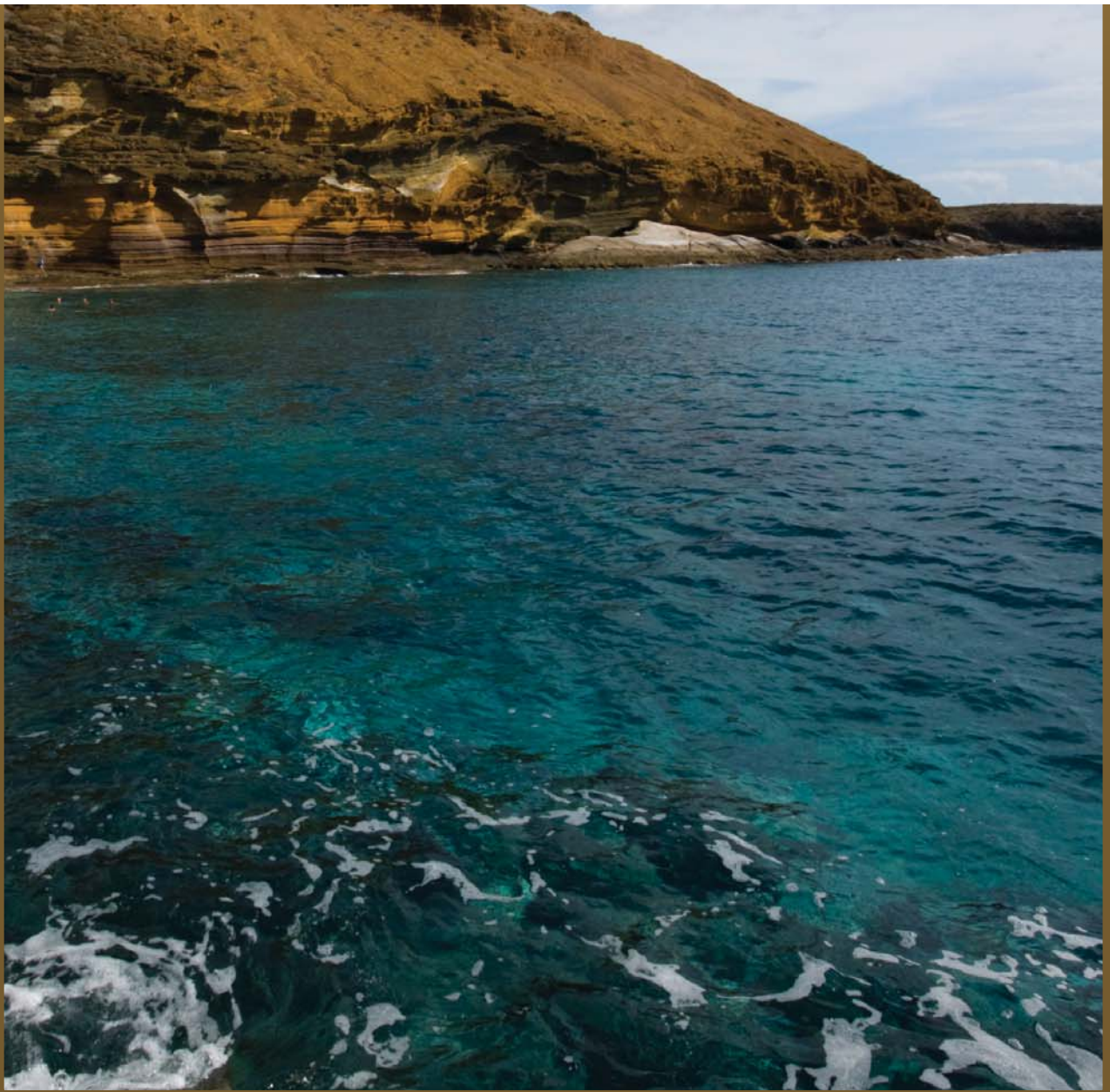


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Revisiting hospitality and tourism: New perspectives

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PASOS. Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural es una publicación en web que se especializa en el análisis académico y empresarial de los distintos procesos que se desarrollan en el sistema turístico, con especial interés a los usos de la cultura, la naturaleza y el territorio, la gente, los pueblos y sus espacios, el patrimonio integral. Desde una perspectiva inter y transdisciplinar solicita y alienta escritos venidos desde las ciencias y la práctica administrativo-empresarial. Su objetivo es cumplir con el papel de foro de exposición y discusión de metodologías y teorías, además de la divulgación de estudios y experiencias. Pretende contribuir a otros esfuerzos encaminados a entender el turismo y progresar en las diversas formas de prevención de efectos no deseados, pero también perfeccionar la manera en que el turismo sirva de complemento a la mejora y desarrollo de la calidad de vida de los residentes en las áreas de destino.

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Palabras clave: se indicarán 5 – 7 palabras clave sobre el tema principal.

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2001 "Introduction to Hosts and guests revisited: Tourism issues of the 21st century". En Smith, Valene L. y Brent, Maryann (Eds.), *Hosts and guests revisited: Tourism issues of the 21st century* (pp. 1-14). New York: Cognizant Communication.

Smith, Valene L.

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Pasos. Journal of Tourism and Cultural Heritage is an internet publication dedicated to the academic and management-based analysis of the diverse processes inscribed within the tourist system, with a particular emphasis on the uses of culture, the environment and territory, people, communities and spaces, integral heritage. It encourages articles from inter and trans-disciplinary perspectives, from both scientific and management points of view. Its objective is to provide a forum for the discussion of methodologies and theories as well as the presentation of case studies and the results of empirical research. It hopes to contribute to ongoing debates surrounding attempts to comprehend the phenomenon of tourism and to develop diverse approaches to the prevention of the undesirable consequences of tourism as well as enhance the quality of life of the residents of tourist destinations.

Frequency: January; April; October

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1998 "War and tourism. An American ethnography". *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(1): 202-227

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Special Issue / Número Especial

Revisiting hospitality and tourism: New perspectives

Editorial

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Nuevo Doctorado en Turismo de la Universidad de La Laguna

El *Doctorado en Turismo* de la Universidad de La Laguna engloba a un amplio conjunto de investigadores e investigaciones que, desde variados y complementarios campos del conocimiento y metodologías tienen en común al turismo como objeto de estudio. Aunque la titulación con la que está relacionada directamente esta propuesta de doctorado es la de Máster en Dirección y Planificación del Turismo, se propone una denominación más genérica, Doctorado en Turismo, a fin de abrir el abanico de enfoques disciplinares y problemáticas así como el acceso de estudiantes desde otros másteres oficiales.

El Consejo de Gobierno de Canarias en su sesión del 10 de febrero de 2011 acordó la implantación del Doctorado en Turismo de la Universidad de La Laguna (BOC No.33 de 15 de febrero de 2011). Se trata de una titulación con adaptada al Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior.

Cada año se ofertarán 15 plazas de estudiantes de nuevo ingreso. El acceso al Doctorado en Turismo de la Universidad de La Laguna se rige por el Real Decreto 1393/2007 por el que se establece la ordenación de las enseñanzas universitarias oficiales (BOE No. 260 de 30 de octubre de 2007). En general, para acceder al doctorado en su fase de elaboración de tesis doctoral es necesario estar en posesión de un título oficial de Máster Universitario, u otro del mismo nivel expedido por una institución de educación superior del Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior. Además, podrán acceder los que estén en posesión de título obtenido conforme a sistemas educativos ajenos al Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior, sin necesidad de su homologación, pero previa comprobación de que el título acredita un nivel de formación equivalente a los correspondientes títulos españoles de Máster Universitario y que faculta en el país expedidor del título para el acceso a estudios de Doctorado.

El doctorado cuenta con cinco grandes líneas de investigación en las que participan en total 27 profesores: “destinos turísticos”, “productos turísticos”, “características y comportamiento de los turistas”, “recursos turísticos” y “empresas y subsectores turísticos”.

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Editorial

Revisiting hospitality and tourism: New perspectives

Maria D. Alvarez
Guest Editor

Boğaziçi University (Turkey)

Tourism and hospitality are currently facing many challenges as globalization increases the level of competition that organizations operating in this sector are facing. In parallel to this trend, destination management organizations and tourism companies alike have come to realize that it is no longer possible to operate within the same parameters as before. There is an increased awareness and realization that while tourism may be beneficial from an economic perspective as it may increase employment and economic welfare, it may also be detrimental to the environment and the local culture. Therefore, new paradigms and perspectives are emerging. Acknowledging this need for new concepts and theories, scholars worldwide are trying to address the needs of the sector and reinvent the industry.

Destinations are trying to operate within a more challenging and competitive environment, while they are also required to operate within a sustainability perspective. Within this framework, concepts such as poverty alleviation, community-based tourism, stakeholder participation and residents' perceptions have permeated scholarly tourism research. However, the implementation of these ideas and practices may not be so straightforward, and there is a need for best practices and practical models that can serve as guidance for destination management organizations.

New developments are also emerging in relation to the composition of the tourists and their needs and motivations. As more senior citizens are participating in the tourism activity, there is a need to understand and address their requirements (Darcy and Buhalis, 2011). Simi-

larly, new technological developments are also affecting the way that individuals purchase and consume tourism products.

The special issue *Revisiting Hospitality and Tourism: New Perspectives* has been designed to address these questions. The papers that have been included were selected among those presented at the First Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference (AHTMM 2011) that was held in Istanbul in June 2011. The conference's main objective was to encourage discussion and creative thought regarding the many challenges that tourism destinations and hospitality organizations are facing. The chosen articles represent a selection that allows the reader to get insights on the many topics discussed during the conference and to give an idea about the spirit of the event.

The first group of papers address destination development and the need for destinations to contribute to poverty alleviation and the welfare of the local community. The first paper by Kimbu focuses on the contribution of tourism to the economic development of the community and the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals. The author proposes a framework to increase the contribution of tourism and discusses its application in the case of Cameroon.

Within the same perspective of sustainable tourism, the article by Ertuna and Kirbaş investigates the participation of the local community in the development of the rural tourism product. The researchers used the organization of an event, a traditional harvest day, to observe the factors that influence the organization and coordination of the local stakeholders in

creating a rural tourism product.

Building up on the theme of economic and social contribution to the community, Presenza and Iocca investigate these issues in relation to the management of music festivals in Italy. According to these authors, a genuine contribution of these events may only occur within the interaction of the organizer and other public and private stakeholders. Through the use of a stakeholder management approach, the paper analyzes the structure and interaction of stakeholders of music festivals in Italy.

The final paper in the first group is that of Sharma and Dyer, who address the issue of residents' perceptions following a longitudinal approach. The authors compare the attitude of residents in the Australian Gold Coast at two different points in time. They conclude that the perceptions and attitude towards tourism of the residents has become more positive. Furthermore, overall there seems to be a greater level of support for the tourism activity within the community.

The following two papers deal with changes and trends in tourist behaviour. The article by Esichaikul is concerned with the motivations and requirements of European senior tourists travelling to Thailand. With the aim of suggesting policies for the development of the tourism product especially suited to this market, the research determines that these senior tourists are particularly concerned with the safety of the destination, the location of the accommodation and the presence of natural attractions.

Also dealing with consumer behaviour, Harcar and Yucelt's paper focuses on the use of new online technologies as a distribution channel for airline tickets. The research examines the consumers' attitudes towards online transactions for the airline industry. The authors attempt to provide insights regarding the airlines' different distribution channels.

The final group of articles deal with human capital as utilized by the tourism and hospitality industries. García Pozo and his colleagues examine the composition of the Spanish hospitality industry in terms of the degree of specialization and returns on human capital. The study makes a comparison between different regions in Spain, using data from the 2006 Spanish Wage Structure Survey. Differences between regions, as well as conclusions regarding the returns on education are offered by these authors.

Finally, Gökova and Avcı examine the role of human capital, as well as collaboration with academia as affecting the degree of innovation of hospitality companies in the Mugla region in Turkey. Using logit and probit econometric models, these authors determine that these factors influence the innovation performance of the hospitality firms.

While these papers offer new insights into the tourism and hospitality industries, they also provide new avenues for future research. Given new theoretical developments resulting from new technologies, changes in the demographic composition of tourists or increased concern for

sustainability issues, research is necessary to develop these concepts and to understand new practices. Thus the selection of papers in this special issue may not only contribute to existing conceptual discussions of tourism and hospitality but it may also point towards future avenues for research.

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2011 "Introduction: From disabled tourists to accessible tourism." In Buhalis, D. and Darcy, S. (Eds.) *Accessible Tourism: Concepts and Issues*. Bristol, UK: Channel View Publications, 1-20.

Attainment of MDGs through tourism in the Central African sub-region: Implications for local economic development in Cameroon

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Abstract: This paper examines the role and contribution of tourism to local economic development and in the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals one and seven dealing with extreme poverty alleviation and environmental sustainability in the biodiversity endowed Central African sub-region. The concepts of sustainable tourism development and local economic development (in sub-Saharan Africa) are examined. Through field observations and semi-structured interviews with 21 tourism industry stakeholders in Cameroon, an analysis of tourism's role and future in LED and in the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals 1 & 7 is undertaken. The core challenges presently inhibiting tourism's development thereby limiting its contribution to local economic development and the attainment of these goals in Cameroon are identified and a framework within which tourism's contribution can be increased is proposed.

Keywords: Cameroon, Central Africa; Local economic development; Poverty alleviation; Environmental conservation, Sustainable tourism.

Título: Logro de los ODM a través del turismo en la sub-región de África Central: Implicaciones para el desarrollo económico local de Camerún

Resumen: Este artículo examina el papel y la contribución del turismo al desarrollo económico local y en persecución de los Objetivos de Desarrollo del Milenio uno y siete referentes a la mitigación de la pobreza extrema y la sostenibilidad ambiental en la biodiversa región de África Central. Los conceptos de desarrollo sostenible del turismo y desarrollo económico local (en le África subsahariana) son examinados. A través de observaciones de campo y entrevistas semi-estructuradas con 21 partes interesadas de la industria turística de Camerún, se lleva a cabo un análisis del papel y del futuro del turismo en el desarrollo económico local y del logro de los Objetivos de Desarrollo del Milenio 1 y 7. Los actuales desafíos que inhiben el desarrollo turístico limitando su contribución al desarrollo económico y local son identificados y un marco dentro del cual el turismo puede contribuir es propuesto.

Palabras clave: Camerún; África Central; Desarrollo económico local; Alivio de la pobreza; Conservación del medio ambiente; Turismo sostenible.

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Introduction

The sustainable development and use of tourism and environmental resources to promote local economic development (LED) and help in the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger, especially in developing countries, was one of the tools proposed by the UNEP in September 2000 when the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) were adopted in New York (UNDP, 2011). Two thirds of the way through, some developing countries in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) such as Botswana, Gabon, Mauritius, the Seychelles have realised the importance of tourism as an important tool for local economic development and the attainment of some of the MDGs (especially goals 1 and 7), and successfully invested in its development (Botswana Tourist Board, 2007, Gabontour, 2010). Others, especially those in the Central African sub-region, despite recognising its importance have not given it the necessary attention it deserves. As a result, tourism's impact as a motor for local economic development still has to be felt. However, substantial efforts have theoretically been made by many governments of the sub-region, especially in Cameroon and Gabon, to increase the levels of environmental protection. Thus, the attainment of the above mentioned goals through tourism is rather mitigated. While discussing some of the theories of sustainable tourism development in relation to local economic development in SSA, this paper examines the issues that have contributed in making the achievement of the MDGs of poverty eradication/alleviation and environmental sustainability through tourism still a distant reality in Cameroon.

Research aim

Cameroon has been an island of relative peace and tranquillity in a region where political instability seems to be the order of the day (BBC, 2010). This, coupled with its triple colonial heritage (German, French and English), natural and cultural biodiversity, are key ingredients which if well utilised give it an added advantage of developing a successful tourism industry which could go a long way to attaining the MDGs of poverty alleviation and environmental conservation and sustainability thereby promoting LED. However, since the adoption of these goals, the use of tourism to achieve objectives 1 and 8 has been mitigated in Cameroon.

The main aim of this paper is to find out if and

how successful tourism has been, and how it is contributing to attaining these goals and therefore LED with just 5 years to go, in spite of the country's abundant natural and cultural potentials and promises of development and investment by the government in the sector. In the process, it highlights some of the main obstacles that stand in the way and proposes a framework within which the issues could be resolved, making tourism an important contributor to LED.

Sustainable tourism development, local economic development and the Millennium Development Goals

The concept of "sustainable tourism development" has its root in the broader concept of "sustainable development", which can be traced back to the World Commission on Environment and Development Report, named "Our Common Future" (also known as the Brundtland Report) (WCED, 1987). Sustainable development according to the Brundtland Report is defined as "*development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generation to meet their own needs*" (World Council for Economic Development [WCED], 1987: 43). The core values of this report, which has been criticized for providing limited practical guidance on how to put its ideas into operation, where poverty alleviation, the achievement of long-term equity and ecological well-being of humanity (WCED, 1987). Other international conferences/charters espoused and expanded these concepts and attempted to provide frameworks for the implementation of sustainable development principles. Examples include the 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (also known as the Rio Earth Summit) which came up with the Agenda 21, the UN Millennium Declaration (2000) which gave birth to the Millennium Development Goals (Miller & Twining-Ward, 2005). The importance of tourism to sustainable development has been addressed by the United Nations (UN) and its agencies on numerous occasions. In 1995, a United Nations Charter for Responsible Tourism was adopted in Lanzarote, while the UN General Assembly during its 1997 special session to review the implementation of Agenda 21 noted the importance of tourism and requested the development of an action plan specific to tourism development. This was followed by the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg (South Africa), where the importance of tourism to sustainable development

was further stressed, culminating with the Bali Declaration on Sustainable Tourism Development (2005) which further emphasised the need to facilitate, promote and encourage tourism development and management in a responsible manner (WTO, 2002; unescap.org, 2005).

However, before all these declarations and calls for action, tourism in the 1950s and 1960s was viewed as a 'smokeless industry' because its negative impacts were thought to be benign while its economic, socio-cultural and environmental contributions to LED and wellbeing of host communities (most of which were located in developing countries) were considered as overwhelming. In the early 1970s however, negative environmental, economic and socio-cultural impacts started appearing especially with the growth of the mass tourism phenomenon (Hall & Page, 2006). Tourism researchers and planners from then on began proposing alternative methods of developing the industry. Consequently, in the early 1980s and 1990s, terms such as responsible, ethical, pro-poor, culture/heritage, alternative as well as sustainable tourism were used to define this new form of tourism (Frey & George, 2010). Sustainable tourism has however become the most widely used of all these terms. That notwithstanding, there is still a lot of controversy surrounding its definition and how it can be successfully implemented (Butler, 1991; Hunter, 1995; Miller & Twining-Ward, 2005). This controversy is because some arguments have been advanced that sustainable tourism should be concerned in creating conducive environments and situations where tourism flourishes as an end in itself like an economic activity, i.e. environmentally sustainable tourism (Muller, 1994; Cater & Goodall, 1992). Other researchers however maintain that sustainable tourism theories, practices and policies should be directed at finding a role for tourism in which it becomes part of a more holistic concept covering the general framework/concepts of sustainable development from which the whole concept itself evolved in the early 1990s (Hunter, 1997; Hunter, 1995; Collins, 1999; Butler, 1996).

Butler (1999) points out that the contention mainly comes from the use of the word "sustainable" and its interpretation as well as application to a variety of activities within the tourism context especially in terms of scale, scope, sectoral context, time-scale and (extra) parochiality. Consequently, though many definitions of sustainable tourism have been advanced, Butler's (1993) definition stands out as one of the main definitions which clearly posits sus-

tainable tourism as a tool that enhances sustainable development and consequently local economic development. To him, sustainable tourism is:

"...tourism which is developed and maintained in an area in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment (human and physical) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well-being of other activities and processes" (Butler, 1993: 29).

Sustainable tourism is seen here as a tool that contributes to the improvement of the quality of life of the hosts, while at the same time meeting demands of the tourism industry and the tourists themselves as well as protecting natural resources and the environment. This perspective is in line with the World Tourism Organization's 1998 definition of sustainable tourism development which is frequently used by tourism planners and in tourism research literature. It states that:

"Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of the present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social, and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecology processes, biological diversity, and life support systems" (WTO, 1998: 21).

Both definitions clearly points out that in order for the sustainable development of tourism to be successful, sound management of environmental, social and cultural resources which guarantee the satisfaction to all stakeholders and ensure the protection and conservation of these resources for the present and future generations is imperative. If this is effectively done, it will be possible to attain MDG7 (environmental sustainability). In addition, tourism's localization (local culture and/or nature) and the need for active and profitable community engagement as well as proper management and integration of tourism into other economic activities of the community/region is emphasized (Hunter, 1997; McCool & Moisey, 2001). It is only through these actions that tourism could become an important contributor to local economic development and in so doing attaining MDG1 (extreme poverty eradication).

The main purpose of local economic development is to *"build up the economic capacity of a local area to improve its economic future and the quality of life for all"* (World Bank, undated). In LED (which is not geographically scale-bound), active stakehold-

er participation (which is also a key characteristic of STD) is imperative. The consultation, inclusion and participation of all stakeholders/partners in all stages from planning through decision making, implementation and management offers local government, the private, business, non-governmental and non-profit sectors, and local communities/areas the opportunity to work together to improve the local economy thereby enhancing their economic and destination competitiveness and sustainability (Helmsing, 2005; World Bank, 2003). LED is thus primarily concerned with the ability of communities to devise ways and means of continually improving their investment climate and providing enabling business environments, thereby enhancing their competitiveness and ability to retain jobs, create employment opportunities and improve incomes and therefore economic growth. One of the means of enhancing this competitiveness and maintaining economic growth is through the sustainable development of tourism in regions which are blessed with natural and cultural attractions. Broadly speaking, LED strategy has gone through three different phases or waves of development since the 1960s. These are the traditional approach (1960s to early 1980s), the capacity building strategy (mid 1980s to 1990s) and the development of the information flows phase (from the 1990s to the present) (World Bank, undated). A good number of efficient and effective initiatives are necessary or need to be adopted in order for the local communities to be able to meet and respond to the demands of LED programmes which have no single implementation model or approach. These include physical planning, economics and marketing, in addition to incorporating many local government and private sector functions such as environmental planning, business development, infrastructure provision, real estate development, finance, good governance and accountability, equitable and active stakeholder participation and ownership (Rodriguez-Pose & Tjimstra, 2007); initiatives which as earlier discussed are also a prerequisite for the sustainable development of tourism in any destination. LED thus entails the creation or setting up of conditions that promote the stimulation of new opportunities in both rural and urban regions with limited opportunities for economic growth. Tourism is one of those opportunities which can be developed in some regions of Cameroon that are endowed with cultural and natural attractions. If successfully executed and implemented, LED could lead to extreme poverty alleviation and en-

vironmental sustainability among others. However LED in SSA has been plagued by a number of issues and has undergone a series of transformations during the last four decades.

Local economic development in sub-Saharan Africa

There are a good number of poverty alleviation strategies in sub-Saharan Africa all linked to LED. Self-reliance, survival and poverty alleviation rather than finding and creating niche markets, local economy strengthening and increasing competitiveness are some of the key focal points of the majority of LED projects in the region (Binns & Nel, 1999). The social aspects often take precedence over the economic aspects with all strategies being drawn up by local governments often without consultation of the local business communities and other stakeholders. As a result, most of these strategies do not generate the expected results in terms of economic growth and job creation (Rodriguez-Pose & Tjimstra, 2007; Hinderson, 2003). During the last two decades however, changes in the political economy of many countries have significantly altered conditions for LED in sub-Saharan Africa. Decentralisation, democratic pluralism and economic liberalisation as well as advances in information and communication technologies (ICT) and managerial changes have significantly brought the world closer (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2010; Helmsing, 2003; Helmsing, 2005). Decentralisation has led many communities to actually assume responsibility for their own development. In many countries, this has led to the creation of partnerships between the local communities and other stakeholders (both national and international) to ensure better management of the community's natural, physical and human resources thereby stimulating the economy and creating jobs within these communities (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2010; Helmsing, 2001; Helmsing, 2005). Helmsing (2003) distinguishes three categories of LED initiatives in SSA and these all have a direct bearing on the sustainable development of tourism in the region.

The first are community economic development initiatives which can be applied to both rural and urban settings with slight alterations. These initiatives seek to stimulate and diversify the economic activities of the households by introducing new income generating activities (some of which are related to the tourism industry), promote a sense of community, self-help and empowerment, contrib-

ute to the generation of self-employment, improve living and working conditions in the communities and create public and community services, thereby reducing their overdependence and dependence on one activity alone (Helmsing, 2003). If successfully applied, they could lead to improvement of livelihoods as well as a reduction in poverty and vulnerability. This is very important in Africa where rapid population growth, less dependence on agriculture, mismanagement and urban migration has not only made many households to become vulnerable but it has increased pressure on some communities and localities and led to an increase in urban poverty (Helmsing & Egziabher, 2005).

The second LED initiative involves engaging in activities dealing with the production of products that are appealing and developing the conditions that favour the export of these products and services outside the locality. This export base is often made up of different sectors and they each depend on each other for survival. The more they specialise in their different sectors, the more performant they become and the better services they are able to render, hence becoming more appealing (Helmsing, 2003; Helmsing & Egziabher, 2005). Just like with all other industries, the tourism industry's growth and appeal does not only depend on the natural and cultural environments, but it also largely depends on the supply and provision of the necessary service infrastructure such as transport, accommodation and food, security, health care and human resources by other industrial sectors to the industry (Kimbu, 2010). However as McCormick (1999) observed, manufacturing clusters in Africa are under-developed when compared to other continents. This is primarily due to the absence of enabling environment (i.e. macro and micro finance, competency/capacity learning platforms, collaborative partnerships and networks) and is a serious obstacle to enterprise development. Helmsing (2005) and Helmsing and Egziabher (2005) note that achieving collaboration and cooperation among the various sectors and stakeholders is a serious problem in many African communities.

The third initiative deals with the development of specialised export bases by local economies. This is reflected in correct planning and realisation of the necessary hard and soft infrastructure and the provision of the necessary social and economic overhead capital that is put in place to serve it (Helmsing, 2003). In order for locality development to be successful, the planning and operationalization has

to be participatory, simplified and understandable. In addition, control and monitoring mechanisms and regulations have to be instituted during the physical planning, development and management phases. Infrastructure also has to be developed or upgraded and monitoring mechanisms put in place to ensure regular control, while the necessary socio-economic overhead capital (education, research and training institutions, hospitals, information and communication technologies) has to be created to serve not only the industry but the locality as a whole (Rodriguez-Pose & Tijmstra, 2007; Helmsing, 2003; Helmsing, 2001). The provision of basic hard and soft infrastructure by the government and their astute management generally serves as a stimulus for private investments in the targeted locality. This makes the destination more competitive and attractive to potential investors and also enhances the life quality of the local residents who also profit from these infrastructure and services. The problem in many sub-Saharan African countries and Cameroon in particular is that, though a good number of potential sites (export bases) for tourism development have been identified by the governments, only very limited physical infrastructure has been constructed making these sites less attractive to potential investors and tourists (Kimbu, 2011). In addition, the necessary socio-economic overhead capital is almost inexistent.

Cameroon overview

Located between West and Central Africa in the Gulf of Guinea, with English and French as the official languages and just 6.5 hours away from continental Europe, Cameroon, which received 572,728 visitors in 2010, has been described as "all of Africa in one country" due to its topographical, floral, faunal and multicultural diversity (MINTOUR, 2007). Cameroon has a total surface area of 475 442 km² and had a population of about 19.5 million inhabitants in 2009 (BBC, 2010). The country's strategic location has given rise to a vast floral and faunal diversity and density. In fact, Cameroon has one of the highest concentrations of endemic species on the African continent apart from the island of Madagascar and was in this regard classified by the World Bank and the World Wide Fund (WWF) as one of the 13 countries worldwide with the highest amount of biological diversity (Riley & Riley, 2005; Vivien, 1991).

As of 2005, 14% of Cameroonian territory was under some form of protection on paper and there

were plans to increase this amount to 19% (especially after the World Bank's approval to finance Cameroon's Forest and Environmental Policy Development Program Project in 2006 thereby theoretically complying with the Millennium Development Goal of increased environmental conservation and poverty alleviation (World Bank, 2006)). In 2007, Cameroon had 13 national parks, 3 of which were UNESCO-MAB biosphere reserves and one a UNESCO World Heritage Site; 18 wildlife reserves, 3 wildlife sanctuaries, 16 forest reserves and protected areas, 9 cloud (mountain) forest sites in the country covering a total surface area of about 6496499 hectares (UNESCO, 2008; MINTOUR, 2007). This is in addition to the 402 km of coastline with pristine beaches near the foot of Mount Cameroon in Limbe (South West Region), at the entrance of the equatorial forest around Kribi and Campo (South Region) and on the island of Manoka in the Littoral Region (MINTOUR, 2007). In addition, the country is blessed with a diversity and multiplicity of customs and traditions manifested in the more than 270 spoken languages, architecture, dressing, music, song and dancing especially in the western and northern regions of Cameroon (Benneh, 2008; Paden & Soya, 1970).

The eastern, western and southern portions of Cameroon (North West, South West, Littoral, Centre, South and East Regions) are potential havens for ecotourism, mountaineering and hiking, cultural and beach tourism development, while the northern part of Cameroon (Adamaoua, North and Extreme North Regions) is the Mecca for safari adventurers and is the most visited part of the country (Kimbu, 2010). With its rich and abundant cultural and natural diversity, different forms of cultural and environmentally sustainable community benefit nature-related tourism, mountaineering and hiking, cultural and sun and sea tourism initiatives geared at promoting LED are starting to see the light around some of these parks and sites of interest, and could be developed in the other sites if the necessary planning, management and monitoring tools which would facilitate hard and soft infrastructure development and management were put in place. This adventure and discovery element places Cameroon according to Butler's (1980) tourism area life cycle at the (late) exploration stage, while it is also a favoured destination of Plog's (1974) allocentric travellers and Cohen's (1972) explorers.

Methodology

The paper adopts a qualitative approach in that

the research is underpinned by 21 in-depth semi-structured interviews with key tourism industry stakeholders. Using a purposive snowball sampling technique (Mason, 2002), public and private sector stakeholders were co-opted to participate in the research. In-depth semi-structured interviews and discussions were used for this research because it allows "...the interviewer to ask certain, major questions the same way each time but is free to alter the sequence and to probe for more information" (Fielding, 1993: 136). Interviews/discussions lasting between 45 minutes to 1.5 hours were conducted with officials from Cameroon's Ministries of Tourism, Forestry and Fauna, and the Ministry of Environment and Nature Protection (6), tour/hotel operators and travel agents (7), representatives of local communities (4), and officials working with NGOs (4) dealing with environmental protection and sustainable tourism development in Cameroon. In addition 6 field trips to potential and existing tourism development sites in the country were undertaken between the months of January and April 2009. Working from a set of prepared guidelines, probing but non directive questions requesting clarification, specification and examples wherever need arose were asked by the researcher to the respondents. The lack of up-to-date secondary data sources and the interviewing strategy adopted meant that the researcher was able to elicit as much information as possible from the respondents about the topic of research, and the following results were generated after a thematic content analysis of the interviews.

