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Tourism Industry Before and After the Islamic Revolution in Iran

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INTRODUCTION

The highly fluid nature of Iran's labor market and the large size of the informal services sector make accurate estimates of employment levels difficult. The last census, conducted in 1991, recorded 25.2% of the 57.8 m population as economically active, and 22.3% as in employment, suggesting that around 11% of the workforce was unemployed. However, the census included the self-employed in the informal services sector such as street vendors, currency dealers and taxi drivers among the employed, while ignoring the fact that most Iranian adults must hold down two or even three jobs in order to provide for their families. The current five-year plan aims to create 760,000 jobs a year to reduce unemployment goals. But let's see would it be a successful plan? Or we have to search for some other alternative like tourism industry. This is a project to change the image of that you already know about Iran as a Middle Eastern country, and shows that there are problems everywhere all around the world, but it is just one side of the coin. In this short account of Iranian history, the subject was not treated from the beginning and we did not go in to details which would require a dozen of volumes at least. There are many other aspects of Iranian civilization that you as the foreign tourist will discover for yourself when you are here in Iran.

GEOGRAPHICAL SITUATION

Iran, an ancient country of South Central Asia with an area of 1.6 million square kilometers, roughly three times the size of France; or equal to a fifth of the United States of America, that is to say larger than the Belgium and France, Holland and Germany, Switzerland and UK put together. Iran the most geo-strategically located country in the world, at the crossroads between East and West, directly across from Saudi Arabia and Oman, and bordering or near the borders of Turkey, Russia, Afghanistan, Pakistan, Iraq and Syria. Iran, comprising of 28 provinces and over 250 cities, is mainly based on oil income. The country, rapidly growing in population, has a highly young population structure. That is, roughly 60 percent of its 68,017,860 million populations were under 25 years of age in 2005. The country is badly in need of cash capital to invest to develop the economy, and to create job opportunities to accommodate the growing population, seriously in need of tourism and travel development. The desired development of tourism not only has its economic effect, but the development of which will respond to the growing needs of leisure in the country too. In a common sense what the country needs now to change the worldview of tourist attractions in the country developing better management and policy making, encouraging the tourists to step in and visit the huge number of tourist resorts/attractions in Iran. This sector could potentially serve as an alternative to oil income for the country.

Iran is among the top ten countries for its climatic conditions which are also of great benefit to the promotion of tourism. Statistics and figures indicate that the potentials of the tourist industry to generate hard currency are a lot greater than the present hard currency revenues resulting from the exportation of oil. Iran is taking advantage of its strategic position as the "gateway" to huge central Asia markets and as the cross roads of the ancient Silk Route (one of the world's oldest and most historically important trade routes which correlates China, Central Asia and West). Iran is a cradle of culture and history. Iran is about 10% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of an economic equilibrium that will reduce unemployment improve significantly people's welfare by converting oil wealth into sustainable development. Iran has plenty of oil export and thus plenty of income in hard currency. Rich in oil and gas resources, Iran also wants to make itself indispensable to its neighbors as an efficient transport hub. But Iran, as it has been mentioned previously, has also a large population of 68 million, huge subsidies and a highly inefficient economic management system with approximately 80% of the economy controlled directly or indirectly by the government. On the other hand some 2.5 million Afghan and Iraqi refugees have taken refuge inside Iran, of which approximately 45,000 are today sheltered in camps. Supporting the refugees' humanitarian needs has become a financial burden on Iran's economy, but the prospects for wholesale repatriation appear slight. Thus making ends meet is a difficult task for the Iranian government. Therefore to have an alternative income beside the oil revenue will allow the Iranian government to finance its budget deficit in the future not only via domestic tourism but also through international tourism widely.

Iran enjoys rich natural and historical attractions. It is one of the seven major civilizations of the world, housing thousands of historical monuments. Such monuments as Haft-Tappeh, Hegmataneh and Persepolis as well as monuements located in open areas such as Naqshe Jahan Square in Isfahan and the Yazd Mosque in Yazd. In addition to all this, the ethnic and geographic diversities have created a good collection of tourism attractions in Iran. The question here is why a country which is among the top ten countries in the world as far as its ancient and historical sites are concerned is so completely incapable of ensuring of this multi-billion dollar industry for itself. One study indicates that during a period of 12 years, a total of one billion 461 million dollars were generated in Iran, while nine billion 317 million dollars were lost due to Iranians visiting foreign countries.

In 1988, the number of tourists traveling in Iran was 70,740, though on the other hand, a total of 66,979 Iranian citizens left the country in the same year. After ten years, the number of tourists entering the country in 1997 reached the all-time high of 764,092 individuals. At the same time, the number of Iranian who had left the country in 1997 went up to 1,433,367 people. One of the main reasons for this rather stark change in proportion was the end of the imposed war, and the return of peace and security to the country. Since the adoption of Resolution 598 which brought the Iraqi imposed war on Iran to an end, the social situation of Iran has been changed properly, but the mentally effect on Iranian people was so bad that imposed them to leave country and get shelter in some other countries. In Iran tourism is not regarded as an industry or a part of the economy. A 10 percent increase in Iran's tourism revenues, a result of nearly four million traveling last year, fetched the country almost $2 billion. According to the World Tourism Organization report, in 2000, Iran ranked 68th with respect to the number of tourist arrivals, which reached one million and 77th place with respect to tourism revenues reaching $477 million.

In the post 1979 era (after the Islamic Revolution of Iran), and in the aftermath of the Iraqi imposed war on Iran certain restrictions were forged as a result of the negative outlook that was practiced by the disciplinary force towards presence of foreign tourists in the country. However, efforts have been made in recent years to encourage tourists from Muslim and Asian countries in Africa and certain Arab countries in the Middle East to visit the country. Such efforts have so far proven effective. Arab tourists from the Persian Gulf littoral states prefer to spend their leisure time in Iran, as their visit would cost them less than their trip to Europe due to high foreign exchange rates. Furthermore, religious sites in certain parts of Iran such as Khorasan, Qom and several other cities have been among other reasons to attract tourists from among Shiite Muslim communities in the region.

IRAN'S SITUATION FOR HOSTING TOURISTS

In 1988, the country had 30,572 hotel beds on offer, which amounts to a ratio of only 6 beds for every 10,000 people in this country. Obviously, this means that hotels in Iran can hardly even accommodate the domestic demand. By 1997, after ten years of hard work, the hotel accommodation capacity had been raised to 50,880. That is to say that for every 10,000 people in the country, there were now 8 beds available in hotels. Although there is a marked difference between the 1987 and 1997 ratios, the fact remains that even this increase in the number of hotel beds cannot meet the internally generated demand, and that we are still far from attaining a favorable position in this regard.

The disasters that have affected the Southeast Asia region recently appear to have awakened the world economists to the importance of tourism and to poverty alleviation in particular. In the UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and Pacific (ESCAP) ESCAP's annual state of the Asia-Pacific economic report, released recently, tourism is mentioned 64 times in assessing the conditions of countries, considered in UN classification as being "least developed economies." The recent Sars and tsunami disaster showed how dependent the Third World Countries are on tourism for both jobs and export earnings.

Paradoxically, although these countries have long stressed the positive impact of tourism on their economies, it is not until the negative effects that economists suddenly realize that tourism is a serious business, not just a fun-and-frolic means of recreation for foreigners. But, in our country Iran, it seems that the officials in charge of the tourism industry have only got a vague idea of what tourism is really about. Addressing a seminar on expansion of Iran-Spain tourism cooperation held in Tehran last month Ali Hashemi, a top official in Iran's Cultural Heritage and Tourism Organization said that, Iran owns only 0,09 percent of the world's tourism facilities and is planning to raise the figure to 1.5 percent on a 20-year horizon. Meanwhile, another high-ranking authority in the same organization noted that Iran has a share of 0.07 percent in the world's total tourism revenues and is willing to increase the figure to two percent by end of the 20-year plan. He added that the number of the foreign tourists traveling to Iran stands at 700,000, which will rise to 20 million by end of the 20-year plan earning the country an income of $25 billion.

We should wake up, we have overslept. Out of the 200 hotels operational in 1978, only 60 are working now. In another word, after all these years we have gone backwards rather than making our way forward. Given the substandard residential accommodations, unsuitable roads, private sectors lack of confidence and interest in investing in the field and thousands of many other underlying factors that have resulted in the miserable situation of the industry how on earth would it be possible to expect to attract seven million tourists a year? The expectation would seem a bit comic if we close our eyes just for a moment and try to visualize the very few foreign passengers that every now and then arrive in the country and to see them that from the very beginning of their arrival at the airport they have a hard time trying to find a place to rest.

While tourism is increasingly becoming one of the world's key sources of income, Iran still has a long way to reach its ideal situation. Annually 1,500,000 foreign tourists enter Iran, but many of them are from Middle East countries that come to Iran under the name of tourists, but do not act as real tourists, therefore bringing no tourism income for Iran. What is of serious negative consequences for Iran tourism is, according to Shir Mohammadi, the imbalance between Iran's tourism income and Iranian tourists' expenditure in other countries. For each one billion dollars that is brought to Iran, Iranian tourists spend 4.2 billions in other countries, he asserted. According to the expert, while 10% of the world labor force is allocated to tourism-related jobs, Iran has currently only 50,000 people working in the sector. Meanwhile, speaking to an audience at the fourth international tourism and cultural heritage exhibition of Iran, in Mashhad, director of Iran's Cultural Heritage and Tourism department of Khorasan-e Razavi province, Abolfazl Mokkaramifar, announced that in 2004, more than 700 million tourists have been traveling around the world, with Iran standing at the worlds 90th position considering the number of tourists received, having just a 7% share of the income.

However, Iran is determined to improve its situation by implementing different plans, such as issuing 7-day visas in the country's international airports, starting from Mashhad Airport, holding exhibitions and conferences inside and outside Iran to introduce its tourism and cultural attractions, developing tourist facilities and accommodations, increasing the tourism sector budget, etc.

WHAT HAS BEEN DONE?

Iran may not be everyone's choice for fun in the sun, but the Islamic Republic plans to privatize its very slow state-run tourist sector and increase its share of

world tourism 15 fold in the next 20 years. Given the interest shown by foreign tourists to visit Iran, widespread efforts have been launched by the tourism Organization to provide further facilities in this regard. The merger of the cultural Heritage Organization and the Tourism Organization on the first place has created a suitable ground for such a purpose. Therefore, applying the most proper mine sweeping method in those areas consumes time and necessitates signing of contacts with relevant foreign agencies and calls for cooperation of local experts as well. Iran is optimistic to attract about 20 million foreign tourists in the year 2020. However, realization of such a goal demands a comprehensive and widespread planning. So far greater attention has been paid to building proper hotels guest houses as well as providing other relevant facilities for the tourists. The plan for attracting about 20 million tourists annually is tantamount to providing accommodations to at least %70 of the tourists visiting different parts of the country.

