ACHIEVING GUEST SATISFACTION THROUGH THE AGRITOURISM EXPERIENCE: THE CASE OF CYPRUS

PROKOPIS CHRISTOU

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of Nottingham Trent University for the degree of Doctorate of Philosophy

March 2010

Synopsis

Tourism is being appreciated for its plentiful positive (e.g.) economic impacts upon worldwide destinations. Even so, its uncontrolled development has caused a number of negative (e.g.) sociocultural effects which have led to the concept of tourism sustainability to be in the spotlight. Rural tourism was sought by global destinations as a sustainable form of tourism which could revive rural communities. One such destination which sought tourism diversification while acknowledging the potential benefits of rural tourism is the Mediterranean island of Cyprus. Being concerned with uncontrolled tourism development especially in the coastal areas, the official bodies of the island implemented the agritourism program. Through its promotion the destination sought tourism diversification and economic regeneration of the countryside. However, the success of the program may be argued, on the basis that it has only achieved low occupancy rates. In view of this, researchers note that the success of any tourism sector requires guest satisfaction achievement. Yet it appears evident that there is a lack of an investigation of agritourist satisfaction, while the answer to the question 'how can agritourist satisfaction be achieved' still remains elusive. In fact it seems that the agritourist satisfaction process has escaped the attention of global tourism researchers and demands further exploration. Knowledge gaps can be detected in the three stages involved in this process: the 'pre-travel', 'at-the-destination' and 'meta/post-travel' stages. This is reflected in worldwide academics' incessant demands for additional research in the area of agritourist satisfaction and the need to appreciate agritourists in terms of what motivates them to travel, what they value the most while at the destination and what their post-travel behavioural intentions are.

That being established, this study entails an ethnographic investigation of the agritourist satisfaction process by using the island of Cyprus as a case study. The purpose of the study is to investigate the satisfaction process of agritourists with the intention of gaining further insights about these tourists and provide in no uncertain terms an answer to the question of how their satisfaction can be achieved. For this reason the researcher employs ethnographic techniques as a shift from traditional tourism research in order to get as close as possible to those under investigation.

The methodological approach involves a combination of informal interviews, dozens of casual conversations, an active participation in the daily lives of the participants (agritourists) as well as an observation of their daily routine. The ethnographic study which lasted more than a year was brought to an end once some degree of redundancy was achieved. Fieldwork findings reveal for the first time several niche groups of agritourists (e.g. 'authenticity seekers' and 'gastronomics') who have been pin-pointed based on the occasion for visiting the rural areas. Agritourists appear to be well informed in regards to their upcoming experience. The differing occasion for countryside visitation, the information derived from various sources as well as past experiences, all append towards the formation of agritourists' expectations which are found to differ according to the individual. Different sub-groups of guests focus their attention on dissimilar offerings while at the rural setting, hence, different factors are critical for the success of differing occasions. Agritourists seem to take for granted both 'tangible' and 'intangible' aspects of their experience. The destination hence is faced with the challenging task of addressing and satisfying basic/low and high needs and expectations of a well informed, sophisticated and demanding market. General satisfaction was only expressed by those who felt that they had covered their physiological and psychological needs and expectations while on top of that experienced the unexpected pleasant element. Of note is the fact that revisit intentions were only expressed by those who remained satisfied with their experience.

The findings lend a hand to the provision of important and specific recommendations towards international rural destination managers and practitioners (e.g. hosts). The study provides useful guidelines on how to cover the basic and high needs and expectations of agritourists and how to pleasantly surprise them. These suggestions are of great value to those involved in the rural tourism sector since through these they may satisfy and foster the positive behavioural intentions of their guests. Finally, the research findings contribute to the existing body of tourism knowledge by providing novel information regarding the psycho-synthesis of agritourists and their satisfaction process.

List of Contents

List of abbreviations and terminology

List of abbreviations

C.T.O	Cyprus Tourism Organization
C.A.C	Cyprus Agrotourism Company
TH1(2) or THA1(2)	Example of an acronym used to indicate a participant who the researcher engaged in an informal interview with. (Mentioned and explained in the methodology section)
M1 or F4	Example of an acronym used to indicate a participant who the researcher engaged in a casual conversation with. (Mentioned and explained in the methodology section)
Mr./Mrs. xxx	The 'xxx' are used to protect the identities of hosts
WOM	Word Of Mouth

List of terminology

Agritourist	Regard it as synonymous to agrotourist and rural tourist
Agritourism	Regard it as synonymous to agrotourism and rural tourism

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my gratitude towards my director of studies Conrad Lashley and my supervisors Alexis Saveriades and Warwick Best for their valuable help and guidance.

Also, I would like to thank 'hosts' for their hospitality, as well as all those who helped me complete this study.

Special thanks to my family who have been deprived of my presence for the purpose of this study, for supporting me and showing their understanding.

Chapter 1: Research aim and structure of the study

The first chapter reveals the rationale behind the research, the aim of this study, the research question it seeks to answer, its significance and contribution to knowledge. In addition, this chapter presents the structure of the study by introducing the chapters which will follow.

1.1. Problem identification, research aim and objectives

Worldwide destinations declared their interest and proceeded in the development of sustainable tourism (Weaver 2003). Rural tourism has been proposed as a sustainable form of tourism which could revive the rural economies (Morais and Morais 2004). Global destinations nowadays promote rural tourism as an alternative form to the traditional offer of the 3S's- sun, sea and sand (Figuerola 2002). Researchers (e.g. Frochot 2005) stress the importance of rural tourism for the sustainability of rural communities, while the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO 2009) notes that it sustains rural destinations. The importance of rural tourism for the sustainability of rural communities has been long recognised while its positive effects upon destinations are acknowledged by a number of researchers (e.g. Roberts and Hall 2001; Liu 2006; Kuo and Chiu 2006). In fact rural tourism has expanded and has changed in many countries from a supplementary commercial activity to a sector of its own (Busby and Rendle 2000).

A destination which proceeded in the promotion of rural tourism is the Mediterranean island of Cyprus (Cope 2000). Several researchers (e.g. Andronikou 1987; Ioannides and Apostolopoulos 1999; Ioannides 2001; Antoniadou 2006) agree on the fact that uncontrolled development and growth of tourism in Cyprus (especially in coastal areas) have created several economic, socio-cultural and environmental problems. For this reason, the Cyprus Tourism Organization (C.T.O) implemented the agritourism program (Kazepi 2002) which through its promotion the country sought tourism diversification and economic regeneration of the countryside (Sharpley 2002).

Academics (e.g. Lewis 1998a; Fleischer and Felsenstein 2000; Ilbery et al. 2001; Yague 2002; Peggy 2003; Petrzelka et al. 2005; Kuo and Chiu 2006) stress the positive impacts of rural tourism over the economic and socio-cultural environment of rural destinations. These include amongst others the fact that it is less polluting than most of the other industries, it creates opportunities for cultural exchange, it fosters greater awareness and revitalisation of local customs, it helps the re-population of remote regions and it provides supplementary income to people who live in the countryside. Indeed, rural tourism development brought some benefits on the rural areas of Cyprus, such as, new life has been brought to old buildings and it has provided a supplementary income to local rural communities. Even so, its success may be questioned on the basis that it has achieved only low occupancy rates (Sharpley 2002).

In this regard, Lockyer (2002) notes that the result of not providing those items which are important to guests, is guest dissatisfaction and low occupancy rates. Beckett (1997) adds that the success of any tourism sector depends on whether or not guest satisfaction is achieved. Furthermore, Chatzigeorgiou et al. (2009, p.4) states that 'as any other tourism activity, agrotourism needs satisfied customers in order to achieve desired outcomes'. A number of researchers (e.g. Matzler, Fuchs and Schubert 2004; Martin- Cejas 2006; Yu and Goulden 2006) stress the positive impacts of achieving guest satisfaction. Others (e.g. Yoon and Uysal 2005; Hui, Wan and Ho 2007) note that satisfaction is an extremely important factor leading to the success of the hospitality and tourism sector.

Even so, based on researchers (e.g. Bennett and Rundle-Thiele 2004; Su 2004) providing and maintaining tourist satisfaction seems to be one of the biggest contemporary challenges that the sector is facing. Furthermore, academics (e.g. Yu and Goulden 2006) stress the need for understanding tourist satisfaction. Others (e.g. Chatzigeorgiou et al. 2009) call for further investigation in the area of 'agrotourism' satisfaction. Kirkby and Nelson (2003) make reference to additional research regarding the behaviour of customers, prior, during and after the experience, so as to effectively manage the total experience.

All the same, the Cyprus Tourism Organisation has not yet proceeded in the investigation of agritourist satisfaction. Despite that, there is plenty of evidence (as presented below) to suggest that the agritourist satisfaction process has escaped the attention of global researchers. Knowledge gaps can be detected in the three stages which are involved in this process. Firstly, the 'pre-travel stage' (the stage which precedes the experience of the agritourist), secondly, the 'destination stage' (the stage in which the agritourist is at the destination) and finally the 'meta-travel stage' (the stage which follows the countryside experience of agritourists).

More specifically, the importance of understanding tourist motivation and particularly the importance of identifying the tourist needs is being stressed by researchers (e.g. Kvist and Klefsjo 2006). This is due to the relationship of tourist needs with satisfaction (Bergman and Klefsjo 2003). Motivation seems to influence the way the tourist perceives the destination in terms of forming certain expectations about it (Correia, Oom do Valle and Moco 2007). Researchers (e.g. Rodriguez del Bosque, Martin and Collado 2006) stress the relationship of expectations with satisfaction. Even so, studies in the rural tourism field (e.g. Frochot 2005) have identified four-six groups of tourists based on their motivation for countryside visitation but sub-segments which could probably correspond to niche markets have not been identified. Yet Kastenholz and Almeida (2008) make clear reference to a not homogeneous rural tourism market while others (e.g. Lashley and Lincoln 2003) refer to differing customer occasions with dissimilar motives and expectations. That said Frochot (2005) calls for additional research to appreciate rural tourist expectations while Kastenholz and Almeida (2008) highlight the need of understanding the motivations of rural tourists. Therefore, the agritourist 'pre-travel' stage needs further exploration. That being established, once at the destination the tourist is offered services/products the quality of which may affect his/her satisfaction. Bergman and Klefsjo (2003) note the role of 'quality' in satisfying customers. The importance of quality in the rural tourism field is being stressed in relevant studies (e.g. Saez, Fuentes and Montes 2007). Even so, researchers (e.g. Yuksel 2004) note that there are tourists who give more emphasis on the quality of interaction with people (e.g. hosts). For instance Lashley (2008) argues that the nature and quality of the host-guest transaction are given high priority by guests.

Others (e.g. Garrod and Youell 2006) stress the importance of the 'countryside capital' (e.g. landscape and historical buildings) quality for rural tourists. Researchers such as Yu and Goulden (2006), note that tourists (once at the destination) give emphasis to different aspects of quality. Others (e.g. Lashley and Lincoln 2003; Upchurch and Lashley 2006) note that visitors focus on different factors because of the differing occasions for visitation, thus advice awareness of the 'occasionality' dimensions of customers. Also, they advise a close identification of those factors which are critical for the success of the guest's visit. However, those specific factors/aspects which agritourists value the most while at the rural destination still need to be identified. Hence, there is evidence to suggest further investigation of the stage in which the guests are at the destination.

Despite that, researchers (e.g. Tian-Cole et al. 2002) note that the satisfaction level of a tourist will influence his/her future behaviour. Others (e.g. Chen and Tsai 2006) agree on the fact that satisfaction acts as an antecedent of behavioural intentions. These intentions have been noted (e.g. Yoon and Uysal 2005) to include revisit intentions and provision of recommendations, otherwise referred to as loyalty expressions. Tam (2004) supports the strong cause-and-effect relationship of satisfaction with loyalty. Yet, others (e.g. Skogland and Siguaw 2004) seem to disagree with the assumption that customer satisfaction leads to loyalty. Oppermann (1999) argues that repurchasing a tourism product rarely happens due to time and cost constraints. Despite that academics (e.g. Lau and McKercher 2004) note that the tourism literature did not give the appropriate attention to the satisfaction-behavioural intention relationship. Gonzalez, Comesana and Brea (2006) call for a further investigation of satisfaction with behavioural intentions. All the same, the lack of such investigation in the area of agritourism appears evident. Therefore, there is a need for further examination of the agritourist 'meta-travel' stage in terms of what follows the agritourist experience.

Based on the aforementioned, it seems that the satisfaction process of agritourists (the 'pre-travel' stage, 'at-the-destination' stage and 'meta-travel' stage) has its knowledge gaps hence requires further investigation. As a result of this, the aim of this study is to investigate the agritourist satisfaction process while the question which the study seeks to answer is: 'How can agritourist satisfaction be achieved?' More specifically, this study aims to holistically investigate the agritourist satisfaction process by taking into consideration the three stages which are involved in this process.

These three stages shape the study's objectives which are the following:

a) The first objective of the study is to explore the **pre-travel stage** of agritourists, in terms of what exactly precedes the countryside experience of agritourists (e.g. needs and expectations of agritourists).

b) The second objective of the study is to investigate the stage in which the agritourist is **at the destination** and engages in a rural experience (the identification of those specific factors which are considered as important and are valued the most by agritourists).

c) The third objective of the study is to examine the agritourist's **meta-travel stage** (the identification of the agritourist behavioural intentions following their countryside experience).

It should be noted that a diagrammatic synthesis of the conceptual framework of the study is illustrated in Chapter 4 in which the methodological approach and research design process is presented and discussed. That said, this study acts as a response to a number of academics (e.g. Maestro, Gallego and Requejo 2006; Saez, Fuentes and Montes 2007; Siemens 2007; Kastenholz and Almeida 2008; Chatzigeorgiou et al. 2009) who call for further research to appreciate rural tourists. For instance Molera and Albaladejo (2007) draw attention to the changing nature of the rural tourism market which requires more up-to-date research. Pina and Delfa (2005) stress the need to have detailed information about rural tourists.

Others (e.g. Park and Yoon 2009) emphasize the fact that ongoing rural tourism research is needed in order to monitor the changing demands and preferences of rural tourists. As a result of this, this study aims to contribute to the existing body of tourism knowledge by providing further insights about those tourists who visit the countryside.

In addition, this study intends to comprehend the satisfaction process of rural tourists in order to provide in no uncertain terms (through specific guidelines and suggestions) an answer to the question how can guest satisfaction be achieved. Besides, researchers (e.g. Kirkby and Nelson 2003; Yu and Goulden 2006) stress the need for understanding tourist satisfaction, while Chatzigeorgiou et al. (2009) call for further investigation in the area of 'agrotourism' satisfaction. Thus, this study seeks to provide a better understanding of the psycho-synthesis of rural tourists by revealing important information about their needs, their expectations, to what exactly contributes towards their satisfaction achievement and how their behavioural intentions are shaped. Such detailed information and practical suggestions are of great value for global rural destinations (e.g. official organizations and bodies) and practitioners in the rural tourism industry (e.g. tourism managers, hosts of countryside venues and other entrepreneurs) because through these, they may achieve to satisfy their guests and foster their positive future behavioural intentions.

1.2. The structure of the study

Chapter 2: Rural tourism development

This chapter introduces rural tourism development globally and is divided into three main sections. The first section (2.1.) deals with the development of tourism around the globe and the associated positive and negative impacts. Sustainability issues are also mentioned. The second section (2.2.) discusses global rural tourism development, benefits, harmful effects and threats. The third and final section (2.3.) is concerned with the development of rural tourism in Cyprus.

Chapter 3: The tourist satisfaction process

Existing global literature regarding tourist satisfaction, led to the division/categorization of the secondary findings into three main sections/themes. The first theme (3.1.) deals with the stage which precedes the tourist experience (the 'pre-travel' stage). The second theme (3.2.) deals with the stage in which the tourist is at the destination (the 'destination stage'). The third theme (3.3.) discusses the tourist 'meta-travel stage'.

Chapter 4: Methodological approach and the research design process

This chapter reveals the rationale behind the employment of an ethnographic methodological approach to investigate the satisfaction process of agritourists. The conceptual framework of the study is also presented in Chapter 4 which is divided into six relevant sub-chapters. The first (4.1.) examines the appropriateness of an ethnographic approach to investigate tourist satisfaction. The second (4.2.) provides information regarding the research process. The third sub-chapter (4.3.) justifies the decision for the choice of the ethnographer's role. In the fourth section, issues such as ethical risks involved are being discussed. The fifth part (4.5.) reveals the researcher's scepticism behind (e.g.) the selection of sites, number of participants and time in the field. The final section (4.6.) provides information regarding the data collection method, as well as the difficulties involved in the ethnographic study. Furthermore, this chapter discusses the study's limitations.

Chapter 5: Theme: 'Pre-travel stage' (fieldwork findings)

Chapter 5 presents those findings which are associated with the pre-travel experience of agritourists (e.g. agritourists' expectations prior to their countryside experience). These have been obtained by the ethnographer through informal interviews and chats (discussed in the methodology section). Finally, a discussion part follows the presentation of the fieldwork findings.

Chapter 6: Theme: 'Destination stage' (fieldwork findings)

This chapter consists of those findings which are associated with the agritourist experience in the countryside, while consuming the destination's offerings. Information derived by agritourists (e.g. informal interviews) is being supplemented with the personal experiences of the researcher while consuming the exact same offerings. Photographic evidence is used to reinforce and support the researcher's observations and experiences. The pictures which are referred in this section are provided as appendices. Chapter 6 is completed with a discussion section.

Chapter 7: Theme: 'Meta-travel stage' (fieldwork findings)

Chapter 7 presents those findings which have been obtained by the ethnographer (through informal interviews and chats) and are associated with the agritourist's post-travel stage. This chapter reveals the future behavioural intentions of agritourists who will follow their experience in the countryside. A discussion part which follows concludes the chapter.

Chapter 8: Conclusions and recommendations

The study's key findings are presented in a summarized format in this last chapter. Based on these findings, several recommendations for agritourist satisfaction achievement are being provided towards global rural destinations and practitioners (e.g. hosts). Chapter 8 concludes with the significance of the study and the need for further research.

Chapter 2: Rural tourism and development

The second chapter discusses the development of rural tourism around the globe and Cyprus, which is used as a case study. The chapter is divided into three main sections. The first section (2.1.) deals with worldwide tourism development, its associated benefits and negative effects. Furthermore, sustainability issues involved. The second section (2.2.), introduces rural tourism, as a sustainable form of tourism. The third section (2.3.), presents rural tourism development in Cyprus.

2.1. Tourism and sustainability

Kandampully (2000) regards tourism to be a unique product, an amalgam of the tangible and intangible that includes everything which tourists experience. Since the tourism product determines the nature of the tourism system, there are different forms of tourism, such as, urban tourism, rural tourism, spa tourism, heritage/cultural tourism and sport tourism (Boniface and Cooper 2005). Forms of tourism include amongst others, religious tourism (Gupta 1999; Petralia 2006), archaeology tourism (Crosby 2002), food and wine tourism (Bruwer 2003), cider-based tourism (Sharples 2003), health tourism (Stathopoulos 2006a) and rural tourism (Power 1996; Cleverdon 2001; Kneafsey 2001; Pryor 2002; Sharpley 2002; Parsons 2003; Briedenhann and Wickens 2004; Kuo and Chiu 2006).

Tourism originated in the ancient times. Ancient Greek philosophers recognised, endorsed and promoted the concept of leisure upon which tourism is based. During the Dark Ages (from AD 500) tourism has discerned with the emergence of festival and event based tourism. In the 16th century, an aristocratic form of tourism appeared. Privileged classes circuited in key destinations in pursuit of both culture and education. By the 18th century the emerging middle classes formed a grown element of Grand Tourists (Page 2003). In the early 1970's, tourism used the natural and cultural resources of a destination as attractions for tourists. Therefore, it was considered as a 'smokeless industry' (Saveriades 2000). Clarke et al. (2001), notes that tourism in recent years, has grown rapidly in many areas around the globe.

The noteworthy expansion of the size of the tourism industry is based on the ongoing internationalization with porous borders and easier transfers between countries (Kvist and Klefsjo 2006). In addition, it is the result of changing values among younger people who seem to prefer 'experiences' rather than 'things' (Kvist 2005). Tourism is widely recognised for its contribution to economic development both at a regional and national level (Seddighi and Theocharous 2002). It is one of the world's largest service industries which will continue to generate GDP and jobs across the world economy (Hui, Wan and Ho 2007). The tourism industry continues to be amongst the most dynamic economic sectors, generating a wide range of benefits, such as, a growing contribution to GDP. In some cases, over 10%, and substantial foreign exchange earnings. Most importantly, tourism plays a crucial role in the creation of employment, which is especially important during the current economic crisis (UNWTO International Conference on Tourism Statistics 2009). Tourism is a massive creator of jobs, and a leading services export for developing economies. Global tourism services exports amount to US$ 3 billion per day. All the same, tourism is the main growth and trade driver for the poorest countries in the world. Due to its strong economic multiplier effect, if properly encouraged, it plays an important role in economic stimulus and building consumer confidence. Furthermore, travel fuels business growth, makes sport and entertainment possible and sustains rural destinations (UNWTO 2009).

Even so, the sector has been negatively affected by the economic crisis which in all likelihood will continue, in the short to medium term. Yet, this is not the first time that tourism has suffered a setback and if handled correctly (e.g. greater corporation amongst tourism stakeholders), it looks set to bounce back stronger than before (UNWTO Resilience Committee-TRC 2009). Tourism is used as a mechanism to aid the destination development and regeneration of economies due to its important contribution to foreign exchange earnings, revenue generation and employment (Saveriades 2000; Page 2003). Additionally, it forms the economic foundation of SITEs (Small Island Tourism Economies). This is because tourism earnings account for a significant proportion of the value added in their national product (Hoti, McAleer and Shareef 2007).

According to Rowe, Smith and Borein (2002), tourism may improve the lifestyles and practices of the locals through:

- the interaction with tourists from diverse backgrounds,
- better local leisure and sport facilities (e.g. entertainment, exhibitions and festivals) and infrastructure (e.g. employment opportunities especially in remote areas),
- the increase of cultural and social events available for local people (e.g. entertainment, exhibitions and festivals),
- the conservation of the local cultural heritage of the area and
- an increase of income which can be used for the preservation of the parks.

Despite that, Sharpley (2000b) makes reference to numerous global destinations which have experienced rapid, unplanned and/or uncontrolled tourism development. This generated various negative economic, social and environmental impacts upon destinations. Others (e.g. Gibson 1993; Barke and France 1996; Cockerell 1996; Leontidou 1998; Evans, Campbell and Stonehouse 2003) claim that tourism comes with a price, in terms of deteriorating the natural and social environment of a destination. A number of researchers (e.g. Mill and Morrison 2002; Page 2003) draw the attention of tourism's harmful effects. Negative impacts which have been associated with tourism development include urbanisation and emigration of the local population from rural areas. Furthermore, it forces pressure on the infrastructure which may not be able to cope with an excess number of tourists. It is furthermore held responsible for changes in social values and loss of local customs and traditions, as well as standards of behaviour. This is because locals may copy lifestyles of tourists through the demonstration effect. In addition, it may increase the level of crime, prostitution, gambling to meet the needs of visitors. The use of the universal method of conversation (English and French), leads to the potential loss of native languages, hence there is loss of the area's original appeal (Pearce 1989; Barke and France 1996; Rao 1999; Rowe, Smith and Borein 2002).

A destination may also experience loss of traditional industries and local goods which may be substituted by imported mass-produced goods which lack of authenticity. It may cause inflation of goods and services which may cause difficulties for the local residents. Finally, it impacts on the natural environment. Appealing natural environment may be spoilt by over-tourism development which may damage the area's flora and fauna, lead towards litter and waste disposal problems and put pressure on water supplies. Additionally, it may create greater air and land pollution as a result of overcrowded facilities, cars, buses and increased air traffic (Pearce 1989; Barke and France 1996; Rao 1999; Rowe, Smith and Borein 2002; Mill and Morrison 2002; Page 2003).

Relevant to the above harmful impacts associated with tourism development, is the notion of the destination's carrying capacity. Based on Evans, Campbell and Stonehouse (2003, p.53) this 'refers to the ability of a site, resort, or a region to absorb tourism use without deteriorating'. The rapid development of Spain's Costa del Sol coastal area from the 1950's onwards demonstrated the need to constrain development. Extensive development led to mass tourism phenomena and overbuilding occurrences. This led tourists to opt for better-planned resorts elsewhere since the carrying capacity of the destination was exceeded. This resulted towards 'the deterioration of the environment that had attracted the tourists in the first place' (Evans, Campbell and Stonehouse 2003, p.53).

Boxill (2003; 2004) urges both Belize and Jamaica to draw on the experiences of countries which experienced negative impacts due to uncontrolled tourism development. At the same time, he suggests the concentration on the destination's culture, history and natural environment, enabling tourism to reach its full potential and become a sustainable industry. The notion of carrying capacity and its importance as a management tool in tourism planning/development is acknowledged by academics (e.g. Saveriades 2000). It is regarded by Evans, Campbell and Stonehouse (2003) to be central to the concept of sustainability. Mill and Morrison (2002) state that 'the key to achieving an acceptable balance between the positive and negative impacts of tourism seems to be in adopting the principles of sustainable tourism development' (p.60). Sustainable development is viewed as a panacea to the several negative impacts as a result of mass tourism and unplanned development (Antoniadou 2006; Roberts and Hall 2004).

During the World Conference on Environment and Development (1987) it was stated that sustainable development 'meets the goals of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (p.43). Even so, Herremans (2006) notes that the concept is not a current phenomenon. Pinchot (1967) stressed the importance of preserving the resources being given from our forefathers while transmitting them unexhausted to our descendants. Yet, it was not until the 1990's that sustainable development began to be incorporated into the tourism field (Harris, Griffin and Williams 2003). During the late 1990's Williams (1998) added the word sustainability in the aims of tourism planning. They also suggested that tourism planning should have key objectives such as, the conservation of resources and maximisation of benefits to the local community. Even so, the role of tourism in the context of sustainable use of the destination's resources (economic, social and natural) has become more recognised in recent years (e.g. Robinson and Bennett 2000; Kneafsey 2001; Perales 2002; Markandya, Taylor and Pedroso 2003; Briedenhann and Wickens 2004). There is plenty of evidence to suggest that the concept of tourism sustainability has become a widely studied topic (e.g. Hall 2000; Holden 2000; McCool, Moisey and Nickerson 2001; Leberman and Mason 2002; Mason 2004). Nonetheless, the exact meaning of sustainable tourism has been debated by researchers (e.g. Robinson and Bennett 2000; McCool, Moisey and Nickerson 2001) in terms of what exactly is it that, that tourism should sustain. Harris, Griffin and Williams (2003) attempted to unwrap the rather complicated concept of sustainable tourism, leading towards the conclusion that it is: 'tourism that is developed and maintained in a manner, and at such as a scale, that it remains economically viable over an indefinite period and does not undermine the physical and human environment that sustains and nurtures it' (p.36). The benefits of sustainable tourism were initially stressed in the Globe' 92 conference, in Vancouver Canada. These include amongst others, the fact that it preserves the natural and cultural resources of the destination and that it diversifies the local economy, particularly in rural areas, where agricultural employment may be sporadic or insufficient. Buultjens, Tiyce and Gale (2003) make reference to sustainable tourism which is capable of valorising conservation and providing rural economic development. Martin (2000) highlights its importance over the environment. Moreover, the fact that it may act as an alternative to mass tourism, especially for small tourist destinations.

Others (e.g. Font, Tapper and Cochrane 2006) suggest that the tourism industry should reinvent itself and focus towards sustainability due to changing demands in the tourism field and the growing special interest of the sustainable market. Caballero and Hart (1996) state that 'the crisis which the three 'S' (Sun, Sand and Sea) resorts face is their incapacity to respond to the new demands placed on them by the market-conscious, experienced, well- travelled tourist of the twenty-first century' (p.10). Even so, researchers (e.g. Fennell 1999; Faulkner 2001) argue that despite the rhetoric, few sustainable tourism projects have withstood the test of time and that long-term sustainability appears to be rather unachievable. Butler (1991) makes reference to sustainable development which has not been put into practice. In addition, the researcher notes that sustainable tourism is a utopian aim. This argument is based on the fact that whatever its objectives and aims, all tourism tends towards mass tourism. Mason (2004) adds that 'there is now a significant literature on sustainable tourism but much of this is theoretical and there is often a large gap between theory and practice' (p.79). Others (e.g. Butler 1998; Sharpley 2000a; Sharpley 2005) argue that the potential contribution of sustainable tourism development to the effective management of tourism is still till nowadays in doubt. Butler (1998) makes reference to sustainable operations in New South Wales in Australia which have been reported to struggle in maintaining their financial viability. In opposition, Weaver (2003) makes reference to destinations which have declared their interest and have proceeded in the development of sustainable forms of tourism. The Tourism Authority of Thailand decided to promote new destinations, apart from the most popular, in an effort to sustain the development of the country's tourism industry (Xinhua News Agency 2000). The national tourism body of India focused towards the promotion of the sustainable form of rural tourism (Cleverdon 2001). Getz (1998) reports that rural tourism is being promoted increasingly as a counterpoint to mass tourism in destinations. Others (e.g. Figuerola 2002) note that rural tourism is promoted as an alternative to the traditional offer of sun, sea and sand. Hall (1998) recommends that south-eastern Europe with inbound mass tourism should invest in sustainable forms of tourism, such as rural tourism. The importance of rural tourism, for the sustainability of rural communities, has been long recognised while its positive effects upon destinations are acknowledged by a number of researchers (e.g. Roberts and Hall 2001; Frochot 2005; Liu 2006; Kuo and Chiu 2006).

Summary of 2.1: Tourism and Sustainability

Tourism is regarded to be an amalgam of the tangible and intangible which includes everything that tourists' experience (Kandampully 2000). Researchers (e.g. Boniface and Cooper 2005) make reference to different forms of tourism, such as rural tourism (Kuo and Chiu 2006). Tourism has been reported to grow rapidly in many areas globally (Clarke et al. 2001). This is due to its associated positive impacts which embrace amongst others the fact that it increases the foreign exchange earnings and fosters an improvement in local life (Rowe, Smith and Borein 2002). Nonetheless, as a result of its rapid and unplanned development, negative socio-cultural and environmental impacts have been generated upon worldwide destinations (Sharpley 2002). For instance, the over use of resources of Spain's Costa del Sol, resulted towards the deterioration of the area's environment (Evans, Campbell and Stonehouse 2003). Sustainable development was viewed as a panacea to these negative impacts associated to unplanned and uncontrolled tourism development (Antoniadou 2006; Roberts and Hall 2004). The adoption of sustainable principles have been acknowledged (e.g. Mill and Morrison 2002) to be the key of achieving an acceptable balance of the positive and negative impacts associated with tourism development. Sustainable tourism is tourism which is developed in a way which remains economically viable over an indefinite period and does not undermine the physical/human environment that sustains it (Harris, Griffin and Williams 2003). Worldwide destinations declared their interest and have proceeded in the development of sustainable tourism (Weaver 2003). Yet, it has been argued (e.g. Mason 2004) that there is a large gap between the theory and practice of sustainable tourism. Even so, rural tourism is being promoted as an alternative form to the traditional offer of sun, sea and sand (Figuerola 2002). UNWTO (2009) notes that it sustains rural destinations. Its importance for the sustainability of rural communities has increasingly being recognised by several researchers (e.g. Frochot 2005).

2.2. Rural tourism

Worldwide attention on rural tourism the last two decades has become evident through a number of studies (e.g. Fleischer, Rotem and Banin 1993; Bramwell and Lane 1994; Galston and Baehler 1995; Garcia- Ramon, Canoves and Valdovinos 1995; Abram 1996; Oppermann 1996; Sharpley 1996; Fleischer and Pizam 1997; Getz and Page 1997; Sharpley, Sharpley and Page 1997; Bjork 2000; Getz and Carlsen 2000; Kneafsey 2000a; Reichel, Lowengart and Milman 2000; Busby and Rendle 2000; Clarke et al. 2001; Sharpley 2002; Yague 2002; Barke 2004; Frochot 2005; Sharpley 2005; Sharpley and Vass 2005; McGehee, Kim and Jennings 2007; Molera and Albaladejo 2007; Kastenholz and Almeida 2008).

The concept of rural tourism seems to have many interpretations since it appears to act as an umbrella term for a range of different forms of tourism (Clarke 1999). Frochot (2005) points out that the conceptualisation of rural tourism remains difficult due to the complexities of its definition. Others (e.g. Maestro, Gallego and Requejo 2006) make reference to a commonly agreed definition of rural tourism which remains elusive. In Germany, rural tourism is associated with farm tourism. In Australia, it is synonymous with the 'outback' experience (Sharpley and Sharpley 1997; Horner and Swarbrooke 2004; Sharpley 2005). In Taiwan it is associated with Agro-ecotourism (Kuo and Chiu 2006).

Oppermann (1997) created a model in which included farm tourism and non-farm tourism both under the term of rural tourism. The researcher makes reference to two dissimilar forms of rural tourism. Rural tourism which is associated with farm activities and rural tourism which is not. Both Clarke (1999) and Nilson (2002) concur that rural tourism and farm tourism are not exactly synonymous. In his work on farm tourism, Nilson described it as a subset of rural tourism. This is because rural tourism is based on the rural environment in general, whereas farm tourism is based on the farm. Although the concepts of 'agrotourism' and 'rural tourism' are considered as synonymous within the European legal framework, in Italy they are considered distinct. The former embraces the accommodation which is provided by agriculture actors and that the tourist activity is connected to the agriculture activity (Pulina, Dettori and Paba 2006).

Researchers (e.g. Keane et al. 1992; Pulina, Dettori and Paba 2006) make reference to different terms which are used to describe tourism activity in the countryside, such as agritourism/agrotourism and others, which appear to have different meanings from one destination to another. Sharpley and Sharpley (1997) note that rural tourism may, in some cases be equated with specific activities (e.g. farm activities). In some other cases, it 'is a means of describing a more general, broader approach to tourism development and promotion' such as for example Agrotourism in Cyprus' (p.5).

Therefore, it may be taken that rural tourism is a form of tourism which takes place in the rural areas/countryside. This simplistic description/explanation is accepted by a number of researchers (e.g. Lane 1994; Sharpley and Sharpley 1997; Turnock 1999; Clarke et al. 2001; Pierini 2003). In view of this, there are certain characteristics which define the rural areas as Bramwell (1994) points out. Lane (1994, p.14) provides the three main characteristics which differentiate a rural from an urban area:

a) The population density and size of settlement which varies in each country according to its overall population,
b) The land use and economy (non-urban and non-industrial land uses)
c) The traditional social structures (that these areas have not lost their social values which have been lost in urban/modern areas).

Becherel and Cooper (2002) regard rural tourism as a new tourism product. Others (e.g. Busby and Rendle 2000; Yague 2002) support the fact that it is not a current phenomenon. Based on Dernoi (1983) and Sharpley and Sharpley (1997), rural tourism can be traced in Europe over a century ago. Harris, Griffin and Williams (2003) make reference to farm tourism in Europe which dates as back as the 19th century, with farmhouses offering the only form of accommodation in rural areas. The Alps in Switzerland, Austria and North Italy have been receiving tourists for nearly a century (Hummelbrunner and Miglbauer 1994; Taguchi and Iwai 1998). Germany also has a long tradition of farm-based holidays (Oppermann 1996).

Even so, until the 1940's tourism in the countryside remained a relatively small-scale and passive activity. But this changed the last decades since reduced rural communities' economic opportunities and social depression in these areas, forced them to invest in the relevant sector. For this reason, interest in rural tourism development grew rapidly in the 1990's onwards in endeavours to revive the rural economies (Dernoi 1991; Blaine and Golan 1993; Ilbery et al. 1998; Lewis 1998a; Reichel, Lowengart and Milman 2000; Wilson et al. 2001; Gossling and Mattsson 2002; Morais and Morais 2004; Sharpley 2005). Decisive for rural tourism development have also been the changes in consumers' motivations and travel patterns (Aguilo and Juaneda 2000; Yague 2002). A Travel Poll which took place by the Travel Industry Association of America (1998) revealed a general appeal of domestic travellers for tourism in the countryside, with 62% of all U.S adults taking a trip to rural areas (e.g.) in ranching communities in the Western part of the country (Power 1996). Even so, the understanding of tourists who visit the rural areas remains until nowadays elusive while further research in the relevant area is being stressed by researchers (e.g. Frochot 2005; Molera and Albaladejo 2007; Park and Yoon 2009).

Having said that, Europe in recent decades has experienced a growing interest towards rural tourism (Pulina, Dettori and Paba 2006). Its expansion has been regarded (e.g. Canoves et al. 2004) as a common trend to most European countries. In Spain, rural tourism has seen rapid and continuous growth (Yague 2002; Barke 2004; Maestro, Gallego and Requejo 2006). Western and central Europe (e.g. U.K, France, Germany and Austria) are dominating the global vacation farm industry (Weaver and Fennel 1997). Researchers (e.g. Busby and Rendle 2000) make reference to rural tourism which has been expanding and has changed from being a supplementary commercial activity to developing into a sector in its own right. Indeed, rural tourism has been reported in the following countries around the globe (presented below in alphabetical order):

- Australia (Pryor 2002; Wilson et al. 2001)
- Austria (Hummelbrunner and Miglbauer 1994; Butler and Hall 1998)
- Canada (McDonald and Jolliffe 2003)
- Cyprus (Russel 2000; Sharpley 2002)

- France (Beteille 1996; Kneafsey 2001)

- Germany (Oppermann 1996)

- India (Cleverdon 2001)

- Ireland (Kneafsey 1998; Kneafsey 2000b)

- Israel (Fleischer and Pizam 1997; Fleischer and Felsenstein 2000)

- Italy (Pulina, Dettori and Paba 2006)

- Korea (Song 2005; Park and Yoon 2009)

- Malaysia (Liu 2006)

- Morocco (Petrzelka and Bell 2000)

- Norway (Puijk 2001)

- Portugal (Kastenholz, Davis and Paul 1999; Kastenholz and Almeida 2008)

- Romania (Turnock 1999)

- Slovak Republic (Clarke et al. 2001)

- South Africa (Briedenhann and Wickens 2004)

- Spain (Perales 2002; Valdes and Del Valle 2003; Canoves et al. 2004; Pina and Delfa 2005; Maestro, Gallego and Requejo 2006)

- Switzerland (Sharpley and Sharpley 1997)

- Taiwan (Kuo and Chiu 2006)

- Thailand (Vinyaratn and Mertens 2001)

- U.K. (Parsons 2003; Sharpley and Vass 2005)

- U.S.A (Luloff et al. 1994; Galston and Baehler 1995; Power 1996)

Rural tourism is viewed by destinations as a niche small-scale, low-impact form of tourism which may be offered as an alternative to mass tourism (Roberts and Hall 2004). The positive impacts of tourism on the natural and the social environment of the rural areas are acknowledged in numerous studies (e.g. Thibal 1988; Kieselbach and Long 1990; Redclift and Sinclair 1991; Gannon 1994; Shaw and Williams 1994; Sharpley and Sharpley 1997; Lewis 1998a; Ratz and Puczko 1998; Fleischer and Felsenstein 2000; Roberts and Hall 2001; Canoves et al. 2004; Horner and Swarbrooke 2004; Liu 2006; Saez, Fuentes and Montes 2007).

These positive impacts include amongst others, the fact that it is less polluting than most of the other industries. Additionally, it maintains and supports the local development of such infrastructure as education and health care. Rural tourism in small communities of Scandinavia created opportunities for cultural exchange, fostered greater awareness and revitalisation of local customs. Furthermore it assisted towards the promotion of the authentic character and identity of the rural destinations. Finally it helped the re-population of those regions. Ireland promoted rural tourism (e.g. by organising rural festivals) in the light of the positive socio-cultural effects being associated with its development. For instance tourism contributed to the heritage protection of the Irish countryside (Huse, Gustavsen and Almedal 1998). Amongst the positive impacts of rural tourism, is the fact that it helps farm production families by providing supplementary income (Pizam and Poleka 1980; Bowen, Cox and Fox 1991; Cawley et al. 1995; Lobo et al. 1999). Academics (e.g. Fleischer and Felsenstein 2000; Yague 2002; Valdes and Del Valle 2003) note that tourism acts as a tool for the development of some socioeconomic depressed rural areas. Lewis (1998a) and Ilbery et al. (2001) regard it as a clean, attractive form of development and a good way to generate revenue.

Rural tourism growth was seen as a potential solution to the decline of traditional agrarian industries, the accompanying lost economic opportunities and population decline (Hill 1993; Cavaco 1995; Hoggart, Buller and Black 1995; Opperman 1996; Williams and Shaw 1998; Fleischer and Felsenstein 2000; Clarke et al. 2001; McDonald and Jolliffe 2003; Petrzelka et al. 2005). In many countries, such as in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the Pacific Region and Taiwan, it is employed as an engine of economic growth of the rural areas (Butler and Hall 1998; Kuo and Chiu 2006). Rural communities in Norway promoted tourism as an alternative economic development strategy to the traditional fishing industries (Puijk 2001). Morocco promoted rural tourism in agricultural villages/areas (Petrzelka and Bell 2000) and the Slovak Republic, in areas with traditional mining industries (Clarke et al. 2001). Israel promoted rural tourism in order to supplement the declining incomes of the co-operative settlements of the country, known as 'Kibburzim' (Fleischer and Pizam 1997).

Both Malaysia (e.g. Penang region) and Philippines focused in developing new strategies for increasing rural tourism in an endeavour to maximise the socio-economic benefits over the rural local communities (Peggy 2003; McDaniels and Trousdale 1999). Even so, researchers (e.g. Frater 1983; Hjalager 1996; Oppermann 1996; Fleischer and Felsenstein 2000) argue that economically speaking, rural tourism contributes relatively little extra to farm incomes and that it does not benefit a destination. The study of Fleischer, Rotem and Banin (1993) reveals that 82% of all establishments in the rural sector of Israel employ less than six employees. Fleischer and Felsenstein (2000) agree that the majority of rural tourism businesses in Israel employ a small number of people, usually less than three.

Despite that, Horner and Swarbrooke (2004) stress the economic benefits of rural tourism by noting that if properly developed, it can help maintain the viability of farms. It can also provide jobs for groups (e.g. women and young people) that may otherwise struggle to find employment in such remote/rural areas. Others (e.g. Hummelbrunner and Miglbauer 1994), stress the fact that it represents a significant source of income in rural economies. Rural tourism provides economic support to farm families; it increases the economic viability of marginalised areas and promotes local jobs (Eadington and Smith 1992; Echter 1995; Clarke 1999; Fleischer 1999; Busby and Rendle 2000; Lamie and Kovalyova 2002; Briedenhann and Wickens 2004). For this reason, it enables economic development in disadvantaged areas (Saez, Fuentes and Montes 2007). Skuras, Petrou and Clark (2006) make reference to rural tourism as a promising diversification strategy for lagging and mountainous areas of the E.U. 'In many rural areas, tourism has become the dominant, though often unrecognised, economic sector' (Pender and Sharpley 2005, p.186).

In the U.K, rural tourism, based on the English Tourism Council/Countryside Agency (2001), addresses successfully the existing economic problems. In fact, in many parts of England tourism is more economically significant than agriculture. The new millennium (particularly 2001), witnessed the value of rural tourism in England reaching GBP 12 billion and the overall rural tourism of the U.K being estimated as a quarter of all tourism activity in the country (Robertson 2001; Sharpley 2001). In Scotland, tourism is reported to be particularly important for the economy of its rural areas (Parsons 2003).

Rural tourism in Spain is one of the main economic activities of the majority of the country's rural areas (Pina and Delfa 2005). For most rural communities in Taiwan, 'agritourism' is one of the most important elements in their diversified economy (Kuo and Chiu 2006). The Xinhua News Agency (2003) reported that the per capita income for the villagers in the regional capital of Lhasa was significantly raised in less than one year. This was achieved by attracting people who wanted to experience the country life. The director of the Australian Bureau of Tourism Research reported that in many isolated rural locations of the country, tourism is the major income earner. This is mainly because of tourism's ability to bring in income, generate jobs and support retail growth (Wilson et al. 2001; Pryor 2002).

However, the rural tourism industry is a 'fragile' one and it is susceptible to various threats. The rural tourism sector was dramatically challenged and put into test by the 'Foot and Mouth' and 'Bird Flu' diseases. Wright (2002) makes reference to the 'Foot and Mouth' disease (highly contagious condition with potentially disastrous effects among pigs, sheep and cattle) which was found in pigs in Essex. Within weeks, outbreaks were reported by Newsweek International (2001) in countries such as, France, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates and as far as the southern hemisphere, in Argentina. The study of William and Ferguson (2005) reveals that the impact of the crisis unfortunately devastated the rural tourism of U.K. Captivatingly yet sad, were the words of Hayward's (2001) title which portrayed the dramatic situation: 'Foot and mouth crisis slaughters rural tourism industry across UK'. Small rural businesses of the U.K in 2001 (e.g. hotels and restaurants) suffered from the crisis even in areas where there was no disease (Irvine and Anderson 2004). According to the English Tourist Council, losses of over (U.K.) £1 billion were predicted as tourists abandoned their rural holidays. The consequences upon the country's small enterprises were illustrated by Harris, Griffin and Williams (2003) in a case study of a rural tourist property. 'Being within an infected area, the site at Damage Barton was closed from normal opening in mid-March 2001 until Easter 2001, and until late May it experienced a 64% fall in tourism business' (p.205).

In addition, 'Bird Flu' caused the reduction of the tourist numbers visiting the countryside of Turkey. The monthly report of the German newspaper FVW in 2006 reported that there was a reduction of the German demand of tourists going to Turkey during January 2006 because of the disease.

The fragility of the rural tourism sector also rests on the fact that it may be negatively influenced by political instability. Academics (e.g. Hall 1994; Richter 1995; Altinay and Bowen 2006) acknowledge the influence of politics in tourism development. Koscak (1998) presented a case study of rural areas in Slovenia in which the political problems adversely affected the tourism development in those regions. Furthermore, there are other challenges/threats which are related to rural tourism development. These include the associated negative impacts, the possibility of local opposition to its development and the lack of support and co-operation. Its uncontrolled development, may lead to negative impacts upon the destination's socio-cultural and natural environment. Canoves et al. (2004) make reference to the rural environment which is particularly fragile and susceptible to damage due to tourist development. Others (e.g. Sharpley and Sharpley 1997; Roberts and Hall 2001; Morais and Morais 2004) draw attention to the negative impacts associated with rural tourism development. Linberg and Johnson (1997) argue that a concurrent tourism increase with a decrease in traditional industries may be perceived as disruption of the local culture which is intertwined with such industries. Lewis (1998a) makes reference to the rural community atmosphere which may rapidly dissipate due to tourism development. Furthermore, the fact that irritation amongst the locals may be created especially during the peak season with increased number of tourists. Negative impacts may increase if the carrying capacity of the area is exceeded. If so, tourism activity may diminish and destroy the characteristics (e.g. fauna and flora) that originally attracted the tourists to the countryside in the first place. Researchers (e.g. Lewis 1998a; Chen 2000; Kuo 2001; Canoves et al. 2004; Kuo and Chiu 2006) point out the negative impacts of rural tourism, which are, physical (waste), noise, air (increased traffic) and visual (intensity of lights) pollution. Furthermore, traffic congestion, disturbance of the rural landscape harmony and linked problems such as, mudflows and landslide (from the recreation facility construction).

Smith and Krannich (1998) through a study of four communities (Rocky Mountain West in U.S.A) suggest that tourism is accompanied by several negative impacts, for instance, crime. Van Broeck (2001) reported that tourism changed the community bonds and to some degree the traditional values and customs of a Turkish village. Puijk (2001) reported that tourism not only altered the local culture of a Norwegian fishing village, but also, caused divisions within the community.

In view of the aforementioned negative impacts, researchers (e.g. Snepenger et al. 1998; Canoves et al. 2004) suggest that it is essential to safeguard the attractiveness of the rural environment. In addition cautious and good planning must take place in advance in order not to exceed the carrying capacity of the area, by keeping the number of tourists at manageable level. According to the results of a study undertaken by Snepenger et al. (1998) in a small rural community of Montana, communities exist to serve individuals rather than numbers. Others (e.g. Sharpley 1996; Shepherd 1998; Sharpley 2000a) suggest that the challenges which the countryside is facing can be effectively addressed if stakeholders apply new ways of thinking and doing, based on sustainable development principles. Even so, Horner and Swarbrooke (2004) emphasize the need for further research in regards to how to develop successful and in a sustainable way the relevant sector. Garrod, Youell and Wornell (2004) and Garrod and Youell (2006) note that a better understanding of the links between rural tourism and the so called countryside capital is vital, if tourism is to continue to make a positive contribution to sustainable rural development. The countryside capital includes amongst others the landscape, agriculture, historical buildings, rivers, lakes, air and water quality, distinctive local costumes, foods, traditions and ways of life.

Further to the above, it seems that opposition, as well as the lack of interest on behalf of the locals, may pose an obstacle for the sector's successful development. Relevant studies (e.g. Haukeland 1984; Johnson, Snepenger and Akis 1994; Boissevain 1996; Bachleitner and Zins 1999; Mason and Cheyne 2000; Puijk 2001; Van Broeck 2001; Petrzelka et al. 2005) have examined how rural inhabitants perceive tourism development in their communities.

More specifically, such studies (e.g. Allen et al. 1988; Liu and Var 1986; Ross 1992; Jakus and Siegel 1997) reveal that old-timers in a community are more negative towards tourism development than newcomers. Bachleitner and Zins' (1999) study in four rural communities of the Austrian countryside, reveals that there is considerable opposition to tourism development. Van Broeck's (2001) study reports that although the residents of a Turkish village primarily viewed tourism positively, they eventually became aware of its detrimental social impacts. Research undertaken by Mason and Cheyne (2000) in a rural location in New Zealand shows that some of the locals' attitudes are negative towards tourism development due to the associated negative impacts (e.g. drunk tourists driving, traffic problems and noise).

Based on Horner and Swarbrooke (2004), locals may oppose rural tourism development since they may not have experience or confidence in developing and running rural tourist enterprises. At the same time, the study reveals that there is lack of appropriate education and training for those who wish to develop rural tourism enterprises. The study findings of Phillimore (1998) in Herefordshire (England) reveal that there is the need for training. The Tourism Council of Australia strengthens the need for better community education to help turn the regional tourism of Australia into a strong growth industry. In the light of studies in rural areas near Melbourne, the council concludes that educational institutes must educate people with the provision of relevant/useful topics such as, marketing (Kelly 1998; Courier Mail 2000). Even so, based on Sharpley's and Vass (2005) study of farms in north-eastern England, three out of four farmers have attended training courses relevant to their tourism business. The rural tourism organisation of 'Lakonia' in Greece seems to organise seminars which aim for the improvement and upgrading of the quality of services being offered by the rural tourist accommodation (Stathopoulos 2006b). Yet, researchers (e.g. Roberts 1996; McKenna and Alexander 1998; Morgan 2004) make reference to lack of training seminars and suitable courses that may be provided by institutes (e.g. agricultural colleges). Morgan (2004) agrees that there is a need for higher education in tourism where graduates need to draw on qualities of self-awareness, imagination and creativity-factors. These, may prove to be very important for the development of rural tourism.

The lack of co-operation amongst entrepreneurs and amongst the community may also pose a threat for the successful development of rural tourism. Wilson's et al. (2001) study in Illinois (U.S.A) concludes that co-operation between rural tourism entrepreneurs is vital to successful tourism development. The lack of such co-operation appears to be an obstacle, especially in communities where tourism development is stimulated by outsiders who may have business skills and confidence to develop such projects. Their involvement may cause local jealousy. Horner and Swarbrooke (2004) also draw attention to the significance of co-operation which may be achieved through the share of experiences and good practice at an International level (e.g. through the European Centre for Eco-Agro tourism). This is because rural tourism development issues affect most countries. The lack of proper organisation seems to be another challenge which the sector is called to address.

Edmunds (1999) examined rural tourism in several European destinations (e.g. Spain, France, Switzerland and Germany). Eventually, suggested that rural tourism, in regards to the supply side, should get more organised.

Despite that, the sector is in need of governmental support. Sharpley (2002) comments that it is unlikely that the potential benefits of rural tourism can be realised and sustained without government support since it requires high levels of investment relative to its returns. The researcher proceeds by recommending long term government subsidy and support; given that these are essential elements of its success. The significance of financial support/economic finding for entrepreneurs involved in the relevant sector, is also stressed by a number of researchers (e.g. Prohaska 1995; Lewis 1998b; Jolliffe and Baum 1999; Fleischer and Felenstein 2000; McDonald and Jolliffe 2003). Sharpley and Vass (2005) make reference to the public sector support which should be further directed towards the positive and effective promotion of rural tourism businesses. Marketing also seems to be an under-utilised management practice for many rural tourism destinations even though it positively impacts on rural tourism development (Sharpley and Sharpley 1997). In an attempt to increase the number of tourists of a rural Slovakian area, a British initiative led to the creation of a tourist information centre (Clarke et al. 2001).

In an effort to promote rural domestic tourism, the state of Nevada asked the state's TV stations to run public service announcements, to tell viewers about close to home rural accommodation getaways (King 2001). Researchers note the importance of promotion in the tourism (e.g. Nusair and Kandampully 2008) and rural tourism field (e.g. Thorpe 2003; Sharpley and Vass 2005).

Having said that, the need for further research in the rural tourism field appears evident. In view of this, Sharpley and Sharpley (1997) state:

> 'Indeed, as a multidisciplinary subject, the scope for research into rural tourism is enormous, whether from a geographical, environmental, marketing, economic, management, planning, political or sociological perspective. Each of these disciplines has much to offer to the study and understanding of rural tourism.' (p.144).

Although the previous statement was made more than a decade ago, it seems that similar concerns are expressed currently by other academics (e.g. Skuras, Petrou and Clark 2006; Siemens 2007). A number of researchers call for additional research in order to appreciate tourists who visit the rural areas (e.g. Sharpley and Sharpley 1997; McDonald and Jolliffe 2003; Horner and Swarbrooke 2004; Frochot 2005; Pina and Delfa 2005; Maestro, Gallego and Requejo 2006; Molera and Albaladejo 2007; Saez, Fuentes and Montes 2007; Kastenholz and Almeida 2008; Park and Yoon 2009).

Summary of 2.2: Rural tourism

Although a commonly agreed definition of rural tourism still remains elusive (Maestro, Gallego and Requejo 2006), researchers (e.g. Pierini 2003) conclude that it is a form of tourism which takes place in the rural areas/countryside. In current years, rural tourism has grown into a sector on its own right (Busby and Rendle 2000) while its development is evident worldwide (Sharpley 2002). Countries, which have invested in rural tourism, include, amongst others, Australia (Pryor 2002), Cyprus (Sharpley 2002), Ireland (Kneafsey 2000b), Korea (Park and Yoon 2009), Norway (Puijk 2001) and U.K. (Parsons 2003). Rural tourism has been proposed as a sustainable form of tourism which could revive the rural economies (Morais and Morais 2004). Indeed, researchers (e.g. Kuo and Chiu 2006) acknowledge the positive impacts of rural tourism over the economic and socio-cultural environment of a destination. However, like all forms of tourism activity, it may cause harmful effects on the rural environment which is particularly susceptible to damage (Canoves et al. 2004). Good planning along with safeguarding of the attractiveness of the rural environment is essential for the avoidance and minimization of such negative consequences (Snepenger et al. 1998). Despite that, the rural tourism sector proves to be a fragile sector given that it has been put into dramatic tests, such as, the Foot and Mouth disease (Hayward 2001). Another challenge which the sector is called to address is local opposition to its development (Mason and Cheyne 2000). Studies also reveal that decisive to its successful development are both the government's financial support (McDonald and Jolliffe 2003), as well as promotional support (e.g. Sharpley and Vass 2005). In spite of the so far studies undertaken, the need for further research in the rural tourism field appears evident. Researchers (e.g. Frochot 2005; Molera and Albaladejo 2007; Park and Yoon 2009) emphasize the fact that there is a need of further research in order to appreciate tourists who visit the rural areas.

2.3. Rural Tourism in Cyprus

A 'destination that has sought tourism diversification and economic regeneration through the promotion of rural tourism is Cyprus' (Sharpley 2002, p.235). Cyprus is the third largest island in the Mediterranean Sea and its economy depends primarily on tourism earnings, as a source of foreign exchange and employment (Hoti, McAleer and Shareef 2007). Before 1960, few tourists were visiting the island. This changed in the late 1960's when it was discovered by British tour operators. During the years 1960 and 1973 international arrivals in the country grew from 20,000 to approximately 300,000. This notable growth was interrupted by the invasion of the northern part of the island by Turkish troops in 1974. As result of this, Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots were forced to move to the south and north parts of the island, respectively. The Greek Cypriot part was recognised by the international community as the 'Republic of Cyprus' (Theophanous 1996). The Turkish Cypriot controlled entity was recognised by Turkey as the 'Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus' (Denktash 1988). The consequences of the war were dramatic since it crippled the Cypriot economy. The huge refugee wave which was created caused a pressing need for immediate housing and employment. The Nicosia International Airport shut down and over 80% of the existing accommodation for tourist use was lost, causing a major blow to the tourist industry of the country. Even so, a major investment in tourism facilities in the Republic of Cyprus followed, including a new international airport in Larnaca. The rapid development of resorts such as, 'Ayia Napa' replaced the major resorts of 'Famagusta' and 'Kerynia' (Andronikou 1987; Gillmor 1989; Lockhart 1993; Lockhart 1997; Saveriades 2000; Sharpley 2000b; Ioannides 2001; Sharpley 2002; Timothy 2004; Boniface and Cooper 2005).

An exceptional rate of economic growth followed from the late 1970's until the mid 1990's in the hospitality industry, making Cyprus an important international tourism destination. Tourism during that period, created a direct and indirect impact on job creation, foreign exchange earning and economic growth. Yet, international tourist arrivals were hampered by the 1991 Gulf War and a period of relative stagnation was followed after the mid 1990's, although it recovered in subsequent years (Ayers 2000; Cope 2000; Hoti, McAleer and Shareef 2007).

In more recent years, tourism is reported by Braakensiek (2002) to be Cyprus's major earner accounting for 20% of its Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Yet, a proportion of its income is used to finance imports to sustain the industry and labour which is imported for employment, resulting thus in substantial foreign exchange outflows (Shareef and Hoti 2005; Shareef and McAleer 2005; Hoti, McAleer and Shareef 2007). Even so, the year 2005 witnessed nearly two and a half million tourists from Europe (e.g. U.K, Germany, Russia, Sweden and France), mainly during the peak summer months (Koumelis 2006a). It is a fact, that the European market dominates the tourist inflows on the island (Hoti, McAleer and Shareef 2007). Concerning the future of tourism on the island, Ayers (2000) forecasts that tourism will remain an important sector of activity in Cyprus for the foreseeable future. At the same time, Ayers, reveals doubts about the future role of tourism as a continuing to Cyprus development mainly because of three reasons. Firstly, the ability of small states to attract tourists and meet their changing needs. Secondly are the dangers of over-dependency on tourism and finally the environmental and social costs of further tourism growth. Despite that, the European Commission (2001) forecasts that tourism will continue to be the leading sector of the Cypriot economy. Furthermore, the report suggests that the country should pursue additional tourism revenue, through increased visitor expenditure, length of stay and repeaters. Antoniadou (2006) estimates that tourism flows to Cyprus will increase in the future and suggests that in order for Cyprus to take a quality share from that tourism pie then it should promote its history and culture.

That being said, the fragility of the island's tourism sector appears evident since ethnic conflicts, global terrorism and other factors relating to the geographical region, result towards adverse effects on international arrivals on the island (Hoti, McAleer and Shareef 2007). Researchers (e.g. Edgell 1990; Hall 1994; Clements and Georgiou 1998; Altinay and Bowen 2006) acknowledge the influence of politics in tourism development. Others (e.g. Lockhart 1993; Altinay 2000), make reference to the impact of political unrest on tourism development in Cyprus. Clements and Georgiou (1998) stress the difficulty of planning in a state of political instability such as Cyprus, being created by political events in and around the country.

Altinay and Bowen (2006) state that any future tourism planning is likely to be a complex undertaking as the two communities (Greek and Turkish Cypriots) tend to have different sets of objectives and expectations. Despite that, researchers (e.g. Ioannides and Apostolopoulos 1999) believe that both communities on the island should collaborate to promote a single Cypriot sustainable product. Sonmez and Apostolopoulos (2000) envisage the potential role of tourism in facilitating international peace. They argue that co-operation to promote the island as a single destination could even lead to a resolution of the political conflict. Ioannides (2001) recommends that both sides must set aside their prejudices and market the island as a single destination. Besides, collaboration between the two sides could inject new life in the island's tourism product and hopefully rejuvenate it as a tourist destination. Knowles, Diamantis and Bey El-Mourhabi (2001) argue that a political solution of the Cyprus problem may increase tourist arrivals. This is because the continued division of the island creates a negative image and affects the tourism arrivals on the island. Even so, the desirability of such increase in tourist numbers may be argued. Ayers (2000), notes that if sustainable tourism is to be achieved in Cyprus, then there is the need to limit the island's tourism future rate and form of expansion. The appropriate authorities must continually invest to raise and maintain the quality of the Cypriot tourist product and the service provided.

An array of problems, being the result of tourism development, contributed towards the deterioration of the Cypriot tourist product and the quality of the services being offered (Beckett 1997). The rapid and concentrated development on specific areas of the country placed enormous pressure on the human and natural resources. Nonetheless, it led to several socio-environmental impacts (Witt 1991; Kammas 1993; Apostolides 1996). Yet, a survey amongst the local populations of resorts in the Eastern part of Cyprus, undertaken by Saveriades (2000), revealed little evidence of negative feelings towards tourists, or, desire to reduce the level of tourism. The survey resulted towards the belief that the carrying capacity of the island has not yet been exceeded. Even so, Lockhart (1997) mentions that the annual tourist numbers in Cyprus exceed by far the local population. Turton (2001) seems to agree by stating that mass tourism in Cyprus cannot be ignored. Ioannides (2001) proceeds by adding that the Republic of Cyprus 'desperately needs to address the environmental repercussions of mass tourism' (p.128).

All the same, Sharpley (2000b) makes reference to a failure to control the accommodation sector of the island. Ayers (2000), stresses the growing problems of dependency and social, cultural and environmental costs imposed by tourism on the island.

Altinay and Bowen (2006) point out that unplanned tourism on the island has brought its share of negative effects. Unlike the north part of the island, which has not yet experienced such impacts, the indigenous flora and fauna is being damaged and still endangered. Others (Andronikou 1987; Ioannides and Apostolopoulos 1999; Ioannides 2001) note that the aggressive and uncontrolled development and growth of tourism (especially in coastal areas) have created several economic, socio-cultural and environmental problems. These include amongst others, inflationary pressures in these regions and over-dependence of businesses on tourism. In addition, because of the heavy presence of tourists, the Cypriot youth adopts different sets of values on morality in comparison with the prevailing traditional attitudes. Several are the impacts over the native fauna and flora on the coastal areas of the island. In addition, tourism causes pressure on water, in a country which experiences water shortages on a yearly basis. Furthermore, areas are being transformed into full of concrete buildings, which provide limited provision of open spaces (e.g. parks). Based on Antoniadou (2006), the vast and unplanned tourism development on the island caused the erection of poor quality buildings and particularly poor quality accommodation for tourist use. Antoniadou argues that Cyprus will most likely become less competitive, in comparison with other destinations. This is based on the fact that areas become less competitive if they loose their characteristics (e.g. landscape, tradition and architecture). Others (e.g. Poon 1993; Ioannides 2001) note there is the potential danger of the island's largely conventional mass tourism image (3 S's) which will lead towards a loss of popularity since more tourists nowadays seek for less spoilt and out of the ordinary destinations. Sgartsou (2006) reports that the last few years, Lemesos (a town and popular resort), has experienced a significant decrease of demand even though the number of tourist beds has increased by 50% the last 20 years.

'Ayia Napa' tourist resort case study: The impacts of tourism

Approximately 30 years ago, the area of Ayia Napa, in the East coast of Cyprus had only 100 inhabitants. This has not changed much, since even until nowadays, only a few hundred locals live in the area. Most of them live outside the town since they have sold their land to developers in the building boom which followed the war of 1974. Overnight, the little village of Ayia Napa ascended as the replacement of the nearby popular lost tourist resort/town of Famagusta. Hotels, pubs and hundreds of restaurants were built in the area. This turned Ayia Napa 'the party town on Cyprus's southeast coast that has become the dance capital of Europe, overtaking the more established Spanish island of Ibiza, with which it is often compared' (Theodoulou 2000, p.2). Despite the economic benefits, the result of the rapid tourism growth caused a plethora of negative impacts over the natural and the socio-cultural environment of the region. Sea turtles have been driven from the beaches of the area, because of the excessive tourist development. Mass chanting has been reported by locals to be disturbed by the cacophony coming out of the pubs surrounding the 16th century monastery, situated in the once peaceful centre of the village. Long hours spent working in the tourist industry have been blamed for breaking up marriages and reducing the amount of time which parents were spending with their children. Tourism has been blamed for the fact that locals are struggling to find a balance between 'making a good living' and conserving traditional family values. Tourists are accused of bringing in drugs. At the same time locals express their concerns about growing up their children in such a society. A series of lurid stories in the local press are often being published about tourists who bring and use drugs, also, about vulgar behaviour especially from young tourists. Tour operators in U.K describe Ayia Napa as not the right place for a quiet cultured holiday.

(Theodoulou 2000; Ioannides 2001; Horner and Swarbrooke 2004; Fileleftheros 2006).