Findings and discussion

In spite of possessing the natural elements favouring the development of an ecologically sustainable nature tourism industry that could lead to poverty alleviation and environmental sustainability, and in spite of the Cameroon government's stated commitment to prioritise the development of the industry as one of the means of stimulating LED in areas devoid of other mineral resources and industries, analysis of the interviews with all stakeholders in Cameroon's tourism sector as well as from field observations revealed that it will be very difficult for countries in the Central African sub-region and Cameroon in particular to attain MDGs 1 & 7 by 2015. This was mainly due to the existence of some core challenges which made LED through tourism a far fetched reality. These challenges resulted mainly from the lack of simultaneous complementary investments as well as support ser-

vices and infrastructure in the tourism sector and in other economic sectors by other economic agents (Helmsing, 2003). Principal challenges included the lack of finance leading to the non implementation of management plans, shortage of qualified human capital and inefficient service infrastructure, non implementation of a general tourism policy framework, conflicts of interest between various stakeholders and government policies, as well as non-professionalization of the tourism sector.

Lack of capital for investment and expansion

The lack of finance for macro and micro investments, infrastructural development and management was considered by all interviewees to be a serious handicap. This was the result of little government support to the sector especially after the economic crisis and subsequent market liberalisation and introduction of structural adjustment programs in the mid 1990s whose impacts were still being felt. The lack of capital was also caused by the decline in foreign direct investments (FDI) in Cameroon since the early 1990s notwithstanding the fact that between the years 1980 and 2000, global FDI grew more than 20 times from 67 billion to 1271 trillion (Helmsing, 2003). However Africa received only a tiny fraction of this FDI and its share actually dropped from 2.8% in the 1980s to 0.6% in the year 2000, with countries such as Kenya and South Africa profiting most (UNCTAD, 1999). Consequently many potential attractions in Cameroon lacked the basic hard and soft infrastructure and services to accommodate and cater for tourists' needs (Kimbu, 2011).

Absence of a tourism policy and non implementation of a general tourism development framework

Tourism development almost always involves a greatly expanded role of the state in developing hard and soft infrastructure, drafting and implementing a tourism policy and strategy (dealing with issues such as land use policies, training and employment, visa policy, foreign exchange requirements and import regulations, etc) after consultation with other stakeholders (Jenkins & Henry, 1982; Wood, 1980). Tourism policy therefore provides the guidelines and the reference points against which any developments in the sector should be evaluated (Dieke, 2006). That notwithstanding, Cameroon's tourism industry had no clear and concise development and management plan and policy nor a National Tourism Office to oversee its development and management. Though a few attempts had in the past been

made to come up with policy documents and strategic frameworks they were never implemented, partly due to lack of finance, partly because they were over-ambitious and partly because they were contextually not applicable, having been drawn up by persons (foreign consultants) not well versed with the realities of Cameroon. Examples include the Tourism Sectoral Development Plan drawn up in 2005 which outlined some of the potential sites and types of tourism that had to be developed/consolidated (MINTOUR, 2007), the 2002 Tourism Marketing Plan and the 2008 Destination Branding Report, which respectively outlined strategies for marketing and branding the country as a tourism destination (EMG, 2008; Expansion Strategies Inc., 2002). The absence of a national tourism policy and tourism development strategy has led to the industry being in a disorganised state, with very little cooperation and coordination between various branches of the industry and other sectors of the economy, leading to conflicts of interest among the industry's stakeholders.

Conflicting government policies and stakeholder interests

Actively involving all persons affected by proposed development and subsequent management is the underlying premise of stakeholder theory pioneered by Freeman in 1984. However, conflicting interests between stakeholders involved in community development is a key challenge to LED (Helmsing, 2005; 2001). This was very evident in Cameroon where persistent conflicts of interest between the various ministerial departments as well as between public and private sector stakeholders were partly responsible for the underdevelopment of a sustainable tourism industry in the country. This significantly retarded developments in the industry and its contribution to LED. That notwithstanding, cooperation and collaboration as well as integration and active participation are major issues that have to be seriously considered and addressed in any models that deal with the role of stakeholders in tourism planning, development and management (Hall, 2000; Tosun, 2000; Bramwell & Sharman, 1999).

In spite of the apparent democratisation and decentralisation measures instituted by countries in the Central African sub-region in the last two decades, research revealed that in practice, governance is still to a large extent centrally planned and administered with very limited consultation and often passive participation of the other stakeholders par-

ticularly the communities concerned. This confirms Rodriguez-Pose & Tjimstra, (2007) and Hinderson's (2003) observations about the lack of consultation and non-involvement of all stakeholders in LED initiatives including tourism development and management. Due to the ever changing developmental plans of the government, decisions are sometimes made which stand in direct contradiction to the MDGs of poverty alleviation and environmental sustainability. 'Strategic national interests' often supersede environmental concerns in national parks and protected areas in spite of protests from national and international NGOs. Examples include exploration and eventual exploitation of minerals such as diamonds, gold, bauxite, nickel and cobalt within parts of the bio-diversity rich Boumba-Bek and Lobéké National Parks and the Kribi deep sea port and gas terminal construction project in the Eastern and Southern Regions of Cameroon respectively. In the latter, the government and local inhabitants opted for the construction of the above infrastructure instead of the creation of a marine park citing the economic advantages which could accrue from the realisation of this project in the region over environmental concerns (Baikong, 2009). Other examples include the proposed construction of the Lom Pangar and the Mve-Ele hydroelectric power plants/dams in the Eastern and Southern Regions of Cameroon respectively which will not only flood about 318 km² of the Deng Deng Forest Reserve (one of the rare hardwood forests in Africa) which was spared destruction during the construction of the World Bank sponsored Chad-Cameroon pipeline in 2003, but will also submerge parts of the biodiversity-rich Lom Pangar Reserve (Horta, 2010; Ngala, 2009). These are all natural parks with huge potentials for the development of nature-related tourism activities which will be destroyed. These projects according to officials of WWF Cameroon will have serious negative socio-cultural and environmental consequences because whole communities will be displaced and the biodiversity found within these parks which risk being decimated. That notwithstanding, it is expected that electricity output will be boosted after the completion of these power plants and there will be an increase in economic activities when the commercial exploitation of minerals commences (Elvido, 2009). Conflicting stakeholder interests coupled with prioritising immediate short-term economic national benefits meant that important environmental conservation and biodiversity protection measures taken into consideration when drawing

up management plans often end up being shelved or only partially implemented.

Non-implementation of management plans

Five year renewable management plans were introduced in all of Cameroon's main national parks as from the mid 1990s. However, the effective implementation of these plans which clearly call for the integration and profitable participation of local communities in park management and conservation as well as the development of environmentally friendly sustainable tourism activities that promote LED in and around these parks as one of the means to reduce pressure on the parks' biodiversity leaves much to be desired. This is partly due to the inefficiency of most governments in sub-Saharan Africa in general and Cameroon in particular where government effectiveness was estimated at just around 30% in 2004 (Nelson, 2008; Kaufman *et al.*, 2005; World Bank, 2004). Any biodiversity conservation and ecotourism development projects near or within parks is mostly realised thanks to the technical and financial assistance of international non-governmental organisations. Examples include the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) and the UK Department for International Development (UKDFID) sponsored Korup Project (1997-2002) in the Korup National Park, the UKDFID – World Bank Global Environmental Facility (GEF) - German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ) funded Mount Cameroon Project (1994 - 2002) and the German Development Organisation (DED) - GTZ funded ecotourism project of the Mount Cameroon Inter Communal Ecotourism Organisation (1997-2005). In these projects, local communities were to be actively and profitably engaged in conservation work in these parks by being trained in alternative income generating activities centred on conservation and ecotourism (Mount-cameroon.org, 2007; LBZG/MCB-CC, 2002). During their duration, former hunters and forest product gatherers from the surrounding communities were retrained in sustainable farming techniques; some were trained and employed to work as guides, porters, home-stay providers. Until the departure of the foreign partners which was often accompanied by a freeze in foreign funding, the projects were very successful in biodiversity conservation, poverty alleviation and stimulating LED in the communities where they were based. In the various communities for example, special accounts were created in which a percentage of revenue generated from tourism activities was deposited and

used in carrying out developmental projects such as electrification and potable water provision in the villages involved. Thereafter, financial and managerial deficiencies set in, and a good number of villagers who had been gainfully employed in the different projects reverted to their past preoccupations of illegal forest product harvesting and poaching. In addition, maintenance of the infrastructure on these sites virtually came to a standstill, and most are currently in a state of disrepair leading to a corresponding decrease in visitor numbers which had been steadily increasing during these projects. Thus even though the government's stated commitment includes the sustainable development of eco/nature tourism activities around most of Cameroon's nature parks and reserves, this is in practice hampered by the desire to commit adequate and scarce financial resources to achieve these goals. Without external help from foreign donors as is presently the case with the WWF sponsored Kudo-Zombo Project in the Campo-Ma'an National Park, most of these plans and proposed ecotourism ventures will never be executed (Lukong, 2008).

Deficiencies in human capital management

Environmental sustainability and conservation can only be achieved with the right calibre of service personnel needed to carry out tasks related to conservation. Unfortunately this is not the case with most of Cameroon's parks and reserves. Just like in most countries of sub-Saharan Africa, the poor state of higher education both in physical infrastructure and human resources has led to a scarcity of qualified workers to work in the industry (Rodriguez-Pose & Tijmstra, 2007; Helmsing, 2003). The presence of only two professional schools in the country for the training of senior forestry and wildlife engineers and mid-level forestry technicians and only a handful of institutions specialised in hospitality and tourism management means that there is a shortage of well trained and skilled professional staff needed to oversee and carry out day to day management, not only in the natural parks and sites but also in other sectors of the tourism and hospitality industry as a whole in the country. In the Korup National Park for example there were only 3 mid-level technicians and 20 ecoguards responsible for patrolling and ecological monitoring. This was lesser than the number stipulated in the Park Management Plan (which provided for 36 ecoguards) and when the IUCN ratio of ecoguards to park surface area was taken into consideration. It was the same situation

in all the other parks and reserves in the country. As a result, parks such as the Dja Faunal Reserve, Banyang-Mbo sanctuary and the Faro National Park which was home to a large variety of threatened species such as black rhinoceroses, elephants and cheetahs were over-poached by poachers mostly from the neighbouring Central African Republic and Chad and illegal lumber harvesting was carried out by companies which had concessions near these parks (Nchandji, 2006; Nyang, M. & Hamerlynck, 2006; MacAllister, 2005; Riley & Riley, 2005). In addition, the remoteness of most of these parks, coupled with low public sector wages in general and in the tourism industry in particular in sub-Saharan Africa and Cameroon, also acted as a disincentive and made it difficult for the industry to attract and retain qualified staff willing to work in these parks (The Commission for Africa, 2005; Helmsing, 2002).

It is as a result of these deficiencies that in the 2009 Travel and Tourism Competiveness Report, Cameroon was classed a lowly 94th in terms of the availability of local research and training facilities and 104th in terms of the extent staff training in the tourism sector out of 133 countries. A lot of improvements need to be done in this sector for it to be competitive (Blanke & Chiesa, 2009). Tourism development that contributes to the reduction of extreme poverty, promotes environmental sustainability and ultimately plays a strategic role in LED in Cameroon can be successfully developed if complementary investments take place in other related sectors of the chain both upstream and downstream.

Contribution: Towards the implementation of a sustainable tourism approach that guarantees local economic development

The absence of an effective tourism framework coupled with the lack of finance for the development and promotion of all other aspects of the industry relegates tourism in Cameroon to a secondary activity. Many private agents engaged in the sector consider it as an addendum to their other business interests. A similar scenario plays out in the local communities where those employed consider the sector as not being sustainable enough for them to engage in it full time. Thus when ecotourism ventures are initiated in most communities (Mount Cameroon Region, Korup National Park or Belo Rural Development Project for example), the amount of enthusiasm shown by the locals is always very low. The benefits of the training courses offered to villagers which often accompany the introduction of these projects are often

short-lived because when participants trained in various capacities (as guides, porters, ecoguards) realise that the proceeds from tourism are neither immediate nor regular, depending largely on the tourist season (November to April) and visitor numbers, the general tendency is for them to go back to their past preoccupations which are often unsustainable and have negative environmental consequences. Consequently, in comparison to countries such as Botswana, Kenya or Senegal where up to 6% of the labour force is employed in the travel and tourism industry, which itself contributed more than 6% to the GDP of these countries in 2008, in Cameroon the WTTC estimates show that only 1.3% of total employment was generated from direct tourism industry jobs and 3.5% of total national employment was generated by the travel and tourism economy as a whole. In addition, the travel and tourism industry in Cameroon was expected to contribute only 2.9% to the GDP during this same period (Blanke & Chiesa, 2008).

In order to guarantee the effective utilisation of Cameroon's tourism potential as one of the key tools for attaining the MDGs of poverty alleviation and environmental sustainability and in so doing LED, tourism would first and foremost have to be recognised as being on a par with other industrial sectors in Cameroon with the capacity to generate revenue and contribute to the GDP, create jobs and improve standards of living. If this reality is recognised and accepted by the government, the Ministry of Tourism and related ministries will have to be provided with a budget enabling them to put in place the necessary hard and soft infrastructure which will facilitate the effective development and management of the country's tourism industry (Dieke, 2006; Wood, 1980). This is however not the case presently. Figure 1 is a proposed integrated framework which will facilitate LED and the attainment of the MDGs of poverty alleviation and environmental sustainability through the development of a sustainable nature-based tourism industry in Cameroon.

The double-sided arrows in Figure 1 clearly indicate that in order to successfully introduce tourism to the communities as a tool for local economic development, poverty alleviation and environmental protection in Cameroon, various inter-relating factors will have to be taken into consideration when developing a tourism strategy. The first major task would involve the development of a tourism strategy which would clearly define the mission, goals and objectives of tourism development in the coun-

try, region and communities. Identifying and inventorying all existing and potential development sites and stakeholders, the challenges inherent in their development and the development of management plans will also be another key element in this strategy. It is only after this that it will be possible to have a clear picture of the industry and development facilitated.

Another important chore in the development process will be for the government and committed private sector stakeholders and non-governmental organisations to carry out education and sensitisation campaigns throughout the country and most especially in areas of existing and potential tourism development sites. The inhabitants will have to be sensitised and educated on the benefits that the sustainable development and management of tourism resources can bring to their communities, as well as made aware of the fact that tourism development is a continuous process requiring constant monitoring and its rewards are not often immediate.

Just as with any LED projects, local communities, as Helmsing (2003) and Helmsing (2005) remarked, have to be empowered and given the freedom to control and manage the tourism projects. Empowerment will come through decentralisation which Rogerson and Rogerson, (2010) and (Helmsing, 2001) observed often leads to better management of a community's resources and projects. Successful management and monitoring of these projects can only be guaranteed after they must have received initial training through capacity building workshops and institutions set up by the government in conjunction with other stakeholders with the necessary expertise and know-how. Without the necessary training, the community members will not be able to manage these structures properly. Proper management and regular monitoring will lead to tourism being developed in a sustainable manner and the attainment of MDGs 1 and 7 (Figure 1).

Another factor to be taken into consideration will be that of active stakeholder collaboration and cooperation, which is essential to the success of LED projects. This, according to Helmsing (2005) and Helmsing & Egziabher (2005), was a critical stumbling block for many LED initiatives in SSA. All tourism industry stakeholders will have to effectively work together in the development of the industry, which would have to be placed under the supervision of an autonomous national, regional and local tourism boards (bringing together representatives of public

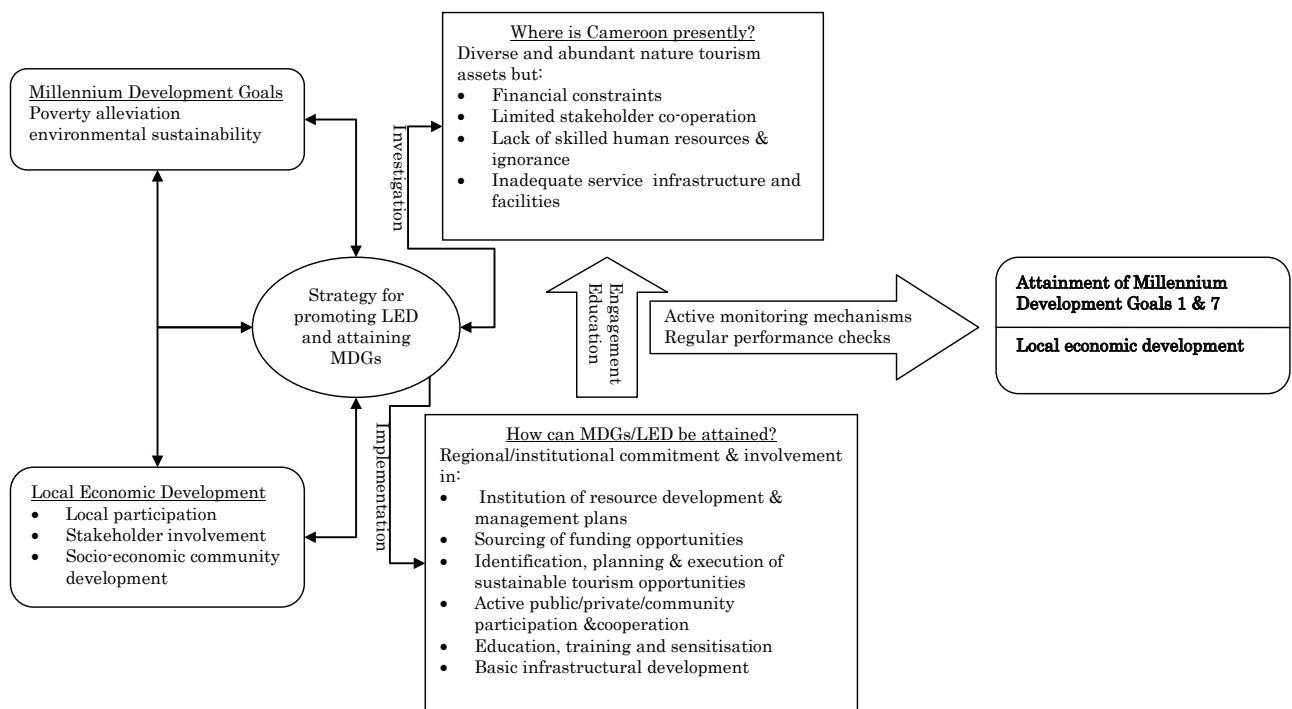


Figure 1. Framework for the Attainment of Millennium Development Goals (1 & 7) and LED through Sustainable Tourism Development in Cameroon

and private sector stakeholders) that will have to be created. One of the initial tasks of this board will be to come up with a practical and financially sustainable framework for tourism development and management in the country, as well as to assume responsibility for the professionalization of the industry. It is this framework that will clearly outline the direction of tourism's development and the steps that will have to be overcome in order to achieve the sustainability the industry's development.

The government on its part, in addition to creating the basic enabling infrastructure necessary for tourism development in the country which, as Rodriguez-Pose & Tijmstra (2007), Helmsing, (2003) and Helmsing (2001) noted will not only serve the industry but the locality as a whole, will also have to liberalise the sector and reduce the administrative bottlenecks as well as give tax incentives to potential investors. These measures will not only stimulate local investments by local private sector individuals but could also attract foreign direct investments from international investors who up till now have shied away from undertaking any serious developments in the country because of the general

absence of a conducive environment for tourism development.

In addition, the government should engage in a serious and continuous marketing campaign in the potential source markets of Europe and North America where very little has been done up till now as regards marketing and promotion. This marketing could take place in the form tourism trade fair attendances in reputed fairs of Berlin, Paris and London for example.

Conclusion

The spatial location of the country, the rich and varied topographical, floral and faunal biodiversity and as well as the multi-linguistic and cultural diversity of the country provide the primary components necessary in making Cameroon a very fertile terrain for the development of a sustainable tourism industry capable of significantly contributing to the realisation of the Millennium Development Goals of poverty alleviation and environmental sustainability. However a lot of work still has to be done with regards to coordinating and providing the nec-

essary services and infrastructures which will harness these potentials and make them profitable to all stakeholders engaged, and which will guarantee that future generations still get to profit from them. It is only when this foundation has been laid and constant monitoring ensured that it will be possible to look positively into the future and be certain that tourism will be a significant arsenal in the fight against poverty and environmental sustainability in Cameroon.

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Local community involvement in rural tourism development: The case of Kastamonu, Turkey

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Abstract: The aim of this paper is to investigate the potential of local stakeholders in developing a rural tourism product. With this aim, a traditional harvest day event was initiated by the researchers and the event was organized and set up by the local stakeholders. Kastamonu, a rural destination in Turkey with a great potential for but with very limited rural tourism development, was selected for the conduct of this harvest day event. Participant observations and in-depth interviews are used to identify the factors that facilitate involvement of the local community in rural tourism product development. The results are expected to provide insights for the development of a framework relating to the assessment of the potential for sustainable rural tourism development in a given area.

Keywords: Sustainable tourism; Rural tourism; Local stakeholders; Resident attitudes; Kastamonu; Turkey.

Título: Participación de la comunidad local en el desarrollo del turismo rural: el caso de Kastamonu, Turquía

Resumen: El objetivo de este trabajo es investigar el potencial de los actores locales para el desarrollo de un producto de turismo rural. Un evento tradicional del día de la cosecha fue iniciado por los investigadores con este objetivo, y organizado por las partes interesadas de la localidad. Kastamonu, un destino rural de Turquía con gran potencial de desarrollo pero con limitado turismo rural, fue seleccionado para llevar a cabo este evento del día de la cosecha. Se utilizaron la observación y participación de los investigadores, además de entrevistas en profundidad para identificar los factores que facilitan la participación de la comunidad local en el desarrollo del producto turístico rural. Los resultados esperan proporcionar información para el desarrollo de un marco de evaluación del potencial de desarrollo sostenible del turismo rural en un área determinada.

Palabras clave: Turismo sostenible; Turismo rural; Partes interesadas locales; Actitudes de los residentes; Kastamonu; Turquía.

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Introduction

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

The development of the rural tourism activity has also attracted the attention of scholars. The definitions of rural tourism have proliferated together with the increased research interest on the topic. Overtime, the scope of rural tourism has also expanded. In spite of its multiple definitions and expanded scope, a consensus seems to be achieved on its objective as being sustainable. However, scholarly work on the dimensions of and criteria for sustainable tourism seems scarce (Saarinen, 2006). Although rural tourism is implicitly assumed to be a tool for sustainable development, there is some evidence that it can also become a source of conflict in the society. Issues may arise over the control of the natural capital and land use, the distribution of income and profits from tourism among its stakeholders and the potential displacement of local communities. In fact, rural tourism has eventually the potential to harm the environment and to have adverse impacts on the local communities unless carefully planned and managed (Cawley and Gillmor, 2008). For this reason, the issue of sustainable rural tourism development deserves more scholarly attention and evidence from different parts of the world, with different contextual characteristics.

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

Literature on sustainable tourism development

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

Adopting a multidimensional approach to sustainability, Augustyn (1998) uses the Action Strat-

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

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

strategy and how to promote networking among stakeholders and embeddedness in local systems are major issues that seem to be the major challenges in promoting sustainability in tourism and contributing to rural development. Methods that can be used for achieving widespread participation in the tourism development process need to be developed (Reid et al., 2004).

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

Active involvement and participation of residents in the tourism development process seem to be prerequisites for achieving the goal of sustainability and thereby improving the overall welfare in the community. In this regard, residents' attitudes seem to be critical, but complex. Residents' may have divergent attitudes. In a study investigating the attitudes of residents' to proposed tourism development, Mason and Cheyne (2000) find that opinions and attitudes are not homogenous in the communities. Their findings provide evidence for the complex nature of residents' attitudes to tourism, even in the pre-development stage when there is little tourism activity in their community. As time passes, their opinions and attitudes might also change with the increase in the tourism activity. Furthermore, community characteristics may also influence residents' attitudes. Using social exchange theory and destination life cycle model, Latkova and Vogt (2012) examine the impacts of the level of tourism and economic development on the residents' at-

titudes toward tourism. They are not able to provide strong evidence for the relationship between tourism and economic development levels of the communities and residents' attitudes. Based on their findings they suggest that historical and social factors might be influential rather than development experiences and stages and propose using other theories that integrate these factors.

In summary, rural tourism, which involves a wide range of community owned resources and different stakeholders with different interest, is a complex and intricate issue. In the literature, there seems to be a consensus that rural tourism development should be community based and involve a multidimensional sustainability strategy which is widely supported by all the stakeholders for ensuring sustainability and rural development. However, there is little evidence on how to achieve cooperation and collaboration between and among different stakeholders. The literature also points to the necessity of involvement of local community in decision making and planning of rural tourism development. Although residents' attitudes seem to be critical in achieving community involvement, the link between residents' attitudes and their participation in tourism development appears to be vague. Additionally, research on community problem solving relating to tourism development is scarce. Therefore, this paper aims to fill this void and identify the factors that facilitate the involvement of local stakeholders by observing their behavior during a researcher-initiated tourism product development event.

Context

Rural tourism development is in its initial stages of development in Turkey (Karabati et al., 2009). There is a widespread recognition of the need to diversify the tourism product and develop alternative forms of tourism. Furthermore, massive migration from rural to urban areas, economic and social changes in rural areas as a result of the significant decline in the share of agricultural output and employment in the total economy and inequality in income distribution have generated an interest in rural development. There seems to be a consensus that rural tourism can be used as a tool to address the complex problems of rural areas. Various government agencies in Turkey, such as the State Planning Organization, Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs and

Ministry of Environment and Forestry, refer to rural tourism development among their priority aims in the coming years. A number of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and private initiatives are working to create recognition of ecological values and to develop pilot projects. Various rural communities seem to be interested in adopting tourism as a means for revitalizing their local economies. However, these efforts seem to be uncoordinated and loosely related to each other. Although rural tourism is stated among major means for rural development, it currently lacks a comprehensive strategy and an action plan at the national level, which are supported by the pertinent stakeholders. Over the last decade, sporadic rural tourism projects are observed in different areas, some of which have not been able to continue to the present.

In the "Turkish Tourism Strategy, 2023" (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2007), Kastamonu, is one of the designated areas for rural tourism development. The provinces of Kastamonu have various natural attractions and the area includes two national parks and is in the protection list of World Wildlife Forum (WWF). The economic activity in the villages is forestry, small-scale agriculture and livestock farming. It is a secluded area; thus the traditional lifestyle and methods of production have been mostly preserved in the villages. The population growth rate in 2009 is negative due to the decline in income from traditional agricultural activities and resulting migration to big cities. According to the results of the Addressed Based Population Registration System (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2010), the number of people which live in the city of Istanbul but registered in Kastamonu is 524,596. According to the same source, the population of Kastamonu is 361,222 people, of which 195,059 live in the province center and 166,163 live in the rural area. The number of people living in the rural area has decreased in 2010, from a figure of 169,839 in 2009. There are a number of attempts to develop rural tourism in the area, in the form of eco-tourism and organic agri-tourism. Stakeholders differ widely with respect to both the meaning and the means to develop rural tourism. Existing and potential rural tourism entrepreneurs, as well as local communities, are not involved in the planning of rural tourism development in the area.

Methodology

The literature indicates that involvement of rural communities in the design and implementation of the tourism strategy is one of the critical factors

for achieving sustainable tourism development. Local communities should be willing to develop their own projects and cooperate with other stakeholders for the development of rural tourism in a given area. Methods of resource use planning, management and control should be consistent with the existing social structures. Therefore, assessment of the potential of the local community in developing a rural tourism product is one of the cornerstones of the general assessment of the potential of a given area for rural tourism development. However, communities and their stakeholders differ widely with respect to social, historical and economic attributes that influence their attitudes toward a matter of social interest, such as tourism development. Furthermore, the link between attitudes and participation in tourism development seems to be vague.

In order to investigate the factors that facilitate local community involvement in tourism product development, an event organization is undertaken and the patterns of behavior of different stakeholders are observed throughout the planning and implementation of the event. Additionally, interviews are conducted with the participants of the event in order to identify their attitudes toward rural tourism development in Kastamonu. A traditional harvest day event is selected and initiated by the researchers as the tourism product to be developed. The harvest day event is planned and organized by the local stakeholders using traditional methods and tools, such as threshing sledges. This event is used in this study since it is complementary to local economic activity, represents a revitalization of a traditional method of production and involves endogenously owned resources. Before initiating the event, a field trip was made to the area by the researchers on July 9-11, 2010. In this trip, various different channels were used in order to identify villages that still use or that can generate a set-up of a traditional harvest day. Planning and organization of the event were left to local stakeholders and another field trip was made to the area in August 2010 with a small group of researchers in order to participate in the harvest day event and to conduct the interviews.

The organization of the harvest day included local government representatives, local businessmen, prominent local community leaders, village heads (mukhtar) and the villagers of three villages. These villages were previously identified among the villages in which the residents continued to use traditional agriculture methods along with more modern

ones, had threshing sledges for harvesting and were willing to participate in the event. These villages are Eymür, Talipler and Gölcüğeş. The harvest day event took place in Eymür, which is 28 km. away from the province center of Kastamonu. It has 23 households and its population is about 200 people. These villages got electricity around the mid 1970s. The first tractors also arrived to these villages around the same dates. The mukhtar of Eymür, Hüseyin Mahmutoglu, bought his tractor in 1975 and used it also to pull the villagers to and from the market in Kastamonu. They started using tractors to pull the threshing sledges and gradually left the use of oxen in the 1980s, following the liberalization in the country. Talipler is a village which is 15 km away from the province center of Kastamonu and its population is about 180 people. There is a large mansion in the village which dates back to the Ottoman period and is being developed as a hotel. The original features of the mansion are preserved. Its mukhtar, İrfan Pehlivanoğlu, is interested in developing the village as a tourism destination. Gölcüğeş is 40 km away from the province center of Kastamonu and it is about 150 people. There are flint mines in the village, which were the major source of the stones used in threshing sledges until the 1980s, when modern equipment replaced threshing sledges. The mukhtar, Şemsettin Kaplan, is also interested in developing tourism as an alternative source of income for the village. Local stakeholders and the residents in these three villages participated in the planning and organization of the harvest day event, which took place in Eymür village on August 1, 2010. Interviews were conducted with the local participants in the event both before and during the event. A total of 60 participants were interviewed using semi-structured questionnaires.