Iran created a new tourism organization in May with Vice-president Hossein Marashi at its head, charged with cutting state involvement in tourism. Iran's new tourism sector will have no state player, he said in an interview with Reuters. But he projects $25 billion in revenues by 2024, a figure that could vie with oil as the country's top earner. Foreigners, who used to pay nearly 10 times more than Iranians to visit sights, will now pay the same as hotels.

In 1990s, Iran's economy got through two five year plans. The main objective of the first five-year plan (1989-1994) was the reconstruction of damages sustained by Iraqi imposed war against Iran with an emphasis on balance of economy. In the third five-year plan (2000-2004) which it is now at its third year economic structural policies have been followed. The objectives of the plan were: 6 percent economic growth, creation of 760000 jobs per year, reduction of inflation of 15 percent, unification of foreign exchange rates, elimination of customs tariffs, alteration of non-tariff barriers to tariff indexes, trade liberalization, amendment of tariff structure, continuation of privatization trend, decrease of government's centralization, reforms in tax and budget structures. Fortunately Iran's economic operations during the recent years show that it has faced a growth rate of 5.5 percent in the past two years with the inflation rate of 11 to 12 percent.

In the past steps had gradually been taken towards introducing Iran's tourist attraction to the world with an aim to develop the industry. To this end, volumes of books were printed and fine posters depicting the country's ancient sites and historical monuments were produced. Seif said a mounting desire

among world countries to turn tourism sector into a money-spinner prompted the George Washington University (GWU) and World Tourism Organization (WTO) to organize the Tourism Policy Forum (TPF) last year in Washington DC.

From the government perspective and within the fourth five-year economic development plan as well as the 20-Year Perspective, the culture and tourism sectors are one of the main pillars of the process of economic growth. The government is eying a double-digit growth following the recent merger of culture and tourism and what it claims to be revitalization of the tourism market. The third plan stipulated a 30-percent growth for the sectors. Whether that has been achieved or not remains to be answered by relevant officials. However, further tourism development could remain severely handicapped in the face of persistent lack of - or deficiencies in - necessary physical infrastructure, communication systems, new information technologies and development of human resources.

WHAT SHOULD BE DONE?

Considering the achievements of the past 16 years and today Iran's situation and its role in the international tourism market, the country is capable of providing a sound basis of attracting national and international investors as well as tourists from all around the world. The first step on the way to achieving an upward tourism industry is to modify and upgrade the traditional perception of tourism to make it a national stimulator for development. Presently the tourism industry is considered solely within the domains of culture and heritage. Regarding the development of tourism in international context, tourism and economical experts believe that providing legal basis and necessary security is of great importance to the improvement of tourism in Iran. Moreover, Iranian authorities need to introduce tourism attractions including ancient monuments and natural landscapes of the country to the international tourists in a more effective way. That eventually means procuring employment opportunities and improving the related sectors like income generation and causing a substantial increase in the share of tourism income in GDP.

The experts should emphasize that the parallel development of ancient relics and cultural heritage sites along side the improvement of the quality of handicrafts, hotel administration and etc as a major factor. We believe that visiting ancient monuments in Iran would familiarize the tourists with the local handicrafts and its income will increase accordingly. Moreover, that would be the best promotion for Iranian art and handicrafts. The experts said, "Followers

of other religion are not obliged to observe Islamic dress code when they travel to Iran, but they should respect Islamic beliefs and traditions, this respect and cooperation should be mutual to originate trust and security. The new government should clarify its viewpoint affectively in this regard." Cultural heritage and tourism budget has been increased, and it is necessary that the newly elected president consider the subjects related to the tourism more attentively.

The new government would be responsible for the presence of Iran in international tourism market and attracting foreign investors and tourists. Mr. Ahmadinejhad, the newly elected president, believes that the tourists and investors in tourism should respect our culture, and if a group of people with peculiar appearances and aggressive attitude do not respect our beliefs and culture that would be considered as an insult. However, he has a different viewpoint about foreign investors, banks and other foreign bodies interested in collaboration with Iran's tourism industry. While he claims that he is not against foreign investments he has noted his objection with the extensive presence of the foreign companies and investors in the country.

Some other experts remarked, "the newly elected president, should consider the rate of the votes to execute the national will. Granting freedom in political and cultural atmosphere will cause decreasing the tension of the international policies so that these factors improve the tourism and one day its income may substitute the oil sale." In order to boost the tourism industry, efforts are underway for the realization of the aforementioned target. To this end an extensive program has been launched in the East Azarbaijan Province. Parallel with such measure, certain military policies have also been adopted in order to guarantee security and safety of the tourists. Furthermore, higher technical expertise is needed to prevent destruction of ancient sites that are situated in such areas. In the view of many officials and experts, including Managing Director of Bank-e Melli (National Bank) Valiollah Seif, the mere lack of a proper perspective is cause for Iran's tourism sector being the least contributor to the state coffers, despite huge amounts allocated for tourism in recent years, an ISNA report said.

It quoted Seif as saying that an increasingly important development strategy is to positively address poverty reduction, economic growth and biodiversity conservation through tourism. According to government projections, the tourism industry in the long-term will have an average annual growth of 18 percent, attracting 20 million tourists and fetching $25 billion. There is hope that

by utilizing new opportunities and making sufficient allocations as well as adequate planning, the government will be able to get rid of barriers in the way of expanding the cultural and tourism sectors, however, noting that the government should be cautious and not let parallel and overlapping actions create new impediments. Seif noted the forum was a platform for tourism ministers, senior policy makers from government and international finance and development organizations, industry professionals, business leaders, and educators to discuss critical tourism policy issues facing global tourism and to offer recommendations for future directions in order to achieve higher growth, especially for least developed countries.

"The purpose of the Tourism Policy Forum was to convene government policy-makers, business leaders, educators, knowledge management experts and other informed professionals to analyze critical policy issues facing global tourism and to offer recommendations for future directions." A boost in Turkey's tourism industry shows that changing the approach towards tourism from strictly cultural to blending it with economics has helped the country's tourism industry boom. In fact, the more we become aware of the realities of the global village, the more we should strip ourselves of the cocoon of isolation we have spun around ourselves. More dangerous than the isolation itself is the mentality behind it, the mentality that defies changes and rejects innovation.

CONCLUSIONS

Without appropriate regulatory framework, efficient planning, sound management and clear sustainable development guidelines, tourism can do harm to the natural and social environment, endanger natural biodiversity and cultural heritage, lead to the exploitation of people - particularly women and children - offend traditional cultural values and customs and alienate local communities. Almost all economists and commentators as well as government officials and other policy-makers have accepted that the tourism industry is an important source of foreign earnings for a country. This is especially true of those countries, such as Iran and other developing countries, which are dependent on export income from the export of raw materials that are always affected by large price fluctuations. Tourism, therefore, has been regarded as an important element in their development planning and they have allocated part of their overall budget to the provision of the necessary infrastructure for hosting a large number of tourists.

In order to turn a million-dollar industry into a billion-dollar one, there are various approaches. Governmental investments, publicity, removing unconventional non-investment obstacles, the establishment of a private investment company with the objective to absorb small resources, etc. We should admit that we have neglected the most obvious key factors crucial to the development of tourism as well as the basic infrastructures required for the industry. Iran's tourism industry, if it is to flourish, should coordinate itself with that of the rest of the world. Undoubtedly, one of the major issues in this regard is the significant participation of the domestic private sector in the industry as well as attracting foreign investments in the field particularly in the social and economic infrastructure of the industry. But, more urgent to the investment, realization of which would definitely take many years, is achieving an organizational stability, coherence and consistency in the sector.

Moreover, the responsible officials should bear in mind that tourism is a complex industry that encompasses all the social, economic, political and cultural aspects of a society and without the required consistency in all these aspects none of the development programs in the sector could be implemented or succeed. In fact, if we are to attract only one percent of the world's tourists, we should be prepared to become host to some seven million tourists every year. But, remembering the fact that we are still way far from this goal how would it be possible to attract 2% of the world's tourists? To attain the goal, the most immediate measure to be taken is to first of all get rid of or at least reduce the cumbersome red tape and bureaucratic burdens and focus on marketing and publicity worldwide. We have to make for the missed opportunities of the past. Nevertheless, we should also be very careful not to sell cheap. We should take lesson from the destruction resulted by the past tourism boom in Spain and Mediterranean countries. Irreversible damages inflicted to the areas. Many endangered species of the wildlife have vanished or are disappearing from the largest enclosed sea of the world. At last, statistics show that 10 percent of Bahrain's gross domestic product comes from tourism revenues. Dubai has been spending staggering amounts constructing modern tourism and recreational places. China is currently making an annual $60 billion out of tourism.

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Transforming Tourism Towards the Quest for World Peace: The Malaysian Experience

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ABSTRACT

As the world turns around its axis, it does so in tandem with the movement, on the one hand tending towards peace and harmony and on the other towards war and violence. It is acknowledged that the history of the relations between mankind has not changed across centuries. Wars have ravaged the earth time immemorial and still continue to do so as it journeys into the third millennium. The dawn of the new century opened its arena for the world to continue to witness militancy and extremism in the form of the September 11 attack on the World Trade Center. The bombing incidents in Bali and Jakarta have proven that nobody, including the tourist is safe from the fangs of violence. All these have paved the way for a global war in the name of peace and freedom against terror. The movement tending towards peace and harmony on the other hand has provided the space for tourism to flourish. The economic impact of travel and tourism upon the world today is undeniable as it is reported to be the world's largest industries and the generator of trillions of dollars worth of economic activity and the provider of more than two hundred million jobs. As the goal of a tourist is to derive pleasure from his travels, the providers and the supporters of the industry hasten to gear himself towards facilitating this. At the same time, tourism has been identified as being responsible for the destruction of cultures, degradation of the environment and the homogenization of lifestyles. Thus, if traditionally, tourism had not been the concern of the government and the public, its economic, cultural or social impact has thrust it at the forefront of societal concerns. We are at the juncture where the forces of change in the world are questioning all aspects of society as to their value. In the quest for peace and a purpose that would ensure the continued existence of mankind in this world, is it not timely to restate the objectives of the tourist? Should we not expand the frontiers of the tourism industry, harness its strengths, and take the tourist on 'a journey through roads not taken' utilizing him as an instrument in the quest for world peace.
Keywords: Transforming tourism, World peace, Malaysia.

INTRODUCTION

The world continuously quest for peace. It has not been able to rest since God's acceptance of Abel's sacrifice. Cain's jealousy towards Abel laid the seeds of strife between man and the earth has been forlorn since as it has been made to bear with man's injustice towards man. As we journey into the third millennium, not much has changed.

The World Tourism Organization (WTO, 1999) predicts that tourist arrivals will increase to 1.6 billion by the year 2020 at an average growth rate of 4.3%. Irrespective of the Asian Economic Crisis, the September 11 incident or the Bali bombing, tourism growth appears to be assured. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2001)reports that tourism currently generates 6% of global Gross National Product and employs one in 15 workers worldwide. It is also predicted that by 2011, it will directly and indirectly support one in 11.2 workers and contribute 9% of Gross National Product worldwide (WTTC, 2001).