These negative impacts have been noticed by the appropriate authorities of the destination. Measures have been introduced to re-focus the direction and scale of tourism development away from the coastal resorts of the island. The government, in close collaboration with the C.T.O enacted a series of measures geared towards safeguarding the industry's future position, maximizing its economic returns, while preserving the human-built and natural environment (Ioannides 2001). The island's authorities approved a 'motivation plan for upgrading/retraction of low class tourist beds' in an attempt to upgrade the tourism product (in this case, accommodation). The strategic plan of tourist product development of 2003-2010 verified that there were 10,000 low-quality beds in Cyprus for tourist use. These were not responding to the expectations of the tourist market. According to the plan, their owners had to either withdraw them from the market, or alternatively, upgrade them with the provision of governmental assistance. This assistance included a partly/wholly interest bounty for full upgrading of the internal or external of the building. Additionally, the provision of technical assistance with the form of education or/and support of the marketing efforts of the businesses (Koumelis 2006b).

Furthermore, the C.T.O visualised that the 'Agrotourism' program could promote the country as a cultural destination (Cope 2000). Based on Horner and Swarbrooke (2004), it is hard to get to the heart of what the actual term really means because in many brochures it simply means rural self-catering accommodation and small hotels in Cypriot villages. Other brochures, give emphasis to its unique local elements such as, customs, architecture, food, music, flora and fauna. Sharpley (2005) appears to clarify the rather blurred term by noting that a simple explanation of the term is that it is basically tourism based on traditional accommodation facilities in the rural regions of the island.

It should be noted that until 1960 there were hardly any tourism facilities in the Cypriot countryside. Only a number of family run businesses in a small-scale, in the mountainous area of Troodos (Sharpley and Sharpley 1997). The C.T.O targeted the rural regions of the island and implemented the aforementioned program. Over a ten-year period (1991- 2001) 52 traditional houses in 30 villages in the countryside of the island were restored under the scheme of this program, in an effort to attract more 'quality tourism' in the hinterland of the island. (Kazepi 2002; the official website of the Republic of Cyprus 2005).

Being one element of the island's government-endorsed tourism development strategy, the program was launched in 1991 (Sharpley 2002). At its infant stage, it was encouraging people of rural Cyprus to invest in the sector as a way of gaining supplementary income (Demetriadou 1991). In a noteworthy attempt to support the program, the C.T.O during the mid 1990's, established the 'Cyprus Agrotourism Company'. The company continues until nowadays to play a central role for its development. It is a non-profit association which draws its members from owners/entrepreneurs. Its main purpose is to promote this form of tourism through both a central reservation system and an annual 'Traditional Holiday Homes Guide' which the company publishes. Moreover, by 1998, some $4 million had been invested by the private sector on restoring and converting traditional buildings in the selected villages. The government contributed an additional $500,000 in interest payment subsidies. By 1999 the total capacity of bed spaces reached 444. The E.U financially supported a plan of rejuvenating the countryside of Cyprus with 4.7 million Euros in 2006 which in brief, consisted of four programs. Firstly, the construction of bicycle routes in the countryside, secondly, the creation of 'wine routes' in the wine regions of the island with guides to wineries. Thirdly, the creation of a religious route, by having as a base the Byzantine music, the monasteries, the religion, tradition and customs and finally, the tourist promotion of the island's countryside (Sharpley 2000b; Kazepi 2002; Sharpley 2002; Cyprus Agrotourism Company 2005; Azas 2006).

Even so, a study undertaken by Sharpley (2002), which targeted owners of agritourism businesses, revealed that the program has met in some success its aims. Some of the benefits of the program include the fact that new life has been brought to old buildings. Additionally, it was felt that tourism was providing a supplementary income to local rural communities. Although limited employment opportunities were created, local crafts and arts have been revitalised, providing thus, supplementary income to locals. The study also revealed that there is an increasing awareness amongst the villagers of the importance of the island's cultural heritage.

Despite that, the same study brought to the surface a lack of support from the government and the C.T.O. This was based on the fact that the appropriate bodies provided lower than expected/promised financial support, for renovating and converting old properties. The lack of training, in spite of the proposed policy, in regards to training and education sessions, also appears evident. The same study revealed a lack of local facilities/amenities in which tourists may experience or learn local crafts (e.g. pottery). In addition, low occupancy levels were reported, which depending on the season, they range between 20%-70% (excluding 'Kakopetria', an established hill resort). Although the program was enthusiastically introduced, it seems that the initial keenness has been followed by a rather stagnation/apathy stage. In fact, there is no evidence to suggest that there have been any studies to investigate the satisfaction process of agritourists. In terms of what the tourists seek from an agritourist experience, their expectations, which factors they value the most while at the destination and their post-experience behavioural intentions.

That said Beckett (1997) draws attention to tourism field stakeholders by noting that the success of any tourism sector depends on whether or not guest satisfaction is achieved. Others (e.g. Lockyer 2002) note that the result of not providing those items which are important to guests is guest dissatisfaction and low occupancy rates. Despite that, the rural tourist satisfaction process has its knowledge gaps. This is reflected in calls of the international tourism academic community for further investigation. Kastenholz and Almeida (2008) stress the need for understanding of rural market motivations. Frochot (2005) calls for additional research to appreciate rural tourists' expectations. Others (e.g. Correia and Pimpao 2008) call for further investigation of the motivation of tourists in general. Radder and Wang (2006) acknowledge an existing gap in the process of understanding the expectations of tourists. All the same, researchers (e.g. Yu and Goulden 2006) highlight the importance of understanding tourist satisfaction.

Summary of 2.3: Rural tourism in Cyprus

Cyprus is an island situated in the Mediterranean Sea which its economy depends primarily on tourism (Hoti, McAleer and Shareef 2007). A rather fragile industry, which may be significantly challenged by conflicts, such as, in 1974 in which the war crippled the economy of the country. The island was divided by force, into two parts, which apparently until nowadays continues to create a negative image of the destination (Knowles, Diamantis and Bey El-Mourhabi 2001). Even so, tourism development influenced positively the economy of the country (Ayers 2000). However, it brought its share of negative effects upon the island's (e.g.) natural environment (Ioannides 2001). For instance, the island's popular tourist resort of 'Ayia Napa' faced several negative impacts, due to such tourism development (Horner and Swarbrooke 2004). In an attempt to promote the culture of the place and offer an alternative choice to tourists, the C.T.O implemented the 'agrotourism' program (Kazepi 2002). This is basically, tourism based on traditional accommodation facilities in the rural regions of the island. Through its promotion, the island sought tourism diversification and economic regeneration (Sharpley 2002; 2005). Furthermore, it was seen as a form of promotion of the country as a cultural destination (Cope 2000). Indeed, its development brought some benefits onto the rural areas of the country, such as, provided a supplementary income to local communities. Despite that, its success may be argued on the basis that the study of Sharpley (2002) brought to the surface several challenges which the program is facing, such as, the fact that it has achieved only low occupancy rates. Relevantly, there have not been any investigations of the agritourist satisfaction process, even though researchers (e.g. Beckett 1997), note that the success of any tourism sector depends on whether or not guest satisfaction is achieved. Lockyer (2002) suggests that the result of not providing those items which are important to guests is guest dissatisfaction and low occupancy rates. Even so, it seems that the tourist/rural tourist satisfaction process has its knowledge gaps since global academics call for further investigation of the tourist satisfaction process. Yu and Goulden (2006) highlight the importance of understanding tourist satisfaction.

Chapter 3: The tourist satisfaction process

A review of literature regarding the tourist satisfaction process, led to the creation of three themes/sections. The first section deals with the 'pre-travel stage' and the second part, with the stage which the tourist is at the destination ('destination stage'). The third part deals with the stage following the experience of the tourist (the 'meta-travel stage'). These sections discuss the satisfaction process of tourists from the motivation stage to the future behavioural intentions following dis/satisfaction. The three sections conclude that there is a need for additional research to appreciate the satisfaction process of tourists who visit the rural areas.

3.1. The pre-travel stage

Before an individual acts in a certain way, such as, to engage in a travel experience, he/she is motivated to do so by individual needs. Maslow (1970) notes that needs provide the motivation that prompts people to act. Researchers (e.g. Dann 1981; Pearce 1982) regard motivation to be both the psychological and biological needs which integrate a person's behaviour and activity. Others (e.g. Exadaktylos 2003; Mooij 2004) make reference to motivation research which seeks to find the underling 'why' of our behaviour. The study of motivation is a core aspect of psychology. It is complex and contested and has vexed tourism and (to a lesser extend) hospitality academics (McCabe 2009).

Ross and Iso-Ahola (1991) acknowledge the importance of motivation in the satisfaction process of tourists by stressing the fact that motivation affects satisfaction. Mill and Morrisson (2002) note that vacation travel is to be seen as a satisfier of needs and wants. Beerli and Martin (2004b) state that 'motivation is the need that drives an individual to act in a certain way to achieve the desired satisfaction' (p.626). Bergman and Klefsjo (2003) support the relationship between customer needs and satisfaction. Others, such as Lam and Zhang (1999) note that customer satisfaction is achieved when customer needs and wants are fulfilled. Several theorists have attempted to comprehend human motivation (e.g. Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman 1959; Maslow 1970; Haines 1990; Heylighen 1992; Exadaktylos 2003; Mooij 2004; Rosenquist 2005; Bjerneld et al. 2006).

Perhaps the most known theory of motivation is the one which was conceptualised by Abraham Maslow, a psychologist, who studied needs and factors which motivate human behaviour. In his theory on motivation (1970), he arranged human needs in a hierarchical importance. Even though his intention was for his theory not to be used outside of management psychology, his approach was extended in other fields (Hagery 1999; Clarke, Islam and Paech 2006). Maslow theorized that humans have similar needs that they try to satisfy, most times in the same order. Essentially, he divided the human needs in physiological, safety/security, love/belonging and finally esteem needs. The needs at the lower level (physiological) dominate an individual's motivation. Once these are adequately satisfied, then the needs that are positioned higher up in the hierarchy occupy the individual's attention. The lower needs are basically the individual needs for survival (e.g. air, food, water and shelter). Until these are satisfied, attention to the higher level of needs is not possible. If these needs remain unsatisfied, then the consequences may be feelings of physical pain, illness and discomfort. Once these needs are satisfied, then individuals seek to satisfy the safety and security needs (e.g. security, stability, order and protection). Following, are the love and belonging needs. This tier involves social needs, loving, being loved, not being lonely and a sense of belonging somewhere (e.g. clubs, work groups, families). Once people belong into groups, they then seek for attention and recognition from others (to feel confident and empowered). These are referred to as self-esteem needs. Finally, once these needs are satisfied then a person can become self-actualized, which is the ultimate need to which people aspire. It is the self- fulfilment of one's own potential and may be considered to be analogous to capability (Maslow 1970; Sen 1985; Nussbaum 2000; Ryan 2002; Rosenquist 2005; Bjerneld et al. 2006; Clarke, Islam and Paech 2006). In regards to the self-actualization needs, Heylighen (1992) notes that people who have met the lower needs, but did not achieve self-actualisation, appear to have everything they need. Even so, they feel that there is a lack of something. As a result of this, they experience life as boring and meaningless and begin to seek the fulfilment of their esteem needs.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory (Herzberg 1959) is another theory of motivation which is need-driven. The theory has been used in the areas of employee motivation (Graham and Messner 1998; Lundberg, Gudmundson and Andersson 2008).

Furthermore, it has been used in the hospitality/tourism field, such as, in hotel guest motivation/choice (e.g. Balmer and Baum 1993). This theory suggests that humans have two different sets of needs. The first set concerns the basic needs of a person (hygiene factors) which can cause dissatisfaction when not satisfied. However once these factors are satisfied, then the result is the prevention of dissatisfaction. In this regard, Lashley (2000a) makes reference to those minimum consumer expectations. The second set of needs (motivating factors) implies that humans try to become all that they are capable of becoming (e.g. achievement). Once these are satisfied, they work as motivators. However, when these are missing this does not cause dissatisfaction, but only an absence of satisfaction (Herzberg 1959; Lundberg, Gudmundson and Andersson 2008).

A considerable number of studies have attempted the last decades to understand the motivation and decision-making behaviour of tourists (e.g. Schmoll 1977; Mayo and Jarvis 1981; Mathieson and Wall 1982; Van Raaij and Francken 1984; Moutinho 1987; Um and Crompton 1990; Goodall 1991; Woodside and McDonald 1994; Hudson 1999; Woodside and Dubelaar 2002; Nerhagen 2003; Yoon and Uysal 2005). Tourism researchers' attempts to understand the complexity of needs, used (e.g.) the Kano's model (Kano et al. 1984) and Herzberg's model (Balmer and Baum 1993). Tikkanen (2007) employed Maslow's theory of motivation in Finland in order to explore the personal food tourist needs and motivations. Balmer and Baum (1993) found Herzberg's theory more applicable in explaining guest motivation in the accommodation industry. The researchers, who used Cyprus as a case study, argue that Maslow is being overtaken by Herzberg in providing an applicable approach to understand guest motivation. In their study, they equated the five levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs roughly to the five levels of hotels. Guests of 1-3 star hotels would be seeking to satisfy their 'basic' needs (e.g. food, warmth, secure room). Those of 4-5 star hotels would be seeking to satisfy their 'upper' needs. At this level (4-5 star), guests would expect and take for granted that their basic needs would be satisfied. Hence, they would look at satisfying their higher needs. They argue that with Maslows' interpretation of guest needs life would be predictable. The needs of guests would have been only product based at 1-3 star hotels. Yet, guest needs and wants have increased and what was regarded as a luxury some years ago, it is a commonplace in a hotel bedroom nowadays.

McCabe (2009) makes reference to new customers in the hospitality and tourism field which are becoming more experienced, demanding and with higher expectations. Balmer and Baum (1993, p.34) state that 'if a guest walks in a dirty bedroom, he or she will certainly notice it, and probably will complain; however, if the guest walks into a clean bedroom this will rarely prompt any reaction as the guest will take it for granted'. The same researchers suggest that through Herzberg's theory, hoteliers are able to concentrate on those areas that are likely to ensure that the guest will be satisfied (e.g. intangible service/courteous staff). At the same time will ensure that hygiene factors (e.g. tangible product/cleanliness) do not let both the guest and the hotel down. Herzberg's theory has been reviewed by House and Wigdor (1967) who have identified criticisms of the model, such as, the fact that it lacks a measure of overall satisfaction.

That being mentioned, academics, such as Kengpo and Wangananon (2006) argue that identifying the customer's needs is a difficult and complex task. Kvist and Klefsjo (2006) regard needs to be difficult, or even impossible to be investigated because they are beyond the consciousness of a studied person. The tourist need examination/identification appears not to be an exception to this investigation challenge. Besides, tourist needs have been noted to vary according to the individual. Shortt and Ruys (2000) make reference to tourist needs which vary based on the age of the tourist. Others (e.g. Kvist and Klefsjo 2006) note that tourists' needs vary based on their nationality background. Yuksel (2004) points out that a prerequisite for management success is to understand the needs of those travellers that are from different cultures and respond to them properly. Several researchers (e.g. Crotts and Erdmann 2000; Weiermair 2000; Bowen and Clarke 2002; Rittinchainuwat, Qu and Mongkonvanit 2002; Heo, Jogaratnam and Buchanan 2004; Yu and Goulden 2006) suggest that tourism providers must try to accommodate the heterogeneous guest needs arising from the customer's cultural diversification. Even so, researchers which have examined tourist needs, make reference to motivations which include: the desire to escape routine, to rest and relax, to experience adventure, excitement, for sport/fitness, social interaction and search for authentic experiences (Crompton 1979; Dann 1981; Butler 1993; Uysal and Jurowski 1993; Kano 1995; McGehee, Loker-Murphy and Uysal 1996; Kano 2001; Bergman and Klefsjo 2003; Yoon and Uysal 2005).

Ryan and Kinder (1996) highlight that 'the essence of tourism remains the escape from the reality of daily life' (p.516). Krippendorf (1987) argues that tourists are motivated by going away from something instead of going towards something. The extensive interest amongst tourism academics in the investigation of tourist motivation may be reasoned based on the importance of needs in the tourist satisfaction process. Hui, Wan and Ho (2007) make reference to a contemporary increase of exploratory research which aims to provide a more analytical insight into tourist motivation and satisfaction. Others (e.g. Kano 1995; 2001; Bergman and Klefsjo 2003), stress the importance of identifying needs due to their relationship with customer satisfaction. Similar views are shared amongst other tourism researchers (e.g. Kvist and Klefsjo 2006; Rodriguez del Bosque, San Martin and Collado 2006). Bergman and Klefsjo (2003) emphasize on the importance of identifying customer needs. Chi and Chu (2001) note that in such a highly competitive industry, such as the hospitality/tourism industry, there is the need to find ways to stand out amongst the others. Thus, hoteliers must try to understand their customer needs and meet or even exceed these needs. Based on Lockyer (2002), the result of not providing those items which are regarded by guests as important is dissatisfaction and low occupancy rates. Ahmed and Chon (1994) urge U.S tourism marketers to identify the dissimilar needs of their travellers in order to address them correctly otherwise 'they would not be able to meet their needs and satisfy them completely' (p.91).

The importance of identifying rural tourists' needs is underlined in Clarke's et al. (2001) study in Eastern Europe. They recommend that all forms of tourism (e.g. rural), must focus on the needs sought by the consumer if they want to emerge as international players competing for the increasingly sophisticated tourist. Butler and Hall (1998) stress the importance of understanding what tourists seek from the rural areas. The successful development of rural tourism depends, according to Sharpley and Sharpley (1997), on the understanding of what motivates people to visit the countryside. Nonetheless, Frochot (2005) states that tourism in rural areas is an extremely diverse sector leading to a wide range of visitor's needs. Others (e.g. Lane 1994; Sharpley and Sharpley 1997; Roberts and Hall 2001; Barke 2004) recognise that rural tourism is made by individuals with different characteristics and needs. All the same, the rural tourism market is acknowledged as a non-homogeneous one (Molera and Albaladejo 2007; Kastenholz and Almeida 2008).

Based on Lane (1995), the rural tourism market is a complex one, with different age-groups and special interests. Even so, endeavours to understand rural tourist motivation reveal that tourists are motivated to visit the countryside because they view it as a place that has escaped from urbanisation. Furthermore, because it is a place where a person can revert with nostalgia to old ways of life and authenticity (Lowenthal and Prince 1992; Short 1997; McLellan 1998; Urry 2002). Other motivations of rural tourists include amongst others: the contact with nature, the sensation of freedom, the need for tranquillity, the search for tradition, the desire for contact with locals and the need to engage into new experiences (Bramwell 1994; Gannon 1994; Fuentes Garcia 1995; Sharpley and Sharpley 1997; Tyrvainen et al. 2001; Sharpley 2002)

Academics (e.g. Kotler 1982; Lundberg 1990; Correia, Oom do Valle and Moco 2007) acknowledge the existence of external factors, apart from inner factors (needs), which motivate human behaviour. External factors which may motivate tourists to visit a destination are, recreational facilities, cultural attractions, natural scenery, entertainment and in the case of small islands, the physical separateness, attractive climate and the environment (Butler 1993; McGehee, Loker-Murphy and Uysal 1996; Yoon and Uysal 2005). With specific regard to rural tourism, the natural surroundings and related infrastructure are considered by Saez, Fuentes and Montes (2007) as important elements in the destination choice. A mail survey which was carried out by Tyrvainen et al. (2001) in Finland showed that the quality of landscape as an important attraction factor for rural tourists. Perez (2002) agrees that landscapes are an abundant natural resource and form an important basis for the tourism industry. The area of 'Extremadura' (Spain) uses its classic Mediterranean landscape as an important factor for the growing rural tourism sector. Lane (1994) draws attention to tourists who are specifically attracted to the rural areas by the natural environment and rural culture. A study undertaken in Catalonia and Galicia revealed that the natural environment and landscapes are principal motivations for rural tourists (Canoves, Herrera and Villarino 2005).

Contrast, existing literature (e.g. Oppermann 1996; Getz and Page 1997; Gladstone and Morris 1998) shows little evidence of rural tourist interest in agricultural activities (e.g. farming). Resulting thus towards the conclusion that agricultural activities are not a major source of motivation for rural tourists. Based on Busby and Rendle (2000) the link between farm tourism and agriculture is getting weaker. Frochot (2005) states that it is not appropriate to use the term 'rural tourist' if suggesting that tourists in rural areas are particularly receptive to rural issues, such as, agricultural life. This is because only a small segment appears to have a clear interest in rural life. Instead, the majority of rural tourists reveal that pull factors include amongst other features, the scenery, culture and activities. Similarly, Fleischer and Tchetchik (2005) stress that farm activities on a working farm are of no value to the visitors. Walford (2001), without making any reference to farm activities, reports that successful farm accommodations are located in an aesthetically pleasing environment. Apparently, tourists seek rural destinations which offer pleasant experiences related to the natural environment, historical heritage and cultural patterns (WTO 1994; Butler and Hall 1998).

Studies, such as of Cavaco (1995) and Sharpley (2002), reveal that rural tourists tend to be middle-class and older visitors. In her study of rural tourists, Frochot (2005), reports that nearly half of them, are between 25 to 44 years old and almost 1/3 are from 45 to 64. According to the study of Fuentes Garcia (1995) in Spain, rural tourists are mainly between 25 and 45 years old. The study of Kastenholz, Davis and Paul (1999) in Portugal, reveals four market segments of rural tourists. Those who are most attracted by rural life and calm atmosphere and those who are generally young people interested in a broad diversity of benefits and activities. In addition, those who are older people, value nature and peacefulness, and finally young people interested in physical activities. In her study, Frochot (2005) clearly identifies four clusters of visitors which display different activity preferences and holiday behaviour. The study findings emerge to confirm other, similar clusters identified in previous studies (e.g. Mckay, Andereck and Vogt 1985; Ryan, Hughes and Chirgwin 2000).

In more detail, the following groups of rural tourists are recognized in Frochot's study:

a) The 'Actives' who prefer active sports (e.g. cycling, horse riding),

b) The 'Gazers' who enjoy driving around in the countryside while engaging in nature study, have short walks, mixed with an aspiration to relax,

c) The 'Relaxers' who mainly seek relaxation and have lower participation rate in most activities and

d) The 'Rurals' who are mostly interested in the rural dimension of their holiday and are the biggest users of Farmhouses.

Finally, a survey undertaken by Molera and Albaladejo (2007), which took place in the region of Murcia in Spain, reveals the following five rural tourist segments:

a) Those who value the benefit of being with their family, relax and get involved in different activities,

b) Those interested in nature and peacefulness,

c) Those mainly involved in outdoor and cultural activities but not so in activities typical of daily rural life,

d) Those interested in rural life activities, traditional gastronomy and relationships with local residents and finally

e) Those whose principal motivation for a rural holiday seems to be spending time with friends.

The study of Molera and Albaladejo (2007) divulge more or less similar groups of rural tourists as Frochot (2005). For instance, the 'Rurals' (of Frochot) compared with 'those interested in rural life activities' (of Molera and Albaladejo). Similarly, the studies of Song (2005) and Park and Yoon (2009) conclude that there are six/four (respectively) distinct segments of rural tourists (based on their motivation) who visit the Korean countryside. Although the above studies brought to the surface useful findings in regards to the motivation of rural tourists, it seems that they were not able to identify sub-groups.

Frochot (2005) notes that in her study she did not pinpoint any sub-segments of rural tourists which could probably correspond to niche markets. All the same, Reichel, Lowengart and Milman (2000) emphasize the importance of the identification of customer needs in the rural tourism industry. The same study reveals the inability of rural tourism operators to assess customer needs which appears to be their most acute weakness. The success of rural tourism in a region in central Romania was hampered by a failure to meet the needs of the visitors (Roberts 1996).

That being established, it seems that tourist motivation influences the way the tourist will perceive the destination, in terms of forming certain expectations about it. Correia, Oom do Valle and Moco (2007) note that both inner (push) and external (pull) forces/motivations influence the way tourists perceive the destination. Researchers (e.g. Arnould, Price and Zinkhan 2004; Torres and Kline 2006) regard expectations as anticipations/predictions of future events, such as, the perceived level of service that consumers hope to obtain from a hotel. Expectations are not synonymous to needs. This is because people can have expectations of things that they do not really need, while they may have needs that they do not expect (Bergman and Klefsjo 2003). Researchers (e.g. Nolan 1976; Schmoll 1977; Engel, Kollat and Blackwell 1978; Bettman 1979; Mathieson and Wall 1982; Woodside and Lysonski 1989; Um and Crompton 1990; Armstrong et al. 1997; Mok and Armstrong 1998; Correia 2002; Gursoy and McCleary 2004) agree that tourists have initial expectations regarding the type and quality of services to be offered at a destination. These, are mainly formed through what is widely accepted as external information, such as, destination commercials, information from tourism advertisements, brochures, guides, tourist offices, mass media and WOM (Word Of Mouth). The latter, involves informal information from other people, friends and relatives.

External information append towards the creation of a destination image and there are a number of researchers who support this (e.g. Gunn 1972; Burgess 1978; Crompton 1979; Fridgen 1984; Woodside and Lysonski 1989; Goodall 1990; Sonmez and Sirakaya 2002; Echtner and Ritchie 2003; Becken and Gnoth 2004; Beerli and Martin 2004a; Gursoy and McCleary 2004; Molina and Esteban 2006).

Apart from external information, consumers' past experiences influence their future expectations (e.g. Prakash and Lounsbury 1984; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman 1993; Hoffman and Bateson 1997; Oliver 1997; Oliver and Burke 1999; Fache 2000). Previous experiences affect a person's expectation towards the next purchase (Westbrook and Newman 1978; Woodruff et al. 1983; Whipple and Thach 1988; Fache 2000). The role of past experience (e.g. the communication with the service provider) in the expectation formation process is supported by several researchers (Booms and Bitner 1981; Gronroos 1984; Bitner 1990; Kurtz and Clow 1991; Murray 1991; Clow et al. 1997; Hoffman and Bateson 1997; Oliver 1997; Oliver and Burke 1999; Fache 2000; Kotler 2000b). Studies have investigated the concept of consumer expectations, chiefly because of their association with customer satisfaction (e.g. Miller 1977; Tse and Wilton 1988; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman 1993; Walker and Baker 2000). The direct relationship of expectations with satisfaction has been stressed by a number of researchers during the 1980's (e.g. Churchill and Surprenant 1982; Tse and Wilton 1988), the 1990's (e.g. Yi 1993; Voss, Parasuraman and Grewal 1998; Oh 1999; Oliver and Burke 1999) and the 2000's (e.g. Andreassen 2000; Lee, Lee and Yoo 2000; Choi and Chu 2001; Ueltschy et al. 2002; Rodriguez del Bosque, Martin and Collado 2006; Nowark and Newton 2008). Despite that, endeavours to correlate the two (expectations with satisfaction), date as back as the 1960's. This is when Sherif and Hovland (1961) reached the conclusion that consumers experience a psychological conflict if they perceive a discrepancy between expectations and their perception of the experience. Nearly half a century later, researchers (e.g. Arnould, Price and Zinkhan 2004; Torres and Kline 2006) express similar views. These argue that since the obtained level of service compared to the delivered will determine tourist dis/satisfaction, it is necessary to understand customer expectations and deliver accordingly. Kandampully (2000) suggests the consideration of tourist expectations during the design of tourism packages so that overall guest satisfaction is achieved. Yet Oliver (1980) notes that the higher the expectations of consumers are, the harder it is for the service provider to satisfy them. Analogous beliefs are shared by Akama and Kieti (2003) and Bowie and Chang (2005). These basically note that high expectations can frustrate satisfaction achievement.

Of note is the fact that customers of industries with a higher intangible service level (e.g. tourism industry) have higher expectations of the service quality than from the industries with a lower intangible service level (Bebko 2001).

In spite of the global attention on expectations, studies (e.g. Radder and Wang 2006) reveal that hospitality managers perceive the expectations of tourists wrongfully. The aim of Radder's and Wang's (2006) study was to determine similarities/differences in business travellers' expectations and managers' perceptions of the service provided. Two questionnaires with seven-point Likert scales were used. The sample included 50 guest-house managers and 300 business travellers within one city. The findings revealed that business travellers deem secure parking and professionalism of staff as the most important attributes. Whereas, guest-house managers thought it would have been reception friendliness and efficient handling of complaints. Even so, comprehending tourist expectations may become a difficult and extremely challenging task, given that they differ from individual to individual. Tourist expectations may vary according to the tourist cultural background (Armstrong et al. 1997; Mok and Armstrong 1998; Becker and Murrmann 1999; Atilgan, Akinci and Aksoy 2003; Bowie and Chang 2005). Studies in the relevant field suggest that cultural norms do affect tourist expectations (e.g. Mok and Armstong 1998; Weiermair 2000; Atilgan, Akinci and Aksoy 2003). However, it may be argued that this categorisation of tourists' expectations into groups, according to their cultural background, may be based on very broad criteria. This seems not to acknowledge the tourist's individual expectations which may be shaped by individual factors (e.g. personal experiences). In addition, tourist expectations have been noted to change over time. This is because several factors (internal and external) may influence the individual expectations which consumers bring to their satisfaction judgements. Memories of past experiences and promotions made by organisations are such examples (Arnould, Price and Zinkhan 2004; Torres and Kline 2006).

Frochot (2005) makes reference to a wide range of visitors' expectations as a result of the extremely diverse sector of rural tourism. Relevant in this case is the fact that guests have been noted to visit a venue because of different reasons/occasions.

These occasions assist the segmentation of customers based on the reason for visitation (notion/model of occasionality). Leisure retailers segment customers according to the occasions for which they use the leisure service. For instance, the same customer may make use of a restaurant for several eat-out occasions, such as, to celebrate a special occasion, or, for a family meal out. These occasions shape customers' expectations and how they perceive quality and satisfaction (Lashley and Taylor 1998; Lashley 2000a; Lashley and Lincoln 2003). 'Increasingly, hospitality and tourism retailers are defining and developing their brands around the occasions that customers use their type of business' (Kaufman, Lashley and Schreier 2009, p.25). Consequently, according to Lashley and Lincoln (2003), there is a need to understand that customers use a venue 'on different occasions with different expectations and motives' (p.146). McCabe (2009) suggests that organisations and destinations have to be aware of the needs, expectations and values of their customers. Furthermore, Lashley and Rowson (2002) make reference to specific customer segments, customer occasions and critical success factors which should be closely defined and delivered. It is suggested, by Lashley and Lincoln (2003), that a targeted strategy should produce 'a type of experience that meets the needs and expectations of a focused group of customers' (p.20). That being established, researchers (e.g. Barsky and Labagh 1992; Becker and Murrmann 1999; Lam and Zhang 1999) stress the importance of both needs and expectations in the satisfaction process. Others (e.g. Kvist and Klefsjo 2006; Correia and Pimpao 2008) emphasize the importance of understanding tourist needs and call for further investigation of tourist motivation. Radder and Wang (2006) make reference to an existing gap in the process of understanding tourist expectations. In specific regards to the rural tourism field, Butler and Hall (1998) stress the importance of understanding what tourists seek from rural areas. Kastenholz and Almeida (2008) highlight the need of understanding the rural market differences (e.g. motivations). Frochot (2005) calls for additional research to appreciate the expectations of rural tourists. Molera and Albaladejo (2007) draw attention to the changing nature of the rural tourism market which requires more up-to-date research. Pina and Delfa (2005) stress the need to have detailed information about the tourists who visit rural areas. Park and Yoon (2009) emphasize the fact that ongoing rural tourism research is needed in order to monitor the changing demands and preferences of rural tourists.

Summary of 3.1: The pre-travel stage

Motivation is referred to as the need that drives an individual to act in a certain way to achieve the desired satisfaction (Beerli and Martin 2004b). The study of motivation is a core aspect of psychology which is complex and contested. It has vexed tourism and hospitality academics (McCabe 2009). The importance of understanding tourist motivation and particularly the identification of tourist needs is highlighted in a number of studies (e.g. Kvist and Klefsjo 2006). This is because researchers, such as Bergman and Klefsjo (2003), acknowledge the relationship of needs with satisfaction. Motivation influences the way the tourist will perceive the destination, in terms of forming certain expectations about it. Correia, Oom do Valle and Moco (2007) note that both inner/push and external/pull motivations influence the way tourists perceive the destination. Others (e.g. Rodriguez Del Bosque, Martin and Collado 2006) stress the relationship of expectations with satisfaction. McCabe (2009) urges organisations and destinations to be aware of the needs and expectations of their customers. Studies in the rural tourism field (e.g. Frochot 2005); have identified four to six groups of tourists based on their motivation for countryside visitation. But, sub-segments which would probably correspond to niche markets have not been differentiated. Yet, researchers (e.g. Kastenholz and Almeida 2008) state that the rural tourism market is not a homogeneous one. Others (e.g. Lashley and Lincoln 2003) make reference to different customer occasions with dissimilar motives and expectations. Researchers (e.g. Molera and Albaladejo 2007; Park and Yoon 2009) draw attention to further, up-to-date and detailed information about tourists who visit rural areas. Kastenholz and Almeida (2008) highlight the need for understanding the rural market differences (e.g. motivations). Frochot (2005) calls for additional research to appreciate the expectations of rural tourists. Thus, there is plenty of evidence to support a further investigation of the rural tourist motivation and expectation formation process, or better, what precedes the rural tourist trip experience (the 'pre-travel' stage).

3.2. The destination stage

While at the destination, the tourist is offered products and services, the quality of which may affect his/her satisfaction. Bergman and Klefsjo (2003) make reference to a 'quality' (p.24) product which has the ability to satisfy customers. Researchers (e.g. Deming 1986; Bergman and Kefsjo 2003) stress the relationship of quality with the afore-discussed needs and expectations. Others (e.g. Berry and Parasuraman 1997; Oliver 1997; Hui, Wan and Ho 2007) provide a link of quality with satisfaction by noting that the quality (e.g. of services) leads to tourist satisfaction. Providing an accurate definition for quality is a challenging task. Researchers (e.g. Bowie and Chang 2005; Gonzalez, Comesana and Brea 2006) make reference to service quality as a complicated, personal and subjective phenomenon. Others (e.g. Cronin and Taylor 1992; Zeithaml et al. 1996; Gonzalez, Comesana and Brea 2006) suggest the use of consumer perceptions in order to determine it. Hui, Wan and Ho (2007) argue that service quality embraces both intangible and tangible aspects even though services are noted (Kotler 1997) for their intangible characteristics. Within the context of rural tourism, Fleischer, Rotem and Banin (1993) declare that service quality comprises of both tangible and intangible aspects. These include the attitude of the operator towards the guest, as well as the cleanliness of the hotel room.

Despite that, Lin (2007) stresses the importance of quality by commenting that in recent years there is an overwhelming customer demand for quality. Quality is regarded to be a critical factor for the success of any business. It is the means by which an organisation can gain a competitive advantage, enhance the corporate image, retain existing customers and attract new ones (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1988a; Berry and Parasuraman 1991; Watson, McKenna and McLean 1992; Lewis 1993; Smith 1993; Lam and Zhang 1999; Su 2004). Furthermore, a number of academics stress the importance of quality in the hospitality and tourism field during the last few decades (Anath et al. 1992; Augustyn and Pheby 2000; Baker and Crompton 2000; Frochot and Hughes 2000; Chen and Gursoy 2001; Kozak 2001; Yuksel 2001; Tian- Cole, Crompton and Willson 2002; Tian- Cole and Crompton 2003).

These suggest that it positively impacts on hotel/destination revisit intention; it increases the prospect of attracting new customers and generates more income for the business/destination. In fact, Kandampully (2000) regards quality to be the main driving force of tourism in the future. Others (e.g. Clarke et al. 2001; Sharpley and Vass 2005) highlight the importance of quality in the rural tourism field. Saez, Fuentes and Montes (2007) argue that a key strategy for consolidating rural tourism is to improve the quality of services being offered. Sharpley (2002) notes the significant role of quality products for the success of the sector. Maslow and Mintz (1953) and Bowie and Chang (2005) note the importance of the aesthetically pleasing physical surroundings which may influence positively people's mental state. Garrod and Youell (2006) point out that the quality of the rural tourism experience depends not only on high standards of service. Apart from that, it depends on the quality of the 'countryside capital' (p.120) that supports it. Thus, they make reference to a much wider range of quality aspects of the experience, not restricted to the quality of services and products, but also to other factors (e.g. physical environment). According to Garrod, Youell and Wornell (2004), the countryside capital comprises amongst others the following:

- Landscape
- Wildlife
- Historic buildings
- Trails
- Rivers and lakes
- Water and air quality
- Woods, forests
- Food
- Crafts

The importance of quality is even more stressed due to its relationship with satisfaction. Truong and Foster (2006) note that there has been an enormous amount of research looking at this relationship (e.g. Spreng and Mackoy 1996; Cronin, Brady and Hult 2000).

Even so, customers have trouble distinguishing the two, hence causing confusion in regards to the differentiation of the terms (Oliver 1980; Bitner and Hubert 1994; Bansal and Taylor 1999; Gonzalez, Comesana and Brea 2006). However, Su (2004) makes it clear that quality and satisfaction are not the same. Others (e.g. Taylor and Baker 1994; Spreng and Mackoy 1996; Castro, Armario and Ruiz 2007) emphasize the fact that although they are closely related, service quality is not equivalent to satisfaction.

In fact, a vast number of researchers concur that service quality functions as an antecedent of customer satisfaction (e.g. Oliver and DeSarbo 1988; Woodside Frey and Daly 1989; Bitner and Hubbert 1994; Ruyter, Bloemer and Peeters 1997; Cronin, Brady and Hult 2000; Zeithaml and Bitner 2000; Getz, O'Neill and Carlsen 2001; Caruana 2002; Brady, Cronin and Brand 2002; Sureshchandar, Rajendran and Anantharaman 2002; Ekinci 2004; Tam 2004). Soutar (2001) notes that service quality impacts on satisfaction, thus if it improves, then satisfaction will be improved. Ennew and Binks (1999) agree that service quality precedes satisfaction. They proceed by adding that satisfaction precedes the maintenance of the customer relationship. Academics (e.g. Backman and Veldkamp 1995; Baker and Crompton 2000; Cronin, Brady and Hult 2000) have investigated the interrelationship between quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Others, (e.g. Berry and Parasuraman 1997; Oliver 1997; Hui, Wan and Ho 2007) concur that quality services lead to tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty. Even so, researchers (e.g. Rittinchainuwat, Qu and Mongkonvanit 2002; Heo, Jogaratnam and Buchanan 2004; Yu and Goulden 2006) agree that tourists put emphasis on different aspects of service (e.g. safety and entertainment). This eventually, results in differences in their level of satisfaction. Others (e.g. Schmitt and Pan 1994; Mattila 2000; Reisinger and Turner 2003; Heo, Jogaratnam and Buchanan 2004; Bowie and Chang 2005) indicate that there are tourists who give more emphasis (compared to others), on the quality of interaction with the people who deliver the service. In this regard, Bitner, Boons and Tetreault (1990) and Arnould, Price and Zinkhan (2004) note that the quality of services offered by employees may be significantly influenced by various factors (e.g. job dis/satisfaction, lack of training and motivation). Sharpley (2002) makes reference to rural tourism businesses which apparently lack necessary knowledge or skills to provide quality services.

This contradictory weight given on certain quality aspects may be the result of the differing needs and expectations of tourists (Riddle 1992; Becker and Murrmann 1999). As has been discussed in the preceding discourse, customers use venues because of differing occasions which consecutively shape their expectations and thereby per caption of quality and satisfaction.

On each of these occasions, the customer has different motives and expectations. These expectations shape the customer's evaluation of the success of the visit. Even the same person visiting the same place for different occasions, will have a different set of critical success factors. Hence, there is a need to understand those factors which are critical for the success of the customer's visit. Critical success factors are the key elements of the offer that must be delivered to ensure that customers get the benefits they seek. An understanding of the critical success factors associated with different occasions is crucial for the delivery of such experiences that are in line with customer needs and perceptions. It is necessary to consider these factors for each group occasions and the differences between groups. This is because in some cases customers' critical success factors for one occasion may be in conflict with those of customers visiting for other occasions. For instance, customers visiting a restaurant for a family outing occasion may have needs that clash with customers who are visiting for a special occasion, such as, an anniversary. Different expectations and critical success factors may mean that some customers are in contradiction to others. Thus, operators must be aware of occasionality dimensions among their customers (Lashley 2000a; Lashley and Lincoln 2003; Upchurch and Lashley 2006; Lee-Ross and Lashley 2009). Besides, based on Kaufman, Lashley and Schreier (2009, p.25), 'the critical success factors by which the customer evaluates the quality of the visit will differ'. Therefore, tourists seem to pay particular attention to different quality aspects of their experience (e.g. countryside capital), which eventually impacts on their satisfaction. Yet, those specific aspects of the experience which differing rural tourist occasions value the most are yet to be examined. Besides, such investigation would allow the identification of those factors which are critical for the success of the rural tourist's experience.

Despite that, Soutar (2001) draws the attention on the price factor which may impact on customer satisfaction. The researcher suggests that satisfaction is furthermore affected by price, therefore, any attempt to measure satisfaction, needs to take the value factor into consideration. The price factor emerges the monetary investment being sacrificed by the guest in return to the experience. Even so, there are other non-monetary factors which the consumer sacrifices for the consumption of a product/service, hence ought to be considered.

This notion, of tourist investment, may be explained as what the customer gives up (e.g. psychological investment, risk, effort and energy) in return to the experience offered at the destination (Zeithaml 1988; Heskett, Sasser and Schlesinger 1997; Wang et al. 2004; Yoon and Lee 2005). The tourist's overall evaluation of those being invested compared to all those being offered, seem to influence the way a tourist perceives the value of his/her experience. Zeithaml (1988) refers to perceived value as 'the consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given' (p.14). The notion of perceived value has been the object of attention by researchers in the tourism field the last few decades (e.g. Ostrom and Iacobucci 1995; Jensen 1996; Murphy, Pritchard and Smith 2000; Oh 2000; Tam 2000; Petrick and Backman 2002a; Petrick 2004a; Chen and Tsai 2006; Gallarza and Gil 2008). Its importance rests on the fact that it is related to satisfaction. Their relationship is mentioned in studies (e.g. Woodruff 1997; Kotler 2000a; Oh 2000). Yet, some apparent confusion of perceived value and satisfaction has been noted (Maestro, Gallego and Requejo 2006). Even so, perceived value is regarded as a key mediator between quality and satisfaction (Oliver 1999; Caruana, Money and Berthon 2000; Day and Crask 2000; McDougall and Levesque 2000; Lin 2007). The study of Gallarza and Saura's (2006) on university students' travel behaviour identified a clear pattern in which quality acts as an antecedent of perceived value, while satisfaction is the behavioural consequence. Others (e.g. Baker and Crompton 2000; Cronin, Brady and Hult 2000; Dabholkar, Shepherd and Thorpe 2000) seem to agree that perceived value precedes satisfaction. 'Perceived value has a significant effect on customer satisfaction, which in turn influences behavioural intentions, such as, word-of-mouth and intention to purchase' (Chen and Tsai 2006, p.53).

Indeed, the importance of perceived value is being highlighted by several researchers due to its association with both satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Sweeney, Soutar and Johnson 1996; Patterson and Spreng 1997; McDougall and Lavesque 2000; Parasuraman and Grewal 2000; Petrick, Morais and Normal 2001; Eggert and Ulaga 2002; Petrick and Backman 2002b; Gallarza and Saura 2006).

In spite of the important role of the perceived value notion into the tourist satisfaction process, Petrick and Bakman (2002b) argue that tourism literature, did not give appropriate attention to investigating this relationship. Chen and Tsai (2006) conclude that the association of perceived value with satisfaction has frequently been neglected in previous research. The role of perceived value in the rural tourist satisfaction process is yet to be examined. Yoon and Lee (2005) emphasize the fact that if researchers consider the notion of perceived value, then this will result in an extension of the knowledge of tourism products and services in general. McDougall and Levesque (2000) urge future researchers to incorporate perceived value into conceptual models to fully understand satisfaction.

That being established, the concept of satisfaction is yet to be reviewed. In view of this, Parker and Mathews (2001) note that the contemporary use of the word 'satisfaction' is related to other words, such as for instance, pleased or contented. A number of researchers have attempted to define satisfaction, during the last few decades (e.g. Hartman 1973; Oliver 1997; Giese and Cote 2000; Parker and Mathews 2001; Schiffman and Kanuk 2004; Um, Chon and Ro 2006). Solomon (2002) suggests that dis/satisfaction is determined by the overall feelings a person has about a product after he/she has purchased it. Pizam, Neumann and Reichel (1978) define tourist satisfaction as 'the result of the interaction between a tourist's experience in the destination area and the expectations he/she had about the destination' (p.315). However this definition was criticised by Arnould and Price (1993) on the grounds that it assumes that expectations play a pivotal role in determining satisfaction. Yet, the most satisfactory experiences can be those which are least/not expected. Anton (1996) notes that customer satisfaction is a state of mind in which customer's needs, wants and expectations have been met or exceeded.

Choi and Chu (2001) regard this as a more comprehensive and contemporary definition. Even so, given that customer needs differ, satisfaction may be perceived differently according to the individual. Researchers (e.g. Mayo and Jarvis 1981; Choi and Chu 2000; Poon and Low 2005) note that the way people perceive fulfilment differs. According to Parker and Mathews (2001), satisfaction means different things to different people.

A number of researchers have studied tourist satisfaction during the last decades. For instance, during the 1970's: Pizam, Neumann and Reichel (1978), during the 1980's: Moutinho (1987), during the 1990's: Ryan (1994) and finally the 2000's: Lee, Yang and Lo (2008). This extensive attention of the investigation of tourist satisfaction may rest on its positive impacts. These include the fact that it increases repeated customer purchases and positive word of mouth. Furthermore, it influences positively the organisations' profitability and destination's economy by producing more sales revenue and reducing marketing costs. There is plenty of evidence to suggest the associated positive impacts with satisfaction (e.g. Cronin and Taylor 1992; Anderson 1998; Matzler, Fuchs and Schubert 2004; Martin- Cejas 2006; Yu and Goulden 2006). Achieving customer satisfaction is seen as the key to business success since studies confirm the positive correlation between satisfaction and profitability (e.g. Zeithaml 2000; Kanoe 2003; Kengpol and Wangananon 2006). It is also widely recognized as an extremely important factor leading to the success of the hospitality/tourism sector (Kozak and Remington 2000; Choi and Chu 2001; Akama and Kieti 2003; Arnould, Price and Zinkhan 2004; Fuchs and Weiermair 2004; Yoon and Uysal 2005). According to Deng (2006), satisfaction is a critical issue in today's competitive global market. Ueltschy et al. (2002) regard it as a major element needed to create and sustain a competitive business. Hui, Wan and Ho (2007) argue that there is a higher probability of a satisfied guest to choose the destination again and to engage in positive word of mouth behaviour. This is acknowledged by researchers (e.g. Crosby 1993; Stewart, Hope and Muhlemann 1998; Akama and Kieti 2003) as the cheapest and most effective form of hotel or destination promotion. Poon and Low (2005) agree that customer satisfaction most likely leads to purchase repetition and favourable word-of-mouth.

In fact, there is plenty of evidence to support the contention that satisfaction influences positively customer behaviour (e.g. Fornell 1992; Taylor 1997; Kozak and Remington 2000; Gonzalez, Comesana and Brea 2006). Nonetheless, dissatisfied tourists may choose other, alternative destinations. Or, they may decide to continue visitation with no intention for further interaction with the service providers (Reisinger and Turner 2003; Arnould, Price and Zinkhan 2004). Any decision on behalf of the guest to swap over to a different destination may create a negative impact on the abandoned one. This is based on the fact that it is more costly than retaining the existing guests (Schlesinger and Heskett 1991). Based on Chon, Christianson and Lee (1995), dissatisfaction may lead to unfavourable word-of-mouth.

With specific regard to the rural tourism field, there has been relatively little consideration of the rural tourist satisfaction process. This is limited to studies which have examined aspects of it, such as, service quality (e.g. Martin and Casielles 1998; Reichel, Lowengart and Milman 2000; Saez, Fuentes and Montes 2007). In this regard, Frochot (2005) makes reference to the relatively little consideration of rural tourists. All the same, Kastenholz and Almeida (2008) make reference to the need for understanding the rural market differences in order for the destination to achieve satisfaction. Despite that, Reichel, Lowengart and Milman (2000) note three strategies which may be used to achieve acceptable levels of rural tourist satisfaction. The first strategy is to adjust the expectations of rural tourists. This involves the appropriate/correct advertisement and information of rural tourists from entrepreneurs in order to only generate realistic expectations. The second strategy is concerned with raising the level of service quality. The third strategy involves the utilization of both strategies simultaneously. The survey of Fleischer et al. (1994) amongst guests in rural accommodation in Israel reveals that the nature of relations with the owner or/and the manager is an important determinant of customer satisfaction.

Others (e.g. Sparks and Bradley 1997; Reisinger and Turner 2003; Reichel and Haber 2005) highlight the significant role of the relationship between the guest and the service providers, in the rural tourist satisfaction process. Lashley (2008) stresses the importance of the emotional dimensions of the relationship between the guest and the host.

The respondents of a study undertaken by Lashley, Morrison and Randall (2005) show that special/most memorable meal occasions are likely to be created when emotional bonds are generated between guests and hosts. Researchers (e.g. Yu and Dean 2001; White and Yu 2005) have examined the role of emotions in determining satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Chatzigeorgiou et al. (2009) emphasizes the importance of positive emotions in the 'agrotourist' satisfaction process. The quality of the emotions generated from the customer's experience may, according to Upchurch and Lashley (2006) generate satisfaction.

In this regard, Lashley (2008) stresses the importance of those guests' emotions which are stimulated by the hospitableness involved in the host-guest transaction. 'By recognizing the core importance of the host-guest transaction and the emotional dimensions of the guest's experiences, it is possible to build a loyal customer base of individuals who have a friendly relationship with the brand (p.27)'. Yet, he argues that 'the nature and quality of the host-guest transaction are given high priority by the guests, though many hospitality and tourism operators tend to undervalue their importance' (p.16). Despite that, he suggests the development of emotional bonds between the hosts and the guest could convert strangers into friends, with all associated benefits, in the manner of traditional hospitality.

Selwyn (2000) notes that the basic function of hospitality is to establish a relationship or promote a relationship which has already been established. Lashley (2000b) offers a noteworthy simplistic three-domain model as a means of commencing to understand the broad concept of hospitality. The model places the relationship between hosts and guests in the centre. The three inter-related domains consist of the socio-cultural, private and commercial domains. The socio-cultural domain covers the various degrees of obligations of different societies to be hospitable towards the guest. These obligations however alter over time due to the increased interaction with guests and modernity. Lashley (2008) mentions that many industrialized societies have no longer strong (e.g. cultural) obligations to offer hospitality to strangers. The other domain (private) covers those obligations to be hospitable which are learnt by individuals in their home settings. This private/domestic hospitality may be seen by some as more genuine and authentic.

Finally, the commercial domain is concerned with the industrialisation of hospitality. Nonetheless, the commercial is influenced by the other two levels/domains (social and private).

Having said that, Lashley (2008) essentially suggests a 'culture of hospitality' (p.21) whereby amongst others the stranger is treated as a guest and potential friend. Individuals, by being members of this 'culture of hospitality', have to practice qualities of hospitableness, such as, friendliness, benevolence, compassion, the desire to please, entertain and help those in need. By recognizing the importance of the host-guest relationship and emotional dimensions of the guest's experiences, it is possible to achieve guest loyalty. Even so, researchers which have studied thoroughly the host-guest relationship, or better the philosophy of hospitableness (e.g. O'Connor 2005; Lashley, Lynch and Morrison 2006; Lashley 2007a; Lashley 2007b), call for further insights.

That being established, providing and maintaining tourist satisfaction seems to be one of the biggest contemporary challenges of the hospitality/tourism industry. Besides, a number of researchers support this (Asher 1989; Barsky and Labagh 1992; Spreng and Chiou 2002; Akama and Kieti 2003; Bennett and Rundle-Thiele 2004; Su 2004). Others (e.g. Yu and Goulden 2006) draw the attention on the importance of understanding tourist satisfaction. Additionally, it appears evident that the area of 'agrotourism' satisfaction needs further investigation (Chatzigeorgiou et al. 2009).

Summary of 3.2: The destination stage

Once at the destination, tourists are offered services/products, the quality of which may affect their satisfaction. Bergman and Klefsjo (2003) note the role of quality in the process of satisfying customers. The importance of quality in the tourist satisfaction process is stressed by researchers (e.g. Kandampully 2000). Others (e.g. Tam 2004) concur that quality acts as an antecedent of satisfaction. Even so, researchers (e.g. Yu and Goulden 2006) suggest that tourists give emphasis to different aspects of quality which results in differences in their level of satisfaction. Garrod and Youell (2006) stress the importance of the quality of the countryside capital for rural tourists. Others, such as Lashley (2008), argue that the nature and quality of the host-guest transaction are given high priority by guests. Researchers (e.g. Lashley and Lincoln 2003; Lee-Ross and Lashley 2009) note that because of the differing occasions for visitation, guests focus on different factors, thus, they suggest the close identification of those factors which are critical for the success of the guest's visit. Additionally, they suggest the awareness of these occasionality dimensions among customers. Even so, the identification of those specific aspects of the experience which the rural tourist values the most, while at the destination, still remains elusive. Despite that, researchers (e.g. Soutar 2001) note the price and other non-monetary factors (Yoon and Lee 2005) which may affect the consumer's satisfaction. Based on researchers, such as Zeithaml (1988), these ought to be considered since a comparison of these with those being received shapes the 'perceived value' (p.14) which impacts on satisfaction. Perceived value appears to be the object of attention by tourism researchers (e.g. McDougall and Levesque 2000) because of its mediator role between quality and satisfaction. Even so, Petrick and Bakman (2002b) make reference to tourism researchers who have not given the appropriate attention in its investigation. That being established, the notion of satisfaction has been examined in a number of tourism studies (e.g. Truong and Foster 2006). This attention may be justified on the associated positive impacts of satisfaction (Hui, Wan and Ho 2007). However, researchers (e.g. Yu and Goulden 2006) still stress the need of understanding tourist satisfaction. Chatzigeorgiou et al. (2009) call for further investigation in the area of 'agrotourism' satisfaction.

3.3. The meta-travel stage

The satisfaction level of a tourist will influence his/her future behaviour (Tian-Cole et al. 2002). According to a number of academics (e.g. Baker and Compton 2000; Cronin, Brady and Hult 2000; Tam 2000; Petrick 2004b; Chen and Tsai 2006), satisfaction acts as an antecedent and consequently a good predictor of behavioural intentions.

Others (e.g. Oh 1999; Kozak and Remington 2000; Bigne, Sanchez and Sanchez 2001; Petrick and Backman 2002b) regard satisfaction as an important predictor of revisit intention. Kozak and Remington (2000) stress that overall satisfaction with holiday experiences has the greatest impact on the intention to revisit. Chen and Tsai (2006) argue that by understanding the relationship of behavioural intentions and determinants (e.g. satisfaction), destination managers may learn how to build up an attractive image and improve their marketing efforts. Tourism literature indicates an increasing interest in tourist behaviour and this is reflected in several studies (e.g. Sirakaya and Woodside 2005; Castro, Armario and Ruiz 2007; Currie, Wesley and Sutherland 2008). Even so, Wind and Lerner (1979) refer to a weak relationship of actual and intentional behaviour. Others (e.g. Van den Putte 1991; Quelette and Wood 1998) note that behaviour can be reasonably predicted from intention. These add that actual behaviour is guided by intentions. Through the evaluation of satisfaction, the consumer's post purchase behaviour is revealed, which reflects the consumer's behavioural intentions. These intentions clearly indicate whether the consumer will recommend or make favourable comments, engage in negative word of mouth, continue with, or leave the organisation and/or destination (Boulding et al. 1993; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman 1996; Gonzalez, Comesana and Brea 2006).

Similarly, Chen and Tsai (2006) make reference to behavioural intentions in the tourism field which embrace both the intention to revisit the destination and the willingness to recommend the destination to others. Based on this, it may be taken that tourist behavioural intentions include both negative and positive consumer intentions (e.g. engagement in positive/negative word of mouth). However, Yoon and Uysal (2005) regard positive behavioural intentions as expressions of loyalty on behalf of the tourist towards the destination.

Thus, even though the concept of loyalty was limited to repurchase (Anderson and Sulliwan 1993; Cronin and Taylor 1992), the provision of recommendations may be regarded as an expression of loyalty. In fact, there is plenty of evidence to suggest that both repurchase intentions and recommendations, or positive word of mouth are loyalty expressions (e.g. Boulding et al. 1993; McDougall and Levesque 2000; Bei and Chiao 2001; Chen and Gursoy 2001). Oppermann (2000) comments that the degree of loyalty of a tourist towards a destination is reflected in his/her intentions to revisit the destination and provide recommendations to others. Alike views are shared by others (e.g. Bigne, Sanchez and Sanchez 2001; Chen 2001; Homburg and Giering 2001; Cai, Wu and Bai 2003; Petrick 2004b; Yoon and Uysal 2005). Hence, apart from revisit intentions, expressions of tourist loyalty embrace recommendations to others/positive word of mouth as well. It seems that there is a cause-and-effect relationship between satisfaction and loyalty and there are a number of studies which support this (e.g. Taylor and Baker 1994; Kozak 2001; Petrick, Morais and Norman 2001; Yu and Dean 2001; Yuksel 2001; Tam 2004; Rodriguez del Bosque, San Martin and Collado 2006). Studies which attempted to understand tourist loyalty (e.g. Baker and Crompton 2000; Beerli 2002; Cai, Wu and Bai 2003; Petrick 2004b; O'Leary and Deegan 2005) analysed the relationships between quality, satisfaction and future consumer behaviour. Despite that, researchers (e.g. Bitner 1990; Ross and Iso- Ahola 1991; Yoon and Uysal 2005) propose the consideration of motivation in order to understand loyalty. Upchurch and Lashley (2006) suggest the awareness and identification of the differing occasions among customers as an initial action for the success of the customer's visit.

That being stated, Yoon and Uysal (2005) point out that what contributes to destination loyalty is the customer's satisfaction with the travel experiences. Stradling, Anable and Carreno (2007) recognize that customer satisfaction is a critical requirement for securing customer loyalty. The study results of Kandampully and Suhartanto (2000) from chain hotels in New Zealand indicate that customer satisfaction is positively correlated to customer loyalty. Tourism researchers focused their attention on loyalty due to its importance (e.g. Selin, Howard and Cable 1988; Pritchard and Howard 1997; Iwasaki and Havitz 1998; Mazanec 2000; Baloglu 2001; Hui, Wan and Ho 2007).

According to Petrick and Sirakaya (2004), it is more desirable and less expensive to retain existing customers than to seek for new ones. Apart from the increased profit due to repeaters, the company may even yield significant amounts of profit due to price increase. Patterson (1997) makes reference to prices up to 7% higher than those of the competition. The strong link between customer loyalty and profitability is mentioned in studies (e.g. Reichheld and Sasser 1990; Kotler and Armstrong 2001; Gupta, Lehmann and Stuart 2004; Ho, Park and Zhou 2004; Petrick 2004b). Shoemaker and Lewis (1999) highlight the fact that future hotels must practice loyalty marketing instead of conquest marketing (in search for new customers). Even so, the satisfaction-loyalty (this case repurchase) link has been questioned by Homburg and Giering (2001) on the basis that there are several factors that may intervene in this relationship. Such factors are the personal characteristics of the customers, variety seeking, age and income. Academics (e.g. Stauss and Neuhaus 1997; Shoemaker and Lewis 1999; Skogland and Siguaw 2004) disagree with the assumption that customer satisfaction leads to repurchase/revisit. Bennett and Rundle-Thiele (2004) argue that high levels of satisfaction do not always yield high levels of loyalty. As Oppermann (1999) stresses, unlike repurchasing other consumer products, repurchasing a tourism product, rarely happens. This is because of time and cost constraints, or due to a variety of other appealing worldwide destinations. Thus, although many tourists are satisfied with their experience, they are unable to revisit the hotel/destination. Similar views are shared by others (e.g. Gitelson and Crompton 1984; Decrop 2001; Solomon 2002; Yu and Goulden 2006). Besides, according to Lee, Lee and Lee (2005), tourists may be interested in experiencing new destinations rather than visiting the same place. The need for variety seems to have a direct impact on the behaviour of people (Parker and Tavassoli 2000; Lebrun 2002; Chen and Paliwoda 2004). It is likely that high levels of need for variety will reduce the probability of tourists returning to the same destination (Bello ad Etzel 1985; Niininen, Szivas and Riley 2004). For this reason, Jang and Feng (2007) suggest that management plans rejuvenation to appeal to these tourists who are seeking something new.

Torres and Kline (2006) add that loyalty may increase if consumer satisfaction is moved to the level of achieving consumer delight. Berman (2005) differentiates the two (delight and satisfaction) by stressing that they are not the same.

Patterson (1997) defines customer delight as '…going beyond satisfaction to delivering what can be best described as a pleasurable experience for the client' (p.34). According to researchers (e.g. Berman 2005; Yu and Goulden 2006), customer delight moves a step ahead from satisfaction, in terms of satisfaction entails delivering according to customer expectations whereas delight requires that a customer receives a positive surprise that is beyond his/her expectations. According to Ross (1993), tourists who have enjoyed better than expected experiences, are more likely to return in the future. Keinningham et al. (1999) conclude that very satisfied customers are far less likely to buy again or give referrals to their colleagues, than their delighted counterparts. Jang and Feng (2007) note that travel destinations can influence travellers to revisit even within a year or so by maximizing their satisfaction. Torres and Kline (2006) make reference to customer delight which can only be achieved with exceptional service offered by exceptional employees who are also satisfied with their job. The same researchers suggest that the management should grant to its employees 'empowerment', task enrichment and the ability to become more responsible for decision-making. Others (e.g. Griffin 2000; Schermerhon, Hut and Osborn 2000) suggest that employees should be provided with good working conditions, recognition, responsibility, advancement and growth. The following example of a 'delighted' tourist is quoted from Arnould, Price and Zinkhan (2004, p. 777)

> …Right after checking in, our daughter had an accident on the bed that required changing the sheets (unpleasant even to request). An hour later when we returned to the room, not only were the sheets freshly changed but also our daughter's stuffed animals had been gently and lovingly arranged in her little toddler bed. As consumers we were delighted.

Despite that, it is the belief of researchers (e.g. Oppermann 1998; 2000; Lau and McKercher 2004), that the association between tourist satisfaction and revisit intention has not been given appropriate attention. Others (e.g. Rodriguez del Bosque, Martin and Collado 2006) emphasize the importance of understanding the relationship of satisfaction with consumer loyalty. Gonzalez, Comesana and Brea (2006) recommend a further investigation of satisfaction with future behavioural intentions. Chatzigeorgiou et al. (2009) call for further examination of the antecedents of returning 'agrotourists'.

Summary of 3.3: The meta-travel stage

According to researchers (e.g. Tian-Cole et al. 2002), the satisfaction level of a tourist, will influence his/her future behaviour. Others (e.g. Chen and Tsai 2006) concur that satisfaction acts as an antecedent of behavioural intentions. Behavioural intentions include the revisit intentions and the provision of recommendations, otherwise referred to as loyalty expressions (Yoon and Uysal 2005). Researchers (e.g. Tam 2004) note the strong cause-and-effect relationship of satisfaction with loyalty. Others (e.g. Skogland and Siguaw 2004) seem to disagree with the assumption that satisfaction leads to loyalty, hence challenge the linkage of them two. Oppermann (1999) suggests that repurchasing a tourism product rarely happens, due to constraints, such as, time and cost. Alike views are shared by others (e.g. Lee, Lee and Lee 2005) who add the fact that tourists may be interested in experiencing new destinations. For this reason, researchers, such as Jang and Feng (2007), suggest rejuvenation plans, so that they may appeal to those tourists who seek for something new. Torres and Kline (2006) recommend moving beyond the satisfaction level towards the 'delight' level. This entails that the customer receives a positive surprise beyond his/her expectations. Even so, researchers, such as Yoon and Uysal (2005), propose the consideration of motivation in order to understand loyalty. Others (e.g. Upchurch and Lashley 2006) suggest the awareness and identification of the differing occasions among customers as an initial action for the success of the customer's visit. Even so, Rodriguez Del Bosque, Martin and Collado (2006) emphasize the importance of understanding the nature of consumer loyalty and its relationship with satisfaction. Lau and McKercher (2004) argue that tourism literature has not given the appropriate attention to the relationship of satisfaction with future behavioural intentions. Others (e.g. Gonzalez, Comesana and Brea 2006) recommend a further investigation of satisfaction with behavioural intentions. Chatzigeorgiou et al. (2009) call for further examination of the antecedents of returning 'agrotourists'.

Chapter 4: Methodological approach and research design process

This chapter reveals the logic behind the employment of an ethnographic approach to investigate the agritourist satisfaction process. It also provides information in regards to issues (e.g. ethical) and limitations involved in an ethnographic study. Furthermore, Chapter 4 justifies the choice of the ethnographer's role, selection of sites/participants, and time in the field, collection, interpretation and delivery of the fieldwork findings. The researcher attempts to describe in this chapter 'in detail the ethical and political processes of getting in, getting on and getting out' of the research setting (Darlington and Scott 2002, p.31).