Findings

Prior to the first field trip, the event was introduced to various stakeholders in Kastamonu in order to identify different communities that have the resources and the willingness to work through the event. Representatives of the central and local government, heads of villages (mukhtars) businessmen, prominent local community leaders, representatives of related NGOs from Kastamonu were identified as stakeholders. Out of these stakeholders, the official ones were less effective in identifying with local rural communities. On the other hand, local businessmen and prominent commu-

nity leaders were more willing to contribute to the project and had more positive attitudes relating to rural tourism development in the area. These two groups were able to identify the right contacts in the rural communities and to effectively utilize them. Furthermore, they had a strong influence; the local rural communities respected their ideas and readily accepted their leadership in the initiation of the project. These two groups were able to stimulate the local communities in organizing the resources for undertaking the event. Representatives of the central government, senior officials of the local government, representatives of NGOs working for rural tourism development in the area and entrepreneurs involved in organic tourism were the less effective stakeholder groups in identifying potential rural communities and stimulating them for undertaking the rural tourism product development activity.

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

personal investment in the area and diverse networking channels seems to stimulate the rural communities to participate in the rural tourism activity and to facilitate their involvement in the planning, organization and management of the resources in the implementation stage.

A group of five researchers participated in the harvest day event organized in the village of Eymür on August 1, 2010. The village was identified and contacted by a local businessman and a prominent community leader and three villages participated in the organization and management of the resources for the event. The village headmen (mukhtars) of these three villages were the key persons in setting up the event and organizing the resources. The local businessman, the prominent community leader and the mukhtar of Talipler village also joined the group of researchers. The event was carried out on the harvest floor on the field owned by a family in the village. This family owned a traditional threshing sledge and two oxen which are used to pull the sledge. Owning the oxen was critical for performing the event in the traditional manner. The cut grain was piled in a haystack on the harvest floor, then the stack was pulled down with a long hooked wooden stick and scattered evenly on the floor by the farmer and his sons. The wife of the farmer brought the oxen and set up the sledge and started threshing the grain.

The threshing was the event of the day for the village. There was a widespread participation by the residents of the villages. At one point, a group of young men from other villages drove up to the harvest area in a truck and several women came in and out to see and participate in the event. Children of the village were encouraged to ride the threshing sledge by the older folk who wanted them to see how it had been in the old days. Lunch and refreshments were organized by the mukhtar. The local people were very enthusiastic to interact with the group of researchers and show them all the resources that they thought would be of interest to the outside group. Although the wind was not good enough, they also showed winnowing. The mukhtar demonstrated the use of wooden winnowing forks and explained how it was necessary to turn it at the top of the throw, spreading the grain for the breeze to work. They also made a demonstration using the mechanical thresher in the adjacent field.

The interviews conducted with the local community members participating in the harvest day event were coded with respect to their attitude to-

ward rural tourism development in their area and their willingness and ability to contribute to its planning and organization. The results indicate an overall positive attitude toward rural tourism development in their village. Participants also stated that they would be interested in working through similar projects that could lead to development of rural tourism products with commercial value. Most of the participants complained about the decrease in agricultural output and incomes and stated tourism development can solve problems. A number of participants hoped that rural tourism can contribute to the preservation of the local landscape. They also stated that rural tourism can create employment opportunities. Some also mentioned that development of rural tourism would give them a chance to preserve the social fabric in the country side as youngsters who went to work in the big cities would return back.

On the other hand, there was a consensus on the fact that they lacked the entrepreneurial skills and the means to start their own ventures or develop tourism related products. Some admitted that they did not know what would be of interest to tourists. A woman made a remark after the event that “we wouldn’t throw away our threshing sledges if we knew that tourists would be interested in seeing them”. A number of respondents mentioned other activities and attractions that could be built into the rural tourism product, such as riding horses, weaving baskets, making of small agricultural equipment and tools. Women seemed to be more willing to work in rural tourism development projects. However, they repeatedly arrived at the conclusion that they needed leaders who would guide them through the stages of tourism development. They also stressed the importance of seeing examples that would demonstrate how to proceed with rural tourism development.

With respect to their experiences relating to the event, they said they enjoyed the event themselves and interacting with the outsiders. They worked under the leadership of the mukhtars. Mukhtars identified the resources used in the event and they used their relatives in order to identify them. They communicated solely through cell phones. Mukhtars coordinated the event and actually worked through all the stages of it along with the other participants. All the tree mukhtars stated that they could coordinate home-stays and any other farm activities in their villages. Participant observations both before and during the event indicate that the rural community

members are enthusiastic about rural tourism development, they cooperate with other communities and successfully work together in the development of a local tourism product under the coordination of the mukhtars. Additionally, local businessmen and prominent community leaders seem to facilitate the involvement of mukhtars in these events. In this study, a genuine interest on rural development in the area and a preference for a multidimensional approach to sustainability were among the common characteristics of these two groups of stakeholders who facilitated the involvement of the local community in the production of a rural tourism product, a set-up harvest day event in this case.

Conclusions

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

The results of this study are expected to provide insights for developing frameworks relating to the

assessment of the potential for sustainable tourism in a given area. Assessment of the potential of the local community members to participate in rural tourism development is an important component of the overall sustainability of a given area. However, further studies are needed to determine the factors facilitating cooperation and collaboration between local rural communities and other stakeholders of rural tourism. The factors that facilitate local community involvement appear to be contextual, but this study proposes a method that can be used to assess these factors in a given context. Identification of effective stakeholders and their common characteristics may help the policy makers in rural tourism development.

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The weight of stakeholders on festival management. The case of music festivals in Italy

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Abstract: Even if events can represent important drivers for local development, it is possible to have a genuine economic and social contribution only when the event is undertaken within a paradigm that emphasizes the importance of complex interactions between the event's proposer and its stakeholders. Inside the event sector, festivals represent a specific sub-field that share time similarities and peculiarities as compared to other typologies. This paper analyzes the Italian context of music festivals and deepens the relationships between the festival organizer and public and private actors using stakeholder management approach. Findings suggest that Italian festivals have a reasonable level of entrepreneurship since the analysis reveals a good predisposition for the use of management practices.

Keywords: Music festival; Event management; Stakeholder theory; Stakeholder strategies; Relationships.

Título: El peso de las partes interesadas en la gestión del festival. El caso de los festivales de música en Italia

Resumen: A pesar de que los eventos puedan representar una contribución importante al desarrollo económico y social, esto sólo es posible cuando el evento se realiza bajo un paradigma que haga hincapié en la importancia de las complejas relaciones entre el proponente del evento y las partes interesadas. Dentro del sector de los eventos, los festivales representan un sub-campo que comparte similitudes y particularidades, en contraste con otros tipos de evento. Este trabajo analiza el contexto italiano de los festivales de música y profundiza en las relaciones entre el organizador del festival y los actores públicos y privados, utilizando un enfoque de gestión de partes interesadas. Los resultados sugieren que los festivales italianos tienen un nivel razonable de iniciativa empresarial ya que el análisis revela una buena predisposición para el uso de prácticas de gestión.

Palabras clave: Festival de música; Gestión de eventos; Teoría de partes interesadas; Estrategias de partes interesadas; Relaciones.

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Introduction

With many shapes and specificity, several potential goals to satisfy and a plethora of stakeholders to involve, festivals are somewhat unique in the events sector (Getz *et al.*, 2010). There is a growing interest in how the organization of festivals can preserve and promote anthropological and cultural heritage, animate specific attractions or entire cities, improve the awareness or image of the destination, provide a competitive marketing advantage, and increase the economic benefits. Due to all these potentialities, Richards (2007) has introduced the term “festivalization” in studying why/how festivals have globally become preferred tools in place marketing and tourism development.

Though festival management reproduces generic concepts and methods of event management, it has been recognized as a distinct sub-field (Andersson and Getz, 2008). Among those who suggest treating festivals as a specific sub-group, Getz *et al.* (2010) note that many festivals are focused on traditional community celebrations (largely organic, even spontaneous) or on cultural and special themed celebrations. In 1987 Falassi described the festival as “a sacred or profane time of celebration, marked by special observances” for highlighting the importance of this special event in celebrating community values, ideologies, identity and continuity. It is easy to note that inside the category of festivals there is a long list of sub-categories each of which with one or more specificities. Wilson and Udall (1982: 3) proposed seven broad categories (arts festivals; dance, jazz and music festival; harvest and food festivals; shows, fairs and festivals; and sports events), while Getz (2005: 21) defined them as “themed, public celebrations” so as not to create too stringent boundaries that could lead to the exclusion of some typology. Besides, putting a festival in a specific category can become very difficult when there is not an attribute that prevails unequivocally on the others (an example can be a festival that promotes music and enogastronomic products simultaneously). Most of the time the explanations essentially apply to all types of festivals and the object of celebration is often recognizable in the name (Getz, 2005), such as the Umbria Jazz Festival (the most important Italian jazz music festival), which indicates its nature.

Festivals can represent an important driver in increasing the destination attractiveness (Arcodia and Robb, 2000) and this is confirmed in looking at the international market where events have

become a worldwide tourism phenomenon (Prentice and Andersen, 2003; Allen *et al.*, 2002; Getz, 2005). Nevertheless, many planned events are still produced with little or no thought given to their tourism appeal or potential. The reasons can be sought in the organizers’ specific aims, in the absence of relationships established between events and tourism (Getz, 2008), and in the small size of the organization that can limit the marketing and tourism orientation. Also in this case, festivals, such as any other typologies of event, can provide important benefits like social and recreational opportunities for residents (Reid, 2011).

This study adapts a stakeholder perspective on festival management in a study of music festivals. Dependencies between the festival organizer and its stakeholders will be portrayed as well as relational interaction processes. The purpose is to illustrate how the festival organizers view their dependence to their stakeholders and how they manage their stakeholder relations. The study aims to give some insight into how festivals can successfully handle their stakeholders to ensure festival survival.

The study presents empirical evidences for 48 Italian music festivals, investigated through a structured questionnaire administered directly with an electronic survey.

Literature review

The Festivals depend on different actors because they have critical resources. There are some that become vital partners and can influence on how to develop the festival. Some of them are so important that it is very difficult to replace them in a short or long-term time perspective. One of the most common reasons for festival failure is insufficient resources (Getz, 2002). Lack of resources can be explained by a weakness of the festival management to attract sponsors and donators and/or a high degree of competition for resources in the events sector. Accordingly, festivals are dependent on support from stakeholders for their survival. A challenge for festival organizers is handling their stakeholders in a way that decreases their dependence in relation to their stakeholders (and thereby decreases the risk of lack of resources).

This premise also highlights the importance for the event sector of stakeholders. The identification of all stakeholders and a review of their agendas will assist event managers in balancing the competing needs, tensions and expectations of all stakeholders

(Getz *et al.*, 2007). It can also provide an excellent opportunity for improving propensity of local businesses to networking activities that represents a crucial, effective and efficient option in terms of mobilizing resources, information, experience, knowledge and ideas.

An event stakeholder can be defined as "... those persons or groups who can influence the organization, or are influenced by it" (Getz, 2007, p. 92). Getz (1991, p. 15) applies the earlier general definition of stakeholders to festivals and events as: "... those people and groups with a stake in the event and its outcomes, including all groups participating in the event production, sponsors and grant-givers, community representatives, and everyone impacted by the event".

Organizing a festival is executed by a coalition of stakeholders involving public, private, and voluntary organizations; for example the festival organization, artists, sponsors, suppliers, public authorities, tourism traders, etc. The efforts of interacting stakeholders lead to the building of a festival and its image, which is expected to attract visitors.

Interaction among the actors is characterized by both competition and collaboration (Gummeson, 1996). In fact, they compete with each other to obtain the satisfaction of related interest and they should work together (collaborate) to reduce the conflict and to attract visitors to the "festival's product".

Therefore, interaction among actors involves conflicts, such as conflicts over the time of artists' performances (for example a later time may be more attractive than an early time) or conflicts over the best advertising, since a central location is more attractive than a peripheral one. So, actors have different, and sometimes opposing, interests (Wood and Gray, 1991), goals and strategies.

In order to promote specific interests, an individual seeks to reinforce its position of power over other stakeholders involved (Huxham, 1996). Actors with a strong position can have more influence on the development and commercialization of the festival's product, therefore, better opportunities to satisfy their interests. However, actors complement each other: they link complementary products and services to add further commercial value (Cunningham and Culligan, 1990). A festival offering a broad supply of activities is expected to attract more visitors, also from different market segments.

There are different theoretical approaches in dealing with an organization's contextual environment and this paper will focus on the approach of

Stakeholder Theory. The stakeholder approach refers to groups and individuals who can affect the organization, and managerial behavior taken in response to those groups and individuals (Freeman, 1984).

Stakeholder theory focuses on stakeholders and their potential for cooperation or threat from a focal firm's perspective. In this sense, this theory sees the company as an organization from which many agents (stakeholders or groups of interest) request multiple demands that are not always coherent (Donaldson and Preston, 1995). A group or an individual is qualified as a stakeholder if it has a legitimate interest in aspects of the organization's activities and, thus, has either the power to affect the organization's performance and/or has a stake in its performance (Sautter and Leisen, 1999).

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

Stakeholders are not all equal, so it is indispensable for the management of an organization to prioritize them and focus their efforts accordingly. This prioritization requires a basis for analysis. Reid and Arcodia (2002) proposed a conceptual model showing how events are linked to primary and secondary stakeholders. "Primary" stakeholders were defined as those on whom the event is dependent (namely, employees, volunteers, sponsors, suppliers, spectators, attendees, and participants), while "secondary" stakeholders include the host community, government, essential services, media, tourist organizations, and businesses. Another classification is provided by Getz *et al.* (2007) who group stakeholders into "facilitator" (provides resources and support), "regulator" (usually government agencies), "co-producer" (other organizations and persons who participate in the event), "allies and collaborators" (such as professional associations and tourism agencies), and those impacted (mainly the audience and the community).

Festival and event stakeholder groups may be considered in relation to the power and influence

that they are perceived to have within a festival or event organization. This can be defined in relation to their roles and the success of festivals and events. Stakeholders may be considered additionally in relation to their impact upon the achievement of a festival's aims. Therefore, the identification and classification of festival stakeholders is essential to the strategic positioning of festivals (Getz, 2005, 2007; Getz *et al.*, 2007). Moreover it is evident that: "... stakeholder analysis and management can be used to build more effective event brands" (Merrilees *et al.*, 2005: 1060).

Once all stakeholders have been identified, it becomes fundamental to individuate the presence of relationships and relative frequency of relationships. The management and continued success of festivals is dependent therefore on those stakeholders who are most involved with the festival organization (Reid and Arcodia, 2002). The analysis of similarities and/or differentiation helps to individuate groups of stakeholders in order to organize appropriate strategies. The Savage *et al.* (1991)'s typology provides a balanced view of the possible influences – co-operation and threat – and explicitly attempts to place stakeholders in a management context by suggesting appropriate strategies for each type. Those authors prescribe specific management strategies based on a typology that relates a stakeholder's potential to threaten the organization to their potential to cooperate with it. They advocate a "collaborative strategy" where the potential for both cooperation and threat is high. A "defensive strategy" is suggested when the potential for threat is high and the potential for cooperation is low. An "involvement strategy" is prescribed for situations of low potential for threat but high potential for co-operation. Still a "monitoring strategy" is called for when both the potential for threat and cooperation are low.

It is important to emphasize that the presence of a good stakeholder management approach can also support festivals in responding to possible problems or threats that can arise in the festival organization. Andersson and Getz (2008: 215), for example, in analyzing a sample of live-music festivals in Sweden, provided a list of hypothetical threats and asked respondents to indicate if those had been serious problems. Their research reveals that the most serious problem is "bad weather", followed by "the high cost of entertainment or performers" and "over-reliance on one source of money".

Research methodology

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

An email was sent to festivals present in the list inviting them to complete a questionnaire in a web-based survey solution. Allowing for an eight week survey period (October – December, 2010) which included a pre-test on three festivals through a face-to-face interview, a total of 55 questionnaires were returned. After the first month, a reminder call was made to available phone numbers. There were 48 useable questionnaires (a 25.26% response rate). In our opinion, the final sample size is quite acceptable because it covered a diverse range of Italian music festivals in terms of geographical location, music genre, form, size, funding and number of editions.

The questionnaire is divided into three main sections. The first part asked for general information, such as ownership and control, musical genre prevailing, programme, number of editions, total audience, venues used, staff, revenues and costs. The second part is related to the strategies used in running the event in the previous three years and what degree of success was ascribed to each on a 5-point Likert scale (where 1 = completely ineffective and 5 = fully effective, or 0 if it did not use the specific strategy). Respondents were also asked to answer statements concerning challenges and threats to their festival. The third part set out a list of the different organizations (public and private). The list was originated and adapted starting from the one provided by Getz *et al.* (2010). The Interviewee was asked to indicate for each stakeholder the presence of relationships (yes/no), the frequency (daily/weekly/monthly), and the quality (1 = poor to 5 = excellent). We decided to use also weighted responses to improve the accuracy of answers (ratio

can vary from 0 = low use to 4 = high use). In doing so, further information about relationships between festivals and their stakeholders was gathered asking about the tools used to communicate (e-mail numbers, fax number traded, number phone calls, mails, meeting organized).

Results and discussion

The sample analyzed consists of festivals of different territories (some are itinerant, that are repeated in the same way, but in different places), from the north to the south of Italy, and taking place at different times during the year.

In relation to the prevailing music style, in the festivals analyzed, 20.84% are focused on Jazz while 16.67% on classic and 16.67% on folk, 14.58% on rock, 8.33% on pop, 2.08% on blues, and 20.83% on other types of music. The observation of the festivals' names reveals that in 22.92% of cases there is the word "music" while 47.92% of the festivals include the music genre in their names. 66.67% are organized by cultural associations, 6.25% by foundations, 12.50% by private companies, and 14.58% by public bodies such as municipalities. Table 1 contains the longevity and highlights that show how nearly 50% refers to a festival with a number of editions below 10. There is a mean of 46.835 spectators while the number of the people involved in the organization is on average 36.

The number of artists participating in the festival varies depending on the type of event and the proposed musical genre: from a few individuals (in the case of jazz, blues or pop festival) to hundreds of artists (for example, in the case of folk or classic festival).

Looking at the total revenue (figure 2), it emerg-

es that the first source is sponsorships followed by public grants. Tickets represent 16% while merchandising only 1%. In addition, festivals choose sponsorships in 84.62% of cases, followed by municipal and regional grants (71.79% and 58.97%), and tickets (53.85%).

Instead, the analysis of expenditure highlights that the ranking is the cachet of the artists (42.85%), organizational expenses (37.10%), marketing expenses (14.56%), and other (5.49%).

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

The stakeholders of a festival were grouped in this way:

- *media* (television and radio stations, newspapers and magazines);
- *music and artists* (national and international, music/arts performers/bands and their booking agency);
- *public authorities* (local authority, government agencies that give grants, police and other public services);
- *sponsors* (big and small companies that use the festival as a marketing tool);
- *suppliers of facilities, food and beverages*;
- *visitors* (through trading intermediaries);
- *tourism traders* (hotel, other accommodation, restaurant, associations and clubs);
- *independent organizations* (that work to organize and promote the festival).

A first analysis shows that festivals perceive a greater dependence on stakeholders that provide funds (public bodies and sponsors) while assigning less weight to logistics and facilities.

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

Table 1. Number of Festival's Editions

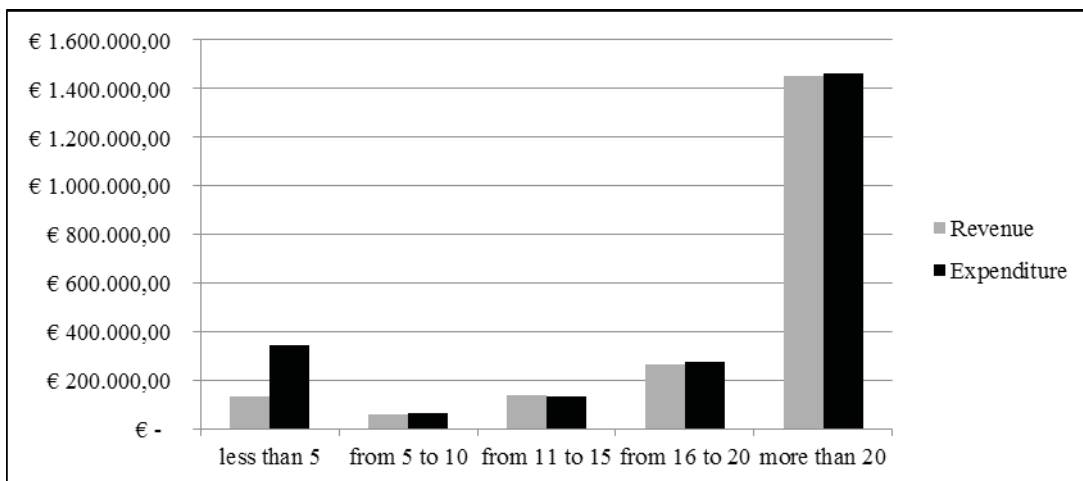


Figure 1. Revenue and Expenditure

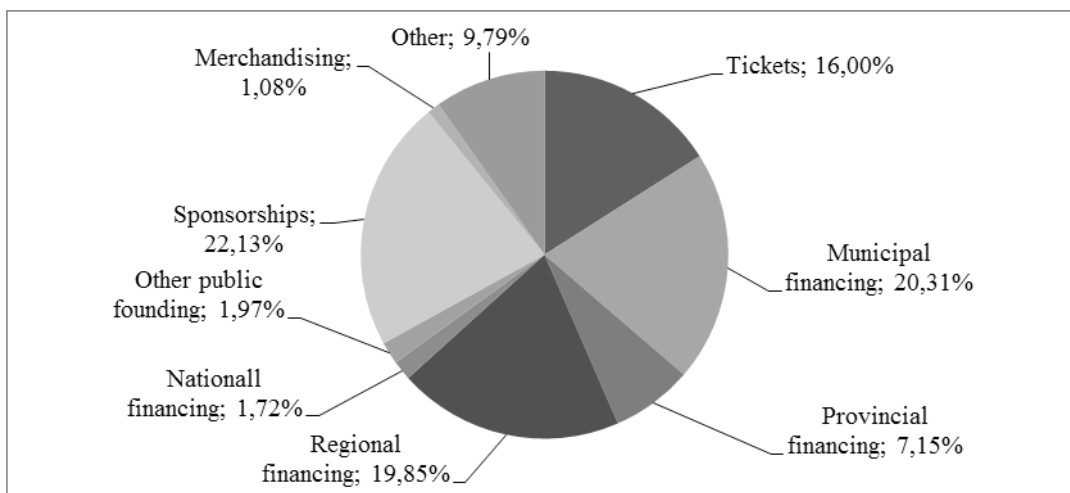


Figure 2. Sources of Revenue and Expenditure

All festivals affirm to have good relationships with stakeholders (in fact, in a range from 1 = poor to 5 = very good, the average is 4). A deeper analysis of the frequency (daily, weekly, and monthly) and the communication tools (presence of relationships - weighted) demonstrates how relations are not so intensive (table 2).

In fact, reports that focus on the months before the festival usually have a monthly or weekly frequency. Instead, relations are more frequent (daily) in the weeks before the event, such as trading with intermediaries, the media and artists.

Considering the number of festival's editions, interesting reflections emerge on the quantity of

relationships that the organization has with its stakeholders (table 3). For the determination of the quantity of reports (low level, medium level or high level), the reference was the number of e-mail, faxes, phone calls, letters and meetings.

Generally, with most of the stakeholders, the intensity level or relationships is medium. In particular, the festivals that have a number of editions over 20 are those with a high level of intensity (in particular with media, artists, sponsors, government agency, local authority, tourism traders and trading intermediaries). This can best be explained if the ability of the organizers and the network of relationships that they have built over the years are

Stakeholder	Presence of relationships	Frequency			Presence of relationships (weighted) From 0 to 4	Quality
		Daily	Weekly	Monthly		
Media	94.74%	17.14%	37.14%	45.72%	1.39	3.68
Other artists (not international)	94.74%	5.71%	45.71%	48.58%	1.32	4.21
Local authority	92.11%	10.81%	40.54%	48.65%	1.54	3.83
International artists	84.21%	15.62%	37.50%	46.88%	1.11	4.32
Facilities	81.58%	3.33%	33.33%	63.34%	0.97	4.13
Artist booking agency	78.95%	9.68%	54.84%	35.48%	1.12	3.81
Our major corporate sponsors	76.32%	3.45%	17.24%	79.31%	1.00	3.79
Our small corporate sponsors	73.68%	0.00%	14.29%	85.71%	0.89	3.74
Government agencies that give us grants	65.79%	7.41%	14.81%	77.78%	0.93	3.56
Tourism traders	57.89%	9.52%	28.57%	61.91%	0.74	3.71
Food and beverage providers	55.26%	0.00%	36.84%	63.16%	0.62	4.11
Trading intermediaries	52.63%	25.00%	50.00%	25.00%	0.49	3.95
Police and other public services	52.63%	0.00%	9.52%	90.48%	0.48	3.95
Independent organizations	42.11%	6.25%	37.50%	56.25%	0.65	3.93

Table 2. Stakeholders and Relationships

Stakeholder	No. of festival's editions				
	less than 5	from 5 to 10	from 11 to 15	from 16 to 20	more than 20
Facilities	M	M	M	M	M
Food and beverages	M	M	M	M	M
Media	M	M	M	M	H
Other artists (not international)	M	M	M	M	H
International artists	M	M	M	M	H
Artist booking agency	M	M	M	M	H
Our major corporate sponsors	M	M	M	M	H
Government agencies that give us grants	M	M	M	M	H
Local authority	H	M	H	M	H
Independent organizations	M	M	L	M	M
Our small corporate sponsors	M	M	L	M	H
Tourism traders	M	L	M	M	H
Trading intermediaries	L	L	L	M	H
Police and other public services	L	L	L	M	M

Note: L = Low; M = Medium; H = High.

Table 3. Quantity of Relationships

considered. Observation of the table 3 shows how the festivals with a number of less than 16 editions have a low level of intensity of their relationships in particular with trading intermediaries, police and other public services, independent organizations, small corporate sponsors and tourism traders.

Stakeholder strategies were examined and results are highlighted in table 4. It was asked which strategies had been employed over the past three years, and the perceived degree of success on a scale of five (with 1 = completely ineffective; 5 (= completely effective; 0 when strategy is not used). Looking at the column "use of the strategy", the most frequently practiced strategies were "worked on creating an identity / image" and "worked on the promotion of brand" with a good perceived degree of success (mean = 4). These are followed by "worked on the promotion of brand" (degree of success of 4), "developed initiatives in support of the local community" (degree of success of 4). While less common strategies include: "supported the collaboration between the sponsors for their mutual benefit" with a sufficient perceived degree of success (mean = 3),

"got money loan to cover financial losses" (degree of success of 3) and "paid a company to search for new funding sources or sponsors" (degree of success of 2).

The observation of the data shows that the main focus of the festival organizers is to work on the brand and the image of the event, involving the community. While low attention concerns the economic aspects of the organization and management of the event.

Table 5 lists several issues and reveals that almost all are considered strengths. Particularly, the highest rated strengths were "artistic proposal", "period of performance", "location", and "staff", while "ability to manage cash-flow" and "costs" were indicated as weaknesses. Probably, these points of weakness also explain why some festivals are no longer replicated over the years. In fact, the lack of economic resources is the main cause of survival of an event: often, the costs of organization are not properly covered by revenue. The results highlight how among all stakeholders, musicians are the one that receive the higher attention from festival organization, followed by staff.

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

Table 4. Stakeholder Strategies Employed and Perceived Degree of Success

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

Table 5. Strength and Weakness of the Music Festival

Conclusions

The survey has revealed how festivals are variegated and spread around all Italian regions. Therefore it was possible to find around 200 festivals focused on music and it may be that others exist. It is difficult to survey them because among many reasons, the most evident are that a national association does not exist, few of them work all year round, and many are not present on the web. Considering that in addition to music festivals, there are also many others who valorise other arts, it is evident that the phenomenon is even more important. Moreover, it is significant to emphasize that most of them are strongly connected with the local environment. Maybe, the main reasons of this relation are related to the specific anthropologic features of Italy. In fact, there are several examples where a festival principally represents a driver to support the aggregation and the identity of the local community. To sustain this thesis, there is the fact that many festivals are organized by cultural associations while the firms are in the minority. In this way, the festival becomes a tool for sustainable development of the area because it preserves and promotes the culture and society through the direct participation of local residents. Moreover, it can also contribute to the harmonious development of the local economy. In fact, the observed data shows how widespread the approach is to the music festival to promote other activities, most notably typi-

cal food. In our opinion, in Italy the time is ripe to consider festivals as tools in place marketing and tourism development. A fundamental role for the success of the event is played by the organizer. The results show the existence of different types of organizations whose structure become more complex the greater the number of festival editions. It is also evident that if the number of editions increases, also the overall complexity increases, as clearly evident in the case of revenue, expenditure and number of people involved.

The respondents claim to know and use management practices. This statement leads us to believe that the level of entrepreneurship is good despite the organizational structure not being too articulate.

In confirmation we report some findings. Many festivals use a strategic approach, and brand strategies play a key role. They recognize the importance of stakeholders in organizing the festival and in general they are also aware of their influence. In fact, they claim to have a network of relationships. Despite this statement, the results of the research show that the weight and frequency of the relationships are not so obvious.

The analysis of sources of funding shows that festivals are highly dependent on public and private funding. Furthermore, among the few weaknesses that they say to have, there is the low capability to manage cash flow and costs. Those factors highlight how important it is to deepen the knowledge about

the organization of the event in terms of human resource management, competencies and skills required, and the management tools. Those evidences suggest further researches in this context such as the creation of a general framework useful for researchers to monitor, to evaluate and to compare strategies of the events.

This frame will be also functional to the exigencies of festival's managers who may dispose of a strategic performance management tool for keeping track of the execution of activities.

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XVII CONGRESO INTERNACIONAL 21 – 23 Noviembre 2012

“La creación y desarrollo de productos turísticos: innovación y enfoque experiencial”

En la mañana del pasado 19 de enero y tras la reunión de la Asamblea General de AECIT reunida en Madrid en el marco de FITUR (Feria Internacional de Turismo) se hacía público que sería la villa orensana de O Carballiño la que acogerá entre el 21 y 23 de noviembre próximos el congreso anual de la entidad.

El Congreso tendrá como eje central la innovación y el nuevo turismo experiencial, constituyendo un marco de debate para profesionales y expertos nacionales e internacionales en esta nueva concepción del turismo que busca adaptar la oferta a las características del visitante. El nuevo cliente ha dejado de adquirir estancias en hotel y visitas a destinos y ahora persigue comprar experiencias e intermediación. En este novedoso entorno turístico la subjetividad domina completamente el viaje; el destino ha de proveer experiencias y emociones adaptadas al perfil del cliente.

El próximo mes de febrero se realizará la presentación oficial del Congreso en Santiago de Compostela, en un acto en el que estarán presentes todas las instituciones que se van a involucrar en la organización del mismo y con el que se abrirá el plazo de inscripción.