Tourism is thus one of the fastest growing industries taking place in both developed and developing worldwide.[i] With the growth in leisure time and an increase in income, the desire to escape from the mundane daily routine of the pressures of work and home urges one to take leave for a holiday. The word 'tourism' varies with respect to whether the definition is from a supply-side (industry) or demand-side (consumer) perspective.[ii] Whichever side one prefers, the tourism industry has been defined as an industry that 'encompasses all activities which supply, directly or indirectly, goods and services purchased by tourists'.[iii] Upon examination of the myriad definitions of the tourism industry[iv], the following three factors[v] emerge:

- The tourism industry is regarded as essentially a service industry;

- The inclusion of business, pleasure, and leisure activities emphasizes 'the nature of the goods a traveler requires to make the trip more successful, easier, or enjoyable'[vi]; and

- The notion of a 'home environment' refers to the arbitrary delineation of a distance threshold or period of overnight stay.

Upon close observation of all the above, it is noted that the impact of tourism upon the world economy is colossal and undeniable. One would also be able to conclude that the focus of the industry be it from the industry or consumer perspective, focuses on the tourists and the effort to serve his needs. If the word 'transform'[vii] means to change markedly the appearance of or to change the nature, function, or condition of, then it is the writer's proposal that the tourism industry for all that it has and can offer to the world, undertake a paradigm shift and be 'transformed' to serve the quest for world peace.

BACKGROUND

Promises of the enchantment and excitement of strange lands, the attractions of diverse and exotic cultures, and cuisines with strange sounding names lure a

traveler to faraway places. Traveling is as old as civilization itself for Herodotus[viii], the 'Father of History' would not have been able to write his famous 'Histories' as early as the fifth century if not for his travels through the ancient world. We know of Marco Polo[ix] who accompanied his father, Niccolo and uncle Maffeo, all the way to China in the thirteenth century. The Mediaeval Ages saw the origins of the history of European 'tourism'. Chaucer's[x] 'Canterbury Tales' in the fourteenth century may have been undertaken for religious reasons, but the pilgrims in the Canterbury Tales quite clearly saw the experience as a kind of holiday.[xi] It is said that the term holiday itself was actually derived from the Christian 'holy day' and its associated leisure activities.[xii]

In the same context, the Muslims from the Islamic world as far back as the seventh century had embarked on pilgrimages to the holy land for it had been ordained in the Al-Qur'an[xiii] that Muslims are to perform the complete pilgrimage in the service of Allah. The pilgrimage of a Muslim from his home to Makkah Mukarramah in order to fulfill his obligations to Allah whether in the performance of his *hajj* or *umra* would have also make him a 'tourist'. It is interesting to note that the Al-Quran repeatedly reminds Muslims to 'Travel through the earth'[xiv] thus denoting the importance of 'travel' within the religion, whether through space or time[xv], in order that men could learn through the faculties of their understanding and see the Signs of Allah's Providence in nature around them, in the cities and ruins[xvi] and from the experiences of others and in doing so shall discover 'truth'.

We have heard of Abu Abdullah Muhammad better known as Ibn Batutta[xvii] in the fourteenth century who after the completion of his hajj went on further to travel the then known Islamic world and these were recorded in Ibn Juzayy's manuscipt known as 'A Gift To Those Who Contemplate the Wonders of Cities and the Marvels of Traveling'.

The sixteenth century saw Grand Tours[xviii] undertaken by the sons of the nobility and gentry on tours of Europe in order to give them an educational experience. The eighteenth century became the golden age of the Grand Tours and Pompeo Batoni[xix] in his paintings recorded these. Thus, it would appear that the epistemology of the word 'holiday' within both western culture and Islam had evolved over centuries from that of being 'holy' to that of incorporating not only a day of rest but also of amusement and travel. Similarities abound between the two cultures and yet it is sad to note that the relationship between the two is always a confrontational one, which continues

to come under strain, and this has led to misperceptions, suspicions and bigotry on both sides.

The Concept of Peace and Tourism

The word 'Islam' is synonymous to peace as the word is derived from the Arabic root '*salema*' which means peace, purity, submission and obedience.[xx] In the religious sense, Islam means submission to the will of God and obedience to His law.[xxi] Submission here means conscious and willing submission which should be a continuous act lived throughout the entire span of one's ethical life which operates not only within the realm of the heart but also manifest itself outwardly in the action of the body as works performed in obedience to God's law.[xxii] Islam is perfect,[xxiii] more so in its engendering of peace. Unfortunately Muslims are not.[xxiv] And this can be seen in the war, violence and strife that permeate throughout the world in the name of the religion.

The same can be said of the other religions of the world. Despite the fact that religions have significantly provided 'doctrines and ways of salvation and liberation, promote peace and reconciliation and offer mankind ethical standards and guidelines to live by',[xxv]it has also provided the enema for the rise of many conflicts all over the world'[xxvi] with disastrous effect.

At the heart of it all, peoples of all religions cherish peace. Unfortunately, it is a lack of knowledge of the common features of all religions and ethical traditions that strife prevails in this world today. In the words of Hans Kung[xxvii] and his vision of hope for global peace[xxviii]:

No peace among the nations

Without peace among the religions;

No peace among the religions

without dialogue between the

religions;

No dialogue between the religions without global ethical standards;

And

No survival of our globe without

A global ethic.

Traditional assumptions and values, modern industrial and technological process, formerly seen as the engine of progress, have led to global crisis. Ignited by Descartes'[xxix] philosophy 'I think therefore I am' the world accelerated into the Scientific Revolution imbued with the belief that it was making 'progress'. Unfortunately man had overlooked the fact that the progress he was indeed making was only in the field of technology and along the way man had forgotten the human soul. [xxx]   Man had lost the sense of himself as a limited point in the universe, albeit one possessing free will and began to think of himself as the center of his surroundings, not adapting himself to the world, but the world to himself.[xxxi]

At this juncture, it is therefore essential that the set of common moral values and ethical standards, which are shared by the different faiths and cultures on earth, that have been gathered to make up a set of global ethics[xxxii] be reflected upon again. The *raison d'etre* of 'global ethics' would be to criticize and improve the values and principles in terms of which we understand our responsibilities to future generations, our relationship to non-human animals and other living things, and our place in nature generally.[xxxiii] These common moral values and ethical standards constitute a humane ethic, or the ethic of humanity, which is essential for a globalized world with its tremendous social, ecological and ethical problems. A world with a basic consensus over ethics should have no room for anarchy and thus would pave the way for the establishment of peace.

Peace must be conceptualized on two levels firstly, peace is often taken to mean the absence of war[xxxiv] but this is actually only peace in the 'negative' sense.[xxxv] At the second level is peace which is conceptualized more holistically and can be described as 'an expression of the harmonious relationship between fellow humans with themselves – as individuals, groups, communities, nations and states – as well as with the environment'[xxxvi] and this can be observed from the social, political as well as cultural angle.[xxxvii]   In summary, peace is the celebration of justice, difference and diversity, including the appreciation and sharing of the bounties of nature with fellow human beings.[xxxviii]

Tourism would indeed be one of the main catalysts towards this celebration. The activities that tourism generates change local communities[xxxix] and its economic and social impact is undeniable and cannot be ignored.[xl] It is reported to be the world's largest industry and the generator of trillions of dollars worth of economic activity and the provider of more than two hundred million jobs.[xli] Furthermore, its activities can only thrive and be effective in an atmosphere of peace and prosperity. Peace in turn provides space for 'justice' to prevail, which

in turn would provide room for the celebration of 'difference and diversity'. Tourism can only thrive and would rejoice in 'the appreciation and sharing of the bounties of nature with fellow human beings'.

The enormous growth of tourism is partly the result of technological advancement – the advent of jet travel, and the creation of low cost means of transport and commensurate low cost hotels.[xlii] Technological progress in the absence of spiritual development is hollow and would eventually be searching for a purpose. Progress must move in tandem with spiritual advancement both for the individual as well as for the world in which he lives in.

The United Nations acknowledges this in its programs around the world. For the Tourism industry, the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) has since 1980 made peace a component of their themes for World Tourism Day. In fact the first ever World Tourism Day, which was declared in September 27, 1980, had 'Tourism's contribution to the preservation of cultural heritage and to peace and mutual understanding' as its theme. The list continues as follows:

- *1984:* Tourism for international understanding, peace and cooperation
- *1985:* Youth Tourism: cultural and historical heritage for peace and friendship
- *1986:* Tourism: a vital force for world peace
- *1996:* Tourism: a factor of tolerance and peace
- *2001:* Tourism: a toll for peace and dialogue among civilizations

In fact, over the last quarter of a century, its themes have always involved a quest that would benefit the whole of mankind ranging from the preservation of our cultural heritage, the environment or simply identifying tourism as an instrument for the alleviation of poverty thus paving the way for peace and social harmony in the world. It is unfortunate that despite this, the world still remains in a forlorn state and peace and harmony continues to be an illusion.

'Tourism and Peace' versus 'Terrorism and War'

As the world turns around its axis, it does so in tandem with the movement, on the one hand tending towards peace and harmony and on the other towards war and violence. The turn of the century continues to witness wars and violence which had its roots in the injustices and unresolved conflicts of the

past. The end of the last century may have seen the demise of the Cold War but the stark coldness of its remains has seeped into other domains leaving the world agitated and uncertain. A more peaceful future for the world continues to remain elusive. September 11 came to be the epitome and benchmark of the trend of extremism and violence that was to surface thereafter. Suicide bombers take us by surprise springing up in unlikely corners of the world threatening the tourists even further and putting the industry in crisis. The proliferation of nuclear power persists. The invasion of Afghanistan and then Iraq subsequent thereto bear witness to how the idea of peace continues to remain a mirage on the surface of this earth.

It is acknowledged that the history of the relations between mankind has not changed across centuries. Wars have ravaged the earth time immemorial and still continue to do so as it journeys into the third millennium. The dawn of the new century opened its arena for the world to continue to witness militancy and extremism in the form of the September 11 attack on the World Trade Center. The bombing incidents in Bali and Jakarta have proven that nobody, including the tourist is safe from the fangs of violence. The economic and social prosperity that tourism helps to create and facilitate is being challenged and is instead destroyed by terrorism and war.

These may have been caused by the hostile experiences of the last thousand years, which have led to the perpetuation of false ideas and images.[xliii] Just as similarities abound between the two cultures with regard to the idea of a 'holiday', similarities also transcend into other powerful factors that have dominated both the west and the Islamic world and have shoved the two even further apart.

