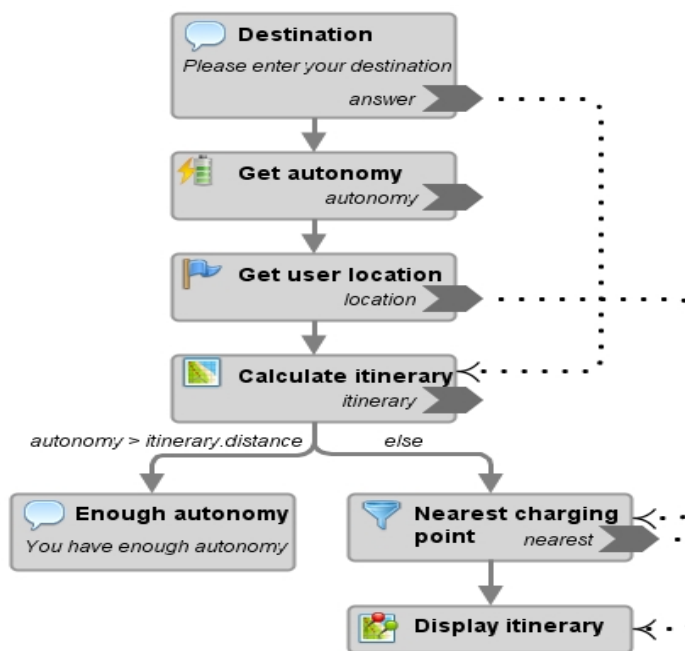

Fig. 2. Basic service (electric car sharing) modeling

The service designed is about a company wishing to propose to its employees an infrastructure for electric cars sharing: when an employee needs a car for a business trip, he/she asks the system for an available car, for a given duration or itinerary. A mobile device installed in the car provides some facilities. For instance, a service proposes the nearest electric charge point if there is not enough battery to execute the travel and displays

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[13] Business Process Model and Notation - http://www.omg.org/spec/BPMN/

the route that allows going to the charging point. Each "box" (represented by a rectangle) corresponds to a step within the service, and the arrows indicate the sequence between these steps. A step can be for instance sending a message to the end user or using an existing service. Thus, the first step here is to ask to the user the destination of his/her travel, the expected answer (output of the step) being indicated in the lower right of the box. Then a service is called to calculate the remaining autonomy of the car, another one gets the user location and the itinerary is calculated. Several arrows starting from a box mean that the condition on the arrow must be true for the path to be taken. The next activity thus depends on the remaining autonomy: if the car has enough battery to execute the travel, there is no need to find the nearest charging point, otherwise the service looks for it and indicates it to the user.

Three types of reusable services are currently proposed:

- **Basic** services: simple services like message displaying or question asking,
- **Advanced** services: more complex services like access to web services or RSS[14] feeds,
- **Context** services: services giving access to any information about the final user's context.

The list of reusable services shown on Fig. 2 is obviously not exhaustive, as the authoring tool has been developed as a proof-of-concept, but the idea is to provide to the user all the cards to create an innovative service and maybe generate new ideas, by providing him a view of what is technically feasible.

Fig. 3. Reusable services provided by the tool

Once modeled, this service is deployed on an execution platform, of which a technical view is presented below.

4.2 Technologies used

The generated services are deployed on an execution platform, on which they need to be independent from each other and it must be possible to add a new one without a restart. Moreover, these services have to be easily accessible from mobile devices.

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[14] Really Simple Syndication

4.2.1 Back-end technologies

The OSGi[15] framework is a service platform specification for the Java programming language. In this framework, the applications or components (called bundles) can be remotely installed, started, stopped, updated and uninstalled without requiring a reboot. This is why we chose to use it, by providing each reusable service as an OSGi bundle.

The authoring tool service composition introduces the aspect of logical sequence between services, that is managed by OBE[16], an open source workflow engine written in Java. OBE supports workflow definitions expressed in XPDL[17], a standardized format to interchange business process definitions. In order for the authoring to provide XPDL definitions as output, serialization Java classes were generated from an Ecore[18] model, itself generated from the XPDL XML schema definition. Thus, each generated service prototype is expressed as an XPDL process by the authoring tool, and then OBE, embedded in an OSGi bundle, executes these processes

4.2.2 HTML 5

Each step of the process generates an HTML5[19] page that will allow testing the designed service, by interacting with the end user. HTML5 is currently under development, but this tends to be the next major revision of HTML and should be largely used in a near future. Moreover, HTML5 provides among others a geo-location API, being an important feature in the domain of context services. Finally, the use of HTML allows also testing of the designed service on different mobiles, having a compatible HTML5 browser. Some tests have been fulfilled with an iPhone coming with such a browser.

4.3 Technical overview of the OSAMI platform

The architecture of our platform is basically constructed around two main components: the authoring tool itself and the OSGi-based framework, as shown by the Fig. below.

The authoring tool is basically composed of three main components: **Authoring tool GUI** : that is the user interface to create a service as a workflow, which will be then deployed on a mobile platform to be tested. **XPDL generator** that generates data in XPDL format, corresponding to the workflow modeled by the user. This piece of software is a OSGi bundle. **Server linker** that makes the connection to the server that contains the workflow engine and HTML pages that will be generated to test the service created by the user.