Toda la información sobre el congreso se podrá seguir a través de las red social twitter, donde se recogerán todas las novedades mediante la cuenta @aecit2012



@aecit2012

A longitudinal study of the residents' perceptions of tourism impacts using data from the sunshine coast Australia

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Abstract: This study investigates whether there has been a change in residents' perceptions of living and tourism impacts, on the Sunshine Coast, in 2009 from their perceptions of 2008. In 2009 more respondents reported that lifestyle and general pace of life were the key attractions of living on the Sunshine Coast. The results also demonstrate a significant increase in residents' perceptions that tourism is likely to have a positive impact on the cultural identity of the community. The study also found that between 2008 and 2009 there was a significant decrease in the residents' concerns regarding traffic congestion; noise and pollution; crime rates; destruction of the natural environment; and unpleasantly overcrowded beaches, and bush walking paths, parks and outdoor facilities in the community. The research, however, reveals no significant differences in the residents' perceptions of conservation of natural resources; creation of employment; and the possibility of having more cultural exchange between tourists and residents due to tourism. Overall, these findings are favourable for tourism-related stakeholders in developing future tourism plans for the region in that residents' appear to be more willing to support tourism development.

Keywords: Residents' perceptions; Tourism; Sunshine Coast; Surveys.

Título: Estudio longitudinal sobre las percepciones de los residentes de la Costa del Sol australiana sobre los impactos del turismo

Resumen: Este estudio investiga si ha habido un cambio de percepciones de los residentes de la Costa del Sol australiana sobre los impactos del turismo en el año 2009, comparándolo con el 2008. En el 2009 un mayor número de encuestados opinaron que el estilo y ritmo de vida son los principales atractivos del al Costa del Sol. Los resultados también demuestran un aumento significativo en las percepciones de los residentes sobre el impacto positivo del turismo en la identidad cultural de la comunidad. El estudio también encontró que entre el 2008 y el 2009 hubo una disminución significativa de las preocupaciones de los residentes con respecto al tráfico, el ruido y la contaminación, los índices de criminalidad, la des-trucción del medio ambiente, playas, rutas de senderismo, parques e instalaciones al aire libre. La investigación, sin embargo, no revela diferencias significativas en las percepciones de los residentes sobre la conservación de los recursos naturales, la creación de empleo y la posibilidad de tener un intercambio más cultural entre turistas y residentes. En general estos resultados son favorables para las partes interesadas en el desarrollo de planes de futuro para turismo en la región, ya que los residentes parecen dispuestos a apoyar el desarrollo turístico.

Palabras clave: Percepciones de los residentes; Turismo; Costa del Sol; Encuestas.

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Introduction

The tourism literature reveals that residents' attitudes toward tourism play an important role for sustainable management of tourist destinations (Sharma and Dyer, 2009a; Sharma et al., 2008; Inbakaran and Jackson, 2006; Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004; Andriotis, 2004; Gursoy et al., 2002; Teye et al., 2002). Therefore, much attention from tourism related scholars and researchers has resulted in a large number of articles in scholarly journals which have examined various aspects of tourism including its impacts on host communities and residents' attitudes toward tourism (eg. Brida et al., 2010; Vargas-Sanchez et al., 2009; Sharma and Dyer, 2009b; Wang and Pfister, 2008; Solberg and Preuss, 2007; Inbakaran and Jackson, 2006; Teye et al., 2002; Jones et al., 2000; Fredline and Faulkner, 2000; Carmichael et al., 1996; Caneday and Zeiger, 1991).

Involvement of residents in community decision making about tourism becomes helpful in influencing and shaping the way they perceive the impacts of tourism (Bonimy, 2008). Residents comprise the general members of the public, including business owners, service providers, and workers / employees who service tourists' needs and wants. It is necessary to assess the residents' perceptions of impacts from tourism on a periodic basis as the tourism-related activities can impact the residents' quality of life (Cecil et al., 2010). This also helps to keep the residents motivated to act as 'willing partners' in the tourism development process (Allen et al., 1988) and in identifying the impacts of tourism that could otherwise be overlooked (Mok et al., 1991). In promoting tourism, it is also important that visitors receive a high quality experience or a high level of satisfaction from their holiday along with other tourism experiences which are associated with visitors' perceptions of site-specific environmental conditions and standards. These include number of parking bays, signs, levels of littering, adequacy of human waste disposal, presence of wildlife, levels of noise, and access to beach, ocean and residents and other tourist facilities (Moore and Polley, 2007). Traffic congestion can become detrimental to both tourists and residents and negatively influence the host community's attitude towards tourism (Cros, 2008).

The findings of residents' surveys and visitors' surveys provide useful inputs to the relevant institutions in crafting or improving tourism related policies and strategies such as organising business/fun

events (e.g. Australian PGA championship; Triathlons at Mooloolaba and Noosa; Woodford folk festival; Kenilworth cheese, wine and food festival; Gympie's gold rush festival; Noosa winter festival; Sunshine Coast home show and caravan and camping expo), accommodation planning, developing new tourist destinations/attractions (e.g. Premier Golf adventures; Australia zoo; Noosa national park; Suncoast barra fishing park; Kondalilla falls national park; Maleny dairies; Rainbow beach houseboats), building and improving transportation networks, and planning and scheduling air traffic/ flights. Such developments can also change residents' attitudes to tourism thus determining their level of support for tourism activities over time. However, there is a limited number of studies available which have used a longitudinal approach in assessing residents' attitudes toward tourism or visitors' perceptions of site-specific conditions and standards (Sharma and Dyer, 2010; Huh and Vogt, 2008); hence this study.

Literature review

There is an increasing interest among tourism stakeholders (e.g researchers, planners, developers) in the possible contribution of tourism to the social and economic development of a region/country (Albalate and Bel, 2010). Yet, tourism development is also challenged on the grounds of possible cultural, and/or environmental degradation (Wayakone et al., 1998). It has also been observed that cities which lead the world rankings for tourist arrivals emphasise the importance of improving the public transport network as this is crucial for improving visitors' and residents' mobility whilst preventing further traffic congestion; local/city governments are actively involved to this end in order to maintain/grow tourists inflow in cities (Albalate and Bel, 2010). A study of Arnberger and Brandenburg (2007) discussed the possible link between on-site (area) experience and crowding perceptions of visitors based on a study of a National park in Austria. This is particularly important as congestion at tourist attractions can have a negative effect on tourists' preferences for particular destinations (Brau, 2008). This warrants consideration of, and attention to, crowd management (Heung et al., 2009). Tourist destinations can become overcrowded due to inadequate management of traffic, therefore, due attention should be accorded to anticipating and managing tourism related traffic (Dickinson and Dickinson, 2006).

Residents' beliefs and perceptions of tourism impacts influence whether or not they enjoy living in the tourist destination area. Positive perceptions of residents on social, economic and environmental impacts would lead to an increased level of willingness to support tourism and vice-versa (Inbakaran and Jackson, 2006). It is therefore, important that tourism planners develop an understanding of how the community perceives tourism to determine what they need to do to gain local support for strategic tourism related initiatives (Harrill, 2004). One way to gain local support for tourism is to involve people in the community decision-making process (Bonimy, 2008). In a separate study, using data from Folgaria in northern Italy, Brida et al. (2010) developed a basis for initiating a public participation process whereby they identified groups of people concerned about or opposed to tourism planning and development in their communities. Using cluster analysis based on positive and negative perceptions of tourism, residents were sorted into 'environmental supporters, development supporters, protectionists, and ambivalents' (Brida et al., 2010: 600). All these groups were influenced by employment in the tourism sector. Environmental supporters partially agree with the socio-cultural benefit of the tourism and the local and regional profitability of tourism but disapprove of the associated negative environmental impact. Development supporters, on the other hand, 'agree with the positive economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts and believe that tourism increases regional profitability' while the protectionist groups 'manifest disappointment with local, cultural and environmental impacts of tourism in the region' (Brida et al., 2010: 600). Ambivalent opinions were associated with the years of residence of the host community.

As discussed by Cecil et al. (2010), the community would enjoy a good quality of life if the local residents feel safe from crime, live in affordable and high quality housing, and have access to quality education and employment opportunities, avoiding some of the tourism impact elements. Some studies, however, have not found evidence of any relationship between levels of crime and tourism (Gibson and Bentley, 2007). Wang and Pfister (2008) argued that if the residents perceive that they receive personal benefits from tourism they are likely to lend their support to tourism. How residents perceive the costs and benefits of tourism is also linked with the people's socio-demographic make-up and experience with tourism (Yang and Chen, 2008). For example,

young adults are more likely to have a favourable attitude toward tourism's economic impacts than others (Huh and Vogt, 2008). Residents' attitude toward tourism is also affected by their highest education level and employment in the tourism industry (Andriotis and Vaughan, 2003).

In the Australian context, there is some notable research available which has focused on visitors' and host community reactions to tourism development (Moyle et al., 2010, Sharma et al., 2008, Moore and Polley, 2007, Fredline and Faulkner, 2000, Tideswell and Faulkner, 1999, and Tomljenovic and Faulkner, 2000). There is also some interest in the development of olive tourism (Alonso and Northcote, 2010) and wine tourism (Beames, 2003) in Australia. Other areas of research include unethical marketing practices in tourism (March, 2008), and 'blogosphere' as a market research tool for tourism destinations (Carson, 2008) among others. Most of these studies are based on case studies. Investigation of the relationship between residents' attitudes toward tourism and associated impacts, and demographic characteristics has led to mixed results (Sharma and Dyer, 2009b; Teye et al., 2002; Chen, 2000; Jones et al., 2000; Haralambopoulos and Pizam, 1996, Ritchie, 1988). There is, however, limited research that deals with the Sunshine Coast, a very popular tourist destination of Australia.

This study, therefore, focuses on the investigation of residents' perceptions of different aspects of living on the Coast and examination of differences in their attitudes towards tourism impacts between the years 2008 and 2009.

Research objectives

As discussed earlier, this study has the following objectives:

- To investigate whether there has been a change in the perceptions of residents on various aspects of living on the Sunshine Coast over a period of approximately 12 months.
- To examine whether the perceptions of residents pertaining to tourism impact items on the Sunshine Coast has significantly changed between 2008 and 2009.

Method

A survey approach was used for collecting data both in 2008 and 2009. The survey was divided into the following six segments: lifestyle; priority

issues; environment / tourism impacts; economy and money; perception of residents on the effect of Council amalgamation and demography; and open-ended questions on critical issues about living on the Sunshine Coast and critical issues that face the tourism industry on the Sunshine Coast. Originally there were 28 items in the questionnaire pertaining to tourism impacts. These were based on the items developed by Gursoy and Rutherford (2004), and were also used by Dyer *et al.*, (2007). They relate to positive or negative aspects of social, economic, and cultural dimensions; rating respondents' level of agreement on a 5-point scale (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree). Of the 28 tourism impact items only 10 key tourism impact items were selected for the 2008 survey and 15 items for the 2009 survey. Their relevance and importance were decided based on consultation with the survey sponsors, the Sunshine Coast Daily and Channel 7 (local television). Thus, the perceptions of Sunshine Coast residents regarding tourism development and its impacts focused on traffic congestion; employment; noise and pollution; the natural environment; overcrowding at leisure facilities and locations; crime rates; cultural exchange between tourists and residents; incentives for the conservation of natural resources; impact on the cultural identity of the community; and parks and recreational areas for residents. The survey was administered by the Sunshine Coast Daily (SCD). The survey was included in the daily circulation of the Sunshine Coast Daily to its regular customers, and also it was posted online in the 2008 survey. However, in 2009, the survey was carried out using entirely the online approach. The hard copy of the survey was not included in the daily circulation of the Sunshine Coast Daily. Consequently, the number of responses received was low in the 2009 survey. Altogether 1589 and 590 people participated in the survey in 2008 and 2009 respectively.

Various statistical techniques such as descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation and frequency analysis), and a 't' test were used to interrogate the data. To check for a possible response bias in the samples, mean scores for some of the items were compared for early respondents and late respondents using a 't' test. No significant difference was noted between these scores. This suggested that response bias was unlikely in the sample. The data were also checked for normality and the presence of outliers. For testing the data validity, correlation analysis of similar items in the question-

naire was carried out.

Results

Respondents' profile

Although there were 1589 responses in the 2008 survey, not all of them had completed all questions. The number of responses in 2009 was 585 but as in the case of 2008, all respondents did not complete all questions in the survey. In both surveys, nearly 99% of the respondents were Sunshine Coast residents and 0.9% were visitors. In terms of age, in both surveys over 55% of respondents were 55 years or more followed by 45-54 years. Nearly 56% of respondents were female in the 2008 survey and 60% in the 2009 survey. In both surveys over 35% of respondents had an annual household income of more than \$60,000. In terms of main occupation, 34.2% were in the 'other' category followed by 'professional' (23.7%), home duties (12.4%), small business owner (9.8%), administration (9.6%), trade (4.5%), and retired (3.1%), in the 2008 survey. The 'other' category included aged care worker, aged pensioner, artist tutor, carer, disability pensioner, health worker, investor, personal carer (nurse), and self-employed.

In the 2009 survey, 26.6% were in the 'other' category followed by professional category with 23.5%. Further, in the 2008 survey 39% of respondents had a University level of education, followed by secondary education (33.1%), Tertiary and further education (TAFE) (19.6%), and an apprenticeship (5.9%). In the 2009 survey, 36.1% of respondents had university qualification followed by secondary education (35.4%), and TAFE (21%). In terms of residency in 2008, the majority of respondents in both surveys were from Maroochy area (nearly 60%), followed by Caloundra and Noosa whereas in 2009 respondents tended to live in the coastal area. In both surveys over 40% of them had lived in the Sunshine Coast region for over 15 years. Table 1 shows the comparative profile of respondents in 2008 and 2009.

Responses to research objective 1: *To investigate whether there has been a change in the perceptions of residents on various aspects of living on the Sunshine Coast.*

In response to this objective, information was collected pertaining to various issues such as the residents' belief about the Coast in terms of living, their awareness of predicted population increase, their feelings about the predicted population growth, what they enjoy most about living on the

Particular	2008 Survey	2009 Survey
Gender	n=1564	n=582
Male	690 (44.1%)	231 (39.7%)
Female	874 (55.9%)	351 (60.3%)
Age	n=1584	n=589
Under 25 yrs	45 (2.8%)	11 (1.9%)
25-34 yrs	97 (6.1%)	27 (4.6%)
35-44 yrs	227 (14.3%)	61 (10.4%)
45-54 yrs	341 (21.5%)	160 (27.2%)
55 or more yrs	874 (55.2%)	330 (56.0%)
Annual household income	n=1542	n=566
Less than \$20,000	202 (13.1%)	67 (11.8%)
\$20,000 to < \$40,000	383 (24.8%)	134 (23.7 %)
\$40,000 to < \$60,000	415 (26.9%)	144 (25.4%)
More than \$60,000	542 (35.1%)	221 (39.1%)
Occupation	n=1564	n=519
Professional	376 (24.0%)	122 (23.5%)
Trade	71 (4.5%)	43 (8.3%)
Administrative	152 (9.7%)	59 (11.4%)
Labourer	22 (1.4%)	8 (1.5%)
Small Business Owner	155 (9.9%)	58 (11.2%)
Home Duties	197 (12.6%)	91 (17.5%)
Other	591 (37.8%)	138 (26.6%)
Education	n=1566	n = 587
University	611 (39.0%)	212 (36.1%)
TAFE	307 (19.6%)	123 (21%)
Apprenticeship	93 (5.9%)	35 (6%)
Secondary	519 (33.1%)	208 (35.4%)
Primary	36 (2.3%)	9 (1.5%)
Location of residence	n=1564	n=590
Rural area	314 (20.1%)	Coastal: 373 (63.2%)
Urban area	360 (23.0%)	Non-coastal: 207 (35.1%)
Suburban area	890 (56.9%)	Missing: 10 (1.7%)
Time lived on the Coast	n=1572	n=585
All my life	74 (4.7%)	36 (6.2%)
1-3 years	202 (12.9%)	64 (10.9%)
3-7 years	277 (17.6%)	93 (15.9%)
7-15 years	377 (24.0%)	151 (25.8%)
More than 15 years	642 (40.8%)	241 (41.2%)
Residence: Previous Council	n=1566	n=575
Noosa	184 (11.7%)	52 (9%)
Maroochy	942 (60.1%)	342 (59.5%)
Caloundra	440 (28.2%)	181 (31.5%)
Residency status of respondents	n=1582	n=587
Sunshine Coast resident	99.0%	98.6%
Visitor	0.9%	1.0%

Table 1. Respondents' Profile

Coast, whether Queensland should introduce daylight saving, and the most pressing employment based issues on the Coast (see Table 2).

Nearly 53% of the respondents indicated that they did not believe that the Coast was a better place to live now and 23% were unsure. There has been a dramatic increase in the proportion of people who thought 'lifestyle and general pace of life' was what they enjoyed most about living on the Coast (an increase from 32.3% in 2008 to 56.4% in 2009). There has been a drop, from 40.1% in 2008 to 32.4% in 2009, in the proportion of respondents who enjoyed scenic beauty, beaches and hinterland about living on the Coast. There are four eastern states in Australia: Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria and Tasmania. There is no daylight saving in Queensland as is the case in the other 3 eastern states. In response to whether Queensland should introduce daylight saving, in both surveys, over 50% of respondents supported daylight saving. However, there has been some drop in the proportion for support in 2009 (with 52.7%) as compared to 2008

survey (with 57.8%). Regarding the most pressing issue of employment on the Coast, nearly 45% of respondents in the 2008 survey, indicated a lack of senior management positions on the Coast, while in 2009 nearly 43% indicated that the key issue was the lack of employment options/job opportunities on the Coast.

Responses to research objective 2: *To examine whether Sunshine Coast residents' perceptions of tourism impact items have significantly changed between 2008 and 2009.*

The results showed few significant differences in the mean scores for the items considered in this study. The notable significant differences in the residents' perceptions are summarised below (see table 3 for details).

1. There was a significant increase in the level of agreement for the item "Tourism development is likely to create a positive impact on the cultural identity of the community" in 2009 over 2008. This is a favourable outcome.
2. Another favourable response in 2009 compared

Particular	2008 Survey	2009 Survey
Awareness of predicted population increase on the Coast	n=1580	n=585
Yes	61.1%	84.1%
No	38.9%	15.9%
Feelings about the predicted population growth	n=1589	n=589
Least concerned	3.9%	2.9%
Less concerned	3.8%	3.6%
Neutral	12.8%	14.1%
Somewhat concerned	26.1%	29.2%
Most concerned	51.9%	48.2%
Belief about the Coast being a better place to live		n=582
Yes		23.7%
No		53.1%
Unsure		23.2%
Enjoy most about living on the Coast	n=1463	n=510
Scenic beauty – beaches, hinterland etc.	40.1%	32.4%
Lifestyle and general pace of life	32.3%	56.5%
Job prospects and availability	10.1%	1.0%
Supporting infrastructure – roads, public transport etc.	4.0%	0.2%
Access to healthcare and education	1.0%	1.2%
Proximity to family and friends	1.4%	5.7%
Other	11.1%	3.0%
Should QLD introduce daylight saving	n=1558	n=569
Yes	57.8%	52.7%
No	42.2%	47.3%
Most pressing employment based issues on the Coast	n=1405	n=527
Lack of employment options/job opportunities	18.7%	42.7%
Significantly lower salary levels than metro cities	17.6%	15.4%
Lack of job diversity on the coast	18.9%	21.1%
Lack of senior management opportunities	44.8%	4.2%
Lack of part time/casual roles	-	3.8%
Other	-	12.8%

Table 2. : Respondents' perceptions of population size, living on the Coast, employment based issues on the Coast

Tourism impact items	2009 Survey			2008 Survey			t' value
	Mean ¹ (SD) [n]	% who agree and strongly agree ²	% who disagree and strongly disagree ³	Mean (SD) [n]	% who agree and strongly agree	% who disagree and strongly disagree	
Tourism development is likely to provide an incentive for the conservation of natural resources.	3.36 (1.36) [579]	54.7	29.7	3.31 (1.40) [1558]	53.8	32.7	-0.79
Tourism is a key industry that provides essential jobs in the region.	4.5 (0.97) [585]	89.2	6.2	4.43 (0.99) [1572]	88.3	6.9	-1.54
Tourism is likely to result in more cultural exchange between tourists and residents.	3.58 (1.20) [587]	57.2	19.3	3.51 (1.21) [1563]	55.8	21.2	-1.15
Tourism development is likely to create positive impact on the cultural identity of your community.	3.40 (1.28) [585]	50.4	24.8	3.25 (1.27) [1561]	45.2	28.3	-2.47*
Tourism development is likely to provide more parks and other recreational areas for local residents.	3.21 (1.35) [582]	47.3	35.1	3.09 (1.36) [1567]	44.4	37.6	-1.8†
Tourism is likely to result in traffic congestion.	4.32 (1.06) [587]	83.3	8.5	4.46 (1.01) [1570]	86.3	6.3	2.86**
Tourism is likely to result in noise and pollution.	3.88 (1.19) [581]	67.1	14.5	4.07 (1.16) [1570]	73.9	11.9	3.42**
Tourism is likely to increase the crime rate.	3.42 (1.30) [582]	50	28.2	3.56 (1.27) [1569]	54.2	21.8	2.30*
Construction of hotels and other tourist facilities are likely to destroy the natural environment.	3.66 (1.27) [585]	60.7	21.5	3.84 (1.32) [1571]	66.9	19.4	2.91**
Tourism is likely to result in unpleasantly overcrowded beaches, bush walking paths, parks and other outdoor places in your community.	3.49 (1.30) [576]	55.6	26.2	3.73 (1.28) [1569]	63	20.1	3.80***

Note: * stands for $p < 0.05$, ** for $p < 0.01$ and *** for $p < 0.001$ and † for $p < 0.10$.

¹ Mean of five point scale: 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. SD = Standard Deviation and n = sample size

² Combination of 4 and 5 on a five-point scale

³ Combination of 1 and 2 on a five-point scale

Table 3. Test of Difference in Residents' Responses on Tourism Impact Items

- to 2008 related to the observation that "Tourism is likely to provide more parks and other recreational areas for local residents".
- There was a significant reduction in the level of agreement that "Tourism is likely to result in traffic congestion" and "Tourism is likely to result in noise and pollution". This is perhaps due to the construction of new roads and upgrading of existing roads in recent times.
 - There has also been a decrease in the residents' level of agreement in 2009 compared to 2008 in the following items: 1) tourism is likely to increase the crime rate, 2) construction of hotels and other tourist facilities are likely to destroy
 - the natural environment, and 3) tourism is likely to result in unpleasantly overcrowded beaches, bush walking paths, parks and other outdoor places in the community. These changes in residents' perceptions are favourable in terms of gaining support for further development of tourism activities on the Coast.
 - In 2009 data were recorded for five extra tourist impact items such as "tourism is likely to attract more investment to the community", "high spending tourists are likely to affect negatively our way of living", "the cost of developing facilities is too much", "tourism is likely to provide more business for local people and small

business", and "local residents are likely to suffer from living in tourism destination". Comparative analyses cannot be carried out for these at this time.

6. No significant difference in the residents' perceptions was found between 2008 and 2009 for the following tourism impact items: 1) tourism development is likely to provide an incentive for the conservation of natural resources, 2) tourism is a key industry that provides essential jobs in the region, and 3) tourism is likely to result in more cultural exchange between tourists and residents.

Discussion

This study identified changes as perceived by the Sunshine Coast residents on various aspects of living on the Coast and also investigated the difference in residents' perceptions of tourism impacts between 2008 and 2009. In spite of using similar approaches for collecting the information in 2008 and 2009 surveys, some demographic differences were noted between these samples. This difference is perhaps explained by the ongoing growth of population on the coast affecting the collective character of the community. It could also perhaps be because of difference in the set of respondents in completing the survey. This should be taken into account when making decisions based on these findings.

In response to the first research objective, it is suggested that the proportion of people who perceive the Coast to be a better place to live is fewer than half of the respondents who perceive the Coast not to be a better place to live now. These findings warrant further investigation to determine expectations in order to develop the Coast such that it becomes more attractive not only for the tourists but also for the local residents. In the 2009 survey, a slight majority of respondents (56.5%) indicated lifestyle and general pace of life as the key aspect they enjoyed most about living on the Coast. This is a significant increase from the 2008 survey (32.3%). The scenic beauty such as beaches and the hinterland were considered to be the key aspects that the residents enjoyed about living on the Coast in 2008 (40.1%), but this decreased to 32.4% in 2009. The day light saving has been another topic of debate in Queensland. The results indicate that the support for the introduction of daylight saving has gone down to 52.7% in 2009 from 57.8% in 2008. The survey had also collected information on residents' awareness

about predicted population increase on the Coast. The results suggest that the level of awareness has significantly increased in 2009 to 84.1% from 61.1% in 2008. However, in terms of respondents' feelings about the predicted population growth, the level of concern has more or less remained the same. In terms of the most pressing employment based issues on the Coast, nearly 45% indicated that a lack of senior management opportunities was the major issue in 2008 whereas the 2009 survey indicated that a lack of employment options or job opportunities was the most pressing employment based issue on the Coast.

In response to the second research objective, a 't' test was carried out for the 10 common tourism impact items considered in this study. The results indicated significant differences in perceptions of residents in seven items with different levels of significance as indicated in table 3. For example, there was a significant difference in 1 item at a p-value of less than 0.001, 3 items at a p-value of less than 0.01, 2 items at a p-value of 0.05 level and 1 item at a p-value of 0.10. The residents' perceptions of tourism impacts are encouraging for the tourism planners and developers for seeking support for tourism as residents appeared more favourable towards tourism in 2009 compared to those in 2008. For example, there is a decrease in their level of agreement in possible traffic congestion, noise and pollution, and increase in crime rates in 2009 from that of 2008. However, residents' perceptions of tourism's role in providing essential jobs, proving incentive for the conservation of natural resources, and the possibility of having more cultural exchange between tourists and residents have remained unchanged. There is a need to carry out another survey to monitor residents' attitudes in the five new items added in 2009. Generally, it is necessary to continue to receive support from local residents for tourism to inform and assist the relevant tourism institutions, local government authorities, planners and developers decision making, thus it is important to monitor such information on an on-going basis to address the concerns of local residents when making strategic interventions. Also, this research highlights the dynamism of residents' perceptions which are influenced by changing circumstances from year to year at a local level. Regular monitoring is important to elucidate these nuances.

The study has the following limitations: 1) difference in the sample size between the years (2008 and 2009) and 2) the difference in the data collection

techniques used in 2008 and 2009. As discussed earlier in the 'Methods' section, in the 2009 survey the data collection was based on the online approach whereas in the 2008 survey, along with online posting, a hard copy of the survey was included in the daily circulation of the Sunshine Coast Daily. This could have resulted in sample bias (web-user vs. the people having access to the newspaper through various other formats/modes).

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Travel motivations, behavior and requirements of European senior tourists to Thailand

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Abstract: The purposes of this research were to examine the travel motivations and travel behavior of European senior tourists in Thailand, and to analyze the importance and satisfaction of their travel requirements regarding accommodation, accessibility, attractions, amenities and public services. Questionnaires were used to collect data from 430 European senior tourists aged over 55 years traveling in Thailand. Thirty-seven in-depth interviews were also conducted to gain the perspectives of many stakeholders from both public and private sectors. Besides quantitative and qualitative analysis, Importance-Performance Analysis was conducted. Research findings showed that the principal travel motivations of sampled senior European tourists were rest and relaxation. The majority of respondents had traveled to Thailand for the first time and intended to stay in Thailand for 15 days or more for leisure and sightseeing activities. Three major requirements of European senior tourists were safety of the destination, location of accommodation, and presence of natural attractions. The result of this research suggests potential policies and measures for public and private sector development.

Keywords: Senior European tourist; Travel behavior; Motivation and requirements; Thailand.

Título: Motivaciones, comportamiento y requerimientos de turistas senior europeos de viaje por Tailandia

Resumen: Los objetivos de esta investigación fueron examinar las motivaciones y el comportamiento de los turistas senior europeos de viaje por Tailandia y analizar la importancia y satisfacción de sus necesidades de viaje con respecto al alojamiento, accesibilidad, atracciones e instalaciones y servicios públicos. Se utilizaron cuestionarios para recopilar datos de 430 turistas Europeos senior de más de 55 años que viajaban por Tailandia. También se llevaron a cabo treinta y siete entrevistas en profundidad para obtener la perspectiva de las partes interesadas del sector público y privado. Además del análisis cuantitativo y cualitativo se llevó a cabo un análisis de importancia-rendimiento. Los resultados de la investigación demuestran que las motivaciones principales de viaje de los turistas europeos senior incluyen descanso y relajación. La mayoría de los encuestados viajaba a Tailandia por primera vez con la intención de permanecer en el país durante 15 días o más, por ocio y turismo. Tres requisitos principales de los turistas europeos senior son la seguridad del destino, el lugar de alojamiento y la presencia de atractivos naturales. El resultado de esta investigación sugiere posibles medidas políticas para el desarrollo público y privado del sector.

Palabras clave: Turista senior europeo; Comportamiento de viaje; Motivación y necesidades; Tailandia.

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Introduction

Dramatic improvements in health care and life expectancy have produced rapid growth in the world's senior population. At the end of the twentieth century, 11 percent of the world's population was aged 60 or above, and it is estimated that 20 percent will be 60 years or older by 2050 (United Nations Population Division, 1998, cited in Hall, 2006:12-13). In fewer than 20 years, fully one third of the population of Japan and Germany will be 60 or older. More than a quarter of the population of France, the United Kingdom and the Republic of Korea will fall into the same pattern (Dann, 2001; World Tourism Organization, 2005:13).

The aging population in many industrialized countries draws attention from the tourism industry mainly because of its substantial size, increasing purchasing power and more time available for travel after retirement. Seniors often have higher levels of discretionary income due to accumulation of lifetime income and pensions (You and O'Leary, 1999; Bai et al., 2001). The longer lifespan and greater numbers of seniors who are educated, healthy and self-sufficient members of society, together with larger discretionary income, may encourage them to participate in society and leisure activities such as overseas travel (Sellick and Muller, 2004). Furthermore, time flexibility after retirement makes the senior market more attractive to tourism businesses that suffer from seasonal demand fluctuations (Jang and Wu, 2006). The senior market has been thus cited as one of the most important consumer segments of the tourism industry. (Shoemaker, 2000; Bai et al., 2001; Horneman et al., 2002; Jang and Wu, 2006).