The west may have predominantly colonized the Muslim world and 'captivated'[xliv] the minds of the Muslims in the last century thus disrupting the existing system that had existed before, however, Muslims can be said to be guilty of the same in the first centuries after the coming of Islam. Spain and Sicily were under Muslim domination for century and if not for Charles Martel, France would have been made part of the Islamic world as early as the eighth century.[xlv] Vienna would have been conquered twice, the second attempt being made in the seventeenth century.[xlvi]

It is interesting to note that in the early days, it was easy to demarcate between Islam and the west and compartmentalize them into geographical areas. However, a globalized world denies us of this pleasure. The 1980s show us that the world is so interwoven and interlinked so much so that just as there are

millions of Muslims who live in Europe and the USA, thousands from the west, working and living in Muslim countries around the world. Not one would be able to claim to be the 'Laurence of Arabia'[xlvii] of the century because there are now too many of them living within the Islamic world and making a lot of difference in the lives of Muslims all over the world.

Furthermore, there are also large Muslim groups like those in former Yugoslavia, who are European by race and culture[xlviii] and are located within the heart of Europe. The mobility of scholars, students, diplomats and politicians, economists and entrepreneurs to and fro between the two worlds makes it even more difficult to demarcate the line between the two. The situation is overwhelmed by the fact that technology in today's world has brought forth common ideas and programs right into one's living room. It is no longer possible to isolate one from the other.[xlix] Technological advances not only in the form of transportation but also in communication, the 3G (and the coming of the 4G soon), vcd, dvd, televisions, fax, the internet and satellite communications have allowed the average man to venture 'beyond the confines of his being'[l] and advance into areas which were deemed to be unreachable and sometimes impenetrable a century ago.

It would be simplistic to say that western ideologies seem to be rooted in a secular, democratic and ordered[li] world imbued with the quest to acquire material goods for a satisfactory life whereas the Islamic world are motivated primarily by religious belief. The actual practice of the philosophies of both provides further confusion. There are many of those who live in the supposed western secular societies who have ventured into Sufism[lii] and have found peace and solace in the balance that it provides. In their quest for knowledge and in their search for values higher than themselves in the name of humanity, many non-Muslims possess ideal Muslim virtues. The west can sometimes be said to be Islam[liii] in itself!

However, sad to say, for all that Islam propagates based on the Quranic concepts of *adl* and *ahsan* (balance and compassion), *ilm* and *sabr* (knowledge and patience) and the notion of balance between *din* and *dunya* (religion and the world), many of those who live in Muslim societies pay only lip-service to the notions of piety and faith, and often disguise materialist greed with religious rhetoric.[liv]

It is ironic that as the Islamic world sees the confrontation between the west and Islam as a straightforward clash, between greed and faith, between a way of life that encourages violence and anarchy against one that stresses balance and

order,[lv] the western viewpoint of Islam is not too far away from that. Muslims are seen as a source of violence and anarchy threatening a stable and prosperous west.[lvi] It is indeed a topsy-turvy world[lvii] and a lot remain to be done by both in order to discover the similarities and to reconcile the differences between the two.

Ae we to continue to believe that peace will always remain a myth instead of becoming a reality? Are we to have experienced the trials of the twentieth century in vain? We have, after all, been tempered by these trials, and our stand today will surely be passed on to the following generations. Believing in peace is a fine thing but putting those beliefs into execution would be a test of strength. Universal understanding and tolerance must be a reality for the world to achieve its aspirations for peace.

It is clear that the most worthwhile venture to undertake would be to help increase understanding between Islam and the west with the ultimate goal of assuaging the tension between the two. With much that has been found to be in common between the two, [lviii] both in terms of ideas and in human societies, confrontation is indeed neither necessary nor desirable. What we should be doing is to embark on discovering ways and means to be able to say for the sake of this sad old earth that we all live in and share, which has had to borrow its mirth and has troubles enough of its own:

'We understand you are different but we also understand your difference[lix] and we also know that we do share many common aspirations'.

At this juncture, it is important to note that Islam which had its humble beginnings in the dry deserts and barren land of Arabia had as its objective, to create a just community in which all members, even the most weak and vulnerable, were to be treated with absolute respect.[lx] It had found its way to the other great civilizations of the world, which were in turn further enriched by the fundamental tenets of the religion. The European Renaissance was one of them. Christian Europe was swamped in darkness until Islam arrived on the shores of the Iberian peninsular.[lxi] Islam's knowledge of the Greeks, Sanskrit and Chinese permeated into Europe via the congregation of European scholars to the cities of Toledo and Cordoba in the 11th century. On the basis of this sharing of *ilm* and the many common aspirations between the two, it is opportune to reflect and consider the rationales that would justify the quest for the pursuit of peace.

Rationales for tourism's quest for peace

- It should encourage mobility in order to provide exposure and understanding.

- It should promote mutual awareness, understanding and respect.

- It should be about sharing experiences, about cross-fertilization, about mutually beneficial enhancement.

- It should breed creativity and progress and acknowledge unity with respect for cultural diversity, build international and intercultural understanding.

- It should help to overcome Orientalism[lxii] and to look beyond any form of 'centrist', isolationist or a unilateralist view of the world.

A course for a global war in the name of peace and freedom against terror must be chartered. It is important that at the morn of this new century we address the challenges that confront us today at the political, economic, social and cultural level in order to harness the forces of the world towards universal peace.

The challenge that the Muslims have to confront lies in how they should seek to preserve the essence of the Qur'anic message of *adl* and *ahsan*, *ilm* and *sabr*[lxiii] and *din* and *dunya.* They have to undertake the task of ensuring that all these essences are imbued in their hearts and reflected in their way of life and that they do not become mere ancient and empty chant in our times.[lxiv] They also have the responsibility of finding the ways and means whereby they can participate in the global civilization without obliterating their identities.[lxv]

The west on the other hand, is challenged with how to camouflage their propagation of western idealistic notions of justice, equality, freedom, and liberty beyond their borders to all humanity into one that can be seen as sincere and friendly and not appear to look like an extension of nineteenth century imperialists, in order to reach out to those not of their civilization and culture.[lxvi]

The great powers of the west should be consolidated as a force in order to assist in solving some of the long festering problems that has been a world concern particularly the Palestinian and the Kashmiri cause which continues to plague Muslims today. In yielding towards these causes, the media should be utilized as 'a shield for wisdom' in order to disseminate the common features of the philosophy of both the west and Islam so that mankind shall savor the strength and beauty of both and build bridges of understanding across the two instead of

walls of misperception. Western arms and western aid given to the Muslim world must gear itself towards paving the road to a democratic society, providing for a fairer distribution of wealth, ensuring the rights and dignity of women and children, the under privileged and the minority.

The problems are interwoven and confront both Muslims and non-Muslims together and these wrongs must be redressed in order for world order to be achieved otherwise peace will forever remain a mirage.

Tourism and Development

As the goal of a tourist is to derive pleasure from his travels, the providers and the supporters of the industry hasten to gear themselves towards facilitating this. In doing so, they generate trillions of dollars worth of economic activity and also create millions of dollars worth of quality jobs, whether directly or indirectly. At the same time, tourism has been identified as being responsible for the destruction of cultures, degradation of the environment and the homogenization of lifestyles. Thus, if traditionally, tourism had not been the concern of the government and the public, its economic, cultural or social impact has thrust it at the forefront of societal concerns.

As it has been reported by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), upon measuring the economic impact of travel and tourism, it is indeed one of the world's largest industries and a generator of quality jobs.[lxvii] Tourism moves in tandem with development but what is the worth of development if it only fulfills the needs of the tourists in their quest to seek 'psychic and physical experiences and satisfactions'[lxviii] or if it fulfills the quest of the businesspeople who see tourism as an opportunity for profit making in their provision of tourist goods and services.[lxix] Development must also fulfill the love for humanity, for the well-being and dignity of man as human beings.[lxx] In other words, development demands a shared benefit for mankind as a whole.

The concept of development over the last fifty years has evolved from economic development to growth with distribution between the 1940s and 1970s. In the 1980s the idea of development was broadened so as to include social development thus satisfying not only the economic factor but also the emotional, spiritual as well as political needs. Since then, it has been further transformed to a more holistic approach, which addresses sustainable as well as human development.

The gigantic task of development in any state involves the participation of all parties – government, the private sector, scholars, citizens, social organizations and so on. If tourism is in fact the world's largest industries, then the role it undertakes within any state must also be geared by all these parties towards the common good for the benefit of all mankind. Development must also hinge on the principle of shared responsibility and accountability[lxxi] where prosperity is shared and losses are borne in common.[lxxii] In this manner, a common ownership of development is created which would be consistent with the quest to turn this earth into an earth for all mankind. There would be the promotion of self-worth and human dignity, which would eventually lead to well-being.[lxxiii]

Development in essence, is an economic condition and process, but it is linked to the political, social, cultural and spiritual dimensions, and with enhancing human dignity.[lxxiv]

Progress in the absence of conferring the majority of people their self-worth and dignity would only be based on an economic calculus and therefore not be a balanced one. It is essential therefore that the development thrust upon the people by way of tourism must be one that is both balanced and equitable.

We are at the juncture where the forces of change in the world are questioning all aspects of society as to their value. In the quest for peace and a purpose that would ensure the continued existence of mankind in this world, is it not timely to restate the objectives of the tourist. We should expand the frontiers of the tourism industry, harness its strengths, and take the tourist on 'a journey through roads not taken' utilizing him as an instrument in the quest for world peace.

Peace and the Malaysian Experience: The Microcosm within the Macrocosm

Malaysia, with a population of 26 million, is one of the most rapidly developing countries in Southeast Asia. Amongst its other achievements, it is one nation that takes pride in the fact that in the pursuit of its independence from the colonialisation of the British, no blood was spared, unlike that of many of its many neighbouring states. Despite the diverse races that had converged to the country over centuries with their different goals, either to trade, to preach, to provide the labour for the British exploitation of the vast raw materials that were available in the country or simply in the pursuit of a better life in this 'land of milk and honey', its independence was remarkably achieved through peaceful negotiation. The Malaysian [lxxv]Federal Constitution that has wisely

provided for its solidarity and integrity over the last 49 years of its independence has held the nation together. Malaysia has come to be identified as a nation with a remarkable fusion of people and cultures that has evolved into a modern and progressive society aided by a democratic and stable government.[lxxvi] Its multi-cultural heritage derived from the diverse peoples that makes up its population has blended well and made it emerge as a nation that reflects unity in diversity.

Like other nations of the world, Malaysia has not been spared by its fair share of trials and not been left unscathed. Racial conflicts erupted in May 1969 challenging the young nation at its very core. Having overcome that, the government saw the need to instill national integrity and unity and this was done by way of the *Rukunegara,*[lxxvii] which sought to build a national identity for the peoples of the country. The government also realized the urgent need to develop the nation. In this pursuit, several national policies were also formulated over the years. Foremost was the New Economic Policy (1970-1990), which had as its main agenda the eradication of poverty and the restructuring of society through equitable redistribution of wealth within the context of a multi-racial society. Education policies were also formulated to foster national unity and also to address the problem of disunity created by British educational policies and practices during the colonial era. The National Development Policy (1991-2000) which sought to bring the nation to developed status and which focused on building an industrial nation soon followed thereafter. The eradication of poverty remained as one of its major agenda. Vision 2020 with its nine challenges followed suit, which focused on making the people aware of the challenges that the nation will be confronted in the year 2020. Recently, the 'National Social Policy' was formulated which aims at providing an 'umbrella policy' encompassing all matters pertaining to social welfare and development.[lxxviii]

All these policies were implemented taking into account the nation's socio-economic and political factor as well as the values and aspirations of the peoples of Malaysia. 'Development and well-being' were essential in all these policies that were implemented.