4.1. Ethnography and investigation of tourist satisfaction

According to Harris and Johnson (2000) literally speaking ethnography means 'a portrait of a people'. Based on others (e.g. Stevenson 2002; Medina 2003; Bryman 2004; Schofield 2004; Ciaran 2007) it is a prolonged research method. The researcher attempts to understand social meanings in terms of what is meaningful to members of a social group and behaviour of people in a given setting, situation, or context, through regular observations, listening and conversations. Henn, Weinstein and Foard (2006) approach the term of ethnography from a more philosophical point of view. They state that 'researchers undertake ethnographic studies to see the world in a new way, from the point of view of the people under investigation, not just to confirm their preconceptions about a particular issue or group that they are studying' (p.171). Ethnography is characterized by researchers, such as Gummesson (2003), as an in-depth research method. Fetterman (1998) and Dey (2002) regard it to be both the art and science of understanding, interpreting and describing a group or culture, such as, a small tribal group or even a classroom. Concerning its origins, Bogdan and Taylor (1975) mention that it is rooted in the mid-19th century, in the investigations of European families and communities. Mariampolski (2006) makes reference to its development at the turn of the 20th century as scholars began to study social life and institutions on a scientific basis.

During the 1960's, in the work of sociologists and anthropologists (e.g. Gans 1967; Liebow 1967) ethnography began to shed light on cultural issues. By the 1980's, ethnographic techniques and related cultural perspectives were increasingly applied to consumer and marketing research (Mariampolski 2006). According to researchers (e.g. Holbrook 1995; Dey 2002), ethnography is rooted in an interpretive paradigm. This, based on Lutz (1989) revolves around understanding a phenomenon rather than a theory being tested. Others (e.g. Koh et al. 2005; Agafonoff 2006; Mariampolski 2006) regard it to be the original form of the research tradition that today is categorized as qualitative research. Milliken (2001) makes reference to qualitative research which has a long and distinguished history in human disciplines. It finds its formal and intertwined roots in the traditions of humanities, or particularly anthropology and sociology. Similarly, Genzuk (2003) notes that ethnography has its roots planted in the fields of anthropology and sociology. Ethnography has been used if research focuses on the human side was desired (Irvine and Gaffikin 2006). In order to understand a society, 'the anthropologist has traditionally immersed himself in it, learning, as far as possible, to think, see, feel, and sometimes act as a member of the culture and at the same time as a trained anthropologist from another culture' (Powdermaker 1966, p.9). Based on Milliken (2001), in the last few decades humanities and social sciences 'have drawn together in a mutual focus on an interpretive, qualitative approach to research and theory' (p.71). Even so, its usefulness as a research approach has been challenged. When Agafonoff (2006) proposed ethnography in commercial ad hoc market research his colleagues initially refused to embrace his proposal. One of them spelled out: 'ethnography is a nice idea, but it's so intangible. It sounds good in theory, but it can't actually deliver anything of real meaning…' (p.116). The results of the study, which after all was carried out, 'forced' the company to continue conducting ethnographic studies, in order to generate tactical insights into consumer behaviour and purchase decision-making problems. Ethnography allowed Damien (2006) to gain a deep understanding of Australian Hip Hop culture and its values.

As applied to tourism research, ethnography 'seeks to see the world through the eyes of those being researched, allowing them to speak for themselves, often through extensive direct quotations in the research report' (Veal 1997, p. 140).

As Bryman (2004) states, ethnography is not exactly synonymous with observation since this methodological approach refers to more than just the process of observing. It also includes informal plain chats-conversations or even conducting in-depth interviews with individuals. The same researcher argues that much of the richest data that can be captured is derived from the whole realm of informal talk (conversations/chats), between the researcher and the participants. These informal talks are open in terms of structure and direction so that the concepts emerge naturally rather than being forced. Others (e.g. Corrigan 1979; Agar 1996; Glaser and Strauss 1999; Palmer 2005; Daengbuppha, Hemmington and Wilkes 2006; Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2006) concur that informal conversations put people at their ease. These enable the researcher to obtain information that may indicate the underlying feelings of the respondents. Alike views are shared by Ryan (1995a) and Kawulich (2005) who comment that the process of conducting an ethnographic research involves besides observation, formal interviews or/and informal conversations. These furthermore enable the researcher to check for verbal and nonverbal expressions of the participants feelings. Through an attempt to understand those under investigation, Barker (1984) conducted observation by combining a 'passive' approach which involved watching and listening, and an 'interactive' approach which involved conversations with members. Ryan (1995b) suggests that the direct interaction with respondents by the tourism researcher which plays a real part rather than simply acting as a detached observer generates rich and significant data. Worth mentioning, are the words of McCabe (2007, p.227):

> … I want to argue that EM (ethno-methodologies), or more correctly, EM-informed approaches to qualitative research can offer something different, unique and liberating to scholars of touristic phenomena, which can only add to our critical understanding of tourism and to our cannon of available methodologies.

There are some noteworthy studies to prove the employment of ethnographic techniques in the tourism field (e.g. Arnould and Price 1993; Bowen 2001b; Bowen 2002; Sorensen 2003; Gale and Beeftink 2005), and, to a lesser extend in the rural tourism field (e.g. Kneafsey 2000b; Kneafsey 2001). In an attempt to understand in-depth the travel culture of backpackers, Sorensen (2003) gained rich data by using an ethnographic approach.

The researcher employed semi-formal and informal interviews in the shape of extended conversations at accommodation venues, restaurants, bars and excursions (e.g. safaris, trekking). In specific regards to the examination of tourist satisfaction, Bowie and Chang (2005) adopted an ethnographic approach in order to evaluate tour-tourist satisfaction. The researchers carried out participant covert observation. They combined observation of participants' actions and conversations with tourists who engaged in tour trips, during meals and their leisure time. Descriptive observation was recorded in field notes on a regular basis enabling in this way accurate records of conversations and incidents which were written in private. Based on the outcome of the study the researchers concluded with the following:

> Whilst looking at customer satisfaction, most researchers use a quantitative research technique of questionnaires to measure the level of customer dis/satisfaction, using those determinants which researchers have assumed will have an impact on customer satisfaction. In order to look with insight into the reality of customer dis/satisfaction, this study used participant observation to collect first-hand, rich information (p. 318).

Bowen (2001b) researched tourism dis/satisfaction and decided that the most appropriate method to use was participant observation, backed up by semi-structured interviews. The participant observation was illustrated with reference to tourists on a long-haul tour and the method revealed itself as a rich and deep source of data. The same researcher states that 'in a suitable tourism context there are real benefits to be gained by the awareness and adoption of the phenomenological, qualitative approach specifically exemplified by participant observation' (p.39). Bowen (2002) chose 'complete participant observation' which based on Gold (1969, p.30) is distinguished by its covert nature, as a practical research tool within a case study of tourist dis/satisfaction on a soft-adventure group tour from U.K to Asia. The researcher (Bowen) draws attention to the advantages of participant observation which are favourably contrasted with questionnaires. Although the focus of the study was tourist satisfaction, the researcher envisages the employment of such research into other tourist behaviour. Moreover, he expresses hopes that other researchers will attempt to make use of this technique.

Gale and Beeftink (2005) gathered data on participant satisfaction, in this case college students engaged in a group travel package for one week in Florida. A variety of techniques were employed in the collection of relevant data during the trip. These included firstly, two-way sharing of experiences between the researcher and the participants through random-covert personal interviews at various times, daily observations of participant behaviour and interactions. Additionally, it included guided introspection in which the participants were asked to think aloud about their feelings and actions through group debriefing sessions. The main method of recording data was field notes whereby the researcher compiled these into a notebook or other unobtrusive materials (e.g. letter paper, postcards). Arnould and Price (1993), through a study of relationships between tourist expectations and satisfaction in river-rafting trips concluded that participant observation data enrich the interpretation of qualitative results. Swan and Bowers (1998) used ethnography as a means of learning how consumers experience service quality and satisfaction. The researchers conclude that ethnographic methods expand the theoretical basis of service quality/satisfaction research beyond an individually centred psychological view to consider social influences and processes. Consequently, it provides a deeper understanding of how consumers experience quality and satisfaction. In view of this, Swan and Bowers propose ethnographic methods as a means of learning how consumers experience satisfaction. Even so the aforementioned cases, refer to either ethnographic studies which took place during specific guided tours or/and studies which included a small number of participants. This based on Johnson (1975), allows the creation of a trust-relationship, or 'sufficient trust' (p.142) between the observer and the participants.

The studies of Palmer (2005) and Daengbuppha, Hemmington and Wilkes (2006) provide alike, yet at the same time dissimilar approaches, in terms of including large numbers (of tourists) at different places and allowing only limited interaction time with the participants. By focusing on the latter study, the researchers attempted to examine the tourists' experiences at three different world cultural heritage sites in Thailand. The data collection phase was carried out over a six-month period. The sites were chosen according to their historical and economic significance. The study involved in-depth interviews, non-participant observations and participant observations.

71

The units of observation in non-participant observations included people being selected through convenience sampling. Methods used for recording data consisted of ethnographic field notes and virtual data (e.g. photographic information) of visitors' activities. Participant observation involved observing the behaviour of the participants and talking to people in order to explore their perceptions of the reality of their experience in regards to satisfaction. The researchers involved in every mode of interaction with visitors including assisting as on-site guides, working as staff at the site, joining organized tours and hanging out with visitors. The open descriptive questions (e.g. 'what was your experience like?') and conversations were designed to follow the natural course of dialogue that aimed to draw out descriptions of the tourists' experiences. Open questions and conversations seem to lend a hand in the emergence of the emotional dimensions of the tourists' experiences. In this regard, researchers (e.g. Liljander and Strandvik 1996; Bigne and Andreu 2004; Martin et al. 2008) recognize and stress the importance of emotions in determining satisfaction. That being said, Daengbuppha, Hemmington and Wilkes (2006) argue that as a shift from traditional tourism research, their study offers useful guidance for similar investigations of tourist experiences which seek the emergence of new knowledge in tourism. Yet, even if it is accepted that ethnographic techniques may lend a hand in the emergence of new knowledge, the question 'why use ethnographic techniques to investigate tourist satisfaction', still remains unanswered. Fielding (1993) makes reference to ethnographic techniques which entail the study of behaviour in natural setting, 'getting the seat of your pants dirty… in the real world, not the library' (p.157). Canniford (2005) mentions that an ethnographic approach allows a naturalistic investigation into the host of influences that affect individuals' day-to-day lives. Based on Bates (2005), this enables the researcher to shape an understanding of the experience and world view of people under investigation. Van Maanen (2006) notes that ethnographic techniques and particularly participant observation is a softer approach than the harder one being presented by questionnaires while it maintains an almost obsessive focus on the empirical. Others (e.g. Atkinson and Hammersley 1994; Yin 1994; Bowen 2001a; Sorensen 2003; Schofield 2004; Salazar 2005) note that the core interest of an ethnographic technique is analytical generalization rather than statistical generalization. Its emphasis is on exploring the nature of social or cultural phenomena rather than aspiring to test hypotheses about them.

In their ethnography of an American main street, Pryor and Grossbart (2005) did not test any hypotheses.

> If you listen to discussions about social research, whether the speakers are professionals or laypersons, you hear the old bells tolling- "what's your hypothesis?", "What's the independent variable?", "How can you generalize with such a small sample?", "Who did you use for a control group?". Those are important questions for some research, including oftentimes, parts of an ethnographic study. But they simply miss the point of much of what goes into Ethnography (Agar 1986, pp. 70-71)

According to the genuine exploration of the tourist experience, such as satisfaction in the hospitality/tourism field, CSQs (Customer Satisfaction Questionnaires) do not reveal detailed information (Saleh and Ryan 1992; Iacobucci, Grayson and Ostrom 1994; Bowen 2001a). On the other hand side Palmer (2005) suggests that the wealth of data generated and the level of detail from the participant observation cannot be created by either quantitative or qualitative customer satisfaction questionnaires. Unlike a positivist approach, which is associated with predominately quantitative methods (Crossan 2003; Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2006) participant observation provides an in-depth exploration of tourist behaviour within a real situation. Others (e.g. Godfrey and Clarke 2000; Bowen 2001a) note that qualitative techniques are useful in understanding the tourism experience and exploring issues in depth. Squire (1994) calls for an extension of qualitative techniques in the tourism field. Hannabuss (2000) highlights that qualitative research offers a unique insight into the behaviour and beliefs and meanings of the people studied. Shaw (1999) stresses that qualitative research enables researchers to penetrate the participants 'internal logic and interpret their subjective understanding of reality' (p.60).

Compared to quantitative research which relies on the power of numbers, the aim of qualitative research according to Marshal, Lincoln and Austin (1991, p.74) is a 'quest for meaning and significance'. The belief that a positivist approach may not be appropriate to study human behaviour/actions seems not to be a current issue. Johnson, criticized this approach during the mid 1970's with the following:

The validity of the theories generated by the traditional methods has been questioned. Additionally, the challenge has been posed of whether the traditional conceptions of scientific conduct reflect a valid account of how science is done. Finally, the question has been raised of whether it is theoretically and methodologically possible to study human actions with methods inherited from the natural and physical sciences (1975, p.7).

Gale and Beeftink (2005) state that most tourist satisfaction models follow a positivistic approach (e.g. Moutinho's 1987 Vacation Tourist Behaviour model) in which tourists are viewed as rational beings who evaluate their level of satisfaction through a disconfirmation paradigm. The satisfaction of tourists is evaluated based on whether their expectations (e.g. regarding the amenities) prior the trip, were met or exceeded. Others (e.g. Decrop 1999; Crossan 2003; Stewart and Floyd 2004) note that this particular (positivistic) approach of evaluating tourist satisfaction may not accurately capture the complexity of factors involved in the satisfaction evaluative process of tourists. Hence, they suggest moving beyond the rational decision-making principles found in positivistic approaches, towards an interpretivistic approach. This is associated predominately with qualitative methods (e.g. observation studies) and has as a purpose to build an understanding of the motives and intentions that underpin social behaviour (Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2006). Despite that, probably one of the main reasons behind the appropriateness of ethnographic techniques in investigating satisfaction is the fact that it allows the use of conversations (Kawulich 2005).

Based on academics such as Ryan (1995a) and Decrop (1999), unlike a positivistic approach, it allows an interactive and cooperative relationship to be developed between the investigator and people being researched. The significance of conversations in the tourism field is stressed by Bowen (2001a) who anticipates that the relevance of conversations in the research of satisfaction will soon become apparent. The same researcher also argues that participant observation is to be looked 'at far closer as an important technique in the understanding of tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and in any attempt to overcome the limitations of a positivist and quantitative approach' (p.38).

Unlike other approaches which are used to research tourist satisfaction (e.g. the SERVQUAL model by Parasuraman, Zeithalm and Berry 1985), participant observation based on researchers (e.g. Swan and Bowers 1998; Bowie and Chang 2005) allows interaction with those being studied. Additionally, it minimizes the distance between the respondents and the researcher. Hence, it provides a deeper understanding of how consumers experience satisfaction. Consequently, it becomes a key method to research particular phenomena, such as, leisure and tourism elements. Bowen (2001a) shifted the central core of his research (to measure tourist satisfaction) towards the methodological approach of participant observation. The researcher revealed serious scepticism in regards to the precise usefulness and the ability of CSQs to identify a construct such as tourist satisfaction. A model which has been used to measure tourist satisfaction is the SERVQUAL model (e.g. Pawitra and Tan 2003). This basically suggests that the gaps between customer expectations and their perceptions of actual performance drive the perception of service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1985; Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1988b; Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1991). The model (or with some modifications) has been used in the hospitality and tourism field. For instance, in travel agencies (e.g. Ryan and Cliff 1997; Bigne et al. 2003), restaurants (e.g. Bojanic and Rosen 1994; Knutson, Stevens and Patton 1995), ski resorts (e.g. Weiermair and Fuchs 1999) and finally hotels (e.g. Saleh and Ryan 1992; Getty and Thompson 1994; Armstrong et al. 1997; Suh et. al 1997; Ingram and Daskalakis 1999; Tsaur and Lin 2004; Wang, Vela and Tyler 2008). The model is regarded (e.g. Lam and Woo 1997) as a leading measure of service quality. However, it is criticised by a number of researchers (e.g. Cronin and Taylor 1992; Cronin and Taylor 1994; Brown, Churchill and Peter 1993; Teas 1993; Buttle 1996; Truon and Foster 2006) which make reference to a non holistic approach.

This is because it does not address the total holiday experience, instead, concentrates on the services delivered by a particular organisation. Mariampolski (2006) notes that current satisfaction models treat the consumer as an isolated individual, not considering the social context of the service provision. Also, adds that popular paradigms assume that consumers' determination of service quality and satisfaction is based solely on a set of attributes.

The usefulness of SERVQUAL, or Moutinho's Vacation Tourist Behavior Model (1987), whereby an assessment of the gap being created between expected and delivered service, may be argued on the grounds that tourist expectations may not influence tourist satisfaction (Gale and Beefting 2005). This is because tourists through 'active involvement' based on Gale and Beefting (p. 347) play a significant role in deciding and shaping their own experiences towards achieving satisfaction. In more detail, tourist experiences can be regarded as the result of an active endeavour by a person to create a situation in which he/she achieves satisfaction. Thus, the active involvement of the tourist in the shaping of the performance (e.g. of a tour) and the creation of his/her personal experiences also needs to be acknowledged (Geva and Goldman 1991; Foster 2000; Gale and Beeftink 2005).

Group members of a tour to Florida expressed their expectations that bugs would have been a problem and their comments during the post-trip survey indicated a gap between these expectations and reality (the bug problem was actually much greater than anticipated). A positivistic approach would have most likely indicated a gap between expectations and reality, thus resulting in a negative impact on the satisfaction of tourists. On the contrary, photos taken during the participant observation phase depicted participants in mosquito netting, at dusk when bugs were at their worst. From the disconfirmation evaluation of this variable, someone would have expected to see a lot of unhappy participant faces (outwards expressions of their dissatisfaction with their experience). On the contrary, the photos showed smiles on the faces of the participants and a general mood of fun (Gale and Beefting 2005). A review of the field notes, of the aforementioned trip, revealed that with the help of trip management techniques the guides helped to mitigate the unpleasant conditions caused by the mosquitoes, resulting in overall participant satisfaction. These complexities would have been missed through an evaluation of gaps between expectations and reality (Gale and Beefting 2005). These findings seem to reinforce the statement of Palmer (2005) that positivistic approaches and related models are not able to capture the 'complexities involved in trying to understand social phenomena' (p.13). Stewart and Floyd (2004) suggest the use of an interpretivistic approach (e.g. ethnographic techniques) which can add value by revealing these complexities.

This is due to the fact that it enables the researcher to 'directly or completely capture someone's lived experiences and social reality' (p. 4). Even so, academics (e.g. Cho 1991; Holtzman, Murthy and Gordon 1991; Jafari and Way 1994; Elliott and Elliott 2003; Agafonoff 2006; Mariampolski 2006) make reference to weaknesses of ethnography compared to other methodological approaches. These include the fact that it tends to be more expensive than other forms of research. Furthermore, although it is exciting and unique, it is a very difficult research method. Nevertheless, it reaches the parts other research approaches cannot reach, even compared to other qualitative methods. 'For too long focus groups and in-depths have been relied upon as the primary vehicle for insight into consumers' minds' (Agafonoff 2006, p.121). Other strengths include the fact that it offers insights and perspective that other forms of qualitative research cannot possibly provide. Ethnography takes place within the context of respondent's lives, in their natural setting, it does not rely only on reports but supplements it with direct observation. It is the closest that a researcher can get to the respondent and it offers novel insights into participant behaviour. Besides, as Jonsson and Macintosh (1994) state, ethnography involves more than just 'telling a good story' (p.378).

Finally, it should be noted that the researcher, in view of the aforementioned, chose to use ethnographic techniques in order to investigate agritourist satisfaction even though the initial proposal of the study embraced a combination of qualitative and quantitative (e.g. CSQ's) techniques. For this particular study, the researcher spent a considerable time touring the countryside (From May 2007 until the end of September 2007) and conducted an informal interview with the official person (executive post) of the 'Cyprus Agrotourism Company'. The researcher wanted in this way to get thoroughly informed and gain a better understanding of what is being offered on the supplier's side for agritourist consumption. This assisted the design process of the research in terms of site selection, number of participants, which specific data collection methods to be used and what specific ethnographer role to be adopted.

4.2. The research process and conceptual framework of the study

There are two contrasting views of the relationship between the research process and theory. One of them is 'deduction', which is associated with the theory-then-research strategy, for those research projects which use a broadly quantitative approach. The other one is 'induction', which is associated with the research-then-theory method, for the research which utilizes a more qualitative approach. This approach allows a theory to be constructed from emerging patterns of the research data (Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2006, p.49). In qualitative research, according to Bryman (2004), theory is supposed to be an outcome of an investigation rather than something that precedes it. Alvesson and Skoldberg (2000) make reference to 'inductive' ethnography. Diran et al. (2007) in their ethnographic study did not test a theory. Bitange (2006) employed a modified design of ethnography with open-ended interviews by making use of the 'inductive' approach. Even so, Atkinson and Hammersley (1994) argue that there are different types of ethnographies which reflect differences in theoretical or epistemological positions. In line with this argument, Irvine and Gaffikin (2006) add that these differences influence the design of the ethnographic project and the role that theory plays, whether it is simply a means of making sense of the observed data, or perhaps 'a call to action to rectify perceived injustices' (p.117). The latter case is elucidated by Denzin and Lincoln (1998) as the researcher's approach to the world with a set of ideas (theory, ontology) which specifies a set of questions (epistemology) that are examined and analysed in certain ways.

However, Laughlin (1995) encourages the observer to be involved in the observation process completely uncluttered from any theoretical rules and regulations on what is to be seen or how it should be seen. Even so, Laughlin, comments that ethnographic research usually involves a low level of prior ontological theorizing. Despite that, a reason for choosing ethnography according to Irvine and Gaffikin (2006) is the need to remain open to the unexpected. This does not imply that the study should lack a firm theoretical foundation, since the results are then reiterations of the researcher's subjective interpretations. 'Without a firm theoretical foundation upon which to ground the results, there is no way of telling whether or not the narrative is sense or non-sense' (Jonsson and Macintosh 1997, p.377).

Tinker (1998) comments that regardless of any claims to the contrary, all researchers do stand on some conceptual infrastructure. Humphrey and Scapens (1996) note that a well-established concept within the field of ethnography is the fact that the theory will inform the observation and will be developed by it. Yet, Irvine and Gaffikin (2006) suggest that the construction of theory should be informed by what is observed. 'If one ever finishes, the final 'solution' is the theory that provides the best comprehensive, coherent, and simplest model for linking unrelated facts in a useful and pragmatic way' (Morse 1994, p.32). Despite attempts to develop a standard methodology over the last two decades, Van Maanen (2006) argues that there is still not much of a technique attached to ethnography. Agafonoff (2006, p.1) states that 'ethnography is a multi-faceted research tool with a diversity of configurations and applications'.

The researcher for this study chose to follow the 'induction' path whereby the literature review informed the study by providing the theoretical foundation to base the research. This is because the researcher wanted to stand on a conceptual infrastructure (Tinker 1998) while having the study resting on a firm theoretical foundation, in order for it to 'make sense' (Jonsson and Macintosh 1997, p.377). Existing literature assisted towards the formation of three relevant to the tourist satisfaction process themes to be examined by the ethnographer while in the field and provided the basis for the objectives of the study. These broad themes enabled and allowed the researcher to be open to the unexpected and the possibility of new information. By doing so, the researcher followed the suggestion of Irvine and Gaffikin (2006) that the construction of theory should be based on the findings and not merely by studying what books say about it. Even so, the firm theoretical foundation acted as a shield of protection for the researcher in terms of not reaching subjective interpretations (Jonsson and Macintosh 1997). The three themes of this study are: Theme A: 'Pre-travel stage' (an exploration of what precedes the agritourist experience). Theme B: 'Destination stage' (an identification of those factors which are critical for the success of the visit). Theme C: 'Meta-travel stage' (the examination of the future behavioural intentions of agritourists following their countryside experience). It should be noted that a diagrammatic synthesis of the conceptual framework for the study is illustrated in the following page.

The conceptual framework of the study		
Themes to be explored in the field		
Theme 'A'	**The 'pre-travel stage'**	
	Description	**Intention of Theme A: The 'pre-travel stage'**
	This is the stage which precedes the countryside experience of agritourists.	The exploration of agritourist motivators, the expectation formation process and the expectations of agritourists.
Theme 'B'	**The 'destination stage'**	
	Description	**Intention of Theme B: The 'destination stage'**
	This is the stage in which the tourist is at the destination and engages in a countryside experience.	The identification of those specific factors which are critical for the success of the guest's visit.
Theme 'C'	**The 'meta-travel stage'**	
	Description	**Intention of Theme C: The 'meta-travel stage**
	This is the stage which follows the countryside experience of agritourists.	The examination of the behavioural intentions of agritourists which will follow the countryside experience.

4.3. The ethnographer's role

Gold (1958) classifies the participant observer roles into four:

a) Complete participant,

b) Participant-as-observer,

c) Observer-as-participant and

d) Complete observer.

In regards to the 'complete participant', the researcher is a fully functioning member of the social setting and his/her identity as a researcher is not known to members/individuals. Hence, the researcher adopts a covert role. This approach avoids unnecessary bias since the researcher is one of the participants. An associated drawback is the problem of taking notes in front of the participants. Furthermore, it is hard to use other collecting methods (e.g. interviewing). Additionally, it carries the constant threat of the cover being blown. Despite that, ethical issues are involved, such as, not informing people that they are being researched. In the second case (participant-as-observer), the members are aware of the researcher's status. The ethnographer participates in the daily lives of the members and engages in regular interactions with participants (Gold 1958; Fielding 1982; Holdaway 1982; Punch 2004). The ethnographer, based on Genzuk (2003), not only sees what is happening but also feels what is like to be part of the group. Nonetheless, alike the case of the complete participant, the researcher carries the risk of a 'going native' situation. Bryman (2004) notes that this occurs when 'ethnographers loose their sense of being a researcher and become wrapped up in the world view of the people they are studying' (p. 302).

In the case of the third role ('observer-as-participant') the researcher functions mainly as an interviewer and his/her identity as a researcher is known. This role involves some observation but little of it involves any participation (e.g. Raz 1999). Even though it carries the risk of not understanding people in a social setting sufficiently, it has more opportunities compared to the 'complete participant' in terms of understanding situations.

Lastly, the role of the 'complete observer' does not allow interaction with people being studied. The observer, from a distance, observes the behaviour of the participants. People do not have to take into account the researcher since participation is likely to be entirely missing (Gold 1958; Raz 1999; Bowen 2001a; Bryman 2004; Bowie and Chang 2005).

Gans (1968) divided the participant observer roles into three main roles based on their involvement/detachment from the participants. These are: the total participant, the researcher-participant, and the total researcher. The researcher argues that ethnographers do not typically adopt a single role throughout their dealings. This is because there is the risk of excessive involvement which may lead to a 'going native' situation, or, there is the risk of being completely detached from the participants. Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) question the difference between the two middle roles. At the same time the authors mention that the quality of information which can be gathered by the two end-points can be severely limited. Elliott and Elliott (2003) suggest that the ideal approach attempts to minimize the effect of the researcher on the respondents while maximizing the depth of information that is obtained. They proceed by arguing that in commercial ethnography, researchers are frequently unable to truly participate with consumers, in terms of actually living with them. Hence, other approaches are forced to be developed (e.g. casual conversations) which may allow some access to the consumers' experiences. In the ethnographic study of Clarke et al. (1998), the researchers attempted to explore symbolic meanings of the British pub. For this reason, they employed a combination of both loosely-structured in-depth discussions and questionnaires. O'Donohoe (1994) in his ethnographic study made use of a combination of small group discussions and personal interviews to explore the uses of advertisements in relation to young people. Hine (2000) makes reference to a current development of ethnography referred to as 'virtual ethnography'. This according to Chen, Davies and Elliot (2002) examines internet behaviour while it adopts conventional techniques, for instance the use of e-mail, informant diaries and face-to-face interviews.

For this specific ethnographic study, the researcher chose a combination of ethnographer roles due to the reasons which follow. Firstly, the researcher wanted to participate as much as possible in the daily lives of those under investigation (this case, agritourists). This would have fostered the interaction of the researcher (Prokopis) with agritourists and also it would have allowed the consumption of the same products/services being offered by the destination. Nonetheless, it would have enabled the researcher to experience what is like to be an agritourist. In addition, it would have allowed the researcher to understand which aspects of the experience respondents value the most while at the rural setting. Consequently, this would have assisted the researcher to comprehend what contributes to agritourist satisfaction. Another reason is that the researcher wanted to adopt a role which would have enabled the engagement in conversations with agritourists, in order to obtain important information. This information would have supplemented the experiences of the ethnographer. Furthermore, these conversations would have provided information, in regards to (e.g.) what motivated agritourists to visit the countryside. Such information could not have been obtained through observations and personal active involvement.

For the aforementioned reasons, the ethnographer chose to adopt a combination of these ethnographer roles: participant-as-observer, observer-as-participant and inevitably the complete participant role. Besides, according to Elliott and Elliott (2003), the ideal approach is the one that maximises the depth of information that is obtained. Thus, the researcher decided that a combination would have provided sufficient information which could not have been provided through the adoption of only one role. This combination of ethnographer roles enabled the researcher to involve, participate, observe and at the same time steer and engage in conversations with those under investigation. Nevertheless, the researcher, inevitably, adopted a 'complete participant role' (covert) although this was not his intention. For instance, the ethnographer attended several festivals in the countryside where it was impossible to inform the participants there about his capacity as a researcher. Homan (1991) states that it is not practicable, if not impossible to inform all of the participants of an ethnographic research that they are being researched. Unlike the researcher's intentions (of this particular study), several ethnographers chose to have their identities covered (e.g. Fielding 1982; Holdaway 1982; Bowen 2002; Bowie and Chang 2005; Damien 2006).

Even so, the ethnographer in this case did not deem necessary to deliberately adopt a 'covert role' since it would not have allowed the desired interaction with the participants (Gold 1958; Bowen 2001b; Bryman 2004; Bowie and Chang 2005). That said this acted as a protecting shield against any criticism resting on ethical issues involved with the adoption of a covered role. In fact, the researcher informed orally and in writing all those agritourists that he interviewed. At the same time, he gave them the opportunity to refuse participation (discussed in the following sections).

The combination of the aforementioned roles allowed the researcher to spend a significant amount of time in the field and engage in the same activities (e.g. walking) as other agritourists did. Furthermore, this enabled the researcher to engage in interviews and conversations with agritourists. In addition, this enabled the researcher to observe and take photos of the destinations' offerings. Pryor, in an ethnography of an American main street, engaged in 240 hours of participant observation by working as a retailer, shopping with consumers, and attending Main Street activities and events. At the same time he conducted 60 audio-taped field interviews and took hundreds of photographs (Pryor and Grossbart 2005). The combination of roles enabled the researcher (Prokopis) to avoid the risk of a going native situation or being completely detached from the participants (Gans 1968; Bryman 2004). The participation in the daily lives of the respondents enabled the researcher to 'feel what is like to be part of the group' (Genzuk 2003). All the same, the direct interaction with the respondents indeed generated, as Ryan (1995a) stresses rich and significant data which are presented in the 'fieldwork findings' sections.

4.4. Addressing issues involved in conducting an ethnographic study

4.4.1. Ethical issues

Ethical principles in social research are broken down by Diener and Crandall (1978) into four main areas: whether there is harm to participants (e.g. physical harm and stress), lack of informed consent, invasion of privacy and finally deception. In order to protect participants, several associations (e.g. British Sociological Association 1973) provide guidelines (ethical codes) for researchers to follow. Even so, Douglas (1976) and Punch (1998) criticize these ethical codes of practice for being too general to be able to provide for practical application. Douglas (1976) disapproves these ethical codes of practice on the basis that they 'stifle researchers' creativity and their 'freedom of truth-seeking' (p.31). Nonetheless, academics (e.g. Alderson 1998; Bryman 2004; Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2006) and associations (e.g. ASA 1997- Codes of Ethics and Social Research Association 2003) suggest the following ethical principles in any ethnographic study:

- Ensuring anonymity through the use of pseudonyms in order to protect participants and organizations,
- Personal information concerning research participants, to be kept confidential.
- Information, or views of research participants not to be divulged to others,
- The use of ethical manuals in the case of interviewing,
- No prospect of any harm coming to participants.

The BSA (British Sociological Association) in 1973 stated that researchers are encouraged to explain their work as fully as possible to all facilitators and participants. The Social Research Association (2003) notes that there is further the principle that participants are able to consent freely to their involvement in research. Despite that, in the case of covered observation ('complete participant role') people are not informed that they are researched. Hence, they are not given the opportunity to refuse participation (e.g. Fielding 1982; Holdaway 1982; Bowen 2002; Bowie and Chang 2005). Damien (2006) in his ethnographic study did not inform all participants because it was not possible, nor desirable. Therefore, not all members of the culture were aware of his researcher status.

Genzuk (2003) suggests that ethnographers must make their research goals clear to the members of the community where they undertake their research. Even so, Homan (1991) states that obtaining participant consent from all participants is 'easier said than done' (p.73). The researcher argues that it is not practicable, if not impossible, to inform all participants of an ethnographic research that they are being researched. In this particular ethnographic study, it was not possible to inform all people involved (e.g. agritourists) of the researcher's capacity. Nonetheless, unlike Damien (2006), it was the researcher's intention to inform as many participants as possible. In fact, every effort was taken to ensure that the participants were informed about the ethnographer's capacity as a researcher. Even so, the ethnographer participated in (e.g.) festivals and ceremonies held in the countryside. Also, he engaged in activities (e.g. nature walking) whereby several locals and tourists were present. Therefore, it was impossible to inform all these people. However, the researcher obtained a written consent from the owners of those countryside hosting venues which were chosen for the scope of this study. Also, he informed orally and in writing all those agritourists (at the venues) who were chosen for an informal interview. Moreover, the researcher did not interview or chat with people who were not able to give a valid consent. For this reason, no participants were recruited from the following groups:

a) Children under 18 years of age and very elderly people,

b) People with learning and communication difficulties (e.g. arising from limited facility with the English or Greek language),

c) People with mental health problems, or other medical problems that could have impaired their cognitive abilities,

d) Any other people who were not able to fully understand the nature of the research and the implications for them of participating in it.

Alike other ethnographic studies (e.g. Riad 2007; Ciaran 2007), the researcher used pseudonyms/acronyms to protect the identity of the respondents. For this reason, the researcher designed and followed a specific coding system in which the anonymity of both venues and participants was assured. This is presented and explained in the following page.

a) THA3(2) or TH1(3)

The researcher carried out **informal interviews** with agritourists found in certain venues. The acronyms which are shown above indicate these agritourists. **'THA'** stands for the venue referred by the Cyprus Tourism Organisation as 'Traditional Hotel Apartment' and **'TH'** as 'Traditional Hotel'. In both cases, the first number represents a specific venue and the second number a specific respondent. These numbers assisted the researcher to differentiate both venues and participants involved. For instance, THA3(2) indicates Traditional Hotel Apartment number 3 and respondent number 2.

b) M21 or F31

Further to the informal interviews, the researcher engaged in **chats/casual conversations** with agritourists found at (e.g.) places of interest and festivals. The letters **'M'** (Male) and **'F'** (Female) and a number are used to distinguish these respondents and aid the analysis process. For instance, M21 basically indicates male respondent number 21.

Furthermore, the researcher designed and followed a specific 'Observation Protocol' (next page). Also, he provided to both venue's owners and participants found at hosting venues, written information sheets in regards to the scope of the study and other useful details. The researcher revealed his identity since his role was 'overt' (not covered). Also, he explained in simple yet meaningful ways the purpose of the study, by having in mind the words of Neuman (2000): 'Ethics begins with you, the researcher. A researcher's personal moral code is the strongest defence against unethical behaviour' (p. 443).

Finally, it should be stressed that the researcher sought, applied for and eventually was given ethical clearance to proceed with the relevant ethnographic study through the College Research Ethics Committee (CREC).

a) The 'observation protocol' of this ethnographic study

(Procedures and set of rules which the researcher set and followed in the field)

- Seek the written consent of the owners of the traditional venues who will be chosen to participate in this ethnographic study. Provide to the owners a document with relevant information regarding the study and a consent form to sign if they voluntarily choose to participate.

- Use the specific coding system which has been designed for this study in order to protect the identity of the venues.

- Try not to reveal the identity of the venues with any photographic evidence which may be used. Do not reveal in the study such evidence which may cause any sort of negative impacts upon a certain venue, village and/or area.

- Be the only person who will conduct the research and the only person who will collect, store safely and use the information being gathered at venues and rural villages/regions.

- Avoid taking any field notes (e.g. personal experiences) in front of the guests. Instead, record your field notes after the day comes to an end, in a private room/area. Make sure to record the observations in a clear and methodical manner.

- Reveal your capacity as a researcher by informing all agritourists in the venues- orally and in written- by giving them a simple and easy for them to understand statement/sheet with all necessary, as well as contact details.

- Randomly select two to three tourists from each venue in order to engage in informal interviews with. Reveal your identity as a researcher and give them the opportunity to refuse participation. Assure them that their anonymity will be kept through the specifically (for this study) designed coding system.

- Spend the early part of the visit developing rapport with the participants.

- For those that agree to be interviewed, try to make them feel comfortable and that they are having an informal relaxed conversation rather than being interviewed. Use open ended questions, do not give advice, do not help with responses and do not use any leading questions.

- Do not, under any circumstances engage in any type of conversation with participants that may not fully understand the purpose of the study (e.g. children under 18 years old, very old people, people with learning difficulties, people who do not fully understand English or Greek).

- In case it is deemed important or necessary to audio-record the conversations with participants, then seek their written consent (prior the action takes place).

- The information documents given to the venue owners and participants, as well as the consent forms should (also) be in Greek in case the participants are Greek Cypriots.

- Look and listen carefully since everything counts as data (e.g. body language, what the respondents say, how they act).

- Remember that you have adopted an 'overt role'.

- Respect every participant and his/her privacy. Do not observe everything that the participant does in a way that will make the guest feel uncomfortable. Even though you are an ethnographer (researcher), remind yourself in every possible occasion his role as a tourist!

- Relax and enjoy as much as possible the procedure because if you feel relaxed it is highly likely that the participants will fell relaxed as well.

b) Participant information sheet and consent form (For the hosting venue owners)

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Prokopis and firstly I would like to thank you for agreeing to consider participating in this research. Kindly take some time to read the following information carefully regarding the reason why this research is being carried out and what your participation will involve. If you have any further questions which this document fails to answer please do not hesitate to contact me (view contact details at the end of this document).

What is the scope of the study?

Generally speaking, the scope of this study is to investigate the satisfaction of agritourists (e.g. find out why they visit the countryside, if they remain satisfied with what you and others offer to them and what they intend to do after they leave the countryside).

Can you provide more details about the study?

The researcher, with your approval of course, will stay in your traditional house as a guest for 2-3 days and will be writing about his experiences as a guest and interview 2-3 guests. Note that the researcher might, if necessary, use audio recording to record the conversations with tourists (if they agree) and photograph some useful for the study (e.g.) areas, objects, items, but definitely not people.

Who will carry out this research?

I (Prokopis Christou) will carry out this research and I will be the only person who will keep the data safely. Also, I will be the only person who will have access to the data.

Will my guests know that there is a researcher in the venue?

With your help, we will give to each guest an information sheet explaining the scope of my stay here. Also with the first opportunity I will reveal myself to them.

Why have I been chosen to take part? Do I have to take part?

There are only six Traditional Hotels on the island and they have been chosen to take part in the study. An additional six Traditional Hotel Apartments have been randomly selected to take part. But, your participation is entirely voluntary and if you decide to take part you are asked to sign a consent form which follows.

You also have the right to withdraw from this study at any time. In case you decide to withdraw the findings from your venue will not be included in the study.

How will you protect the identity of my venue?

A specific coding system will be used by the researcher through which only the researcher will be able to identify each venue.

What are the possible disadvantages/risks of taking part?

Although great care will be taken not to reveal the identity of your venue there is the possibility of someone recognizing it through photographs. However, this is not necessarily a disadvantage because this evidence will not offend in any way your venue creating in this way any sort of negative impacts onto your business.

What are the benefits of taking part?

Firstly, the researcher will share with you the findings of the study (in written) thus, you will be able to find out what the agritourists seek from such an experience therefore you will be able to offer to them exactly what they are seeking for. Also, you will help the development of agritourism in Cyprus since the findings will be given to the Cyprus Tourism Organisation and the Cyprus Agritourism Company in order to improve and assist the development of the sector. Finally, you will participate in a study that has not taken place anywhere in the world thus it is most likely that the results will help your country and other countries to promote rural tourism.

What will happen to the results?

The results will be submitted as a PhD thesis at Nottingham Trent University in U.K. and also may be published. Moreover, a synopsis of these results will be given to you, the Cyprus Tourism Organisation and finally to the Cyprus Agritourism Company.

Who should I contact for further information?

I encourage you to contact me for further information or any questions which haven't been answered in this sheet at the following address: Prokopis Christou, Alimnias 22A, Lemesos, Cyprus, Email: procopischri@hotmail.com , Telephone: 25392506/ mob.99349535

Hopefully, I was able to convince you to participate in this very important study. If you do agree to participate, kindly proceed by signing the following 'Consent Form'. Thank you in advance, Prokopis.

Consent form

Name of site………………………………………………………………………….

Please read and confirm your consent to grant permission to Prokopis Christou to conduct his research in your venue by reading the following, initialing the appropriate box/es and signing this form:

1. *I have read and understood the participant information sheet which was given to me in writing while I had the opportunity to ask questions about the research.*

    ☐

2. *I understand that the researcher will stay in my venue for 2-3 days while he will engage in conversations with my guests.*

    ☐

3. *I understand that the researcher may take photographs of my venue, interior and exterior, objects or/and items. There is also the possibility of these revealing the identity of my venue.*

    ☐

4. *My participation is voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without any implications for my legal rights.*

    ☐

5. *I agree to take part in this research.*

    ☐

_____   _____   _____

Name of owner   Date   Signature

_____   _____   _____

Name of researcher   Date   Signature

c) Participant information sheet and consent form (For the venues' guests)

Who am I and why am I bothering you?

Dear friend,

My name is Prokopis and I am a PhD student at Nottingham Trent University in the U.K and I am conducting my research in this venue. I am seizing this opportunity to inform you about my research. If however I fail to answer all your questions please do not hesitate to ask for me in person while I am here. Or, call me on my mobile phone in case you will not find me in my room which is number _____. Alternatively ask the owner/host for further details. The scope of this study is to find out what agritourists (tourists such as you, who stay in traditional countryside houses) seek from their countryside experience and whether they are satisfied with their holiday experiences in rural Cyprus. This study will help these venues to offer to you exactly what you are seeking from such an experience! For this reason I will be staying in this venue for 2-3 days while experiencing the same things you are experiencing as an agritourist. Further to this, I will interview 2-3 tourists who will be randomly selected; if you happen to be one of them, you have the right to <u>refuse participation</u>. If you do agree, then you will be asked to sign a statement which will be given to you and states that you have understood the reasoning behind this study. Also, in case any audio recording will take place, then you will be asked again to give your written consent. It should be noted that your anonymity will be kept and your contribution to this study is enormous.

Please do not feel that I am here to observe everything that you do, or I am here to spoil your holidays because I have not such intention! Quite the contrary, I am here to find out what can make it more pleasurable! Besides, just like you I am here to enjoy myself, have a good time, enjoy the sun, the Cypriot hospitality and the traditional food. I wish you a pleasant stay!

Do you wish to co*ntact me?*

I encourage you to contact me for further information or any questions which haven't been answered in this sheet at the following address: Prokopis Christou. Alimnias 22A street, Lemesos, Cyprus. Email: <u>procopischri@hotmail.com</u> Telephone: 2539250. mob.: 99349535

d) Consent form

(In order to interview and audio record agritourists' conversations)

Please read and confirm that you have understood the purpose of this study. Also (if applicable) please give your consent to use audio recording methods by initialing the appropriate box/es and signing this form:

1. *I have been informed about the study and I understand the purpose of this research while I had the opportunity to ask questions about the research.*

2. *I give permission to Prokopis to:*
   Audio record our conversations while I understand that my identity will not be revealed and that this information will be safely secured and used only by Prokopis.

3. *I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary and that I am free to withdraw my consent at any time without giving a reason and without any implications for my legal rights.*

_____ _____ _____
Name of participant   Date   Signature

_____ _____ _____
Name of researcher   Date   Signature

4.4.2. Validity and Reliability issues

According to Denzin (1996) ethnography has moved away from its traditional roots, requiring validity which concerns the extent to which ethnographic techniques achieve a close approximation to the 'truth' of a particular matter (Kirk and Miller 1986). Academics (e.g. Seaton 2000; Henn, Weinstein, Foard 2006) support the view that participant observation, since it is regarded to be a qualitative research method, it emphasises on validity. 'The validity of ethnographic fieldwork is founded on the interaction with the subjects studied and the social and cultural insight gained by this approach' (Sorensen 2003, p.850).

Even so, validity can be threatened by reactivity, subjectivity and the situation whereby the ethnographer experiences a 'going native' situation (Bryman 2004; Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2006; Mariampolski 2006). In the case of reactivity, given that people are aware that they are being researched, they may consciously or unconsciously alter the way they behave, or, modify what they say. An approach that can be used in order to reduce this effect is to gain the trust of the people that are being examined. This may require investing considerable time in the field in order to develop rapport with respondents thus reveal fearlessly their views and thoughts. Based on Mariampolski (2006), rapport is 'probably the most important interpersonal issue that governs the progress of the visit' (p. 157). The researcher proceeds by adding that it is basically a feeling of comfort between the researcher and the respondents and it involves becoming accepted by respondents to the degree that they will open up with minimal hesitation. Shankar (2000) notes that establishing good rapport with respondents may lead to quality information. Ethnographers, such as Damien (2006), have established a good rapport with their interviewees which eventually helped them a great deal with their study. In this particular ethnographic study, the researcher followed the suggestions of Mariampolski (2006) which reviewed some of the most important rules of how ethnographers can build and maintain rapport.

Accordingly, the researcher explained as much as possible the scope of the study, he tried to maintain eye contact and he was friendly in the way he was greeting people. Additionally, he showed concern for participants' comfort and privacy and showed unconditional positive regard in his reactions to participants' contributions. Furthermore, he talked only a little about himself and finally demonstrated high energy and interest in what the participants were saying. Alike other ethnographic studies (e.g. Johnson 1975; Finch 1993; Arnould and Price 1993; Gale and Beefting 2005) the above mentioned strategies, assisted the researcher to develop a trust relationship between himself and those under investigation (this case agritourists).

Validity may be also threatened by subjectivity. Researchers, such as Kirk and Miller (1986), note that there is not a completely objective piece of research. Despite that, Henn, Weinstein and Foard (2006) argue that the incidents and aspects of behaviour in participant observation focused upon are determined by what the researcher considers to be worthy of study, or significant (e.g. the setting selected, the people studied, what is recorded or not and the interpretation given to the data). Therefore the aforementioned researchers advise ethnographers to be prepared to justify carefully the decisions taken with respect to the features mentioned above, in order to address correctly the issue of subjectivity. Daengbuppha, Hemmington and Wilkes (2006) in an attempt to examine the tourists' experience at historical and cultural sites in Thailand selected three important sites of the country. They justified their decision on the fact that the sites were chosen on logical grounds, such as their historical and economic significance. The researcher in this study, attempts in the pages which follow to justify every decision taken in regards to the (e.g.) selected settings and number of respondents, as well as time in the field.

Another challenge which validity is called to address, is the issue of a 'going native' situation. Gans (1968) firstly said that ethnographers run the risk of a going native situation whereby the researcher develops too empathetic views of the group studied. This is because of the too close identification with the respondents which eventually leads towards bias in the observations made and the interpretations given to the gathered data.

Even so, in other ethnographer roles apart from the complete participant, the researcher is more or less detached from the participants which reduces the risk of a 'going native' situation (Bryman 2004; Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2006). In this particular study, the ethnographer avoided the 'going native' situation since he chose to adopt a combination of ethnographer roles. Therefore, he remained detached from the participants. Besides, due to various constraints, such as cost, occupational and personal/family constraints, the ethnographer had to return on a regular basis to his place of residence, in an urban area (not in the countryside).

Nonetheless, qualitative research is often criticized for lacking reliability due to lack of structure and system and due to the inability of the researchers to generalize beyond a small number of cases (Schofield 2004; Henn, Weinstein, Foard 2006). Even so, Silverman (2000) suggests that the issue of reliability may be addressed by having procedures documented so that other researchers, if deemed necessary, repeat the research in order to check for accuracy. Besides, unlike other qualitative methods, there have been cases of ethnographic studies which seem to address the issue of reliability due to the involvement of more than a few participants (e.g. Daengbuppha, Hemmington and Wilkes 2006). It should be noted that the conclusions of this specific ethnographic research are not solely based on the ethnographer's personal experiences. The ethnographer chose to supplement his observations and experiences with several informal interviews with agritourists found in countryside hosting venues. In addition to these interviews, the researcher retained in the study, dozens of chats/casual conversations with agritourists found in the countryside (e.g. at national parks, monasteries and countryside festivals). Apart from the informal interviews and chats, there is furthermore the photographic evidence (taken by the researcher) which documents and supports the ethnographer's observations in the field.

4.5. Selection of sites, participants and time in the field

4.5.1. The process of selecting sites and gaining access

Rural tourism in Cyprus has been closely associated with the 'agritourism' development (presented/discussed in the literature review section). This is reflected in the efforts of the C.T.O in the early 1990's to develop and promote this form of tourism in the countryside (e.g. providing incentives to the locals to open traditional venues and host tourists who choose to visit the rural areas of the island). The C.T.O proceeded in the division/categorization of traditional accommodation in the 'Guide to Hotels and other Tourist Establishments' (C.T.O 2007) in two main types:

a) The Traditional Hotels and
b) The Traditional Hotel Apartments

Note: The use of the acronym 'TH' will be used onwards to indicate 'Traditional Hotel'. Also, the acronym 'THA' will be used to indicate 'Traditional Hotel Apartment'.

The distinction of these two types of traditional accommodation rests on the fact that THs (unlike THAs) function as small hotels (e.g. with reception area). THAs are more like apartments/guest houses with less bed capacity. Both types have a relevant small bed capacity, on an average, slightly less than eight beds. Even so, the average bed capacity of a TH is more, compared to a THA. On an average, a TH offers ten additional beds than a THA. Although all THs offer lunch and dinner, not all THAs offer such service, while those that do offer, their variety is limited to some dishes. Both types are scattered throughout the rural areas of the island's four districts. These districts are: a) Lefkosia, b) Lemesos, c) Larnaka and d) Pafos. The villages of Cyprus which offer TH and THA accommodation are presented in the page which follows.

Traditional venues per village and district

1. <u>Traditional Hotels</u>

District	Village
LARNAKA	TOCHNI
PAFOS	NIKOKLEIA
LEMESOS	PLATRES
	SAITAS
LEFKOSIA	KAKOPETRIA
	LYTHRODONTAS

2.<u>Traditional Hotel Apartments</u>

District	Village
LARNAKA	AG. VAVATSINIAS
	CHIROKOITIA
	KALAVASOS
	KATO DRYS
	PSEMATISMENOS
	SKARINOU
	TOCHNI
	VAVLA
PAFOS	AKOURDALIA
	ARODES
	DROUSEIA
	GOUDI
	HOULOU
	KALLEPEIA
	KATHIKAS
	KRITOU TERA
	NEO CHORIO
	PANAYIA
LEMESOS	ANOGYRA
	APSIOU
	ARSOS
	EPISKOPI
	KOILANI
	LOFOU
	OMODOS
	VASA KOILANIOU
	VOUNI
LEFKOSIA	ASKAS
	KALOPANAYIOTIS
	POLYSTYPOS

Even though there are THs in all four districts, there are only six villages which offer such type of accommodation. Only one village offers both types of accommodation (TH and THA). There are 30 villages in the Cypriot countryside which offer THAs. Both types of accommodation (TH and THA) have been included in this study. This is because both types of traditional venues host agritourists. The researcher deemed as more convenient to find the respondents (agritourists) in these traditional venues and not search for them in (e.g.) key points of interest/villages. Besides, the average bed capacity of traditional accommodation per village is only 18. Thus, searching for around 18 agritourists (provided that there is 100% occupancy- bed capacity) in a village which has hundreds of inhabitants/visitors would have been an extremely hard and time consuming task. Despite that, the researcher wanted to engage in informal interviews with agritourists and such extended conversations are very hard to take place (e.g.) in the middle of the street. Even so, while in the field, the researcher found and chatted with other agritourists. Eventually he was 'forced' to retain in the study the additional dozens of chats he had with agritourists (found in the countryside) due to the important information being derived from these chats. Consequently, the casual conversations/chats were retained in the study, even though this was not the initial plan of the researcher (discussed in more detail in the following pages).

Having established that both THs and THAs were to be included in the study, the next step was to determine their exact number and which specific venues were to be included in the study. Mariampolski (2006) suggests that there are no strict rules for determining the number of sites to visit in an ethnographic study. This is because the validity of qualitative research does not depend on minimum sample sizes. Yet, norms of sample sufficiency should be grounded, in whether findings reach the desired level of depth. Mariampolski proceeds by suggesting that for pragmatic reasons (because budgetary limitations must be respected), not fewer than 15 sites should be included in a marketing ethnographic study. LeCompte and Preissle (1993) argue that a research setting (note that the researchers make reference to one setting) allows a detailed analysis of aspects of small social groups and the operation of a particular social process could be observed. Henn, Weinstein and Foard (2006) point out that observations are often limited to only one, or a small number of research sites.

Ethnographic studies have used different number of settings according to the purpose of the research. Ciaran (2007) in his ethnographic study chose one research setting. Daengbuppha, Hemmington and Wilkes (2006) chose three. Damien (2006) in his ethnographic study chose several venues holding hip-hop nights in the city of Adelaide and around Australia. Likewise, there are several ethnographic studies (e.g. Schouten and McAlexander 1995; Belk and Costa 1998; Canniford 2005) which took place in multiple locations/sites.

In this case, the researcher selected and included in this study twelve traditional venues (venue population: 82), six THs and six THAs. The reasoning behind this decision was based on the fact that the researcher wanted to include in the study respondents from both THs and THAs. Furthermore, the researcher wanted to follow the suggestion of Mariampolski (2006), in terms of including a minimum of 15 sites; at the same time, keeping the number of sites to be visited to the minimum. This was due to pragmatic constraints such as, budgetary and access limitations. For instance, the researcher had to stay in venues which were located in remote areas, far from the researcher's permanent residence. By taking into consideration that there are only six THs, the researcher decided to include all of them and add another six THAs, reaching in this way the total number of 12 venues to be included in this study, a sufficient, not too ambitious and manageable number of sites to be visited/studied. However, it should be noted that during the period that the research was still in progress, one of the THs shut down. The researcher chose to replace it with a THA (no other THs were available). Hence, a total number of twelve venues (five THs and seven THAs) were eventually included in the study. Each of the seven THAs had equal chances to be selected. The researcher used a probability-simple random sample (Bryman 2004) in order to select typical sites (Ragin 1994). Each THA in the population (note that the population in this case is the total number of THAs on the island) had an equal probability of inclusion in the sample (Bryman 2004). The sample was indeed a representative of the whole population since the selected venues did not differ from the rest. These were, as Ragin (1994) states, 'typical sites'.

Concerning the issue of gaining access to those selected venues (THs and THAs), it should be stressed that it was one of the most challenging and hardest tasks of this ethnographic study. Based on Irvine and Gaffikin (2006), negotiating an access agreement is crucial to the success of the project. In view of this, the researcher approached the venue owners through the 'Agrotourism Company of Cyprus'. Besides, the majority of the venues are represented by this body which has as an aim to promote traditional accommodation on the island. In more detail, the researcher came in contact with the key person of the company (executive post) and requested from her to act as a mediator between the researcher and the owners (of the traditional houses). This was achieved by explaining the scope of the study and its likely benefits for the particular organisation and practitioners/hosts. However, there were venues which were not represented by this company, thus the researcher had to come in direct contact with them. The researcher found very hard the task of convincing some of these venue owners to participate in the study. These revealed skepticism in regards to the ethnographer's role in their venue (e.g. potential annoyance of guests). In addition, they expressed other concerns such as the fact that they did not want to expose their venue at any possible risk (e.g. negative publicity). This arising issue was one of the most significant challenges that the researcher was called to address/overcome. Unfortunately, this acted as one of the most negative influential factors for the researcher's motivation.

Even so, the vast majority enthusiastically gave their consent after a thorough oral and written explanation of the study's scope and the potential benefits being associated with the findings. Indeed, as Scott (1965) notes, a powerful motivator for organizations in granting access for a particular study is the possibility that they may gain some benefit from it. Despite that, the owners of two venues refused participation. Thus, the researcher had to randomly select and replace them with another two. Likewise, in an attempt to provide a deeper insight into the profiles of rural tourists, Frochot (2005) approached the owners to solicit their participation to the survey. Those who accepted were retained for the study.

4.5.2. Participant selection and time in the field

It is difficult to offer strict guidelines on how many participants need to be included in any type of qualitative study. In specific regards to an ethnographic study, the number of respondents seems to vary according to its purpose (Mariampolski 2006). A total of 62 respondents were included in the ethnographic study of Ciaran (2007) while in their study, Pryor and Grossbart (2005) conducted 60 field interviews. The end result number of the respondents of Kneafsey's (2001) study in rural Brittany was 26 interviews plus other informal conversations. For this specific ethnographic study the researcher deemed as necessary to engage in an informal individual interview with two to three respondents from each venue (TH or THA) in order to gain better rapport and obtain in-depth information. Besides, a small number of participants would have allowed the researcher to spend more time with each agritourist thus gaining better rapport and obtaining in-depth information. Van Maanen (1982) states that ethnography calls for 'a deep reliance on intensive work with a few informants drawn from the setting' (p.104). Worth mentioning in this case is the fact that the occupancy percentage of these traditional houses ranges from 20% - 70% (Sharpley 2002). Thus, the average number of agritourists staying at a THA is only five, even if the highest occupancy percentage (70%) of this range is assumed. Yet, in the case of 20% occupancy percentage, the average number of agritourists staying at a THA drops as low as slightly less than two. Therefore, a decision to include more participants would have meant that the researcher would have to return to a specific venue at a later stage, to complete the desirable number of respondents per venue. The researcher would have faced a difficulty in coping with this additional increase number of visits due to accessibility reasons and other constraints. This is because some of these venues are located in remote areas. Ciaran's (2007) ethnographic study was bounded by logistical constraints, in terms of the site (this case a school) had to be close enough to be visited on a regular basis. Even so, there were cases in which the researcher had to visit more than once certain venues, in order to find at least two respondents to interview. For instance, although the researcher visited THA1 on the 21/09/2007, he had to return later (28/09/2007) because he could not find a second person to interview.

Despite that, the researcher managed to carry out more than 30 informal interviews from the 12 selected venues. Details about the interviews (e.g. exact time and place) are provided below. In deciding which participants from each venue to select, the researcher chose to include only those agritourists who were staying for at least one night at the traditional venue. Therefore, visitors were excluded. Molera's and Albaladejo's (2007) sample was also drawn from individuals staying one, or, more nights, in rented rural accommodation.

In addition, although Bryman (2004) argues that probability sampling is almost never used in ethnographic research, the ethnographer chose for this particular study to follow the recommendation of Mariampolski: 'A random selection rule, such as 'every nth customer passing by a doorway', is necessary so that selection bias does not affect the validity of observations' (2006 p.68). Given that the researcher decided on the exact number of agritourists to be interviewed prior of entering each site, the selection criteria for the participants had to be based on logical grounds. For this reason, the researcher chose to stand at key venue points (depending on each traditional house) and selected the first person that met the criteria of the 'protocol' passing from there, after a specific prearranged time (e.g. 12:00 a.m.). The same procedure was repeated for other respondents. The extended interaction of the researcher with the participants (e.g. in some cases the researcher was invited by participants to join them for a walk) eliminated any hesitations on behalf of the guests thus allowed a better rapport to be developed.

Information about the informal interviews

Hosting Venue	Interviewee	The exact place	When	
TH1	TH1(1) MALE	Venue's courtyard	30/8/2007	Afternoon (15:00-to 16:00)
		In the village for a walk	30/8/2007	Late afternoon (around 18:00)
	TH1(2) FEMALE	Venue's courtyard	31/8/2007	Noon (14:00 to around 14:30)
		Village surrounding area	31/8/2007	Late afternoon (around 18:00)
	TH1(3) FEMALE	Venue's courtyard	1/9/2007	Morning (around 8:00 a.m)
		At a restaurant in village center	2/9/2007	During Lunch (around 13:00)
TH2	TH2(1) FEMALE	Venue's front desk	3/9/2007	Around 11:00 a.m
		Troodos North face area	4/9/2007	7:00 a.m- around 12:00 p.m
	TH2(2) FEMALE	Front desk and restaurant	4/9/2007	Afternoon (around 16:00)
		At a café in village square	5/9/2007	From around 16:00 to 17:00
		Front desk and small courtyard	5/9/2007	Around 14:00

	TH2(3) FEMALE			
		Village and surrounding area	6/9/2007	Early morning (6:00 a.m)
TH3	**TH3(1) FEMALE**	Al-fresco restaurant/Garden	6/9/2007	Afternoon (around 17:00)
	TH3(2) FEMALE	Al-fresco restaurant/Garden	7/9/2007	Breakfast time (around 8:30)
		Village center/café	7/9/2007	Afternoon (around 18:00)
	TH3(3) MALE	Al-fresco restaurant/Garden	8/9/2007	Breakfast time (around 7:30)
		Village, surrounding area/ Close-by waterfalls	8/9/2007	From 16:00 to around 19:00
TH4	**TH4(1) MALE**	Outside the venue (lobby)	9/9/2007	Afternoon (around 15:00)
		Forest (north-west of venue)	10/9/2007	Early morning until afternoon
	TH4(2) MALE	Outside the venue (lobby)	10/9/2007	Late afternoon (around 18:00)
	TH4(3) MALE	Outside the venue (lobby)	11/9/2007	Breakfast time (before 8:00)
		Close-by restaurant/café	11/9/2007	Lunch (around 13:00)
TH5	**TH5(1) MALE**	Restaurant (outside)/lobby	14/9/2007	After breakfast (around 10:00)
	TH5(2) MALE	Outside the venue	15/9/2007	Noon (around 12:00 p.m)
		Verandah of guest's room	15/9/2007	Evening (around 20:00)
	TH5(3) FEMALE	Lobby area/Front desk	16/9/2007	Approximately 14:00 to 14:15
		Restaurant (inside)	16/9/2007	Dinner (around 19:30)
THA1	**THA1(1) FEMALE**	Venue's lobby and restaurant	21/9/2007	Early afternoon (around 14:00)
		Venue's swimming pool	22/9/2007	Around 10:00-11:00 a.m.
	THA1(2) FEMALE	Venue's lobby	28/9/2007	Late afternoon (around 19:00)
		Village surrounding area	29/9/2007	Morning (from 7:00-8:00 a.m)
THA2	**THA2(1) MALE**	Venue's courtyard	22/9/2007	12:00- approximately 12:40
		Swimming pool area/Restaurant	22/9/2007	Afternoon (around15:00-14:00)
	THA2(2) FEMALE	Venue's lobby area/front desk	23/9/2007	After breakfast (around 9:00)
		Restaurant	23/9/2007	During lunch (13:30-14:30)
THA3	**THA3(1) MALE**	Lobby/Living room	29/9/2007	Afternoon (around 17:00)
		Patio/al-fresco restaurant	30/9/2007	During breakfast (around 9:00)
	THA3(2) FEMALE	Patio/al-fresco restaurant	30/9/2007	During breakfast (around 9:00)
	THA3(3) FEMALE	Lobby/Living room	30/9/2007	Afternoon (around 16:00)
		Venue/village	30/9/2007	Dinner (around 20:00)
THA4	**THA4(1) MALE**	Venue's courtyard	5/10/2007	Afternoon (around 17:00)
		Archaeological park	6/10/2007	From around 9:00-11:00
	THA4(2) MALE	Venue's courtyard	6/10/2007	From around 17:00 to 18:00
THA5	**THA5(1) MALE**	Venue's courtyard	12/10/2007	Around 16:00- 17:00
	THA5(2) FEMALE	Venue's courtyard	27/10/2007	Early afternoon (around 15:00)
		For walk in the village center	27/10/2007	Around 19:00- 21:00
	THA5(3) FEMALE	Breakfast area	28/10/2007	Breakfast time (around 7:30)
THA6	**THA6(1) FEMALE**	Venue's courtyard	13/10/2007	Afternoon (around 16:00)
		Akamas area (south-west)	14/10/2007	From 5:30 a.m to around 12:00
	THA6(2) MALE	Breakfast room (inside)	14/10/2007	Lunch time (around 13:00)
	THA6(3) MALE	Courtyard (next to the rooms)	14/10/2007	Afternoon (around 15:00)
		Close-by restaurant	14/10/2007	During dinner (around 19:30)
THA7	**THA7(1) FEMALE**	Venue's courtyard	19/10/2007	Afternoon (around 17:00)
		Breakfast room	20/10/2007	Around 7:00-7:30
	THA7(2) MALE	Lobby area/Front desk	20/10/2007	Around 11:00 a.m
		Village surrounding area	20/10/2007	From 16:00 to around 18:00

Apart from the aforementioned informal interviews, the researcher engaged in dozens of other chats/casual conversations with agritourists. These were mainly found in the countryside, such as, in national parks, nature trails, museums, monasteries, markets and festivals held in the countryside. As mentioned in the preceding discourse, the researcher initially designed the study to include only informal interviews in selected traditional venues (THs and THAs). Yet, while visiting (e.g.) cultural places in the countryside and by engaging in the same activities as agritourists did (e.g. walking) the ethnographer inevitably came in touch with other agritourists. These provided additional information. The ethnographer regarded this information too important to be ignored, thus he decided to retain these causal conversations in the study. The exact number of these casual conversations is 66. It should be noted that the ethnographer considered an unwise decision to bring to an end the study, which was proposed to conclude soon after the completion of the informal interviews (at the venues). This decision was based on the fact that supplementary information being derived from casual conversations with agritourists found in the countryside.