Thailand is one of the most popular tourist destinations in Southeast Asia because of its diverse nature, rich culture and friendly people. Thailand's tourism experienced continued growth except for a small decline in 2009 due to various internal and external disruptive factors. In 2007, international tourism arrivals reached 14.4 million, representing a growth of 2%, and international tourism receipts reached US\$ 15.5 million (Ministry of Tourism and Sports, 2008). The tourism industry represented 14.1 percent of the GDP and created over 3.9 million jobs, representing 10.6 % of total employment in 2008 (World Economic Forum, 2009). The Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) has recognized the international senior travel market as a potential growth segment; nevertheless, the number of inbound senior tourists has not expanded rapidly

(TAT, 2006). In 2007, international tourism arrivals aged 55 or above increased from 2,119,675 in 2006 to 2,259,161 in 2007, representing 15.3% and 15.6% of total international tourists, respectively (Immigration Bureau, 2008). European tourists represent the second largest group of inbound tourists, after East Asian tourists. However, their average length of stay in Thailand is the longest—15.26 days in 2007—and almost three times longer than those of East Asian tourists, which has a significant effect on tourist expenditure

Objectives of the study

Understanding seniors' travel motivations and behavior is fundamental to travel businesses that compete for this potential growth market (Crompton, 1979; Jang and Wu, 2006). Numerous research projects on travel motivation and behavior have been conducted in order to understand and to better satisfy the needs of senior tourists (Backman *et al.*, 1999; Cleaver *et al.*, 1999; Sellick and Muller, 2004; Huang and Tsai, 2003; Jang and Wu, 2006; Hsu *et al.*, 2008). The travel motivation of Japanese senior travelers to Thailand has been examined recently (Sangpikul, 2008); nevertheless, little attention has been devoted to understanding the European senior tourist market in Thailand. Therefore, this study examines the travel motivations and travel behavior of European senior tourists in Thailand, and analyzes the importance and satisfaction of travel requirements of European senior tourists in five tourism components in Thailand, including accommodation, accessibility, attractions, amenities and public services. Understanding the travel requirements of senior tourists will be useful for travel planners and marketers to design specific market strategies and to adapt tourist products to the potential needs of senior tourists.

Literature review

Seniors' travel motivations

Motivation is a state of need or a condition that drives an individual toward certain types of action that are seen as likely to bring satisfaction (Moutinho, 2000). Motivation has also been defined as a force within an individual that causes him or her to do something to fulfill a biological need or psychological desire (Fridgen, 1996). Travel motivation relates to why people travel (Hsu and Huang,

2008). Motivations for travel cover a broad range of human behaviors and human experiences. A list of travel motivations might include: relaxation, excitement, social interactions with friends, adventure, family interactions, status, physical challenges, and escape from routine or stress. Pearce (1982) applied Maslow's hierarchy to tourist motivation and behavior, and argued that tourists were attracted to destinations because of the possibility of fulfilling self-actualization, love and belongingness, and physiological needs.

There are several related studies that help understanding of seniors' travel motivations. Cleaver et al. (1999) stated that the senior market is not homogeneous and identified seven senior tourist segments, which they labeled according to motivation: Nostalgics, Friendlies, Learners, Escapists, Thinkers, Status-Seekers, and Physicals. Backman et al. (1999) identified differences and similarities between younger (55 to 64) and older seniors (65 or older). Their study revealed that younger senior travelers were more interested in relaxation and leisure activities while older seniors were interested in educational or natural attractions. Fleischer and Pizam (2002) reviewed previous studies and reported that seniors' most common travel motivations were rest and relaxation, social interaction, physical exercise, learning, nostalgia, and excitement. Likewise, Horneman et al. (2002) found that seniors' motivations were shifting toward more active pursuits with a strong focus on health and fitness and concluded that the most frequently identified motivations for Australian seniors were education/learning, rest/relaxation, physical exercise/fitness and visiting friends and relatives. More recently, Huang and Tsai (2003) reviewed previous studies and indicated that travel motivation can be classified into rest and relaxation, social interaction, health, learning, exploration, escape, value for money, nostalgia and the opportunity to visit historical sites. In addition, Jang and Wu (2006) examined the travel motivations of Taiwanese seniors and identified knowledge-seeking and cleanliness and safety as the most important push and pull motivations, respectively.

Senior Tourist Profiles and Requirements

An examination of previous literature took note of many studies on senior travelers' profiles, preferences, and requirements. To identify seniors' traveler profiles, Anderson and Langmeyer (1982) ex-

amined two senior groups and reported that both over-50 and under-50 groups are likely to take pleasure trips for rest and relaxation and for visiting family and relatives, but over-50 groups are more likely to visit historical sites. Javalgi et al. (1992) revealed that non-seniors are a better-educated group than seniors and are more likely to engage in a detailed information search process before making a purchase decision. Seniors are more likely to buy trip packages covering both transportation and accommodation. Zimmer et al. (1995) focused on characteristics of older adults who travel and claimed that age, education, and mobility problems were the most critical discriminating variables between travelers and non-travelers.

Some tourism researchers examined senior travelers' preferences. Koss (1994) stated that senior travelers want hotel packages and promotions that are exciting, creative, and value-oriented. Bai et al. (2001) investigated preferences among British, German and Japanese seniors and found that the number of people in travel parties and the length of the trip were significant when all three groups chose package tours. Hsu (2001) argued that the reputation of tour operators and seniors' health and safety concerns were most important. Baloglu and Shoemaker (2000) claimed that senior travelers' decisions to take motor coach tours could be predicted from their demographic, psychological, and psychographic characteristics. In addition, Lindqvist and Bjork (2000) noted that senior tourists showed that perceived safety was an important factor in their decision making whose perceived importance increases as the tourist grows older.

Senior Tourist Behavioral Patterns

Many studies have focused on examining senior traveler's behavior patterns. Shoemaker (1989) surveyed Pennsylvania seniors on travel behavior and reasons for travel and segmented the senior market into three sub-groups that he called 'family travelers', 'active resters' and the 'older set'. Romsa and Blenman (1989) noted vacation patterns of elderly Germans, examining modes of travel, destinations, length of vacation, accommodations, popularity activities and vacation memories. Huang and Tsai (2003) discovered that Taiwanese senior travelers do not want to join typical all-inclusive package tours. They want a more elegant, less regimented itinerary and demand quality tour content and services. Littrell (2004) examined tourism activities

and shopping behaviors of senior travelers. In that study, travel activities included outdoors, cultural, and sports and entertainment tourism. Tourist profiles differed based on the likelihood of shopping at retail venues, preferred shopping mall characteristics and sources of shopping information.

Motivation is a state of need condition that drives an individual toward certain types of action that are seen as likely to bring satisfaction (Moutinho, 2000). Motivation is also defined as a force within an individual that causes him or her to do something to fulfill a biological need or psychological desire (Fridgen, 1996). Travel motivation relates to why people travel (Hsu and Huang, 2008). Motivations for travel cover a broad range of human behaviors and experiences. A list of these motivations might include: relaxation, excitement, social interactions with friends, adventure, family interactions, status, physical challenges, and escape from routine or stress. Pearce (1982) applied Maslow's hierarchy to tourist motivation and behavior, and argued that tourists were attracted to destinations because of the possibility of fulfilling self-actualization, love and belongingness, and physiological needs.

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ey, nostalgia and the opportunity to visit historical sites. In addition, Jang and Wu (2006) examined the travel motivations of Taiwanese seniors and identified knowledge-seeking and cleanliness and safety as the most important push and pull motivations, respectively.

Methodology

This research was carried out through a three-stage process. Firstly, an extensive review of literature focusing on senior tourist motivations, behavior and travel requirements was conducted to identify travel motivations and behavioral patterns performed by senior tourists. The motivations, travel behavior and requirements frequently cited in literature were selected to be included in questionnaire items.

In the second stage of the research, a questionnaire was developed to collect quantitative data. The questionnaire instrument consisted of five parts. The first part dealt with personal characteristics of the respondents. The second part included questions of travel behavior and trip characteristics. The third part was designed to gather opinions on travel motivations. Senior tourists were asked to give opinions on a five-point Likert scale (1- strongly disagree to 5 - strongly agree). The fourth part included 17 attributes of travel requirements for which senior tourists were asked to rate the perceived importance of each of the attributes in considering their destination selection. These 17 attributes covered major tourism components of destination selection, including accommodation, accessibility, attractions amenities and public services. A five-point Likert scale was used to measure the importance variables (1 - very unimportant to 5 - very important). The final part covered 17 attributes of travel requirements for which senior tourists were asked to rate the satisfaction of performance of each of the attributes after travelling in Thailand. Content validity of these questionnaire items was evaluated by two tourism professionals and two faculty members from a tourism business school. Subsequently, a pilot test was conducted to assess how well the research instrument captured the constructs it was supposed to measure and to test the comprehension of the questionnaire items. Reliability of these questionnaire items was assessed by calculating Cronbach's alpha coefficients. The result of the reliability test was at 0.9354, which meant that the questionnaire was reliable as an instrument for data collection. To

increase a variety of international respondents, the questionnaire was translated into French as well.

The samples for this study were 400 senior tourists, aged 55 years and over who were travelling in Thailand. Using a convenience sampling method, data were collected through a self-administered questionnaire at major tourist destinations, including Bangkok, Chiangmai, Phuket, Pattaya and Hua-Hin in 2009. Out of 600 questionnaires distributed, 467 surveys were collected, of which 37 were discarded due to a large numbers of missing values. A total of 430 questionnaires were used for the data analysis. Statistical tools employed for descriptive analysis were frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation; and those for inferential statistical analysis were t-test, F-test, and least significant difference. Importance-Performance Analysis was also conducted.

Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) is a practical technique used for understanding two dimensions of customer attributes: perceived importance and performance level. Since Martilla and James (1977) first introduced IPA to the marketing literature, it has been an effective tool used by researchers in various industries, including service-based industries, such as tourism, spa, and hotel and food services (Farnum and Hall, 2007; Jang *et al.*, 2009; Zhang and Chow, 2004; Koh *et al.*, 2010).

Finally, an interview was developed as a method to collect qualitative data from major stakeholders, both public and private. These in-depth interviews focused on vital contexts of the European senior tourist market, and provided an assessment of strengths and weaknesses of managing tourism resources, facilities and services for the European senior market. Using a purposive sampling method, the key informants were contacted by phone for a brief interview to explain the purpose of the study. The research interview questions were then sent through e-mail or by post. After each interview, a record was transcribed, responses were coded and tentative categories were generated (Patton, 1990). A total of thirty-seven in-depth interviews were conducted, including 8 key informants from public sectors, such as policy planners from the Ministry of Tourism and Sports and the Tourism Authority of Thailand. Twenty-nine key informants were from various tourist-related businesses, such as tour operators, hotels, hospitals, spa operators and tourism trade associations. The length of these interviews varied from 35 minutes to 1 hour with an average of 51.48 minutes per interview.

Results

Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Demographic characteristics	Number of respondents	Percentage
Gender		
Male	280	65.12
Female	150	34.88
Age		
55-59	198	46.05
60-64	121	28.14
65 and older	111	25.81
Education		
Elementary	38	8.83
High school	113	26.28
Technical/vocational	73	16.98
College/university degree	143	33.26
Graduate degree	63	14.65
Marital status		
Single	77	17.91
Married	291	67.67
Widowed	24	5.58
Divorced	38	8.84
Health status		
Excellent	173	40.23
Good	221	51.40
Fair	28	6.51
Poor	8	1.86
Employment		
Work full-time	173	40.23
Work part-time	64	14.89
Retired more than one year	134	31.16
Retired 1 year or less	43	10.00
Unemployed	16	3.72
Economic status		
Very abundant	43	10.00
Abundant	168	39.07
Enough	206	47.91
A little difficult	13	3.02
Income source		
Pension	142	33.02
Work/own savings	270	62.79
Children's support	4	0.93
Relatives or friend's support	8	1.86
Social benefits	6	1.40
Hobbies and interests		
Reading	273	63.49
Watching TV	181	42.09
Planting	96	22.33
Listening to music	166	38.60
Travel	325	75.58
Sporting	178	41.40
Watching movie	142	33.02

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the respondents (N = 430)

The table shows that 65.12% of the respondents were male. Nearly half of the respondents (46.05%) were between age 55 and 59; 28.14% were between 60 and 64 and 25.81% were age 65 or older. 33.26% of the respondents had earned bachelor's degrees.

Travel motivations	Mean	Std. Dev.
Rest and relaxation	4.13	1.02
Visit to new places	3.97	1.07
Learn and experience new things	3.96	0.99
Get away from stress	3.80	1.19
Escape from day-by-day activities	3.69	1.18
Meet people and socialization	3.64	1.02
Improve health and well-being	3.60	1.00
Take challenge/experience an adventure	3.59	1.05
Seek intellectual enrichment	3.48	1.09
Exercise physically	3.10	1.09
Visit family and friends	2.98	1.44

Table 2. Travel motivations ($N = 430$)

Attributes	Mean	Std. Dev.
Safety of the destination	4.19	0.99
Location of accommodation	4.02	1.06
Natural attractions	4.01	0.94
Price of inclusive packages/hotels	3.99	0.98
Variety of suitability of food and beverage	3.97	0.91
Easy accessibility of destination	3.94	0.95
Historical attractions	3.84	0.96
Cultural attractions	3.82	0.95
Local transportation	3.80	0.93
Convenient immigration and customs procedure	3.73	1.05
Availability of medical facilities	3.73	1.04
Infrastructure	3.71	0.98
Service quality of travel agents	3.70	1.13
Service quality of tour leaders and tour guide	3.64	1.13
Hotel accessibility and disability features	3.41	1.18
Special events and festivals	3.40	0.99
Leisure activities	3.15	1.13

Table 3. Importance of tourism attributes of travel requirements ($N= 430$)

Over two-thirds of the respondents (67.67%) were married. 40.23% worked part-time and 62.79% had their own savings as their income source. Half of the respondents identified self-perceived health status as 'good' (51.40%) and self-perceived economic status as 'enough' (47.91%). 27.67% were British while 17.21% were Dutch and 13.72% were German; the remaining 41.4% were nationals of assorted other European countries.

For travel motivations, research findings in Table 2 showed that the three principal travel motivations of sampled European senior tourists were rest and relaxation (mean = 4.13), visits to new places (3.97) and learning and experiencing new things (3.96).

As for travel behavior, the result showed that the majority of respondents (41.40%) traveled to Thai-

land for the first time, whereas 31.86% had visited Thailand more than 4 times. More than half of the respondents (58.37%) planned to stay in Thailand for 15 days or more. Most of them traveled with their spouse (54.42%), and arranged their trip by themselves (45.34%). They visited Bangkok (59.77%), Chiang Mai (40.93%) and Phuket (34.88%). The major reason to visit Thailand was friendly people (72.79%). The major intended activity was leisure and sightseeing (72.56%). Half of the respondents preferred to stay in a 4-star hotel (47.67%), and used a car to travel around Thailand (41.86%). The major source of information was family and friends (46.74%). Their estimated daily expenditure was below US\$ 100 (41.86%) and 23.25% estimated between US\$ 100-120. The largest number of re-

Attributes	Mean	Std. Dev.
Safety of the destination	4.10	0.95
Location of accommodation	4.09	0.86
Natural attractions	4.05	0.81
Price of inclusive packages/hotels	4.03	0.94
Variety of suitability of food and beverage	4.01	0.86
Easy accessibility of destination	3.98	0.88
Historical attractions	3.98	0.89
Cultural attractions	3.96	0.88
Local transportation	3.90	0.93
Convenient immigration and customs procedure	3.82	0.97
Availability of medical facilities	3.81	0.95
Infrastructure	3.81	0.91
Service quality of travel agents	3.79	1.03
Service quality of tour leaders and tour guide	3.77	1.05
Hotel accessibility and disability features	3.69	0.97
Special events and festivals	3.68	0.94
Leisure activities	3.52	0.94

Table 4. Satisfaction of tourism attributes of travel requirements ($N= 430$)

spondents preferred to visit Thailand in January (33.49%). Almost all of the respondents (88.60%) will revisit Thailand while 52.32% will revisit in the same year. Besides Thailand, 39.53% of the respondents would most like to visit Vietnam.

A total of 430 respondents were surveyed and asked to rate the perceived importance of each of the 17 attributes of travel requirements in considering their destination selection. Table 3 shows that among respondents' travel requirements, safety of the destination was indicated as the most important (mean = 4.19), followed by 'location of accommodation' (4.02), and 'natural attractions' (4.01).

Likewise, Table 4 shows that the three top satisfactions of their travel requirements were safety of the destination (4.10), location of accommodation (4.09), and natural attractions (4.05). Moreover, F-test and t-test indicated that differences in gender, age, education, employment, and health status of the respondents were significant factors in determining travel requirements.

In this study, IPA (Martilla and James, 1977) is used to analyze importance and satisfaction level of five tourism components of Thailand (17 attributes). In applying IPA to the current study, mean tourist ratings of importance and performance across 17 attributes are plotted against each other, and the resulting importance-performance (IP) space is divided into four quadrants. Figure 1 shows the results of IPA. Quadrant 1 top left (Concentration Here) represents highly important factors with low levels

of service satisfaction. No factor that requires such high-priority improvements has been found. Quadrant 2 top right (Keep up the Good Work) represents important factors with a high level of satisfaction. Nine factors were found, including the location of the accommodation, the price of inclusive packages or hotels, the variety and suitability of food and beverages, easy accessibility to destinations, local transportation, natural attractions, historical attractions, cultural attractions, and safety of the destination. Thailand must thus maintain high service quality of these attributes in order to guarantee continued satisfaction. Quadrant 3 bottom left (Low Priority) represents factors that registered low levels of importance and low levels of satisfaction. Eight factors were found, including hotel accessibility and disability features, convenient immigration formalities and customs, special events and festivals, the service quality of travel agents, leisure activities, availability of medical facilities, and infrastructure. Although these factors ranked as low priority, some factors were close to the average mean. Thailand should consider giving priority to some of these areas. Finally, quadrant 4 bottom right (Possible Overkill) represents factors with low importance but high levels of satisfaction. The result showed no factors in this quadrant.

Furthermore, the in-depth interviews were conducted to investigate vital contexts of senior tourist market, and an assessment of strengths and weaknesses of tourism resources, facilities and services

for European senior market. Various key informants identified some fundamental contexts of European senior market in Thailand as shown in Table 5. Results from qualitative data pointed out significant strengths and weaknesses of managing tourism resources, facilities and services for European senior tourists in Thailand as shown in Table 6.

Subsequently, results from interviews revealed that senior European tourists can be classified into three groups. The first group consists of senior tourists between ages 55 and 65 who are still working and often visit Thailand for leisure purposes for two weeks in winter. Members of this group may also buy package tours and visit Thailand for the first time. The second group is made up of retired senior tourists age 65 and older that usually travel to Thailand and stay for one to two months. They prefer to stay in 3 to 4 star hotels—often the same hotels every time. The hotel should be in town where supermarkets, restaurants, hospitals are in proximity. Lastly, long-stay senior tourists usually stay for 2 – 3 months in self-catering accommodations.

Some travel to Thailand for medical treatment. Most senior European tourists travel to Thailand because of the friendly people, sun-sea-sand attrac-

tions, local culture, warm climate, good food, value for money and high standard of medical care. The major problem of servicing senior tourists identified by key informants were communication (language) problems, lack of facilities for the disabled in public areas, lack of foreign language road signs, expensive local transport, short-term visa issues, and safety standards for transportation.

Discussion and recommendations

Comparative studies relating to travel motivations and behavior of senior tourists have been undertaken mostly in America and Europe. Some studies focused on Taiwanese senior travelers. Very little attention has been devoted to understanding the European senior tourists in Thailand. During the last decade, the number of European senior tourists in Thailand has not been increased significantly even though Tourism Authority of Thailand has recognized and attempted to promote this growing market. The travel behavior results revealed that 41.4% of respondents visited Thailand for the first time while 31.86 % who were from affluent western countries, have visited Thailand more than

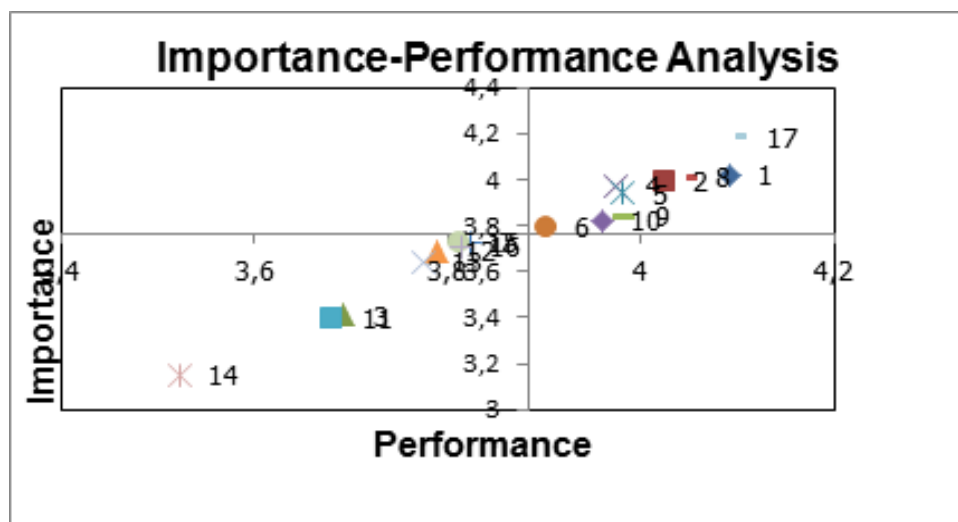


Figure 1. Importance Performance Analysis

Notes: 1 = location of accommodation; 2 = price of inclusive packages/hotels; 3 = hotel accessibility; 4 = variety and suitability of food and beverage; 5 = easy accessibility to destination; 6 = local transportation; 7 = convenient immigration and customs procedure; 8 = natural attractions; 9 = historical attractions; 10 = cultural attractions; 11 = special events and festivals; 12 = service quality of travel agent; 13 = service quality of tour leader and tour guide; 14 = leisure activities; 15 = availability of medical facilities; 16 = infrastructure; 17 = safety of destination.

Key informants	Contexts of European senior market
Tour operators	Most European senior tourists visiting Thailand are in middle level of income but like to go abroad once to twice a year for leisure purposes and escape from cold winter for sun-sea-sand. They can be classified into 3 groups: (1) Age between 55-65 who are still employed but take vacation for 2 weeks in Thailand during their winter. (2) Age 65 and over that are retired and often travel to Thailand and stay for 1-2 months. (3) Long stay group who buy or rent a self-catering accommodation in Chiangmai or Hua-Hin for 2-3 months.
Hotels	Most European senior tourists come to Thailand with their spouses. They like to rest and relaxation and enjoy tranquility and being pampered by Thai people in a tropical climate destination. They love the sea and wish to learn some local wisdom and culture.
TAT	Senior tourists from Nordic and Baltic countries are more male (55%) between age 55 and 70. Most of them are married, healthy and working as middle level of employees or businessmen. Their major source of income comes from business and social welfare.
Tourism association	Senior tourists who are in middle level of income would like to visit Thailand for leisure and cultural activities. Some are employed while some have been retired.
Hospitals	Most of retired senior tourists like to visit Thailand. They are affluent and afford to pay their medical expenses by themselves. They expect high level of medical services from the hospitals.
Spa operators	European senior tourists enjoy beauty of nature, outdoor weather and like to use spa services. They often visit for spa treatment for a few hours.

Table 5. Vital contexts of European senior market in Thailand

4 times. This showed that more than one-third of the respondents were repeated visitors due to our friendly people and slightly higher number of respondents is first time visitors who perhaps have been recommended to visit Thailand by their family and/or friends. Besides Thailand, 39.53% of the respondents would most like to visit Vietnam. More emerging destinations have developed and become very competitive to Thailand in the near future.

From the findings of this research, it is clear that travel motivations of the respondents are rest and relaxation (4.13), visits to new places (3.97) and learning and experiencing new things (3.96). Anderson and Langmeyer's (1982), Fleischer and Pizam's (2002), Horneman et al.'s (2002) studies of senior travel motivation are similar. Rest and relaxation is one of the fundamental human needs as mentioned by Pearce (1992). Patterson (2002) study result of searching for new things as senior travel motivation is in the same way. Senior travelers today are interested in discovering new things more than previous senior generation.

Safety of the destination is the most important factor for respondents which is similar to Hsu's (2001) and Lindqvist and Bjork's (2000) studies.

Many European cities maintain their high standard of safety and security, as a result senior tourists would expect the same level of safety while travelling. Perceived importance of safety tends to increase as tourists grow older. Moreover, natural attractions were found to be one of the most important factors for senior tourists, which is similar to Norman et al.'s (2001) study. A large number of senior tourists still enjoy sun-sea-sand vacation and is attracted to beauty of mountains and forests.

The results of this research provide some insight information of senior tourists for planners and marketers. In this case, it is necessary for Thailand to develop certain policy measures and strategies in public and private sectors. Important policies include tourism promotion for European senior tourists, for long stays and for medical tourists. Provision of safety protection for senior tourists, physical improvement of tourist destinations, development of easy and convenient accessibility, support for accommodation and attractions, and facility improvement for senior tourists should be taken into consideration if Thailand wants to attract more senior tourists from European countries.

Strengths	Weaknesses
Thai people are friendly and polite. They offer warm welcome and Thai hospitality to senior tourists. They usually give respects to older people as part of their custom.	Some service providers cannot communicate in English fluently with European senior tourists. There is a lack of local tour guides who are able to speak third languages, such as French, Germany, and Italian. Local people seldom speak other foreign languages than English.
Beautiful scenic sun-sea-sand and natural attractions where senior tourists can visit all year round particularly in winter. Cultural attractions are unique and interesting to European senior tourists.	Many European senior tourists wish to receive and claim welfare medical treatment or surgery in Thailand, but their government will not allow them to do so. Medical welfare and insurance in various European countries will not cover medical treatment in Thailand even though their domestic treatment is not sufficient and their patients have to wait in a long queue for medical treatment.
Trip to Thailand is inexpensive and value for money for European senior tourists.	Physical facilities and equipments for senior or disabled tourists are not adequate and efficient, such as ramps, serviced elevators, smooth and easy to walk footpath. Suwannabhumi airport has many gates that are located far away from immigration and baggage claim. Senior tourists have to walk a long way to get through immigration and customs.
Most tour operators are professional and understand the nature and differences among European senior tourists. Tour operators are familiar with major tourist destinations. They can design tourism products according to customer needs. They provide standard and excellent services for tourists, such as quality tour guides, safe transfer/transport services.	Safety procedures for tourists and safety standards in transportation systems, such as buses, boats and ferries are not up to standards in some tourist destinations. Tourist police has been increased but are still insufficient in various popular tourist attractions. Safety procedures at the beach are not efficient and there is a lack of live guards in many beaches.
Hotel staff usually provides friendly services and treat senior guests like their elder relatives. Senior tourists enjoy privacy, tranquility and safety in hotels or resorts by the sea or in the mountain areas.	Price of local transportation is high in some seaside destinations such as Phuket. Some taxi drivers are not honest and attempt to overcharge.
Most hospital services are certified by JCI, together with all modern medical equipments and facilities. Their warm, friendly trained medical assistants and staff provide quality services. Medical cost is reasonable to European standards.	A few road signs are in English or in foreign language which make it difficult for foreign tourists to move around destinations by themselves independently or rent a car and drive around.
Thai spa provides standard and quality services for authentic Thai ways, such as traditional Thai massage, Thai herbs, Thai healing, as well as Thai wisdom that has been well blended with the western style of well being. Spas are extremely affordable and popular among international tourists.	-

Table 6. Strengths and weaknesses of tourism resources, facilities and services for European senior tourists

Limitations

This study has limitations in association with data used because data were collected on the site where the respondents were already in Thailand. The result may not truly reflect their actual motivations and perceived importance of tourism components prior to visiting Thailand because some factors as perceptions, attitudes and travel experiences may influence the assessment while they were

on site locations after the vacation experiences. Another limitation is that all the points shown in IPA grids were on a diagonal and this might indicate that the respondents classified on the same way importance and satisfaction. In addition, IPA also treats a sample as homogenous group, which may diminish the accuracy of the results when tourists differ in terms of the important rating they allocate to service attributes.

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American Consumer's Attitudes towards Different Airline Companies Channels: A Comparison of transaction Methods

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Abstract: Consumers are increasingly challenging better performance from companies, and these demands are being met through improvements in technology and flexibility of services. As a result of recent progresses and developments in electronic marketing, the physical locations of brick and mortar businesses have become less significant since transactions can now be accomplished in cyberspace. In this paper, consumer attitudes towards online transactions for the airline industry are examined. Despite the growing acceptance of alternative delivery channels, the travel agencies remain an essential part of the customer-airline company. It can be argued that the travel agencies not only represent an opportunity for implementing customer relationship, but they also remain an important point of contact for sales, service, and consultative interactions. Data has been analyzed using factor analysis technique. The study presents a broad picture of the level of preference of airline customers among the available distribution channels and sheds light on how airline companies should allocate resources among the different channels. The empirical study findings indicate that online transactions for the airline industry will gain in importance and its use will accelerate at a faster rate in the coming years.

Keywords: Airline company; Online ticketing; Online shopping; Consumer behavior; Electronic commerce; Electronic marketing.

Título: Actitudes de los Consumidores Americanos hacia los Diferentes Canales de las Compañías Aéreas: Comparación de Métodos de Transacción

Resumen: Los consumidores cuestionan cada día más el rendimiento de las empresas, y estas intentan cumplir estas demandas con mejoras en la tecnología y la flexibilidad de los servicios. Debido al avance y desarrollo del marketing electrónico, la ubicación física de las empresas ha perdido importancia ya que las transacciones se pueden realizar en el ciberespacio. En este trabajo, se examinan las actitudes del consumidor hacia las transacciones online de la industria aérea. A pesar de la creciente aceptación de los canales alternativos de distribución, las agencias de viaje siguen siendo una parte esencial de la relación cliente-aerolínea. Se puede argumentar que las agencias de viaje no sólo representan una oportunidad para la relación con el cliente, sino que además siguen siendo esenciales como punto de contacto para ventas, servicio y consulta. Los datos han sido analizados mediante análisis factorial. El estudio presenta un panorama general sobre el nivel de preferencia de los clientes entre los diferentes canales de distribución de las aerolíneas y arroja luz sobre como las compañías aéreas deben asignar recursos entre los distintos canales. Los resultados del estudio empírico indican que las transacciones online para la industria aérea ganarán importancia y su uso se acelerará a un ritmo rápido en los próximos años.

Palabras clave: Compañía aérea; Venta de billetes online; Compras online; Comportamiento del consumidor; Comercio electrónico; Marketing electrónico.

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Introduction

Since 1995, the Internet has become the way of life for millions of people worldwide. Accordingly, the number of regular internet users became 130.6 million at the end of 1999. The industry analysts have estimated that the number of Internet users will be increased one million every month. With this rate of increase, there are now almost 2 billion Internet users in 2010, and the Internet has provided consumers more control in accessing information on products and services (Law and Leung, 2000; and internetworldstats.com, 2010). The reasons of this worldwide acceptance of the Internet are its benefits to its users. It can be used 24/7/365 times within a year, it offers lower prices and a large variety of goods and services, it is an effective way of communication, it is used for online banking and college education, product searching and online training/seminars, and researching and buying on line (Bessette, 2010). In addition, another study using multiple regression analysis showed evidence that security/privacy, word of mouth, good online experience, quality of information, and brand reputation are significant elements affecting online brand trust in the airline industry in Malaysia (Alam and Yasin, 2010).