Amongst others, tourism ranks as one of the significant contributor to the socio-economic development of the country through its generation of foreign exchange earnings, employment and income to the country. The acknowledgment accorded to the industry by the government can be seen in the dimensions of responsibilities accorded to the Ministry responsible for tourism in Malaysia

over the last twenty years. The Ministry of Culture and Tourism was first established in the year 1987. In 1990, the Ministry's responsibilities were extended to include that of the Arts. In March 2004, the Ministry was bequeathed with greater responsibilities when another Ministry responsible specifically for Culture, Arts and Heritage was set up thus allowing the Ministry of Tourism to concentrate on the development of tourism, tourist products and services, and tourism marketing activities.

The aspirations behind the setting up of the two Ministries lie in the responsibilities bequeathed upon them, that is, to formulate policies, strategies, planning, coordination, regulation and enforcement of the relevant bodies towards fostering the nation's quest for national integration and unity. On that basis, the ultimate objective of the setting up of both ministries is surely aimed at peace and harmony for the country as a whole focusing on unity within the diversity that prevails.

The years between 1987 and 1996 was known to be a decade of excellence. The tourism industry recorded an impressive growth in tourist arrivals from 3.3 million in 1987 to 7.1 million in 1996. However, in 1997 to 1998, the country experienced the Asian financial crisis that resulted in a decline in the number of tourist arrivals to that of 5.55 million. This also resulted in a decline in revenue. The tourism industry was then the country's third largest foreign exchange earner after manufacturing and palm oil. When arrivals reached 13.29 million in 2002, the industry became the country's second largest foreign exchange earner after the manufacturing sector.

Over the years, despite the fluctuation in the tourist arrivals because of global crisis in the form of the September 11 attacks, the Bali bombing, the Iraq war and the SARS epidemic, the tourism industry led by Tourism Malaysia, government agencies, carriers, hotels, tour operators and tourist associations cooperated and collaborated to build Malaysia's image as a safe holiday destination.

Brand positioning was introduced to woo foreign tourists with the 'Malaysia Truly Asia' tagline for advertising and publicity campaigns. Domestic packages were aggressively promoted by Tourism Malaysia to the locals through the '*Cuti-Cuti Malaysia*' campaign advertised in the electronic and print media worldwide. The Mega Familiarisation Tour Programme involved the joint effort of both the private and public sectors. It provided the opportunity for the establishment of partnership between the Malaysian travel trade and Tourism Malaysia. Both the public as well as the private sector also participated and

jointly organized annual tourism events in the form of the Mega Sale Carnival and Colors of Malaysia. Over the years, international travelers have become more aware of Malaysia as a tourist destination because of major international events such as the XVI Commonwealth Games, World Golf and the Formula One Grand Prix and Le Tour de Langkawi.

CONCLUSION

Malaysia strives very hard to be portrayed as one of the developing countries in the region and in its quest for an increase in tourist arrivals, a value-for-money destination. All this cannot be achieved if not for the nation's quest for peace since its inception 49 years ago. The presence of peace and harmony in the country is not a matter of coincidence but is the outcome of social engineering in the form of government policies which are the concrete expressions of the general will, or more specifically of the ruling group that receives the mandate of the general populace through democratic means.[lxxix] This the nation had worked so hard to achieve since its independence. The creation of a Malaysian state comprising peoples of different economic, ethnic, religious and cultural backgrounds had required a conscious and deliberate form of social engineering through explicit policy-making.[lxxx] It is pertinent to note that development can only avail itself in the presence of peace. Perhaps this can be emulated by the world tourism industry for as it is indeed providing for development, utilize that force to also provide for peace in the world.

FOOTNOTES

[i] W. Ritchie, Brent, *Aspects of Tourism : Managing Educational Tourism*, Channel View Publications, 2003 at p. 2.
[ii] *id.*
[iii] Hollander, Threlfall & Tucker(1982:2)
[iv] Hall (1995:9)
[v] W. Ritchie, Brent, *op. cit.* 3.
[vi] Smith (1988:183)
[vii] *The American Heritage Dictionary of The English Language*, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1992 at p. 1901.
[viii] A Greek historian who was called the Father of History,was suppose to have lived between 484-425 BC. He was born in Halicarnassus, Asia Minor. Only scant knowledge of his life can be gleaned from his writings and from references to him by later writing. He was suppose to have traveled along the coast of Asia Minor to the northern islands and to the Black Sea; he also at some time visited Mesopotamia, Babylon and Egypt.
[ix] A Venetian traveler who was suppose to have lived between 1254-1324 and had traveled the Far East.

[x] A 14th century writer who wrote *The Canterbury Tales*, a collection of stories, two written in prose and the rest. The tales, some of which are originals and others not, are contained inside a frame tale told by a group of pilgrims on their way from Southwark to Canterbury to visit the shrine of Saint Thomas `a Becket's at Canterbury Cathedral.
[xi] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tourism.
[xii] *id.*
[xiii] *Surah Al-Baqarah*, Verse 2:196
[xiv] Verses 6:11; 22: 46; 27:69; 29:20-22; 30:9, 42; 35:44; 40:21, 82; 47:10.
[xv] The Holy Qur-an, English Translations And The Meaning and Commentary, Abdullah Yusuf Ali at p. 1314, n. 3939.
[xvi] *ibid.* at p. 964, n. 2825.
[xvii] A *Sunni* Islamic scholar and jurisprudent from the *Maliki Madhhab* (a school of *Fiqh*, or *Sunni* Islamic law) and at times a *Qadi* or judge. He was born on 24 February, 1304 in Tangier, Morocco during the time of the Merinid Sultanate rule in the Islamic calendar year 703, into a Berber family. He is best known as an extensive traveler or explorer, whose account documents his travels and side excursions over a period of almost thirty years, covering some 73,000 miles. This journeying covered almost the entirety of the known Islamic world, extending also to present-day India, the Maldives, Sri Lanka, Southeast Asia and China, a distance readily surpassing that of his prior, near contemporary and traveler Marco Polo.
[xviii] Tours undertaken by young aristocrats in the 16th century to visit Paris, Venice, Florence, and above all Rome, as the culmination of their classical education.
[xix] An Italian Rococo Era painter who lived between 1708-1787.
[xx] http://www.afghan.net/islam/meaning.htm
[xxi] *id.*
[xxii] Syed Muhammad Al-Naquib Al-Attas, *Islam and Secularism*, Muslim Youth Movement of Malaysia, 1978 at p. 58.
[xxiii] These were the words of Tun Dr. Mahathir Mohamed, former Prime Minister of Malaysia in his speech at the launching of the Islamic Development Bank Vision Commission in Malaysia in March 2006.
[xxiv] *id.*
[xxv] *ibid.*
[xxvi] *'World Religions Universal Peace Global Ethic'*, Global Ethic Foundation, Tubingen, Peter Schier, Konrad Adenauer Foundation, Kuala Lumpur Office.
[xxvii] Professor Hans Kung has been working on the idea of global ethics since the 1980s. He was responsible for drafting the documents on global ethics adopted by the Parliament of World's Religions in 1993 and the InterAction Council in 1996 and 1997.
[xxviii] *op. cit* at p. 24.
[xxix] A noted French philosopher, mathematician, and scientist. Dubbed the 'Founder of Modern Philosophy' and the 'Father of Modern Mathematics', he ranks as one of the most influential thinkers of modern times. For good or bad, much of subsequent western philosophy is a reaction to his writings.
[xxx] Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn in an interview by Nathan Gardels published in '*At Century's End: Great Minds Reflect On Our Times*, ALTI Publishing, 1995 at p. 10.
[xxxi] *id.*
[xxxii] *'World Religions Universal Peace Global Ethic'*, *loc.cit.*
[xxxiii] Winkler, Earl R., Coombs, Jerrold R., *Applied Ethic : A Reader*, Blackwell Publishers, 1993 at p. 2.
[xxxiv] Abdul Rahman Embong, *The Role of Universities in the Quest For Peace*, 2005 at p. 13.
[xxxv] *ibid.*

xxxvi *ibid.* at p. 14.

xxxvii *ibid.* at p. 14-15.

xxxviii *ibid.* at p. 15.

xxxix Goeldner, Charles R., Brent Richie, J.R., McIntosh, Robert W., *Tourism: Principles, Practices, Philosophies*, 2000 at p. 6.

xl *ibid.*

xli *ibid.*

xlii Goeldner, Charles R., Brent Richie, J.R., McIntosh, Robert W., *op. cit.*, 7

xliii Akbar S. Ahmed, *Islam Today: A Short Introduction To The Muslim World*, I.B. Tauris, 2001 at p. 2.

xliv Syed Hussein Al-Attas, *The Captive Mind*, International Social Science Journal, Vol.XXVI No.4.

xlv id.

xlvi *id.*

xlvii His real name was Thomas Edward Lawrence who became famous after the First World War because of the remarkable role he had played while serving as a British liaison officer during the Arab Revolt of 1916-1918 having worked very closely with the Emir Feisal. After the war, he went on to promote the cause of Arab independence, in which he had come to believe passionately.

xlviii *ibid.* at p. 3.

xlix *id.*

l Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn, *op. cit.* at p. 8.

li *id.*

lii It is a mystic tradition of Islam. Its practitioners are known as *Sufis* who engage in the pursuit of a direct perception of spiritual truth or God.

liii Bishop, Ryan, *The West Is Islam: The Ethics of Optics and The Perspective of Perspective*, Islam and The West, Conflict and Dialogue: September 11 and Beyond, University Scholars Occasional Papers 1.

liv Akbar S.Ahmed, *loc. cit*

lv *id.* 4.

lvi *id.*

lvii *id.*

lviii *id.*

lix *id.*

lx Armstrong, Karen, *Islam A Short History*, Phoenix Press, 2002 at p.x.

lxi Syed Muhammad Al-Naquib Al-Attas, *op.cit.*, 95 where he referred to the works of Henri Pirenne namely *A History of Europe*, London, 1967; and *Muhammad and Charlemagne*, London, 1958 acknowledging the fact.

lxii Referring to the negative connotations of the word which is interpreted to refer to the study of the East by Americans and Europeans shaped by the attitudes of the era of European imperialism in the 18th and 19th centuries.

lxiii Gardels, Nathan P., *At Century's End: Great Minds Reflect On Our Times*, ALTI Publishing, 1996 at p. 42.