Information about the chats/casual conversations

AGRITOURIST	WHEN	WHERE/PLACE
1 M	11/11/2007	Monastery of Trooditissa (entrance)
2 M	24/11/2007	The small local market area in the 'Troodos square'
3 M	8/12/2007	North Base of Papoutsa mountain (road from Agros to Palaichori)
4 F	22/12/2007	Café in Kakopetria village (new part of the village)
5 M	3/2/2008	Mount Olympous area
6 F	3/2/2008	Ski federation house on the peaks of the Troodos mountains
7 M	17/2/2008	'Sun valley' ski area
8 M	17/2/2008	The Cyprus Tourism Organisation office in Troodos
9 F	17/2/2008	Outside the police station of Platres village (next to the parking place)
10 F	1/3/2008	Road 'F106' to 'Stavrovouni' monasteri/mountain
11 M	2/3/2008	The nature trail of the Kaledonia Waterfalls
12 M	8/3/2008	The entrance of Baths of Aphrodite park in Polis
13 F	8/3/2008	Nature trail of Baths of Aphrodite in Polis
14 F	15/3/2008	Moniatis/Saitas (north of Lemesos)- Dam area
15 F	5/4/2008	Nature/walking trail of 'Atalante'
16 M	6/4/2008	On the road from Platres village to the monastery of Trooditissa
17 F	12/4/2008	Platres surrounding area (north of the village)
18 F	21/4/2008	Agios Nicolaos monastery (peninsula south of Lemesos)
19 M	23/4/2008	Agia Moni area north-east of Pafos
20 M	24/4/2008	Opposite the monastery of Agios Neophytos in Pafos

21 M	24/5/2008	Panagia village on the mountainous areas of Pafos
22 F	24/5/2008	Kallepeia village north-east of Pafos
23 F	30/5/2008	South-west of Akamas national park/peninsula (west side of the Island)
24 M	31/5/2008	Poli Chrysochou center
25 F	1/6/2008	South-east of Akamas national park/peninsula (west side of the Island)
26 F	2/6/2008	Museum area of Palepafos site (road F612- close to 'Kouklia')
27 M	28/6/2008	Traditional sweets' shop in 'Kakopetria' village south west of Lefkosia
28 M	29/6/2008	Small market in 'Trimiklini' village square
29 M	29/6/2008	Kakopetria- old village part-close to 'Linos' area
30 M	3/7/2008	Choirokoitia ancient settlement west of Larnaka
31 F	4/7/2008	Walkways of Lefkara village
32 F	4/7/2008	Tochni village (close to the bridge area)
33 F	4/7/2008	Next to the church of Tochni village
34 F	6/7/2008	Local wine tasting room in Omodhos village north-west of Lemesos
35 F	7/7/2008	The wine museum in Erimi village (next to 'Kouris' river)
36 M	8/7/2008	A winery close to Kyperounda village north of Lemesos
37 M	11/7/2008	Craft/glass workshop in Omodhos village
38 F	11/7/2008	In a pottery shop in the Koumandaria Region
39 F	17/7/2008	Factory/workshop of 'Pastellaki' in Anogyra village
40 F	3/8/2008	Tavern in Vouni village north-west of Lemesos
41 F	3/8/2008	In the streets of Lofou village north-west of Lemesos
42 F	10/8/2008	Small market Marathasa valley s/w of Lefkosia
43 M	12/8/2008	Kalopanayiotis village area (Marathasa valley)
44 M	13/8/2008	Street towards Kakopetria village center
45 M	13/8/2008	North part of Troodos mountain
46 F	13/8/2008	Cycling route in Platres village
47 M	14/8/2008	Cycling route above village of Kakopetria in the Solea valley
48 M	16/8/2008	In a small supermarket in Drouseia in the west part of the island
49 M	16/8/2008	Road in Miliou village in the Chrysochou valley
50 M	17/8/2008	Museum in Pano Panayia village
51 F	17/8/2008	Promenade/waterfront of Latsi area
52 M	18/8/2008	National park of Pafos (area of 'Stavros tis Psokas')
53 M	19/8/2008	Rock/montain close to Ag.Pavlos (on road E110)
54 F	20/8/2008	In the streets of Agros village
55 F	20/8/2008	A village local festival ('choroesperida')
56 F	30/8/2008	In a traditional craft shop in Laneia village
57 F	30/8/2008	In the 'square' of Troodos
58 M	31/8/2008	Valley of Doiarizos in Pafos (in the Nikokleia village)
59 F	1/9/2008	A picnic area between Prodromos village and monastery of Trooditisa
60 M	1/9/2008	Forestry area of Mesa Potamos (close to road E801)
61 F	8/9/2008	Gerakies-Kalopanayiotis area
62 F	8/9/2008	Marathasa valley (close to the village of Oikos)
63 M	21/9/2008	Outside Agios Ioannis Lampadistis monastery
64 F	22/9/2008	Festival of 'Pastelli' in Anogyra
65 M	27/9/2008	Kourion Archaeological Park (entrance)
66 F	28/9/2008	Sanctuary of Apollon Ylatis ancient site (on road B6)

Certain agritourists who are mentioned in the previous table made reference to the hospitality shown by hosts of certain venues. The abbreviation THA (number) is indicated to distinguish these venues. These venues are THA8, THA9 and THA10. Thus, apart from the venues which are presented in the table 'information about informal interviews' (from THA1 to THA7), additional hosting venues are: THA8, THA9 and THA10. It should be further mentioned that this table lists only those dates which the ethnographer engaged in casual conversations/chats with agritourists. Yet, in several cases the ethnographer visited the countryside (e.g. to walk or visit a thematic park) but did not come in contact with agritourists. For instance, the ethnographer toured the eastern part of the island several times (e.g. in mid-November 2007, mid-May 2008 and towards the end of July 2008) and did not find any agritourists to chat with. Therefore, the table's column 'Where' does not include any places which are located in the eastern part of the island.

In regards to the time in the field, there are a number of ethnographic studies to support the fact that the duration of ethnographic studies vary. Ciaran (2007) undertook her ethnographic fieldwork over a period of nine months and Riad (2007) over a period of seven months. Mariampolski (2006) makes reference to corporate decision cycles which typically allow for no more than four to eight weeks in the field. Elliott and Elliott (2003) mention that in consumer research it is often prohibitively expensive to carry out true participant observation over an extended period of time. There have been ethnographic studies (e.g. Othman 2004), which their duration was over some weeks. Sherry's (1990) ethnographic study took place over a monthly Midwestern American flea market. The ethnographic study of Wallendorf and Arnould (1991) lasted only a short-term periodic event, a single-day ('Thanksgiving' day). The duration of this particular ethnographic study reinforce the words of Van Maanen (1996) which makes reference to ethnography which typically refers to field work conducted by a single investigator who 'lives with and lives like' those who are studied, usually for a year or more. It is widely accepted (Hammersley and Atkinson 1983; Dey 2002; Agafonoff 2006) that traditional ethnographic methods require spending an extended period of time with people under investigation. This extended presence and participation in the field enables the researcher to experience life as one of the subjects (Elliot and Elliot 2003).

Having said that, the researcher was not an ethnographer all the time (continuously). The exact words of Bryman (2004) are quoted to support this: 'It is impossible to be an ethnographer all the time for several reasons: need to take time out to write up notes; other commitments (work or domestic); and in body imperatives (eating, sleeping, and so on)' (p. 307). In addition, the ethnographer followed the suggestions of Sanders (2002) and Mariampolski (2006). The former notes that the duration of an ethnographic study is as long as sufficient relevant data has been gathered. The latter recommends that the study should come to an end once some degree of redundancy has been achieved. The specific ethnographic study was completed once sufficient information were gathered or better, once new information were just reinforcing those which have already been collected. The ethnographer's time in the field was extended and reached the total of 17 months. The ethnographic study lasted for nearly one and a half year (from May 2007 to the end of September 2008). As a result of this study, the following demographic findings have been derived from agritourists (those who the ethnographer engaged in informal interviews and casual conversations/chats):

GENDER	
MALE	48%
FEMALE	52%
TOTAL	**100%**

AGE GROUPS	
18-29	16%
30-39	25%
40-49	40%
More than 50	19%
TOTAL	**100%**

Park and Yoon (2009) proceeded into the same categorization of rural tourists' age groups in their attempt to segment rural tourists in Korea.

NATIONAL ORIGINS	
GERMANY	24%
U.K.	19%
FRANCE	13%
HOLLAND	12%
ITALY	11%
CYPRUS	9%
BELGIUM	3%
GREECE	3%
OTHER (Switzerland, Austria, Russia and Scandinavian countries)	6%
TOTAL	**100%**

4.6. Collection of data, interpretation, delivery of findings and limitations

4.6.1. Data collection methods

Othman (2004) points out that the ethnographic method embraces, firstly participant observation (researchers joining the culture being studied). Furthermore, observational research (watching users in their environment) and finally, contextual inquiry (asking questions in the natural setting). Based on Walizer and Wienir (1978) participant observation involves the collection of data in a 'natural' or 'field' setting (p.333). Fielding (1993) states that ethnography entails the study of behaviour in the natural setting 'getting the seat of your pants dirty… in the real world, not the library' (p.157).

The natural setting in this case is the rural setting of Cyprus whereby agritourists are accommodated in traditional venues situated in the countryside. Veal (1997) notes that the whole notion of ethnography is to see the world through the eyes of those being researched. According to Tedlock (2000), the personal experiences of the ethnographer are inseparable from knowledge and ethnography is 'located between the interiority of autobiography and the exteriority of cultural analysis' (p.455). Ethnography has been used by researchers to evaluate their own experiences (e.g. Humphrey 2006). In the ethnographic study of Canniford (2005), the personal experiences of the researcher as a surfer, provided primary data. Likewise, the personal experiences of the ethnographer provided primary data for this particular study. The following example is borrowed from the findings section of this study: *'Unlike cyclists that I met (e.g. TH4(3) and M47) who happened to have their own bicycles brought with them, I didn't have one. After a long and exhausting search with no success in the province, eventually I had to search in a town to rent one. Hence I had to carry the bicycle with my car close to those designated cycling routes and return it afterwards'.* In this case, had the researcher not attempted to experience what is like to cycle in the designated routes of the countryside (like other agritourists) he would not have known how much effort someone is required to put in order to find a place to rent a bike, in order to engage in this activity.

Nonetheless, an ethnographic method embraces observational research (watching users in their environment). Researchers, such as Mariampolski (2006), make reference to observational research which changes the lens used to view consumers. At the same time it creates opportunities for surprises and valuable unanticipated findings. Riad (2007) in her ethnographic study on organizational culture reported her observations of the participants. *'Even when they sat together as a group, Argo CMT members continued to discuss...'* (p.31). Bowie and Chang (2005) in an attempt to evaluate tour-tourist satisfaction carried out participant covert observation while combining observation of the participant's actions and engaging in conversations with tourists during the meals and leisure time. The following example from the findings section of this study is presented: *'...While I (ethnographer) was questioning whether that welcoming coffee was offered to me by the hostess due to my capacity as a researcher (she was aware of it), I was surprised to see that a couple which arrived afterwards were treated by the hostess in the same manner'*. Worth mentioning in this case is the fact that the researcher followed the 'protocol' in order not to make the participants (e.g. at the venues) feel uncomfortable (e.g. stare people). As a matter of fact, the researcher did not (personally or through the hosts) receive any related complaints. Quite the contrary, given that guests were aware of his capacity as a researcher, they expressed their contentment in regards to the researcher's initiative to carry out the particular study.

Ethnography entails contextual inquiry (asking questions in the natural setting). Sanders (2002) mentions that the ethnographic method involves observing and listening. Bryman (2004) agrees that an ethnographic methodological approach also includes other data collection methods (e.g. plain chats). Elliott and Elliott (2003) state that participant observation is rarely used without other data gathering methods, such as, formal or/and informal interviews. Interviews have been widely used as a data collection method in several ethnographic studies (e.g. O' Donohoe 1994; Chen, Davies and Elliott 2002; Pryor and Grossbart 2005). McCabe made use of ethno-methodological techniques in a logical, sociologically grounded analysis of conversational interview data. By employing ethno-methodological techniques, the researcher made use of open-ended, semi-structured interviews to study the experiences of day visitors to the Peak National Park in the UK (McCabe 2001).

Elliott and Elliott (2003) make reference to informal interviews which tend to generate rich data. The same researchers proceed by stating that these interviews are named informal because the questioning takes place in a wide variety of contexts (e.g. while drinking coffee or watching television with respondents). There are ethnographic studies which combined informal interviews and participant observation as data collection methods (e.g. Kneafsey 2001; Damien 2006). For this particular study, the researcher (Prokopis) deemed as necessary, as well as important, to complement/enhance his personal experiences and observations with informal interviews and casual conversations. These, revealed useful information in regards to (e.g.) what motivated agritourists to visit the countryside. Besides, such information could not have been obtained through the ethnographer's personal experiences. A number of researchers (e.g. Corrigan 1979; Agar 1996; Glaser and Strauss 1999; Palmer 2005; Daengbuppha, Hemmington and Wilkes 2006; Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2006) concur that much of the richest data that can be captured, is derived from the whole realm of informal interviews/conversations and chats. These, put people at their ease and happen to be open in terms of the structure and direction so that the concepts emerge naturally rather than being forced. Furthermore, the researcher followed the suggestion of Elliott and Elliott (2003) which state that 'the essence of informal interview is that the researcher does not have a written list of questions, but rather a repertoire of question-asking strategies to select from when the moment seems appropriate' (p.217). For this study, the researcher prepared a list of themes to examine based on the literature review which took place (e.g. motivation behind visitation and behavioural intentions following the experience). The researcher chose the right questions, based on these themes, to ask once the moment seemed appropriate. Moreover, the researcher followed the suggestion of Genzuk (2003) which recommends the use of truly open ended questions and the enjoyment of the process on behalf of the interviewer. Open questions have been employed in other ethnographic studies (e.g. Pryor and Grossbart 2005) because of their advantages. These include, the fact that respondents can answer in their own terms, they allow unusual responses to be derived and they are useful for exploring new areas. The fact that they are time-consuming (Bryman 2004) was not an issue for the particular study. The researcher's extended time in the field allowed the participants to elaborate as much as possible, developing thus as Elliot and Elliot (2003) notes an understanding of the people's (this case agritourists) behavior.

4.6.2. Recording methods, interpretation of findings and study limitations

Researchers (e.g. Atkinson 1981; Armstrong 1993; Bryman 2004) note that the main recording equipment for ethnographers is a pen and a note pad. Sanders (2002) suggests note taking on behalf of the ethnographer. Even so, Mariampolski (2006) mentions that there are various options available for recording data in an ethnographic study. These include, pencil-and-paper note taking, still photography, audio and video recording. Elliott and Elliott (2003) point out that data recording methods may include field notes and photographic evidence. For this ethnographic study, the researcher employed the following data recording methods: field notes, audio recording methods (in some isolated cases) and still photography. Concerning ethnographic field notes, Schwandt (1997) states that what exactly these are is open to debate, yet, they could be thought to include notes and everything else gathered in the course of fieldwork. Lofland (1995) and Fletcher (1997) concur that the ethnographer records in a form of full field notes what happens in a setting of interest by personal participation, also, the interviews of people who are actively engaged in the setting. Like others, such as Armstrong (1993), the researcher in this study, recorded (by taking notes) his personal observations and personal feelings. Additionally, the researcher noted his experiences while touring the countryside and engaging in activities. Also, by attending ceremonies/festivals held in the countryside. Moreover, the researcher recorded those findings from the interviews/chats he had with agritourists, as well as other relevant information (e.g. physical place which the activity took place and people involved). Spradley (1980) suggests that the researcher's notes should include (e.g.) physical place/s, the people involved and emotions felt. Ciaran (2007) wrote her ethnographic field notes soon after the observations took place. Damien (2006) kept field notes of his observations, emotional experiences and informal conversations which were written as soon as possible after the event. Most of the note-taking for this particular study, took place at the ethnographer's room (in the hosting venue) at the end of the day, in a chosen remote/quiet place and at his place of residence. In addition, the researcher employed, in a few cases (whenever possible and desirable), audio recording methods, to record informal interviews with agritourists. This action took place after the participant was verbally and in writing informed about the scope of the study.

Furthermore, after the guest was provided with other relevant details. The written consent of the interviewee was sought prior to the audio recording. The opportunity to refuse participation was also given. Gummesson (2003) notes that ethnography is documented apart from field notes in audiotapes. During their ethnographic study Clarke et al. (1998) audio-taped the responses of participants (in this case people in the British pubs). In the ethnographic study of Pryor and Grossbart (2005) the first researcher conducted several audio-taped field interviews. Even so, it should be noted, that the researcher avoided as much as possible audio-recording conversations since he did not want to make guests feel uncomfortable. Besides, agritourists in general expressed their desirability not to be audio-taped.

Although the researcher planned to use the recording method (during the initial phase of the study), he realized that it was not an easy task (e.g. to audio-record a conversation while walking or engaging in other activities with guests). Despite that, researchers (e.g. Elliott and Elliott 2003; Mariampolski 2006) make reference to photographic evidence which is used in ethnographic studies. Gummesson (2003) comments that ethnography is after all a systematic and an in-depth research method documented not only in field notes but also in photos. Ciaran (2007) used a selective photographic record of a daily life in the setting. In the ethnographic study of Pryor and Grossbart (2005), the former, took hundreds of photographs in the field. Still photography was also employed by the researcher in this particular ethnographic study. The ethnographer took hundreds of pictures from the natural setting (e.g. venues, villages, places of interest, taverns, flora and fauna). The researcher deemed as necessary to take and subsequently use photographic evidence of (e.g.) the natural and physical environment. However, he avoided taking pictures of people involved (e.g. participants, hosts and employees) in order to protect himself from any criticism emerging from ethical issues involved. The reasoning behind the decision to include photographic evidence was based on the fact that it would have acted as a personal reminder catalyst, months after a specific observation (e.g. at a THA) took place. In addition, relevant to the study's findings pictures have been retained (mentioned in the findings section). These pictures support the personal observations of the ethnographer, in terms of assisting the reader to comprehend the observations/issues stressed by the researcher in an interesting yet pragmatic manner.

At the same time they act as an indubitable testimony to those in doubt that the research was carried out in an extended period of time (e.g. photos were taken during all seasons).

That being established, the researcher created site reports which comprised with relevant information derived at each setting (THA or TH). These included (e.g.) the location of the venue, amenities and facilities offered, personal observations and experiences as well as information derived from informal interviews. Mariampolski (2006) regards site reports as a critical tool which is used to code the various elements of the record that need to be included in the analysis. These contain (e.g.) a summary of observations and verbatim respondent comments. Nevertheless, whilst the study was still in the collection phase/process, the analysis of the data commenced. Shaw (1999) mentions that as soon as the researcher begins collecting data, the analysis of them commences. Based on Krueger (1994), analysis is the process of bringing order to the data, organizing what is there into patterns, categories while data reduction strategies are essential in the analysis. According to Krueger (1994), the researcher is the detective looking for trends and patterns. Based on Beymon-Davis (1997), by analyzing the data, the ethnographer attempts to 'pattern model' them. Ciaran (2007) began her analysis with a combination of close reading of field notes and open coding, in order to discover general patterns or categories. In this case it should be noted that one of the most challenging tasks of the researcher in this study was to organize and analyze the enormous amount of fieldwork findings. These were the outcome of the ethnographer's personal experiences, observations, informal interviews, casual conversations/chats and photographic evidence. In fact, the organisation and analysis of data was one of the most demanding, time consuming and hardest tasks. This is because the fieldwork findings resulted to several pages of personal notes, hundreds of pictures from the rural setting, more than 30 informal interviews and dozens of chats. For this reason, computer software programs, for instance, Word and Excel were used by the ethnographer to ease the process of the organisation and analysis. Several researchers (e.g. Tesch 1990; Glesne and Peshkin 1992; Parker and Roffey 1997) agree that computer programs (e.g. word processors and other data analysis programs) may be used as a means of easing the process of data analysis. These may ease some of the more tedious steps associated with data review and summarization.

Even so, they cannot, according to Mariampolski (2006), be relied on, to produce the imaginative leaps required to have a significant impact on decision making. Damien (2006) in his ethnographic study reached conclusions based on the thorough interpretation of fieldwork findings and literature review. In regards to the reporting of the research findings, the ethnographer followed certain guidelines provided by academics (e.g. Veal 1997; Genzuk 2003; Mariampolski 2006). These, suggest the use of descriptions through direct quotations which allow the readers to fully understand the thoughts of the participants. Additionally, these descriptions/quotations assist the readers to understand the analysis, the interpretations and explanations presented. Furthermore, they (e.g. Veal 1997; Genzuk 2003; Mariampolski 2006) suggest the focus on behalf of the researcher, on what is important. Also, the same researchers recommend an attractive and creative format. In this regard, they note that ethnographic projects lend themselves well to reporting that uses photographic images. Finally, regarding the study limitations, although ethnographic studies are susceptible to subjective interpretations, it is felt that the opportunities for both subjectivity and potential bias in the methodological approach employed was kept to the bare minimum. This is mainly because information gathered from agritourists (e.g. through interviews) are complimenting and supporting the personal findings of the ethnographer and vice versa. In addition, the conclusions are resting on a firm theoretical foundation, the literature review (as has been discussed at an earlier stage). Despite that, all discussions and informal interviews were conducted either in English or Greek. Agritourists from cultural backgrounds other than Greek or English (e.g. German, French) in some cases, had difficulties in expressing their feelings in a foreign for them language. However, the nature of the (ethnographic) study, allowed a good rapport to be developed between the researcher and the respondents. Furthermore, the ethnographer assisted these respondents in describing both their experiences and their feelings. Nevertheless, since the study took place only in one country/destination (this case Cyprus), there is the issue of the generalization limitation involved. A similar investigation in another country may perhaps bring to the surface additional information (e.g. identify groups of rural tourists who have not been identified in this study). Besides, as presented in the demographic findings, this study deals only with agritourists sharing a European background. Having said that the researcher strongly supports further similar investigations in other countries which may further develop the topic.

Summary of Chapter 4

The aim of this study is to investigate the agritourist satisfaction process. Existing literature led to the creation of three themes which assisted the formation of the study's objectives: to explore the agritourist's pre-travel stage; to investigate the stage in which the agritourist is at the destination; and to examine the meta-travel stage. The researcher wanted to come as close as possible to those under investigation thus an ethnographic approach was employed which involved active participation, observations, informal interviews and chats. Academics (e.g. Elliott and Elliott 2003) note that it is the closest a researcher can get to the respondent. Others (e.g. Daengbuppha, Hemmington and Wilkes 2006) suggest the use of ethnographic techniques as a shift from traditional tourism research to investigate tourist experiences. McCabe (2007) states that ethnomethodologies can offer something different, unique and liberating to scholars of touristic phenomena. Bowen (2001b) and Bowie and Chang (2005) made use of ethnographic techniques to investigate tourist satisfaction. The employment of ethnography for this study would have enabled the researcher to feel what is like to be part of the group and see the world from their point of view (Genzuk 2003; Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2006). Thus it would have provided a deeper understanding of how consumers experience satisfaction (Swan and Bowers 1998). Also, it would have allowed the researcher to gain insights to those factors which agritourists value the most. Bates (2005) states that ethnography allows an understanding of the participants' experiences in terms of what is meaningful to them. The researcher carried out informal interviews at selected venues and chatted with agritourists found in the countryside. Ethnographic techniques make use of such collecting methods (Veal 1997; Elliott and Elliott 2003). These supplement the researcher's experiences and divulge information which could not have been obtained through personal experiences. The information from these informal interviews/chats addresses the other two objectives of the study (to examine the pre and meta-travel stages). A combination of roles was employed to avoid a 'going native' or 'completely detached' situation (Bryman 2004). This assisted the researcher to steer conversations and develop a trust relationship with the participants (Gale and Beefting 2005). The researcher followed the suggestion of Mariampolski (2006) and brought to an end the study once some degree of redundancy was achieved, 17 months after its commencement.

Chapter 5: Theme: 'pre-travel stage' (fieldwork findings)

Fieldwork findings are divided into three main sections/themes (mentioned in Chapter 1). This Chapter presents these findings which are related to the agritourist's pre-travel stage (e.g. reason/occasion for countryside visitation). These findings were derived by the researcher through informal interviews from selected hosting venues and from chats/casual conversations with agritourists found in rural areas. The chapter concludes with a discussion part.

Based on the study findings, agritourists have been categorized/segmented based on what motivated them to visit the countryside, the reason behind their visitation in rural Cyprus. The occasionality model (as has been discussed in the preceding discourse) suggests that it is possible to segment customers based on their occasion/reason for visitation. Increasingly, leisure, hospitality and tourism retailers segment their customers according to the occasions for which they use their type of venue (Lashley 2000a; Lashley and Lincoln 2003; Kaufman, Lashley and Schreier 2009). Thus, in broad terms, the following main categories of agritourists have been identified based on what motivated them to visit the countryside:

1) **'Destination driven'** agritourists. These are agritourists (29%) who were driven to the rural areas due to reasons linked/related specifically to the destination. This is because they wanted to experience the 'authentic' side of the country, engage into a traditional gastronomic experience and visit the archaeological parks and ancient sites of the destination.

2) **'Activity driven'** agritourists. These are agritourists (26%) who were driven to the countryside due to reasons associated with specific sport or other exercise related activities. For instance, mountain/rock climbing, hiking, skiing, horse-riding, scuba-diving, walking and cycling.

3) **'Natural environment driven'** agritourists. These are agritourists (17%) who were mostly interested in the natural environment of the destination (e.g. nature, flora, fauna, birds, and insects).

4) **'Tranquility/psychosomatic reasons driven'** agritourists. These are agritourists (16%) who visited the countryside mainly in order to relax and due to other psychological related reasons. For instance, in order to escape from their routine, because they were seeking for something different/new, for nostalgic and spirituality reasons.

5) **'Personal service/hospitality driven'**. Agritourists (10%) who were driven to the rural areas mainly due to the personal service/attention offered by the hosts of the traditional venues.

6) Lastly, agritourists (2%) who visited the province for **other reasons** (e.g. escape the heat wave of the summer months)

That being established, it should be noted that agritourists focused on their main personal reason/occasion which led them to the countryside. The findings of this particular fieldwork support several sub-groups which have been identified and categorized based on the main reason/occasion for countryside visitation.

1) 'Destination driven' agritourists

- **The 'authenticity seekers'**

It is obvious from the findings that there are agritourists who are motivated to visit the countryside because they want to experience the authentic side of the country. In terms of finding out how locals live, their customs, to learn about the history of the place and view the traditional architecture. Agritourists (e.g. F56 and M37) seem to agree that the reasoning behind their visitation to the countryside is the fact that they wanted to experience the real, *'authentic Cyprus'*. More specifically, in order to stay in traditional accommodation equipped with genuine furnishings and accessories, meet and chat with locals and try traditional local delicacies and wines. THA1(1) said amongst others: *'I came here cause I wanted to see real Cyprus... Here you can see the heart of Cyprus'*. Similarly TH1(1) pointed out that these type of holidays is a way of experiencing authentic vocations and not the *'tourist tailor made Cyprus'* being offered for tourist consumption at the beach resorts. *'Stayin' in rural Cyprus is a complete different experience than stayin' in a beach resort of the island. (I)'ve been there done that and didn't like it at all. Here's real Cyprus, real Cypriot hospitality and real Cypriot food'* (THA1(1). A similar view was expressed by THA4(2): *'This is my first time in Cyprus and I decided to stay in this beautiful building as you can see yourself cause I don't personally... enjoy staying in big fancy resorts that have nothing to do with the character of the country'*. THA2(1) was also motivated from the desire to experience authentic Cypriot vocations. The respondent basically stressed that in order to experience the genuine character of the place, it is *'a must'* to visit and stay in the island's countryside. At the same time the guest proceeded by adding that the popular tourist resorts especially of small islands (e.g. Cyprus) do not reflect the character of the place. This was justified by the guest on the fact that everything is made to *'please the client'*. A tourist can see in those places, international restaurants, bars, fast food not to mention the architecture of the buildings. In opposition, this is not the case in the countryside where a tourist can try local delicacies, buy handmade art crafts, experience local customs and traditions, view stone built Byzantine churches and Mediterranean surroundings.

- **The 'gastronomy seekers'**

Respondents (e.g. THA5(1), THA6(3) commented that the reasoning behind their visitation to Cyprus was to tour in the countryside and taste the home made delicacies accompanied by locally produced wines. Both agreed on the fact that at hotel beach resorts and surrounding restaurants a tourist cannot actually find real authentic food since *'homemade food is out of the question'* (THA6(3). On the contrary, in rural areas there are many traditional restaurants *'taverns'* which most of them are run by local families. These prepare the food from their own ingredients or buy them from other local families. Some of these *'have their own homemade wine or Koumandaria'* (local desert wine), THA5(1) added. Similarly, F34 which was found in a local winery (close to 'Omodhos' village) said that she was touring the region and tasting local wines. F39 who was found at a small carob factory owned by a local family mentioned that she had visited the countryside for the same aforementioned reasons. While she was having a conversation with the entrepreneur of the small local business, she was offered a specialty of the shop, 'pastellaki' (sweet snack made out of carob juice).

- **The 'archaeology seekers'**

Other agritourists expressed their particular interest in the archaeological monuments and ancient sites of the island. *'Me and my colleagues are studying the archaeological sites of the island. This is the second venue which we're staying here in Cyprus... Its location is very convenient since its only 5 minutes drive from the archaeological park of.....'*, (THA4(1). Others (e.g. M65) stressed the fact that they were studying the ancient history of the island and its ancient Greek civilization. For this reason they were visiting different/various archaeological parks and sites, having conversations with experts, site guides and other executives of the C.T.O. They were taking photos and reading relevant books regarding the ancient history of the place. As TH1(3) stated, *'I stayed here cause I wanted to visit the archaeological sites of the area. So far, I paid a visit to Amathus archaeological park, the ancient tombs in Pafos and the archaeological park of Kourion...* (Later) *Every night I sit in my little quiet room and organize my photos and notes'*.

2) 'Activity driven' agritourists.

- **The 'walkers' and 'cyclists'**

For other agritourists (e.g. F10), the main driving force to the country's rural areas was to engage into a walking experience. M24 was a member of a 'walking group' which was accommodated in a traditional venue in the western part of the country (close to the town of Polis). He was actually touring (walking) with the other members around the close-by Akamas Peninsula and national park for fifteen days. In more detail, they were spending their nights at the hosting venue and having breakfast. Every day, they had to prepare their bags and lunch boxes to take with them, walk around the peninsula and return back at dusk. After that, they had relaxing dinners at the venue, or at nearby restaurants, chatted about their experiences and planned their next day walking tour. Another agritourist (THA6(1), pointed out that she enjoys staying in the countryside because she has the opportunity to walk and enjoy the greenery, landscape and other interesting places. *'By walking you absorb so much more from the place since you have the chance to actually sit there and admire the view…. Plus, it's a way to keep yourself fit'* (TH2(3).

Furthermore, based on the findings, there were others who basically visited and stayed in the rural areas in order to engage in a cycling experience. For this reason, certain agritourists chose to stay in rural accommodation where they could easily have access to the designated cycling routes of the hinterland. TH4(3) was cycling in the (designated by the C.T.O) routes of the area close to the hosting venue. The same respondent mentioned that by cycling in the province one can enjoy the nature, villages, meet locals, and at the same time exercise. Others (e.g. M47) happened to be part of a group of cyclists which were cycling around Europe. Rural Cyprus was one of the destinations which they chose to include in their cycling tour.

- **The 'hard-sport'/'soft-sport' activity seekers and 'horse riders'**

Certain agritourists visited the countryside in order to engage in hard sport activities (e.g. mountain/rock climbing and diving). TH4(1) with his friends booked and stayed in a venue on the mountains in order to climb rocks close to a nearby monastery. *'We will stay here for a couple of days to climb a quite challenging rock behind the monastery and then go towards Pafos. Probably we'll stay in a similar house close to Akamas (peninsula) to climb another rock that I know of, in the eastern part of the peninsula... we'll see how it goes'.* M3 was found climbing on the rocks of the eastern rough terrain of the 'Papoutsa' mountain. THA(7) booked and stayed at a venue close to the beach in order to scuba-dive in the Mediterranean waters: *'The cottage is not far from the beach and ther're many restaurants and convenient stores nearby. Basically it had everything that we were asking for.. its quiet here, there are not many tourists around, its got character, its clean...hm...what else?... Ah! and the owner is very, very friendly'.* Others (e.g. TH2(1) were primarily interested in soft sporting activities (e.g. hiking, skiing and snowboarding). These activities, can be differentiated from hard sport activities since they are less risky than others (e.g. rock climbing) yet more challenging from others (e.g. walking). A soft-activity seeker-'hiker' (TH2(1), said: *'I visit and stay in the area quite often cause I love to hike....'.* The same respondent said that apart from the aforementioned main reason, there are additional reasons involved, such as, picturesque villages and the countryside flora. F6 pointed out that she chose to visit and stay in a venue close to the ski resort in order to ski. She added that the reasoning behind her decision to stay in that particular hosting venue was the fact that it was situated close to the mountain. In addition, the fact that it is was located in a quiet location and the fact that she enjoyed the hospitality shown by the owner. Finally, because some other skiers-friends, were also staying there. There are agritourists who visit the countryside in order to engage in a 'horse-riding' activity. One such tourist (THA1(2) decided to stay in such venue in order *'to go horse riding tours around the region'.* Although the respondent mentioned other motivators (e.g. need to relax), horse riding was stressed by the respondent as the primary occasion for such a visitation. For F32 it was the third time she was actually visiting the same region in order to experience the same type of holidays which its largest part involved horse riding.

3. 'Natural environment driven' agritourists.

- ## The 'nature seekers' and 'flora seekers'

Respondents (e.g. TH3(1) mentioned that being close to 'nature' was as an additional factor which influenced their decision to stay in the countryside. Yet, for some others (e.g. TH3 (3) being close to nature was the main reason which led them to the countryside. *'I visit and stay in the mountains at least twice a year because I enjoy staying in the woods; with the trees, rivers, birds and little cute rabbits'* (TH1(2). Similarly, TH3(3) added*: 'I love nature and I can't picture myself having holidays in a crowded congested town full with concrete buildings... no green and car pollution... I get that a lot back home'.* Even so, others emphasized the island's flora as their main driving force to the countryside. THA3(3) pointed out that the area around the hosting venue is offered for flora studying since such a variety of flowers cannot be found in other parts of the island (e.g. east coast). F13 stressed that there are wild flowers in Cyprus which cannot be found elsewhere in the world and are worthy of careful attention. This is what basically led her to the province. *'The last five days we've (implying partner) covered I believe the whole peninsula. I've kept a record of all the flowers we've came across. Our next visit is the Troodos national park and maybe the national park of Cavo Greco; I've been told that it's a fantastic place to visit during spring'* (THA7(2).

- ## The 'fauna seekers', 'bird watchers' and 'entomologists'

Others expressed their interest in the fauna of the place and particularly those species which cannot be found elsewhere in the world. In the woods of the Pafos Mountains ('Stavros tis Psokas' region), a group of students were studying an endemic mammal, named 'mufflon'. M52, revealed that together with his small group of friends had visited several European destinations in the past. They were studying the fauna of these countries. As they mentioned, they were further interested in reptiles (snakes, lizards and salamanders) and other mammals, such as, bears, wolves, wild goats and foxes.

Others expressed their particular interest in different bird species. Accordingly, these agritourists visit and stay in the countryside in order to study different bird species. Some of these include amongst others: eagles, hawks, nightingales, flamingos, parrots and swallows. *'This is my first time in Cyprus. I came here to study the birds..'* *'I tour to study different bird species. I love it, that's what I've been doing all my life... since I remember anyway and that's what I will definitely continue to do...* (Later) *What can I say, its something that I enjoy a lot'* (TH5(3). Similarly, F17 was also touring the southern slopes (close to Platres village) with her friends in order to observe/study and take pictures of the several species found in the surrounding forestry region. More specifically, the nightingales of the region.

Furthermore, of note is the fact that there are tourists who visit the countryside because they are interested in observing/studying insects. One agritourist (TH5(2), had a small net on his (room) balcony with a small light attached to it. He was hoping to attract during the evening different insects in order to examine and report them in his notebook. *'This is my hobby. I travel around the world, choose quiet accommodation in the countryside and observe insects'* (TH5(2). Based on the same respondent, there are also others who visit the rural areas and choose to stay especially close to rivers and valleys for the same reason. Apparently, as the agritourist pointed out, the water and humid environment of the valleys, rivers and lakes, attract insects.

4) 'Tranquility/psychosomatic driven' agritourists

- **The 'Relaxers', 'Escapists' and 'Nostalgia seekers'**

Based on the findings, there are agritourists who visit the countryside in order to relax and stay away from the buzz of the towns and crowded resorts. *'Last time we came for holidays in Cyprus, we booked accommodation at a fine and expensive resort in the East Coast of the island. We thought that we were going to have a relaxing time until a family of four was placed next to our room... Well, to cut the story short, we could literally hear every single word they're saying since the wall was as thin as paper... people were coming out of the clubs screaming and singing loud in the streets at odd hours. At least here, in ... (TH3), the walls are made with stone and there aren't any noisy bars around'* (TH3(1). Similarly, another agritourist THA6(2) noted: *'I was fed up with the drunk people coming out of the bars and clubs shouting in the middle of the night... We couldn't sleep. I got so tensed up that I simply couldn't relax... I checked out after three days, even though I booked for a whole week, called my travel agent and he booked me this lovely place to stay... Now that I think about it, I wish I had come here in the first place'* (Later, added…) *'It's so peaceful and relaxing here… it's so nice to spend some quality time with friends'*. Additionally, the need to escape from the daily routine seems to play a major role for countryside visitation, for certain agritourists. The countryside and the hosting venues are being considered as *'weekend get-aways'* as F14 pointed out since they act as an antidote to the tedious modern era city lifestyle. F62 shared similar views by noting that her visit to the countryside constitutes an escape from the daily routine which makes her feel depressed. This is because, as the guest noted, every day she tends to repeat the previous day's actions (e.g. go to work, take the children to school, cook, clean the dishes and watch T.V). Yet, by visiting the countryside she feels that she does something completely different. She feels that she 'escapes' from the daily routine. It is also worth saying that there are people who actually visit and stay in traditional venues because they feel as they have 'stepped back in time, in past decades'.

These agritourists, express their credence of the 'step back in time' notion by noting the following elements which contribute to such a feeling: traditional architecture, cobbled stone streets, old fashion furniture, locals with traditional occupations, customs and traditional food. *'At least twice a year me and my husband come here for 3-4 days... It's very romantic and it reminds us of our childhood; everything is absolutely lovely….the antique furniture, the smell from the fireplaces in the winter, the natural environment, the way people live here…. simply everything'* (THA5(2).

- **The 'spirituality seekers'**

There are also agritourists who demonstrate a deep interest in the Christian Orthodoxy, thus, they choose to be accommodated in the countryside close to sacred places, such as, Byzantine monasteries. These tourists are driven to the country's hinterland in an endeavor to comprehend the Christian Orthodox way of living. M1 said that he wanted to find out more about the Orthodox church, beliefs and practices. For this reason, he was staying in a mountainous venue in which he was planning his daily visits to close-by monasteries. Additionally, for the same reason, others (e.g. M19), were touring the countryside, visiting different monasteries, studying relevant spirituality Orthodox books and having conversations with '*spiritual people'* (e.g. monks found at these sacred places).

- **The 'Novel seekers'**

Others were found to be driven to the island's hinterland by pure curiosity; in terms of providing an answer to the question: 'What it is like spending your holidays in the countryside in a traditional venue'? These expressed an interest to experience a fresh, new type of vocation, completely different from the type of holidays they are used to. Tourists who in the past chose to spend their holidays in (e.g.) resorts decided to shift holiday type accommodation and stay in a venue in order to experience an unusual type (for them) of vocations. These agritourists emphasized on the fact that this decision was atypical for them. Yet, the need to experience something completely different from what they were used to, led them to the decision to stay in the countryside, in traditional hosting venues.

One such respondent, F51, amongst others stressed that she had never before stayed in traditional accommodation, whether in Cyprus or elsewhere.

5) 'Personal attention/hospitality driven'

Certain agritourists chose to stay in traditional hosting countryside venues mainly because of the personal attention and personal service which is provided by the hosts. One such agritourist was TH3(2) who highlighted the fact that this kind of personal attention simply cannot be found nowadays in large beach resorts of the island. Resorts are stuffed with employees who have no hospitality background or relevant experience nor have an idea to what constitutes 'quality and personal service'. Interestingly, the same respondent proceeded by adding: *'I've stayed in four and even five star hotels around the world... in most of them you ask for example some butter to put on your breakfast toast and by the time they bring it-if they remember to bring it-its time to eat supper, if you know what I mean. At least here, there're not a lot of guests and you can get the attention and kind of service you deserve'.* Similarly THA3(1) added: *'I am a paying customer and I expect to receive the kind of service I'm paying for. One thing is for sure... the kind of service you get here you wouldn't find it even at.... (A famous five star resort was mentioned by the respondent) and here I'm paying much less'.*

Similarly, THA3(2) indicated that the hosts were offering a very personal service: *'Mrs. xxx treats us as if we are her friends from abroad that came to pay her a visit. She's adorable. This is what truly makes us wonna come back, the fact that she doesn't treat us as customers, not even as guests, but as her favorite friends'.* THA5(3) also stressed the fact that the primary reason for another visit was the personal service being received from the host. Amongst other things the respondent said: *'whenever we come Mr. xxx* (host of THA5) *cooks for us delicious food, takes as for grape or carob picking and tells us all sort of stories about the history of the place, the way his ancestors used to live under the British governance, or even about his family... I feel very comfortable with him, I don't feel like I'm a customer here...'*

6) For other reasons driven to the countryside

As peculiar as this seems, there are actually agritourists who visit the hinterland in order to escape from the heat of the plains/beach areas. More specifically, respondent TH4(2) stressed the fact that the unbearable heat of the city 'forced' him several times to visit and stay on the Troodos mountains where the temperatures are at least 8-10 degrees (Celsius) lower. He specifically stated: *'The reason why I visit the mountains is to escape the heat wave. This year the heat was unbearable… I just couldn't breath… Here its different, the air is cool and refreshing... Its lovely...'* He also added that during their (guest and partner) visit to the countryside, they had the opportunity to relax, walk in the forests and enjoy the local food.

Despite that, there are people who visit and stay in the countryside for other reasons. *'... I was just searching on the net for a place to stay close to the airport and I found this one. I thought... mm...this seems ok...its only five minutes drive from the airport and very close to the town... so I booked it'* (TH5(3).

Sources of information

This study also identified the respondents' information source for the countryside venue which assisted towards the understanding of the rural tourist expectation formation process. Agritourists were not able to specify how they were firstly informed about the destination (this case Cyprus). In a straightforward manner they were stating that they *'just knew about it'*. The vague and blurred yet not purposeless question *'How did you find out about Cyprus?'* which was posed to agritourists resulted in confusion and replies, such as*: '...how did I find out about Cyprus (?)...Our friends told us... Actually, I guess I read about it... or is it that I learnt about it from the school years...'* (THA7(2). *'We found out about Cyprus the same way we found out about Italy, Norway or Malta... in our Geography lesson'* TH4(3) said in bewilderment. *'What do you mean?... I knew about Cyprus... from documentaries that I saw on TV, from school, from friends that visited the island...I don't know.... I just knew about it'* (THA6(2). Even so, agritourists were able to recall and identify how they were informed about the countryside venues which they were being hosted. As a result, this led to the creation of the following main categories of agritourists based on their source of information. Note that the following groups are presented and discussed in detail, in the proceeding pages:

a) The majority of agritourists, around 70% was informed through the internet. More specifically, through the venues' websites or the official websites of the C.A.C and C.T.O. Of note is the fact that almost all agritourists of the youngest group (ages 18-29), were informed through the internet.

b) Secondly, 9% of the agritourists was informed through others, or, as it is most commonly known as the 'Word of Mouth'.

c) The third group comprises out of those (around 10%) who knew about the traditional venue from previous stays.

d) This was followed by those who were informed from a tour operator/travel agent (around 5%).

e) Finally, around 10% was informed from other sources of information. For instance, tourist brochures/magazines and tourist exhibitions.

Those who were informed through websites (e.g. the venue's website)

Around 40% of the agritourists said that they were informed about the hosting traditional venue through its own website. TH1(1) while searching on the internet, she found the link of the particular hosting venue (TH1). *'I was pleased with what I saw. That was exactly what I was searching for. Traditional vocations in a small picturesque village. Traditional and authentic Cyprus, not the 'tourist tailor made Cyprus'.* TH2(1) added: *'Since me and my husband love to hike, we wanted to stay somewhere close to the Troodos mountains and we were searching for such a place to stay... To be honest with you, we didn't want only a good location but we were also searching for a small place, preferably in a picturesque village, offering food as well.... Our search led us to the website of... (TH2) which seemed to offer everything we were asking for'.* Another guest (TH5(1), said the following*: '....I was just searching on the net for a place to stay close to the airport and I found this one. I thought...this seems ok...its only five minutes away from the airport and very close to the town... so I booked it.... I sent a fax requesting for accommodation and soon I received a confirmation reply'.* THA4(1): *'Before our visit here (in Cyprus) we found from the internet three venues which we booked through their owners...This is the second venue which we're staying here in Cyprus. Its location is very convenient since its around five minutes drive from the archaeological park of.....'.*

Similarly, guest THA3(1) said the following: *'Me and my family were seeking for a place which was offering a more lets say personal service... We* (implying wife) *saw on the internet the webpage and amongst other things it was saying that Mrs. xxx with her husband treat their customers as if they are their personal friends... we were pleased with this comment since this is what we wanted'.* THA6(3): *'We know from experience that authentic and homemade food cant be found in beach resorts. So we were searching on the net for a place, definitely in the countryside, close to small cute village taverns which offer homemade delicacies and.... homemade Koumandaria... While we were searching on the net for such a place, we came across the webpage of... (THA6) in which Mrs. xxx, the owner, was offering for breakfast homemade marmalade... fresh baked bread with olives, freshly squeezed orange juice from the orange trees of the venue's yard and homemade halloumi cheese... What else could we ask for (?).*

Furthermore, 25% of the agritourists was informed about the venues through the official websites of the C.T.O and the C.A.C. *'I was browsing the official website of the Cyprus Tourism Organisation for a place to stay close to the ancient Idalion* (close to the town of Nicosia) *and I just typed the region I was interested in. There were quite a few options and one of them was … which was categorized as a traditional building. I thought that it would've been nice to stay in such a small cute hotel which had also green surroundings. I sent an email to book a room and the owner replied...'* (TH1(3). Guest THA2(1) was informed in the same manner; while *'surfing on the net'* in order to find a place to stay: *'I found the website* (referring to the website of C.A.C) *very user-friendly and useful. I can't complain... since it helped me to find a traditional place to spend my holidays... It had information about Cyprus and its districts, maps of every single village that offered traditional accommodation, a list of events, contact details...'* TH3(2): *'.... As I was searching the website of the tourism organisation of Cyprus (,) I clicked on a green link-logo which had information about the agritourism company. And,… back then, I didn't know what agritourism meant but it was mentioning something about traditional houses in the countryside that happened to offer only a few rooms... so I thought, few rooms means few customers, which means more chances to receive a better service...'*

Agritourists who were informed through others

Nearly 10% of the agritourists was informed through others (e.g. friends and colleagues) about the specific venue they chose to book and stay. *'...after sharing our holiday experiences with our friends back home they told us that their stay on the mountains of the island was absolutely... fantastic and definitely peaceful! We asked them what was that 'peaceful' place they were going on about and they mentioned the small hotel we are now staying in... So, this year we decided to come here, at... in ...village'* (TH3(1). Guest THA3(3) was informed about the particular venue through a colleague who happened to share the same interest with the respondent. The respondent's colleague suggested the particular venue since the surrounding area was offered for flora studying (e.g. variety of flora species) *'...He* (referring to the colleague) *also told me about the small herbal garden of Mrs. xxx (owner) with the beautiful lavender... and basil'.*

THA7(2): *'Our friends stayed in this place in the past and they loved it... Its herbal garden is so nice!... They told us that it is also very close to the Akamas peninsula where a lot of endemic flora can be seen....'*

Those who knew about the venues through previous stays

Almost 10% of the agritourists knew about the particular venues through their own personal experiences from previous stays. *'This is our* (implying family) *second stay here. We came here two years ago and although we booked the venue for only two or three days- we can't remember the exact number of days- we loved it so much that we actually extended our stay for a week... This year we decided to return to the same house'* (THA3(2). Guest THA5(2) was also a repeater, thus knew about the venue: *'At least twice a year me and my husband come up here for three-four days... It's very romantic and it reminds us of our childhood; everything is absolutely lovely...'* THA5(3): *'The last five years we've been coming to Cyprus we choose to stay in the same house... whenever we come, xxx cooks for us delicious food, takes as for grape or carob picking and tells us all sort of stories about the history of the place... I feel very comfortable with him, I don't feel like I'm a customer here... we come in contact with xxx on a regular basis. We send emails or cards and ... we call each other every now and then'.*

Those who were informed through tour operators and travel agents

Around 5% of agritourists was informed about the traditional venues through tour operators and travel agents. M29 was influenced by his travel agent to shift his way of spending his holidays and visit the Cypriot countryside. *'In one of our conversations with my travel agent-which happens to be a friend of mine- I remember saying to her that I wanted to go somewhere else since I didn't find what I was asking for..*(experience real Cyprus*)... She told me that this was probably because I didn't visit the countryside of the island ... she was right; cause even though I did visit towns such as Pafos and Limassol, I didn't visit the Troodos mountains .So, she suggested that I should stay in a traditional house in the countryside for a change...So, here I am...!'* (THA2(2).

Guest THA6(2) with his family booked and stayed at a beach resort to relax. There they felt that their experience was rather nerve-racking. This was due to some unpleasant events which took place during their stay there (e.g. drunk people coming out of the bars and shouting at odd hours). Hence, decided to call their travel agent and request an alternative place to stay. The guest followed the suggestion of the travel agent, checked out from the resort and booked and stayed at THA6 (note: the hotel/resort room was booked for a whole week).

Those who were informed through other sources

Less than 10% of the agritourists was informed through other sources of information (e.g. tourist brochures, magazines and tourist exhibitions). F54 was informed by the traditional house she was staying in through the official brochure of the agritourist company of Cyprus. The brochure provided information, such as, a brief description of its facilities, bed capacity, village and location information, contact details and a couple of pictures (interior and exterior). TH3(3) was informed through an article: *'I love nature and I can't picture myself having holidays in a crowded congested resort full with concrete buildings, no green and car pollution... I get that a lot back home... I always go for holidays in places that have lots of green, forests and rivers... In one of the pages of a magazine that I was reading, there was some reference to rural tourism in Cyprus... I saw some interesting pictures of this beautiful building* (TH3) *amongst the pine trees. I desired to visit and stay in this beautiful place and I decided to come once I could manage to get time from work'*. Similarly, THA5(1) was informed in an analogous way.

Agritourists' expectations

Agritourists expressed their expectations regarding an array of aspects they were expecting to view, do, experience and/or consume at the rural destination. These expectations cover the natural and artificial environment, hosts and locals, activities offered, food and beverages and other services (e.g. infrastructure). It is also worth saying that guest expectations varied according to the individual. The emphasis given at specific expectations differed from person to person based on his/her primary personal reason/occasion which led him/her to the countryside. Indeed, the expectations of each agritourist varied according to their main driving force to the countryside. Even though agritourists made reference to several expectations, they stressed those expectations which were found to be linked to their main reason/occasion for countryside visitation. Yet, it should be stressed that expectations of agritourists were not limited only to whatever primary reasons led them to the countryside. TH4(1) booked and stayed with his friends in a Traditional Hotel on the mountains in order to climb a rock in a nearby venue area. He stressed that they (guest and friends) were expecting apart from a challenging rock for them to climb, a nice place to spend a couple of nights which offered food and green surroundings. Despite that, the expectations expressed by agritourists were grouped into four broad categories, to ease the analysis and evaluation process, in order to reach conclusions. These groups are presented in the following pages. Each of these four groups embrace/cover similar agritourists' expectations.

Expectations about what there was to see (natural/non-natural environment)

This cluster of expectations covers all those expectations which agritourists expressed in regards to the natural environment of the rural destination. For instance, expectations about the landscape and the flora and fauna which agritourists were expecting to view. Furthermore, these 'natural environment' related expectations cover the expectations which agritourists had regarding the weather conditions they were expecting during their stay in the countryside.

Although agritourists in general (e.g. THA3(2)- 'personal service' seeker), made reference to expectations related to the natural environment, these expectations were mainly found to be shared by those who were driven in the countryside because they were adorers of nature. These groups of people were 'nature', 'flora' and 'fauna' seekers, 'bird watchers' and 'entomologists'. 'Nature seekers' (e.g. TH1(2) and TH3(3) said that they were expecting to view greenery, woods, birds and other animals. 'Bird watchers' (e.g. TH5(3) and M58) were expecting to see several bird species. More specifically M58 was expecting to see and photograph a nightingale. '... *At the tourist exhibition the agent told us that this valley and some others were offered for bird watching since there are many different bird species in the area cause of the water of the stream and the vegetation'* (TH5(3). A 'flora seeker' (M30) was expecting to see and study several plants on the Troodos mountain chain during the month of July. Nonetheless, agritourists expressed expectations regarding the weather conditions while in the province. These were shared by agritourists in general regardless of their reasoning behind their visitation in the countryside. TH4(1)- a 'hard activity' seeker was expecting *'nice weather'* (in this case, not too windy or too hot) to assist the climbing of the team on a rock. F23-a walker, also expressed her expectations regarding the weather conditions (not too cold and not too hot weather) during spring. Despite that, apart from the natural environment expectations, agritourists additionally expressed expectations which were related to the man-made environment, such as, expectations about the ancient and archaeological sites, sacred places (e.g. monasteries), historical buildings (e.g. castles) and other structures (e.g. traditional buildings). These expectations were mentioned by agritourists regardless of their main motivator. For instance, THA3(2)- a 'personal service' seeker was expecting to view traditionally built houses due to a previous visit to the same area.

Even so, these 'artificial environment expectations' were mentioned by all those who were seeking for a 'genuine' Cypriot experience and those seeking to see/study the ancient sites, such as the 'authenticity' and 'archaeology' seekers. For instance, the 'archaeology seekers' knew about the existence of ancient sites through individual research prior to their visit. In fact, they were well informed about these (e.g.) sites since they knew specific details (e.g. location, when they were erected/era, exact position of ancient markets, necropolis and temples).

'We (implying friends) *knew about all the ancient sites and archaeological parks we were suppose to visit since we found all the information we wanted from the internet... books.... Magazines...'* (THA4(1)-'archaeology seeker'.

Expectations on what there was to do and consume

These are the expectations which are linked to the product, goods or services which are offered by the destination. For instance:

- Activities and related services (e.g. leaflets) offered in the countryside,
- Accommodation offered by the hosts,
- Other expected venue facilities (e.g. air conditioning) and equipment (e.g. traditional objects and items),
- Level of service offered in the countryside (e.g. personal service expected from the host). Information being provided by the official tourist bodies (e.g. at key places of interest),
- Transportation links and infrastructure,
- Service provided by activity organisers and others,
- Food and beverage expectations

The above expectations were shared by agritourists regardless of their reasoning behind their countryside visitation. Even so, specific expectations were found to correspond to agritourists' occasions/reasons for countryside visitation.

For instance, the 'personal service seekers' (e.g. TH3(2), focused on those expectations related to the service and hospitality offered by the owners/hosts of the traditional venues. They were expecting from the hosts to be friendly. Also, they were expecting hosts to offer a more personal type of service accompanied by 'I want to do' rather than the 'I must/have to do'. In addition they were expecting to be treated by the hosts more like 'guests' rather than 'paying customers'.

'Soft and hard activity seekers' expressed expectations in regards to their preferred activities and anything related to these activities (e.g. relevant leaflets). Walkers' (e.g. TH2(3), 'cyclists' (e.g. TH4(3) and 'horse- riders' (e.g. THA1(2) were expecting to find designated routes for them to walk, cycle or horse-ride, accordingly. Those who were driven to the countryside due to reasons linked to nature (e.g. TH3(3)- a 'nature seeker' and THA3(3) a 'bird watcher') were expecting to find designated paths and trails in the forests. They were also expecting to be given information about the flora and the fauna of the region in the form of signs, as well as, service desks in the countryside, equipped with useful information and staff. THA3(3)- a 'flora seeker' expressed the expectation to find relevant information, such as, brochures/books with photographs of endemic flora.

'Gastronomy seekers' (e.g. THA5(1), were expecting to find homemade/traditional food and beverages while in the countryside. They were additionally expecting local delicacies to be offered in traditional taverns, as well as wineries and small factories producing traditional food, wine, and local delicacies.

Expectations regarding an 'authentic' experience

There were agritourists who expressed expectations regarding an 'authentic Cyprus experience'. These basically cover several expectations linked to anything related to the specific destination (e.g. traditions, customs, art crafts, traditional food, locals and way of living). These expectations were expressed by agritourists in general (e.g. THA6(1)- a 'walker'). Even so, these broad-spectrum 'authentic Cypriot experience' expectations were found to be shared by agritourists who were primary driven to the countryside in search for 'authenticity'. THA4(2) said: '*based on what the website of the agritourism company* (C.A.C) *was mentioning, in the countryside someone can find Real Cyprus... Find a 'kafene'* (traditional café), *stay in a traditional historical building, see locals as they are picking oranges or olives and all that...'*

TH2(2)- 'authenticity seeker': *me and my husband weren't expecting much... we are these kind of people- we don't have high expectations... But I guess from what we read and saw from the website of the Agritourism cooperation, we were expecting to stay in a traditional building with antique furniture, a peaceful environment, beautiful surroundings, traditional food and sweets... donkeys....'*

THA2(2)- 'authenticity seeker': *My travel agent told me that by staying in rural Cyprus I would've had the chance to meet locals, talk to them, see what they do for living, and if I was lucky enough perhaps be invited to their house for a coffee... he* (implying agent) *also knew tourists who stayed in villages in Cyprus and became really good friends with locals... I was thrilled with what I was told and I was really looking forward to get my leave from work and fly over... that was exactly the kind of holidays I was searching for'.*

The 'spiritual' expectations

These expectations were shared by the so called in this study 'spirituality seekers' (e.g. M1 and F18). Similarly, other agritourists, expressed various expectations, such as, expectations related to the non-natural environment they were expecting to view (e.g. monasteries). Even so, these agritourists emphasized on those 'spiritual' expectations they were expecting to experience by (e.g.) visiting sacred places. Nonetheless, it should be emphasized that there were agritourists, in general, who expressed expectations about the generation of feelings. For instance, THA5(3)- a 'personal service seeker' was expecting to feel at the specific venue, more like a guest rather than a customer. Yet, these particular agritourists ('spirituality seekers') emphasized those feelings expected to be generated by visiting places of worship (e.g. Orthodox monasteries), reading spiritual books and interacting with (e.g.) spiritual leaders.

Discussion of the 'pre-travel stage'

From the ethnographer's yearly tour, agritourists were found in different parts of the countryside. However there were regions (e.g. south-eastern part of the island) in which agritourists were not found. For instance, although the ethnographer toured the eastern part of the island several times (e.g. mid-November 2007, mid-May 2008 and towards the end of July 2008) he did not find any agritourists to chat with. Relevantly, it should be mentioned that there were no traditional hosting venues situated in this specific region. Even so, most agritourists (eight out of ten) were found in the following specific regions/areas: Akamas/Polis area, north-west Lemesos district, south Lefkosia district-Troodos area and south-west Larnaka district. This though is not an unforeseen outcome considering the fact that the majority traditional venues are situated in, or very close, to those specific areas. Even so, almost all 'natural environment driven' agritourists were found in the 'Troodos' surrounding area and the 'Akamas' peninsula. These areas, compared to others, have rich flora and fauna. This is something which both the ethnographer (through personal visits), and agritourists, may support. As one of the agritourists stated: *My wife's colleagues were right! 'Akkamas' is absolutely a paradise for people like us* (THA7(2).

That being stated, agritourists' origins varied, although they are found to share a European background (as presented in the methodology section). The findings reveal that the vast majority of agritourists were international and not domestic travellers (ratio 9:1). More specifically, one out of four was from Germany and one out of five from the U.K. Around 40% was shared almost equally amongst travellers from France, Holland, Italy and Cyprus. The remaining came from other European countries (e.g. Belgium, Greece, Switzerland, Austria, Russia and the Scandinavian countries). More than half of the German agritourists were found to be 'natural environment driven' (e.g. 'flora seekers' and 'fauna seekers'). The majority of those from U.K (seven out of ten) were 'authenticity seekers' or 'hospitality/personal service seekers'. Nonetheless, this does not imply that there were not 'personal service seekers' from Germany, neither that there were not (e.g.) 'flora seekers' from U.K. Domestic travellers (Cypriots) were mainly driven to the countryside due to occasions such as, to relax or escape from the daily routine.

This seems logical considering the fact that the rural areas and particularly the hosting venues are considered by agritourists as relaxing short drive escapes, or better, as F14 pointed out: *'weekend get-aways'*. This outcome may be helpful for the appropriate destination's authorities (this case the C.T.O). The destination may want to look at the possibility of adjusting its advertising campaigns in (e.g.) Germany by promoting the natural environment of the rural destination. Though, it needs to careful consider the tourist expectation formation process (discussed at a later stage). No links/associations with gender and countryside visitation were found. Yet, it seems that the majority of those 'soft/hard activity seekers' were males (eight out of ten).

Even so, as mentioned in the methodology section, around 60% of the agritourists were between 30 to 49 years old. Similarly, the study of Fuentes Garcia (1995) revealed that rural tourists (in Spain) were mainly between 25 and 45 years old. Moreover, Frochot (2005) in her study of rural tourists (in Scotland) found that nearly half of them were between 25-44 years. Returning to this study, the majority (around 70%) of those between the ages of 18 to 29 were found to be particularly interested in hard/soft activities (e.g. rock/mountain climbing, ski) and cycling. One third of those 30-49 were 'authenticity seekers'. Finally, around 50% of those 50 years and older, visited the countryside for relaxation, nostalgic and spirituality reasons. From the yearly tour in the countryside, the vast majority (around 80%) of those between the ages of 18-49 were found during the summer months. In contrast, less than 50% of those 50 years and older were found during this specific season in the countryside. This may perhaps be due to the fact that those from 18 to 49 have more leisure time during the summer months because of no major constraints (during these months), such as, school, family and work commitments. Those above 50 years old seem to have more leisure time throughout the year and not just the summer period. Yet, it should be stressed that further research is needed in order to strengthen those aforementioned links/associations. This (research) could perhaps include a larger number of respondents. This may allow additional links/associations to be reached (e.g. between national origins and reasons for countryside visitation).

Despite that, some of the broad categories of agritourists who have been identified (e.g. 'natural environment and 'activity driven') resemble more or less the rural tourist categories which have been grouped by Frochot (2005). Those agritourists who were found to be particularly interested in sport or other exercise related activities ('activity driven') resemble the so called group of 'actives' of Frochot. Moreover, agritourists who were driven to the countryside because they wanted to relax, resemble Frochot's group of 'relaxers'. Furthermore, yet to a lesser extend, those who were interested in the natural environment, resemble Frochot's 'gazers' (who enjoy driving around in the countryside while engaging in nature study). The groups which have been identified in this study have to some extent similarities with the rural tourist groups of Molera and Albaladejo (2007), even though the researchers proceeded in a different categorization of rural tourists.

The findings of this study reveal that rural tourists' needs vary and differ according to the individual. This leads towards the conclusion that their generalization and categorization in broad groups, without acknowledging the uniqueness of the individual, may not be a wise decision. This outcome seems to reinforce what researchers (e.g. Frochot 2005) stressed in the past. Basically, that tourism in rural areas is an extremely diverse sector leading to a wide range of visitor's needs and characteristics. Others (e.g. Roberts and Hall 2001; Barke 2004) concur that rural tourism is made by individuals with different characteristics and needs. The fact that rural tourism is not a homogenous market is furthermore highlighted by Molera and Albaladejo (2007) and is something which is proven through the findings of this study. Indeed, unlike previous studies (e.g. Frochot 2005), several sub-groups of agritourists have been pin-pointed. This was based on the occasion/reason for countryside visitation. Researchers (e.g. Lashley 2000a; Lashley and Lincoln 2003) make reference to the notion/model of occasionality. This suggests that visitors may be segmented based on the occasion for visitation. Based on the notion of occasionality, niche groups of agritourists have been identified. These include amongst others, the 'authenticity seekers', 'flora seekers', 'spirituality seekers', 'gastronomy seekers', 'cyclists', 'walkers', 'nature seekers' and 'entomologists'. For instance, an 'authenticity seeker' is mainly led to the rural areas in order to experience the genuine/authentic character of the destination.