The back-end framework is composed of the following main components: **Data** that contains all the data necessary for the processing tasks of the workflow. A backup mechanism is set up to feed the data directory. **Data receiver** that makes the link to the authoring tool, in order to receive the XPDL data and build the service user bundle. **Server bundles** representing external and/or reusable services that can be used in the service created by the user. These services can be OSGi bundles or web services. **Bundle**

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[15] Open Services Gateway initiative - http://www.osgi.org/

[16] Open Business Engine - http://obe.sourceforge.net/

[17] XML Process Definition Language - http://www.wfmc.org/xpdl.html

[18] EMF (Core) - http://www.eclipse.org/modeling/emf/

[19] http://www.w3.org/TR/html5/

generator that generates the OSGI bundle service created by the user. The created workflow is launched in an OSGi bundle. The generation of this bundle provides thus the (static) generation of the Java code of the bundle, and the Manifest required for its proper functioning. **XML tool generator** for generating the XML files needed for the functioning of the workflow. Indeed, most engines of workflow generating of XPDL, extend this format in order to provide additional tools and features. These extensions can be used with XML files. **HTML generator**: This component, a OSGI bundle too, generates the HTML pages to test the service created by the user. **HTML pages**: These are the pages HTML that display workflow items created by the user.
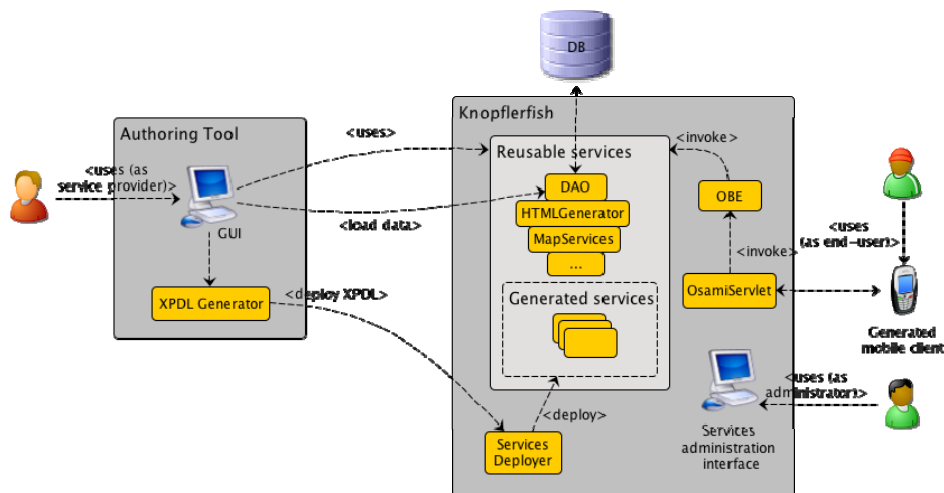

Fig. 4. Overview of the OSAMI tool architecture

The Figure below gives an overview of the structure and the communication between these components.
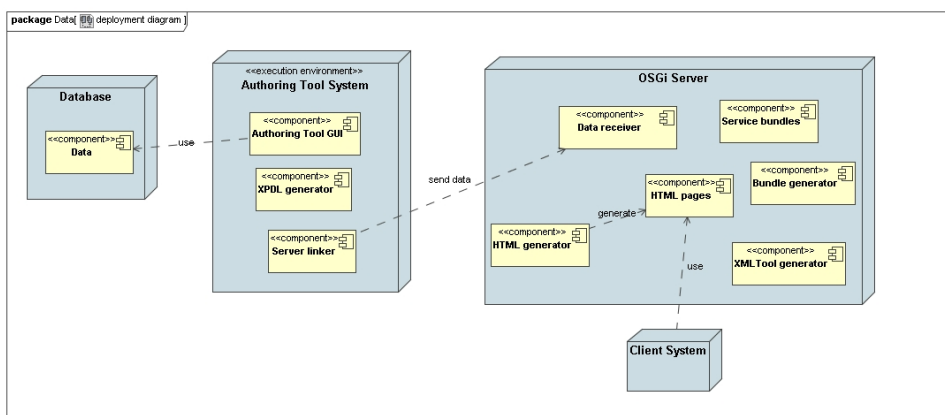

Fig. 5. Components view of the OSAMI platform

5. Future work

Although a panel of around ten persons has tested the developed prototyping tool, it still remains a proof-of-concept tool. Our objective is now to go further in the reasoning. The foreseen next steps will cover the automatic generation of the specifications from the services, the exhaustive identification of relevant and sustainable context services and the automatic generation of realistic functionalities.

Furthermore, there are risks associated with co-design. [21] for example, discussed two types of risks. The first type is related to diminish *control* over the project, because other people, other departments or other organizations are involved as described by [20]. The second type of risks is related to increased *complexity* of the project, because the objectives and interests of diverse people, departments or organizations must be managed and balanced, which can require extra coordination efforts).

6. Conclusion

Its cultural wealth, its central position in Europe favouring transit for travellers, its complex and moving history are a major asset for developing innovative service offerings in the field of tourism for the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg

In addition to stay competitive and attractive, new disciplines such as "Service Science" and "Service Innovation" are currently studied and experimented.

However putting around a table the main actors in business and technologies area to ensure the success of a service or product seems currently not enough, but in the same way implicating the end users - the tourists themselves - in a same need of creativity.

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