lxiv *id.*

lxv *id.*

lxvi *id.*

lxvii *op. cit.* at p. 7.

lxviii *op.cit.* at p. 14.

lxix *op. cit.* at p. 14.

lxx Abdul Rahman Embong, *Development and Well-Being*, 2005 at p. 10.

lxxi *ibid.* at p. 13.

lxxii *ibid.*

lxxiii *ibid.*

lxxiv *ibid.*

lxxv Mohd. Hazim Shah, Kai Lit, Phua, *Public Policy, Culture And The Impact of Globalisation In Malaysia,* Persatuan Sains Sosial Malaysia, 2004 at p. 1.

lxxvi In a pamphlet by Tourism Malaysia entitled '*Meet and Experience Malaysia Truly Asia'*.

lxxvii The Rukunegara, translated to mean 'principles of the state' spells out the five principles by which all Malaysians are to live in order to create a united and progressive nation. The principles are as follows : 1) Belief in God; 2) Loyalty To King and Country; 3) Supremacy of the Constitution; 4) Rule of Law; 5) Mutual Respect and Morality.

lxxviii Mohd. Hazim Shah, *op.cit.*, 2.

lxxix *id.*

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An Econometric Study of Tourism Demand for Arrivals from UK and Australia to Turkey

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study is to establish an econometric model in order to explain the factors which affect the tourism demand in Turkey for the arrivals from United Kingdom(UK) and Australia. Secondly, the study generates forecasts for tourist arrivals from these countries to Turkey for the year 2005. In the estimation period, the general-to-specific modelling approach is used and trend and seasonally adjusted moving average forecasting is used to forecast the demand. The demand modelling and forecasting indicate that the cost of tourism in Turkey does not have a significant effect on the arrivals from UK and Australia, however, "word of the mouth" effect is an important factor for these arrivals.
Keywords: tourism demand, Turkish tourism, econometric models, tourism forecasting, UK, Australia

INTRODUCTION

As being the "cradle of civilizations" and having a lot of possibilities for winter and summer tourism, Turkey is visited by millions of tourists every year. From all over the world, tourists come to see this historical and amusing country.

According to "Distribution of Foreigners Arriving in Turkey " statistics(Turkish Ministry of Tourism), international tourism arrivals in Turkey increased from 2,117,094 in 1984 to 17,517,610 in 2004. In addition to these numbers, tourist receipts in 1984 namely US$840 million increased to US$15888 million in 2004. Furthermore, in 2004, Germany was the biggest origin country of Turkish tourism by the rate of 22.74 % of overall. Russia, United Kingdom, Bulgaria, Netherlands and Iran are the following five countries by the rates of 9.16%; 7.92%; 7.48%; 6.80% and 3.59% respectively.

Although Turkey has tourism arrivals from almost every country, we are interested in the two origin countries UK and Australia in this study. The reason for this choice is that UK has been one of the biggest origin countries of Turkish tourism as mentioned above and Australia has had a small portion in Turkish tourism. Thus, one origin country with high rates of tourists and another with low rates of tourists in Turkish tourism were chosen. Of course, income levels and preferences of these countries' citizens and locations of the countries were also considered during the choice process.

In 2004, UK had a rate of 7.92% and Australia had a rate of 0.38% in total tourist arrivals statistics of Turkey.

By looking at the tourism statistics of Turkey, it can be thought that Turkey could have more tourism arrivals than these from past to the present. This idea can appear since there are not more alternative destinations around Turkey for tourists when its history, culture, natural affluence and variety of destinations are considered. According to De Stefano (2004), "a WWF analysis points out that in 2005 Turkey will experience a massive surge of new tourism development and, by 2020, it will be a leading tourist destination in the Mediterranean together with Greece and Croatia". For this reason, policymakers and businessmen in the service sector should develope the tourism of Turkey by following the researches about the tourism.

Therefore, the purposes of this study are to determine the factors affecting the demand for arrivals from UK and Australia and to generate the forecasts for the year 2005.

Following the introduction part; section 2 gives information about the literature review, section 3 explains the model and section 4 introduces the data and descriptive statistics. In the remaining part, estimations and forecasts are carried out respectively. As a result, conclusion finishes the study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the tourism demand modelling studies, researchers have had several approaches in the model selection and forecasting methods. Song&Witt (2000) used the general-to-specific approach in the estimation of Autoregressive Distributed Lag Model (ADLM). It is said that since the causal (econometric) modelling contains the factors in tourism demand and forecasting for policy evaluation against the non-causal (mainly time series) modelling, ADLM is a preferable model(Song et al., 2003a). Particularly, studies that had been

published from 1960s to early 1990s used traditional regression approach in tourism demand modelling. These were in the static form with very limited diagnostic statistics

(Song& Turner). On the other hand, Song et al. (2003b), Witt et al. (2003,2004) and Wong et al. (2003) used VAR models to forecast tourism demand. By developing the ADLM, Error Correction Model is also used for tourism demand and estimation of this model is discussed in Song&Witt (2000). As the last main model type which was driven in the tourism demand modelling is the Almost Ideal Demand System (AIDS) model. For instance, Han et al. (2004) used AIDS model in the modelling of US tourism demand for European destinations.

If the studies about modelling the tourism demand in Turkey are considered, almost the same methods as above have been used in researches. Halicioglu (2004) examined the aggregate tourism demand for Turkey with Auto Regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model. In this study, annual data from 1960 to 2002 is examined and the results suggested that the most significant factor in determining the level of tourist arrivals into Turkey is real world income level, which was followed by the relative prices and transportation cost. Another important econometric study about the tourism demand in Turkey was made by Akis (1998). Akis approached the subject with a compact econometric model.

Each of the models used in tourism demand and forecasting has different advantages. However, in this study ADLM will be used for modelling the demand since it is the most preferable model type in tourism demand modelling and easy to follow the general-to-specific approach steps. Moreover, forecasts will be made bytrend and seasonally adjusted moving average forecast method. Although most of the studies about tourism forecasting have been using exponential smoothing and Box-Jenkins procedures (Song et al. 2003a), the method that we will use here is preferred because of its ease and quickness.

THE MODEL

ADLM is preferable since it contains the factors of tourism demand and policy evaluation at the same time. Model components are in the form of power functions since the tourism demand can be better modelled by power functions and its ease to apply OLS in the estimation process(Song et al. 2003a). The model is in the form of

$$Q_{it} = A \ P_t^{\beta} Y_{it}^{\alpha} e_{it} \qquad (1)$$

where Q_{it} is the tourism demand variable measured by tourism arrivals from country i to Turkey at time t ; P_t is the price of tourism in Turkey at time t ; Y_{it} is the income level of the

origin country i at time t and e_{it} is the residual term and it is used to capture the influence of all other factors that are not included in the demand model. Substitute price variable which measures the cost of tourism in the alternative destinations around Turkey and is generally contained by the model was not included into the model since there are not too much alternative destinations which look like Turkey with their cultural and geographical features.

The income variable, Y_{it} , is measured by the index of GDP (2000=100). The own price variable, P_t , is calculated by the following formula;

$$P_{it} = \frac{(CPI_{Tur} / EX_{Tur})}{(CPI_i / EX_i)}$$

where CPI_{Tur} and CPI_i are the consumer price indices for Turkey and origin country i respectively; EX_{Tur} and EX_i are the exchange rate indices (2000=100) for Turkey and origin country i, respectively. The exchange rate is the annual average market rate of local currency against the US dollar. Although the own price measure contains two elements namely cost of travel and cost of living for tourists, in most of the studies cost of the travel component is excluded since it can cause multicollinearity problems and lack of data availability (Song&Witt, 2000).

During the model specification, when the logarithm of equation (1) is taken, the following equation is obtained:

$$\ln Q_{it} = \lambda + \beta \ln P_{it} + \alpha \ln Y_{it} + u_{it} \qquad (2)$$

where $\lambda = \ln A$, $u_{it} = \ln e_{it}$, and α, β are income and price elasticities, respectively.

With the help of equation (2), we generate our final ADLM model by adding lags for each variable. This specification is made to convert the static model (2) to a dynamic one with the reference of Hendry (1995). By a dynamic model, in fact ADLM, it is assumed to catch the previous year's effects on this year's tourism arrivals and to measure the "word of mouth effect" by the lag of dependent variable, Q_{it}. Word of mouth effect indicates how the early visits to one country influence the next ones and removes uncertainity about a destination for the arrivals who wants to go that destination (Song et al., 2003a).

Therefore, our final model, ADLM, becomes as

$$\ln Q_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln Q_{it-1} + \alpha_2 \ln P_{it} + \alpha_3 \ln P_{it-1} + \alpha_4 \ln Y_{it} + \alpha_5 \ln Y_{it-1} + \varepsilon_{it} \qquad (3)$$

It is possible to get demand elasticities from equation (3). Since the equation (3) represents a long run demand function, if the long run equilibrium is assumed, the following equation is obtained :

$$\ln Q_{it} = \frac{\alpha_0}{(1-\alpha_1)} + \frac{(\alpha_2 + \alpha_3)}{(1-\alpha_1)} \ln P_{it} + \frac{(\alpha_4 + \alpha_5)}{(1-\alpha_1)} \ln Y_{it} \qquad (4)$$

where the coefficients of income and price variables in equation (4) are demand elasticities.

Demand elasticities can be used to make interpretation about tourism policy. Furthermore, they are used to eliminate the uncorrectly signed variables due to economy theory in estimation process.

DATA & DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

DATA

In this study, the following data sources are used:

* Tourist arrivals from UK and Australia: Tourist arrivals for the period 1980-2004 for UK and for the period 1984-2004 for Australia are obtained from the website of *Turkish Republic Ministry of Tourism Statistics.* (For Australia, data begins from 1984 because of data unavaliability)

* Income for UK and Australia: GDP indices (2000=100) of each country is used and obtained from *International Financial Statistics(IFS)* by IMF

* Consumer Price Indices(CPI) and Exchange Rate Indices(EX): (2000=100) indices are used for UK and Australia and (1995=100) indices for Turkey is converted to (2000=100). All of them are obtained from *International Financial Statistics(IFS)* by IMF

For the countries UK and Australia, the data tables are in the Appendix part (see Appendix)

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

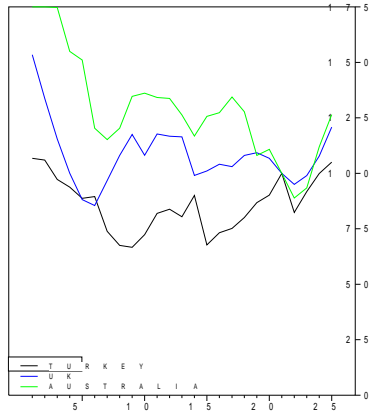In this part, we are going to examine the data and interpret the graphs of the data. During this process WINRATS 5.0 and SPSS 11.0 Packages will be used.