Moreover, in order to stay in a traditional venue, visit picturesque villages, view cultural/historical buildings, interact with locals and consume traditional food. Yet, it should be stressed once more that even though sub-categories of agritourists have been identified, each one of them has his/her own reasons for countryside visitation. Be that as it may, the fact that agricultural activities are not a major source of rural tourist motivation is being once more strengthened as has in previous studies (e.g. Gladstone and Morris 1998). None of the agritourists expressed an interest in agricultural activities in terms of being a major/main motivator for him/her to visit the countryside. In opposition, the natural/artificial environment and the interaction with the hosts/locals are found to be basic motivators. Similar to the studies of Tyrvainen et al. (2001) in Finland and Canoves, Herrera and Villarino (2005) in Spain, the natural environment and landscape may be considered as a basic motivator for tourists who visit the rural areas. In fact, it seems that the natural environment acts as the primary motivator for specific agritourists, such as, the 'nature seekers', 'flora' and 'fauna' seekers, 'bird watchers' and the 'entomologists'. Nonetheless, the non-natural/artificial environment (e.g. ancient sites and archaeological places) as well as the human interaction/relations (e.g. with hosts) cannot be ignored as main motivators for agritourists. These have not only been mentioned by agritourists but actually appeared to have acted as main motivators for countryside visitation for some of them (e.g. 'archaeology seekers' and 'personal service seekers').

Agritourists' responses betray a quest for satisfying their individual upper/psychological needs. THA3(3)- 'a flora seeker' was seeking to fulfil her ultimate pursuit of rare flora species at the rural setting. Balmer and Baum (1993) noted that guest needs and wants have increased. Indeed, the research findings of this study seem to strengthen this remark made more than a decade ago. This is because agritourists' comments reveal a pursuit to satisfy their psychological needs. These comments are not only made by particular agritourists specifically interested in spirituality fulfilment (e.g. M19- 'spirituality seeker'). TH1(3)- an 'archaeology seeker' pointed out that she wanted to study and learn about the (ancient) history of the place. TH4(1)- a 'hard-activity seeker' said: *'We will stay here for a couple of days to climb a quite challenging rock...'* revealing thus, a desire/hope for self-achievement/actualization.

It seems that the agritourist market is made by individuals (e.g. THA5(3) and TH5(3) who not only seek to satisfy their 'upper/higher' needs but also know exactly what they seek from a rural experience. These seem to be well informed about their experience beforehand (during the pre-travel stage) through various methods of information (e.g. by browsing the internet). This outcome seems to add value to the comment of McCabe (2009). Basically, that new customers in the hospitality and tourism field are becoming more experienced, demanding and with higher expectations.

In regards to the methods of information it seems that all agritourists between the ages of 18-29 are informed about the hosting venues through the internet (e.g. venue's website). This percentage drops to around 65% for the ages between 30-49 and drops even more (around 50%) for those above 50 years old. The same group (above 50) is the one which holds the largest percentage (around 30%) compared to others, who were informed through the WOM and previous visits. Information derived from various sources (e.g. venue's website or personal experiences) adds to the creation of agritourist expectations. THA4(2) was expecting to experience '*authentic Cyprus*' in the island's countryside because '*according to what the website of the Agritourism Company was saying, in rural Cyprus someone can find Real Cyprus*'. Alike the findings of others (e.g. Rodriguez Del Bosque, Martin and Collado 2006) this study stresses the importance of various sources of information in the tourist expectation formation process. In fact, the findings strengthen once more what has been previously stated by others (e.g. Nolan 1976, Um and Crompton 1990; Correia 2002). Basically, the fact that tourists have expectations about the destination and are mainly formed through what is widely accepted as external information (e.g. advertisements, brochures and WOM). However, the importance of past experiences in the tourist expectation formation process is also highlighted, as has been stressed by others in previous studies (e.g. Oliver and Burke 1999; Fache 2000). TH2(3)-a 'walker' was expecting to find in the venue's surrounding area, walking paths, such as, the ones found in other destinations.

Therefore, tourists do not only have expectations which are created once the tourist commences his/her individual search (e.g. on the internet) for a specific destination. They also have expectations which have been created from various sources throughout the tourist's lifetime (e.g. television). The former mentioned expectations, are attached to the existing ones. Even so, this study did not spot any major differences on expectations between tourists from different origins, such as, previous studies (e.g. Mok and Armstong 1998; Atilgan, Akinci and Aksoy 2003). Instead, the expectations of rural tourists were found to be influenced by their individual motivator/occasion for countryside visitation. A 'gastronomic seeker' coming from a Belgian background shared similar expectations with another 'gastronomic seeker' from Holland. Thus, the fieldwork findings question the categorization of expectations based on broad criteria (e.g. country of origin) without taking into consideration the individuality of the tourist. This categorization may carry the risk of leading towards too general/vague expectation assumptions on behalf of the destination (e.g. hosts). Incidentally, this may be regarded as one of the reasons behind the fact that hospitality managers were found, even in recent studies (e.g. Radder and Wang 2006) to perceive wrongfully tourists' expectations.

On the contrary, by acknowledging the personal motivation/occasion of tourists, the destination and others (e.g. entrepreneurs) may appreciate and address better their expectations. The emphasis in this case may be placed on much more narrow rather than broad criteria (individuals rather than groups). Besides, researchers (e.g. Lashley 2000a) note that guests have different expectations because of different occasions/reasons for visitation. Lashley and Lincoln (2003) draw the attention to the need of understanding that customers use a venue on different occasions, hence have dissimilar expectations. Indeed, agritourists express personal expectations which are directly related to the individual key reason/occasion which led them to the countryside. Guest TH3(2) was motivated to visit the countryside seeking for personal attention. Not surprisingly, he was expecting to experience such personal type of service from the hosts of the particular venue.

Persisting on the fact that expectations vary according to the individual, agritourists' expectations are created from differing/varying sources of information once the tourist actively seeks for specific information about the destination. These are attached to those existing ones which have been created during the tourist's lifetime, from various sources, such as, the television and travel books. These expectations are also attached to those which were created through the interaction with different people (e.g. friends) and from the tourist's personal past experience/s.

Hence, once more it is stressed that the expectation formation process differs from individual to individual, even if these tourists share the same origins. Besides, agritourists expressed different expectations in regards to what there was to see and do upon arrival at the rural destination. Even though guests in the same groups (e.g. 'nature driven') share similar expectations, these expectations differ according to the individual. M12- a 'flora seeker' emphasized on expectations in regards to the flora he was expecting to see. F17- a 'bird watcher' was expecting to see specific birds.

By taking into consideration the above findings, the following recommendations may be provided towards rural destinations, bodies and people involved in the hospitality and tourism industry. Destinations should give appropriate attention to the occasion behind a tourist's countryside visitation. Besides, not all agritourists visit the countryside in search for 'authenticity'. Agritourists may visit the countryside in order to relax, engage in a gastronomic experience, to hike, to study the destination's ancient sites and because they seek for spirituality fulfillment. Thus, the destination must provide such offerings which will address a wide range and differing needs and expectations, in regards to what there is to see, things to do and consume at the rural setting. This will lend a hand towards offering the right product/service in order to address the heterogeneous rural tourism market. The destination must be prepared to offer a wide range of activities and related services to accommodate the needs and expectations of differing occasions, such as those who are mainly interested in certain sport/exercise activities (e.g. cycling, rock climbing, hiking and skiing).

For instance, the destination may provide the appropriate infrastructure, design and designate walking paths and cycling routes with helpful signs. Furthermore, it may create information desks scattered in the countryside equipped with knowledgeable personnel. The destination can also publish and hand out brochures of (e.g.) activities which the tourist may engage in, once in the region. Furthermore, it may provide the necessary financial and non monetary assistance to entrepreneurs in order to open (e.g.) businesses with activity equipment for rental.

In addition, the destination may give the appropriate attention in the preservation and safeguarding of the non/natural environment of the destination (e.g. ancient sites, monuments, historical buildings and sacred places). The destination may also improve the provision of related services. For instance, it may restore old buildings/sites and introduce strict policies in order to protect the destination's sacred places, flora and fauna. Information centers could get equipped with informative books (e.g. of the endemic flora). Even so, addressing the diverse needs of agritourists requires not only the efforts of the appropriate bodies but also the joint efforts of all stakeholders (e.g. hosts). The stakeholders must also be prepared to address the needs and expectations of various agritourists' occasions. For instance, they may provide in their venues/shops the necessary facilities and amenities (e.g. traditional objects and air-conditions). They may also offer various books for studying (e.g. of endemic flora and fauna) and relevant leaflets to address differing occasions. What is more, restaurant managers should acknowledge the fact that there are tourists with specific needs (e.g. vegetarians or vegans).

Furthermore, given that external information append towards the creation of expectations, it is advisable that appropriate bodies make sure to provide realistic information and pictures in their advertising campaigns and especially their websites. This will assist towards the creation of realistic agritourist expectations, in regards to what the destination offers for its guests to view, do, consume and experience. The information being provided by the venue's websites should furthermore provide as much relevant, realistic and detail information with no exaggerations. This will adjust tourists' expectations thus avoid any discrepancies of expectations with veracity.

It is furthermore suggested that tourists, in order to have expectations which are closer to reality to get informed as thoroughly as possible prior to their trip experience. What is more, the following saying which the ethnographer heard from a local while touring the countryside is provided: '*wherever you hear about lots of cherries, make sure you hold a small basket*'.

Chapter 6: Theme: 'Destination stage' (fieldwork findings)

This Chapter includes the findings derived from informal interviews, casual conversations, observations and personal experiences of the ethnographer while consuming the offerings being provided by the destination, for agritourist consumption. The fieldwork findings are supported and documented by visual evidence (photographs). The pictures are referenced in this chapter and provided as appendices (Appendix: Photographic Evidence p.211). Chapter six concludes with the discussion of the fieldwork findings.

Firstly, of note is the fact that the majority of agritourists (around 70%) expressed their overall satisfaction feelings in regards to their countryside experience. Agritourists focused their attention on those countryside offerings which were mostly interested in. More specifically, guests were encouraged to freely express their dis/satisfaction feelings regarding their countryside experience. This resulted in a straight reference to those feelings generated while consuming those offerings which were directly linked to the main occasion for countryside visitation. 'Authenticity seekers' gave particular emphasis on those destination offerings which would have contributed towards an 'authentic Cyprus experience', such as, traditional buildings, local delicacies, customs and traditions. The most detailed information and effective criticism was obtained from those who emphasized their attention on those specific offerings which were mostly interested in. 'Gastronomic seekers' gave more detailed information (always compared to others) regarding the food and beverage offerings in the countryside. This is because these agritourists accentuated their concentration on every aspect/factor related to the food and beverage experience, such as, the quality of food and beverages, food presentation, variety and price. By taking this into consideration, the researcher proceeded into the creation of seven broad categories of destination offerings. These include: a) the personal service/attention, b) food, beverages and services, c) sport/exercise and other activities, d) natural environment, e) non-natural environment and related services, f) 'spiritual' and g) destination's 'authentic' offerings.

The categorization of information (about the destination's offerings) which was derived from agritourists assisted the researcher to better manage the information. At the same time it allowed an in-depth focus on the various destination offerings on behalf of the ethnographer. Hence, this assisted the provision of recommendations for improvement/enhancement. Despite that, it should be noted that the researcher's intention was not to mention in each of these categories those feelings expressed by agritourists, which were mostly interested in those specific offerings. For example, the 'food and beverage offerings' section does not include only the feelings expressed by 'gastronomic seekers'. On the contrary, each category includes the responses of all those who made reference to those specific offerings. Thus, this categorization does not imply under any circumstances that guests' statements were restricted to those associated to their chief point of interest/key factors which they value the most. On the contrary, agritourists as a whole made reference to a range of offerings, either associated or not, to their primary personal occasion/reason for a countryside visitation. However, the emphasis placed by each agritourist was based on the main occasion that got him/her to the countryside. TH1(2)- a 'nature seeker'- while expressing her dissatisfaction feelings, kept mentioning/returning to those feelings of disappointment which were linked to her key point of interest (in this case 'nature'). The guest did though make simplistic statements regarding other non-related to the natural environment offerings (e.g.) service provided. *'... I was pleased with the service here'*- referring to the venue's service. Even so, the guest justified her overall dissatisfaction by providing lengthy and extensive arguments all being related to the natural environment, which in this case acted as the basic driving force to the countryside. In a nutshell, while in the field, the ethnographer identified those specific offerings which agritourists focus their attention on. Therefore, the researcher proceeded into the creation of broad categories of destination offerings whereby the notion of agritourist dis/satisfaction is discussed. The reasoning behind this classification of offerings is based on the fact that it would have eased the process of managing the large volume of ethnographic fieldwork findings. Consecutively, it would have facilitated their analysis and evaluation. Furthermore, it would have allowed the ethnographer to focus on those destination offerings which were stressed by agritourists while expressing their dis/satisfaction feelings. Additionally, this would have led towards the provision of relevant recommendations aiming to improve, and enrich the destination offerings.

a) The personal service/attention offering

Agritourists in search for personal service/attention (e.g. THA3(2), while expressing their dis/satisfaction feelings, stressed the personal attention being provided by the host, as well as the friendliness, hospitable environment and affiliation between the host and guest. Both F55 and F64 ('personal service seekers') made reference to the kindness and warmth of the hosts of THA8 and THA9 respectively. The former pointed out that she was glad to have followed the suggestion of her brother to visit the same venue which he had visited in the past. According to the guest, her brother was delighted with the hospitality offered by the hosts there. F42 which was staying in THA3 with her family stressed how impressed she was with the warmth and kindness which they received from the hosts. She added that they would definitely pay a visit to the same venue in the next one or two years. Others, who were not driven to the countryside merely due to 'personal service seeking' (e.g. TH5(1) also commented on the '*special*' and '*unexpected attention*' being experienced in the venues. Similar to the pleasant experiences of guest (THA3(2)- a 'personal service seeker') were also my own, since I felt as 'truly being hosted' at the particular venue (THA3). I recall arriving at around 14:00 at the venue. I was feeling rather exhausted from driving around the surrounding area (visiting sites). As soon as I walked in, Mrs. xxx welcomed me and kindly offered a traditional coffee accompanied by a glass of water and a traditional sweet. After a short conversation we had, she returned to the kitchen in order to prepare the next day's breakfast for her guests. I was questioning whether that welcoming beverage (free of charge) was offered by the hostess due to the fact that she was aware that I was a researcher. However, I was surprised to see that a couple which arrived afterwards were treated in the same manner. The persisting doubting thoughts 'perhaps she is doing this because I'm here', vanished the next day. Once I walked in the venue's living room, after she had already served her new guests the same treats, she was chatting and laughing with them. Similarly, THA3(2) said: *'Mrs. xxx is amazing. She is such an adorable person... She is so smart.. .- Did you know that she was a lawyer before she decided to restore and open her mum's house to host tourists like you and me? ... We all feel like she is part of our family. Actually, she makes us feel like we are part of her family. Don't you get that same feeling?* When THA3(2) asked me that question, I nodded my head in complete agreement.

Those strong feelings of 'truly being hosted' rather than 'being offered a shelter' were generated in THAs rather than THs. In fact, I (Prokopis) never came across the hosts of TH2. Furthermore, the employees there, who happened to be foreigners, were not familiar with the surrounding area. They were not able to suggest any places of interest, or close-by restaurants. Additionally, one of them was extremely rude, something that influenced negatively my experience at that particular venue. Similarly, TH2(2) was disappointed with the attitude of the same employee. In contrast, a girl from the Philippines which was helping the hostess to clean the rooms of THA3, pleasantly surprised me. Not only she was very polite but she was also able to suggest places for me to visit. This pleased me since it did help me with the organisation of my trip. F64- a 'personal service seeker', was to some extent *'surprised'* with the fact that an Asian girl appeared in the venue's (THA9) small restaurant to serve the breakfast instead of the hostess, as she was expected to. Yet, the guest did mention that the girl was very friendly and helpful while she loved the fact that the hostess was treating her (the employee) as if she was her own daughter.

However, the aforementioned should not lead to the false conclusion that personal attention and hospitality is not offered or consumed at THs. In point of fact, the hostesses (mother and daughter) of TH5 made me feel as if I was part of their family from the first minute of my arrival. The daughter offered me a coffee and informed me about the efforts of her father, who passed away, to open the picturesque hotel, as well as the difficulties they encountered as a family to open and operate the venue. As she stated, she regularly chats with her guests in the lobby in order to understand what they are seeking and make the appropriate suggestions. Her experience in the field is strong, considering the fact that she worked for several years in the hospitality industry, while she holds a relevant university degree. The following day, in the same venue, I gladly accepted the invitation to have a homemade meal in the small yard. The hostess (mother) had to offer homemade food while she seized every opportunity to explain to me how she prepared each dish. I couldn't stop laughing while she was constantly saying *'try this, you'll like it' and 'ha..? what do you think?'*

The words of guest TH5(3) kept coming back to me: *'... Stay for lunch here tomorrow. You'll love it. If xxx prepares a hundred dishes she will force you to try every single one of them. Its so funny...she will actually sit there staring at you with a big smile like this* (guest smiled in a comical way) *waiting for you to tell her that you... loved them' all'.* Although I truly enjoyed the whole meal experience in the yard, while taking notes in my room that night I imagined how uncomfortable or frustrated she (host) would have made a guest feel if he/she had been a person that did not want to be bothered while eating.

That being mentioned, I and other agritourists experienced personal attention and hospitality elsewhere in the countryside, such as in restaurants and taverns. M37 (an 'authenticity seeker') with his friends were searching for a place to have lunch in a remote region (mountains of 'Farmakas'). Eventually they discovered a restaurant in a very small village, which offered homemade food. The petite place was owned by the priest of the small village. Apparently, his overwhelming hospitality and personal service contributed towards an unforgettable experience for the whole group. The group, apart from the personal service, additionally stressed the fact that the food was of excellent quality, delicious and very cheap. Relevantly, I also have to report that I experienced overwhelming feelings of friendliness/warmth, especially in remote villages/areas, particularly by elderly people who were found relaxing at 'kafenia' (traditional 'cafés'). The owner of a small restaurant (between the towns of 'Pafos' and 'Polis') kindly welcomed me and orally explained the menu of the day. Although I was tired, the sympathy shown by the restaurant owner resulted to the creation of overwhelming relaxation feelings. Only at a later stage I realized what M65- a 'personal service seeker' was trying to explain to me. Basically, that what truly makes a service 'personal' is the personal human factor. The genuine relationship between the host and the guest and certainly not the monetary-root based relationship, which is accompanied by those repeated counterfeit statements of *'certainly sir... My pleasure sir....'.*

Last, yet definitely not least, is the fact that almost all agritourists, regardless of their main reason/occasion for countryside visitation, commented on their hospitable experiences in the countryside.

b) The food and beverage offerings

All visited hosting venues had to offer traditional Cypriot breakfast which included a variety of food/beverages. In some cases, these were homemade/grown, such as, traditional bread, local cheese, and variety of marmalade, honey, black olives, fruits and juices. In TH5, the hostess had to offer homemade orange marmalade. Unlike all THAs, TH5 was the only TH which offered homemade food.

That being stated, the food in the venues is served outside/alfresco during the warm months (pictures 801- 803). During the cold winter months, it is served in the venue's small indoor restaurants (pictures 804 and 805). Not all THAs seem to provide meals, in comparison to THs. The rather small restaurants of THs function as taverns for non-guests. Even so, THAs which offer meals (other than breakfast) have a relatively limited choice of dishes compared to THs. Even so, I must admit that the most delicious homemade food which I consumed, was that being offered in THAs (e.g. THA3 and THA6). Then again, the food which was prepared by the hostess of TH5 was also scrumptious (note: the food in other THs was prepared by employees and not hosts/hostesses). The same remark was also made by guest M27 ('a gastronomy seeker') who visited restaurants of both THAs and THs while exploring the countryside with his wife. With reference to the quality of the food offered in venues, all those which I visited, offered quality food, in terms of being fresh, well cooked and well presented. Even so, I found that the prices were not that appealing, compared to the prices of food in the majority of other traditional restaurants (taverns) found in the countryside. For instance, the price of 'halloumi' grilled cheese which I paid at TH2 was three times more expensive than the price paid for the same dish at a restaurant in the area. The fact that the ambiance of the venue's restaurant was nicer did not matter once I received the dear bill. Not even the nicely presented dish with a star-cut shaped tomato made me think that it was worth the price I was paying for. Those price comparison thoughts led towards a personal discontentment. In both THA1 and THA2 I noticed that the dish prices were expensive even compared to the prices of those restaurants found in the most popular tourist areas. Apparently, those prices were set so high because guests did not have much of a choice of where else to have lunch/dinner.

Despite my personal observations, similar comments (regarding the food prices at those venues) were also expressed by others (e.g. THA2(2)- 'an authenticity seeker'). I further noticed that apart from a couple of THs, the food offered in other THs was a blend of traditional and international cuisine. Needless to say, these venues are labeled as 'Traditional'. All the same, there are THAs which offer an international cuisine. For instance, both THA1 and THA2 offered club sandwiches, hamburgers and French fried potatoes. This non-traditional food did not bother THA1(2)- a 'horse rider', given that the *'club sandwiches went down well'*. On the contrary, THA1(1)- an 'authenticity seeker', was not pleased with the fact that there was a limited choice of traditional food at the particular THA. Another 'authenticity seeker' (THA2(2) mentioned that she was expecting to find traditional food in the countryside. Thus, she was disappointed with the fact that the venue, and other close-by restaurants offered *'Cyprinternational food'*. For instance, picture 815, shows the menu of a countryside tavern. Amongst traditional dishes, the menu shows French fried potatoes, even though there are potatoes which are cooked in a traditional method ('Patates Andinaktes'). THA2(2), had to drive to other villages to find authentic cuisine.

In regards to the wines offered at venues, apart from TH2, the rest either did not have to offer, or offered a limited selection of local wines. Nonetheless, all venues (THs and THAs) had to offer 'Koumandaria' a local sweet-desert wine. In some THAs (unlike THs), a small liqueur glass of 'Koumandaria' was offered free of charge by the host/hostess, as a gesture of good will. Alike other agritourists who chose to stay in THAs (e.g. THA3(1), I was pleased with the hospitality shown by the hostess. In this regard, the hostess of only one TH offered food to the guests herself. Yet, the hosts/hostesses of four out of the seven visited THAs offered the food to their guests themselves. In all other cases, (THs or THAs) the employees were serving the food. It would have been a significant negligence not to stress those emotions being generated in cases whereby the hosts/hostesses offered their food. The offering of homemade food being accompanied with affection and a personal interest pleased me and others guests, such as, THA5(1). In such cases, we (myself and other agritourists) felt that we were treated as guests rather than customers. TH5 hostess: *'Try this, you'll like it'* and *'ha..? what do you think?'* Reaction of TH5(2): *'xxx (the hostess) is adorable. I love the way she serves her dishes'*.

However, those personal feelings of contentment as a result of the 'hospitality' offered, faded away once I received the expensive bill in one THA. In this particular case I felt that I was literally paying for the 'hospitality' which was offered to me by the hostess.

Concerning the availability of food and beverage outlets in the countryside, I noticed that restaurants could mostly be found in large and well known resorts/villages. While touring a wine region, I could not choose from a plethora of taverns which were available. In contrast, while touring other areas (e.g. high northeastern mountains) I had to buy something to eat from a small grocery in a village. Although I did find a couple of restaurants in the region, these were closed. Similar were the experiences of THA5(1)- a 'gastronomic seeker': '*The other day I had to drive to Larnaca (town) to find a restaurant since there weren't any in …* (guest mentioned three villages). As humorous as the following may seem, no restaurants means lack of restrooms. Consequently, this leads towards that uncomfortable physiological feeling of holding on until one is eventually found. Or alternatively, getting in that very unpleasant and embarrassing position of having to fertilize the countryside grounds.

With reference to the availability of beverages in the countryside, the sweet local wine ('Koumandaria') could be found in all taverns and almost all restaurants. Furthermore, all restaurants had a selection mainly of local wines (e.g. 'Xinisteri'). Although the number of wines varied according to the property, the majority of the places had on an average four to six wines in their small wine cava. Even so, there were places which had to offer only one local house wine. Be that as it may, there were plenty of small wineries (e.g. picture 508) in which free wine tasting and in some cases a tour around the small factory was offered. Some of the wineries also offered local delicacies (e.g. cheeses) to accompany the wine tasting. For instance one such small winery in the 'Saitas' region offered picnic baskets which could be bought by the guest. The basket included local delicacies and a local wine (picture 812).

In regards to the quality of food and beverages found in the countryside, I have to agree with others (e.g. M27 and F34-'gastronomic seekers') that the food offered in the majority of the restaurants/taverns was of good quality, in terms of the food being well cooked, well presented and prepared with fresh ingredients. Despite that, there were cases in which I was not impressed with the food quality and/or the food variety. Similarly THA6(3) said: *'I have to say that I'm not pleased with the food quality in some restaurants'*. Even so, I found that the food being offered in countryside restaurants/taverns included a variety of local delicacies while some also had to offer the traditional 'meze'. This is traditional food served in small dishes on the guests' table (pictures 813 and 814). This 'meze' pleasantly surprised guest TH2(3)- a 'walker'. However, there were agritourists (e.g. F46- a 'cyclist') who expressed their dissatisfaction in regards to the limited choice of vegetarian dishes. Indeed, there were not any restaurants which specialised in vegetarian/vegan dishes while the taverns and restaurants offered a relatively limited variety of such dishes. These were restricted to the offerings of mainly salads and pasta. Even so, this was not the case whereby the so called 'meze' was offered since it ('meze') included some vegetarian dishes.

Despite that, the lack of restaurants offering fine-gourmet dining was apparent. This observation was firstly made by M36- a 'gastronomic seeker', which eventually stimulated my curiosity. It initiated my investigation for places which offered an alternative choice for those tourists being interested in a gourmet, and not traditional, dining experience (e.g. food prepared and served with a dose of imagination and creativity). The country's tour for this specific reason ended with the conclusion that there were not any such restaurants in the countryside (which offered fine/gourmet dining). On the subject of the interior/ambiance of the countryside restaurants/taverns, those which specialized in traditional cuisine, were decorated with traditional objects and items which stressed the culture and history of the village, place or region (e.g. picture 809). On the contrary, there were restaurants which did not have an authentic character. These did not resemble the character of the place, in contrast to others which did (e.g. pictures 806-808). Furthermore, I noticed that in only one tavern there was traditional Greek music during lunch time. This was something that I really enjoyed while I was having my Sunday meal.

Concerning the price related to food quality/quantity, there were cases in which I did overpay for my food, given that the dishes lacked quality and/or quantity. Those however were isolated cases which do not reflect the overall picture. Based on personal experiences and others (e.g. THA5(1) and F34), restaurants in the countryside did offer a variety of quality dishes and beverages at reasonable/cheap prices. TH3(1), made a comparison of the prices in a beach resort area with the prices in a specific village: *'... not to mention how expensive it is in xxx… Three times more expensive in xxx than here'*. Alike the experiences of others (e.g. F39- a 'gastronomic seeker'), the fact that I overpaid for my meal once at a tavern did not bother me. This is because the quality of the food was very good and the quantity was greater compared to other taverns. On top of that, the owner kindly offered coffee and sweets free of charge at the end of my meal. Of note is the incident of M20- a 'spirituality seeker', which happened not to pay for one of his meals in the countryside. The guest, while in a well known monastery on the mountains, got invited by the monks to join them while they were having lunch. This incident once more brings back the hospitality issue as has been discussed in the preceding discourse. M37 made reference to an *'unforgettable experience'* which was the result of the overwhelming hospitality showed by a humble priest; the owner of a very small 'restaurant' (more like a room in his house), in a remote village. A person who has *'no interaction with the outside world'* (stays by himself, has no vehicle, and does not leave from his small village). References, such as, *'authentic hospitality'*, *'genuine feelings'* and *'true interest'* were expressed by agritourists who visited taverns which were located particularly in remote villages, not that close (compared to others) to urban areas and famous resorts. Indeed, similar personal feelings emerged in restaurants of small remote villages (e.g. 'Ayios Konstantinos' and 'Vavatsinia').

Furthermore, there are several small factories and shops in villages, producing and selling authentic delicacies. For instance, carob based sweets, rose water, grape juice sweet snacks, as well as, traditional syrup sweets, such as, walnut and figs (pictures 810 and 811 showing traditional syrup sweets offered at shops in 'Kakopetria' village). In fact, I found local delicacies (e.g. delicatessen) and traditional treats (e.g. caramelized nuts), in small markets in the courtyards of village churches, all the year round.

These open local markets ('Panairka') take place in honor of the name day of the patron Saint. In such markets the locals sell their products which they often produce themselves. Last but not least, the majority of the villages organize alfresco dinners for the public. These take place usually during the summer period and are called 'Horosperides' (literally meaning dance nights). While attending some 'Horosperides', I noticed that they offer traditional food which is accompanied by traditional music, dances and theatrical plays. Yet, the only mode of information regarding these folkloric nights is through the venues of the particular region and a couple of signs, all in Greek. Not surprisingly, only a couple of agritourists said that they attended such folkloric nights held in the countryside.

c) The sport/exercise, entertaining activities and related services offerings

In the pre-travel findings section, it was mentioned that there were tourists who are primarily driven to the countryside for reasons associated with exercise/sport activities (e.g. walking, hiking, horse riding and cycling). These agritourists provided the most detailed information regarding these activities offered in the countryside as well as the quality of services related to these. Yet, this does not imply that important information was not derived from other guests. This is because agritourists in general engaged in a variety of activities which included apart from the above, other entertaining/amusing activities (e.g. driving safaris on rough terrains, visits to animal thematic parks and museums). Even so, those agritourists who were driven to the countryside in order to engage in specific (e.g.) sport activities, while describing their dis/satisfaction feelings, stressed on those experiences which were directly linked with certain activities.

While having a conversation with THA7(1)- a 'hard activity seeker' I noticed that most of the time she was talking about her diving experience, in terms of what the experience involved. For instance, where the experience took place, how many hours she spent diving, were she got the necessary equipment, how warm the waters were and what she experienced while in the sea depths. F6 had visited and stayed in the countryside in order to ski on the slopes of Mt. Olympous. She focused on the 'ski aspect' of the holiday while expressing her countryside experience.

The guest mentioned that she did enjoy her stay at the hosting venue, as well as the traditional cuisine, but was leaving the island dissatisfied with her overall experience. She pointed out that she was extremely disappointed with the snow conditions found in early February on the mountain slopes. This is because there was not enough snow coverage on the resort's pistes. In order to justify her disappointment, she said that she was expecting to find sufficient snow coverage at this time of the year according to what the venue's website was saying. I personally visited the slopes from December until March and I have to agree with F6 in terms of the poor snow conditions in early February. Indeed, there was not enough snow coverage to allow ski/snowboarding activities to take place. As a matter of fact, the ski resort was closed in December and January since there wasn't enough snow precipitation. According to a person at the Cyprus ski federation house, this was unusual at that time of the year. Nonetheless, things changed with a good snowfall in mid February. This was the period which M8- another 'soft activity (ski) seeker' visited the mountains and was satisfied with his experience. Then again, by the end of February, the maximum depth of snow on the highest slopes did not exceed 25cm. In regards to the ski facilities being offered, I have to agree with others (e.g. M8). These stated that although the resort is small, it is well organized yet in not such a good condition. The ski passes during the ski season were set at *'reasonable prices'* (for a full day for February and March 2008 were set at €21 and for a half day at €14,50). Ski equipment rental was available at the resort and information regarding the snow conditions could be easily obtained from the Cyprus Ski federation/club (and website). Ski/snow board lessons were offered for first timers something which pleasantly surprised F9-a 'personal service seeker'. The guest, from previous summer visits to the island, said that she wasn't informed neither she knew about the existence of a Ski club on the island.

Another activity which is offered in the countryside is cycling. M47- a 'cyclist' stressed that he really enjoyed the cycling routes of the mountains and that he was leaving the island satisfied with his experience. Even so, F46 (a 'cyclist') made reference to some inconsiderate drivers. With little or non-existent patience in the roads, these made her feel more stressed rather than relaxed while cycling. By personally renting a bike in order to cycle in the designated routes, I also experienced some unpleasant occurrences, such as, drivers beeping in order to get out of their way.

Even so, the majority of the drivers was careful and in some cases helpful. One day, a couple pulled over to check if I was not hurt after a fall I had with my bike. Albeit the fact that I was embarrassed and I wished they had passed without stopping, I did appreciate their concern. Having said that, I found that the cycling maps (picture 401) which were placed along the routes, to be very helpful. Even so, I would have preferred to see more of those alongside the designated routes. These maps had a detailed route plan, altitudes and information about sites and other useful services. These maps were also considered useful by TH4(3)- a 'cyclist': *'Even if you don't have a map in your hands you won't get lost cause of the signs and the maps in the streets'.* What is more, I was informed by a knowledgeable person at a specific countryside C.T.O office in regards to the routes of a specific region. I was furthermore given a useful cycling route map/leaflet. To make mine and others cycling experiences much easier, blue lines were marked in the side of the streets. These helped me not to get lost by following them (picture 402). Despite that, I found it extremely hard to find a bicycle to rent. Other cyclists who I met (e.g. TH4(3) and M47), had brought their own bicycles. After a long and exhausting search with no success in the province, I eventually was 'forced' to search in a town to rent one. Finally, I carried the bicycle with my car close to those designated cycling routes and returned it afterwards.

Walking is a further activity which agritourists may engage in while in the countryside. TH2(3)- a 'walker' visited the countryside in order to explore it 'by walking'. The guest expressed the following feelings: *'I truly enjoyed my stay in xxx village... I think that me and xxx* (named her husband) *walked in every single trail of Troodos. Yesterday we started from here* (implying the venue) *passed through the village and stopped at xxx* (the guest mentioned a site more than 5km. away). *On our way back, we went through xxx village* (detour). *Last time I recall walking so much was in Crete three years ago...'* The same agritourist also made reference to the well organized picnic areas found on the mountains (e.g. picture 404). Even though she did recommend that there should be more of those scattered on the mountains. THA6(1) said: *'I'm having a Wonderful time!... The scenery is absolutely enchanted... There's no traffic in the streets... the* leaflets (referring to walking routes leaflets/booklets) *that we found in the breakfast room were very helpful...'*

While sharing my walking experience with other agritourists, I found that it is a very enjoyable as well as worthwhile experience, although it could in some cases become somewhat dangerous. This is because of the lack of pavements, or their misuse in some villages which force walkers to use the road (e.g. picture 212 showing the pavement of the center of a village being covered by trash). Nonetheless, once more I did find the walking maps (picture 403) which are placed on the designated nature/walking trails useful. Even so, these maps are only placed at the beginning/end of the trail. Thus, in many cases I found myself wondering whether I was on the right track. One day, in the middle of the highest trail on the island, I came across a tourist who was asking for directions. In bewilderment he decided to discontinue and return back. While hiking on the rough terrain of the 'Papoutsa' peak, I found myself becoming very nervous while descending from the mountain. I could not find my way back to the base due to the lack of signs (the path was not included in the path maps of the C.T.O). That evening I wrote the following in my notebook: 'the view was incredible. I could see a large part of the island. The chapel's condition was unfortunately very bad- I could only see ruins. Apart from the agony I felt while returning to the base, I believe it was worth it…. What an adventure!'. Even so, the lack of signs was not mentioned by any 'hard activity seeker' (e.g. mountain climber or hikers). Yet, M53 ('hard activity seeker') made reference to the lack of shops in the countryside where someone can buy or perhaps rent specific equipment for mountain/rock climbing.

All the same, the enjoyment of several activities in the countryside (e.g. walking and cycling) may be influenced by both the area and the season in which the activity takes place. For instance, I found the countryside walking experience more pleasurable in some regions compared to others, due to the availability of sites and rich flora. Similarly, guest M50- a 'walker' said that he enjoyed more his walks at the surrounding venue area instead of some others which didn't have much to offer in terms of natural interest. THA1(2)- a 'horse- rider' mentioned that she would have preferred horse riding in a *'greener'* area. Based on my observations, the same area during mid-spring was green. The hills were covered with grass. Engaging in some activities (e.g. hiking) during the summer months and early autumn, especially on low altitude areas can be a very uncomfortable experience.

Especially during the hot days of summer when the temperature well exceeds 40C inland, certain activities (e.g. walking) are out of the question. Unless of course they take place during late afternoon hours or/and perhaps at much higher grounds (personal experiences). F33- a 'horse rider' highlighted that it was extremely hot during summer. This made horse riding, *'a rather unpleasant experience'*.

In contrast, during late autumn and spring months walking in (e.g.) villages or nature pathways can be a very pleasant experience due to comfortable temperatures (20Cs). In fact, I personally found the rural areas of the island during early/mid spring enchanting when the flowers and trees came into bloom (e.g. pictures 301 and 302). However south/eastern winds from desserts (e.g. Sahara) during some days in March and April filled the atmosphere with dust. This influenced negatively the experience of F10- a 'walker' which happened to suffer from asthma. Due of this, the guest had to stay indoors most of the time (picture 315 shows the dusty atmosphere. In order to apprehend the bad atmosphere condition, compare the colour of the sky shown in that picture with the one next to it, picture 314). Incidentally it should be mentioned that the provision of adequate first aid in the Cypriot countryside for emergency incidents (e.g. asthma crisis) is limited to only one hospital.

Nevertheless, apart from the aforementioned activities, other additional activities and entertaining places are offered in the countryside, such as, thematic parks (e.g. Ostrich parks) and driving safaris on rough rural terrains. Yet, all the safari tours commenced their trips from urban areas (none from the countryside). Thematic parks were equipped with specialised personnel and useful facilities (e.g. restrooms and facilities for children). Even so, my experiences support the fact they could not entertain a family more than a few hours. F56- an 'authenticity seeker' mentioned that unlike her and her husband who were enjoying their time in the countryside, their two kids (teenagers) *'were bored cause there wasn't much for them to do'*.

d) The natural environment and related services offerings

Agritourists in general (regardless of their purpose of countryside visitation) shared their experiences which were associated with the natural environment, with the researcher. However, those who focused their attention on these offerings were the ones who were found to be driven to the countryside mainly due to occasions directly linked to the natural environment. More specifically the 'nature seekers', 'flora seekers', 'fauna seekers', 'bird watchers' and 'entomologists'. While M52- a 'fauna seeker' was expressing his overall satisfaction, he stressed the strong feelings of excitement he felt when he came close to the endemic mammal ('muflon'). Both, flora and fauna of the countryside, were found to vary and differ according to the season and the region. Contrary to the urban areas, in the countryside the guest may view endemic flora (e.g. olive trees, almond trees and vines) and fauna (e.g. goats). Conversely, the urban scenery is mainly filled with concrete structures (e.g. picture 213 Vs picture 302).

In addition, pictures 311 and 312, illustrate the rough white rock treeless terrains of the south west shores. In contrast, picture 313 presents the mountainous red soil forestry regions. Additionally, from my yearly tour in the countryside the following examples of vegetation in the corresponding areas were found: vines (areas of 'Pitsilia' and 'Krashochoria'), Troodos Juniper and Barberry (high mountains-above 1600m.), wheat fields (mainly in the central plain and hills) and Cherry bushes (valleys of high altitudes-'Solea' valley). THA3(3)- a 'flora seeker' said that the area around the hosting venue (northern slopes of the Troodos mountain) was offered for flora studying, mainly because of the variety of flowers, trees and general vegetation which someone may come across in the specific region, not offered in other areas (e.g. east coast). M12- a 'flora seeker', highlighted that a peninsula on the west shores ('Akamas') is offered for flora studying since there are several species which *some of them couldn't be found in some other areas of the island*. Both (guest and wife) were pleased with the fact that they followed their friends' suggestion to visit and stay in this part of the island. Besides, they could easily access the national park on a daily basis.

THA7(2)- a 'flora seeker' expressed his enthusiasm with the variety of flora found at the abovementioned area: *'I'm completely satisfied with my experience here'...'I've kept a record of all the flowers we've came across'... 'My wife's colleagues were right! 'Akkamas' is absolutely a paradise for people like us.'*

In regards to the fauna, the only region which I came across the endemic wild goat ('muflon') was in the forestry area of 'Stavros tis Psokas' (picture 319). Trout was only found on the Mountainous areas of Troodos (e.g. picture 322- a trout farm close to the village of 'Platres'). The only area which I actually saw (merely twice) nightingales was the 'Platres' village surrounding area. This was also confirmed by F17- a 'bird- watcher'. Flamingoes were also found only in the salt lakes regions of the island ('Larnaka' and 'Lemesos' districts).

The natural environment seems to alter according to the seasons. For instance picture 309 Vs 310 and 601 Vs 602 indicating clearly the scenery changes occurring from one season to another. The fields also change from spring to summer (e.g. pictures 316a/b Vs 317). More specifically, based on my yearly tour, most of the south 'Pitsilia' area was green in the summer, due to the vines. During the winter season the same vines remained leafless. Unlike the summer period, the red soil of the whole region was visible from a distance (picture 308). The scenery on the mountains also changed noticeably during spring time while trees (e.g. almond trees) were in bloom. During the spring months (contrary to summer), I saw a plethora of flower species (e.g. lilies, chamomiles and wild lavenders). In late autumn, the brown Elm leaves began to fall thus altering the scenery of the mountainous valleys. In winter, the snow changed noticeably the landscape by covering everything under a thick white blanket of ice (e.g. comparison of landscapes shown in picture 303 with 307a/b). Concerning the fauna, I did come across reptiles (e.g. salamanders) and birds (e.g. swallows) as well as insects, such as, butterflies (picture 318) mostly during the warm months. The same observation was made by others (e.g. F61) who were repeaters. Furthermore, flamingoes were found during the winter months. During autumn I witnessed on the south 'Papoutsa' area, quails running to hide in the bushes.

These natural environment differences/changes (based on the area and season) seem to influence positively or negatively the experiences of agritourists. F6- a 'soft activity (ski) seeker' said that she was leaving the island dissatisfied with the snow conditions found on the Mt. Olympus. At the same time pointed out that she would have preferred to visit the countryside another time of the year when probably more pistes would have been open. M30- a 'flora seeker', said that he was overall *'extremely disappointed'* with the availability of flora for examination purposes. The guest made reference to the venue's *'dry'* surrounding area during the month of July. The guest was expecting a variety and rich flora to be found based on the *'vague and misleading'* information of the venue's website. The dried landscape (hinterland between two towns) led to the overall dissatisfaction of guest TH1(2)- a 'nature seeker'. The guest stayed in a region which after a hot and dry summer was left with dry and *'greenless'* fields. In addition, the surrounding area of TH4 contributed towards the overall dissatisfaction of both TH4(1)- a 'hard activity seeker' and TH4(2)- a 'cool seeker'. The specific venue was located in an area which unfortunately experienced a devastating fire the summer of 2008. This resulted to the loss of acres of pine woods and greenery. The burnt region (black burnt tree trunks and stems) influenced negatively the experiences of certain agritourists: *'It's awful!... I hate it!* (TH4(1). *'I can't say that I am satisfied. I can't also say that I am dissatisfied'* said TH4(3) by expressing the positive aspects of his experience and the negative (how negatively the surroundings influenced his overall experience). I also drove through the once forestry area. The ash, poignant scenery and smell from the burnt wood contributed towards the creation of disheartening and depressing personal feelings (pictures 304-306). These feelings lasted for several days. A sign in a winery (of the area) with the typed words 'enjoy a picnic in the forest' seemed to me at the time, a tragic irony. In contrast, F57- a 'nature seeker' was pleased with the fact that she spent her holidays in an area with thick woods and rich greenery. M60- 'nature seeker' said that he enjoyed both the nearby forests and the outsized garden of the hosting venue filled with citrus trees. The adjacent woods of a hosting venue, as well as the fauna (birds) of the area, acted as the perfect *'relaxing'* combination for F59, 'a relaxer'. The guest was glad with her choice to stay on the mountains during the summer. Apart from the fact that it was cooler (compared to other areas) there were forests, wild flowers and birds to *'keep you company.'*

Interesting is the fact that what appears to contribute to the satisfaction for some tourists seems not to be the case for others. For instance, TH5(2)- an 'entomologist', said that he would definitely try, in spite of his work commitments, to pay a visit to the Cypriot countryside during spring to complete his examination of insects. Yet, F15- a 'nature seeker' *'hated'* the fact that in order to access the venue's restaurant she had to pass through a garden with bees and other insects. Incidentally, all visited venues had their own small gardens (e.g. pictures of venues 102-104 and 107 with the latter showing the balcony of the venue almost completely covered by jasmine). The following, are incidents which annoyed me, contrary to others which perhaps wouldn't have mind experiencing such events: Firstly, I was annoyed and bothered whenever I had to share my room with insects. Once, a mouse ran in my room as soon as I opened the balcony's door. Moreover, several times I came across reptiles while walking/hiking in the province. M2- a 'fauna seeker' was disappointed with the fact that he did not see many reptiles, apart from a couple of incidences. Unlike this specific agritourist who would have benefited from this, I have to admit that I did not enjoy being really close to reptiles, such as the one shown in picture 323. This reptile, I almost touched in my attempt to get a better view of the well hidden in the vine leaves bird nest (shown in picture 320).

Due to such unpleasant (for me) occurrences, I noticed myself most of the time (especially during summer) looking carefully at the ground with the fear of not stepping on reptiles. This nervousness only disappeared when I had a conversation with an executive at a C.T.O office. The officer, made me realize that I was somewhat overreacting. TH3(3)- a 'nature seeker' stressed how much impressed he was with the service being provided at these mountainous tourist offices. However, he suggested that more offices should open in other rural regions in order to assist tourists. Even so, a helpful nature trail booklet of C.T.O helped me to find nature trails. These offices also provided useful information (e.g. regarding the flora and fauna). But, I had to refer to bookshops to find and read specific textbooks about the different endemic plants and animal species of the countryside. Moreover, even though I noticed that all venues had such leaflets (e.g. about nature trails) only one of them had textbooks about the endemic flora and fauna (picture 405). This is something which pleased guest TH5(3)- a 'bird watcher'.

e) The non-natural environment and related services offerings

Tourists who pay a visit to the countryside inevitably come in contact with the artificial/non-natural environment. This has been either constructed intentionally for tourist purposes (e.g. hosting venues and museums) or not intentionally for such purpose (e.g. ancient sites). Directly associated with the artificial environment are the physical objects (e.g. traditional crafts) and services which are provided at those buildings/sites. These are offered for the agritourist to view/use and experience. All agritourists made reference to the non-natural environment and related services. Even so, the 'authenticity seekers' and 'archaeology seekers', more than any other agritourists, commented, criticized and expressed their feelings in regards to the artificial environment of the destination.

Concerning the architectural design of the buildings in the countryside, my personal observations support the fact that their architecture/style and design differs significantly from one area to another (e.g. compare pictures 202 Vs 204, also 201 Vs 203 and 209 Vs 210). More specifically, note how the neoclassical traditional venue in picture 106 built with white/beige rock differs from the venue in picture 108 which is built with red bricks. Villages differ based on the area's terrain. This makes them unique and dissimilar. Unlike the plains, the houses on the rough/steep terrains of the north-eastern mountainous slopes are built very close to each other. In some cases the roof of one house functions as the veranda of the house behind/above it (e.g. picture 207). Village houses on mountains have roofs contrary to those villages on lower altitudes (e.g. picture 208 Vs 209). The natural resources which are used for the construction of the village buildings are extracted from areas surrounding each village. Hence, create differences in their exterior (e.g. note how the colour of the houses shown in pictures 101 and 201 blends with the landscape of their background). TH1(1)- an 'authenticity seeker' was pleased to see villages with houses built in traditional style. Despite that, it should be mentioned that in several villages there were houses and other buildings which did not resemble the character of the place.

Even so, hosting venues were found to be traditionally built, with local resources (e.g. use of unrefined materials, such as, local stone and wood). They agreeably blended with the surrounding environment. For instance, the venue shown in picture 108 bares an exterior resemblance with other buildings of the region shown in picture 206. The same with the venue of picture 105 with other buildings (picture 209). The 'traditionalistic image' of venues is completed with the presence of traditional items in public areas and rooms for guest viewing/usage (e.g. pictures 701-707). Incidentally, traditional items and objects may also be found scattered in the countryside (e.g. pictures 708 and 709). The venues' guest rooms are filled with genuine furniture, items and crafts which differ according to the venue (e.g. pictures 710-712). These traditional items (e.g. rocking chairs, traditional jugs and old photos) seem to append towards the creation of satisfaction feelings for specific agritourists. For instance F4- a 'nostalgia seeker' loved their presence since they made her feel as if she *'stepped back in time'*, in previous centuries. Another 'nostalgia seeker (THA5(2) added: *'A beautiful nostalgic experience which reminds the old times'*. In opposition, F64- a 'personal service seeker' argued that the presence of such photos in the bedroom is not necessary. The guest reasoned her statement by stating that it is *'creepy'* having to sleep next to the black and white old photo of the hosts' parents (who passed away). The same guest had to hide the picture every night and re-hang it the next morning because she did not want to offend the hostess (of THA9) by asking her to remove it from her bedroom.

Concerning the public facilities of venues, not all of them had swimming pools and those that did, were all THAs. In this regard, I have to admit that I did enjoy swimming in those cool waters when the temperature well exceeded 30C. Even so, a venue's pool which happened to be adjacent to a small garden was filled with leaves and dead insects. Therefore, I could not use it. Another guest, who stayed in the same venue (THA6(1) did make the same remark. On top of that, the guest mentioned that the venue was rather expensive in spite of the fact that it had a swimming pool. Furthermore, not all venues had air-conditioned facilities. This is something which according to TH4(2)- a 'cool seeker', is *'extremely important for all indoor places in Cyprus'* especially during the summer months.

Even so, all venues had central heating. In fact, it is necessary to have these venues properly heated, especially on the mountainous areas when the temperature drops to freezing levels. The winter which I toured the countryside (2007-08), the temperature dropped to as low as -8C.

In regards to the venues' hygiene/cleanliness, I found that they were generally clean, dirt free and well preserved. This is further supported by agritourists who made direct reference to the hygiene of venues (e.g. F54 and F22). Nonetheless, after having visited TH3, I had formed a different opinion of what may be labeled as 'a clean venue'. TH3 was the cleanest out of all visited venues (e.g. had no presence of dust or dirt on furniture). Having visited THA6 (which followed my visit to TH3) I noticed furniture which had dust on them; something that I did not really notice in venues which preceded my visit to TH3. I additionally noticed that the more items/objects and old furniture a venue had, the dustier the venue seemed/looked. For instance THA1 seemed much dustier compared to THA4, with the latter having much more traditional items/objects in public areas. The newest renovated venues (e.g. TH3) gave the impression that they were cleaner. Even so, it was interesting how differently tourists perceive 'cleanliness'. Even though both TH5(2)- an 'entomologist' and TH5(1)- a 'just by chance' agritourist noticed the presence of ants in their rooms, the former said: … *'I've even became friends with an ant which visits me every night. I named him …'* The other said: *'Have you noticed the ants in the rooms. They look as if they are parading every night. I can't believe I've paid so much to stay in such a dirty place…'*.

Moreover, I cannot stress how negatively my night's sleep at TH5 was influenced by the presence of a large black cockroach in my white bed sheets. The same night, I noticed the torn window protecting net. The next morning I discussed the incident with the hostess and she seemed surprised. She mentioned that they were doing their best to eliminate occurrences with ants since they received 'ant related complaints'. But, it was actually the first time someone found a cockroach in the bedroom let alone in their bed sheets. At that point we both started laughing while I was explaining how I reacted when I realized that I was going to share a bed with a cockroach. In fact, in many cases I had to chase out flying insects from my room.

This became a real challenge particularly in THA6 since my room was adjacent to a small herbal garden which apparently attracted flying insects and there were not protecting nets on the windows. Apart from hosting venues, there are several other buildings and places of interest which tourists may view and visit in the countryside, for instance museums (pictures 504 and 505 showing a carob and wine museum), ancient sites (e.g. pictures 510 and 511), sacred places, such as, monasteries (e.g. pictures 601-607), galleries, wineries and other places of interest (e.g. pictures 501-503 and 507). Generally speaking (through my personal and agritourists' experiences) these sites and places of interest can be easily found with the help of the detailed official Cyprus (C.T.O) map. Nonetheless, some map updates/corrections are in need so that tourists may avoid detours. That being established, these places of interest are generally well preserved and protected. For instance, both ancient sites of 'Kourion' and 'Tenta' have roofs to protect the sites from the weather conditions (pictures 509 and 512 respectively). Even so there are cases in which sites and other buildings are not that well preserved or protected. Especially in remote areas and isolated villages which deserted or/and ready to collapse buildings/sites can be found (e.g. pictures 205 and 606). However credit should be given to the local authorities who are actively trying to renovate and reinstate (e.g.) old buildings, walls and sites of the countryside (e.g. picture 211 indicating efforts in rural areas to cover the concrete wall with unrefined local sources).

On the subject of organization and management of the different places of interest, F66- an 'archaeology seeker', expressed her disappointment with some sites which were not that well-organized. These sites did not have any relevant and detailed information (e.g. in the form of leaflets), unlike sites she had visited in two other European countries. Indeed, my personal observations support the fact that there are sites which are in need of better infrastructure, organisation and management (e.g. better facilities for the disabled and restrooms). Even so, I have to concur with agritourists (e.g. THA4(1) and M65- both 'archaeology seekers') who found the lion's share of the sites being well-organized. In terms of having people in charge willing to provide necessary information, provision of useful leaflets and signs/indications being installed next to important spots. For instance picture 513 shows signs found at an archaeological park. Picture 608 shows a sign at an UNESCO protected church.

On the subject of entrance fees in places of interest, I have to agree with other agritourists (e.g. TH1(3) an 'archaeology seeker') who said that they were set at reasonable prices. For instance, I paid £1CYP or €1.71 to enter the archaeological park of 'Kourion' and view the ancient site, the theater and mosaics (picture 514 shows the actual ticket). Even so, entrance fees were not applicable for a number of sites or places of interest (e.g. wineries, workshops). In a medieval church, I entered without paying entrance fees. There, I had the opportunity to observe the wall paintings, get informed about these through explanatory colored leaflets and signs (found in and outside the church), as well as from a very helpful person who was in charge there. Furthermore, while I entered a small rose-water enterprise, I was welcomed by the entrepreneurs who explained the apparatus of the equipment and the process of making the sweet beverage. It should be noted that the owners were not aware of my capacity as a researcher at the time being. In another case, a nun unlocked a monastery's church for me during her rest time, a hot summer afternoon. She quietly waited for me to finish, in order locking again the doors of the church.

Contrary to the latter incidents, I found it hard in some cases to find someone in charge/responsible for a specific site. One day, I had to search for the person who was holding the keys of a small famous chapel in a village. In another case, I walked through an open door of a traditional building which led me to an old winery (picture 506). There I was given the opportunity to view the equipment used for the fermentation of grape juice into wine. The fact that there was no one responsible there did not bother me since I did not put any effort to find someone to unlock the door. Furthermore, I have to admit that although there was no description of the equipment, I somewhat liked the fact that the exhibition was of no charge. In contrast, while paying to enter a private museum, I was disappointed with the very limited or almost non-existent information being provided at each exhibit. At the time being, I did make comparison thoughts of what I paid and what I received in return. Of note is the fact that M28- an 'authenticity seeker', also expressed his discontentment in regards to the costly fee set at a museum based on what it had to offer in return.

To bring this section to an end, it is a fact that unless agritourists rent a car, their transportation to places of interest, is a very hard or even impossible task. This is due to the lack of appropriate countryside transportation links. Buses are scheduled from villages to main towns and vice versa, only twice a day. *'Not renting a car was out of the question'* said THA1(1)- an 'authenticity seeker'. Unless an agritourist has a car, then probably the easiest way to get somewhere is by hitch-hiking. An unfortunate day which my car ran out of petrol, I had to ask from a local to drive me to the closest station. Eventually, I had to call my wife to drive me back because I could not find anyone going towards the direction where I left my car.

f) The 'spiritual' offerings

Agritourists who visit the island in search of 'spiritual fulfillment' (e.g. M20) spent their time in the countryside by visiting sacred places, reading spiritual books and having discussions with spiritual people. One such person happened to be M1. During our conversation, he slightly slapped his chest twice, smiled in content and expressed his gratification regarding his worthwhile and rewarding 'spiritual' experience. By asking such agritourists what contributes towards 'spiritual fulfillment', the answer that I received was basically, the deep understanding of the Orthodox way of living. This, according to them, may be achieved through visits to places of worship, discussions with spiritual people and by attempting to put into practice the theory by reading spiritual books. The majority of the monasteries which I visited had a bookshop filled with religious/spirituality books (picture 609). Most of these books were in Greek and some in other languages (e.g. English, French and Russian). These books were offered at reasonable prices (as low as €3,50). This was not only my observation since F18- a 'spirituality seeker' expressed the same opinion. An agritourist who bought a spiritual book was M20, who I found while he was reading in the courtyard of a monastery. The guest basically expressed his satisfaction feelings with his overall experience. As he noticed, he did not only find lovely and peaceful monasteries, as he was expecting to. Most importantly, he commenced to understand the Orthodox way of living, something he was highly hoping to, yet was not sure if he would have achieved.

F18 said that she was so much thrilled with her experience that she did not want to leave (was leaving the destination in two days). Her overall *'spiritual experience'* as she highlighted, was much better than the one which was described by a friend who visited the destination previously for the same reason. In this case I have to confess that I found it extremely hard to identify those specific offerings/factors which would have appended towards 'spiritual fulfillment'. This is because there is much more than just physical/tangible offerings (e.g. spiritual books) being involved.

Even so, the following incident which was probably the most influential/powerful occurrence of my countryside experience, contributed more or less towards my better understanding these agritourists. In this regard, I was having a deep and meaningful conversation with a relatively young monk in the covered corridor of a monastery. He was basically explaining the reasons which led him to the decision to leave behind his family, friends and career opportunities in order to retreat to the sacred place. He could now (after some years passed) easily conclude that it was the best decision he had ever made in his lifetime. Besides, as he stressed, he fully adopted to a serene way of living in which calmness replaced the daily stress of his preceding lifestyle. Later on, I gladly accepted his suggestion/invitation to stay for the afternoon mass. While I was standing at the back of the candlelit church in the central point of the monastery, I experienced unusual and unexpected emotions of tranquility, contentment and optimism. Concurrently, the thought 'the trip here was so worth it!' crossed my mind.

While endeavoring to appreciate this emergence of feelings at a later stage, I realized that it was the result of the following physical and psychological, or more specifically eye, ear, nose, mouth and psyche stimuli:

- The ambiance of the sacred place being created by the surroundings, objects and items (e.g. candles and old icons)
- The sound from the chants
- The scents from the candles and the smell from the pine wood furniture

- The small piece of sweet tasting bread at the end of the mass ('Antidoro')
- The 'spiritual' dialogue prior the mass

Having said that, I have to agree with the suggestions of the aforementioned agritourists, that perhaps more spiritual books should be translated in other languages (e.g. English). Moreover, all sacred places (not only the most important ones) should be well preserved and well organized (e.g. preservation of wall paintings and provision of informative leaflets). Perhaps discussions, which could inform all those interested about the Orthodox practices, should be organized. In addition, information about (e.g.) such seminars should be provided in helpful tourist desks for those specifically interested in these.

g) The destination's 'authentic and genuine' offerings

Agritourists in general made reference to offerings which were related to the history and culture of the place (e.g. THA5(2)- a 'nostalgia seeker'). Yet, agritourists who were seeking for *'authenticity'* (THA2(1), focused their attention on a number of offerings/factors, which according to them, would have contributed towards an 'authentic and genuine experience'. These include amongst others, traditional buildings and hosting venues, traditional cuisine, locals and traditional occupations, endemic flora and fauna, customs and traditions. THA2(1) pointed out that in order to experience the genuine character of the country someone must stay in the island's province. This is because popular tourist resorts do not reflect the character of the place and everything is made to please those tourists who do not appreciate the culture of the place. In the countryside, as the guest basically said, the tourist is given the opportunity to try homemade wine, buy handmade crafts and experience unique customs. In addition, the tourist may also view stone built houses and Mediterranean surroundings. The same guest proceeded*: 'above all... the people here... they are so nice and hospitable. They smile and say 'kalimera' (good morning) to you, even without knowing you'.*

Indeed, while I was having a conversation with this guest, I realized that the rural areas differ significantly from urban areas. While driving through the streets of a well known resort, at one point I was actually searching for something, anything, which could betray that I was in 'Cyprus' and not in any other country. The buildings had nothing to do with the traditional local architecture, nor reflected the character of the place. The signs on shops and restaurants were in any other language other than the native tongue. Monuments which could have been associated with the destination were well hidden behind the large ant-aesthetical advertising signs. In opposition, the majority of the villages reflect the character of the destination through their traditional exterior architectural style. For instance, the contrast between the rural and the urban areas is clearly shown in pictures 209/210 Vs 213/214.

The fact that the countryside is poles apart from the island's beach resorts is without a shred of doubt. This is not only my observation, but also the belief of agritourists who visited both rural and urban areas (e.g. F41- 'authenticity seeker'). In the countryside, tourists may view Mediterranean surroundings and endemic fauna (e.g. picture 321 showing goats in the countryside). They may also view villages with traditional buildings and consume traditional food. They are also able to engage in conversations with locals, mostly involved in the primary sector just like their ancestors (e.g. farmers and shepherds). All these, according to those in search of the genuine character of the place contribute to an authentic experience. *'I came here cause I wanted to see real Cyprus... Here you can see the heart of Cyprus'* (THA1(1)- 'authenticity seeker'). While touring the countryside I also consumed those countryside offerings which could contribute to an 'authentic experience'. Those exact same offerings which agritourists associated with the destination and its culture. For instance, the traditional local architecture, Mediterranean nature, local delicacies, hospitality shown by locals (all discussed in previous sections), traditions and customs. Like other agritourists, while touring the island's countryside I experienced pleasant, obnoxious and shocking customs. During the summer period I witnessed some traditional weddings. The bride was accompanied by her family to the church with violins and 'laouta' (traditional music instruments). In spite of that, I happened to be a spectator of people dressed in black, moaning while escorting a departed to the memorial park.

Returning to the pleasant experiences, I attended a small Christmas celebration at a village whereby youngsters danced with their 'vrakes' (traditional cloths). On Epiphany eve (January) I witnessed locals throwing on house roofs traditional sausages for 'Kalikantzarous' (dark embodied human resembling creatures) to consume and return to the abyss. During the carnival weekend, I found hilarious the fact that even elderly people in certain villages ('Lemesos' district) were dressed in funny carnival costumes. The following Monday, the countryside was filled with locals consuming vegan food. The so called 'Green Monday' is a holiday which gives start to the long lent for God's pathos on earth. Finally, I have to admit that I really enjoyed the Easter games, in some villages, which amongst others involved donkey racing.

In view of the above, it is recommended, that a joined effort on behalf of the appropriate authorities and rural communities takes place, in order to keep/revive the old traditions and customs in the countryside. Furthermore, I have to agree with agritourists (e.g. THA2(1) on the fact that there is a need for further restorations to take place (e.g. cultural buildings and monuments). Moreover, individuals and entrepreneurs should avoid erecting buildings in the countryside which do not reflect the character of the place. Appropriate incentives should be given to the owners of those buildings that do not match with the surrounding environment in order to re-build/restore them. Ant-aesthetic signs, objects and items in traditional venues (e.g. plastic chairs) should be removed and replaced with traditional.

Discussion of the 'destination stage'

While expressing their dis/satisfaction feelings, agritourists paid emphasis on those aspects/factors which they were mostly interested in. Agritourists seem to focus on different aspects of their experience, which are found to be related to their main reason/occasion for countryside visitation. For instance 'gastronomic seekers' focus their attention on the food and beverage (and related services) offerings. Activity seekers (e.g. 'cyclists' and 'hard activity seekers') focus on the activity offerings and related services (e.g. trails, signs, maps, and leaflets). 'Authenticity seekers' pay particular attention to (e.g.) local practices, customs, traditions, authentic cuisine and traditional architecture. 'Spirituality seekers' focus their attention on the spirituality offerings of the destination (e.g. sacred places, religious books, conversations with spiritual people). 'Archaeology seekers', pay particular attention on the non-natural/artificial offerings of the destination, such as, ancient sites, historical buildings and related services.

While expressing her overall satisfaction feelings, TH1(3)-an 'archaeology seeker' pointed out that while at the destination, she visited several sites, she bought/read relevant books and engaged in conversations with experts. The guest felt that her experience exceeded her expectations since she learnt more about the destination's history (through experts) than she was expecting to. THA1(1)- an 'authenticity seeker' paid particular attention on the destination's 'authentic offerings' (e.g. local cuisine, traditional architecture and customs). The guest felt that she covered both her physiological and psychological needs and expectations. She consumed local food, viewed traditional structures and was hosted in a venue filled with traditional art crafts and objects. On top of that, she experienced some unexpected events (e.g. she was a spectator of a traditional wedding). Thus, this study reinforces what Parker and Mathews (2001) stressed. That the way tourists perceive satisfaction differs since their needs and expectations differ. Indeed, although (e.g.) 'bird watchers' and 'personal service seekers' fall under the umbrella term of 'agritourists', their needs and expectations differ. The former, pay particular attention on the natural environment offerings. The latter, emphasize on the provision of a more personal service by the host/hostess.

Researchers (e.g. Becker and Murrmann 1999; Kandampully 2000) suggest that tourist needs and expectations should be considered during the design of the tourism packages so that overall satisfaction is achieved. Similarly, the differing rural tourists' needs and expectations should be carefully considered by the rural destination.

Unlike previous studies, such as of Frochot (2005), sub-groups of agritourists have been pin-pointed through this study. These include amongst others, the 'authenticity seekers', 'flora seekers' and 'relaxers'. This was achieved through the notion/model of occasionality. Besides, researchers (Lashley 2000a; Lashley and Lincoln 2003; Upchurch and Lashley 2006) concur that 'occasions' assist the segmentation of customers based on the reason for visitation. Thus, destinations may become aware of which individuals make up the rural tourism market. For which specific occasions they visit the countryside, which are their needs and expectations. As well as, on which specific factors/aspects of the experience agritourists focus their attention. Therefore, rural destinations may design, shape, enhance and promote appropriately their offerings to address tourists who visit the countryside because of differing occasions. Researchers (e.g. Lashley and Taylor 1998; Lashley 2000a; Lashley and Lincoln 2003; Lee-Ross and Lashley 2009) note that guests visit a venue because of different occasions. On each of these occasions, the customer has different motives and expectations. It is the suggestion of Lashley and Rowson (2002) that these customer occasions and critical success factors are closely defined and delivered. An understanding of the critical success factors associated with different occasions is crucial for the delivery of such experiences that are in line with customer needs and perceptions. It is necessary to consider these factors for each of the group occasions and the differences between the groups.