However, the use of the Internet as an airline ticket purchase channel is not fully developed, because consumers use the Internet for research of airlines and airfare not for purchase of tickets as like many other product and service categories. Consumers pull for online content - they decide when, where, what, and how much commercial content they wish to view. Accordingly, the Internet allows consumers to reach a large variety of products and services from companies around the world. (Ko et al 2004 and Lim et al, 2010). A study (Manzona and Valpuesta, 2009) demonstrated that the profile of passengers who are more likely to make their bookings online is that of a young person between 15-30 years of age, more likely to be female, a students with high academic level, an habitual traveler, who is booking a trip that is not very complex or is to a destination that is already known. On the other hand, male internet users are 50-65 years old, on a business or short trip and requiring the services of a travel agency. In addition, Lee and Cheng (2010) discover that there is no significant difference between online and offline agencies in terms of total customer satisfaction; however, online agencies offer lower prices and faster service leading to switching from offline to onli-

ne travel agencies.

Similar to all online purchases, airline ticket purchase is not immune to taking risk. Therefore, studies suggest that the most appropriate and effective way of minimizing online risk is through establishing trust (Kolsaker, Lee-Kelly and Choy, 2004). Accordingly, Ruiz-Mafe et al. (2009) identified risk dimensions as *performance risk* that includes the consumers' fear that products and services acquired may not meet their expectations. *Psychological risk* means fear of loss of self esteem due to wrong choice of product/service. *Time risk* is wasting time associated with online ticket purchase. *Social risk* relates to an unacceptable choice that it is considered embarrassing. *Privacy risk* is personal information that may be shared with others without the person's knowledge. Another study (Kim, Qu and Kim, 2009) stated that security risk is the most important predictor of the overall risk regarding the online purchase of air tickets. On the other hand, non-purchasers perceived a higher risk than online purchasers in terms of performance, security, financial, psychological, and time risks.

The travel industry was stricken during the recession as consumers and business travelers scaled back spending. Because of the diminishing waning revenue, airlines started to cut capacity and costs and charged customers for everything from beverages to checked luggage. With little left to slash, the airlines have been looking at their distribution-system costs as the next big frontier in terms of cutting expenses (Tibken, 2010). In recent years, airline companies have increasingly adopted internet-based systems to conduct traveling operations with other businesses, private consumers, and government departments/agencies. The airline industry is continuously enhancing and expanding services on the internet, including flight booking, payment options, electronic check-in, tracking of ticket prices and lost items, flight schedules, monitoring transaction history, customers' loyalty programs etc. One study in the Spanish Airline market showed that those more likely of making purchases by phone were male, middle-aged, on a business or short trip, and usually using a travel agency. Finally, passengers who are over 65 years of age, with a lower academic level, who use a travel agency and are going to make a more complicated journey, are more likely to purchase their *tickets* through traditional channels (Manzano and Valpuesta, 2009). Additionally, more hybrid travel arrangements will increase the attractiveness of the Internet across more diverse

population strata. The results also show significant differences in the selection criteria of airline companies' online customers and traditional customers. This empirical study also offers important policy suggestions to current airline company managers in the study area. The customer survey also showed that customer channel preferences are different from actual usage rates.

Research questions and purpose of the study

A growing number of consumers recognize that online functions save time, and on the other hand airline industry believes that the Internet ties their best customers more closely to their organization. On the other hand despite the efforts of airline companies towards getting consumers to take advantage of Internet purchases, the travel agencies remain an essential part of the customer-airline interaction. It can be argued that the travel agencies not only represent an opportunity for implementing customer relationship, but it also remains an important point of contact for sales, service, and consultative interactions. Consumers are increasingly challenging better performance from companies, and these demands are being met through improvements in technology and flexibility of services. Since the Internet usage has been growing in recent years, research opportunities on online and offline purchasing behaviors have become more important. Therefore, offline and online purchasing experiences have been studied and researchers have tried to identify differences regarding those two groups of consumers (Hamilton and Thompson, 2007; Ko, et al., 2004; Zhang, 2006; Wang, 2009). As a result of recent progresses and developments in electronic marketing, the physical location of several companies has become less significant since transactions can now be accomplished in cyberspace. Internet has provided consumers more control in accessing information on products and services. Consumers pull for online content - they decide when, where, what, and how much commercial content they wish to view.

The Internet allows consumers to reach a large variety of products and services from companies around the world (Ko et al., 2004; Lim et al., 2010). The travel industry was stricken during the recession as consumers and business travelers scaled back spending. Because of the diminishing waning revenue, airlines started to cut capacity and costs and charged customers for everything from be-

verages to checked luggage. With little left to slash, the airlines have been looking at their distribution-systems in order to cut expenses (Tibken, 2010). In recent years, airline companies have increasingly adopted internet-based systems to conduct traveling operations with other businesses, private consumers, and government departments/agencies. The airline industry is continuously enhancing and expanding services on the internet, including flight booking, payment options, electronic check-in, tracking of ticket prices and lost items, flight schedules, monitoring transaction history, costumers' loyalty programs etc.

Methodology

Data Collection

The data for this study was collected through self-administered questionnaires that were administered in rural parts of Western Pennsylvania (Beaver, Allegheny, and Butler counties). Stratified sampling with proportional allocation was used for sampling. The data was collected through a drop-off and pick-up method among a sample of 300 Beaver, Allegheny and Butler county residents. The drop-off/pick-up is a data-gathering technique that includes the advantages of both personal interviews and self-administered questionnaires Imperia et al (1985). Interviews were conducted by marketing research students under the supervision of one of the researchers in each locality. Respondents were randomly contacted by telephone at their workplace or their home and asked if they wanted to participate to this study. For those who agreed to participate, a questionnaire was delivered to their given address, and they were asked to complete the questionnaire at their most convenient time. Arrangements were then made to pick up the completed questionnaires at a specified time, generally ten days later. The survey instrument was left at each pre-selected household, and approximately 10 days later the surveys were personally retrieved by the selected students of Beaver campus of Pennsylvania State University. A total of 325 questionnaires were retrieved, but, only 319 usable questionnaires were attained due to incompleteness and other survey operations problems.

Measurement Development and Questionnaire Design

A variety of dependent and independent constructs and measures have been employed to iden-

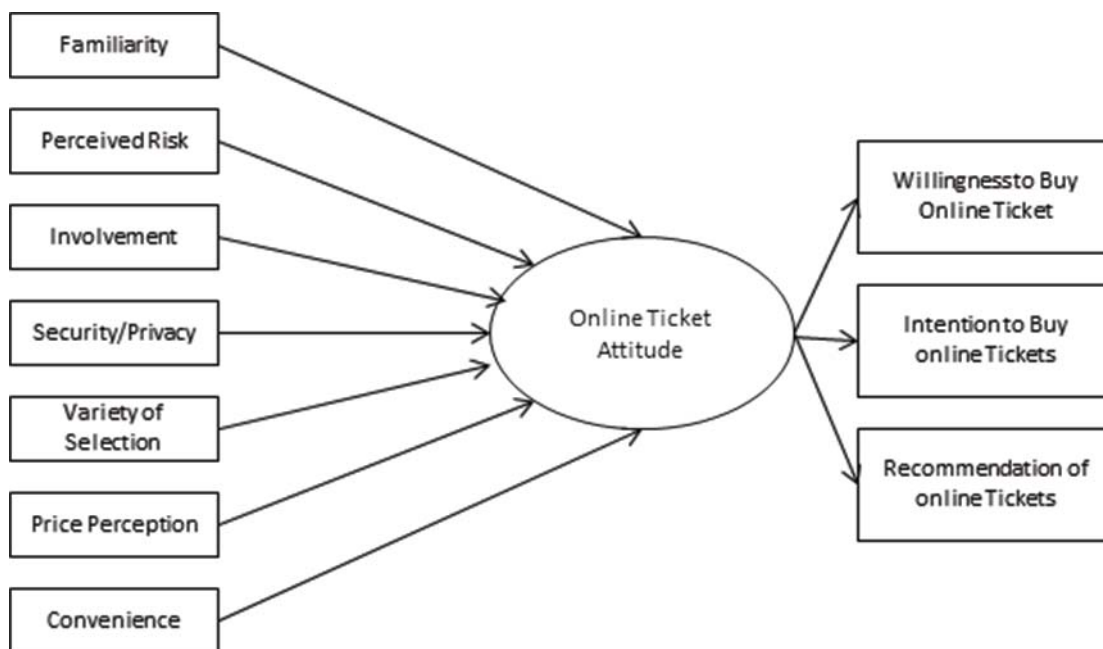


Figure 1. Online Airline Tickets Attitude Model

tify the drivers of online ticket attitudes. There is no recognized design that can be directly applied to operationalize the constructs of consumer attitudes towards online tickets proposed in this study. The measures used in this study came from a number of different sources. Some items of the constructs were developed by the researchers, while some were adopted or modified from previous researches. (Table 1).

The questionnaires were divided into four parts. The first part deals with general usage patterns of the Internet and examines how frequent respondents use the Internet in a week and the amount of online tickets they buy on the Internet. The independent variables were online ticket perceptions. Each item was formulated as a statement for which the subjects had to indicate the extent of agreement on a 7-point scale going from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. The 22 items are listed in Table 1. In the questionnaire the items were actually randomly ordered. The third part in order to measure online ticket attitude included three questions a) willingness to buy, b) recommendation and c) probability to consider buying online in the future were used with a Likert scale from (5) definitely willing to buy, recommend, will buy in the future to (1) definitely not willing to buy, not recommend and not buy in the future. Final part includes a number of demographic information of the respondents.

Findings

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents and Online Ticket Purchase

The data set consists of 136 online tickets purchasers (47.4 %) and 151 traditional travel agency purchasers (52.6 %). The demographic and socio-economic profile of the respondents is presented in Table 2.

To assess the statistical significance of differences in demographics and online ticket usage cross tabulation and a Chi-square test of association were performed. A close examination of the profile depicts that while online ticket customer and travel agency customers showed statistically significant differences in demographic characteristics. Online ticket users were mostly male, high income earners consisted of younger age groups, held more professional, and trade related types of jobs, craftsman, students and unemployed.

The sample consisted of about 49.5 male and 50.5 female bank customers. Online ticket web service female users are 38.6 % of the total female sample while 56.3% of male respondents are online ticket users. The ratios for nonusers related to gender are 61.4% female versus 43.7% of males. About 51.7% of 25 years and younger group were online ticket users, online ticket users have the highest ratio 57.3 % of the 26-45 year group, between 45-65 years old group account (47.7%) for online ticket practices

<u>Perceived Risk</u>			<u>Convenience</u>		
1. My monetary loss resulting from purchasing airline ticket from the website is high.	(Yucelt and Harcar, 2010).		1. Airline websites stores are easy buying experiences (24/7/365 working hours/days)	(Yucelt and Harcar 2010).	
2. I trust online web site more than traditional travel agent	Syed and Norjaya (2010).		2. Generally online reservation and purchasing looks easy to navigate through		
3. My expected failure of service performance if I buy service from the airline website is high	Shim et. al (2009)		3. I always find online ticket purchase have more options than travel agencies		
4. I do not think it is safe to buy service from the airline website			4. I prefer travel agencies to buy tickets because of easiness of purchase (R)		
5. I feel the risk associated with buying from this airline website is high					
6. I feel that online purchases are risky because they may lead to financial loss for me					
<u>Security/Privacy</u>			<u>Involvement</u>		
1. I felt secure in providing personal information for purchasing airline tickets online.	Syed and Norjaya (2010).		1. I am somewhat of an expert when it comes to finding cheapest fares	Adapted from (Kara et.al 2009)	
2. Websites of airlines companies have adequate security features			2. People think of me as a good source of finding information on airline tickets		
3. I feel that my privacy is protected when I'm purchasing tickets online.			3. I enjoy giving people tips on how to find best deals on the internet		
4. I trust airlines' websites with respect to my credit card information			4. People think of me as a good source of finding information on airline tickets		
5. Assures me that I will not be placed on mass mailing lists.			5. I enjoy giving people tips on how to find best deals on internet		
<u>Price Perception</u>			<u>Variety of Choices</u>		
1. Travel agencies charge high services fees	Adapted from (Kara et.al 2009)		1. I find better selections in online travel websites	New items	
2. Airline websites have always special deals			2. I buy tickets online because of wide selection of destination		
3. All ticket fares online/offline are basically the same in price			3. I find many different ways to get my destination with online reservations		
			<u>Familiarity</u>		
			1.I always buy airline tickets online	Adapted from Ha and Perks (2005)	
			2. I am very familiar with the various online tickets websites		
			3. My experiences with purchasing online were always problematic (R).		
			4. All my previous online airline ticket purchases have gone well		
			(R) reverse coding		

Table 1: Measure Used for Online Ticket Purchase Attitudes

while over 65 years old group have the lowest usage rate (12.5 %). Online ticket users comprised 53.6% of university graduates, while the ratios are 60.9% for vocational schools, 44.6% for high schools, 55.6 for secondary school and %16 for primary schools. With regard to occupation, 55.4 % of professionals were using online banking. All other occupation distributed between online banking users and nonusers can be found on Table 2.

Additionally, the time spent on the internet was also investigated. There were statistically significant differences between online ticket users and non-users on internet usage.

Factors Affecting Online Ticket Purchase

Using the 'factor analysis' module in SPSS, the "factors affecting online ticketing/travel agency

	Online Ticket (n=136)	Travel Agency (n=151)	Total	Chi Square
Gender				9.03 (*)
Male	56.3 %	43.7 %	49.5 %	
Female	38.6 %	61.4 %	50.5 %	
Age				14.71 (*)
Under 25	51.7 %	48.3 %	20.9 %	
26-45	57.3 %	42.7 %	44.6 %	
46-65	47.7 %	52.3 %	26.1 %	
Over 65	12.5 %	87.5 %	8.4 %	
Education				16.04 (*)
Primary School	16.0 %	84.0 %	8.7 %	
Secondary School	55.6 %	44.4 %	9.4 %	
High School	44.6 %	56.4 %	40.8 %	
Vocational School	60.9 %	39.1 %	24.0 %	
University	53.6 %	46.4 %	17.1 %	
Occupation				16.01 (*)
Professional	54.5 %	45.5 %	16.8 %	
Administrative	46.9 %	53.1 %	15.0 %	
Trade Man - Sales Man	55.6 %	44.4 %	16.5 %	
Housewife	32.4 %	67.6 %	11.3 %	
Technical	48.5 %	51.5 %	10.1 %	
Craftsman	56.0 %	44.0 %	7.6 %	
Student	62.9 %	37.1 %	10.7 %	
Unemployed	74.4 %	25.6 %	11.9 %	
Income				17.59 (*)
Low	39.7 %	60.3 %	20.8 %	
Medium	50.6 %	49.4 %	53.8 %	
High	72.3 %	27.7 %	25.4 %	
Internet Usage				22.08(*)
Light Users less than 5 a week	33.0%	67.0%	27.8 %	
Medium Users 6-15 hours a week	62.3%	37.7%	39.8 %	
Heavy Users more than 15 hours a week	61.3%	38.7%	32.4 %	

(*) significant relationship for 0.01 significance level

Table: 2 Demographic and Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Sample

purchasing behaviors” were analyzed. The principal components’ method for initial factor extraction with the criterion Eigenvalue greater than 1 and Varimax method of rotation was applied. Sample size is an element that can affect the adequacy of the factor models. It has been suggested (Hayes, 1992) that the sample size should equal at least 10 times the number of variables; for large numbers of variables the proportion is decreased to five. In similar studies samples of size approximately 200 were chosen (Parasuraman et al., 1988). Sample size for this survey was 287 as it is mentioned above. All the items were first factor analyzed. Rotated factor loadings were examined assuming different numbers of factors for extraction. As this was based on student data only, the adequacy of the sample size was questionable; the results showed no interpretable grouping of items. Deleting 4 different statements; convenience², familiarity³, 4 and in-

volvement⁴ all the online ticketing/travel agency purchasing responses could be incorporated into the analysis. This was carried out. The results showed considerable improvement over the previous attempt as some meaningful patterns emerged and it has been found that there are seven different factors related to the online ticketing/travel agency purchasing behavior; perceived risk, security/privacy, price perception, variety of selection, involvement, familiarity and convenience. Table 3 depicts the sorted rotated factor loadings for the items based on seven-factor extraction. The total figure of 73.93% represents the percentage of variance of all 27 items explained by the seven factors. In this study, the internal consistency (Cronbach’s α) for the 27-itemscale was .91. The Cronbach’s α coefficients for the positive and negative items of the indecisiveness scale were .83 and .86 respectively. To test the appropriateness of factor analysis, the Kaiser-

	<i>Factor Load</i>	<i>% of Variances</i>
FACTOR 1 : Perceived Risk		20.339
My monetary loss resulting from purchasing airline ticket from the website is high.	.806	
I trust online web site more than traditional travel agent	.818	
My expected failure of service performance if I buy service from the airline websites high	.771	
I do not think it is safe to buy service from the airline website	.728	
I feel the risk associated with buying from this airline website is high	.779	
I feel that online purchases are risky because they may lead to financial loss for me	.768	
FACTOR 2 : Security/Privacy		15.967
I felt secure in providing personal information for purchasing airline tickets online.	.914	
Websites of airlines company has adequate security features.	.901	
I feel that my privacy is protected when I'm purchasing ticket online.	.857	
I trust airlines websites with respect to my credit card information	.785	
Assures me that I will not be placed on mass mailing lists.	.775	
Assures me that my personal information will not be shared with marketing organizations.	.690	
FACTOR 3 : Price Perception		13.71
Airline website offer lower fares	.921	
Travel agencies charges high services fees	.943	
Airline websites have always special deals	.825	
All ticket fares online/offline are basically the same in price	.623	
FACTOR 4 : Convenience		8.54
Airline websites stores are easy buying experiences (24/7/365 working hours/days)	.959	
I always find online ticket purchase have more options than travel agencies	.954	
I prefer travel agencies to buy tickets because of easiness to purchase (R)	.932	
FACTOR 5 : Involvement		6.96
I am somewhat of an expert when it comes to finding cheapest fares	.911	
People think of me as a good source of finding information on airline tickets	.899	
I enjoy giving people tips on how to find best deals on internet	.883	
FACTOR 6 : Variety of Choices		3.95
I find better selections in online travel websites	.648	
I buy tickets online because of wide selection of destination	.632	
I find many different ways to get my destination with online reservations	.631	
FACTOR 7 : Familiarity		4.42
I buy airline ticket always online	.761	
I am very familiar with the various online tickets websites	.722	
(R) reverse coding		

Table 3. Factors Affecting Online/Traditional Ticket Purchasing Behaviors

Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was conducted. The KMO was 0.876, which is very close to the excellent level, 0.92. Bartlett's test of sphericity reveals significance at a level of 0.000 (Chi-square = 7624.342). The result supports the reliability and validity of the constructs.

The associations between willingness to buy online tickets, recommending buying tickets online, intention to buy in the future and factor effecting consumer behavior were tested by regression analysis. The results are analyzed to show that factors affecting buying behavior online contribute significantly and predict 0.849, 0.816 and 0.907 of the variation in willingness to buy online tickets, recommending buying tickets online, and intention to buy in the future respectively. We also examined the ANOVA values for the regression model in Table 2. All predictors except perceived risk and familiarity for willingness to buy, convenience, involvement and variety of selection for recommendation and perceived risk for intention to buy in the future have significant impact on online shopping.

another, to examine the attitudes and characteristics of customers of this new market segment. Online ticketing is offered by all airline companies. In this paper, consumer attitudes towards online purchasing for the airline industry are examined. Furthermore the purpose of this study is to examine the online ticket purchase behavior by using a conceptual model, which incorporates various factors (such as price perception, convenience, security/brand, perceived risk, involvement, familiarity, variety of selection) that assumed to influence the online ticket purchase behavior. A research model based on the above literature review of different factors related with the online purchase attitude is presented in Figure 1. As you can follow in Figure 1 the consequences of consumer attitude to an online tickets site is illustrated in this model. A variety of factors that might affect a consumer's overall trust are listed under five major sources of trust. Additionally, the mentioned factors affect the intention, willingness and recommendation of online ticket patronage.

	Adjusted R ²	R	R ²	
		Std Error of the	Estimate	
Willingness to buy	.481	0.921	0.849	0.845
Recommendation	.603	0.903	0.816	0.812
Intention to buy	.337	0.952	0.907	0.905

Model	Willingness to buy Significance	Recommendation Significance	Intention to buy Significance
Perceived Risk	.932	.000	.211
Security/Privacy	.000	.002	.000
Price Perception	.000	.057	.000
Convenience	.000	.750	.000
Involvement	.000	.765	.000
Variety of Selection	.028	.393	.003
Familiarity	.510	.000	.000

Table 4. Regression Model and ANOVA Summary for Willingness to Buy, Recommendation and Intention to Buy

Conclusions and discussions

Recognizing the enormous rise in the number of customers, who are buying airline tickets online during recent years, a number of airline companies are seeking to shift even more people to online ticketing. Airline companies are forced, in one way or

Regarding demographic differences in online/off-line shopping preferences, our study results show consistency with those reported by Swinyard and Smith (2003). This research confirmed no relationship between willingness to buy airline tickets online and familiarity and perceived risk. It should be also noted that there was no evidence of relationship

between recommendation of buying airline tickets online and convenience, involvement and variety of selection.

This study presents us with a broad picture of level of preference of airline customers among the available distribution channels and sheds light on how airline companies should allocate resources among the different channels. The empirical study findings indicate that online transactions for airline industry will gain in importance and its use will accelerate at a faster rate in the coming years. As well, more hybrid travel arrangements will grow attractiveness across diverse population strata. The results also show significant differences in the selection criteria of airline companies' online customer and traditional customers. This empirical study also offers important policy suggestions to current airline company managers in the study area. The customer survey also showed that customer channel preferences are different from actual usage rates. An outline of online airline ticketing identified seven factors: perceived risk, security/privacy, price perception, variety of selection, involvement, familiarity and convenience.

The limitation in terms of location (Western Pennsylvania) and respondent profile may have affected the outcomes. Upcoming research might also look at conducting studies simultaneously in different countries, with more attention given to cultural differences and environmental factors.

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Touristic specialization and returns on human capital in the hospitality sector of the Spanish regions

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Abstract: The aim of our study is to evaluate the existence and degree of specialization in tourism of the Spanish regions from the perspective of the human capital stock and the returns of their education, limiting the scope of study to the hospitality subsector. We use an expanded version of the Mincer wage equation (1974) and data from the 2006 Spanish Wage Structure Survey. All the regions under analysis show lower education returns (and other human capital variables) in the hospitality sector when compared to other private services. There are significant differences in education returns between regions, especially in Catalonia and the Canary Islands.

Keywords: Human capital; Hospitality; Regional Analysis.

Título: Especialización turística y rendimientos del capital humano de las regiones españolas en el sector de la hostelería

Resumen: El objetivo de este trabajo es evaluar la existencia y el grado de especialización en la industria turística de las principales regiones españolas desde la perspectiva del stock de capital humano y de los rendimientos de la educación, centrándose en el subsector de la hostelería. Para ello, se ha utilizado una versión extendida de la ecuación de salarios de Mincer (1974) y datos procedentes de la Encuesta de Estructura Salarial para el año 2006. Todas las regiones analizadas muestran rendimientos de la educación más bajos en el sector de la hostelería que los que se presentan en otros servicios privados. Existen también diferencias significativas en los rendimientos de la educación entre regiones, especialmente en Cataluña y en las Islas Canarias.

Palabras clave: Capital humano, Hostelería, Análisis regional.

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Introduction

In the modernization of the Spanish economy tourism has been a determinant factor. However, many aspects of this sector, such as labour market characteristics and regional differences, have not been widely studied. Tourism is a cross-sectional industry in which highly diverse activities are grouped. This paper analyzes the hospitality subsector which itself is composed of large and well-differentiated subcategories. In Spain, the hospitality industry is characterised by having a higher percentage of women and younger workers, lower educational levels, seasonality in contracts, a smaller percentage of employees, a greater percentage of foreign workers, and higher than average working hours. However, regional differences are highly significant and the more precarious employment conditions tend to disappear in the more consolidated tourist destinations (Fernández and Pena-Boquete, 2007). In this context, we estimate the existence and degree of specialization in tourism of six Spanish selected regions from the perspective of the human capital stock and the returns of their education, limiting the scope of study to the hospitality subsector.

Using data from the Spanish National Institute of Statistics (INE, 2010) we estimate a sectoral specialization index¹. A value of 1 for this index means that the economy of this region has the same specialization in tourism to the Spanish economy. Based on this index the Spanish regions more specialized in tourism are Andalusia (0.96), Balearic Islands (3.00), Canary Islands (2.17), Catalonia (0.99) and Valencia (0.97). Madrid (0.87) has been included because of its status as Capital of Spain.

The paper is structured as follows: first, basic data that characterize the main tourist destinations in Spain are presented. The methodology is then described and the variables that are included in the wage equations. The next two sections outline the database and present a descriptive analysis of the main variables. Empirical results are detailed in the next section. Finally, a brief description of the evidence obtained is provided and the main conclusions formulated.

A brief regional characterization of the Spanish hospitality sector

Using available data from the Spanish National Institute of Statistics in 2006, the six selected re-

gions² encompass 71.5% of total employment in the hospitality sector and more than 74.5% of waged workers. The hospitality sector is particularly important in both Spanish archipelagos as it embraces 19.18% of total employment in the Balearic Islands and 13.82% in the Canary Islands, whereas in Spain as a whole the aggregate is less than 7%. With the exception of the latter, self-employment is significantly high in the hospitality sector (Fernández and Pena-Boquete, 2007).

In terms of Gross Value Added (GVA), the six regions selected represent nearly 73% of the total in Spain, a percentage slightly higher than jobs (71.5%) due to the higher productivity of five of the six regions under analysis. The relative importance of the hospitality sector in the Balearic and Canary Islands is also much higher than the Spanish mean and than other regions under study. Labour productivity is higher in the Balearic Islands and Madrid, whereas the Canary Islands, Catalonia and Madrid are the more competitive regions in terms of unit labour costs.

Hotel bed places are concentrated in these regions (nearly 80% of the total), with 20.22% in the Balearic Islands, 17.15% in Catalonia and 16.58% in Andalusia. In addition, the proportion of hotel bed places per 1000 inhabitants emphasizes the enormous relevance of hotels in the two Spanish archipelagos, especially in the Balearic Islands. Finally, the mean size of the establishments clearly differentiates those destinations mainly specialized in “sun and beach” tourism from Madrid and other regions. In the Canary and Balearic Islands, the hotels are large: average of 375 and 234 bed places per establishment.

The great importance of the hospitality sector in Spain and the differences found between indicators in the different regions justifies analysing each region individually.

Methodology

The wage equation estimated for each region has the following functional form:

$$\text{Log}(wr) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 S + \beta_2 \text{Exper} + \beta_3 \text{Tenure} + \beta_4 \text{Female} + \beta_5 \text{Full_TC} + \beta_6 \text{Size} + \beta_7 \text{Overedu} + \beta_8 \text{Underedu} + \varepsilon$$

The dependent variable is the gross real wage per hour expressed as logarithms, discounting the price differential in 2006 in each of the regions stud-

	Andalusia		Balearic Islands		Canary Islands		Catalonia		Com. Valencia		Com. Madrid		Other regions		Spain	
	H	OS	H	OS	H	OS	H	OS	H	OS	H	OS	H	OS	H	OS
Constant	1.741*	1.337*	1.650*	1.381*	1.566*	1.225*	1.600*	1.336*	1.929*	1.468*	1.507*	1.216*	1.801*	1.351*	1.722*	1.326*
t-ratio	(29.206)	(49.281)	(27.158)	(29.871)	(23.468)	(27.708)	(29.057)	(53.399)	(32.855)	(48.466)	(27.904)	(51.235)	(73.810)	(103.397)	(95.431)	(149.532)
S	0.032*	0.062*	0.047*	0.071*	0.055*	0.082*	0.048*	0.075*	0.018*	0.061*	0.042*	0.075*	0.020*	0.075*	0.032*	0.073*
t-ratio	(4.612)	(36.506)	(7.759)	(23.481)	(6.967)	(30.251)	(7.554)	(51.731)	(3.275)	(31.894)	(6.688)	(57.617)	(7.648)	(87.769)	(16.203)	(131.541)
Exper	0.000	0.003*	0.005*	0.002***	0.002	0.001	-0.001	0.004*	-0.001	0.002*	0.004*	0.006*	0.002*	0.005*	0.002*	0.004*
t-ratio	(0.298)	(3.257)	(3.632)	(1.768)	(1.587)	(0.670)	(-0.812)	(6.753)	(-0.411)	(2.709)	(3.229)	(11.298)	(3.420)	(14.261)	(4.976)	(19.274)
Tenure	0.016*	0.023*	0.011*	0.018*	0.011*	0.023*	0.013*	0.020*	0.014*	0.021*	0.014*	0.022*	0.015*	0.021*	0.013*	0.021*
t-ratio	(7.077)	(26.057)	(5.822)	(12.011)	(6.201)	(17.530)	(6.547)	(29.702)	(7.098)	(22.291)	(8.391)	(34.104)	(17.321)	(55.920)	(21.928)	(83.187)
Female	-0.088*	-0.164*	-0.136*	-0.132*	-0.089*	-0.158*	-0.139*	-0.233*	-0.154*	-0.192*	-0.065**	-0.216*	-0.096*	-0.185*	-0.113*	-0.196*
t-ratio	(-4.005)	(-13.219)	(-5.289)	(-5.175)	(-4.338)	(-8.228)	(-5.231)	(-22.440)	(-6.114)	(-14.631)	(-2.408)	(-22.884)	(-8.739)	(-31.003)	(-14.852)	(-49.384)
Full-TC	0.063*	0.118*	0.041	0.025	0.130*	0.093*	0.060*	0.088*	0.039	0.129*	0.074*	0.211*	0.057*	0.022*	0.068*	0.091*
t-ratio	(2.735)	(8.632)	(1.332)	(1.008)	(5.967)	(4.566)	(2.403)	(7.737)	(1.550)	(8.510)	(3.001)	(20.387)	(5.362)	(3.318)	(8.815)	(20.729)
Size	0.098*	0.245*	0.074*	0.212*	0.122*	0.237*	0.212*	0.135*	0.108*	0.138*	0.088*	0.179*	0.079*	0.190*	0.105*	0.181*
t-ratio	(3.714)	(16.260)	(2.250)	(8.232)	(5.394)	(10.115)	(8.334)	(10.015)	(4.003)	(9.000)	(3.380)	(12.447)	(7.636)	(28.700)	(14.303)	(39.137)
Overedu	-0.125*	-0.194*	0.084***	-0.293*	-0.183*	-0.366*	-0.124*	-0.300*	-0.122*	-0.250*	-0.122**	-0.301*	-0.020	-0.282*	-0.093*	-0.284*
t-ratio	(-2.811)	(-12.663)	(-1.651)	(-7.921)	(-3.302)	(-12.970)	(-2.686)	(-21.511)	(-2.825)	(-12.398)	(-2.580)	(-24.980)	(-1.141)	(-34.478)	(-6.695)	(-53.013)
Underedu	0.140*	0.229*	0.170*	0.090*	0.234*	0.235*	0.123*	0.179*	0.142*	0.103*	0.169*	0.201*	0.099*	0.141*	0.140*	0.166*
t-ratio	(3.425)	(12.824)	(4.142)	(3.286)	(5.235)	(8.972)	(2.945)	(12.976)	(3.640)	(5.992)	(4.370)	(16.145)	(5.514)	(17.179)	(11.202)	(31.026)
Adjusted R ²	0.343	0.520	0.310	0.526	0.421	0.564	0.291	0.492	0.207	0.511	0.191	0.510	0.233	0.548	0.254	0.518
F-Statistic*	38.195	576.735	29.412	148.882	56.035	272.107	37.317	850.633	23.887	453.419	23.993	1,123.247	101.487	2,501.12	277.770	5,729.09
Sum-squared residue	34.866	650.128	42.993	141.572	40.862	246.046	75.240	1173.816	72.316	487.496	87.031	1,482.336	180.268	2,225.509	560.207	6,549.940
Obs.	571	4258	506	1088	607	1678	709	7023	703	3466	778	8621	2641	16499	6515	42613

Notes: Statistically significant at: * 1%, ** 5% and *** 10%. The standard errors and covariances are robust for heteroscedasticity; Source: WSS-2006.