Plot Of GDP indices   Plot Of CPIs
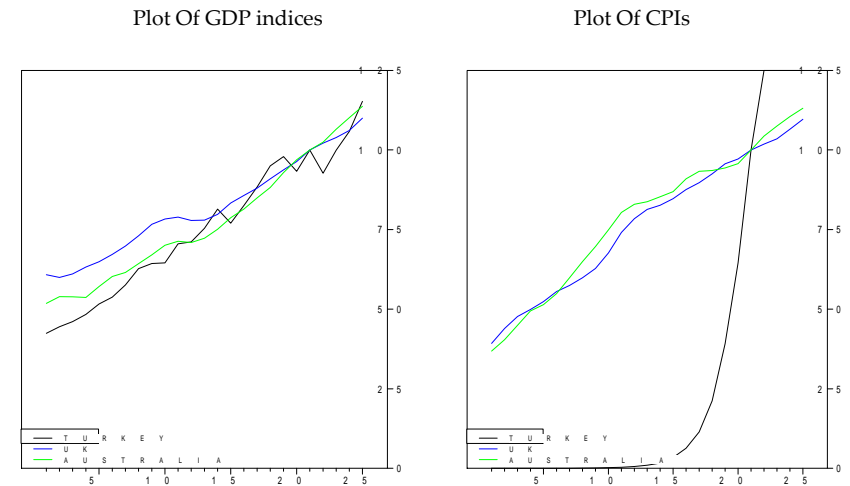
It can be said that three countries have almost close values about the GDP indices. Thus, their income levels seem to be similar to eachother. However, for the consumer price indices(CPI), we can not say the same thing. Turkey has

very low CPIs until 1990s against UK and Australia. But, it is obvious from the graph that, after 1990s there is a huge increasing in Turkey's CPIs.


Plot Of Exchange Rate Indices   Tourist Arrivals to Turkey
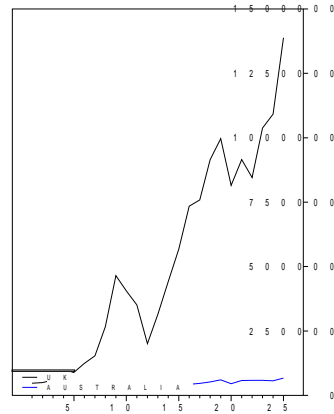
Exchange rate indices show that the least valuable currency against US dollar is Turkey's currency. Moreover, UK's currency have been loosing value from past to the present against US dollar. When we look at the tourist arrivals from UK and Australia to Turkey, the big difference between two countries is obviously seen. Furthermore, tourist arrivals from UK have been increasing with large numbers, but tourist arrivals from Australia have been staying in a small interval.

GDP Indices :

Normal Q-Q Plot of TURKEY   Normal Q-Q Plot of UK   Normal Q-Q Plot of AUSTR
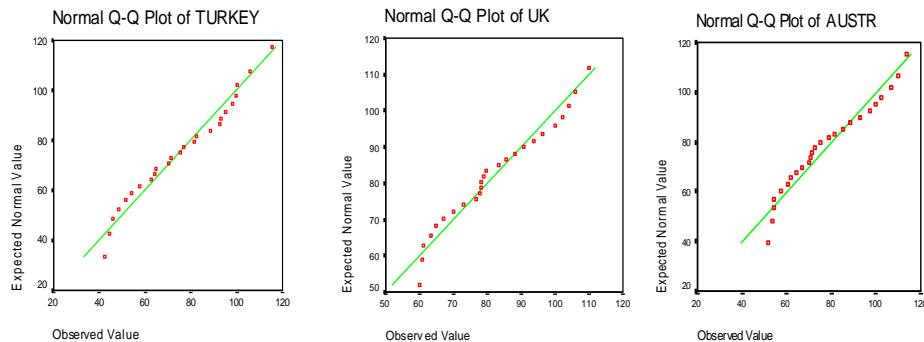
It can be seen from the Q-Q Plots of GDP values that, no one of three countries' data seem to be normally distributed.

ESTIMATES OF THE DEMAND MODELS

In the estimates of the demand models, general-to-specific procedure (Song&Witt, 2000) is followed to eliminate the insignificant or economically unacceptable variables from the general ADLM formula, equation (3). First of all, it is going to be checked whether the variables are significant or not by using OLS to estimate equation (3). Then the insignificant variables are going to be eliminated by looking at their significant levels. In the equation (4), demand elasticities equation, the coefficient of price variable is expected to be negative and the coefficient of income variable is expected to be positive by economy theory (Song et al.,2003a). Thus, the variables with wrong signs are also going to be eliminated. After this process, the diagnostic checking including White's heteroscedasticity test, Godfrey's autocorrelation test, Jarque-Bera's normality test, ARCH test, Ramsey's Reset test for mis-specification and Chow's predictive failure tests are applied and the models are checked. Then, the models that pass all of these steps are going to be used for forecasting.

UK Estimates

For UK, data from 1980 to 2004 was used to estimate and the above procedure was followed step by step. Then, the result is that price of tourism in Turkey does not influence the UK arrivals since the price variable is insignificant in UK's OLS results (see Appendix, R1).

Therefore, the equation for UK demand becomes after estimation as

$$\ln Q_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln Q_{it-1} + \alpha_2 \ln Y_{it} + \alpha_3 \ln Y_{it-1} + \varepsilon_{it} \qquad (5)$$

Note that constant term is not eliminated although it is insignificant (Song et al., 2003a).

For equation (5) new OLS results were obtained (see Appendix, R2). Also, the coefficients were correctly signed.

Diagnostic checking (w.r.to $\alpha = 0.05$) test results are below and for detail (see Appendix; R3, R4, R5, R6, R7, R8).

White Test: Ho = there is no heteroscedasticity

         Chi-Squared(9)=15.597018 with Significance Level 0.07578891

         Since 0.07578891 > 0.05 , Ho is accepted.

Godfrey-Breusch Test: Ho = there is no autocorrelation

         Chi-Squared(2)= 0.606298 with Significance Level 0.73848891

         Since 0.73848891 > 0.05, Ho is accepted

Jarque-Bera Test: Ho = residuals are normally distributed

         Chi-Squared(2)= 1.769887 with Significance Level 0.41273753

         Since 0.41273753 > 0.05, Ho is accepted

ARCH Test: Ho = there is no autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity

         Chi-Squared(1)= 1.721925 with Significance Level 0.18944547

         Since 0.18944547 > 0.05, Ho is accepted

RESET Test: Ho = the model is correctly specified

         F(1,19)= 2.13550 with Significance Level 0.16026582

         Since 0.16026582 > 0.05, Ho is accepted

Chow Test: Ho = there is structural stability between two sub-samples

         F(10,1)= 2.52777 with Significance Level 0.45653285

         Since 0.45653285 > 0.05, Ho is accepted

Obviously UK demand model have passed all of the tests. Therefore, it can be used for forecasting...

Australia Etimates

For Australia, data from 1984 to 2004 was used to estimate and the procedure like in UK model was followed step by step. But, the result appeared different from UK's. All of the variables in ADLM were insignificant(see Appendix, T1). According to the general-to-specific approach, the possible model was found as autoregressive model(Hendry, 1995) in which the tourism arrivals are only related with the previous year's arrivals.

Furthermore, the Australia model failed in the Jarque-Bera Test in diagnostic checking. To remove this failure a dummy variable was included into the

demand model of Australia (Brooks, 2002). Therefore, the equation for Australia demand becomes after estimation as

$$\ln Q_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln Q_{it-1} + d + \varepsilon_{it} \qquad (6)$$

For equation (6) new OLS results are obtained(see Appendix, T2). Also, the coefficients were correctly signed.

Diagnostic checking (w.r.to α = 0.05) test results are below and for detail (see Appendix; T3, T4, T5, T6, T7, T8).

White Test: Ho = there is no heteroscedasticity

         Chi-Squared(5)= 2.360099 with Significance Level 0.79740096

         Since 0.79740096> 0.05 , Ho is accepted.

Godfrey-Breusch Test: Ho = there is no autocorrelation

         Chi-Squared(2)= 3.987232 with Significance Level 0.13620201

         Since 0.13620201 > 0.05, Ho is accepted

Jarque-Bera Test: Ho = residuals are normally distributed

         Chi-Squared(2)= 0.458545 with Significance Level 0.79511177

         Since 0.79511177 > 0.05, Ho is accepted

ARCH Test: Ho = there is no autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity

         Chi-Squared(1)= 0.056388 with Significance Level 0.81229811

         Since 0.81229811 > 0.05, Ho is accepted

RESET Test: Ho = the model is correctly specified

         F(1,16)= 1.28877 with Significance Level 0.27299544

         Since 0.27299544 > 0.05, Ho is accepted

Chow Test : Ho = there is structural stability between two sub-samples

         F(2,12)= 0.79847 with Significance Level 0.47254308

         Since 0.47254308 > 0.05, Ho is accepted

Obviously Australia demand model have passed all of the tests. Therefore, it can be used for forecasting...

FORECASTS

The estimated demand models presented in the previous section are going to be used to forecast tourism arrivals for the year 2005. Trend and seasonally adjusted moving average forecasting method will be used as introduced in Holt et al. (1960). For both UK and Australia tourism arrival forecasts for 2005, the data from 2000 to 2004 is going to be used.

UK Forecast

The forecast for UK with the coefficients is going to be in the form of

$$\ln \widehat{Q}_{2005} = -2.04747298 + 0.68687208 \ln Q_{2004} + 10.52108336 \ln \widehat{Y}_{2005} - 9.17254670 \ln Y_{2004} \tag{7}$$

In this equation, only the income value for the year 2005 is unknown. Thus, by following the procedure of Holt et al.(1960) for 2000-2004, we get the following

$$\ln \widehat{Y}_{2005} = 4.7246$$

Then, by putting this value into the equation (7), we find that

$$\ln \widehat{Q}_{2005} = 14.25134168$$

Only remaining thing is taking the exponential of this value and to find the forecast of UK tourist arrivals to Turkey for the year 2005.

Therefore, $\widehat{Q}_{2005} = 1546248$

Australia Forecast

The forecast for Australia with the coefficients is going to be in the form of

$$\ln \widehat{Q}_{2005} = 1.088919900 + 0.905119249 \ln Q_{2004} - 0 \tag{8}$$

By putting the 2004 tourism arrivals value into the equation (8) , we get that

$$\ln \widehat{Q}_{2005} = 11.15257259$$

Then, again it remains to take anti-log of this value to find the tourism arrivals from Australia to Turkey for the year 2005. So,

$$\widehat{Q}_{2005} = 69743$$

CONCLUSION

The demand for Turkey tourism measured by tourism arrivals from UK and Australia is modelled and forecasted. In the estimation process, the general-to-specific approach was used. In the forecasting, trend and seasonally adjusted moving average forecast method is used.