That being mentioned, this study recognizes that tourists focus on the quality of different aspects of their countryside experience since the occasion for countryside visitation differs. Becker and Murrmann (1999) make reference to tourists who emphasize different quality aspects due to their differing needs and expectations. For instance, 'flora seekers' pay particular attention on the quality of the natural environment and related services (e.g. availability of different flora species, nature paths).

'Archaeology seekers' emphasize their attention on the quality of the artificial environment (e.g. availability and preservation of ancient/historical monuments). 'Soft/hard activity seekers', such as TH2(1) and THA7(1), focus their attention on the quality of the activities being offered in the countryside. 'Gastronomic seekers', such as THA5(1) and THA6(3), are particularly interested in the quality of the food and beverage countryside offerings.

Agritourists were found to focus on those specific qualities which were mostly interested in and would have contributed towards their personal contentment. *'I have to say that I'm not pleased with the food quality in some restaurants'* (THA6(3)-'gastronomic seeker'). *'It's so peaceful and relaxing here... so nice to spend some quality time with friends'* (THA6(2)-'relaxer'). *'One thing is for sure... the kind of service you get here you wouldn't find it even at...'* (THA1(2)- 'personal service seeker' mentioned a famous resort). THA1(2) (occasion: 'horse riding'), made reference to the quality of services being provided by the host (e.g. willingness of host/owner to escort them in their horse-riding tours). The quality of the non-natural environment offerings (e.g. ancient sites) and related services were found to influence the experiences of (e.g.) the 'archaeology' and 'authenticity seekers'. TH1(1)- an 'authenticity seeker', was pleased with the quality of the non-natural environment offerings of the destination (e.g. provision of traditional objects/items in venues). A 'nostalgic seeker' (THA5(2) while making reference to the old genuine objects, items and furniture said: *'A beautiful nostalgic experience which reminds the old times.'* F57- a 'nature seeker', stressed the qualities of staying in the countryside, in natural surroundings. Incidentally, there are agritourists (e.g. 'nature seekers') the satisfaction of who may be influenced mainly by the quality of the 'countryside capital'. This based on Garrod and Youell (2006) includes amongst others, the quality of air/water, landscape, forests, historical buildings and foods. The quality of this so called 'countryside capital' may influence positively or negatively the experiences of agritourists. Especially those agritourists who are particularly interested in aspects of it. THA7(2)- a 'flora seeker', expressed his enthusiasm with the variety of flora found in the countryside. Amongst others admitted: *'I'm completely satisfied with my experience here'...*'Akkamas' (region offered for flora studying) *is absolutely a paradise for people like us'*.

A 'walker' (THA6(1) added: *I'm having a Wonderful time!... The scenery is absolutely enchanting... There's no traffic in the streets... the leaflets* (referring to leaflets about walking paths) *that we found in the breakfast room were very helpful...'*. In opposition, the natural environment was found to influence negatively guests' experiences in the countryside.

Alike others (e.g. TH4(3), the poignant scenery and the smell from the burnt wood of a specific region contributed towards the creation of personal (ethnographer's) disheartening and depressing feelings. *'Its awful, I hate it...!'* said TH4(1) referring to the rather repulsive scenery. Bowie and Chang (2005) make reference to the aesthetical pleasing physical surroundings which may influence positively people's mental state. Based on the fieldwork findings, the aesthetical unattractive and repulsive physical surroundings may influence negatively people's mental state. That being established, it may be concluded that alike the outcome of other studies (e.g. Ekinci 2004; Tam 2004), quality does affect and acts as an antecedent of satisfaction. In fact quality (e.g. of the countryside capital) acts as an antecedent of agritourist satisfaction since it influences their satisfaction. This gives further weight to what Castro, Armario and Ruiz (2007) state, basically, that quality differs from satisfaction so it is not equivalent to it. The ethnographic findings coincide with the view of researchers which stress the importance of the quality notion in the tourism (Su 2004) and rural tourism (Saez, Fuentes and Montes 2007) fields. Nonetheless it should be stressed that agritourists give more importance to different aspects/factors of their experience, based on the occasion for countryside visitation. This should be taken into consideration by destinations so that the quality focus addresses all destination offerings and not certain, that is, if the destination aims to achieve overall agritourist satisfaction. The appropriate authorities in order to foster overall tourist satisfaction must understand the importance of those specific factors which are important for the success of the guest's visit. Researchers (e.g. Lashley and Lincoln 2003; Upchurch and Lashley 2006, Lee-Ross and Lashley 2009) suggest the understanding of the critical success factors associated with different occasions. The same person visiting the same place for different occasions will have a different set of critical success factors. This will assist the delivery of such experiences that are in line with customer needs and perceptions.

Indeed, negligence on behalf of the destination to focus on certain destination offerings (e.g. food and beverages), will adversely impact on the satisfaction of agritourists. Especially on the satisfaction of those who pay particular attention and value the most these specific offerings. In this case, those who visit the countryside for a gastronomic experience occasion, the 'gastronomic seekers'.

The destination may thus, (e.g.) introduce strict guidelines regarding food handling and preparation. It may also conduct training lessons/seminars, for offering traditional cuisine. Besides, there are venues (mainly THs) which offer both local and international cuisine. Yet, these are labeled as 'traditional'. It seems that the owners are aware of the fact that the majority of agritourists are not domestic. The findings betray a ratio of one local agritourist per nine international. Hence, owners seek to please the 'international market' by offering well-known to them dishes. This seems not to bother certain agritourists, such as THA1(2)- 'a horse rider', since the *'club sandwiches went down well'*. Even so, others (e.g. 'authenticity' and 'gastronomic seekers') expressed their discontentment with the *'Cyprinternational food'* (THA2(2)- 'authenticity seeker'). The appropriate authorities could introduce strict rules in order to ensure that the so called 'traditional' venues and taverns provide only authentic local dishes. Other restaurants (not labeled as 'traditional') may offer international dishes, thus cater for those not particularly interested in the local cuisine.

Furthermore, it is important that the destination protects/safeguards as much as possible its offerings (e.g. 'artificial and natural environment' offerings). More specifically, it may protect woods from fires and it may also preserve important historical buildings and monuments. Further to this, the appropriate bodies of the destination may introduce strict laws to prevent any kind of pollution. Researchers (e.g. Snepenger et al. 1998) agree that is essential to safeguard the attractiveness of the rural environment. Also, the local authorities and other governmental bodies must take into consideration the carrying capacity of each rural region and try to minimise as much as possible the negative impacts which are associated with over-development and mass tourism phenomena.

For this reason there is a need for careful planning by keeping in mind that rural communities exist, as Snepenger et al. (1998) state, to serve individuals rather than numbers. Relevant environmental scientific studies may be used for this reason. Canoves et al. (2004) recommend good planning to keep the number of tourists at manageable level in order not to exceed the carrying capacity of the destination. This (carrying capacity) 'refers to the ability of a site, resort, or a region to absorb tourism use without deteriorating' (Evans, Campbell and Stonehouse 2003, p.53). Researchers (e.g. Roberts and Hall 2001; Canoves et al. 2004) agree that the rural environment is particularly fragile and susceptible to damage due to tourist development. Others (e.g. Chen 2000; Kuo and Chiu 2006) state that negative impacts associated with tourism may include physical (e.g. waste) and visual pollution. Thus, any kind of pollution (e.g. land, water, air, noise and visual) must be avoided, if the destination seeks to please its rural guests. Lewis (1998a) emphasizes on the negative impacts which may increase if the carrying capacity of an area is exceeded. If that is the case, then the tourism activity may diminish and destroy the characteristics (e.g. fauna and flora) that originally attracted the rural tourists to the countryside in the first place. Besides, based on the results of this study, the pollution and deterioration of the natural environment may adversely impact on the satisfaction of specific agritourists such as for instance the 'nature seekers' (as has been mentioned/discussed in the preceding discourse). Sharpley (1996; 2000a) suggests that the challenges (e.g. pollution and mass tourism) which the countryside is facing can be effectively addressed if stakeholders apply new ways of thinking and doing, based on sustainable principles. Therefore, the stakeholders of the destination (e.g. official bodies, hosts and entrepreneurs) must understand the importance of protecting the natural and other offerings of the destination (e.g. sites and traditions) if they aim for sustainable rural tourism development. In fact, the destination may enhance/enrich its offerings through the plantation of endemic trees, the organization of festivals and by turning historical buildings into places of interest. This will certainly please those who visit the countryside in search of 'authenticity' and nature studying. Researchers (e.g. Garrod, Youell and Wornell 2004; Garrod and Youell 2006) emphasize on the importance of preserving and protecting the countryside capital (e.g. landscape, historical buildings, local foods and traditions), if tourism is to continue to make a positive contribution to sustainable rural development.

The destination may also stimulate (with careful planning) the economic growth of the remote areas. For instance, it may open and run renting shops with activity equipment through the provision of attractive incentives and benefits for entrepreneurs. Cycling, walking and horse-riding paths and routes may be created, or enriched (e.g. with signs) in order to address those who visit the countryside mainly to engage in certain activities, such as cycling, walking, trekking, horse riding, skiing, snowboarding, scuba diving, mountain/rock climbing.

Be that as it may, the 'personal attention/hospitality offering' should be given particular attention. This is because agritourists in general, regardless of their occasion for countryside visitation, commented on their hospitable countryside experiences. Hospitableness shown by generous hosts/staff at particular venues, pleasantly surprised and led towards agritourist satisfaction. Guest M11-'a walker' expressed his satisfactory experience in the countryside. The guest stressed those interesting walks in the woods and the unexpected hospitality shown by the hosts (venue THA10). Relevant in this case is Balmer's and Baum's (1993) application of Herzberg's theory to guest dis/satisfaction. They note as factors causing satisfaction, the courteous and ever smiling staff. Factors causing dissatisfaction are the basic elements, such as, cleanliness. Otherwise referred by Lashley (2000a), as those minimum customer expectations. Indeed, there were cases whereby agritourists expressed their dissatisfaction while making reference to their basic needs/expectations not being met. TH5(1) while making reference to the room's dirtiness: *'Have you noticed the ants in the rooms (?) They look as if they are parading every night. I can't believe I've paid so much to stay in such a dirty place...'*. In this case the 'dirty room/venue' did not assist the guest to meet his lower/basic needs and expectations of a clean (ant-free) room. Even so, this does not imply that the result of not covering the basic needs/expectations of agritourists in a venue is necessarily overall dissatisfaction with the countryside experience. Although THA4(1)- an 'archaeology seeker', made reference to a not very clean hosting venue, he remained satisfied with his overall countryside experience. However, the guest mentioned that he 'covered' his main reason for a countryside visitation by (e.g.) visiting archaeological and other ancient sites. Additionally, he stressed the hospitality shown by the approachable host and some other locals.

In opposition, others felt that they did not satisfy their main reason/occasion for countryside visitation, as they were expecting to do so. Thus they remained dissatisfied with their experience. F46 (a 'cyclist') felt that she did not satisfy her primary reason for visiting the rural areas. The guest amongst others made reference to unpleasant feelings (e.g.) of anxiety while cycling (due to inconsiderate drivers). M2 ('fauna seeker') was dissatisfied with the fact that he did not notice any reptiles in the countryside, as he was expecting to. It seems that those factors which are important for the success of the agritourist's visit are absent. In the case of M2, the destination failed to offer those factors (e.g. specific fauna-'reptiles') which the guest was mainly interested in.

The destination did not/failed to provide those factors which the guest valued the most, and originally expected from the destination. This resulted towards guest dissatisfaction. That being mentioned based on Herzberg's theory an absence of those factors which cause satisfaction results in non-satisfaction and not dissatisfaction. Indeed, there were cases in which agritourists were not satisfied with their experience, yet, dissatisfaction seemed absent. M16 (a 'hard activity seeker'-climber) could not reveal whether he was satisfied or not with his experience. In this case, there is no evidence to suggest that the guest experienced anything beyond his pre-travel expectations, such as, an extremely challenging rock to climb, or perhaps 'hospitableness'. TH4(3)- 'a cyclist' also divulged an absence of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The guest managed to satisfy his personal needs/expectations (e.g. food, shelter and engage in a cycling experience). Yet, the guest did not make reference to anything which was not anticipated, or any unexpected incidences which would have perhaps contributed towards his contentment. This made the particular guest conclude with: *'I can't say that I am satisfied. I can't also say that I am dissatisfied'*. In this regard, the agritourist market (as discussed in the pre-travel section) seems to be made up by individuals that know what they seek and expect from a countryside experience. It appears to be a well informed market. They were informed during the pre-travel stage from various sources of information. The majority of these have been informed by browsing the websites of the venues and official organisations. Nearly all those between the ages of 18-29 have been informed about the hosting venues through the internet.

These websites included information about the venues and the destination. Other sources include personal past experiences and recommendations from others (e.g. friends). It seems that their pre-travel expectations do not only include 'basic/low' but also 'upper/high' expectations which are involved with psychological, intangible aspects related to their upcoming experience. Besides, as discussed in the preceding discourse, agritourists' responses betray a quest for satisfying their individual upper/psychological needs. These needs and expectations are expressed by agritourists in general and not just by a specific few (e.g. 'spirituality seekers'). 'Gastronomic seekers' (e.g. F39) expressed an array of needs and expectations which included from lower (e.g. a clean venue to stay) to higher (e.g. delivery of gastronomic lessons by hosts or culinary experts). 'Cyclists' (e.g. M43), not only expect a clean, safe venue to stay and food to consume.

On top of that, they expect to find (while at the destination), designated cycling routes and information desks equipped with knowledgeable personnel. Thus, agritourists seem to take for granted not only some 'tangible' features but also 'intangible' aspects of their experience. As a result of this, they are not surprised if these are offered by the destination since they take them for granted. Hence, although they cover both physiological and psychological needs, they do not seem to be satisfied with their experience. This is because they have not experienced the unexpected (e.g. M3 was neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, unlike M11 who remained satisfied with his experience). Balmer and Baum (1993) agree that guest needs and wants have increased and what was considered a luxury before, it is now taken for granted. Clarke et al. (2001) make reference to an increasingly sophisticated tourist. McCabe (2009) argues that new customers in the hospitality and tourism field are becoming more experienced, with higher expectations. That being established, the destination is faced with the challenging task of addressing the needs and expectations from an: 'I know what I want and expect' agritourist. Despite that, there is the need of further investigation to examine whether this growth/rise of needs and expectations is a characteristic only of the 'European agritourist'. Besides, as presented in the methodology section, agritourists were found to share a European background.

Even so, the destination must take into consideration the differing occasions for countryside visitation. The acknowledgement of these will assist the identification of those factors which are critical for the success of the agritourist visit. Those destination offerings which guests emphasize their attention, while at the rural setting. The destination must shelter, enrich and enhance as much as possible the quality of all offerings which its guests value, if it aims for overall guest satisfaction. In addition, the destination should seek to find ways to offer to its guests the unexpected, or what is least expected in order to achieve guest satisfaction and not simply an absence of satisfaction. The offering of a 'personal or hospitable experience' should be given particular weight. This is because agritourists in general commented about this, while most of them were pleasantly surprised by it. Hence, the importance of providers (e.g. hosts) in the agritourist satisfaction process is highlighted, as it has been stressed by researchers in the tourism (e.g. Heo, Jogaratnam and Buchanan 2004) and rural tourism field (e.g. Fleischer et al. 1994).

Like guest TH2(2), I left TH2 while being discontent with the service provision by the employees there. They seemed de-motivated and did not know, neither they were able to suggest places of interest. On top of that, one of them was extremely rude. This seems to be in accord with what others stress (e.g. Bitner et al. 1990; Arnould Price and Zinkhan 2004): that the employees who dissatisfy customers are often under trained and/or have low levels of motivation. Although the lack of knowledge did bother me, I cannot stress how much negatively my experience (at the specific venue) was influenced from the employee's rude attitude. The employee's rudeness resulted in personal emotions of anger, sadness, disappointment and slight depression. My understanding while booking the venues was to receive a more personal service and enjoy a hospitable experience. This was based on what I perceived at that time to be a logic assumption/equation: Small number of guests means/equals to enhanced attention, better service and hospitality. Yet, in the particular venue, I was proven wrong. Both mine, as well as TH2(2) experiences were influenced negatively, mainly, from our interaction with inhospitable people. In opposition, both mine and others' experiences (e.g. THA3(3) were influenced positively from our interaction with polite and hospitable people.

Researchers (e.g. Fleischer et al. 1994; Reichel and Haber 2005) emphasize the importance of the guest and host relationship. Lashley (2008) stresses the importance of the emotional dimensions of the relationship between the guest and the host. Similarly Chatzigeorgiou et al. (2009) highlight the significance of positive emotions in the 'agrotourism' field. The findings of this study stress the significance of the relationship between the host and guest, as well as, the positive emotions being created through this interaction. The exact words of THA3(2) are quoted: *'Mrs. xxx is amazing. She is such an adorable person... We all feel like she is part of our family. Actually, she makes us feel like we are part of her family. Don't you get that same feeling?* The hostess' attitude towards this specific guest embraced genuine hospitable feelings, which made the guest feel as if she was a member of the hostess' family. The guest's words are noteworthy, since she communicates a stronger bond than the one between a guest and a host. Instead, she describes the bond as a relationship between two family members. The strong emotional bonds created between the guest and the host resulted in the guest expressing overall satisfaction feelings. Most importantly, the same guest proceeds by expressing a revisit intention to the same venue. M37 also made reference to an *'unforgettable* (meal in this case) *experience'* offered by the owner of a petite restaurant. Of note is the fact that the guest mentions a particular meal experience. This was the result of the emotional bond being created between the guest and priest/owner of a very small 'restaurant' in a remote village.

This gives further weight to the outcome of the study of Lashley, Morrison and Randall (2005): that special/most memorable meal occasions are likely to be created when emotional bonds are generated between guests and hosts. Hence, the significance of 'genuine hospitable experiences' is being stressed even further. References, such as *'genuine feelings', 'true interest'* and *'authentic hospitality'* were expressed by agritourists who visited venues (e.g.) taverns and places located particularly in remote villages/areas. *'Above all... the people here... they are so nice and hospitable. They smile and say 'kalimera' (good morning) to you, even without knowing you'* (THA2(1). The ethnographer's personal experiences also support this.

Apparently it seems that the traditional values of hospitality remain in these remote villages. This appears to pleasantly surprise and subsequently please those visitors coming from societies in which such hospitality may be less to the fore in everyday life. Lashley (2008) clearly states that many industrialized societies have no longer strong obligations to offer hospitality to strangers. And in this case, it is a fact (as presented in the methodology section) that the vast majority of agritourists originate from developed and industrialized societies (e.g. countries of the west-northern Europe).

The same statement of Lashley may also explain the fact that *'authentic hospitality'* is offered in remote villages/areas which have escaped industrialization and have not (yet), modified their offerings. They seem to be in direct opposition to other areas which have. *'The tourist tailor made Cyprus'* (TH1(1)- referring to the tourist industrialised south-eastern regions of the island. *'Here's (guest referring to the countryside) real Cyprus, real Cypriot hospitality* (THA1(1). Lane (1994) differentiates the rural from urban areas as those which have not lost their social values and have kept their traditional social structures. Guests (e.g. THA5(3) highlight the hospitableness shown by hosts of countryside venues, such as, the host's desire to please the guest. *'Mr. xxx cooks delicious food for us, takes as for grape or carob picking* (THA5(3).

In this specific case it should be noted that the host did not mention these activities in the promotional booklet of the 'Agritourist Company'. These activities would not have been, or would have been least expected by the guest. The host did not proceed into these activities because 'he had to do so' (because it was mentioned in the promotional booklet). Instead, his actions reveal an unconditional affection and willingness to please his guests. Even so, the conclusion 'genuine/authentic hospitality is offered at a traditional venue' cannot be reached, simply because a particular venue may not offer a hospitable experience to its guests. Furthermore, the personal experiences of the ethnographer support the fact that there are hosts/hostesses which are more hospitable than others. For instance, there were incidences (e.g. in TH2) in which both I, and other agritourists, received an unfriendly/hostile attitude or better, an inhospitable treatment. Even so, those personal ethnographer's strong feelings of 'truly being hosted' rather than 'being offered a shelter' were generated in THAs rather than THs.

Expressions of similar feelings were also expressed by those guests who stayed in THAs. *'Mrs. xxx with her husband treat their customers as if they are their personal friends'* (THA3(1). Only one TH appears to be an exception and this is because the hosts were hospitable and happened to interact with their guests (*'xxx is adorable. I love the way she...'* TH5(2). The fact that hosts (mainly of THAs) offered themselves food to their guests, pleasantly surprised me and other guests (e.g. THA5(1). In opposition there were THs (e.g. TH2) in which I did not see the hosts during my stay there. The limited or almost non-existent interaction between the guest and host/hostess may well explain the reasoning behind guests not making references to hospitable experiences. Despite that, no conclusions, such as: 'THAs are more hospitable than THs' can be reached. This is because there were after all THAs, for which their guests did not make any comments that could reveal a hospitable experience/treat. Similarly, I did not experience the same hospitable feeling in THA1 as I did in TH5. However, of note is the fact that all the repeaters, happened to be guests who were staying in THAs and not THs. These commented and stressed on the host/hostesses' hospitableness.

In fact, references regarding 'hospitableness' emerged from those who interacted with hosts/people who shared strong personal and cultural hospitality values (e.g. hostess of THA3). My personal experiences as ethnographer also support this. Incidentally, Lashley (2000b) makes reference to the domestic/private domain of his afore-discussed model on hospitality as those obligations which are learnt by individuals in their home settings. The socio-cultural domain covers the obligations of the various societies to be hospitable. The commercial domain is concerned with the industrialization of hospitality. '*Genuine*' hospitality was received by agritourists from hosts who offered generously and naturally their benevolence. That is not because the hosts practiced their 'hospitality skills' for commercial reasons, but because they (hosts) have learnt it from both their homes and the 'micro-society' in which they were brought up in. Based on the ethnographic fieldwork findings, hospitableness was offered in remote regions/villages. Areas which apparently have managed to keep their traditional socio-cultural hospitality values. M37 (an 'authenticity seeker') made reference to an *'unforgettable experience'*. This was the result of the overwhelming hospitality showed by a humble priest who *'has no interaction with the outside world'*.

Thus, the importance of 'hospitableness' in the guest satisfaction process is being highlighted. Hosts (and others) should acknowledge the fact that they are dealing with guests and if possible, friends rather than customers. They should strive to offer to their guests a true hospitable experience. This hospitable experience is the result of the provider's genuine attitude towards the guest. An attitude which embraces authentic hospitable feelings and actions accompanied by unconditional affection.

The suggestion of Lashley (2008) is embraced. He suggests a 'culture of hospitality' (p.21) whereby, amongst others, the stranger is treated as a guest and a potential friend. For this to occur, hosts, owners and employees must practice qualities of hospitableness, such as, friendliness, benevolence, compassion and the desire to please, entertain and help those in need. Even so, the findings related to 'hospitableness' open further avenues of future research. For instance, future studies may want to look at the possibility of whether those tourists coming from less industrialised societies value the same 'hospitableness' as those originating from developed countries.

Despite that, the consumption cost of the destination's offerings, is to be given the appropriate attention by authorities, entrepreneurs and hosts. This is because the cost of these offerings may emerge personal comparison/evaluative thoughts of what has been received compared to what has been given in return. Evaluative thoughts may lead the guest to conclude that he/she overpaid for something. Indeed, agritourists made comments which revealed such comparison thoughts, while describing their dis/satisfaction feelings. These were cases in which they reached the conclusion that they had overpaid/paid very little for something and/or occurrences which they perceived as very un/pleasant. THA6(1) expressed his displeasure regarding the venue's rate which was set at a very high rate, compared to what it had to offer. THA2(2) expressed his discontentment with reference to the expensive food being offered at the particular hosting venue. M28 pointed out that he had overpaid for an entrance fee at a museum (always compared to what it had to offer). This conclusion also rests on the ethnographer's personal experiences in the countryside. For example, I did make comparison thoughts (of what I received compared to what I paid for) after having overpaid for a meal at TH2.

Yet, this should not lead towards the false conclusion that these comparison thoughts always lead to discontentment. Alike the experiences of others (e.g. of F39), even though I did overpay for a meal at a particular tavern, it did not bother me. This was because the quality of the food there was very good and the quantity was more than the average being served at other similar places. Unlike other taverns, it offered traditional coffee and sweets free of charge. Even so, an 'evaluation' of what was paid (on my behalf) compared to what was received in return, did take place. This was stimulated by the price factor (once I received the bill). Comparison thoughts of what is received, in return to what is given/sacrificed, also seem to emerge once the experiences are perceived by the individual to be very un/pleasant. For instance, the thought **'it was worth it'** crossed my mind after having driven for several hours in the countryside to find a mountainous monastery. There, I had a pleasantly shocking experience which involved satisfactory feelings. In this particular case, the first 'it' involved those astonishing feelings felt at that specific place, being the outcome of the consumption of the destination offerings. The latter 'it' involved a combination of personal investments undertaken (e.g. monetary, physical and psychological).

Essentially this giving-receiving comparison is not a new-fangled concept. Researchers (e.g. Zeithaml 1988; McDougall and Levesque 2000) conceive this comparison as having an influence over the perceived value which a person has of something. Academics, such as Gallarza and Saura (2006) argue that quality affects perceived value. Others (e.g. Chen and Tsai 2006) proceed by adding that perceived value affects satisfaction. Indeed, the way agritourists perceive the value of their experience to be, is of the utmost importance for the destination. It is after all of the destination's interest for those tourists' evaluation thoughts, to lean favorably towards the tourist's 'receiving' rather than the 'giving' side. This will result in the avoidance of any unfavorable influences on satisfaction achievement, such as, the tourist concluding that the experience, which involved the consumption of offerings was unworthy of those personal (e.g. monetary) investments undertaken.

Hence, the destination as a whole should try to minimize all investments (monetary, physiological and psychological) undertaken by agritourists, as much as possible. At the same time, it should strive to add value to the 'receiving' side of the agritourist. This could be done by enriching the quality of all destination offerings in an endeavor to cover the physiological and psychological needs and expectations of its guests, and to offer what is not, or least expected.

In spite of that, based on the ethnographic findings, there are external factors, beyond the control of the destination, which may interfere in the process of achieving guest satisfaction. For example, the quality of air which was altered by the dust (brought from the desert). This resulted towards the discontentment of an agritourist. Furthermore, the dry and hot summer which influenced negatively the experience of a 'flora seeker' (M30). The guest stressed that he was overall '*extremely disappointed*' with the flora availability for examination purposes. In both cases, the quality of the so called countryside capital (air and flora in this case) was unfavorably impacted from non-human related factors. Further to these climatic related occurrences, other factors which are beyond the control of the destination, are, the weather conditions. These may also influence the satisfaction of agritourists. F6-a 'soft-activity (ski) seeker' said that she was leaving the island while being dissatisfied with the snow conditions found on the high attitudes (in early February). The weather conditions did not allow the activity to take place due to very low snow precipitation.

In addition, the region which the agritourist chooses to stay may influence his/her satisfaction. A particular region may have dissimilar offerings from another region (e.g. availability of interesting places). There is the possibility of a certain area/region not offering those specific (e.g. natural) offerings which the agritourist may be mostly interested in. Thus, the destination/hosts must inform correctly and accurately their potential guests about the offerings which can be found in specific areas, as well as to what weather conditions are expected during each season (e.g. average rainy days and temperatures). This will give the opportunity to the guest to choose the appropriate for him/her season to visit the destination, as well as, the choice to decide upon the most suitable for him/her area and hosting venue.

This information may be provided through the official websites of the destination's organizations and hosting venues. Besides, the majority of agritourists (nearly 70%) are informed about the hosting venue (and surrounding area) either through the venues' websites, or, through the destination's official websites. The provision of detailed, truthful and accurate information during the pre-travel stage will furthermore adjust/mould the tourist's expectations. In terms of the tourist, not forming/having unrealistic expectations which may adversely impact on his/her satisfaction. TH4(1) was expecting (based on the venue's website) greenery and woods surrounding the hosting venue. Instead, he found a venue in the middle of a burnt forest.

However, it is highly likely that the provision of such information may not favor, or, negatively impact on specific (e.g.) regions which may lack certain destination offerings (e.g. activities), compared to others. Agritourists may choose not to be accommodated in these particular areas/venues. For instance there are venues which are located much closer to the country's ski resort ('Olympos' area) compared to others which are situated in the eastern part of the island. Most likely, an 'activity (ski) seeker' will choose to stay in a venue close, and not too far from the slopes. In fact, such agritourists were found close to that specific area. The appropriate authorities must not neglect the 'unprivileged' areas. Instead, they should try to enrich their offerings, as much as possible. They may encourage other activities (e.g. cycling). They could also encourage and promote a tranquil and relaxing experience.

Although these areas may still not be able to attract certain agritourists (e.g. for ski/snowboard occasions) they will certainly allure others, such as the domestic tourist who may use these venues as 'weekend escape getaways'. Yet, venue owners should be aware of the conflicting occasions, needs and expectations of agritourists. Upchurch and Lashley (2006) note that in some cases customers' critical success factors for one occasion are in conflict with those customers which visit for other occasions. In this case, if a venue chooses to promote tranquility, hence pull certain agritourists (e.g. 'relaxers') it must be cautious not to target others which may use the venue for other contrasting reasons such as a 'celebrating party' occasion.

In conclusion, emphasis is added on the fact that agritourist satisfaction achievement is not only the result of the strategies: adjustment of expectations and/or raising the level of service quality, as suggested by Reichel, Lowengart and Milman (2000). Both strategies are indeed necessary and useful. However, such conclusion does not seem to take into consideration these factors: Firstly, the personal investments (e.g. monetary) undertaken by the guest, in return to the experience offered. Secondly, external factors beyond the control of the destination (e.g. weather conditions) which may impact on the satisfaction of agritourists. Thirdly, it concentrates on the quality of 'service' and not on all 'destination offerings'. It does not therefore acknowledge the existence of tourists who visit the countryside due to differing occasions who concentrate on different factors. Finally, it does not acknowledge the importance of the 'unexpected' element in the guest satisfaction process. Instead, the destination must focus its attention on all and not certain destination offerings. Addressing thus, the differing lower (physiological) and higher (psychological) needs and expectations of differing agritourist occasions. Besides, not all agritourists visit the countryside because they 'seek for authenticity'.

The acknowledgement of these differing occasions will lead to the identification of those specific factors which are important for the success of the guest's visit. Even so, there is the possibility of external impacts interfering in the process of achieving guest satisfaction. These are beyond the destination's control (e.g. severe weather conditions). If possible, tourists should be informed about the possibility of these before the trip takes place. In fact, tourist expectations should be adjusted through the provision of accurate, truthful and detailed information during the pre-travel stage, avoiding thus, any unpleasant reality shocks which may adversely impact on the guest's satisfaction. Despite that, the destination should take into consideration all investments undertaken by the agritourist for the consumption of the destination offerings. These should not be ignored on the basis that they may frustrate satisfaction achievement. This is because the guest may conclude that the experience was unworthy of all those being sacrificed (e.g. money, time and effort). The destination should strive to minimize the monetary, physiological and psychological investments of agritourists, as much as possible.

All the same, the provision of offerings which could pleasantly surprise the guest, may add value to the agritourist experience, thus foster guest satisfaction. In fact, the 'I know what I want And expect' agritourist may be addressed. This can be achieved through the notion of 'you think you know what you want, so, you won't be expecting it'. Unexpected offerings, such as 'hospitableness', may add value to the tourist's experience. In terms of the 'pleasantly surprised', satisfied tourist to conclude that 'it was worth' paying a visit to the particular venue, site or destination.

Chapter 7: Theme: 'Meta-travel stage' (fieldwork findings)

This chapter/theme presents those findings which are associated with agritourists' post-travel stage. Basically, the future behavioural intentions of agritourists following their experience at the rural destination. The findings have been derived through informal interviews and casual conversations with agritourists. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the fieldwork findings.

Agritourists expressed their future intentions which will follow their countryside experience. These contributed towards the formation of four broad clusters of tourists' intentions. The four categories cover those agritourists who intend to return and stay in the countryside, as well as spread a positive WOM (Word Of Mouth). Secondly, those who do not intend to return, yet, will spread a positive WOM. Thirdly, those who are not planning to return to stay, but, intend to spread a positive and negative WOM. Finally, those agritourists who neither will return to stay, nor, will spread a positive WOM. Although around 70% of the agritourists expressed overall satisfaction feelings, only 30% indicated the intention to return. Less than 10% expressed the intention to return to the exact same hosting venue. Those who articulated overall dissatisfaction feelings indicated the intention not to return and stay in the countryside. All those who neither remained satisfied nor dissatisfied with their experience, also expressed no revisit intentions. Despite that, those who expressed revisit intentions communicated beforehand overall satisfaction feelings with their countryside experience. Domestic agritourists who remained satisfied, expressed revisit intentions. In opposition, only 25% of the international agritourists who remained satisfied expressed revisit intentions. Of note are the linkages which have been found between the different age groups and the intention to return. Around 30% of those satisfied (ages) 18-29, articulated the intention to return to the rural setting. This percentage increases approximately to 40% for those satisfied agritourists (ages) 30-49. This increases even more, to around 70% for those above 50 years old. However, this study cannot support any further linkages (e.g. between different origins and future behavioural intentions). In fact, further research is recommended to support the above results and to establish more associations.

Agritourists who have no revisit intentions (will spread a positive WOM)

The largest category consists of those agritourists (40%) who expressed the intention to spread a positive WOM about their overall countryside experience. Nonetheless they do not intend to return to stay at the rural destination. Agritourists who could not express whether they remained satisfied or dissatisfied with their experience are found to be part of this category. M16 ('Hard-sport activity seeker') said that he is willing to recommend the destination to family and friends. Yet, he has no intentions to return to it. Despite that, this category also includes agritourists who remained satisfied with their overall experience, such as, THA2(2). Even though TH1(3)- an 'archaeology seeker' expressed her satisfaction with her overall experience. She specifically stated: *'to be honest with you I don't think I'll come back again...* Having said that, the guest instantly with a rapid move bent her hand, aimed her palm towards my direction as if she sought a discontinuation of my thoughts and proceeded with the following words: *...don't get me wrong, I really enjoyed my time here. But there're so many other archaeological places in the world that interest me and I do want to visit them... I still haven't been to Egypt, Turkey, Jordan, Mexico...'.* Similarly M58- a 'bird watcher' basically said that he probably wouldn't return to the Cypriot countryside due to the variety of other destinations.

However, as the same guest indicated, that would not stop him from recommending the particular destination to others, such as, friends and colleagues he will come in contact with, upon return to his place of residence. Similarly, guest TH1(1)- an 'authenticity seeker' pointed out that he was leaving the island with a *'pleasant experience'*. He would like to keep it like that, wishing not to *'spoil'* it with perhaps other visits. Besides that, the guest made reference to other worldwide destinations. These are the two main reasons that the guest wouldn't return to the destination. Another guest (THA7(1) said: *'So many destinations, so little time and money!'*.

Agritourists who have revisit intentions (will spread a positive WOM)

Approximately 30% of agritourists expressed the intention to return to the countryside (in the same or, another hosting venue) in the short or the long-term. These agritourists articulated beforehand overall satisfaction feelings in regards to their rural experience. These agritourists, communicated positive intense feelings which were caused by pleasant surprises and unexpected occurrences. TH5(2) 'an entomologist' said that he was both surprised and pleased with the variety and definitely unexpected several insects found during his stay in the countryside. Therefore, he was intending to return for more days in the future to complete his study. M20, a 'spirituality seeker' basically said that the reasoning behind his intention to return to the countryside is the fact that his experience exceeded his expectations. The particular guest remained '*absolutely delighted*' with his experience. There were agritourists who articulated intentions to stay again in the same hosting venue. The exact words of TH3(1) a 'relaxer' are quoted: '*I don't see any reason why not to come back again...*' Similarly, THA3(2), a 'personal attention seeker' expressed the intention to return to the exact same venue. In fact, agritourists who sought for a more 'personal attention/hospitality' and remained satisfied, expressed the intention to return to the same hosting venue. '*We'll definitely return*' (THA5(3)- 'personal service/attention seeker'). Even so, agritourists who expressed their intention to return to the countryside, indicated clearly their intentions to share their pleasant experiences with others, (e.g.) friends, family, relatives and colleagues.

THA3(1) mentioned that what he saw on the venue's website in regards to the hosts, was all true. Based on what the guest said, the website mentioned that Mrs. xxx with her husband treat their guests as if they are their personal friends. As the guest (THA3(1)) proceeded, he would not neglect to tell his friends about the kindness of the hostess. Another guest (THA3(2), said the following regarding the same hostess (of THA3): '*...Once again* (guest and family were repeaters) *we are having a wonderful time...*' '*...Hopefully we'll come back again...hm... probably in two-three years time lets say. I'll miss Mrs. xxx.... I've told all my friends about her. My sister wants to meet her, so she's organizing a trip here with her family probably next year...*'

Agritourists that have no revisit intentions (will spread a positive and negative WOM)

Around 20% of agritourists pointed out that they do not intend to return to stay in the countryside. They also stressed that they would share with others, both their pleasant as well as unpleasant experiences. Apparently, from what they said, they would not overlook those experiences that did not please them, or perhaps annoyed them while at the rural destination. Agritourists who did not articulate satisfaction or dissatisfaction feelings are found to be part of this group. Even so, there are also satisfied agritourists who expressed such intentions. Although THA4(1) an 'archaeology' seeker, remained satisfied with his countryside experience, said that he was not intending to return. Yet, the guest pointed out that he would have definitely suggested to colleagues to visit the island, since it has several interesting and worth visiting ancient sites. At the same time he would have advised them to look at the possibility of staying in another venue. According to the guest, the rooms in the venue he was staying were not very clean and the building was in need of renovation.

Similarly, TH2(2)- an 'authenticity seeker' remained content with her experience. However, she stated that her future plans do not include another visit to the island. The guest additionally mentioned that she would suggest to friends to visit and stay in the countryside. Yet, she would recommend to families to stay in venues closer to the beach since '*kids can easily get bored in small villages'*. Finally, there were cases (e.g. F10) who although remained dissatisfied with their experience, expressed the intention to share with others some pleasant occurrences/events they had in the countryside.

Agritourists that have no revisit intentions (will spread a negative WOM)

Around 10% of those who visited the island's rural areas expressed the intention not to return to the countryside. These also said that they would mention their unpleasant experiences to others. All those with no revisit intentions, remained dissatisfied with their overall rural experience. F51- 'a novel seeker' which was driven to the countryside mainly because she was seeking to experience something different and 'new', remained dissatisfied with her experience. The guest explained/justified her dissatisfaction feelings on various factors, such as, the fact that she did not like the venue she was staying in (e.g. not clean enough) and that she was bored (not much to do in the venue's surrounding area).

In addition, the fact that there were not any close-by to the venue restaurants. The guest's intentions would not include any recommendations for this type of holidays, in the countryside in traditional venues. Instead, she would suggest a nice beach resort with all necessary facilities, several restaurants and bars to choose from. For those wanting to see the countryside, the guest would have suggested to '*drive and spend the day there and return to the hotel*'. TH4(1) a 'hard activity' seeker, expressed no revisit intentions. In addition to this, he stated that he would recommend to others to visit other destinations, with more challenging rocks and perhaps more facilities and conveniences available for mountain/rock climbing.

Discussion of 'the meta-travel stage'

Approximately 30% of the agritourists indicated their intention to return to the countryside. The majority (around 70%) expressed no such intentions. This clearly reveals the unwillingness of agritourists to revisit and stay again in the countryside. This contributes to the discussion of the low occupancy rates which the sector is facing in rural Cyprus (Sharpley 2002). Even so, additional research is strongly suggested to fully establish why the sector is faced with low occupancy rates. That being established, of note is the unwillingness of even satisfied agritourists for a revisit. More specifically, half of those who expressed satisfaction feelings, in regards to their countryside experience, did not express revisit intentions. These findings seem to concur with other studies (e.g. Oppermann 1999; Solomon 2002; Yu and Goulden 2006) who note the unlikelihood of even satisfied tourists to visit the same destination, due to various constraints/reasons. Constrains, such as limited time and cost, may perhaps explain the stronger link between the domestic agritourists and the intention to return, than of that of the overseas travellers. All satisfied domestic agritourists expressed a revisit intention. Yet, only 25% of the international satisfied agritourists expressed such intentions.

Researchers (e.g. Lee, Lee and Lee 2005) note that tourists may be more interested in experiencing new destinations rather than visiting the same place. TH1(3)- an 'archaeology seeker' although expressed her satisfaction with her overall experience, indicated clearly her intention not to return to it. The guest mentioned that this is because of other destinations (e.g. Egypt and Mexico) which offer archaeological sites. In fact, revisit intentions are particularly expressed by the more matured, rather than the younger agritourist. *So many destinations, so little time and money'* said THA7(1) falling in the age group of 18-29. Even so, further research which may perhaps include a larger number of respondents is needed to support the above links and allow further links to be made, such as, different sub-groups and behavioural intentions.

Despite that, only half of those satisfied agritourists expressed revisit intentions (either in the long or short term). This challenges the belief that satisfaction acts as an important predictor of revisit intention (Bigne, Sanchez and Sanchez 2001; Petrick and Backman 2002b) if assumed that satisfied tourists have such intentions. Yet, this should not lead towards the conclusion that agritourist satisfaction achievement is not important since it does not guarantee a revisit intention.

Quite the contrary; achieving guest satisfaction may be regarded as extremely important for the rural destination. This is based on the fact that nearly half of those agritourists, who remained satisfied, expressed revisit intentions. In addition, all those who articulated satisfaction feelings, indicated their intention to share their pleasant countryside experiences with others (e.g. friends and colleagues). This provides for the rural destination, a non-chargeable and reliable mode of publicity. In fact, all satisfied agritourists may be regarded as 'loyal' to the rural destination with all associated positive impacts these may carry. Besides, a number of researchers (e.g. Oppermann 2000; Bigne, Sanchez and Sanchez 2001; Homburg and Giering 2001; Cai, Wu and Bai 2003; Yoon and Uysal 2005) agree that tourist loyalty expressions embrace positive behavioural intentions. For instance, the revisit intentions and/or recommendations to others.

Therefore, this study supports the cause and effect relationship of satisfaction with loyalty, as has been highlighted by others (e.g. Fuchs and Weiermair 2004; Tam 2004; Rodriguez del Bosque, San Martin and Collado 2006). Hence, this study stresses the positive consequences on the destination resulting from satisfied tourists. The importance of achieving guest satisfaction is further stressed through the behavioural intentions of those that the destination failed to satisfy (yet, did not displease). These agritourists, although indicated that they would spread a positive WOM, they did not express revisit intentions. Also, they said that they would share with others (they will come in contact with) their negative experiences. Needless to add the negative impacts associated with all those agritourists who remained dissatisfied. These, not only expressed no revisit intentions, but also said that they would discourage others to visit and stay at the rural destination.

Even so, the fieldwork findings acknowledge the role of unexpected incidences/very pleasant occurrences which may foster both guest satisfaction and positive behavioural intentions. For instance, M20 a 'spirituality seeker' expressed in excitement that he was '*absolutely delighted*' with his experience. At the same time revealed his intention to return. This outcome reinforces the statement made by researchers, such as, Torres and Kline (2006). These, highlight the importance of positive surprises beyond customers' expectations on the basis that they may increase loyalty. 'Hospitableness' and its associated positive impacts on the emotions of guests, seems to be such an unexpected aspect which adds value to the agritourist experience (as discussed in the preceding discourse). Consequently, it fosters guest satisfaction and positive behavioural intentions. Besides, all those who remained satisfied with their experience, expressed positive behavioural intentions. Worth mentioning in this case, is the fact that the most reliable guests towards the hosting venues are the so called in this study 'personal attention/hospitality seekers'. Those 'personal attention seekers' who remained satisfied expressed revisit intentions to the exact same venue. Thus, by focusing on the qualities of hospitableness, hosts may foster a positive WOM. They may even foster the guest's revisit intentions at the same venue, especially if the guest values particularly such qualities.

Hence, the aforementioned 'culture of hospitality' as advised by Lashley (2008, p.21) is once more being recommended. Even so, it should be mentioned that there were tourists who even though they experienced unanticipated pleasant events they did not express overall satisfaction feelings. Consequently they did not express revisit intentions. Revisit intentions were expressed only by those who articulated overall satisfaction. Guest M58 ('bird watcher') was pleasantly surprised with the hospitality shown by a couple of locals. Yet, felt that he did not cover his main reason for countryside visitation. Researchers (e.g. Yoon and Uysal 2005) note that a precondition for understanding loyalty is the consideration of motivation. Others (e.g. Lashley and Lincoln 2003; Upchurch and Lashley 2006) suggest the awareness of the differing occasions for the success of the customer's visit. Once more, this study, acknowledges the importance of identifying the various/different occasions which tourists are led to the countryside. This assists the identification of those factors which are important and critical for the guest's visit.

A failure to address the needs and expectations of various occasions, will lead to dissatisfaction and negative behavioural intentions. Yet, by addressing needs and expectations of differing occasions and by offering the unexpected, the destination may foster both satisfaction and positive behavioural intentions.

It should be stressed that the fieldwork findings reveal the behavioural intentions of agritourists. This does not guarantee that the actual behavior of agritourists will be the same as their intentions. This study does not divulge the actual behavior of agritourists following their countryside experience. Nonetheless, researchers (e.g. Quelette and Wood 1998) argue that actual behaviour is guided by intentions. Even so, the importance of achieving agritourist satisfaction is once more stressed. Although it may not secure a revisit intention on behalf of the guest, it will certainly cause a positive future behavioural intention. In opposition, guest dissatisfaction will lead towards a negative exposure of the destination with all the associated harmful impacts.

Chapter 8: Conclusions and recommendations

The key fieldwork findings are presented in this chapter. These have been organized and grouped so that they address the three themes as being presented in the methodological section (see conceptual framework of the study, p.80). Chapter 8 also covers the study limitations and the need for further research in the area of agritourism and agritourist satisfaction. Finally, this chapter reveals the implications of the findings for destination managers and practitioners. In this regard, some important recommendations are provided towards global rural destinations and other entrepreneurs so that they may achieve to satisfy their guests and foster their future positive behavioural intentions.

Findings which address the 'pre-travel' theme

The findings of the study reveal that the vast majority of tourists who choose to visit and stay in the Cypriot countryside are international and not domestic travellers. These come from European countries (e.g. Germany, U.K and France). More than half of the agritourists (around 60%) are between 30 to 49 years old. The majority of those between 18 to 29 years old are particularly interested in activities such as rock/mountain climbing, walking and cycling. Half of those agritourists 50 years and older seem to visit the countryside for relaxation, nostalgic and spiritual reasons. Even so, additional research which may include a larger number of respondents is needed in order to strengthen these associations and allow further links to be made. Despite that, some of the broad categories of agritourists which have been identified (e.g. 'activity driven') resemble more or less groups of rural tourists who have been identified/categorized in other, previous studies. Nonetheless, several sub-groups of agritourists have been pin-pointed based on the notion of 'occasionality'. Unlike previous studies, this assisted the identification of several niche groups of agritourists based on their occasion for countryside visitation. Although agritourists have been grouped in small groups it should be stressed that each agritourist has his/her own personal reasons for a countryside visitation. Examples of small groups which have been pin-pointed for the first time include amongst others, the 'authenticity seekers', 'nature seekers', 'bird watchers', 'gastronomics' and 'spirituality seekers'.

Even so, future researchers may want to examine in more detail/depth these niche groups of agritourists. Be that as it may, it seems that agricultural activities are not a major source of agritourist motivation. In opposition, the natural/artificial environment and the interaction/contact with hosts are found to be basic motivators for agritourists. In fact, the natural environment seems to act as the primary motivator for specific agritourists, such as the 'flora seekers', 'bird watchers' and 'entomologists'. The fieldwork findings reveal that agritourists are well informed prior to their visit (during the pre-travel stage) from official websites and through others (e.g. friends). Information derived from various sources (e.g. the venue's website) seems to append towards the formation of agritourists' expectations. However, expectations have not been created once the guest commenced his/her individual search for his/her upcoming countryside experience. These expectations have been attached to those existing ones being created from previous personal experiences and other sources throughout the agritourist's lifetime (e.g. from the television and travel books).

Nonetheless, this study did not spot any major differences on expectations between tourists from different origins. For instance, both a Belgian and a Dutch 'gastronomic seeker' shared similar expectations. Agritourists in the same sub-groups were found to share more or less similar expectations. Yet, 'gastronomic seekers' were found to have dissimilar expectations from other groups of agritourists (e.g. 'flora seekers'). This outcome seems to challenge the so far categorization of 'expectations' based on broad criteria without acknowledging the individuality of tourists. Besides, the expectation formation process differs from individual to individual even if tourists share the same origins. Even so, expectations were found to differ to some extent even if agritourists were categorized under the same sub-group. The reasoning behind this dissimilarity of agritourists' expectations is the result of differing occasions for countryside visitation as well as the individual differing mode of information and personal past experiences.

Findings which address the 'at-the-destination' theme

Based on the findings of the study, while at the rural destination, agritourists emphasize their attention on different aspects/factors of their experience. For instance, the natural environment (e.g. flora species) and related services (e.g. help desks and nature trails) are important/critical for those who visit the countryside mainly in order to examine the indigenous species (e.g. 'flora seekers'). In opposition, the 'archaeology seekers' emphasize their attention on the artificial environment (particularly ancient sites) and related services (e.g. informative signs at monuments/sites). As a result of this outcome, different factors/offerings are critical for the success of differing occasions. Therefore, negligence on behalf of the destination to focus on the quality of certain offerings, such as for instance the natural environment, will particularly impact on the satisfaction of those who value the most anything related to the natural environment (e.g. the 'nature seekers', 'flora seekers', 'fauna seekers', 'bird watchers' and 'entomologists'). This is because the destination fails to provide those factors which the guest emphasizes his/her attention on, values the most and expects from the destination. Eventually, this leads towards the dissatisfaction of certain agritourists who visit the countryside for a specific occasion (e.g. to study the endemic flora). Yet, future research may want to investigate in more depth those specific factors which are critical for the success of each agritourist occasion.

Even so, if the rural destination strives to offer overall quality offerings to address differing occasions, this will not necessarily assure guest satisfaction. This is because agritourists seem to take for granted both 'tangible' features and 'intangible' aspects of their countryside experience and they are not surprised if these are offered by the destination since they take them for granted. As a result of this, the destination is faced with the challenging task of firstly addressing the high needs and expectations of a well informed, sophisticated and demanding market and on top of that, offer to the guest what is not or least expected. However, there is a need of further investigation to examine whether this growth/rise of needs and expectations is a characteristic only of the European agritourist.

Despite that, agritourists invest money, physical effort, risk and time in return to a countryside experience. These personal investments of agritourists for the consumption of the destination offerings should be taken into consideration by the appropriate bodies, tourism managers and other entrepreneurs of the countryside. This is because agritourists evaluate/compare what they invest, or better sacrifice in return to the destination's offerings. The way agritourists perceive the value of their experience to be, is of the utmost importance for the destination. It is after all of the destination's interest for those evaluative thoughts to lean favorably towards the 'receiving' rather than the 'giving' side of the agritourist. If otherwise, the guest may conclude that the rural experience, which involved the consumption of destination offerings, was unworthy of all those personal investments undertaken.

Nonetheless, there are other external factors which may interfere in the process of achieving guest satisfaction. These are beyond the control of the destination. Severe weather conditions or climatic changes are examples of such external influences which may adversely impact on agritourist satisfaction.

Findings which address the 'meta-travel' theme

Of note is the general unwillingness of agritourists for a revisit. Only one third of the agritourists indicated their intention to revisit and stay again at the rural destination. The remaining agritourists expressed no such intentions. This outcome seems to contribute to the discussion of the low occupancy rates which the sector is facing in rural Cyprus. Yet, additional research is recommended to fully establish why the sector faces low occupancy rates. That said, half of those agritourists who remained satisfied with their experience articulated intentions for a revisit, either in the short or the long term. The rest expressed no such intentions, justifying their decision on various reasons (e.g. alternative global destinations). Such reasons, for a non-revisit, are particularly expressed by the younger rather than the more matured agritourist. However, additional research is needed to allow further associations to be made (e.g. different sub-groups and future behavioural intentions).

Despite that, it should be noted that this study reveals only the intentions of agritourists which will follow after the experience (during the meta-travel stage). The research findings do not divulge the actual behavior of agritourists following their countryside experience. Even so, the ethnographic findings seem to challenge the belief that satisfaction acts as an important predictor of revisit intention if taken that satisfied tourists have such intentions. However, this should not lead towards the false conclusion that agritourist satisfaction achievement is not important. Quite the opposite, since half of those who remained satisfied with their experience expressed revisit intentions. Additionally, all those who remained satisfied, expressed the intention to spread a positive WOM about the rural destination as well as the intention to recommend it to others (e.g. colleagues and friends). In opposition, all those agritourists who remained dissatisfied with their countryside experience, expressed no-revisit intentions. Also, they indicated that they would (upon return to their place of residence) discourage others from paying a visit to the rural destination.

Implications of the study

Based on the findings of this ethnographic study, the following essential and comprehensive suggestions are provided towards global rural destinations and practitioners. These recommendations aim to assist official tourism bodies, destination managers, hosts and other entrepreneurs of the countryside, to satisfy and foster the positive future behavioural intentions of their guests. Firstly, it is suggested that the rural destination takes into serious consideration the fact that agritourists are driven to the countryside because of different reasons/occasions. The acknowledgement of these differing occasions for countryside visitation assists the identification of those factors which are critical for the success of the guest's visit. Hence the use of the occasionality notion/model in this study and the critical success factors yield major insights for destination management. More specifically, if the destination aims to achieve overall agritourist satisfaction then it must be prepared to address the various needs and expectations of all agritourist differing occasions (e.g. 'authenticity seekers', 'walkers' and 'cyclists').

For instance, the destination managers and entrepreneurs must offer a wide range of activities and related services to accommodate all those agritourists who visit the countryside in order to engage in different activities (e.g. to walk, cycle, ski/snowboard and climb).

If the venue owners seek to attract (e.g.) 'flora seekers', they may create and constantly update/enrich a small library with various special interest books (e.g. of endemic flora). They must also be prepared to suggest places of interest (e.g. national parks). Also, they may perhaps create a small herbal garden. It is furthermore recommended that the destination preserves its natural environment offerings by introducing strict laws to prevent any kind of pollution and by keeping the number of tourists who visit the countryside at manageable levels. This is because the rural natural environment is particularly fragile and highly susceptible to damage. For this reason there is a need for careful planning. Relevant environmental scientific studies may be used for this reason. Besides, based on the results of this study, the pollution and deterioration of the natural environment may adversely impact on the satisfaction of agritourists. In fact, the stakeholders of the destination (e.g. official bodies, hosts and entrepreneurs) must understand the importance of protecting the countryside capital (e.g. landscape and historical buildings) if tourism is to continue to make a positive contribution to sustainable rural development. If possible, the destination should not only protect but also enhance the natural environment offerings through (e.g.) the plantation of endemic flora and creation of nature study paths. This will particularly impact on the satisfaction of certain groups of agritourists (e.g. 'nature seekers' and 'fauna seekers').

Moreover, the destination may enrich the non-natural offerings by (e.g.) turning historical buildings into places of interest (e.g. museums) and providing facilities for the disabled. Also, the destination may maintain and enrich the rural destination's 'authentic offerings' by protecting the character and identity of each region and by providing incentives to communities so that they may restore old buildings. It is also advisable that venues' interiors and exteriors reflect the character and history of the place. This will particularly please the 'authenticity and archaeology seekers'. However, hosts should be careful not to overexert with decorative/authentic items and objects.

They must also avoid the exhibition of old photos of people, especially in bedrooms. Besides, not all agritourists are 'authenticity seekers'. Despite that, the destination must enrich the 'food and beverage offerings'. This may be achieved through (e.g.) the provision of incentives and sufficient training programs for entrepreneurs to open innovative venues, such as gourmet restaurants. The 'traditional' labeled taverns should offer only traditional/local cuisine. These taverns will cater for those in search of local delicacies and traditional food. Other restaurants may offer international dishes thus cater for those not particularly interested in the local cuisine. 'Spiritual' offerings should also be sheltered and enhanced. This may be achieved by (e.g.) restoring and protecting sacred places (e.g. monasteries) and by promoting the publication of spirituality books in different languages. Furthermore, the destination may organize discussion groups who may discuss spiritual matters. Such actions will definitely add value to the experience of those particularly interested in these offerings (e.g. 'spirituality seekers'). The rural destination could also improve and enrich its activity offerings and related services. For instance, they may publish informative leaflets with activities offered in each region. Also, local authorities may help activity groups (e.g. walkers, skiers and horse-riders) to organize special activity events. They may also create (e.g.) cycling and walking paths/trails and install alongside these, informative signs and maps. In addition, official bodies may improve the infrastructure and facilities of the recreational activity centers (e.g. ski resorts).

Nonetheless, the appropriate organizations and bodies must provide on-going and active support for all entrepreneurs involved in the provision of goods and services for overall agritourist consumption. This can be achieved through monetary and non-monetary assistance (e.g. providing training sessions and creating supportive offices scattered in the countryside). Furthermore, it is advisable that university/college tourism programs of study introduce courses, or seminars, which will focus on tourist psychological issues (e.g. tourist motivation, expectations and behavior). By doing so, knowledgeable and responsive tourism professionals will be supplied in the field. Despite that, the destination should take into consideration all those investments undertaken by the tourist for the consumption of its offerings. The destination managers as well as entrepreneurs must constantly aim to minimize these investments.

The monetary and non-monetary investments should not be ignored since they may frustrate satisfaction achievement. Besides, a tourist may conclude that the experience was unworthy of all those being sacrificed in return. Therefore, the appropriate authorities and destination managers, in close collaboration with the entrepreneurs should strive to price their services/products at as much reasonable prices as possible. Relevant surveys may be used for this reason. This will lessen the monetary investment on behalf of the tourist who pays a visit to the countryside. Moreover, guests' physical efforts, potential harm and feelings of (e.g.) anxiety and agony should be reduced to the bare minimum by (e.g.) improving the transportation links and by informing and protecting tourists from any potential dangers. Risks and hazards associated with a countryside experience include amongst others, non-potable water, dangerous animal species, severe weather conditions and hazardous terrain.

Further to the above, the destination should strive to offer intense experiences and unexpected offerings which could pleasantly surprise its guests. This can definitely add on the 'receiving side' of the tourist's personal evaluation, hence advocate guest satisfaction. An unexpected and pleasant offering, seems to be 'hospitableness'. Apparently those traditional values of hospitality in the countryside seem to pleasantly surprise and please guests. The ethnographer's and agritourists' experiences support the fact that traditional values of hospitality are particularly evident in (e.g.) remote areas. These seem to add value to the guest's experience and they foster both guest satisfaction and positive behavioural intentions. Indeed, the emotional dimensions of the guest-host relationship are being stressed. In fact, by focusing on the qualities of hospitableness, hosts may encourage positive word of mouth. They may even foster the guest's revisit intention at the same venue, especially if the guest values such qualities. Even so, future studies may want to examine whether tourists originated from less industrialised societies value the same 'hospitableness' as those originated from developed countries. This is because a limitation of this study is that it deals only with tourists originated from developed European countries. Yet, based on the fieldwork findings, external factors/influences, beyond the destination's control (e.g. severe weather conditions) may adversely impact on guest satisfaction.

For this reason, if possible, guests should be informed regarding any possible risks and hazards before their trip takes place (e.g. through the destination's official website). The provision of accurate, truthful and detailed information during the pre-travel stage will adjust the expectations of tourists. This will result in the avoidance of any unpleasant reality shocks which may adversely impact on guest satisfaction. Besides, the destination would not want the tourist to take for granted something which does not exist (e.g. enough snow coverage to allow skiing and snow-boarding).

Given that external information append towards the creation of expectations (as discussed in the preceding discourse) it is advisable that appropriate bodies and entrepreneurs make sure to provide only realistic information and pictures in their advertising campaigns/websites. This will assist towards the creation of realistic expectations in regards to what the destination has to offer for the guest to view, do, consume and experience. Truthful and detailed information with the absence of exaggerations will adjust tourists' expectations.

In order for the guest to have expectations which are closer to reality, it is advisable that he/she gets well informed prior to his/her trip experience. In addition, the following saying which the ethnographer heard from a local while touring the countryside is being provided to guests: *'wherever you hear about lots of cherries, make sure you hold a small basket'*. The provision of accurate information (e.g. on the website) will furthermore give the opportunity to the guest to choose the appropriate season to visit the countryside. Besides the ethnographer's experiences and observations support the fact that the destination's offerings differ each season. For instance, the particular destination which acts as a case study (Cyprus), offers much more variety of flora species during the early spring months rather than the late summer months. Thus, a 'flora seeker' may choose to visit the particular rural setting during spring. Detailed information will also assist the guest to choose the appropriate for him/her region. Once more, the ethnographer's experiences support the fact that the offerings of each region differ. A certain region, with rough terrains may be offered for mountain/rock climbing, or perhaps trekking occasions. Other regions, with smoother surfaces, may be offered for walking occasions.

Besides, unclear information may lead (e.g.) a 'fauna seeker' to stay in an area which lacks of those particular endemic species he/she may be mostly interested in. Also, as a result of misleading information there is the possibility of a 'soft activity seeker (skier)' to choose and stay in a venue which may be located far from the ski resort. Consecutively, this will add on the 'giving' side on behalf of the agritourist. The guest will have to give more, in terms of time (e.g. to drive to the resort), money (e.g. for petrol) and effort (especially if the roads are not in a good condition). However, the provision of such truthful information may not favor or may negatively affect specific regions/villages and hosting venues which compared to others lack of (e.g.) certain activities. Agritourists may choose not to be accommodated in these particular areas. The appropriate authorities must not neglect these 'unprivileged' regions. Instead, they must try to enrich as much as possible their offerings. In close collaboration with venue owners, they may encourage and promote other aspects of the countryside experience there (e.g. 'peace and tranquility'). Thus, they may attract other groups of agritourists, such as the 'relaxers'. Even so, venue owners must take into consideration the needs and expectations of these agritourists who may be in conflict with those who visit for other occasions. In this case they must be cautious not to target others which may use the venue for other contrasting reasons, such as for 'celebrating party' occasions.

That being established, it should be noted that a summarized format of the research findings and recommendations (for guest satisfaction achievement) have been forwarded to the official bodies of the C.T.O and the 'Agrotourism Company of Cyprus' for them to consider in their future plans, decisions and implications. Through the feedback received from the above organizations it was felt that the findings and suggestions were regarded as interesting and extremely important for the successful development of agritourism. Furthermore, through the official body of the 'Agrotourism Company of Cyprus' a summarized format of the abovementioned suggestions has been forwarded to all venue owners (hosts of traditional accommodation in the countryside). The study findings are also of great value for the international agritourism industry (destination managers and entrepreneurs) since they support the successful development of the agritourism sector, through the provision of practical guidelines for achieving guest satisfaction and fostering positive behavioural intentions.

Furthermore, the findings contribute to the existing body of tourism knowledge by providing novel information and details about agritourists and agritourist satisfaction. Even so, further research is needed to appreciate agritourists, their satisfaction process and to further develop the topic. Besides this research deals only with tourists who chose to visit and stay in the countryside of Cyprus. Despite that, this study opens some exciting avenues for further research to comprehend agritourists and tourists in general. For this to occur, the researcher strongly suggests the employment of ethnographic techniques.