Table 1. Results of the estimations

ied³. The right-hand side of the equation includes the constant as well as the characteristics of the workers and jobs. Human capital variables, such as mean schooling years (*S*), previous experience (*Ex*) and tenure in the firm (*Tenure*), and the gender of the employee (*Female*) are derived from the characteristics of workers (a description of the variables is presented in the Appendix).

In order to control the characteristics of the job we used the dummy variables type of contract, size of the establishment, and the formal education of the worker in relation to the job requirements. Using the variable *full-time and permanent contract (FullTC)*, we attempted to assess whether this type of contract involves higher wages than that of workers with temporary or part-time contracts. Both types of contract are aggregated into a single variable because in Spain they tend to be used together in the hospitality sector to help employers adjust the work supply to fluctuations in service demand. This translates into increased precariousness of employment, lower wages, a lack of opportunities for training and fewer chances of promotion among the workers (Nickson, 2007).

The variable firm size (*Size*), takes value 1 when the worker is employed in a firm with 20 or more employees, and zero in any other case. Business size has been taken as an additional explanatory variable of regional wage differences to control for the higher number of hotels in some tourist destinations. In addition, economic theory suggests alternative explanations to the fact that until a certain size is reached, wages increase with firm size.

The variables *overedu* and *underedu* measure the fact that the real wage per hour could be influenced more by the type of job than by having a higher educational level. Finally, ε is a random disturbance term.

Database and descriptive analysis

The information used was taken from the Spanish Survey of Wage Structure 2006 [Encuesta de Estructura Salarial, EES-2006, (INE, 2007)]. The sample is representative at the regional level (NUTS II), thus facilitating the present study.

Data shows that workers in the Balearic Islands are older, have higher previous experience, and higher tenure in the firm. Furthermore, 64% of them have a full-time and permanent contract; this percentage is only exceeded by the Canary Islands (65%). Other labour characteristics of this

region include lower percentages of women (47.4%) and higher nominal gross wages per hour. For this reason, the Balearic Islands have been taken as the reference region for wage differentials.

In the hospitality sector, mean schooling years is much lower than in other private service sectors. It should be pointed out that the Balearic and Canary Islands, which are mature destinations for sun and beach tourism, present the lowest mean schooling years of all the regions under consideration. This is probably due to the older mean age of workers who belong to the generation that did not benefit from the current Spanish educational system. In fact, this may account for the high proportion of undereducated workers (higher than 30% in both regions).

With the exception of the Balearic Islands, tenure is lower in the hospitality sector than in other private service industries. This suggests greater worker rotation in this sector, as reported in other studies (Marchante et al., 2005). Except for the Balearic and Canary Islands, 50% of employees are women.

The percentage of workers suitably educated for their job fluctuates between the highest in Valencia (67.3%) and the minimum in the Balearic Islands (51.6%). These results do not substantially differ from the estimations obtained by Strauss and Maisonneuve (2007) using a different database for the Spanish economy as a whole; and are also consistent with Marchante et al. (2005) for the hospitality sector in Andalusia. The percentage of overeducated workers ranges between 12% in the Canary Islands and 22% in Madrid. The highest level of undereducation is found in both Spanish archipelagos (around 33%) and the lowest is found in Catalonia (15%) and Valencia (16%).

The rate per hour received in the hospitality sector is lower than the one received in other private service sectors. In nominal terms, the wage received by employees in the other regions as a whole is almost 19% less than in the Balearic Islands. In real terms, this difference decreases to 14.5% due to the differential in relative prices. The greatest difference is found in Madrid where wages in the hospitality sector employees are 40.1% lower.

Empirical results

The value of the constant term indicates the part of the wage not affected by the independent variables. This component depends on other variables, such as lifestyle, climate and other differentiating characteristics of the regions that have an effect on

the conditions of employment and wages, but which our specification was not able to include. Our data shows that estimated values for the constant in the hospitality sector are greater than in the private sectors of services for all the regions. Furthermore, in the hospitality sector, as in the other private services, the maximum value of the constant term is found in Valencia and the lowest value in Madrid (Table 1).

Personal characteristics

Education returns in these estimations are lower in the hospitality sector. In addition, very significant regional differences are observed between the Canary Islands (5.5%) and Valencia (1.8%). In Catalonia (4.8%), the Balearic Islands (4.7%) and Madrid (4.2%), education returns are higher than the mean for Spain (3.2%). These results reveal regional heterogeneity.

Our results are similar to previous studies that also use variables regarding job characteristics in their specification. Introducing these additional variables reduce educational returns, because these variables capture the indirect effect of education on wage and productivity. Accordingly, the education returns estimated in this work represent the direct effect of education, once the effects derived from the job characteristics are discounted.

The results of previous studies that specified the original Mincer equation showed education returns to be between 4.1% (Pastor et al., 2006) when the estimation method used is ordinary least square and 5.6% (Lillo-Bañuls and Casado-Díaz, 2010) when instrumental variable techniques are used. Nevertheless, in both papers, education returns in the hospitality sector are less than the estimates for most economic sectors.

The returns estimated for previous experience and tenure in the firm are much lower than those for education. Once again, the estimations for the hospitality sector show returns to be quite lower than for the other private service sectors. Thus, the returns from previous experience are not statistically significant in the hospitality sector of four regions (Andalusia, the Canary Islands, Catalonia and Valencia). On the other hand, the returns from tenure in the firm are statistically significant in all the regions, ranging from 1.1% (the Balearic and Canary Islands) to 1.5% (other regions).

The variable gender⁴ is statistically significant in all cases, and has a negative coefficient. Gender discrimination in the hospitality sector is greater

in Valencia, where women have wages up to 13% lower than men. In the other service sectors, gender discrimination is greater in Catalonia, reaching 20.78%. With the exception of the Balearic Islands, where wage differences due to gender are similar in the hospitality sector and other services in the private sector, the effect of gender on wages is less in the hospitality sector.

Job Characteristics

Except for the Balearic Islands (in all sectors) and Valencia (in the hospitality sector), where the estimated coefficient of the variable is not statistically different from zero, a full-time permanent contract involves increased wages. This increase ranges from 13.91% in the Canary Islands and 5.91% in the other regions. The estimated coefficient for business size is statistically significant and positive in all cases. In the hospitality sector the wage premium of working in an establishment of 20 workers or more ranges from 23.66% in Catalonia to 7.65% in the Balearic Islands. Furthermore, except for Catalonia, wage improvements are greater in other service sectors than in the hospitality sector.

Finally, the estimated coefficients for educational mismatch have the expected signs in all cases and it is only statistically non significant in the aggregate of other regions (hospitality sector) for the overeducated workers. Overeducation involves a strong wage penalty which is greater in other service sectors than in the hospitality sector. On the other hand, undereducated workers earn between 26.40% more (in the hospitality sector in Catalonia) and 9.41% more (in other services in the Balearic Islands).

The results indicate great regional variability both in the hospitality sector and in the other private service sectors. Nevertheless, our estimations for Spain are not substantially different from those of Strauss and Maisonneuve (2007) using a different database that included the public sector. These authors estimate the wage premium associated with undereducation at 13% and wage reductions for overeducated workers at 21%.

Conclusions

This article provides new empirical evidence on human capital returns and regional wage differences in the Spanish hospitality sector. The use of establishment-worker paired data allows us to analyze regional disparities in this context. This analysis focuses on the main tourist regions in Spain.

The differential behaviour of the labour market and the significant structural differences that exist between regions drives the need to study each region individually. Similarly, the regions analyzed present marked differences concerning the tourism segment they have specialized in. Madrid is characterized by being a cultural destination and the Capital of Spain; whereas Valencia, Andalusia and Catalonia are coastal destinations specialized in the sun and beach segments with some cultural tourism. Finally, the Canary Islands and the Balearic Islands are highly specialized insular destinations with consolidated sun and beach tourism.

The estimations obtained for the different regions enable us to quantify the returns of human capital variables, such as schooling years, previous experience and tenure in the firm, as well as to compare their value to those obtained from other private services. In all the regions, returns from education are less in the hospitality sector than in the other private service sectors. Although the returns from education are less than those reported in other studies, they are compatible with them, since we introduced additional control variables related to the job characteristics that reduce returns. Similarly, the estimated returns for previous experience and tenure in the firm are less in the hospitality sector than in other sectors, being in turn lower than those of the education. Gender wage differences are found in all the regions. In general, this problem is more significant in the hospitality sector than other services. These results reveal a situation that can be generalized to most countries, i.e., the hospitality sector is characterized by lower pay to workers with similar characteristics, and women are especially penalised in this regard. The lower wages women receive may be strongly affected by the greater segregation they experience, as women are mainly found in the worst-paid industries, establishments, jobs, functional areas and responsibility levels.

On the other hand, regarding the job characteristics, there is a positive wage premium associated with stability in the type of contracts and establishment size. These results are compatible with other studies, as they point out that mean wages increase in a large company as the number of employees with a contract based on union agreements increases. This could be due to the negotiation system in Spain, where specific worker agreements with the firm are used to improve the labour conditions agreed at regional levels (Aláez et al., 2003). Finally, the effects of the mismatch between educational level and job

requirements are compatible with estimates reported in the literature. In particular, overeducation has a negative effect on wages in the hospitality sector, whereas undereducation has a positive effect.

Finally, it is worth noting that there are variables not included in the wage equation specification that can be determinants of regional differences, such as the regional unemployment rate or to what extent the tourism development model has been consolidated, among others. In this regard, it is of interest to note that those regions more specialized in the hospitality sector, such as the Balearic Islands and the Canary Islands, present an employment pattern that is far from the stereotype in this sector regarding precariousness and low returns from education. This analysis may indicate that the level of tourism development in a region could encourage greater stability regarding contracts and better wages as the educational status of the workers increases.

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Appendix

Hourly gross wage

This variable was calculated from the information available in WSS-2006 on the amount of hours annually worked and on the annual gross wages received. It was assumed that one month consisted of 4.2 weeks and 30.42 days.

Human Capital variables

Based on the information contained in the Wage Structure Survey 2006 (WSS-2006), we constructed the human capital variables following Arrazola et al. (2003).

Education

WSS-2006 provides information on the highest level of education completed by individuals. For each level of education it assigns a numeric value approximately equal to the number of years it takes to finish education. Thus, the values of the variables used are as follows: 2 for illiterate individuals or those without education; 5 for people with primary education; 8 for people with general lower secondary education; 9 for people with vocational lower secondary education; 11 for people with vocational upper secondary education; 12 for people with general upper secondary education; 15 for people with short-cycle university studies; and 17 for people with long-cycle university studies and postgraduates.

Length of the working life of the individual

The construction of this variable is based on the following hypotheses. First, people do not work before the

age of 16 years. Second, people do not work and study at the same time. Third, the age of retirement is 65 years.

Experience up to the current firm

This variable has been defined on the basis of the information provided by WSS-2006. This variable has been computed as the difference between the age of the individual and the age at which the individual declares he/she began to work minus tenure in the current firm. When generating this variable, we impose the restriction that it must be below the difference between the official age of retirement (65 years) and the years of schooling.

Tenure in the current firm

This variable was obtained directly from WSS-2006, by adding the months of any uncompleted years to the completed years for each individual.

Educational mismatch

The variables *overedu* and *underedu* measure the fact that the real wage per hour could be influenced more by the type of job than by having a higher educational level. Although the database used controls for the type of job, there is a high correlation between educational level and occupation, and this creates high multicollinearity. Thus, following Strauss and Maisonneuve (2007), occupation is taken into account indirectly by calculating a mean of the most frequent level of studies in each occupation. The mode is used as the statistical measure. However, this procedure is expanded in cases where the mode represents a percentage lower than 40% of the total number of employees in each occupation, defined at the level of two digits according to the National Classification of Occupations-CNO94 - (INE, 1994). In these cases, the workers considered as appropriately educated are those who have obtained an educational level corresponding to the mode as well as those who have reached an adjacent educational level (immediately lower or higher). Thus, for a given occupation, if the mean number of study years required are 15 (undergraduates) but the mode includes a reduced number of cases (less than 40%), workers with secondary education (12 study years) or postgraduates (17 study years) would be also considered appropriately educated. Choosing the level of studies immediately lower or higher than the mode was done by taking into account which level has a greater percentage of workers in each occupation.

Using this definition of appropriately educated workers, the dummy variables for the workers with a level of studies different from the one required by the occupation are defined as follows. The variable that represents overeducation (*Overedu*) takes value 1 if the worker has attained an educational level higher than the mode of each occupation (or the higher when two adjacent educational levels are possible); and zero in any other case. Similarly, the variable undereducation (*Underedu*) takes value 1 if the worker has an educational level lower than the mode of the occupation (or the lower when two contiguous edu-

cational levels are used); it will take value zero in any other case.

Notes

- 1 For description see Herce et al. (2001)
- 2 Observations of workers with a wage lower than the interprofessional minimum wage and those younger than 16 or older than 65 years were eliminated from the original sample.
- 3 Observations of workers with a wage lower than the interprofessional minimum wage and those younger than 16 or older than 65 years were eliminated from the original sample.
- 4 The impact on the wage of the dummy variables when using a semilog function was calculated by taking the antilogarithm of the corresponding coefficient, subtracting 1 and multiplying by 100 (Halvorsen and Palmquist, 1980).

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The role of human capital and collaboration with academia for innovation in hospitality sector: the case of Mugla

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Abstract: The relevance of human capital and collaboration with academia for innovation in the hospitality sector has never been denied, but the empirical evidence for this link is inadequate as far as Turkey is concerned. This paper intends to contribute to the knowledge in this area by employing self generated survey data for the province of Mugla, which is one of the most attractive holiday destinations in Turkey. The aim of this paper is to investigate the effects of human capital and collaboration with academia on innovation performance of hospitality firms. The results of the survey data and empirical investigation of logit and probit econometric models indicate that these factors are indeed conducive factors for the innovation performance of hospitality firms.

Keywords: Innovation in Tourism; Determinant factors of innovation; Human capital; Collaboration with academia.

Título: El papel del capital humano y la colaboración con las universidades en la innovación del sector de hostelería: el caso de Mugla

Resumen: La literatura no niega la relevancia del capital humano y la colaboración con las universidades en vistas a la innovación en el sector de hostelería, pero la evidencia empírica de este enlace es insuficiente por lo que se refiere a Turquía. Este trabajo pretende contribuir al conocimiento en esta área mediante el empleo de datos generados a través de una encuesta hecha en la provincia de Mugla, uno de los destinos turísticos más atractivos de Turquía. El objetivo de este trabajo es investigar los efectos del capital humano y la colaboración con instituciones académicas en el nivel de innovación de las empresas de hostelería. Los resultados de los datos del estudio y la investigación empírica de los modelos logit y probit econométricos indican que estos factores son realmente los que propician la innovación en las empresas de hostelería.

Palabras clave: Innovación en turismo; Factores determinantes de la innovación; Capital humano; Colaboración con la academia.

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Introduction

As in manufacturing sectors, economic performance, survival and competitiveness of hospitality firms depend on their innovation capabilities and how quickly they adopt new technologies in their management and organizational structure, and in their accommodation and services facilities. The recognized importance of innovation led to the surge of research and this topic was investigated intensively from different perspectives. While, the vast majority of studies focus on manufacturing industries, there is small amount of research related to innovation in the service sector and even less in the hospitality sector.

Although innovation in the hospitality sector lately attracts scholars in terms of the type of innovation, the determinant factors and the outcome effects of innovation, there are few studies that specifically take into account the investment into human capital and collaboration with the university as determinant factors of innovative activities of hospitality firms. These studies are limited around the world and very scarce in Turkey. As far as we know, there is no study which specifically deals with the relationship between innovation capabilities and investment into human capital and collaboration with the university of hospitality firms in Turkey.

Given the lack of academic empirical research for the link between innovative behaviors and investment in to human capital and collaboration with the university of hospitality firms in Turkey, this paper intends to contribute to the knowledge in this area by employing self-generated survey data for the district of Mugla, which is the second largest tourist destination (both for national and international tourists) in Turkey. The main purpose of this study is to lay out innovative capabilities of hospitality sector in the district of Mugla and empirically compare and contrast similarities and differences among hospitality firms in terms of innovation capabilities and investment in to human capital and cooperation with the academia. For this purpose, the second section surveys the literature on the role of human capital and collaboration with academia for hospitality firms, while section three summarizes the main findings of the questionnaire. Section four employs logit and probit econometrics models to determine the factors that affect innovation capabilities of hospitality firms. The last section is reserved for concluding remarks.

Literature survey

Innovation studies go back to Schumpeter's (1934) analysis. Since then, both theoretical and empirical contributions have been done into innovation studies. Although Schumpeter's analysis was mainly applied to the manufacturing sector, and innovation studies are still largely dominated by manufacturing both in terms of the theory and empirical analysis, innovation studies in the service sector have also been developed (among others see, Barras, 1986; Sundbo, 1997; Sirilli and Evangelista, 1998; Hughes and Wood, 2000; Drejer 2004; Tamura et al., 2005). Hence the innovation approach developed originally for the manufacturing sector can still be used to analyze services (Sundbo, 1997; Sirilli and Evangelista, 1998; Hughes and Wood, 2000). However, service and manufacturing firms differ from each other in terms of i-) the utilization of intellectual property rights and existence of research and development department (Sundbo, 1997, Tamura et al., 2005), ii-) the types of innovation (Sundbo, 1998), iii-) differences in responsiveness to markets, low technology content of the service (tourism) sector (Hjalager, 2002; Decelle, 2006) and iv-) non-existence of university-business collaborations in the service (tourism) sector (Hjalager, 2002).

Innovation analysis in the tourism sector can be analyzed similarly to that of the service sector. There are several classifications of innovations in the tourism sector (for more detailed information see among others Decelle, 2006; Hjalager, 1997; 2002; Jacob and Groizard, 2007). Innovations in tourism can be behavioral and technological or a mixture of them. Weiermair (2006) distinguishes three factors behind the innovation in tourism. These are supply or supply-related determinants (for example new technologies requiring development of new skills, services or form of organizations in tourism such as the development of e-tourism, and e-marketing in tourism), demand drivers (social and economic factors such as flexible working time, more income and increased value of holidays) and the level and pace of competition (globalization and deregulation increased competition and lead to process innovation) (p. 60).

Hjalager (2010) distinguishes three theoretical schools in explaining the determinants and driving forces of innovation in tourism. The first one is the Schumpeterian school where entrepreneurship is viewed as a driving force in innovation behavior. The second one is the technology-push/demand-pull

paradigm in which both concepts have some effects on the innovation performance of tourism firms. The third one is the Marshallian innovation systems or innovation cluster approach. However, Hjalager (2010) concludes that *“there is a lack of comprehensive empirical evidence to document the nature of driving forces in innovation systems”* (p. 5).

There are a small number of studies which specifically dealt with the innovation in the hospitality sector. These studies are mostly concentrated on the type of innovation within the hospitality sector. In these studies process innovations are found to be more important than product innovations (Jacob et al., 2003; Blake et al., 2006; Jacob and Groizard, 2007). Product innovations are limited in the tourism sector because tourism mainly depends on the natural and manmade attractions of the destination, hence limiting the potential for product innovations (Keller, 2006).

In terms of the technological area where technological innovations take place, the ICT area followed by environmental innovations and the security area constitute the largest part in the Latin American (Mexico and Dominican Republic) chain (Balearic) hotels (Jacob and Groizard, 2007). This picture is similar to those found for the Balearic Islands (Orfila-Sintes et al., 2005) except that a more innovative behavior is found in kitchen and restaurant equipment after the ICT area. The use of technologies usually embodied in new machinery, equipment and software is the dominant innovation form in the hospitality sector in the Balearic Islands (Orfila-Sintes et al., 2005).

There are several factors that affect innovation behavior of hospitality firms, such as proximity and clustering, thus facilitating knowledge spillovers. Clustering with returns to scale factors can make a region competitive in terms of provision of well educated and trained personnel and infrastructure (Decelle, 2006). The other important factor is the utilization of information and communication technologies in tourism (Keller, 2006). Adaptation of information and communication technology and efficient usage of these technologies are very important factors for the development of the tourism sector as well as for the sustainability of medium and small sized firms.

Some others investigated the effects of innovation on hotel performance and found a positive relationship (Blake et al., 2006; Orfila-Sintes and Mattsson, 2009), while others investigated the determinant factors of innovation in the hospitality sector. The

hotels which use professional management instruments and information technologies (Sundbo et al., 2007) and those which develop group and project management skills, and learning culture (Kumar et al., 2008) are more innovative compared to others. Moreover, hotels which belong to chain, under management contract and managed in lease properties are more innovative than hotels operating independently or managed by the owners (Orfila-Sintes et al., 2005; Sundbo et al., 2007). Hotels are found to be more innovative as the tour operators' importance in booking (Orfila-Sintes et al., 2005; Sundbo et al., 2007) and the occupancy rate increase (Orfila-Sintes et al., 2005). Further, more than half of non-innovating firms are contracted under a half-board regime, while the customers of 53.5% of innovators use full board or all-inclusive systems (Orfila-Sintes et al., 2005).

Firm size and innovation behavior are the other researched areas within innovation studies in the accommodation sector. Firms tend to be more innovative as their size and/or scale or range of activities increase (Hjalager, 2002; Jacob et al., 2003; Jacob and Groizard, 2007; Sundbo et al., 2007). 3 and 4-5 star hotels are found to be more innovative, and innovative behavior of 1 and 2 star hotels include the use of computer facilities and hardware (Orfila-Sintes et al., 2005).

The level of human capital and investment into human capital is another key element in innovation capabilities of firms. Employee training for the Taiwanese hotel industry (Chun-Yao et al., 2008) and for independent hotels in Germany (Ottenbacher et al., 2006) is found to be one of the important determinant factors for innovation.

Firms' age can be another important factor for the innovation performance of companies. However, its effect on innovation is ambiguous. While young firms are expected to be more innovative than their older counterparts due to less resistance to innovative ideas, one can also expect just the opposite relation between the firms' age and innovative behavior. As firms' age increases the innovation capabilities increase as well due to firms' learning-by doing, an established name and reputation and continuous improvements in their facilities (Pires et al., 2008).

Innovation In Hospitality Firms In Mugla District

There is no available data concerning the innovative activities of hospitality firms for Turkey in

general and for Mugla in particular. In this study self-generated survey data is employed to investigate the role of human capital and collaboration with academia on innovation capabilities of hospitality firms. All hotels which have stars from 1 to 5 and holiday villages (first and second class) around the Mugla district are the target population and the survey methodology is personnel interview at the hotels. The list of hotels was accessed from the tourism office of the Mugla district. There are 331 hotels which are categorized by star including holiday villages. Of these 200 hotels were contacted and 137 of them participated in the interview and answered the questionnaire, which was previously tested using a pilot study and revised according to the feedback received.

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of the questionnaire results. According to the survey results, 42.34% of hotels are innovative, whereas 57.66% of the hotels are not innovative². Within the innovating firms, a higher percentage of firms hires a professional manager, have some kind of certifications (these certifications include HACCP, Environmental Management Standards, Service Compliance Certificate, and other certifications), and trained their employees. In terms of average employee, investment and occupancy rate, innovating firms outperform the non-innovating firms.

Further, innovating firms collaborate with academia more frequently than non-innovating firms. Small-sized firms are dominant in the hospitality

sector, followed by medium and big-sized firms. Most of the innovating firms are medium sized whereas most of the non-innovating firms are small-sized. According to the survey results, innovative activity seems to increase as firm size increases. As far as the age of the firm is concerned, survey results indicate that the average age of innovating firms is higher than that of non-innovating firms.

Model and results

Our model is estimated by logit and probit estimation methods. Our dependent variable takes the value of 1 if the firm innovates and 0 otherwise. Four sets of independent variables are of special interest to this study. These are collaboration with academia, firms' size, firms' capital and labor characteristics. Collaboration with academia takes the value 1 if the firm collaborates with the academia, zero otherwise. Size is measured by the number of employees following Sundbo et al. (2007). To allow the non-linear size effects we also include the size square in our estimation. Capital and labor characteristics include variables such as investment (the share of investment in income), professional management (dummy variable taking one if the hotel is managed by a professional manager and zero otherwise), yearly occupancy rate, non-certified (dummy variable taking one if the hotel does not have any certification and zero otherwise), training of employees (dummy variable taking one if training program is utilized

	Innovating Firms (58 - % 42.34)		Non- Innovating Firms (79 - % 57.66)	
	Number	%	Number	%
Professional Manager	54	93.10	6	7,60
Owner	4	6.90	73	92,40
Owner of Certification	55	94.82	28	35,44
Training	55	94.82	16	20.25
Collaboration with academia	18	31.04	1	1.27
Firm Size				
Small (0-49 employee)	8	10.52	68	89.48
Medium (50-249)	42	79.25	11	20.75
Big (250 and more)	8	100	-	-
Total	58	42.34	79	57.66
Average Employee	147.01		30.50	
Average Investment (Percentage Share in Annual Revenue)	21.69		13.26	
Average Yearly Occupancy Rate	81.63		68.73	
Average age	12.47		9.87	

Table 1. Questionnaire Results, Descriptive Statistics

and zero otherwise) and continuous variable of age of the firm. All variables are expected to have a positive impact on the probability of innovation of the firm, except for variables of non-certified and age of the firm. The coefficient on non-certified is expected to be negative indicating that if the firm does not have any kind of certification, then its probability to innovate decreases. A priori, the effect of the age of the firm on innovation is not known as argued above. Table 2 presents the estimation results.

Estimation results are consistent with the expectations and all coefficients are significant at conventional levels. Wald tests indicate that both regressions are significant as a whole and Pseudo R² is respectively high indicating that our models have a good predictive power. We also performed a test to determine whether there is any misspecification in our model and the Link test indicates that there is none.

The estimation results indicate that as the firms' investment and its capacity utilization increase, the probability of innovation increases as well. Firms who allocate budget to new investments (such as new technologies and equipment, or update old technologies and equipment) have higher probability to innovate. Further, as occupancy rate increases, the probability to innovate increases as well. This finding is similar to that of Orfila-Sintes et al. (2005). Firms which hire a professional manager are more inclined to innovate. Professional management is very important in the introduction of innovation as suggested by our study and others (Sundbo et al. 2007; Kumar et al., 2008).

If the firm does not have any certification, its probability of innovating decreases compared to other firms which have any kind of certification. Hotels with any certifications are more inclined to innovate since they have to invest and adopt new

Variables	Logit Coefficients	Probit Coefficients
Investment	0.68*** (0.21)	0.38*** (0.09)
Occupancy Rate	0.83*** (0.21)	0.46*** (0.11)
Non-Certified	-9.61*** (2.25)	-5.49*** (1.31)
Number of Employees	-0.15*** (0.05)	-0.09*** (0.03)
(Number of Employees)²	0.0003*** (0.0001)	0.0002*** (0.0001)
Training	15.67*** (3.48)	9.04*** (2.09)
Professional Management	11.85*** (2.79)	6.66*** (1.57)
Collaboration with Academia	4.3*** (1.39)	2.34*** (0.79)
The age of firm	-0.58** (0.27)	-0.29*** (0.09)
Constant	-82.18 (21.15)	-45.71 (10.92)
Number of Observations	134	134
Wald chi²(9)	23.65	31.2
Prob > chi²	0.0049	0.0003
Pseudo R²	0.8984	0.8972
Link Test	-0.007	-0.011

Figures in parenthesis are robust standard errors. *, **, *** refer significance level at 10%, 5%, and 1% respectively.

Table 2. Logit and Probit Estimation Results

procedures and requirements and while doing this, their probability to innovate increases. In the literature that we were able to reach, we could not find any study that specifically take certification into account while investigating the innovative behaviors of the accommodation sector. So it is not possible to compare our results with any other study.

The coefficient on training is positive and significant. Firms who trained their employees are more likely to innovate than others. Our finding is similar to that of Orfila-Sintes and Mattson (2009) and Chun-Yao et al (2008). Collaboration with academia is found to have a positive impact on the innovation probabilities of firms. We could not compare our results with any other study since we could not find any empirical investigation which specifically takes into account the effect of collaboration with academia on innovation performance of firms.

We find significant coefficients on size and size squared. As size increases, the probability to innovate decreases; however, once the threshold is achieved then an increase in size increases the probability of innovation. The sign on coefficients on size square indicates that the probability to innovate increases once the economies of scale are achieved. There is an indication that economies of scale might exist in the accommodation sector. Our findings indicate that there is a U-shape relationship between innovation probability and firm size.

As far as we know there is no study in the tourism literature that specifically takes into account non-linearity in innovation with respect to size; hence we could not compare our results with any other study in the tourism literature. However, in other studies it is found that larger firms are more innovative than the small ones (Hjalager, 2002; Jacob et al., 2003; Jacob and Groizard, 2007; Sundbo et al., 2007).

Our empirical findings indicate that as firms get older, the probability to innovate decreases. This result is confirmed by both models. This finding suggests that aged firms may show resistance to innovation or be unable to change their managerial positions or renew facilities according to a more demanding environment. More research is needed in this area.

Concluding remarks

This study investigated the role of human capital and collaboration with academia on innovation performance of hospitality firms by employing self-generated survey data

obtained from the district of Mugla which is the second largest tourist attraction in Turkey. The econometric logit and probit model is estimated by utilizing the survey data. Estimation results indicate that besides conventional factors of innovation in the hospitality sector such as investment, management type and occupancy rate, human capital and collaboration with academia are important determinant factors of innovation performance of firms as well.

With the increasing competition around the globe, innovation becomes the center of attention. Firms and enterprises should be aware of the potentials for innovation, such as new business models, additional investment for not only renewal of the existing equipment but also new equipment and installations. Weiermair (2006) claims that the challenge for the future in the tourism sector is *“to provide increased value for money either through innovation-driven changes in production and marketing processes that reduce costs or product changes that offer more varied tourism experiences for quality conscious customers”*.

Innovation-oriented tourism policy is needed to have sustainable growth for the economy as a whole and for the tourism firms. These policies in the hospitality sector should aim to promote first the quality of education. The problem in the tourism sector is that it usually attracts staff with little or no industry-relevant training with a high labor turnover at a low salaries and non-standard working conditions. There is not widespread dedicated career system in the traditional sense in the tourism sector (Hjalager, 2002). To overcome these problems, investment in human capital in the tourism sector is severely needed. As Blake et al. (2006) suggest, government policy for training can overcome the problem of underinvestment of human capital by businesses. Second, collaboration with academia should be promoted. Our empirical evidence supports the view that university-sector relation is important for innovation performance, and thus for the overall performance of firms in tourism.

Sundbo et al. (2007) claim that larger firms are able to employ people with more education, thus increasing the possibility of innovation. They suggest that policy makers should give more importance to education and managerial professionalism in the tourism industry and promote the use of IT in the tourist industry. They claim that *“destination building based on large-scale tourism firms may sustain innovative and thus competitive tourist destinations.”* (p. 104).

Our findings suggest that increasing innovative activity of firms can involve several policy actions. These are; i) investment in both human and physical capital, ii) promotion of collaboration with academia, professional management and ownership of certification by firms, iii) taking measures to increase capacity utilization of firms and iv) promotion of larger firms so that economies of scale can be achieved. All

these can be achieved by the stimulating, coordinating and promoting role of the state.

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Notes

- 1 There are 5 parts and 44 questions in the questionnaire. The first part aimed to identify basic information about hotels. The second part was designed to address the list and description of novelties or improvements. The third part aimed to identify characterization of innovation activities. The fourth and fifth part includes questions concerning human capital characteristics of firms and collaboration with academia.
- 2 Following the literature and definition of in-novation in service sector of OECD, we defined technological improvement and innovation and ask whether firm is engaged with any kind of these activities. If the answer is yes then we categorize these firms as innovating firms.

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Istanbul hotels from a 360° perspective: A comprehensive view of the Istanbul accommodation industry

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Abstract: As destinations are striving to become more competitive and attract visitors and tourists, the performance of its enterprises, including hotels is essential. Despite the significance of research in this area, to date, there are no studies that analyze the accommodation industry of a given destination from a broad perspective, since most of the investigations focus on a specific area of the organization and its relationship with the hotel's performance. Therefore, the research aims to provide a comprehensive view of the accommodation industry in Istanbul. Moreover, the study will also attempt to establish a standard data collection instrument that can be used in the future as a benchmarking tool. The research will be carried out on a number of complementary perspectives that include management practices, financial performance measures, operational indicators, employee profile and attitudes, customer profile and satisfaction, environmental practices and use and investment in technology. Furthermore, the study attempts to determine the most important factors that affect the performance of the hotels and to explore the relationship between the different variables included.

Keywords: Accommodation industry; Performance of hotels; Competitiveness of hotels

Título: Una visión global de la industria hotelera en Estambul

Resumen: El rendimiento de las empresas en los destinos turísticos gana importancia con el esfuerzo que realizan estos lugares por volverse más competitivos y atraer visitantes y turistas. A pesar de la necesidad de investigaciones en esta área, hasta la fecha no se ha llevado a cabo ningún trabajo que analice la industria hotelera en un destino desde una perspectiva amplia, ya que la mayoría de los estudios se centran en un área específica de la organización y su relación con el rendimiento del hotel. Por lo tanto, este estudio tiene como objetivo ofrecer una visión completa de la industria hotelera en Estambul. Por otra parte, la investigación también tratará de establecer un instrumento de recogida de datos estándar que se pueda utilizar en el futuro como herramienta de evaluación comparativa. La investigación se llevará a cabo desde diferentes perspectivas que incluyen prácticas de gestión, medidas de rendimiento financiero, indicadores operacionales, perfil y actitudes de los empleados, perfil y satisfacción de los clientes, prácticas medio-ambientales y uso e inversión en tecnología. Además el estudio trata de determinar los factores más importantes que afectan al rendimiento de los hoteles y explorar la relación entre las diferentes variables incluidas.

Palabras clave: Industria hotelera; Rendimiento de los hoteles; Competitividad de los hoteles.

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Introduction

As destinations are striving to compete with each other and attract visitors and tourists, the performance of its enterprises, including the hotel industry is of paramount importance (Tsai, Song and Wong, 2009). Researchers have noted that there is a relationship between the competitiveness of a destination and that of its hospitality industries, which seems to go both ways (Tsai et al., 2009; Kozak and Rimmington, 1998). Quality accommodation facilities and services are essential for an attractive destination (Kozak and Rimmington 1998), while the demand conditions at the destination and the increase in the number of visitors to the place also benefit the hotel industry (Go, Pine and Yu, 1994). Istanbul as a city destination has increased its attraction tremendously in recent years, going from 3,473,185 visitors in 2004 to 7,984,827 in 2011 (Ministry of Culture and Tourism Istanbul Office, 2012). In parallel to this increase in visitors, a considerable number of hotels, both chain and individual, have opened recently in the city. Istanbul currently holds a bed capacity of 112,385, with another 31,489 beds under construction (Ministry of Culture and Tourism Istanbul Office, 2012). Despite this development, there are no studies that examine the accommodation industry in Istanbul and its contribution to the city as a tourism destination. Furthermore, in the hospitality literature, the performance and competitiveness of hotels have been examined rather recently, as compared to other sectors (Tsai et al., 2009). Several studies have attempted to analyze the competitiveness of the hotel industry in relation to various factors, such as human resources, technology, productivity, brand image, customer satisfaction, etc. (Barros and Alves, 2004; Brown and Dev, 2000; Brown and Ragsdale, 2002; Matilla and O'Neill, 2003; Campos-Soria, Gonzalez Garcia and Roper Garcia, 2005). However, there is a lack of studies that attempt to combine the various factors and provide a comprehensive picture of the hotel industry in any specific given destination.

Therefore, the study aims to provide a comprehensive view of the hotels in Istanbul. The research will be carried out from different aspects and perspectives that include management practices, financial performance measures, operational indicators, employee profile and attitudes, customer profile and satisfaction, environmental practices and use of technology. Furthermore, the study attempts to determine the most important factors that affect the

performance of the hotels and to explore the relationship between the different variables included. As a result of the research, a standard measuring instrument of the accommodation industry to be used for benchmarking purposes will also be proposed.

Literature review

As a first area of concern, the research covers the accommodation industry of Istanbul from a human resources management (HRM) perspective. Studies have investigated determinants like price, brand image, service quality, productivity, technology and physical characteristics for understanding hotel competitiveness. However, investments in people management strategies and systems are found to be more and more important for developing tourism destinations.

The area of HRM covers the managing of people in achieving organisation's goals as well as managing the employee-employer relationship. The human resource management activities can be listed as recruitment, selection, development, reward and motivation, performance management, maintenance and departure. As much as HRM needs to consider the interests of employees and ensure that there are the right numbers, types and skill mixes of employees at the right time and cost, HRM is also part of the organisation's strategic decision making. In the literature, there are numerous studies that have linked human resource management activities to improved business results. To name a few, Schuster links it with financial returns (Schuster, 1986), Manor and Huselid with firm value (Manor and Huselid, 1995), and Subramony with operating performance (Subramony, 2009).

Despite the given importance to good human resource practices by manufacturing and service industries, the hospitality sector has been rather slow in adopting these practices (Hoque, 1999). However in recent years the examples of managers that are aiming to improve performance results through good human resource practices have increased. In parallel, the number of empirical studies examining the link between HRM and organizational performance has risen. For example, Hoque examines the high involvement human resource practices of the UK hotel industry and concludes that the relationship between these practices and performance is dependent on the strategy the hotel is pursuing. In parallel, Cho and colleagues examine 78 hotels in

the US (Cho, Woods, Jang, and Erdem, 2006). Their study indicates that out of the 12 HRM practices examined, labor-management participation programs, incentive plans, and pre-employment tests are more likely to result in lower turnover rates for non-managerial employees.

Other than the HRM practices of an organization the attitudes and behaviors of its employees are also essential influences on its performance. Especially, the labor intensive nature of the hospitality industry forces managers at all levels to focus on the attitudes and behaviors of employees in these enterprises. Fittingly, recent discussions on sustainable competitiveness have placed sizable importance on human capital being a major source of advantage for the industry's organizations (e.g., Lee et al., 2010; Tsai et al., 2009). While the sector enjoys a rapid growth worldwide, it is at the same time marked by high levels of employee turnover, which is argued to be a result of "turnover culture" (Iverson and Deery, 1997). In fact, there is a rapidly growing demand for skilled employees at all position in the Istanbul hotels, yet at the same time the industry suffers from an unacceptably high level of staff mobility (Kuruüzüm, Anafarta and Irmak, 2008). Thus the study also aims to analyze in detail the attitudes and behaviors of the employees working in the sector.

The research also attempts to analyze the accommodation industry in Istanbul from the point of view of the customers, as consumer satisfaction is believed to result in loyalty and positive word of mouth (Tsai et al., 2009). In this sense, customer satisfaction and perceptions of service quality have been seen as essential in increasing the performance and competitiveness of hotels (Akbaba, 2006; Matilla and O'Neill, 2003).

Studies of service quality and customer satisfaction are abundant in the tourism and hospitality literature, and researchers have developed or adapted scales to measure service quality and customer satisfaction (Akan, 1995; Akbaba, 2006; Stevens, Knutson and Patton, 1995). Many destination management organizations in developed countries systematically apply customer satisfaction measures on a continuous basis in order to determine the competitiveness of their hotels. For example, the Austrian Guest Satisfaction Barometer is periodically applied to participating hotels in Austria and provides benchmarking information relating the competitiveness of hotels in this country (Matzler and Pechlaner, 2001). Kozak and Rimmington (1998)

also identified critical performance areas that are commonly used in hospitality and grading classification schemes, such as: welcome, friendliness and attitude; quality of the facilities; Customer care and attention; level of service; decoration, etc.

Innovation and use of new technologies has also been considered as a source of competitiveness of hospitality enterprises (Ham et al., 2005). Due to the information intensive nature of tourism, information technologies play an essential role, since they are able to provide a better understanding of the intangible product offer (Orfila-Sintes et al., 2005). Furthermore, technology and information can be used by the hospitality companies to obtain and analyze information in order to achieve a better business performance (Orfila-Sintes et al., 2005). As hospitality organizations are comprised of a vast array of services and operations, there is a broad selection of varied technologies that can be applied (Connolly and Haley, 2008). These include customer-interaction related technologies, productivity improvement technologies, knowledge management technologies, decision-support technologies, etc.

Another research concern for this study is environmental and sustainability management including technical aspects that pose a growing concern for hotels. In parallel with the global business community, sustainability has been a major theme pervading in the hospitality industry. Sustainability in tourism is defined by Butler (1993:23) as "tourism which is developed and maintained in a community environment in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not grade or alter the human and physical environment in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and wellbeing of other activities and processes." Sustainability embraces three dimensions such as economics, environment and equity (CSD, 1999). Economic sustainability is a major concern and challenge of all hospitality businesses. Environmental sustainability addresses the impacts on the natural environment and deals with the issues of global change especially CO2 emissions and CFCs, energy (power, water, fuel) conservation and management, air-water-noise-visual pollution, habitat and ecosystems degradation, material and resource consumption, and all kinds of waste management (Holden 2008). Equity sustainability includes issues such as the distribution of the income and profits from hospitality operations, the impacts of these operations on local communities and cultures, the potential

for the operations to not only minimize damage but also make positive contributions to the environment (Cook 1999).

There are different sustainability programs and operations undertaken by city and resort hotels in accordance with their physical environments. In the case of city hotels, it is more likely that they have programs and operations designed to minimize impacts on the environment than impacts on local communities and cultures. In the investigation of the environmental concerns, empowerment and involvement of the staff has an important role as staff can be a positive contributor to the program itself and take the ideas and concepts developed outside the property into their homes and communities (Martin 2006; Stipanuk 2006).

Butler (1998:27) suggests that the hospitality industry has adopted sustainability for economic, public relations and marketing reasons. According to the research findings, lack of sustainability concerns in hospitality facilities may result in negative consequences such as negative customer reaction and negative impact on employee morale (Stipanuk 2006). There are also legal and social challenges that may result in a negative image for the hotel facility. Considering the impacts of environmental and sustainability management on the competitiveness of the hotel industry, this study also aims to provide an analysis of the hotels in Istanbul regarding their energy conservation and management, waste minimization, material and resource consumption, site development and design processes, and indoor environmental quality empowerment and involvement of staff, guest education.

The above background information illustrates examples of studies and research that has been carried on specific areas of hospitality organizations. As explained before, comprehensive studies are lacking. Therefore this research aims to be the first to provide an integrative view of the accommodation industry in Istanbul. Such a broad perspective may also be useful in order to explore the relationships between the different areas in the organization and determine the most important factors that impact on the performance of hotels.

Methodology

The study will be carried out under different modules that will include employees' attitudes and behavior, customers' perceptions, management practices, innovation and use of technology, opera-

tional and performance measures, and technical and environmental issues.

The research will be conducted on a sample of hotels in Istanbul. A tentative sample size of 50 hotels is determined. The hotels will be chosen using a quota sampling technique, in order to obtain information on hotels with different star category (5 stars, 4 stars, 3 stars and special category boutique hotels), but also taking into consideration the bed capacity of the different categories. The hotels will be selected from a list of Istanbul hotels who are members of TUROB (Touristic Hotels and Investors Association), since the association has agreed to address its members and request their participation. TUROB has a wide membership (<http://www.turob.com/uyelerimiz.aspx?statu=1andregion=0>) among Istanbul hotels that includes 46 five star, 80 four star, 53 three star, and 54 boutique and special category hotels, representing over 70% of the bed capacity in Istanbul.

Given the multidisciplinary and comprehensive nature of the study, the sampling and data collection methodologies will be different for each of the various modules included, although all the modules will be applied in each of the hotels in the sample. A key person will be identified in each of the participating hotels, and trained as to the data collection methods to be used in each of the different modules. Questionnaires will be distributed to customers, employees and managers, while structured interviews will be carried out with the persons responsible from the human resources, financial performance and technical operations in each of the selected hotels.

Expected contribution of the research

From a theoretical perspective, the study will provide an important contribution as it will be the first study to analyze the hospitality industry in a given destination from such a comprehensive perspective. The data obtained will enable to establish not only relationships between different aspects of the hotels' competitiveness, but it will also allow for the determination of the most important factors in predicting performance of the hotels. Moreover, as currently there is no research that is carried out on the accommodation industry in Istanbul, the study can result in the identification and adoption of a standard research instrument to be used in the future by the industry and the destination managers for benchmarking purposes. Established methodologies used in destinations in developed coun-

tries may not be applicable to other destinations in developing countries. Therefore, deriving a usable and standard research instrument to measure and benchmark the competitiveness and performance of the accommodation industry of a destination in a developing country would be a major contribution of the proposed research

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Reseñas de publicaciones

Class Acts: Service and Inequality in Luxury Hotels

Rachel Sherman, University of California Press, Berkeley, Los Angeles, USA: 2007.

ISBN: 978-0-520-24782-6

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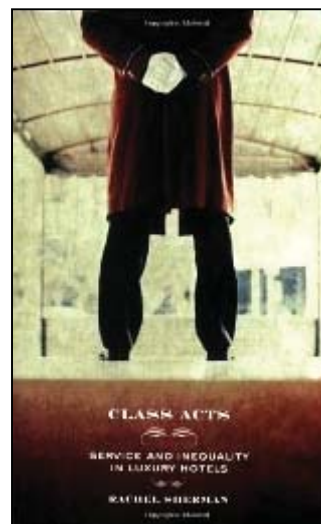
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“...Take the advertisement of a present day ‘millionaire’s hotel’, with the assurance it gives ‘the very last word in sumptuousness’. Is this not one of the features of our time upon which we all trust that a wiser age will look back, not only with condemnation, but with a sense of nausea?” Herbert L. Stewart (1918, as cited by Sherman, 2007, p.257)

It is true that the last crisis of the current capitalist economic system, which has been going on since 2008, raised more public outcry globally (99% marches) compared to the time *Class Acts* has been published. Still, the high-end consumption that is analyzed by Sherman (2007) seems nowhere near disappearing and human race seems nowhere closer that “*wiser age*” that Stewart mentioned. Thus, the book *Class Acts: Service and Inequality in Luxury Hotels* deserves a renewed attention nowadays.

Sherman’s (2007) book, which is an extended ethnographic work that uses participant observation and in-depth interviews, represents one of the best examples of sociology of labor, occupations and organizations that focuses on the luxury hotel industry.

Sherman uses two urban luxury hotels as her sites to analyze the nature of luxury service. It is well established in the service work literature that unlike manufacturing jobs, all service jobs are defined by their requirement of face-to-face contact



and interactive production and consumption. Sherman makes an addition to those characteristics by showing that in a luxury service workers are also expected to engage in intense emotional labor by continuously recognizing “*the customers’ limitless entitlement to their attention and effort*” (p.6). Therefore, Sherman suggests that the globally omnipresent luxury consumption of the new service economy creates “*new forms of inequality*” (p.259) between the worker and the client. Thus, a new paradigm or at least more flexible concepts are necessary to understand these new dynamics. In her own words:

“These issues matter for two reasons. First, they are important for our understanding

of interactive work and its links to relationships to selfhood. Second, they are significant for our conception of how work is connected to class" (p.3)

Sherman uses two concepts in her book that are central to her discussion. One of them is the notion of "consent", which she borrows from Buroway's (1979) study. Briefly, she describes consent as "workers' use of their agency to participate in work" (p. 16). The notion of consent also allows the worker to withdraw their consent in various ways such as quitting or not engaging in required emotional labor. The other concept is "normalization" that refers to "the taken-for-granted nature of both interactive and structural inequality. Unequal entitlements and responsibilities ... they simply became a feature of the everyday landscape of the hotel." (p.17).

Throughout the book Sherman builds on how these two concepts function in workers' strategies to shape their identity and behavior on the face of managers, coworkers and guests. The first four chapters of the book mainly focus on the strategies that workers use to construct themselves, not as subservient but as in control of their work.

The strategies that workers use with guests, which are explained in great detail, include: personalization and recognition; anticipation and legitimation of needs; pampering as display of labor; deference and sincerity; playing games of speed, service, control (i.e. maximizing sales, room blocking, etc.); games of money (i.e. tipping game); condescension and criticism of guests (i.e. guests as needy); limiting the entitlement of guests to stay in the hotel and consume luxury services.

In the second chapter, the author also includes a discussion of how organizational factors, such as different managerial regimes, rhetoric, division of labor, worker demographics, internal labor markets and practical cultures of managerial authority and worker relations, also shape the strategies developed by workers and how different managerial regimes help workers to see themselves as powerful, professional, skilled and independent.

In the third and fourth chapters, Sherman describes how workers constitute themselves as superior to their peers by using: comparisons related to competence; emphasizing perks associated with their jobs; and using association with the status of the hotel and its guests.

In chapter five, Sherman focuses on how reciprocity in luxury hotels is not only defined by antagonism, instrumentality and un-authenticity as it is usually discussed in the service work literature.

She shows how meaningful and reciprocal relations are formed between workers and clients that helped workers become invested in their job. While reciprocal relations act as the major mechanism to generate consent, the normalization of inequality is achieved as guests also use reciprocity to constitute workers as inherently equal. Sherman explains three ways through which this equality is established. The first is the acceptance of a mutual obligation and exchange of both workers and clients to each other. The second is the acceptance of worker labor as voluntary and offered willingly. Finally, the third is through the development of meaningful relationships. The chapter also discusses what happens in situations when this contract breaks down.

While the majority of the book is dedicated to describe how employees construct themselves as powerful agents, the last chapter of the book goes into some details as to how the guests produce their entitlement to luxury services. Through their contact with hotel staff, guests learn how to behave in the luxury environment and come to see themselves as deserving of luxury consumption. For their part, they work to create selves that are needy, deserving and generous in order to overcome their fears of not belonging to luxury sites or exploiting workers.

Overall, the author provides three important conclusions: The first one is that the entitlement in the production-consumption of luxury service emerges from class positions of hotel workers and guests outside the hotel. Thus, the luxury service in the hotels *depends on* unequal entitlement to material resources outside the hotel. In addition, greater entitlement to material resources also *guarantees* unequal entitlements to recognition. The second one is that the class is not only an important factor that structures luxury service sites, but it is also created interactively within these sites through workers' and guests' performances. The third one is that luxury service sites *normalize* the unequal entitlements in production-consumption relations through the workers' and guests' various strategies of self.

In conclusion, the book *Class Acts* is a good case of thick description of the relation between class and service work. It is a highly readable book with interesting anecdotes and solid sociological concepts, offering the reader a complicated and nuanced picture of the social dynamics in the luxury hotels. Sherman gives a detailed analysis of luxury service, its organization and the negotiation of inequality between workers and guests through various practices, which eventually make class inequality seem

normal.

The book offers a detailed description and a sound critical sociological analysis of the professionalized luxury service in hotels that normalize existing unequal social relations and reproduces ideas about class, race and gender. In addition, Sherman asks a very important question in the conclusion:

“But another critical question emerges here: What are the possibilities for challenging unequal worker-client entitlements and dominant ideas about income and class inequality generally? (p. 268)...it is hard to see how consumption entitlements could be contested practically, especially in the service theatre. In luxury hotels, workers cannot demand guests to be less rich or less entitled to recognition, because the hotel’s existence is predicated on these features. And, of course, the issue goes beyond the service theatre itself, for class entitlements are embedded in cultures outside the hotel. (p.269)”

It is not realistic to expect answers to such complicated questions from one book and from one discipline. Therefore, *Class Acts* definitely is a must-read for scholars and students of tourism as it offers a critical perspective to the growing economic inequality that also underlies luxury consumption in certain forms of tourism.

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Reseñas de publicaciones

Orienting Istanbul: Cultural Capital of Europe?

Edited by Deniz Göktürk, Levent Soysal and Ipek Türeli, London: Routledge: 2010.

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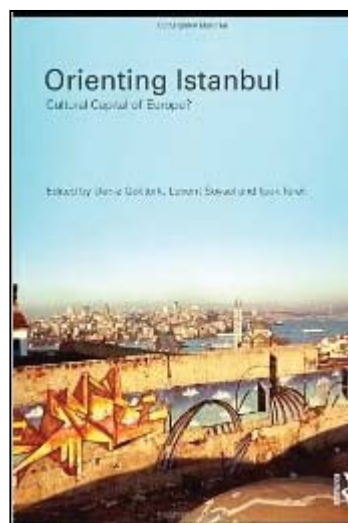
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Recently, the city of Istanbul has become the subject, the pivot of the narrative, or the constitutive setting for many books, in Turkish or in English, fiction or social science, monographs or edited volumes (Eckard, 2008; Guvenc, 2009; Keyder, 1999; Keyder 2010; Magden 2005; Mills 2010; Navaro-Yashin, 2002; Pamuk, 2006; Perouse, 2011; Safak, 2000; Stokes, 2010; Tugal, 2009; Yardimci, 2005). In these works, Istanbul has been represented as the unique showcase of the contemporary Turkish culture: Cosmopolitan, multilayered, commercialized, privatized, ambiguous, perplexing, incoherent, dangerous, segregated, and full of intricate relations that urban citizens have to navigate through. Culture has long been a problematical term for social scientists, as the city for urban analysts, and Istanbul for all those who have endeavored to understand and interpret Turkey. Thus, a single volume that brings together the different aspects of “cultural life in Istanbul” in a multidimensional and interdisciplinary manner was both an obvious need and an ambitious task. *Orienting Istanbul* claims to satisfy this need with its all-embracing content and opportune timing, when Istanbul was endorsed as one of the three European cultural capitals of the year 2010.

The book consists of five sections with an introduction and an epilogue. The three editors present the rationale and the road-

map of the book in the comprehensive introductory chapter. Istanbul has recently gained a global visibility among the art circles mainly because of novels and the (urban) memoir of the Nobel prized author Orhan Pamuk and films of Nuri Bilge Ceylan, who won two Cannes Film Festival awards in 2008 and 2011, and Fatih Akin, a Hamburg based Turkish director, who won a Golden Bear award at Berlin Film Festival in 2004. Based on these and other successful stories of urban cultural renewal, *Orienting Istanbul* is presented as “the first book to capture Istanbul’s rise to the world stage set by post-industrial capitalism. It offers new insights into the representation of Istanbul as a city of culture,



history, and diversity” (pp. 3-4). As an inevitable part of the logic behind the book, this rising cultural city phenomenon is explicated with the process of Turkey’s integration to the European Union, or “European Culture”, if there is one. As parallel to the contested history of the recent Europeanization of Istanbul, the editors in the introduction also highlight the imperial city and its remnants in contemporary Istanbul, (for example ways of remembering the Ottoman capital), as well as the transformations the city passed through in the last century under the authority of the nation-state. Istanbul’s last wave of urban transformation has been experienced since the early 1980s as the city has gradually become more open to globalization and neoliberalization policies. In this process, Istanbul has deindustrialized to a large extent and ‘the culture industry’ in addition to finance and service sectors has risen despite the fact that Turkey in general, and the urban economy of Istanbul in particular, are still significantly behind Europe in terms of generating employment in and revenues from cultural industries.

The first section of the book includes two chapters. The most renowned scholar who writes about Istanbul, Caglar Keyder, provides a critical introduction to the debates around globalization and land use in Istanbul. In the next chapter, Engin Isin, as a result of his observations in various city-scapes, advocates that Istanbul should not only be seen as a city of melancholia and sadness but also as a communal space of joy and pleasure. The second section of the book starts with a sociological study by Tuna Kuyucu and Ozlem Unsal on spatial transformations, housing policies, gentrification and the role of the state and local government in the re-making of the city. The following chapter focuses on Eminönü district, which is the historical core of the city with a rather contradictory industrial past, and ‘han’ as a specific Ottoman setting, redefined and reordered as ‘cultural heritage’ today. Chapter five by Jeremy Walton presents the author’s outsider perspectives on the debate of the Islamic city and reconfiguring Islamic parts of the town. The last chapter of this section introduces “MiniaTurk”—a miniature park space constructed and managed by the Istanbul metropolitan municipality full with model buildings and structures that represent and mediate material as well as symbolic boundaries of the Turkish nation-state.

The third section is devoted to examine cinematic works from and about Istanbul. The first chapter of this part, by Nezih Erdogan, takes a closer

look at how the art of cinema played tangible and intangible roles in the linkage between modernity and the city. The next chapter animates a migrants’ viewpoint of Istanbul through two films from 1960s and 2000s. Deniz Bayraktar and Elif Akcali in chapter nine analyze the aerial filming of the city in the movie *Magic Carpet Ride* as a departure point to understand the intricate webs of relations that both the film uses as its subject matter and the city contributes as its social thread. In the last chapter of this part, Deniz Gokturk concentrates on Fatih Akin’s recent documentary on Istanbul’s diverse musical culture and uses the metaphor of ‘bridge’ as a projection for the de-territorialized spectatorship of the new, digital era. The fourth section of the book focuses another setting in which arts and the city relate, the Istanbul Biennial, with an interview and two essays. The curator of the Tenth Istanbul Biennial Hou Hanru is interviewed for the book and this conversation is complemented with the seasoned art scholar and practicing artist Jale Erzen’s meditations on Istanbul’s time travel in terms of art scene and yet another chapter that compares Istanbul Biennial with Berlin Biennial and the two different urban cultural milieus that art is positioned.

The last part of the book concerns Turkey’s serpentine Europeanization processes and Istanbul’s naming as one of the three European cultural capitals of the year 2010. The section opens with a discussion about the European Capital of Culture Programme by Carola Hein and continues with a report about Istanbul’s temporary cultural capital status by Oguz Oner, who is a specialist at the Programme’s Istanbul agency. On her part, Marcy Brink-Danan portrays Istanbul’s Jewish population and their participation to urban culture as a significant register to ongoing debates on cosmopolitanism. The last chapter of this section paves the way for rethinking Istanbul, its alternative futures and Europe from the point of civilization, modernity and culture. The anthropologist Michael Herzfeld creatively concludes the book in the epilogue while he simultaneously furthers the discussion on culture, modernity, the past and the city while he *kaleidoscopically* weaves the further points of analysis that this volume can make sense in other geographies in the epilogue.

Orienting Istanbul could be read as a response by scholars from diverse backgrounds to the deep transmogrification that Istanbul has experienced in the last quarter century. The three major interconnected processes—neoliberalization, deindustrial-

ization and globalization, re-formed and re-shaped the city-spaces in both economic and spatial levels. This book takes the culture industries and the art scene as a departure point to decode what has happened in Istanbul. This constitutive preference about the architecture of the book is buttressed by a number of more social scientific approaches that provide a miscellaneous background for the debates about the role of the players of the arts and culture circles. One dimension that might be criticized about this architectural preference to talk about arts and culture is the relative silence (except Chapter 3) on Istanbulites' interpretations and reactions against this massive change. This book informs us about the new Istanbul and its urban economy that is based on culture, heritage, arts, and creative industries but our curiosity on how this novelty is read, participated, incorporated, resisted or denied by millions of Istanbulites continues unsatisfied.

Finally, I want to mention the urban tourism aspect that *Orienting Istanbul* is indeed deeply related with but on the surface it seems like a marginalized concern. Despite the fact that the book starts with recounting Istanbul's 19th position at the *New York Times*' ranking of "The 31 Places to Go in 2010" in the very first page (and this information is reiterated in the book) the phrases "tourism" and "Istanbul as a tourist destination" passes only a few times throughout the book. I tend to deem the development of the tourist city and the rapid increase in the power and effectiveness of culture industries and art scenes are both reciprocal and symbiotic processes. In this sense, Istanbul is not an industrial center any more, even at the national scale, it is not a financial center yet (maybe it will never be) and it is not possible to represent it as a "global city" through the multiscale networks, flows and mobilities it is meant to have. In this urban context, Istanbul rises (or, "is discovered" by the Westerners) simultaneously as a tourist city, as its historical counterpart Rome, and as a hip urban venue of arts and culture, maybe as Berlin or Venice. *Orienting Istanbul* opens a crucial door in our comprehension of the dynamics that govern the rapidly evolving city (which is in a "frenetic transformation" as Herzfeld puts it, p. 313) but it also highlights the obvious need for different studies and research agendas to further contribute our critical knowledge on Istanbul's potential as a tourist destination and its multiple meanings at a palette including cosmopolitanism, creativity, and flexible boundaries of the city, the nation and the world.

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