Appendix: Photographic Evidence

View pictures in the following pages

103

106

102

105

108

101

104

107

212

211

214

210

213
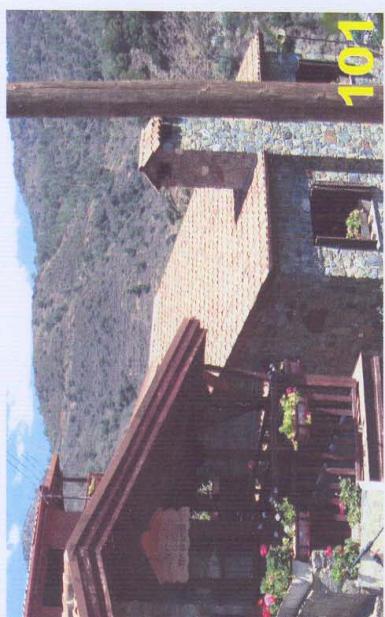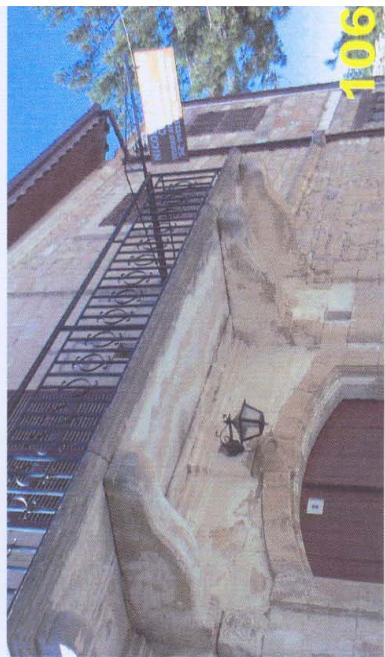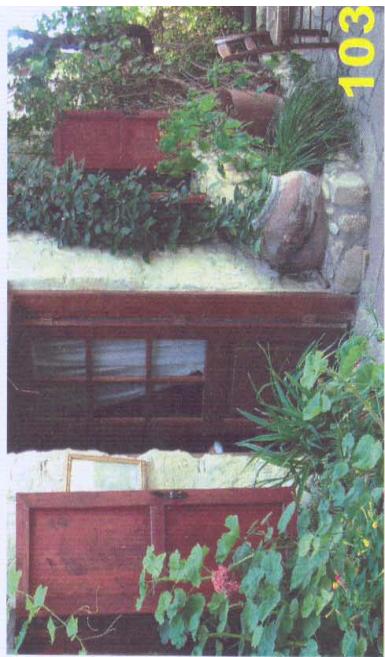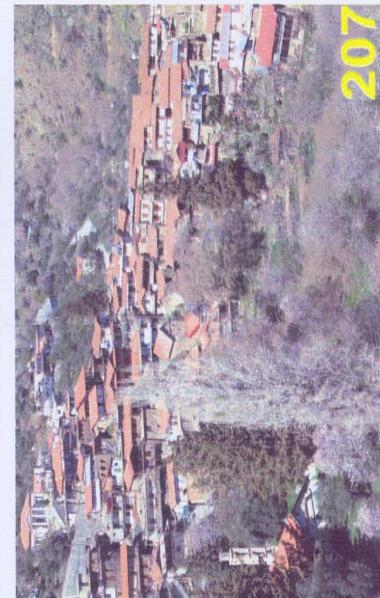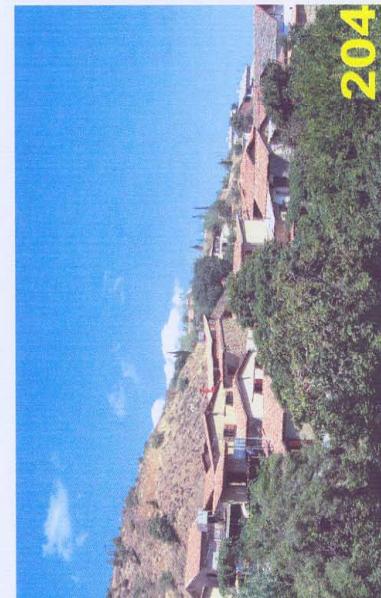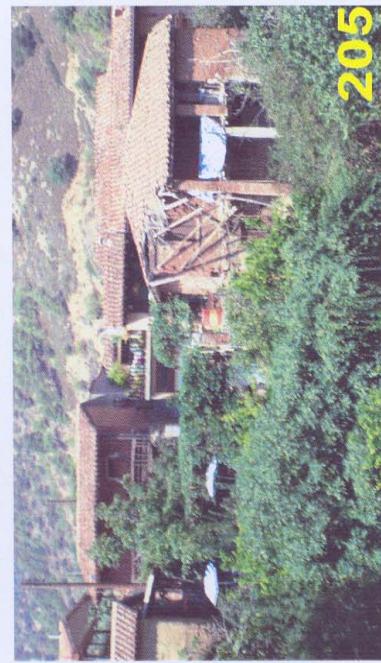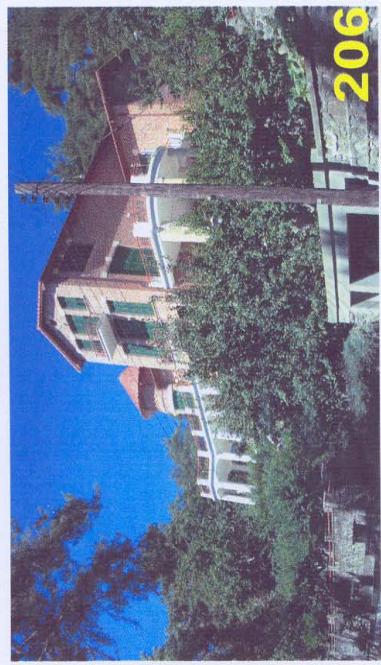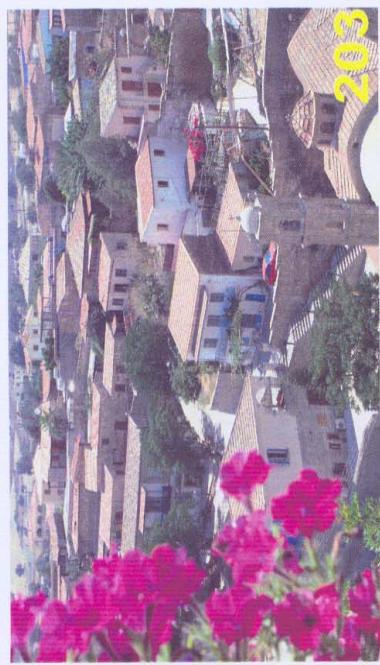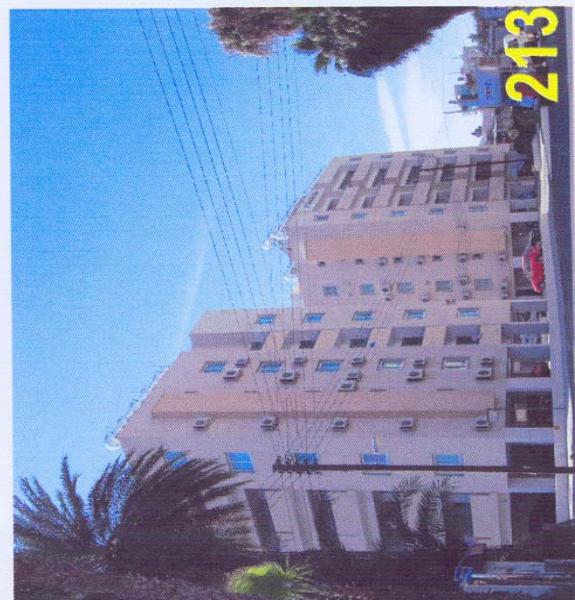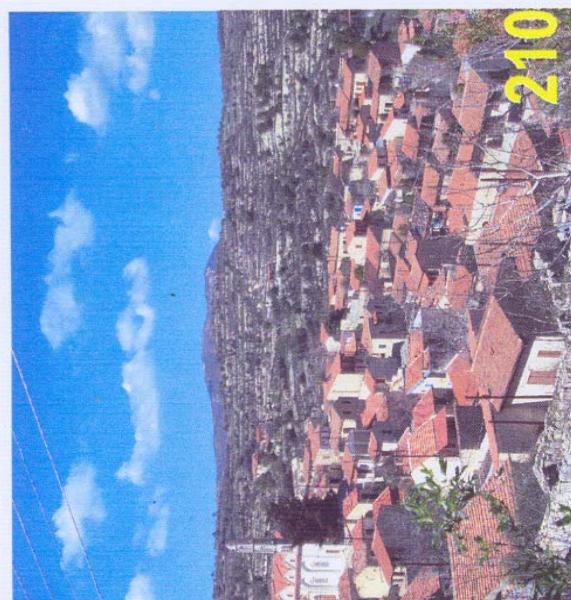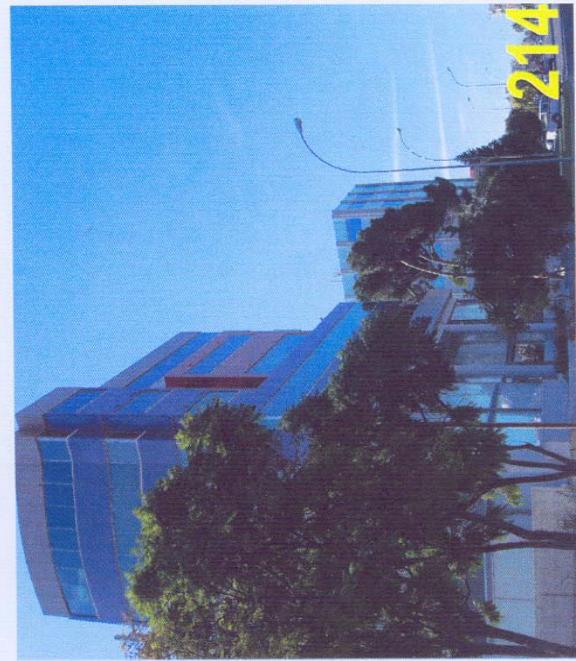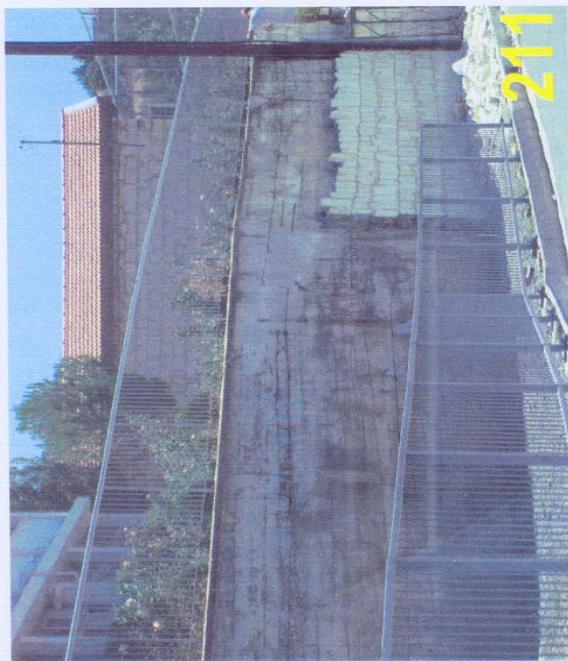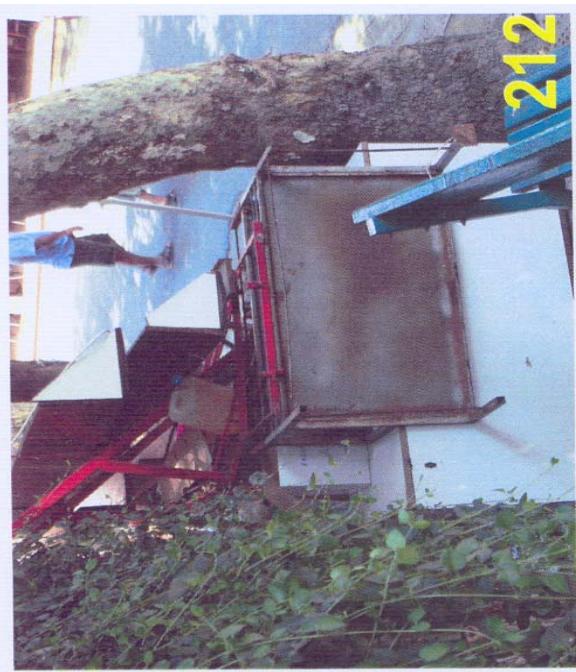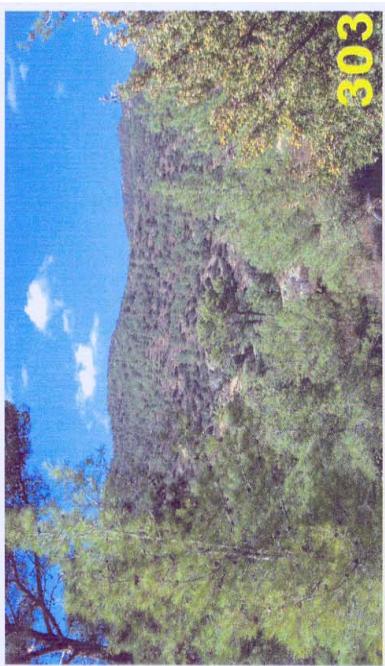
303
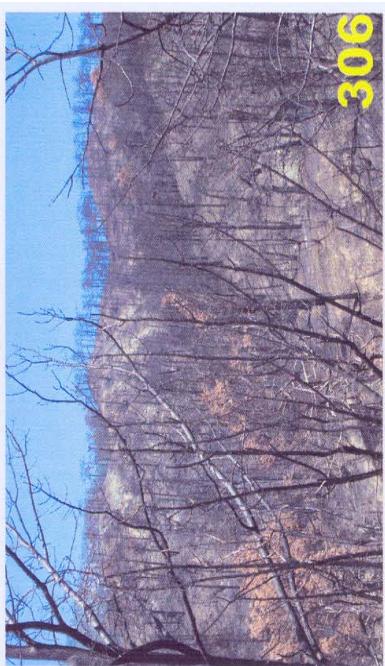
306

308
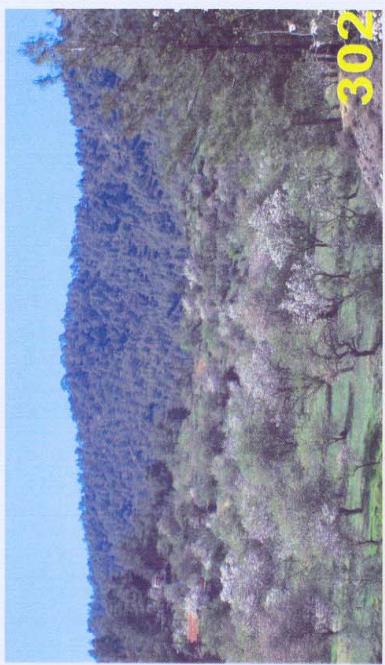
302
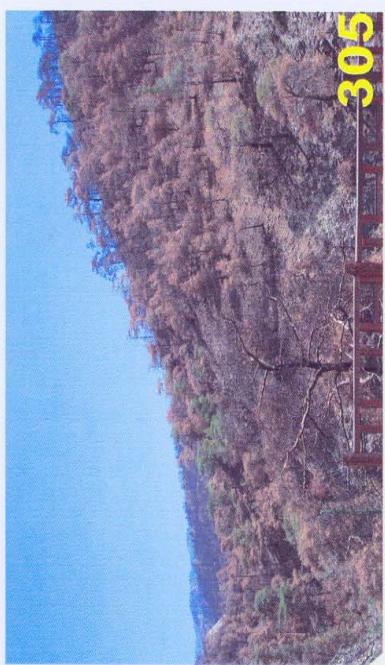
305

307b

301

304

307a
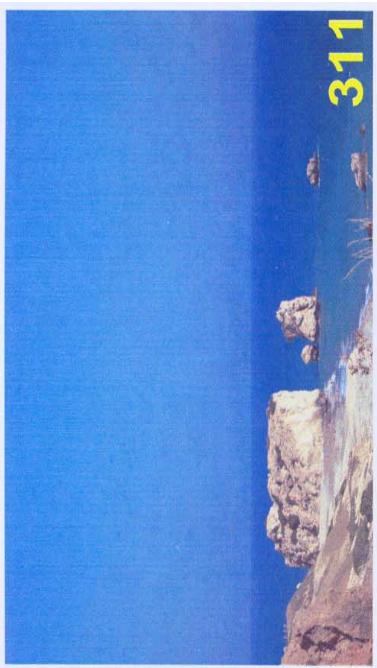
311
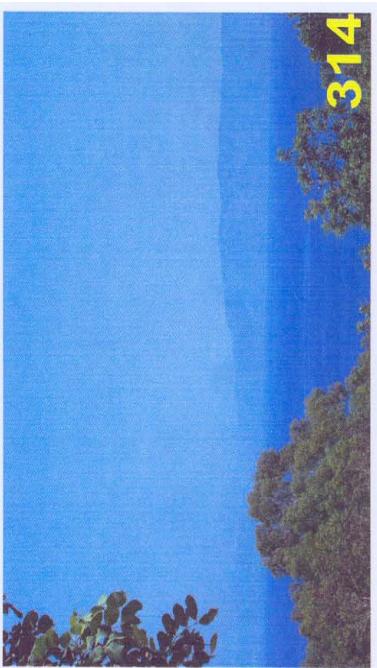
314

316b

310

313

316a

309

312

315
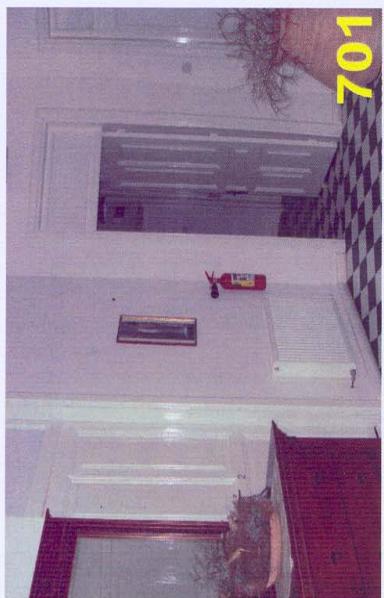
319

322

318

321

317

320

323

403

402

405

401

404

503

506

509

502

505

508

501

504

507

512

511

514

Γενέτειρα της Αφροδίτης, Πάφος.
Petra tou Romiou,
birthplace of Aphrodite, Pafos.

Κρατάτε το εισιτήριό σας κατά τη διάρκεια της επίσκεψης.
Please keep your ticket during the visit

ισχύει μόνο για μια επίσκεψη / The ticket is valid only for one visit.

ΚΥΠΡΙΑΚΗ ΔΗΜΟΚΡΑΤΙΑ
REPUBLIC OF CYPRUS

0 9 AUG 2007

Τέλος € 1,00
Fee € 1,00

ΚΟΥΡΙΟΝ
KOURION

ΕΙΣΙΤΗΡΙΟ
ΕΙΣΟΔΟΥ
ADMISSION
TICKET

No 273434

510

513

603

606

609

602

605

608

601

604

607

703

706

709

702

705

708

701

704

707

712
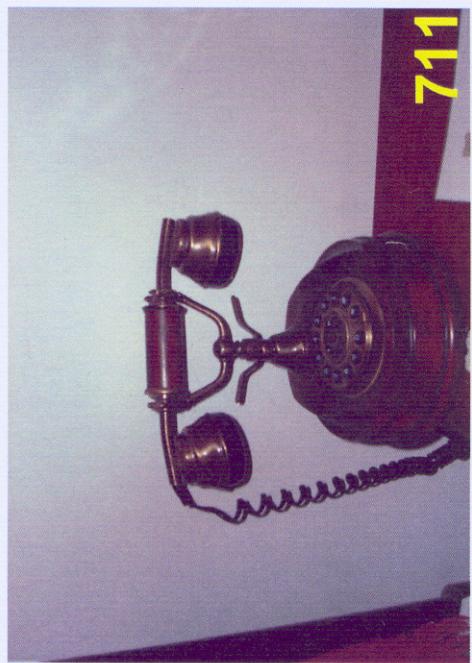
711


710
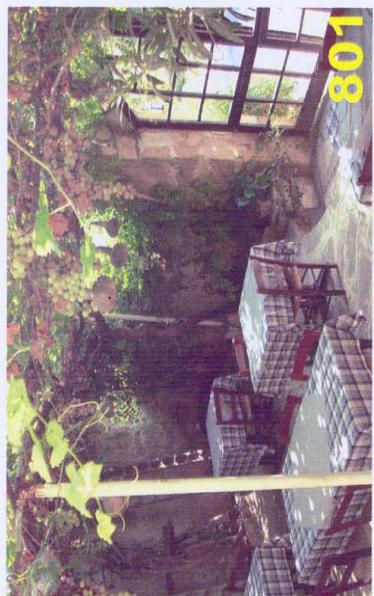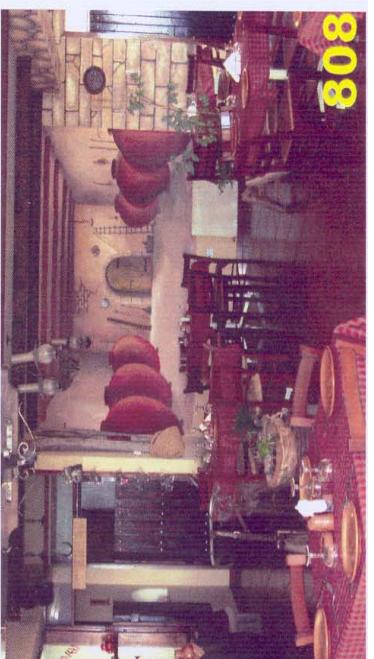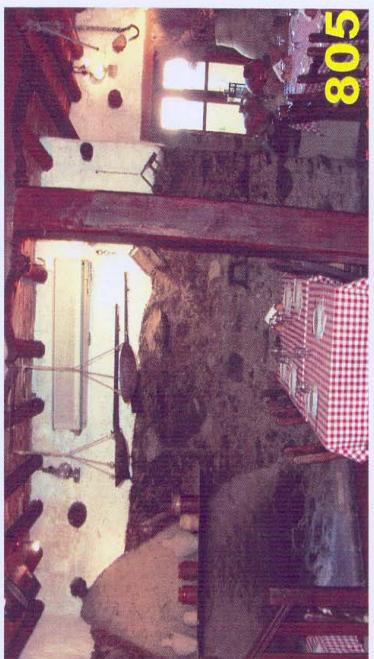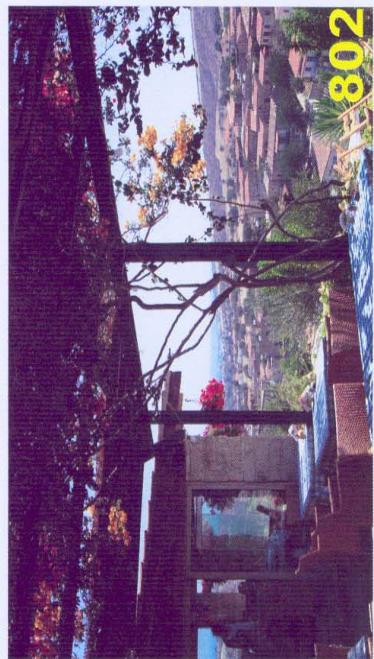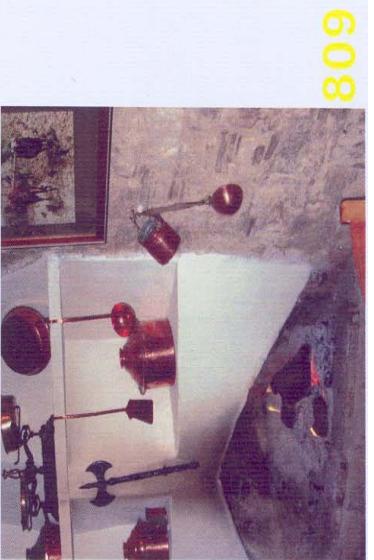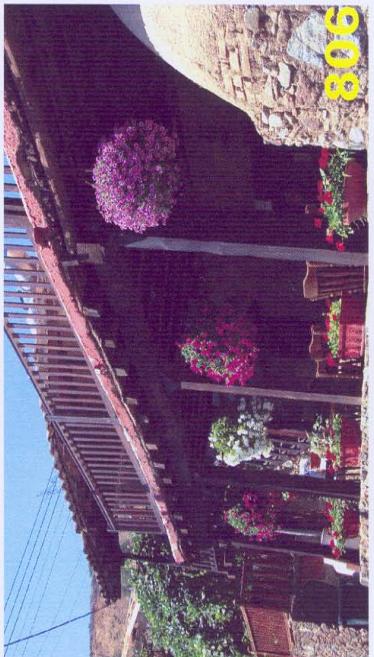
803

806

809

802

805

808

801

804

807

812

PICNIC PRICE LI...

BASKET FOR TWO   15.00 p

Deposit 7.00 P (Refunded in full once the basket is returned)

Red Dry
White Dry
Rose Dry
Chardonnay
Chardonnay Barrique
Cabernet sauvignon
Merlot
...
...

**Have a picnic**

Enjoy our picnic basket

Have a picnic basket with your choice of wine and spend a leisurely time at the winery gardens.

The following Cyprus specialities are included:

- Halloumi cheese
- Kefalotyri cheese
- Lountza (slices of smoked loin)
- Chiromeri (slices of smoked leg)
- Talates (black olives)
- Talates (green olives)
- Bread from the village bakery
- Tomato
- Cucumber
- Traditional fruit sweets
- A bottle of water

815

Wild ...

Τσακι...
Wild ...

Σαλιγ...
Large ...

Σαλιγ...
Small ...

ΠΟΤΑ

Αναψ...
Soft d...
Soda

Μερίδα παστουρμά (3 κομ.)
Spicy Sausage (3pcs)

Μερίδα χαλούμι (5 κομ.)
Grilled halloumi (5 pcs)

Μερίδα συκώτι (5 κομ.)
Chicken liver (5 pcs)

Μερίδα κοτόπουλο σουβλάκι (3 σμήλες)
Chicken kebab (3 skews)

Χοιρινά παϊδάκια μερίδα (5 κομ.)
Pork spare ribs (5 pcs)

Πατάτες μερίδα
Portion of chips

811

814

810

813

Reference List

Abram, S. (1996), "Reaction to Tourism: A view form the deep green heart of France", *Coping with Tourists: European reactions to mass tourism,* Berghahn Books, Oxford, pp. 174-203

Agafonoff, N. (2006), "Adapting ethnographic research methods to ad hoc commercial market research", *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal,* 9 (2), pp. 115-125

Agar, M. (1986), *Speaking of Ethnography,* Sage, Beverly Hills, CA, pp. 70-71

Agar, M. (1996), *The professional Stranger,* Academic Press, London

Aguilo, E., Juaneda, C. (2000), "Tourist expenditure for mass tourism markets", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 27 (3), pp. 624-637

Ahmed, Z., Chon, K. (1994), "Marketing the United States to Korean travellers", *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly,* 35 (2), pp. 90-94

Akama, J., Kieti, D. (2003), "Measuring tourist satisfaction with Kenya's wildlife safari: a case study of Tsavo West National Park", *Tourism Management,* 24 (1), pp. 73-81

Alderson, P. (1998), *Confidentiality and consent in qualitative research*, British Sociological Association Network 6-7

Allen, L., Long, P., Perdue, R., Kiselbach, S. (1988), "The impact of Tourism Development on Residents' Perceptions of Community Life", *Journal of Travel Research,* 27 (1), pp. 16-21

Altinay, L. (2000), "Possible impacts of a federal solution to the Cyprus problem on the tourism industry of north Cyprus", *International Journal of Hospitality Management (UK),* 19 (3), pp. 295-309

Altinay, L., Bowen, D. (2006), "Politics and tourism interface: The case of Cyprus", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 33 (4), pp. 939-956

Alvesson, M., Skoldberg, K. (2000), *Reflexive Methodology,* Sage publications, London

Anath, M., Demicco, F., Moreo, P., Howey, R. (1992), "Marketplace lodging needs of mature travellers", *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly,* 33 (4), pp. 12-24

Anderson, E. (1998), "Word-of-mouth as a consequence of customer satisfaction", *Journal of Services Research,* 1, pp. 5-17

Anderson, E., Sullivan, M. (1993), "The antecedents of consequences of customer satisfaction for firms", *Marketing Science,* 12, pp. 125-143

Andreassen, T. (2000), "Antecedents to satisfaction with service recovery", *European Journal of Marketing,* 34 (1/2), pp. 156-175

Andronikou, A. (1987), *Development of Tourism in Cyprus: Harmonization of Tourism with the Environment,* Cosmos, Nicosia

Anton, J. (1996), *Customer relationship management. Making Hard Decisions with Soft Numbers,* Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ

Antoniadou, C. (2006), *The tourism schema is changing: Must promote our advantages*, I simerini, Cyprus, p.74

Apostolides, P. (1996), "Tourism development policy and environmental protection in Cyprus", *Sustainable Tourism Development, Environmental Encounters*, Council of Europe, Strasburg

Armstrong, G. (1993), "Like that Desmond Morris?", in Hobbts, D., May, T. (Eds), *Interpreting the Field: Accounts of Ethnography*, Clarendon Press, Oxford

Armstrong, R., Mok, C., Go, F., Chan, A. (1997), "The importance of cross- cultural expectations in the measurement of service quality perceptions in the hotel industry", *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 16, pp. 181-190

Arnould, E., Price, L. (1993), "River magic: Extraordinary experience and the extended service encounter", *Journal of Consumer Research,* 20, pp. 24- 45

Arnould, E., Price, L., Zinkhan, G. (2004), *Consumers*, 2nd ed., McGraw- Hill, New York, p.757, p. 777

ASA. (1997), *Code of Ethics*, American Sociological Association, New York

Asher, M. (1989), "Measuring Customer Satisfaction", *The TQM Magazine*, 1 (2)

Atilgan, E., Akinci, S., Aksoy, S. (2003), "Mapping service quality in tourism industry", *Managing Service Quality*, 13 (5), pp. 412- 422

Atkinson, P. (1981), *The Clinical Experience*, Gower, Farnborough, pp. 131- 132

Atkinson, P., Hammersley, M. (1994), "Ethnography and participant observation", in Denzin, N., Lincoln, Y. (Eds), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA, pp. 248-261

Augustyn, M., Pheby, J. (2000), "ISO 9000 and performance of small tourism enterprises: a focus on Westons Cider Company", *Managing Service Quality*, 10 (6), pp. 374- 388

Ayers, R. (2000), "Tourism as a passport to development in small states: reflection on Cyprus", *International Journal of Social Economics (UK)*, 27 (2), pp. 114- 133

Azas, A. (2006), "Fresh air at CTO", *I Simerini*, Lefkosia, p. 79

Bachleitner, R., Zins, A. (1999), "Cultural tourism in rural communities: the residents' perspective", *Journal of Business Research (USA),* 44 (3), pp. 199-209

Backman, S., Veldkamp, C. (1995), "Examination of the relationship between service quality and user loyalty", *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration,* 13 (2), pp. 29-42

Baker, D., Crompton, J. (2000), "Quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 27 (3), pp. 785-804

Balmer, S., Baum, T. (1993), "Applying Herzberg's Hygiene Factors to the changing accommodation environment", International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 5 (2), pp. 32-35

Baloglu, S. (2001), "An investigation of a loyalty typology and the multidestination loyalty of international travellers", *Tourism Analysis,* 6 (1), pp. 41-*52*

Bansal, H., Taylor, S. (1999), "Beyond service quality and customer satisfaction: investigating additional antecedents of service providers switching intentions", *Dev Mark Sci,* 22, pp. 75-82

Barke, M. (2004), "Rural tourism in Spain", *International Journal of tourism Research,* 6, pp. 137-149

Barke, M., France, L. (1996), "The Costa del Sol", in Barke, M., Towner, J., Newton, M. (Eds), *Tourism in Spain: Critical Issues*, CAB International, Wallingford, pp. 265-308

Barker, E. (1984), *The making of a Moonie. Brainwashing or Choice,* Blackwell, Oxford

Barsky, J., Labagh, R. (1992), "A strategy for customer satisfaction", *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 33, pp.32-37, 40

Bates, M. (2005), "An introduction to metatheories, theories and models", in Fischer, K. (Ed), *Theories of information behavior (ASIST monograph)*, Medford, NJ

Bebko, C. (2001) "Service encounter problems: which service providers are more likely to be blamed?", *The Journal of Service Marketing,* 15 (7), pp. 480-495

Becherel, L., Cooper, C. (2002), "The impact of globalization on human resource management in the tourism sector", *Recreation Research*, 27 (1), pp. 1-12

Becken, S., Gnoth, J. (2004), "Tourist consumption systems among overseas visitors: Reporting on American, German, and Australian visitors to New Zealand", *Tourism Management,* 25, pp. 375-385

Becker, C., Murrmann, S. (1999), "The effect of cultural orientation on the service timing preferences of customers in casual dining operations: an exploratory study", *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 18 (1), pp. 59-65

Beckett, J. (1997), *Reciprocity in the service encounter*: *Cultural Heritage in islands and small states,* Institute of Malta, Malta

Beerli, A. (2002), *El Proceso de formacion de la imagen de los destinos turisticos,* Proyecto de Investigacion, Universidad de Gran Canarias

Beerli, A., Martin, J. (2004a), "Factors influencing destination image", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 31, pp. 657-681

Beerli, A., Martin, J. (2004b), "Tourists' characteristics and the perceived image of tourist destinations: a quantitative analysis- a case study of Lanjarote, Spain", *Tourism Management,* 25 (5), pp.623-636

Bei, L., Chiao, Y. (2001), "An integrated model for the effects of perceived product, perceived service quality, and perceived price fairness on consumer satisfaction and loyalty", *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior,* 14, pp. 125-140

Belk, R., Costa, J. (1998), "The mountain man myth: a contemporary consuming fantasy", *The Journal of Consumer Research,* 25 (2), pp. 218- 240

Bello, D., Etzel, M. (1985), "The role of novelty in the pleasure travel experience", *Journal of Travel Research,* 24 (1), pp. 20-26

Bennett, R., Rundle- Thiele, S. (2004), "Customer satisfaction should not be the only goal", *Journal of Services Marketing*, 18 (7), pp. 514- 523

Berman, B. (2005), "How to delight your customers", *California Management Review,* 48 (1), pp. 129-151

Bergman, B., Klefsjo, B. (2003), *Quality from customer needs to customer satisfaction*, 2nd ed., Studentlitteratur, Lund

Berry, L., Parasuraman, A. (1991), *Marketing services: a competing through quality,* The Free Press, New York

Berry, L., Parasuraman, A. (1997), "Listening to the customer- the concept of a service-quality information system", *Sloan Management Review Spring,* p.65-76

Beteille, R. (1996), "L' agrotourisme dans les espaces ruraux europeens", *Annales de Geography 592,* pp. 584-602

Bettman, J. (1979), *An information processing theory of consumer choice*, Addison-Wesley, Reading

Beynon-Davis, P. (1997), "Ethnography and information systems development: ethnography of, for and within IS development", *Information and Software Technology,* 39, pp. 531-540

Bigne, J., Andreu, L. (2004), "Emotions in segmentation: An Empirical study", *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31 (3), pp. 682- 696

Bigne, J., Martiez, C., Miquel, M., Andreu, L. (2003), "SERVQUAL reliability and validity in Travel agencies", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 30, pp. 258-262

Bigne, J., Sanchez, M., Sanchez, J. (2001), "Tourism Image, Evaluation variables and after purchase behaviour: Inter- relationship", *Tourism Management,* 22, pp. 607-616

Bitange, E. (2006), "Assessing sustainability of faith- based enterprises in Kenya", *International Journal of Social Economics,* 33 (5/6), pp 446-462

Bitner, M. (1990), "Evaluating service encounters: The effects of physical surroundings and employee responses", *Journal of Marketing,* 54, pp. 69-82

Bitner, M., Boons, B., Tetreault, M. (1990), "The Service Encounter: Diagnosing Favourable and Unfavourable Incidents", *Journal of Marketing*, 54 (1), pp. 71- 84

Bitner, M., Hubert, A. (1994), "Encounter satisfaction versus overall satisfaction versus quality", in Rust, R., Oliver, R. (Eds), *Service quality: new directions in theory and practice,* Sage, California, pp. 72-94

Bjerneld, M., Lindmark, G., McSpadden, L., Garrett, M. (2006), "Motivations, Concerns, and Expectations of Scandinavian Health Professionals Volunteering for Humanitarian Assignments", *Disaster Management & Response,* 4 (2), pp. 49- 58

Bjork, P. (2000), "Ecotourism from a conceptual perspective, an extended definition of a unique tourism form", *International Journal of Tourism Research,* 2, pp. 189-202

Blaine, T., Golan, M. (1993), "Demand for rural tourism: and Exploratory study", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 20, pp. 770-773

Bogdan, T., Taylor, S. (1975), *Introduction to qualitative research methods: A phenomenological approach to the social sciences*, John Wiley, Hoboken

Boissevain, J. (1996), "Introduction", in: Boissevain, J. (Ed), *Coping with Tourists: European Reactions to Mass Tourism,* Berghahn Books, Providence, p. 1-26

Bojanic, D., Rosen, D. (1994), "Measuring Service quality in Restaurants: An Application of the SERVQUAL Instrument", *Hospitality Research Journal,* 18 (1), pp. 3-14

Boniface, B., Cooper, C. (2005), *Worldwide destinations: The geography of travel and tourism*, Butterworth- Heinemann, Italy

Booms, B., Bitner, M. (1981), "Marketing strategies and organizational structures for service firms", in Donnelly, J., George, W. (Eds), *Marketing of services,* American Marketing Association, Chicago, IL, pp. 47-52

Boulding, W., Kalra, A., Staelin, R., Zeithaml, V. (1993), "A dynamic process model of service quality: from expectations to behavioural intentions", *J Mark Res,* 30 (1), pp. 7-27

Bowen, D. (2001a), "Research on tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction: Overcoming the limitations of a positivist and quantitative approach", *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 7 (1), pp. 31- 40

Bowen, D. (2001b), "Antecedents of Consumer Satisfaction and Dis- Satisfaction (CS/ D) on Long- Haul Inclusive Tours a reality check on theoretical considerations", *Tourism Management,* 22 (1), pp. 49- 61

Bowen , D. (2002), "Research through participant observation in Tourism: A creative solution to the measurement of consumer satisfaction/ dissatisfaction (CS/ D) among tourists", *Journal of travel research*, 41, pp. 4-14

Bowen, D., Clarke, J. (2002), "Reflection on tourism satisfaction research: Past, present and future", *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* 8 (4), pp. 297-308

Bowen, R., Cox, L., Fox, M. (1991), "The interface between tourism and agriculture", *Journal of Tourism Studies,* 2 (2), pp. 43-54

Bowie, D., Chang, J. (2005), "Tourist Satisfaction: A view from a mixed international guided package tour", *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 11 (4), pp.302- 322

Boxill, I. (2003), "Towards an alternative tourism for Belize", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 15 (3), pp. 147-150

Boxill, I. (2004), "Towards an alternative tourism for Jamaica", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 16 (4), pp. 269-272

Braakensiek, H. (2002), *Top-dollar Tourists Trek To A Divided Island Paradise*, Australian Financial Review, Australia

Brady, M., Cronin Jr., J., Brand, R. (2002), "Performance- only measurement of service quality: a replication and extension", *Journal of Business Research,* 55 (1), pp. 17-31

Bramwell, B. (1994), "Rural tourism and sustainable rural tourism", *Journal of Sustainable Tourism,* 3, pp. 1-6

Bramwell, B., Lane, B. (1994), *Rural tourism and sustainable rural development*, Channel View, London

Briedenhann, J., Wickens, E. (2004), "Tourism routes as a tool for the economic development of rural areas-vibrant hope or impossible dream?", *Tourism Management,* 25 (1), pp.71-79

British Sociological Association. (1973), *Statement of Ethical Principles*, S.I, London

Brown, T., Churchill, G., Peter, J. (1993), "Improving the measurement of service quality", *Journal of Marketing Research,* 66, pp. 127-139

Bruwer, J. (2003), "South African wine routes: some perspectives on the wine tourism industry, structural dimensions and wine tourism product", *Tourism Management*, 24 (4), pp. 423-435

Bryman, A. (2004), *Social Research Methods,* 2nd ed., Oxford University Press, New York, pp. 292- 307

Burgess, J. (1978), "Image and Identity", *Occasional papers in Geography,* 23, University Hall Publications

Busby, G., Rendle, S. (2000), "The Transition from Tourism on Farms to Farm Tourism", *Tourism Management,* 21, 635- 642

Butler, R., (1991), "Tourism, environment and sustainable development", *Environmental Conservation*, 18, 201-209

Butler, R. (1993), "Tourism development in small islands: past influences and future directions", in Lockhart, D., Drakakis-Smith, D., Shembri, J. (Eds), *The development process in Small islands States*, Routledge, London

Butler, R. (1998), "Sustainable tourism: looking backwards in order to progress?", in Hall, M., Lew, A. (Eds), *Sustainable Tourism: A Geographical Perspective,* Longman, Harlow, pp. 25- 34

Butler, R., Hall, M. (1998), "The sustainability of tourism and recreation in rural areas", in Butler, R., Hall, C., Jenkins, J. (Eds), *Tourism and Recreation in Rural Areas,* John Wiley& Sons, Toronto, pp. 249-258

Buttle, F. (1996), "SERVQUAL: Review, Critique, Research Agenda", *European Journal of Marketing,* 30 (1), pp. 8-25

Buultjens, J., Tiyce, M., Gale, D. (2003), "Sustainable forest- based tourism in Northeast New South Wales Australia: A problematic goal", *Tourism Review International*, 7 (1), pp. 1-12

Caballero, M., Hart, M. (1996), "Market dynamics: three- "S" tourism and the mature single lady", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 8 (2), pp. 10-13.

Cai, L., Wu, B., Bai, B. (2003), "Destination image and loyalty", *Cognizant Communication Corporation,* 7, pp. 153-162

Canniford, R. (2005), "Moving shadows: suggestions for ethnography in globalised cultures", *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 8 (2), pp. 204-218

Canoves, G., Herrera, L., Villarino, M. (2005), "Turismo rural en Espana: Paisajes y usuarios, nuevos usos y nuevas visiones", *Cuadernos de Turismo,* 15, pp. 63-76

Canoves, G., Villarino, M., Priestley, G., Blanco, A. (2004), "Rural tourism in Spain: an analysis of recent evolution", *Geoforum,* 35 (6), pp. 755-769

Caruana, A. (2002), "Service loyalty: The effects of service quality and the mediating role of customer satisfaction", *European Journal of Marketing,* 36, pp. 811-822

Caruana, A., Money, A., Berthon, P. (2000), "Service quality and satisfaction: The moderating role of value", *European Journal of Marketing,* 34 (11/12), pp. 1338-1352

Castro, C., Armario, E., Ruiz, D. (2007), "The influence of market heterogeneity on the relationship between a destination's image and tourists' future behaviour", *Tourism Management,* 28 (1), pp. 175-187

Cavaco, C. (1995), "Rural tourism: The creation of new tourist spaces", in Montanari, A., Williams, A. (Eds), *European tourism,* Wiley, Chichester, pp. 125-149

Cawley, M., Gillmor, D., Leavy, A., McDonagh P. (1995), *Farm diversification: Studies relating to the west of Ireland,* Teagasc, Dublin

Chatzigeorgiou, C., Christou, E., Kassianides, P., Sigala, M. (2009), "Customer Satisfaction in Agrotourism services: How do we turn a satisfied customer into a repeated one? ". *Proceedings of the 4ᵗʰ International Scientific Conference, Planning for the future learning from the past: Contemporary developments in Tourism, Travel& Hospitality,* Rhodes, 3-5 April, 2009

Chen, C., Tsai, D. (2006), "How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioural intentions?", *Tourism Management,* 28 (4), p.53

Chen, J. (2000), "An investigation of urban residents' loyalty to tourism", *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research (USA),* 24 (1), pp. 5-19

Chen, J. (2001), "An investigation of tourists' destination loyalty and preferences", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 13 (2), pp.79- 85

Chen, J., Gursoy, D. (2001), "An investigation of tourists' destination loyalty and preferences", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality management,* 13 (2), pp. 79-85

Chen, J., Paliwoda, S. (2004), "The influence of company name in consumer variety seeking", *Journal of Brand Management,* 11, pp. 219-232

Chen, L., Davies, A., Elliott, R. (2002), "Gender and identity on the Net- raising men for fun?", *Asia Pacific Advances in Consumer Research,* 5

Cho, S. (1991), "The ugly Koreans are coming", *Business Korea,* 9 (2), pp. 25-31

Choi, T., Chu, R. (2000), "Levels of satisfaction among Asian and Western travellers", *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management,* 17 (2), pp. 116- 132

Choi, T., Chu, R. (2001), "Determinants of hotel guests' satisfaction and repeat patronage in Hong Kong hotel industry", *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 20, pp. 277- 297

Chon, K., Christianson, D., Lee, C. (1995), "Modeling tourist satisfaction: Japanese tourists' evaluation of hotel stay experience in Taiwan", *Australian Journal of Hospitality Management,* 2 (1), pp.1-6

Churchill, G., Surprenant, C. (1982), "An investigation into the determinants of customer satisfaction", *Journal of Marketing Research,* 19, pp. 491-504

Ciaran, B. (2007), "Information creation and the notion of membership", *Journal of Documentation,* 63 (1), pp. 142-164

Clarke, I., Kell, I., Schmidt, R., Vignall, C. (1998), "Thinking the thoughts they do: symbolism and meaning in the consumer experience of the 'British Pub'", *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal,* 1 (3), pp. 132- 144

Clarke, J. (1999), "Marketing structures for farm tourism: beyond the individual provider of rural tourism", *Journal of Sustainable tourism,* 7 (1), 26-45

Clarke, J., Denman, R., Hickman, G., Slovak, J. (2001), "Rural tourism in Roznava Okres: A Slovak case study", *Tourism Management (UK),* 22 (2), pp. 193-202

Clarke, M., Islam, S., Paech, S. (2006), "Measuring Australia's well- being using hierarchical needs", *Journal of Socio- Economics,* 35 (6), pp. 933- 945

Clements, M., Georgiou, A. (1998), "The impact of political instability on a fragile tourism product", *Tourism Management (UK),* 19 (3), pp. 283-288

Cleverdon, R. (2001), "India", *TTI Country Reports (UK)*, 1

Clow, K., Kurtz, D., Ozment, J., Ong, B. (1997), "The antecedents of consumer expectations of services: an empirical study across four industries", *Journal of Services Marketing,* 11 (4), pp. 230-248

Cockerell, N. (1996), "Malta", *International Tourism Reports*, 4. pp. 71-91

Cope, R. (2000), "Republic of Cyprus (Report on tourism)", *TTI Country Reports (UK)*, (4), pp. 3-21

Correia, A. (2002), "How do tourists choose?", *Tourism,* 50 (1), pp. 21-29

Correia, A., Oom Do Valle, P., Moco, C. (2007), "Why people travel to exotic places"*, International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 1 (1), pp. 45-61

Correia, A., Pimpao, A. (2008), "Decision-making processes of Portuguese tourist travelling to South America and Africa", *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* 2 (4), pp. 330-373

Corrigan, P. (1979), *Schooling the smash street kids*, Macmillan, London

Courier Mail. (2000), *Lessons in rural tourism*, Queensland Newspapers Pty Ltd, Australia

Crompton, J. (1979), "Motivations of pleasure vacations", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 6, pp. 408-424

Cronin, J., Brady, M., Hult, T. (2000), "Assessing the effects of quality, value, and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioural intentions in service environments", *J Retail,* 76 (2), pp. 193-218

Cronin, J., Taylor, S. (1992), "Measuring service quality: a re-examination and extension", *Journal of Marketing*, 56 (7), pp. 55-88

Cronin, J., Taylor, S. (1994), "SERVPERF versus SERVQUAL: Reconciling performance- based and perceptions-minus-expectations measurement of service quality", *Journal of Marketing*, 58, pp. 125-131

Crosby, A. (1993), "Measuring customer satisfaction", in Scheuing, E., Christopher, W. (Eds), *The Service quality handbook,* AMACOM, New York

Crosby, A. (2002), "Archaeology and vanua development in Fiji", *World Archaeology*, 34 (2), pp. 363-378

Crossan, F. (2003), "Research philosophy: Towards an understanding", *Nurse Researcher*, 11 (1), pp. 46- 55

Crotts, J., Erdmann, R. (2000), "Does national culture influence consumers' evaluation of travel services? A test of Hofstede's model of cross- cultural differences", *Managing Service Quality,* 10 (6), pp. 410-419

C.T.O. (2007), *Guide to Hotels and other Tourist Establishments,* C.T.O, Lefkosia, Cyprus

Currie, R., Wesley, F., Sutherland, P. (2008), "Going where the Joneses go: understanding how others influence travel decision-making", *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* 2 (1), pp. 12-24

Cyprus Agrotourism Company. (2005), *Agrotourism: Holidays in the Cyprus Countryside, (online),* available at: www.agrotourism.com.cy (accessed November 2005)

Dabholkar, P., Shepherd, C., Thorpe, D. (2000), "A comprehensive framework for service quality: An investigation of critical conceptual and measurement issues through a longitudinal study", *Journal of Retailing,* 76, pp. 139-173

Daengbuppha, J., Hemmington, N., Wilkes, K. (2006), "Using grounded theory to model visitor experiences at heritage sites: Methodological and practical issues", *Qualitative Market Research,* 9 (4), pp. 367- 388

Damien, A. (2006), "Authenticity and consumption in the Australian Hip Hop culture", *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal,* 9 (2), pp. 140-156

Dann, G. (1981), "Tourism Motivations: An appraisal", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 8 (2), pp. 189- 219

Darlington, Y., Scott, D. (2002), *Qualitative Research in Practice. Stories from the Field,* Allen& Unwin, Crows Nest, p.31

Day, E., Crask, M. (2000), "Value assessment: the antecedent of customer satisfaction", *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behaviour,* 13, pp. 42-50

Decrop, A. (1999), "Qualitative research methods for the study of tourist behaviour", in Pizam, A., Mansfield, Y. (Eds), *Consumer behavior in Travel and tourism*, The Hawthorn Hospitality Press, Binghampton, NY

Decrop, A. (2001), "The antecedents and consequences of vacationers' is/satisfaction: Tales from the field", in Mazanec, J., Crouch, G., Ritchie, J., Woodside, A. (Eds), *Consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure,* CABI publishing, New York, pp. 333- 347

Demetriadou, A. (1991), *Agrotourism: An alternative to sea and sun mass tourism*, Bank of Cyprus, Lefkosia, Cyprus, pp.4-8

Deming, W. (1986), *Out of the crisis*, Cambridge University, Cambridge

Deng, W. (2006), "Using a revised importance- performance analysis approach: The case of Taiwanese hot springs tourism", *Tourism Management,* 28 (5), pp. 1274-1284

Denktash, R. (1988), *The Cyprus Triangle*, George Allen& Unwin, London

Denzin, N. (1996), "The facts and fictions of qualitative inquiry", *Qualitative Inquiry*, 2 (2), pp. 230-241

Denzin, N., Lincoln, Y. (1998), "Entering the field of qualitative research", in Denzin, N., Lincoln, Y. (Eds), *The landscape of qualitative research. Theories and Issues,* Sage publications, Thousand Oaks, CA

Dernoi, I. (1991), "About rural and farm tourism", *Tourism Recreation Research,* 16 (1), pp. 3-6

Dernoi, L. (1983), "Farm tourism in Europe", *Tourism Management,* 4 (3), pp. 155-166

Dey, C. (2002), "Methodological issues: The use of critical ethnography as an active research methodology", *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal,* 15 (1), pp. 106-121

Diener, E., Crandall, R. (1978), *Ethics in social and behavioral research*, University of Chicago press, Chicago

Diran C., Koh, L., Gunasekaran, A., Arunachalam, S. (2007), "Measuring performance within the supply chain of a larger scale project", *Supply Chain Management: An International Journal*, 12 (1), pp. 52-59

Douglas, J. (1976), *Investigative social research: Individual and team research*, Sage, London, p. 31

Eadington, W., Smith, V. (1992), "The emergence of alternative forms of tourism", in Smith, V., Eadington, W. (Eds), *Tourism alternatives: Potentials and problems in development of tourism*, University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, PA, pp. 37-51

Echter, C. (1995), "Entrepreneurial training in developing countries", *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22, pp. 119-134

Echtner, C., Ritchie, J. (2003), "The meaning and measurement of destination image", *The Journal of Tourism Studies,* 14 (1), pp. 37-48

Edgell, D. (1990), *International Tourism Policy*, Van Norstrand Reinhold, London

Edmunds, M. (1999), "Rural tourism in Europe", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* (UK), (6), pp. 37-50

Eggert, A., Ulaga, W. (2002), "Customer perceived value: A substitute for satisfaction in business markets?", *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing,* 17 (2/3), pp. 107-118

Ekinci, Y. (2004), "An investigation of the determinants of customer satisfaction", *Tour Anal,* 8, pp. 197- 203

Elliott, R., Elliott, N. (2003), "Using ethnography in strategic consumer research", *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal,* 6 (4), pp. 215-223

Engel, J., Kollat, D., Blackwell, R. (1978), *Consumer behaviour*, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York

English Tourism Council / Countryside Agency. (2001), *Working in the countryside: A strategy for rural tourism in England 2001-2005,* English Tourist Board, London

Ennew, T., Binks, M. (1999), "Impact of participative service relationships on quality satisfaction and retention: an exploratory study", *Journal of Business Research,* 46, pp. 121-132

European Commission. (2001), "Tourism trends in Mediterranean countries", *European Communities,* pp. 1-236

Evans, N., Campbell, D., Stonehouse, G. (2003), *Strategic Management for Travel and Tourism*, Butterworth- Heinemann, Oxford, p.53

Exadaktylos, N. (2003), *Consumer behaviour*, 2nd ed., Ellin, Athens, Greece

Fache, W. (2000), "Methodologies for innovation and improvement of services in tourism", *Managing Service Quality,* 10 (6), pp 356-366

Faulkner, B. (2001), "Towards a framework for tourism disaster management", *Tourism Management*, 22, 135- 147

Fennell, D. (1999), *Ecotourism: An introduction*, Routledge, London

Fetterman, D. (1998), *Ethnography*, 2nd ed., Sage publications, Thousand Oaks, CA

Fielding, N. (1982), "Observational Research on the National Front", in Bulmer, M. (Ed), *Social Research Ethics*, Macmillan, London

Fielding, N. (1993), "Ethnography", in: Gilbert, N. (Eds), *Researching Social Life,* Sage, London, p.157

Figuerola, M. (2002), "Hacia un Nuevo Turismo Espanol", *Feracion Espanola de Hosteleria,* Madrid

Fileleftheros. (2006), *Tourist arrest for drug custody*, Nicosia, Cyprus, p.24

Finch, J. (1993), "It's great to have someone to talk to: Ethics and Politics of Interviewing women", in Hammersley, M. (Ed), *Social Research: Philosophy Politics and Practice,* Sage, London

Fleischer, A. (1999), "Incentive programs for rural tourism in Israel- a Tool for promoting rural development", in Rietveld, P., Shefer, D. (Eds), *Regional development in an age of structural economic change,* Ashgate, Aldershot, pp. 97-110

Fleischer, A., Felsenstein, D. (2000), "Support for rural tourism: Does it make a difference?", *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27 (4), pp. 1007-1024

Fleischer, A., Friman, D., Kedar, F., Horwitz, O. (1994), *Visitors to rural tourism- survey of characteristics and attitudes and expenses,* Development study centre (Hebrew), Rehovot

Fleischer, A., Pizam, A. (1997), "Rural tourism in Israel", *Tourism Management,* 18 (6), pp. 367-372

Fleischer, A., Rotem, A., Banin, T. (1993), *New directions in recreation and tourism activities in the rural sector in Israel,* Development study center of Rehovot, Israel

Fleischer, A., Tchetchik, A. (2005), "Does Rural tourism benefit from agriculture?", *Tourism Management,* 26 (4), pp. 493-501

Fletcher, D. (1997), *Organizational networking and strategic change in a small family business,* Unpublished doctoral thesis, Nottingham Polytechnic

Font, X., Tapper, R., Cochrane, J. (2006), "Competitive strategy in a global industry: tourism", *Handbook of Business Strategy,* 7 (1), pp. 51-55

Fornell, C. (1992), "A national customer satisfaction barometer: the Swedish experience", *Journal of Marketing,* 56, pp. 6-21

Foster, D. (2000), "Measuring customer satisfaction in the tourism industry", in *Proceedings of the Third International and Sixth National Research Conference on Quality Management,* The Center for Management Quality Research at RMIT University, Melbourne

Frater, J. (1983), "Farm tourism in England: Planning, funding, promotion and some lessons from Europe", *Tourism Management,* 4 (3), pp. 167-179

Fridgen, J. (1984), "Environmental Psychology and Tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 11, pp. 19-39

Frochot, I. (2005), "A benefit segmentation of tourists in rural areas: A Scottish perspective", *Tourism Management,* 26, pp. 335-346

Frochot, I., Hughes, H. (2000), "HISTOQUAL: The development of a historic houses assessment scale", *Tourism Management,* 21, pp. 157-167

Fuchs, M., Weiermair, K. (2004), "Destination Benchmarking: An Indicator- System's potential for exploring guest satisfaction", *Journal of Travel Research,* 42, pp. 212-225

Fuentes Garcia, R. (1995), "Analisis de las principales caracteristicas de la demanda de turismo rural en Espana", *Estudios Turisticos,* 127, pp. 19-52

FVW. (2006), *Reduced demand for Turkey for January Trips due to bird flu*, FVW Giata, Germany

Gale, T., Beefting, K. (2005), "Exploring differences between positivistic and post-positivistic philosophy: An interpretivistic case study of tourists expectations & satisfaction", in *Proceedings of the 2005 Northeastern Recreation Research*

Symposium, April 10- 12, Northeastern Research Station, U.S Forest Service, pp. 345- 354

Gallarza, M., Gil, I. (2008), "The concept of value and its dimensions: a tool for analysing tourism experiences", *Tourism Review,* 63 (3), pp. 4-20

Gallarza, M., Saura, I. (2006), "Value dimensions, perceived value, satisfaction and loyalty: An investigation of university students' travel", *Tourism Management,* 27 (1), pp. 98-108

Galston, W., Baehler, K. (1995), *Rural development in the United States: Connecting Theory, Practice and Possibilities*, Island Press, Washington, DC

Gannon, A. (1994), "Rural tourism as a factor in rural community economic development for economies in transition", *Journal of Sustainable Tourism,* 2 (1+2), pp. 51-60

Gans, H. (1967), *The Levittowners; ways of life and politics in a new suburban community,* Pantheon Books, New York

Gans, H (1968), "The participant- observer as Human Being: Observations on the personal aspects of field work", in Becker, H. (Ed), *Institutions and the person: Papers presented to Everett C. Hughes*, Aldine, Chicago

Garcia- Ramon, M., Canoves, G., Valdovinos, N. (1995), "Farm tourism, gender and the environment in Spain", *Annals of tourism Research,* 22 (2), pp. 267-282

Garrod, B., Youell, R. (2006), "Re-conceptualising rural resources as countryside capital: The case of rural tourism", *Journal of Rural Studies,* 22 (1), pp. 117-128

Garrod, B., Youell, R., Wornell, R. (2004), *Links between rural tourism and countryside capital,* Countryside Agency, Cheltenham

Genzuk, M. (2003), *A synthesis of ethnographic research*, Centre for Multilingual, Multicultural research, University of Southern California, California

Getty, J., Thompson, K. (1994), "A procedure for scaling perceptions of lodging quality", *Hospitality Research Journal,* 18 (2) pp. 75-96

Getz, D. (1998), "Developing rural tourism: The potential of beach resort hinterlands", in Faulkner, B., Tidswell, C., Weaver, D. (Eds), *Progress in tourism and hospitality research, Proceeding of the eighth Australian hospitality and research conference,* Australian Bureau of Tourism Research, Gold Coast, pp. 700-714

Getz, D., Carlsen, J. (2000), "Characteristics and goals of family and owner-operated businesses in the rural tourism and hospitality sectors", *Tourism Management,* 21, pp. 547-560

Getz, D., O'Neill, M., Carlsen, J. (2001), "Service quality evaluation at events through service mapping", *Journal of Travel Research,* 39 (5), pp. 380-390

Getz, D., Page, S. (1997), "Conclusions and implications for rural business development", in Page, S., Getz, D. (Eds), *The business of rural tourism: International perspectives,* International Thomson Business Press, London, pp. 191-205

Geva, A., Goldman, A. (1991), "Satisfaction measurement in guided tours", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 18, pp. 177- 185

Gibson, L. (1993), "The potential for tourism in Non-metropolitan areas", in Barkely, D. (Ed), *Economic Adoption: Alternatives for Non- metropolitan Areas*, Boulder, Westview, pp. 145-164

Giese, J., Cote, J. (2000), "Defining customer satisfaction", *Academy of Marketing Science Review,* (1), pp. 1-34

Gillmor, D. (1989), "Recent tourism developments in Cyprus", *Geography,* 74 (2), pp. 262-265

Gitelson, R., Crompton, J. (1984), "Insight into the repeat vacation phenomenon", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 11, pp. 199- 217

Gladstone, J., Morris, A. (1998), "The role of farm tourism in the regeneration of rural Scotland", in Hall, D., O'Hanlon, L. (Eds), *Proceedings of rural tourism management: Sustainable options,* SAC, Auchincruve, pp. 207-222

Glaser, B., Strauss, A. (1999), *The discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for qualitative research,* Aldine de Gruyter, New York

Glesne, C., Peshkin, A. (1992), *Becoming Qualitative Researchers: An Introduction*, Longman, New York

Globe '92. (1992), *Tourism Stream- Challenge Statement*, Vancouver, Canada

Godfrey, K., Clarke, J. (2000), *The tourism development handbook*, Cassell, London

Gold, R. (1958), "Roles in sociological fieldwork", *Social Forces*, 36, pp. 217- 223

Gold, R. (1969), "Roles in sociological field observations", in McCall, G., Simmons J. (Eds), *Issues in participant observation*, Addison- Wesley, MA, p.30

Gummesson, E. (2003), "All research is interpretive", *Journal of Business& Industrial Marketing*, 18 (6/7), pp. 482-492

Gonzalez, M., Comesana, R., Brea, J. (2006), "Assessing tourist behavioural intentions through perceived service quality and customer satisfaction", *Journal of Business Research,* 60 (2), pp. 153-160

Goodall, B. (1990), "How Tourists choose their holidays: An analytical framework", in Goodall, B., Ashworth, G. (Eds), *Marketing in the Tourism industry: The promotional of destination regions,* Routledge, London, pp. 1-17

Goodall, B. (1991), "Understanding holiday choice", in Cooper (Ed), *Progress in tourism, recreation and hospitality management,* Belhaven, London, pp. 58-77

Gossling, S., Mattsson, S. (2002), "Farm Tourism in Sweden: Structure, Growth and Characteristics", *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 2, pp. 17-30

Graham, M., Messner, P. (1998), "Principals and job satisfaction", *International Journal of Educational Management,* 12 (5), pp. 196- 202

Griffin, R. (2000), *Principles of Management*, 2nd ed., Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston

Gronroos, C. (1984), "A service quality model and its marketing implications", *European Journal of Marketing, 18 (4),* pp. 36-44

Gunn, C. (1972), *Vacationscape: Designing tourist regions*, University of Texas, USA

Gupta, S., Lehmann, D., Stuart, J. (2004), "Valuing customer", *Journal of Marketing Research,* 41, pp. 7-18

Gupta, V. (1999), "Sustainable tourism: learning from Indian religious traditions", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 11 (2/3), pp. 91-95

Gursoy, D., McCleary, K. (2004), "An integrative model of tourists' information search behaviour", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 31, pp 353-373

Hagery, M. (1999), "Testing Maslow's hierarchical needs: national quality of life across time", *Social Indicators Research,* 46, pp. 249- 271

Haines, W. (1990), "Wants and Metawants: Marshall's Concern for Higher Values", *International Journal of Social Economics*, 17 (9), pp. 17-24

Hall, M. (1994), *Tourism and Politics: Policy, Power and Place,* Wiley, London

Hall, M. (2000), *Tourism planning*, Prentice Hall, London

Hall, R. (1998), "Tourism development and sustainability issues in central and south-eastern Europe", *Tourism management*, 19 (5), pp.423- 431

Hammersley, M., Atkinson, P. (1983), *Ethnography principles and practice*, Routledge, London

Hannabuss, S. (2000), "Being there: ethnographic research and autobiography", *Library Management,* 21 (2), pp. 99-107

Harris, M., Johnson, O. (2000), *Cultural Anthropology*, 5th ed., Allyn and Bacon, Needham Heights, MA

Harris, R., Griffin, T., Williams, P. (2003), *Sustainable Tourism: A global perspective*, Oxford, p.36, pp.196- 205

Hartman, R. (1973), *The Hartman Value Profile (HVP): Manual of interpretation, research concepts*, Southern Illinois Press, Muskegon, IL

Haukeland, J. (1984), "Sociocultural Impacts of Tourism in Scandinavia: Studies of Three host communities", *Tourism Management,* 5, pp. 207-214

Hayward, C. (2001), "Foot and mouth crisis slaughters rural tourism industry across UK", *Financial Management (UK),* p.4

Henn, M., Weinstein, M., Foard, N. (2006), *A short introduction to Social Research,* Sage, London, p.49, p.171

Heo, J., Jogaratnam, G., Buchanan, P. (2004), "Customer- focused adaptation," in New York City hotels: exploring the perceptions of Japanese and Korean travellers, *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 23 (1), pp. 39-53

House, R., Wigdor, L. (1967), "Herzberg's dual-factor theory of job satisfaction and motivation: A review of evidence and criticism", *Personnel Psychology*, 20, pp. 369- 389

Herremans, I. (2006), *Cases in Sustainable Tourism: An experiential Approach to Making Decisions,* Haworth, Binghamton

Herzberg, F. (1959), *The Motivation to Work*, John Wiley and Sons, New York, NY.,

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., Snyderman, B. (1959), *The motivation to work*, 2nd ed., John Wiley & Sons, New York

Heskett, J., Sasser, W., Schlesinger, L. (1997), *The service profit chain: How leading companies link profit and growth to loyalty, satisfaction and value*, Free Press, New York

Heylighen, F. (1992), "A cognitive- systematic reconstruction of Maslow's theory of self- actualization", *Behav Scie,* 37, pp. 39-57

Hill, B. (1993), *The future of rural tourism*, Department of Parks and Recreation, Washington DC

Hine, C. (2000), *Virtual Ethnography,* Sage, London

Hjalager, A. (1996), "Agricultural diversification into tourism: Evidence of a European community development programme", *Tourism Management,* 17 (2), pp. 103-111

Ho, T., Park, Y., Zhou, Y. (2004), *Incorporating satisfaction into customer value analysis: optimal investment in lifetime value,* University of Washington

Hoffman, K., Bateson, J. (1997), *Essentials of services marketing,* The Dryden Press, USA

Hoggart, K., Buller, H., Black, R. (1995), *Rural Europe; identity and change*, Arnold, London

Holbrook, M. (1995), *Consumer Research: Introspective essays on the study of consumption*, Sage, London

Holdaway, S. (1982), "An inside Job: A case study of covert research on the police", in Bulmer, M. (Ed), *Social Research Ethics*, Macmillan, London

Holden, A. (2000), *Environment and Tourism*, Routledge, London

Holtzman, W., Murthy, B., Gordon, J. (1991), "Cultural bridging with the Japanese", *The Cornell hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly,* 32 (3), pp. 52-59

Homan, R. (1991), "The ethics of Social Research", Longman, London, pp. 41-73

Homburg, C., Giering, A. (2001), "Personal Characteristics as Moderators of the Relationships between customer satisfaction and loyalty. An empirical analysis", *Psychology and Marketing,* 18, pp. 43-63

Horner, S., Swarbrooke, J. (2004), *International cases in tourism management*, Elselvier, Oxford

Hoti, S., McAleer, M., Shareef, R. (2007), "Modelling international tourism and country risk spillovers for Cyprus and Malta", *Tourism Management,* 28 (6), pp. 1472- 1484

Hudson, S. (1999), "Consumer behaviour related to tourism", in Pizam, A., Mansfeld, Y. (Eds), *Consumer behaviour in travel and tourism,* Haworth Press, New York, pp. 7-32

Hui, T., Wan, D., Ho, A. (2007), "Tourists' satisfaction, recommendation and revisiting Singapore", *Tourism Management,* 28 (4), pp. 965-975

Hummelbrunner, R., Miglbauer E. (1994), "Tourism promotion and potential in peripheral areas: The Austrian case", *Journal of Sustainable Tourism,* 2 (1+2), pp. 41-50

Humphrey, C., Scapens, R. (1996), "Methodological themes, theories and case studies of organizational accounting practices: limitation or liberation?", *Accounting, Auditing& Accountability Journal*, 9 (4), pp. 86-106

Humphrey, M. (2006), "Teaching qualitative methods: I'm beginning to see the light", *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: An International Journal,* 1 (3), pp. 173-188

Huse, M., Gustavsen, T., Almedal, S. (1998), "Tourism impact comparisons amongst Norwegian towns", *Annals of Tourism Research (UK),* 25 (3), pp. 721-738

Iacobucci, D., Grayson, K., Ostrom, A. (1994), "The Calculus of service quality and customer satisfaction", in Swartz, T., Bowen, D., Brown, S. (Eds), *Advances in Services Marketing and Management Research and Practice,* JAI, London

Ilbery, B., Bowler, I., Clark, G., Crockett, A., Shaw, A. (1998), "Farm- based tourism as an alternative farm enterprise: A case study from the Northern Pennines, England", *Regional Studies,* 32 (4), pp. 355-364

Ilbery, B., Kneafsey, M., Soderlund, A. Dimara, E. (2001), "Quality, imagery and marketing: produces perspectives on quality prod services in the lagging rural regions of the European Union", *Human Geography*, 83 (27-40)

Ingram, H., Daskalakis, G. (1999), "Measuring quality gaps in hotels: the case of Crete", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 11 (1), pp. 24- 30

Ioannides, D. (2001), "The dynamics and effects of tourism evolution in Cyprus", in Apostolopoulos, Y., Loukissas, P., Leontidou, L. (Eds), *Mediterranean Tourism: Facets of socioeconomic development and cultural change,* Routledge, USA, pp.112- 128

Ioannides, D., Apostolopoulos, Y. (1999), "Political instability, war and tourism in Cyprus: effects, management and prospects for recovery", *Journal of Travel Research (USA),* 38 (1), pp. 51-56

Irvine, H., Gaffikin, M. (2006), "Getting in, getting on and getting out: reflections on a qualitative research report", *Accounting, Auditing& Accountability Journal,* 19 (1), pp. 115-145

Irvine, W., Anderson, A. (2004), "Small tourist firms in rural areas: agility, vulnerability and survival in the face of crisis", *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour& Research*, 10 (4), pp. 229-246

Iwasaki, Y., Havitz, M. (1998), "A path analytic model of the relationships between involvement, psychological commitment, and loyalty", *Journal of Leisure Research,* 30 (2), pp. 256-280

Jafari, J., Way, W. (1994), "Multicultural strategies in tourism", *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly,* 35, pp. 72-79

Jakus, P., Siegel, P. (1997), "The Effect of Individual and Community Attributes on Residents' Attitudes toward Tourism- based Development", *The Review of Regional Studies,* 27, pp. 49-64

Jang, S., Feng, R. (2007), "Temporal destination revisit intention: The effects of novelty seeking and satisfaction", *Tourism Management,* 28 (2), pp. 580-590

Jensen, H. (1996), "The interrelationship between customer and consumer value", *Asia Pacific Advances in Consumer Research,* 2, pp. 60-63

Johnson, J. (1975), *Doing field research,* Free Press, London, p.7, p.142

Johnson, J., Snepenger, D., Akis, S. (1994), "Resident's perceptions of tourism development", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 21, pp. 629- 642

Jolliffe, L., Baum, T. (1999), *An agenda for cultural tourism on the periphery: The case of Four North Atlantic Islands*, University of Surrey, Surrey

Jonsson, S., Macintosh, N. (1994), "Ethnographic research in accounting: a neglected and marginalized paradigm", in *Proceedings of the 4th Interdisciplinary Conference in Accounting*, Manchester, p. 378

Jonsson, S., Macintosh, N. (1997), "CATS, RATS and EARS: making the case for ethnographic accounting research", *Accounting, Organisations and Society,* 22 (3/4), pp. 367-386

Kammas, M. (1993), "The positive and negative influences of tourism development in Cyprus", *Cyprus Review*, 5 (1), pp. 70-89

Kandampully, J. (2000), "The impact of demand fluctuation on the quality of service: a tourism industry example", *Managing Service Quality,* 10 (1), pp.10-18

Kandampully, J., Suhartanto, D. (2000), "Customer loyalty in the hotel industry: the role of customer satisfaction and image", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 12 (6), pp. 346- 351

Kano, N. (1995), "Upsizing the organization by attractive quality creation", in *Proceedings of the 1st World Congress for Total Quality Management*, 10-12 April 1995, Sheffield, pp. 60-72

Kano, N. (2001), "Life cycle and creation of attractive quality", in *Proceedings from Quality Management and Organizational Development (QMOD)*, Linkoping University

Kano, N., Seraku, N., Takahashi, F., Tsuji, S. (1984), "Attractive quality and must-be quality", *Quality*, 14 (2), pp.39-48

Kanoe, N. (2003), "The customer satisfaction", *The Thai Cosmetic Manufacturers Association Journal,* 3 (3), p.33

Kastenholz, E., Davis, D., Paul, G. (1999), "Segmenting tourists in rural areas: the case of North and Central Portugal", *Journal of Travel Research,* 37, pp. 353-363

Kastenholz, E., Almeida, A. (2008), "Seasonality in rural tourism- the case of North Portugal", *Tourism Review*, 63 (2), pp. 5-15

Kaufman, T., Lashley, C., Schreier, L. (2009), *Timeshare Management: The key issues for hospitality Managers,* Butterwroth-Heinemann, United Kingdom, p. 25

Kawulich, B. (2005), "Participant Observation as a data collection method"*, FQS,* 6 (2)

Kazepi, M. (2002), *Sustainable Ecotourism Practices, Case Study: Cyprus Agrotourism*, Lefkosia, Cyprus.

Keane, M., Briasoulis, H., Van Der Straaten, J. (1992), "Rural Tourism and rural development", in Briasoulis, H., Van Der Straater, J. (Eds), *Tourism and the environment and assessment,* 2, Kluwer Academic publishers, Dordrecht

Keinningham, T., Goddard, M., Vavra, T., Laci, A. (1999), "Customer delight and the bottom line", *Marketing Management*, 8 (3), pp. 57- 64

Kelly, I. (1998), "Education and training opportunities for regional tourism operators", *Australian Journal of Hospitality Management*, 5 (2), pp. 37-46

Kengpol, A., Wangananon, W. (2006), "The expert system for assessing customer satisfaction on fragrance notes: Using artificial neural networks", *Computers & Industrial Engineering,* 51 (4), pp. 567-584

Kieselbach, S., Long, S. (1990), "Tourism and the rural revitalization movement", *Parks and Recreation,* 25 (3), pp. 62-66

King, P. (2001), "Ads invite Nevadans to explore rural getaways", *Las Vegas Business Press,* 18 (20)

Kirk, J. Miller, M. (1986), *Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research*, Sage, Beverly Hills, CA

Kirkby, J., Nelson, S. (2003), "If they're so satisfied, why are they leaving?", *Gartner Research,* COM-13-3754, March 23

Kneafsey, M. (1998), "Tourism and place identity: A case study in rural Ireland", *Irish Geography,* 31 (2), pp. 111-123

Kneafsey, M. (2000a), "Tourism, place identities and social relations in the European rural periphery", *European Urban and Regional Studies,* 7 (1), pp. 35-50

Kneafsey, M. (2000b), "Changing roles and constructing identities: Ethnography in the Celtic periphery", in Hughes, A., Morris, C., Seymour, S. (Eds), *Ethnography and Rural Research,* Countryside and Community Press, Cheltenham

Kneafsey, M. (2001), "Rural cultural economy: Tourism and social relations", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 28, pp. 762-783

Knowles, T., Diamantis, D., Bey El- Mourhabi, J. (2001), *The globalization of Tourism and Hospitality: A strategic perspective*, Cromwell Press, UK

Knutson, B., Stevens, P., Patton, M. (1995), "DINESERV: Measuring service quality in quick service, casual/theme and fine dine restaurants", *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing,* 3 (2), pp. 35-44

Koh, S., Gunasekaran, A., Thomas, A., Aunachalam, S. (2005), "The application of knowledge management in call centres", *Journal of Knowledge Management,* 9 (4), pp. 56-69

Koscak, M. (1998), "Integral development of rural areas, tourism and village renovation, Trebnje, Slovenia", *Tourism Management*, 19 (1), pp.81-86

Kotler, P. (1982), *Principles of Marketing,* 2nd ed., Prentice Hall International, Englewood Cliffs, NJ

Kotler, P. (1997), *Marketing management: Analysis, planning, implementation and control,* 6th ed., Prentice- Hall, NJ

Kotler, P. (2000a), *Marketing management the millennium edition,* Prentice- Hall, NJ

Kotler, P. (2000b), *Introduccion al marketing,* 2nd ed., Prentice- Hall, NJ

Kotler, P., Amstrong, G. (2001), *Principles of Marketing*, 9th ed., Prentice- Hall, NJ

Koumelis, T. (2006a), "Increase in the number of tourists in Cyprus in 2005"*, TravelDailyNews*, (online), available at: http://traveldailynews.gr (accessed March, 2006)

Koumelis, T. (2006b), "Cyprus is promoting its hospitality product upgrading", *TravelDailyNews*, (online), available at: http://traveldailynews.gr (accessed February 2006)

Kozak, M. (2001), "Repeaters' behavior at two distinct destinations", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 28, pp. 784- 807

Kozak, M., Remington, M. (2000), "Tourist satisfaction with Mallorca, Spain, as an off-season holiday destination", *Journal of Travel Research,* 38 (3), pp. 260- 269

Krippendorf, J. (1987), *The Holiday Makers: Understanding the impact of leisure and travel,* Heinemann Professional Publishing, Redwood Burn Ltd, Wildshire, England:

Krueger, A. (1994), *Focus groups: A practical guide for Applied Research*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA

Kuo, N. (2001), *The master plan of developing ecotourism in Chrshang Township*, Chrshang Township Government

Kuo, N., Chiu, Y. (2006), "The assessment of agritourism policy based on SEA combination with HIA", *Land Use Policy,* 23 (4), pp. 560-570

Kurtz, D., Clow E. (1991), "A model for evaluating service quality", *The Journal of Marketing Management,* 2, pp. 51-60

Kvist, A. (2005), *Needs and expectations of inbound tourists visiting a peripheral area: a case study in Northern Sweden,* Lulea University of Technology, Sweeden

Kvist, J., Klefsjo, B. (2006), "Which service quality dimensions are important in inbound tourism?, A case study in a peripheral location", *Managing Service Quality*, 16 (5), 520-537

Lam, T., Woo, K. (1997), "Measuring service quality: a test retest reliability investigations of SERVQUAL", *Journal of the Market Research Society,* 39, pp. 381- 396

Lam, T., Zhang, H. (1999), Service quality of travel agents: the case of travel agents in Hong Kong, *Tourism Management,* 20, pp. 341- 349

Lamie, D., Kovalyova, A. (2002), "Rural development, Euro- style?", *Choices: The Magazine of Food, Farm and Resource Issues*, 17 (2)

Lane, B. (1994), "What is Rural Tourism?", in Bramwell, B., Lane, B. (Eds), *Journal of Sustainable Tourism,* 3, pp. 7-21

Lane, B. (1995), "Creating niche markets in a growing sector: Rural tourism", *Niche Markets and rural developments, workshop proceedings and policy recommendations.* Paris: OECD, pp. 81-95

Lashley, C., (2000a), *Hospitality Retail Management: a unit manager's guide,* Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford

Lashley, C. (2000b), "Towards a theoretical understanding", in Lashley, C., Morrison, A. (Eds), *In Search of Hospitality: Theoretical perspectives and debates,* Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford, U.K

Lashley, C. (2007a), "Discovering hospitality: observations from recent research", *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* 1 (3), pp. 214-226

Lashley, C. (2007b), "Studying hospitality: beyond the envelope", *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality,* 1 (3), pp. 185- 188

Lashley, C. (2008), "Marketing Hospitality and Tourism experiences", in Oh, H. (Ed), *Handbook of Hospitality Marketing Management*, Butterworth- Heinemann, Oxford, UK, p.16, p.21

Lashley, C., Lincoln, G., (2003), *Business Development in Licensed Retailing: a unit manager's guide,* Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford, p.146

Lashley, C., Lynch, P., Morrison, A. (2006), "Hospitality: An Introduction", in Lashley, C., Lynch, P., Morrison, A. (Eds), *Hospitality A Social Lens,* Elsevier, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

Lashley, C., Morison, A., Randall, S. (2005), "More than a service encounter? Insights into the emotions of hospitality through special meal occasions", *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management,* 12 (1), p.80

Lashley, C., Rowson, B. (2002), "A franchise by any other name? Tenancy arrangements in the pub sector", *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 21(4), pp. 353-369

Lashley, C., Taylor, S. (1998), "Hospitality retail operations types and styles in the management of human resources", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services,* 5 (3), pp. 153-165

Lau, A., McKercher, B. (2004), "Exploration versus acquisition: A comparison of first-time and repeat visitors", *Journal of Travel Research,* 42, pp. 279-285

Laughlin, R. (1995), "Methodological themes: empirical research in accounting, alternative approaches and a case for 'middle-range' thinking", *Accounting, Auditing& Accountability Journal,* 8 (1), pp 63-87

Leberman, S., and Mason, P. (2002), "Planning for recreation and tourism at the local level", *Tourism Geographies*, 4, p. 3-21

Lebrun, A. (2002), "Le Role de la familiarite du contexte d'achat sur la tendance aucomportament exploratoire et a la rescherce de vaiete", *Revue Francaise du Marketing,* 186, pp. 53-72

Lecompte, M., Preissle, J. (1993), *Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research,* 2nd ed., Academic Press, San Diego, CA

Lee, C., Lee, Y., Lee, B. (2005), "Korea's destination image formed by the 2002 World Cup", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 32 (4), pp. 839-858

Lee, C., Yang, S., Lo, H. (2008), "Customer satisfaction and customer characteristic in festival activity: A case of 2006 Kenting Wind Chime Festival", *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 2 (3), pp. 234-249

Lee, H., Lee, Y., Yoo, D. (2000), "The determinants of perceived quality and its relationship with satisfaction", *Journal of Services Marketing,* 14 (3), pp. 217- 231

Lee-Ross, D., Lashely, C. (2009), Entrepreneurship& small Business Management: In the hospitality industry, Butterworth-Heinemann, Hungary

Leontidou, L. (1998), "Greece: hesitant policy and uneven tourism development in the 1990's", in Williams, A., Shaw, G. (Eds), *Tourism and economic Development: European Experiences,* 3rd ed., Wiley, Chichester, pp. 101-123

Lewis, B. (1993), "Service quality measurement", *Marketing Intelligence and Planning,* 11 (4), pp. 4-12

Lewis, J. (1998a), "The development of rural tourism", *Parks & Recreation*, 33 (9), pp. 99-107

Lewis, J. (1998b), "A rural tourism development model", *Tourism Analysis,* 2, pp. 91-105

Liebow, E. (1967*), Tally's corner; a study of Negro streetcorner men*, Little & Brown, Boston

Liljander, V., Strandvik, T. (1996), "Emotions in service satisfaction", *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 8 (2), pp. 148- 169

Lin, W. (2007), "The exploration of customer satisfaction model from a comprehensive perspective", *Expert Systems with Applications,* 33 (1), pp. 110-121

Linberg, K., Johnson, R. (1997), "Modeling resident attitudes towards tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 24, pp. 402- 424

Liu, A. (2006), "Tourism in rural areas: Kedah, Malaysia", *Tourism Management,* 27 (5), pp. 878-889

Liu, J., Var, T. (1986), "Residential attitudes toward tourism impacts in Hawaii", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 13, pp. 193- 214

Lobo, R., Goldman, G., Jolly, D., Wallace, B., Schrader, W., Parker, S. (1999), "Agritourism benefits agriculture in San Diego County", *California- Agriculture,* 53 (6), pp. 20-24

Lockhart, D. (1993), "Tourism and politics: The example of Cyprus", in Lockhart, D., Drakakis-Smith, D., Shembri, J. (Eds), *The development process in small island states,* Routledge, London, pp. 228-246

Lockhart, D. (1997), *Island Tourism: Trends and Prospects*, Pinter, London

Lockyer, T. (2002), "Business guests' accommodation selection: the view from both sides", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 14 (6), pp. 294-300

Lofland, L. (1995), "Analytic ethnography: features, failings, and futures", *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, 24, pp. 30- 67

Lowenthal, D., Prince, H. (1992), "English Landscapes tastes", *Geographical Review,* 55, pp. 186-222

Luloff, A., Bridger, J., Graefe, A., Sayler, M., Martin, K., Gitelson, R. (1994), "Assessing rural tourism efforts in the United States", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 21 (1), pp. 46-64

Lundberg. (1990), *The tourist Business,* 6th ed., Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York

Lundberg, C., Gudmundson, A., Andersson, T. (2008), "Herzberg's Two-Factor Theroy of work motivation tested empirically on seasonal workers in hospitality and tourism", *Tourism Management,* Article in Press, Corrected Proof

Lutz, R. (1989), "Editorial", *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 16 (1), p.1

Maestro, R., Gallego, P., Requejo, L. (2006), "The moderating role of familiarity in rural tourism in Spain", *Tourism Management,* 28 (4), pp. 951-964

Mariampolski, H. (2006), *Ethnography for marketers: A guide to consumer immersion*, Sage Publications, USA, p.68, p.157

Markandya, A., Taylor, T., Pedrosso, S. (2003), "Tourism and sustainable development: Lessons from recent Word Bank experience", in *International conference on tourism and sustainable economic development,* Cagliari- Italy, pp. 1-22

Marshal, C., Lincoln, Y., Austin, A. (1991), "Integrating a qualitative and quantitative assessment of the quality of academic life: political and logistical issues", in

Gettermann, D. (Ed), *Using qualitative methods in institutional research,* Jossey-Bass Inc, San Francisco, pp. 65-*80*

Martin, A. (2000), "Making Tourism Sustainable", *UNESCO Sources*, 120

Martin, D., Casielles, V. (1998), "La Calidad de servicio percibida por los clients y por las empresas de turismo rural", *Revista Europea de Investigacion de Marketing ESIC,* 2 (1), pp. 31-54

Martin, D., O'Neill, M., Hubbard, S., Palmer, A. (2008), "The role of emotion in explaining consumer satisfaction and future behavioural intention", *Journal of Services Marketing*, 22 (3), pp. 224- 236

Martin-Cejas, R. (2006), "Tourism service quality begins at the airport", *Tourism Management,* 27 (5), pp. 874-877

Maslow, A. (1970), *Motivation and personality*, Harper, New York

Maslow, A., Mintz, N. (1953), "Effects of aesthetic surroundings", *Journal of psychology*, 41 (1), pp. 247- 254

Mason, P. (2004), *Tourism Impacts, Planning and Management*, Butterworth-Heinemann, p.79, p.174

Mason, P., Cheyne, J. (2000), "Residents' attitudes to proposed tourism development", *Annals of Tourism Research (UK)*, 27 (2), pp. 391-411

Mathieson, A., WALL, G. (1982), *Tourism: Economic, Social and Environmental Impacts*, Longman, London

Mattila, A. (2000), "The impact of culture and gender on customer evaluations of service encounters", *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research,* 24 (2), pp. 263-273

Matzler, K., Fuchs, M., Schubert, A. (2004), "Employee satisfaction: Does Kano's model apply?", *Total Quality Management& Business Excellence,* 15 (9/10), pp. 1179-1198

Mayo, E., Jarvis, L. (1981), *The psychology of leisure travel: Effective marketing and selling of travel services*, CBI Publishing, Boston

Mazanec, J. (2000), "Reports from the second symposium on the consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure (CPTHL)", *Tourism Analysis,* 5, pp. 64-68

McCabe, S. (2001), "The problem of motivation in understanding the demand for leisure day visits", *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 10 (1), pp. 107-113

McCabe, S. (2007), "The Beauty in the Form: Ethnomethodology and Tourism Studies", in Ateljevic, I., Pritchard, A., Morgan, N. (Eds.), *The Critical Turn in Tourism Studies: Innovative Research Methodologies*, Elsevier Ltd, Oxford, UK, p. 227

McCabe, S. (2009), *Marketing Communications in Tourism and Hospitality: Concepts, Strategies and Cases,* Butterworth-Heinemann, Hungary

McCool, S., Moisey, R., Nickerson, N. (2001), "What should Tourism Sustain? The Disconnect with Industry Perceptions of Useful Indicators", *Journal of Travel Research*, 40 (2), p.124

McDaniels, T., Trousdale, W. (1999), "Value- focused thinking in a difficult context: planning tourism for Guimaras, Philippines", *Interfaces (USA),* 29 (4), pp. 58-70

McDonald, R., Jolliffe, L. (2003), "Cultural rural tourism. Evidence from Canada", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 30 (2), pp. 307-322

McDougall, G., Levesque, T. (2000), "Customer satisfaction with services: Putting perceived value into the equation", *Journal of Service and Marketing,* 14 (5), pp. 392-410

McGehee, N., Kim, K., Jennings, G. (2007), "Gender and motivation for agri-tourism entrepreneurship", *Tourism Management,* 28 (1), pp. 280-289

McGehee, N., Loker-Murphy, L., Uysal, M. (1996), "The Australian international pleasure travel market: Motivations from a gendered perspective," *The Journal of Tourism Studies,* 7 (1), pp. 45-57

McKay, K., Andereck, K., Vogt, C. (1985), "Understanding vacationing motorists niche markets", *Journal of Travel Research,* 40, pp. 356-363

McKenna, A., Alexander, N. (1998), "Rural tourism in the heart of England", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 10 (5), pp. 203-207

McLellan, R. (1998), *Rural tourism in Ireland*, College of Further Education: Theme& Heritage, Plymouth

Medina, L. (2003), "Commoditizing Culture. Tourism and Maya Identity", *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30, pp. 353- 368

Mill, R., Morrison, A. (2002), *The Tourism System*, Kendall/ Hunt Publishing Company, USA, p.60

Miller, J. (1977), "Studying satisfaction, modifying models, eliciting expectations, posing problems and making meaningful measurements", in Keith, H. (Ed),

Conceptualization and measurement of consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction, Indiana

Milliken, J. (2001), "Qualitative research and marketing management", *Management Decision*, 39 (1), pp. 71-78

Mok, C., Armstong, W. (1998), "Expectations for hotel service quality: Do they differ from culture to culture?", *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* 4 (4), pp. 381-391

Molera, L., Albaladejo, I. (2007), "Profiling segments of tourists in rural areas of South-Eastern Spain", *Tourism Management,* 28 (3), pp. 757-767

Molina, A., Esteban, A. (2006), "Tourism brochures: Usefulness and Image", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 33 (4), pp. 1036-1056

Mooij, M. (2004), *Consumer behaviour and culture: Consequences for global marketing and advertising,* Sage, USA, pp. 135- 140

Morais, J., Morais, D. (2004), "Factions and Enclaves: Small Towns and Socially Unsustainable Tourism Development", *Journal of Travel Research*, 43 (1), pp. 3-10

Morgan, M. (2004), "From production line to drama school: higher education for the future of tourism", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 16 (2), pp. 91-99

Morse, J. (1994), "Emerging from the data: the cognitive processes of analysis in qualitative inquiry", in Morse, J. (Ed*), Critical Issues in Qualitative Research Methods*, Sage publications, Thousand Oaks, CA, pp. 23-42

Moutinho, L. (1987), "Consumer behaviour in tourism", *European Journal of Marketing,* 21 (10), pp.3- 44

Murphy, P., Pritchard, M., Smith, B. (2000), "The destination product and its impact on traveller perceptions", *Tourism Management,* 21 (1), pp. 43- 52

Murray, K. (1991), "A test of service marketing theory: consumer information acquisition activities", *Journal of Marketing,* 55, pp. 10-25

Nerhagen, L. (2003), "Travel mode choice: Effects of previous experience on choice behaviour and valuation", *Tourism Economics,* 9 (1), pp. 5-30

Neuman, W. (2000), *Social research methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, 4th ed., Allyn and Bacon, London, pp. 75- 80, p.443

Newsweek International. (2001). Trouble in the Barn, *Newsweek International,* (online), available at: Infotrac (accessed July 2004)

Niininen, O., Szivas, E., Riley, M. (2004), "Destination royalty and repeat behaviour: An application of optimum stimulation measurement", *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 6, pp. 439-447

Nilson, P. (2002), "Staying on farms: an ideological background", *Annals of Tourism research (UK)*, 29 (1), pp. 7-24

Nolan, S. (1976), "Tourists' use and evaluation of travel information sources", *Journal of travel research,* 14 (3), pp. 6-8

Nowark, L., Newton, S. (2008), "Using winery web sites to launch relationships with Millennials", *International Journal of Wine Business Research,* 20 (1), pp. 53-67

Nusair, K., Kandampully, J. (2008), "The antecedents of customer satisfaction with online travel services: a conceptual model", *European Business Review,* 20 (1), pp. 4-19

Nussbaum, M. (2000), *Women and Human needs*, Oxford University Press, Oxford

O'Connor, D. (2005), "Towards a new interpretation of "hospitality" ", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 17 (3), pp. 267- 271

O'Donohoe, S. (1994), "Advertising uses and gratifications", *European Journal of Marketing,* 28 (8/9), pp. 52-75

Oh, H. (1999), "Service quality, customer satisfaction and customer value: A holistic perspective", *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 18 (1), pp. 67- 82

Oh, H. (2000), "Diners' perceptions of quality value and satisfaction", *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly,* 41 (3), p. 58-66

O'Leary, S., Deegan, J. (2005), "Ireland's image as a tourism destination in France: Attribute importance and performance", *Journal of Travel Research,* 43 (3), pp. 247-260

Oliver, R. (1980), "A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions", *J Mark Res,* 17 (3), pp. 460-469

Oliver, R. (1997), *Satisfaction: A Behavioural Perspective on the consumer*, McGraw-Hill, New York, p. 13, p. 403

Oliver, R. (1999), "Value as excellence in the consumption experience", in Holbrook, M. (Ed), *Consumer value. A framework for analysis and research,* Routledge, London

Oliver, R., Burke, R. (1999), "Expectation processes in satisfaction formation", *Journal of Service Research,* 1 (3), pp. 196-214

Oliver, R., Desarbo, W. (1988), "Response determinants in satisfaction judgements", *Journal of Consumer Research,* 14, pp. 459-507

Oppermann, M. (1996), "Rural tourism in Southern Germany", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 23, pp. 86-102

Oppermann, M. (1997), "Rural tourism in Germany; farm and rural tourism operators", in Page, S. and Getz, D. (Eds), *The Business of Rural Tourism, International Perspectives,* International Thomson Business Press, London

Oppermann, M. (1998), "Destination threshold potential and the law of repeat visitation", *Journal of Travel Research,* 37, pp. 131-137

Oppermann, M. (1999), "Predicting destination choice- A discussion of destination loyalty", *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* 5 (1), pp. 51- 65

Oppermann, M. (2000), "Tourism destination loyalty", *Journal of Travel Research,* 39, pp. 78-84

Ostrom, A., Iacobucci, D. (1995), "Consumer trade-offs and the evaluation of services", *Journal of Marketing,* 59, pp. 17-28

Othman, R. (2004), "An applied ethnographic method for evaluating retrieval features", *The electronic Library,* 22 (5), pp. 425-432

Page, S. (2003), *Tourism Management: Managing for change*, Butterworth- Heinemann, Linacre House, Jordan Hill, Oxford.

Palmer, C. (2005), "An Ethnography of Englishness: Experiencing identity through tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32 (1), pp. 7- 27

Parasuraman, A., Grewal, D. (2000), "The impact of technology on the quality- value- loyalty chain: A research agenda", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,* 28 (1), pp. 168- 174

Parasuraman, A., Zeithalm, V., Berry, L. (1985), "A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research", *Journal of Marketing*, 49, pp. 41- 50

Parasuraman, A., Zeithalm, V., Berry, L. (1988a), "SERVQUAL: a multiple- item scale for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality", *Journal of Retailing,* 64 (1), pp. 12-40

Parasuraman, A., Zeithalm, V., Berry, L. (1988b), "Refinement and Reassessment of the SERVQUAL Scale", *Journal of Retailing,* 67, pp. 420-450

Parasuraman, A., Zeithalm, V., Berry, L. (1991), "Reassessment of expectations as a comparison standard in measuring service quality: Implications for further research", *Journal of Marketing,* 58, pp. 120- 135

Park, D., Yoon, Y. (2009), "Segmentation by motivation in rural tourism: A Korean case study", *Tourism Management,* 30 (1), pp. 99-108

Parker, C., Mathews, B. (2001), "Customer satisfaction: contrasting academic and consumers' interpretations", *Marketing Intelligence& Planning,* 19 (1), pp. 38- 44

Parker, L., Roffey, B. (1997), "Methodological themes: back to the drawing board: Revisiting grounded theory and the everyday accountant's and manager's reality", *Accounting, Auditing& Accountability Journal*, 10 (2), pp. 212-247

Parker, P., Tavassoli, N. (2000), "Homeostasis and consumer behaviour across cultures", *International Journal of Research in Marketing,* pp. 33-53

Parsons, E. (2003), "Seal Management in Scotland: Tourist perceptions and the possible impacts on the Scottish Tourism industry", *Current Issues in Tourism*, 6 (6), pp. 540-546

Patterson, K. (1997), "Delighted clients are loyal clients", *Rough Notes*, 140 (3), pp. 34-36

Patterson, P., Spreng, R. (1997), "Modelling the relationship between perceived value, satisfaction and purchase intentions in a business-to-business, services context: An empirical examination", *International Journal of Service Industry Management,* 8 (5), pp. 414-434

Pawitra, T., Tan, K. (2003), "Tourist satisfaction in Singapore- a perspective from Indonesian tourists", *Managing Service Quality*, 13 (5), 399- 411

Pearce, P. (1982), *The social psychology of tourist behaviour,* Pergamon Press, Oxford

Pearce, D. (1989), *Tourism Development*, Longman, Harlow

Peggy, T. (2003), "Limits of Imagineering: a case study of Penang", *International Journal of Urban & Regional Research*, 27 (3), pp. 545-563

Pender, L., Sharpley, R. (2005), *The Management of Tourism*, Sage, London

Perales, R. (2002), "Rural tourism in Spain", *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29, pp. 1101-1110

Perez, J. (2002), "Ascertaining Landscape Perceptions and Preferences with Pair-wise Photographs: planning rural tourism in Extremadura, Spain", *Landscape research,* 27 (3), pp. 297-308

Petralia, F. (2006), "Religious Tourism in the priorities of the Ministry of Tourism Development", *TravelDailyNews*, (online), available at: www.traveldailynews.gr (March, 2006)

Petrick, J. (2004a), "The roles of quality, perceived value and satisfaction in predicting cruise passengers' behavioural intentions", *Journal of Travel Research,* 42 (4), pp. 397- 407

Petrick, J. (2004b), "Are loyal visitors desired visitors", *Tourism Management,* 25, pp. 463-470

Petrick, J., Backman, S. (2002a), "An examination of the determinants of golf travellers' satisfaction", *Journal of Travel Research,* 40, pp. 252-258

Petrick, J., Backman, S. (2002b), "An examination of the construct of perceived vale for the prediction of golf travelers' intentions to repurchase", *Journal of Travel Research,* 41 (1), pp. 38- 45

Petrick, J., Morais, D., Norman, W. (2001), "An examination of the determinants of entertainment vacationers' intentions to revisit", *Journal of Travel Research,* 40 (1), pp. 41-48

Petrick, J, Sirakaya, E. (2004), "Segmenting cruises by loyalty", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 31 (2), pp. 472-475

Petrzelka, P., Bell, M. (2000), "Rationality and Solidarities: The social organization of common property resources in the Imdrhas Valley of Morocco", *Human Organization,* 59, pp. 343- 352

Petrzelka, P., Krannich, S., Brehm, J., Trentelman, C. (2005), "Rural tourism and gendered nuances", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 32 (4), pp. 1121-1137

Phillimore, J. (1998), "Gender, employment and training in rural tourist attractions: the case of Herefordshire, England", *Tourism Recreation Research (India),* 23 (2), pp. 53-60

Pierini, M. (2003), Agriturismo e Turismo Rurale: Sostegno Comunitario e limiti della potesta legislative Regionale Concorrente, pp. 1-19

Pina, I., Delfa, M. (2005), "Rural tourism demand by type of accommodation", *Tourism Management,* 26 (6), pp. 951- 959

Pinchot, G. (1967), *The fight for conservation*, University of Washington press, Seattle, p.3

Pizam, A., Neumann, Y., Reichel, A. (1978), "Dimensions of tourism satisfaction with a destination area", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 5, pp. 314- 322

Pizam, A., Poleka, J. (1980), "The vacation farm: A new form of tourism destination", in Hawkins, D., Shafer, E., Rovelstad, J. (Eds), *Tourism marketing and management issues,* George Washington University, Washington, DC, pp. 203-216

Poon, A. (1993), *Tourism, Technology and Competitive Strategies*, C.A.B International, Wallingford

Poon, W., Low, K. (2005), "Are travellers satisfied with Malaysian hotels?", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 17 (3), pp.217- 227

Powdermaker, H. (1966), *Stranger and Friend, The Way of an Anthropologist,* Norton& Co, New York, p.9.

Power, T. (1996), *Lost landscapes and failed economies: The search for a value of place,* Island Press, Washington DC

Prakash, V., Lounsbury, J. (1984), "The role of expectations in the determination of consumer satisfaction", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,* 12 (3), pp. 1-17

Pritchard, M., Howard, D. (1997), "The loyal traveller: Examining a typology of service patronage", *Journal of Travel Research,* 35 (4), pp. 2-10

Prohaska, S. (1995), "Trends in cultural tourism", in Collin, M., Baum, T. (Eds), *Island Tourism: Management Principles and Practice,* Wiley, London, pp. 33-51

Pryor, L. (2002), "Local tourists pour $24bn into country", *Australasian Business Intelligence,* (online), available at: Infotrac (June, 2004)

Pryor, S., Grossbart, S. (2005), "Ethnography of an American Main Street", *International Journal of Retail& Distribution Management,* 33 (11), pp. 806-823

Puijk, R. (2001), "Tourism in the Fjords and Mountains: A case study from Western Norway", in Smith, V., Brent, M. (Ed.), *Hosts and Guests Revisited: Tourism Issues of the 21st Century*, Congnizant, New York, pp 175- 183

Pulina, M., Dettori, D., Paba, A. (2006), "Life cycle of agrotouristic firms in Sardinia", *Tourism Management,* 5, pp. 1006-1016

Punch, K. (1998), *Introduction to social research: Quantitative and Qualitative approaches*, Sage, London

Punch, M. (2004), "Observation and the police", in Hammersly, M. (Ed), *Social Research- Philosophy, Politics and Practice*, Sage, London

Quelette, J., Wood, W. (1998), "Habit and intention in everyday life: The multiple process by which past behaviour predicts future behaviour", *Psychological Bulletin,* 124 (1), pp. 54-74

Radder, L., Wang, Y. (2006), "Dimensions of guest house service: Managers' perceptions and business traveller's expectations", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 18 (7), pp. 554- 562

Ragin, C. (1994), *Constructing Social Research. The Unity and Diversity of Method,* Forge Press, Thousand Oaks, CA

Rao, N. (1999), "Sex tourism in South Asia", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 11 (2/3), pp. 96- 99

Ratz, T., Puczko, L. (1998), "Rural tourism and sustainable development", in *Rural Tourism Management: Sustainable options International conference,* Auchincruive, Scotland

Raz, A. (1999), *Riding the Black Ship: Japan and Tokyo Disneyland*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass.

Redclift, N., Sinclair, M. (1991), *Working women: International Perspectives on Labour and Gender Ideology,* Routledge, London

Reichel, A., Haber, S. (2005), "A three- sector comparison of the business performance of small tourism enterprises: an exploratory study", *Tourism management,* 26 (5), pp. 681- 690

Reichel, A., Lowengart, O., Milman, A. (2000), "Rural Tourism in Israel: service quality and orientation", *Tourism Management*, 21 (5), pp. 451-459

Reichheld, F., Sasser, W. (1990), "Zero defections: quality comes to services", *Harvard Business Review,* 68, pp. 105-111

Reisinger, Y., Turner, L. (2003), *Cross-Cultural Behaviour in Tourism: Concepts and analysis,* Butterworth- Heinemann, UK

Riad, S. (2007), "Of mergers and cultures: What happened to shared values and joint assumptions?", *Journal of Organizational Change Management,* 20 (1), pp. 26-43

Richter, L. (1995), "Tourism Politics: What has changed?", *Contours,* 7, pp. 20-27

Riddle, D. (1992), "Leveraging cultural factors in international service delivery", *Advances in Services Marketing and Management,* 1, pp. 297-322

Rittinchainuwat, B., Qu, H., Mongkonvanit, C. (2002), "A Study of the impact of travel satisfaction on the likelihood of travellers to revisit Thailand", *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing,* 12 (2/3), pp. 19-43

Roberts, L. (1996), "Barriers to the development of rural tourism in the Bran area of Transylvania", in Robinson, M., Evans, N., Callaghan, P. (Eds), *Tourism and Culture; Image, Identity and Marketing,* Business Education Publishers, Sunderland, pp. 185-196

Roberts, L., Hall, D. (2001), *Rural Tourism and Recreation: Principles to Practice,* CAB International, Wallingford, UK

Roberts, L., Hall, D. (2004), "Consuming the countryside: Marketing for 'rural tourism'", *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* 10 (3), pp. 253-263

Robertson, V. (2001), "Tips on Cultivating a Crop of Tourists", *The Glasgow Herald,* Glasgow

Robinson, J., Bennett, E. (2000), *Hunting for Sustainability in Tropical Forests*, Columbia University Press, New York

Rodriguez Del Bosque, I., San Martin, H., Collado, J. (2006), "The role of expectations in the consumer satisfaction formation process: Empirical evidence in the travel agency sector", *Tourism Management,* 27 (3), pp. 410- 419

Rosenquist, L. (2005), "A psychosocial analysis of the human-sanitation nexus", *Journal of Environmental Psychology,* 25 (3), pp. 335-346

Ross, E., Iso-Ahola, S. (1991), "Sightseeing tourists' motivation and satisfaction", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 18, pp. 226-237

Ross, G. (1992), "Resident perceptions of the impact of tourism on an Australian City", *Journal of Travel Research,* 30 (3), pp. 13- 17

Ross, G. (1993), "Destination evaluation and vacation preferences", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 20, pp. 477-489

Rowe, A., Smith, J., Borein, F. (2002), *Travel and Tourism*, University of Cambridge, Cambridge

Russel, P. (2000), "Community-based tourism", *Travel & Tourism Analyst*, 5, pp.89- 102

Ruyter, K., Bloemer, J., Peeters, P. (1997), "Merging service quality and service satisfaction: an empirical test of an integrative model", *Journal of Economic Psychology,* 18 (4), pp. 387-406

Ryan, C. (1994), *Researching tourist satisfaction: Issues, concepts and problems*, Thomson Business Press, London

Ryan, C. (1995a), "Learning about tourists from conversations: The over 55s in Majorca", *Tourism Management*, 16 (3), p.24

Ryan, C. (1995b), *Researching Tourist satisfaction- Issues, Concepts, Problems*, Routledge, London

Ryan, C. (2002), *The tourist experience*, Continuum, London

Ryan, C., Cliff, A. (1997), "Do travel agencies measure up to customer expectations? An empirical investigation of travel agencies' service quality as measured by SERVQUAL", *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing,* 6 (2), pp. 1-31

Ryan, C., Hughes, K., Chirgwin, S. (2000), "The gaze, spectacle and ecotourism", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 27, (1), pp. 148-163

Ryan, C., Kinder, R. (1996), "Sex, tourism and sex tourism: fulfilling similar needs?", *Tourism Management,* 17 (2), pp. 507-518

Saez, C., Fuentes, M., Montes, F. (2007), "Service quality measurement in rural accommodation", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 34 (1), pp. 45-65

Salazar, N. (2005), "Tourism and globalization 'Local Tour Guiding'", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 32 (3), pp. 628- 646

Saleh, F., Ryan, C. (1992), "Client perceptions of hotels: A multiattribute approach", *Tourism Management,* 13, pp. 163-168

Sanders, E. (2002), "Special section: ethnography in NPD research. How 'applied ethnography' can improve your NPD research process", *Visions Magazine*, (online), available at: www.pdma.org/visions/apr02/applied.html (June, 2007)

Saveriades, A. (2000), "Establishing the social tourism carrying capacity for the tourist resorts of the east coast of the Republic of Cyprus", *Tourism Management (UK)*, 21 (2), pp. 147-156

Schermerhon, J., Hut, J., Osborn, R. (2000), *Organisational Behaviour*, 7th ed., John Wiley & Sons, New York

Schiffman, L., Kanuk, L. (2004), *Consumer Behaviour,* Prendice Hall, Upper Saddle River

Schlesinger, L., Heskett, J. (1991), "Breaking the cycle of failure in services", *Sloan Management Review,* 32, pp.17-28

Schmitt, B., Pan, Y. (1994), "Managing corporate and brand identities in the Asia- Pacific region", *California Management Review,* 36, pp. 32-48

Schmoll, G. (1977), *Tourism promotion*, Tourism International Press, London

Schofield, J. (2004), "Generalizability of Qualitative Research", in Hammersley, M. (Ed), *Social Research- Philosophy, Politics and Practice*, Sage, London

Schouten, J., McAlexander, J. (1995), "Ethnography of the new bikers", *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 22 (1), pp. 43-61

Schwandt, T. (1997), *Qualitative Inquiry, A Dictionary of Terms,* Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA

Scott, W. (1965), "Field methods in the study of organizations", in March, J. (Ed), *Handbook of Organizations*, Rand McNally College Publishing Company, Chicago, IL, pp. 261-304

Seaton, A. (2000), "Another weekend away looking for dead bodies: Battlefield Tourism on the Somme and in Flanders", *Journal of Tourism and Recreation Research,* 25 (3), pp. 63- 79

Seddighi, H., Theocharous, A. (2002), "A model of tourism destination choice: a theoretical and empirical analysis", *Tourism Management,* 23 (5), pp. 475-487

Selin, S., Howard, E., Cable, T. (1988), "An analysis of consumer loyalty to municipal recreation programs", *Leisure Science,* 10, pp. 210- 223

Selwyn, T. (2000), "An Anthropology of Hospitality", in Lashley, C., Morrison, A. (Eds), *In search of Hospitality: Theoretical perspectives and debates*, Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford, UK

Sen, A. (1985), *Commodities and Capabilities*, North Holland, Amsterdam

Sgartsou, T. (2006), "Pleased from the level of services and not from the cost are the tourists of Cyprus", *TravelDailyNews*, (online), available at: http://traveldailynews.gr (February, 2006)

Shankar, A. (2000), "Lost in music? Subjective personal introspection and popular music", *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal,* 3 (1), pp. 27-37

Shareef, R., Hoti, S. (2005), "Small island tourism economies and country risk ratings", *Mathematics and Computers in Simulation,* 68 (5-6), pp. 557- 570

Shareef, R., McAleer, M. (2005), "Modelling international tourism demand and volatility in small island tourism economies", *International Journal of Tourism Research,* 7, pp. 313-333

Sharples, A. (2003), "Cider and the marketing of the tourism experience in Somerset, England: three case studies", *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 14 (3/4), pp. 49-60

Sharpley, R. (1996), *Tourism& Leisure in the countryside*, 2nd ed., ELM, Huntingdon

Sharpley, R. (2000a), "Tourism and sustainable development: exploring the theoretical divide", *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 8 (1), pp. 1- 19

Sharpley, R. (2000b), "The influence of the accommodation sector on tourism development: lessons from Cyprus", *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 19 (3), pp. 275-293

Sharpley, R. (2001), "Rural Tourism and Sustainable development: a governance perspective", in Mitchell, M. and Kirkpatrick, I. (Eds), *New Directions in Managing Rural Tourism and Leisure: Local Impacts, Global Trends,* The Scottish Agricultural College, Auchincruive

Sharpley, R. (2002), "Rural tourism and the challenge of tourism diversification: the case of Cyprus", *Tourism Management*, 23 (3), pp. 233-244

Sharpley, R. (2005), "Managing the countryside for tourism: a governance perspective", in Pernder, L., Sharpley, R. (Eds), *The management of Tourism*, Sage, London, p. 23, pp. 175- 187, p. 23

Sharpley, R., Sharpley, J. (1997), *Rural Tourism: An Introduction*, International Thomson Business press, London

Sharpley, R., Sharpley, J., Page, S. (1997), *Rural tourism: An introduction*, International Thomson Publishing, London

Sharpley, R., Vass, A. (2005), "Tourism, farming and diversification: An attitudinal study", *Tourism Management,* 27 (5), pp. 1040-1052

Shaw, E. (1999), "A guide to the qualitative research process: evidence from a small firm study", *Qualitative Market Research,* 2 (2), pp. 59-70

Shaw, G., Williams, A. (1994) *Critical issues in Tourism: A geographical Perspective*, Blackwell, Oxford

Shepherd., A. (1998*), Sustainable rural development*, Mcmillan, Basingstoke

Sherif, M., Hovland, C. (1961), *Social judgement: assimilation and contrast effects in communication and attitude change,* Yale University Express, New Have, CT

Sherry, J. (1990), "A sociocultural analysis of a Midwestern American flea market", *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17, pp. 13-30

Shoemaker, S., Lewis, R. (1999), "Customer loyalty: the future of hospitality marketing", *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 18 (4), pp. 345- 370

Short, J. (1997), *Imagined country: Society, culture and environment,* Routledge, London

Shortt, G., Ruys, H. (2000), "Hotel security: The needs of the mature age market", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 6 (5), pp. 14- 19

Siemens, L., (2007), "Challenges faced by rural/remote tourism businesses on Vancouver Island: an exploratory study", *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy,* 1 (4), pp. 208-320

Silverman, D. (2000), *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook*, Sage, London

Sirakaya, E., Woodside, A. (2005), "Building and testing theories of decision making by travellers", *Tourism Management,* 26, pp. 815-832

Skogland, I., Siguaw, J. (2004), "Are you satisfied customers loyal?", *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly,* 45 (3), pp. 221-234

Skuras, D., Petrou, A., Clark, G. (2006), "Demand for rural tourism: the effects of quality and information", *Agricultural Economics*, 35 (2), pp. 183-192

Smith, A. (1993), "Elderly consumers evaluation of service quality", *Marketing Intelligence and Planning,* 11, pp. 13-19

Smith, M., Krannich, R. (1998), "Tourism dependence and resident attitudes", *Annals of Tourism Research (UK),* 25 (4), pp. 783-802

Snepenger, D., Reitman, S., Johnson, J., Snepenger, M. (1998), "Is downtown mainly for tourists?", *Journal of Travel Research* (USA), 36 (3)

Social Research Association. (2003), *Ethical guidelines*, Social Research Association, London

Solomon, M. (2002), *Consumer behaviour*, Prentice- Hall, Singapore

Song, D. (2005), "Why do people visit the countryside? Push & Pull factors", *Journal of Green Tourism,* 12 (2), pp. 117-144

Sonmez, S., Apostolopoulos, Y. (2000), "Conflict resolution through tourism co-operation? The case of the partitioned island-state of Cyprus", *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing (USA)*, 9 (3), p. 56

Sonmez, S., Sirakaya, E. (2002), "A distorted destination image? The case of Turkey", *Journal of Travel Research,* 41, pp. 185-196

Sorensen, A. (2003), "Backpacker Ethnography", *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(4), pp. 847- 867

Soutar, J. (2001), "Service quality, customer satisfaction and value: An examination of their relationships", in Kandampully, J., Mok, C., Sparks, B. (Eds), *Service quality management in hospitality, tourism and leisure,* The Haworth Press, New York

Sparks, B., Bradley, G. (1997), "Antecedents and consequences of perceived service provider effort in the hospitality industry", *Hospitality Research Journal,* 20 (3), pp. 17- 34

Spradley, J. (1980), *Participant Observation,* Holt, Rinehart& Winston, New York

Spreng, R., Chiou, J. (2002), "A cross- cultural assessment of the satisfaction formation process", *European Journal of Marketing*, 36 (7/8), pp. 829- 839

Spreng, R., Mackoy, R. (1996), "An empirical examination of a model of perceived service quality and satisfaction", *J Retail,* 72 (2), pp. 201- 214

Squire, J. (1994), "Accounting for cultural meanings: The interface between Geography and Tourism Studies", *Progress in Human Geography,* 18, pp. 1-16

Stathopoulos, D. (2006a), "Health Tourism in Romania", *TravelDailyNews,* (online), available at: http://traveldailynews.gr (April, 2006)

Stathopoulos, D. (2006b), "Agrotourism Seminar in Lakonia", *TravelDailyNews* (online), available at: http://traveldailynews.gr (March, 2006)

Stauss, B., Neuhaus, P. (1997), "The qualitative satisfaction model", *International Journal of Service Industry Management,* 8 (3), pp. 236- 249

Stevenson, M. (2002), "Travelling to the Ancestral Homelands. The Aspirations and experiences of a UK Carribean community", *Current Issues in Tourism*, 5, pp. 378- 425

Stewart, H., Hope, C., Muhlemann, A. (1998), "Professional service quality. A step beyond other services?", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services,* 5 (4), pp. 209- 222

Stewart, W., Floyd, M. (2004), "Visualizing Leisure", *Journal of leisure research,* 36 (4), p.4

Stradling, S., Anable, J., Carreno, M. (2007), "Performance, importance and user disgruntlement: A six- step method for measuring satisfaction with travel modes", *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 41 (1), p. 98- 106

Su, A. (2004), "Customer satisfaction measurement practice in Taiwan hotels", *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 23 (4), pp. 397-408

Suh, S., Lee, Y., Park, Y., Shin, G. (1997), "The impact of consumer involvement on the consumers' perception of service quality- focusing on the Korean hotel industry", *Journal of travel and tourism marketing,* 6 (2), pp. 33-52

Sureshchandar, G., Rajendran, C., Anantharaman, R. (2002), "The relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction- A factor specific approach", *The Journal of Services Marketing,* 16 (4), pp. 363-374

Swan, J., Bowers, M. (1998), "Services quality and satisfaction", *Journal of services marketing,* 12 (1), pp. 59- 72

Sweeney, J., Soutar, G., Johnson, L. (1996), "Retail service quality and perceived value: A comparison of two models", *Journal of Retailing and customer services,* 4 (1), pp. 39-48

Taguchi, K., Iwai, Y. (1998), "Agri-tourism in Austria and its implications for Japanese rural tourism", in Hall, D., O'Hanlon, L. (Eds), *Rural Tourism Management: Sustainable Options,* Auchincruive, The Scottish Agricultural College, pp. 527- 530

Tam, J. (2000), "The effects of service quality, perceived value and customer satisfaction on behavioural intentions", *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing,* 6 (4), pp. 31-43

Tam, J. (2004), "Customer satisfaction, service quality and perceived value", *Journal of Marketing Management,* 20 (7/8), pp. 21-35

Taylor, S. (1997), "Assessing regression-based importance weights for quality perceptions and satisfaction judgements in the presence of higher order and/or interactions effects", *Journal of Retailing,* 73 (1), pp. 135-159

Taylor, S., Baker, T. (1994), "An assessment of the relationships between service quality and customer satisfaction in the formation of consumers' purchase intentions", *Journal of Retailing,* 70 (2), pp. 163-178

Teas, R. (1993), "Expectations performance evaluation and customers' perceptions of quality", *Journal of Marketing*, 57, pp.18- 34

Tedlock, B. (2000), "Ethnography and ethnographic representation", in Denzin, N., Lincoln, Y. (Eds), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, Sage, London, p.455

Tesch, R. (1990), *Qualitative Research: Analysis types and software tools*, The Falmer Press, London

The official web site of the Republic of Cyprus. (2005), *Agrotourism in Cyprus*, (online), available at: http://www.pio.gov.cy/cyprus_today/jan_mar99/agrotourism.htm (September, 2005)

Theodoulou, M. (2000), "Rowdy tourists alarm once sleepy fishing village", *Christian Science Monitor*, 92 (191), p.2

Theophanous, A. (1996), *The political economy of a federal Cyprus*, Intercollege Press, Nicosia

Thibal, S. (1988), *Rural tourism and Europe*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg

Thorpe, A. (2003), *Travel- Continental Thrift,* The Sydney Morning Herald, Sydney

Tian-Cole, S., Crompton, J. (2003), "A Conceptualization of the Relationships between service quality and visitor satisfaction, and their Links to Destination Selection", *Leisure Studies,* 22, pp. 65-80

Tian- Cole, S., Crompton, J., Willson, V. (2002), "An empirical investigation of the relationships between service quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions among visitors to a wildlife refuge", *J Leis Res,* 34 (1), pp. 1-24

Tikkanen, I. (2007), "Maslow's hierarchy and food tourism in Finland: Five cases", *British Food Journal,* 109 (9), pp. 721-734

Timothy, D. (2004), *New Horizons in Tourism: Strange experiences and stranger practices*, CABI publishing, UK

Tinker, A. (1998), "Hamlet without the prince: the ethnographic turn in information systems research", *Accounting, Auditing& Accountability Journal,* 11 (1), pp. 13-34

Torres, E., Kline, S. (2006), "From satisfaction to delight: a model for the hotel industry", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18 (4), pp. 290-301

Travel Industry Association of America. (1998), "Small towns and villages appeal to U.S. travellers", *Westchester County Business Journal,* 40 (21)

Truong, T., Foster, D. (2006), "Using HOLSAT to evaluate tourist satisfaction at destinations: The case of Australian holidaymakers in Vietnam", *Tourism Management,* 27 (5), pp. 842- 855)

Tsaur, S., Lin, Y. (2004), "Promoting service quality in tourist hotels: The role of HRM practices and service behaviour", *Tourism Management,* 25, pp. 471-481

Tse, D, Wilton, P. (1988), "Models of consumer satisfaction formation: an extension", *Journal of Marketing,* 25, pp. 204-212

Turnock, D. (1999), "Sustainable rural tourism in the Romanian Carpathians", *Geographical Journal,* 165, pp. 192-199

Turton, M. (2001), *Catch a plane to Venus,* Herald- Sun, Australia

Tyrvainen, L., Silvennoinen, H., Nousiainen, I., Tahvanainen, L. (2001), "Rural Tourism in Finland: Tourists expectation of Landscape and Environment", *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, p.133- 140

Ueltschy, L., Laroche, M., Tamila, R., Yannopoulos, P. (2002), "Cross- cultural invariance of measures of satisfaction and service quality", *Journal of Business Research, 5739, pp. 1-12*

Um, S., Chon, K., Ro, Y. (2006), "Antecedents of revisit intention", *Annals of revisit intention,* 33 (4), pp. 1141- 1158

Um, S., Crompton, J. (1990), "Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 17 (3), pp. 432-448

UNWTO. (2009), *Placing Tourism and Travel in Global Stimulus Packages and the Green Economy.* Available online at: http://www.unwto.org/media, Accessed on: 10/04/2009

UNWTO International Conference on Tourism Statistics. (2009), *Tourism: An Engine for Employment Creation and Economic Stimulus*, Bali, Indonesia

UNWTO Resilience Committee-TRC. (2009), *Tourism confronting the Economic Downturn*. Available online at: http://www.unwto.org/media, Accessed on: 10/04/2009

Upchurch, R., Lashley, C. (2006), *Timeshare Resort Operations: A guide to management practice,* Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann, Burlington, MA, U.S.A

Urry, J. (2002), *The tourist gaze,* 2nd ed., Sage, London

Uysal, M., Jurowski, C. (1993), "Testing the push and pull factors", *Annals of Travel Research,* 21 (4), pp. 844-846

Valdes, L., Del Valle, E. (2003), "El turismo rural en Espana", in: *Curso Avanzado de Turismo en Areas Rurales: Estrategias y Promocion,* Instituto Agronomico Mediterraneo de Zaragoza

Van Broeck. (2001), "Pammukkale: Turkish Hommestay Tourism", in Smith, V., Brent, M. (Eds), *Hosts and Guests Revisited: Tourism Issues of the 21st Century,* Cognizant, New York, pp. 161- 174

Van Den Putte, B. (1991), 20 *years of theory of reasoned action of Fishbein and Ajzen: A meta-analysis,* University of Amsterdam, The Netherlands

Van Maanen, J. (1982), "Fieldwork on the beat", in Van Maanen, J., Dabbs, J., Faulkner, R. (Eds), *Varieties of Qualitative Research*, Sage, Beverly Hills, CA

Van Maanen, J. (1996), "Ethnography", in KUPER, A, KUPER, J. (Eds)*, The social science Encyclopedia*, 2nd ed., Routledge, London, pp. 263-265

Van Maanen, J. (2006), "Ethnography then and now", *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: An International Journal,* 1 (1), pp. 13-21

Van Raaij, W., Francken, D. (1984), "Vacation destinations, activities and satisfactions", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 25, pp. 551-578

Veal, A. (1997), *Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism: A practical guide*, Pearson Education Limited, Harlow, England, p.140

Vinyaratn, P., Mertens, B. (2001), "Talking up Thai SMEs (the Thai government's new policy on small businesses)", *Asian Business (Hong Kong)*, 37 (12)

Voss, G., Parasuraman, A., Grewal, D. (1998), "The roles of price, performance, and expectations in determining satisfaction in service exchanges", *Journal of Marketing,* 62, pp. 46-61

Walford, N. (2001), "Patterns of development in tourist accommodation enterprises on farms in England and Wales", *Applied Geography,* 21, pp. 331- 345

Walizer, M., Wienir, P. (1978), *Research Methods and Analysis. Searching for Relationships*, Harper& Row, New York, p.333

Walker, J., Baker, J. (2000), "An exploratory study of multi-expectation framework for services", *Journal of Services Marketing,* 14 (5), pp. 411-431

Wallendorf, M., Arnould, E. (1991), "We gather together: consumptions rituals of Thanksgiving Day", *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18, 1, pp. 13-31

Wang, Y., Lo, H., Chi, R., Yang, Y. (2004), "An integrated framework for customer value and customer- relationship- management: A customer- based perspective from China", *Managing Service Quality,* 14 (2/3), pp. 169-182

Wang, Y., Vela, M., Tyler K. (2008), "Cultural perspectives: Chinese perceptions of UK hotel service quality", *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* 2 (4), pp. 312-329

Watson, E., McKenna, M., McLean, G. (1992), "TQM and services: implementing change in the NHS", *International Journal of Contemporary Management,* 4, pp. 17-20

Weaver, D. (2003), *Sustainable Tourism: A global perspective*, Elsevier, Oxford

Weaver, D., Fennel, D. (1997), "The vacation farm sector in Saskatchewan: a profile of operations", *Tourism Management,* 18 (6), pp. 357- 365

Weiermair, K. (2000), "Tourists' perceptions towards and satisfaction with service quality in the cross-cultural service encounter: implications for hospitality and tourism management", *Managing Service Quality*, 10 (6), pp. 397- 409

Weiermair, K., Fuchs, M. (1999), "Measuring tourist judgement on service quality", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 26, pp. 1004-1021

Westbrook, R., Newman, J. (1978), "An analysis of shopper dissatisfaction for major household appliances", *Journal of Marketing Research*, 15 (8), pp. 456- 466

Whipple, T., Thach, S. (1988), "Group Tour Management: Does good service produce satisfied customers?", *Journal of Travel Research*, 27 (2), pp. 16- 21

White, C., Yu, Y. (2005), "Satisfaction emotions and consumer behavioral intentions", *Journal of Services Marketing,* 19 (6), pp. 411- 420

Williams, A., Shaw, G. (1998), *Tourism and economic development: European experiences,* 3rd ed., Chichester: Wiley, Chichester

Williams, C., Ferguson, M. (2005), "Recovering from crisis: Strategic alternatives for leisure and tourism providers based within a rural economy", *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 18 (4)

Williams, S. (1998), *Tourism Geography*, Routledge, London

Wilson, S., Fesenmaier, D., Fesenmaier, J., Van Es, J. (2001), "Factors for Success in Rural Tourism Development", *Journal of Travel Research*, 40 (2), pp. 132-138

Wind, Y., Lerner, D. (1979), "On the measurement of purchase data: Surveys versus purchase diaries", *Journal of Marketing Research,* 16, pp. 39-47

Witt, S. (1991), "Tourism in Cyprus: balancing the benefits and costs", *Tourism Management,* 12 (1), pp. 37-46

Woodruff, R. (1997), "Customer value: The next source for competitive edge", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,* 25 (2), pp. 139- 153

Woodruff, R., Cadotte, E., Jenkins R. (1983), "Modelling consumer satisfaction processed using experience norms", *Journal of Marketing Research,* 20 (8), pp.296- 304

Woodside, A., Dubelaar, C. (2002), "A general theory of tourism consumption systems: A conceptual framework and an empirical exploration", *Journal of Travel Research,* 41, pp. 120-132

Woodside, A., Frey, L., Daly, R. (1989), "Linking service quality, customer satisfaction and behavioural intention", *Journal of Health Care Marketing,* 9 (4), pp. 5-17

Woodside, A., Lysonski, S. (1989), "A general model of traveller destination choice", *Journal of Travel Research,* 27 (4), pp. 8-14

Woodside, A., McDonald, R. (1994), "General system framework of customer choice processes of tourism service", in Gasser, R., Weiermair, K. (Eds), *Spoilt for choice. Decision making processes and preference change of tourists: Intertemporal and Intercountry perspectives,* Germany: Kulturverlag, Germany, pp. 30-59

World Conference on Environment and Development. (1987), Our Common Future, Oxford University Press, p.43

Wright, J. (2002), *Scars remain a year after foot and mouth disease cull*, The Courier Mail, Queensland

WTO. (1994), "National and Regional Tourism Planning", *Methodologies and Case Studies,* Routledge, London

Xinhua News Agency. (2000), *Thailand Eyes 9.7 million Tourist Arrivals in 2001,* (online), available via: Infotrac, (June, 2004)

Xinhua News Agency. (2003), *Tourism helps increase income for Tibetians,* (online), available via: Infotrac, (June 2004)

Yague, R. (2002), "Rural tourism in Spain", *Annals of Tourism Research,* 29, pp. 1101-1110

Yi, Y. (1993), "The determinants of consumer satisfaction: the moderating role of ambiguity", *Advances in Consumer Research,* 20, pp. 502-506

Yin, R. (1994), *Case study research- design and methods*, Sage Publications, London

Yoon, Y., Lee, S. (2005), "Investigating the relationships among perceived value, satisfaction, and recommendations: The case of the Korean DMZ", *Tourism Management,* 26 (1), pp. 45-56

Yoon, Y., Uysal, M. (2005), "An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: a structural model", *Tourism Management,* 26 (1), pp. 45-56

Yu, Y., Dean, A. (2001), "The contribution of emotional satisfaction to consumer loyalty", *International Journal of Service Industry Management,* 12 (3), pp. 234-258

Yu, L., Goulden, M. (2006), "A comparative analysis of international tourists' satisfaction in Mongolia", *Tourism Management,* 27 (6), pp. 1331- 1342

Yuksel, A. (2001), "Managing customer satisfaction and retention: A case of tourist destinations, Turkey", *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* 7 (2), pp. 153-168

Yuksel, A. (2004), "Shopping experience evaluation: a case of domestic and international visitors", *Tourism Management,* 25 (6), pp. 751-759

Zeithaml, V. (1988), "Consumer perceptions of price, quality and value: A means-end model and synthesis of evidence", *Journal of Marketing,* 52 (3), pp. 2-22

Zeithaml, V. (2000), "Service quality, profitability, and the economic worth of customers: What we know and what we need to learn", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,* 28 (1), pp. 67-85

Zeithaml, V., Berry, L., Parasuraman, A. (1993), "The nature and determinants of customer satisfaction of service", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 21 (1), pp. 1-12

Zeithaml, V., Berry, L., Parasuraman, A. (1996), "The behavioural consequences of service quality", 60 (2), pp. 31-46

Zeithaml, V., Bitner, M. (2000), *Service marketing: integrating customer focus across the firm*, 2nd ed., McGraw-Hill Company, New York