The estimates of the demand models show that the previous year's arrivals influence the current year's tourism arrivals for both of the countries UK and Australia. It means that "word of mouth" effect is a very important factor for the tourists from these countries. Another implication of the estimates is that price of the tourism in Turkey does not influence the tourism arrivals from UK and Australia.

 For the year 2005, 1 546 248 tourists are expected from UK to Turkey and 69 743 tourists are expected from Australia to Turkey. Therefore, it is expected that UK tourism arrivals will have an annual growth rate of 11.42% and Australia tourism arrivals will have an annual growth rate of 3.46% in 2005.

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APPENDIX (I)

Table 1. Data table for UK&Turkey

Year	Cpı-Tur	Gdp-Tur	Ex-Uk	Cpı-Uk	Gdp-Uk	Ex-Tur	Prıce	Arrıvals	Income
1980	0,00810995	42,4223	153,438	39,2658	60,8223	106,81	0,0002967	47264	60,8223
1981	0,0110762	44,4829	133,758	43,9305	59,9463	105,93	0,0003184	50158	59,9463
1982	0,0144918	46,0678	115,462	47,7044	61,0927	97,21	0,0003608	60234	61,0927
1983	0,0190429	48,3577	100,059	49,9021	63,2556	93,73	0,0004074	75651	63,2556
1984	0,0282555	51,6033	88,1426	52,374	64,8816	88,76	0,0005357	89 709	64,8816
1985	0,0409592	53,7921	85,5041	55,5507	67,1935	89,53	0,0007042	124 677	67,1935
1986	0,0551391	57,564	96,7615	57,4547	69,8495	73,87	0,0012571	154 231	69,8495
1987	0,0765585	62,7664	108,1	59,8385	73,0299	67,55	0,0020474	266 900	73,0299
1988	0,132957	64,3606	117,496	62,7753	76,6528	66,67	0,0037326	465 142	76,6528
1989	0,217082	64,5225	108,152	67,6701	78,3183	72,36	0,0047947	405 943	78,3183
1990	0,348009	70,495	117,717	74,0822	78,9132	81,94	0,0067487	351 458	78,9132
1991	0,577589	71,1487	116,705	78,419	77,8339	83,83	0,0102539	200 813	77,8339
1992	0,982322	75,4056	116,451	81,3461	77,9867	80,48	0,0174732	314 608	77,9867
1993	1,63161	81,47	99,0709	82,6187	79,8035	90,02	0,0217343	441 817	79,8035
1994	3,3654	77,025	101,022	84,6647	83,3329	67,75	0,0592708	568 284	83,3329
1995	6,33058	82,5648	104,113	87,5526	85,7	73,24	0,1027853	734 721	85,7
1996	11,417	88,3484	103,01	89,6965	88,0047	75,19	0,1743797	758 433	88,0047
1997	21,2052	94,999	108,02	92,5061	90,9011	80,1	0,3091318	915 337	90,9011
1998	39,1535	97,9365	109,254	95,6681	93,7367	86,82	0,5150163	996 512	93,7367
1999	64,5514	93,3247	106,736	97,1561	96,36	90,16	0,7865614	814 889	96,36
2000	100	100	100	100	100	100	1	915 285	100
2001	154,4	92,6753	94,9779	101,821	102,134	82,4	1,7478545	845 536	102,134
2002	223,825	99,8982	99,0207	103,485	103,897	91,78	2,3335071	1 037 507	103,897
2003	280,444	105,841	107,801	106,5	106,109	99,95	2,840119	1 091 404	106,109
2004	304,558	115,294	120,823	109,657	110	105,07	3,1937766	1 387 850	110

Table 2. Data table for Australia&Turkey

Year	Cpı-Tur	Gdp-Tur	Ex-Aus	Cpı-Aus	Gdp-Aus	Ex-Tur	Prıce	Arrıvals	Income	Dummy
1980	0,00811	42,4223	195,68	36,84	51,82	106,81	0,000403	na	51,82	0
1981	0,011076	44,4829	197,36	40,41	53,93	105,93	0,000511	na	53,93	0
1982	0,014492	46,0678	174,71	44,92	53,89	97,21	0,00058	na	53,89	0
1983	0,019043	48,3577	154,96	49,46	53,67	93,73	0,000637	na	53,67	0
1984	0,028256	51,6033	151,04	51,41	57,11	88,76	0,000935	17716	57,11	0
1985	0,040959	53,7921	120,34	54,88	60,28	89,53	0,001003	22602	60,28	0
1986	0,055139	57,564	115,20	59,86	61,51	73,87	0,001436	20760	61,51	0
1987	0,076559	62,7664	120,35	64,95	64,30	67,55	0,0021	21491	64,30	0
1988	0,132957	64,3606	134,67	69,64	67,08	66,67	0,003856	28989	67,08	0
1989	0,217082	64,5225	136,09	74,91	70,09	72,36	0,00545	33628	70,09	0
1990	0,348009	70,495	134,16	80,35	71,33	81,94	0,007091	37045	71,33	0
1991	0,577589	71,1487	133,79	82,94	70,91	83,83	0,011113	20707	70,91	1
1992	0,982322	75,4056	126,27	83,76	72,29	80,48	0,018399	30907	72,29	0
1993	1,63161	81,47	116,79	85,28	75,07	90,02	0,024822	30585	75,07	0
1994	3,3654	77,025	125,64	86,90	78,69	67,75	0,071822	32354	78,69	0
1995	6,33058	82,5648	127,33	90,93	81,44	73,24	0,12104	43287	81,44	0
1996	11,417	88,3484	134,45	93,30	84,96	75,19	0,218802	46796	84,96	0
1997	21,2052	94,999	127,77	93,54	88,24	80,1	0,361627	52986	88,24	0
1998	39,1535	97,9365	108,08	94,33	92,92	86,82	0,516687	60657	92,92	0
1999	64,5514	93,3247	110,82	95,72	96,93	90,16	0,82891	46075	96,93	0
2000	100	100	100	100	100	100	1	58295	100	0
2001	154,4	92,6753	88,89	104,38	102,46	82,4	1,595667	58661	102,46	0
2002	223,825	99,8982	93,40	107,52	106,55	91,78	2,118497	58678	106,55	0
2003	280,444	105,841	111,94	110,50	110,13	99,95	2,842562	56854	110,13	0
2004	304,558	115,294	126,49	113,08	113,69	105,07	3,24212	67413	113,69	0

APPENDIX (II)

*** *In Thıs Part You Can Fınd The Wınrats 5.0 Programs And The Related Results*

R1 : program (OLS-1)

```
 *calendar 1980
allocate 25
open data data.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q p y
set lq = Log(q)
set lp = Log(p)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set lp1 = lp{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg lq

# constant lq1 lp lp1 ly ly1
```

R1: Result (OLS-1)

Linear Regression - Estimation by Least Squares
Dependent Variable LQ
Usable Observations   24   Degrees of Freedom   18
Centered R**2   0.974636   R Bar **2   0.967591
Uncentered R**2   0.999850   T x R**2   23.996
Mean of Dependent Variable   12.831792663
Std Error of Dependent Variable   1.009594237
Standard Error of Estimate   0.181752822
Sum of Squared Residuals   0.5946135887
Regression F(5,18)   138.3349
Significance Level of F   0.00000000
Durbin-Watson Statistic   1.999599

Variable	Coeff	Std Error	T-Stat	Signif
1. Constant	-3.282938109	7.165749906	-0.45814	0.65233237
2. LQ1	0.602982351	0.155345679	3.88155	0.00109346
3. LP	0.243146703	0.215596346	1.12779	0.27421914
4. LP1	-0.247291063	0.221592601	-1.11597	0.27911129
5. LY	9.864411212	2.570202465	3.83799	0.00120494
6. LY1	-8.011877748	2.755567766	-2.90752	0.00939151

R2: Program (OLS-2)
```
*calendar 1980
allocate 25
open data data.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q p y
set lq = Log(q)
set lp = Log(p)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set lp1 = lp{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg lq
# constant lq1 ly ly1
```

R2: Result (OLS-2)

Linear Regression - Estimation by Least Squares
Dependent Variable LQ
Usable Observations   24   Degrees of Freedom   20
Centered R**2   0.972802   R Bar **2   0.968723
Uncentered R**2   0.999840   T x R**2   23.996
Mean of Dependent Variable   12.831792663
Std Error of Dependent Variable   1.009594237
Standard Error of Estimate   0.178550932
Sum of Squared Residuals   0.6376087095
Regression F(3,20)   238.4518
Significance Level of F   0.00000000
Durbin-Watson Statistic   1.767638

Variable	Coeff	Std Error	T-Stat	Signif
1. Constant	-2.04747298	1.76735111	-1.15850	0.26030757
2. LQ1	0.68687208	0.12731082	5.39524	0.00002790
3. LY	10.52108336	2.37314119	4.43340	0.00025551
4. LY1	-9.17254670	2.33285387	-3.93190	0.00082493

R3 : Program (WHITE TEST)
```
*calendar 1980
allocate 25
open data data.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q y
set lq = Log(q)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg(noprint) lq / resids
# constant lq1 ly ly1
set slq1 = lq1**2
set sly = ly**2
set sly1 = ly1**2
set ressqr = resids**2
set lq1ly = lq1*ly
set lq1ly1 = lq1*ly1
set lyly1 = ly*ly1
linreg(noprint) ressqr
# constant lq1 ly ly1 slq1 sly sly1  lq1ly lq1ly1 lyly1
compute chistat = %NOBS*%RSQUARED
CDF CHISQR CHISTAT 9
```

R3: Result (WHITE TEST)

Chi-Squared(9)=   15.597018 with Significance Level 0.07578891

R4: Program (GODFREY TEST)
```
*calendar 1980
allocate 25
open data data.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q y
set lq = Log(q)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg(noprint) lq / resids
# constant lq1 ly ly1
linreg(noprint) resids
# constant lq1 ly ly1 resids{1 to 2}
cdf chisqr %trsq 2
```

R4: Result (GODFREY TEST)

Chi-Squared(2)=   0.606298 with Significance Level 0.73848891

R5: Program (JARQUE-BERA TEST)
```
*calendar 1980
allocate 25
open data data.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q p y
set lq = Log(q)
set lp = Log(p)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set lp1 = lp{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg(noprint) lq / resids
# constant lq1 ly ly1
stats resids
compute jbstat=((%nobs/6.0)*(%skewness**2))+((%nobs/24.0)*(%kurtosis**2))
cdf chisqr jbstat 2
```

R5: Result (JARQUE-BERA TEST)
```
Statistics on Series RESIDS
Observations   24
Sample Mean    0.00000000015        Variance            0.027722
Standard Error 0.16649960302        SE of Sample Mean      0.033987
t-Statistic      0.00000        Signif Level (Mean=0) 1.00000000
Skewness       0.63919        Signif Level (Sk=0)  0.23084732
Kurtosis       0.36830        Signif Level (Ku=0)  0.75171301
Jarque-Bera    1.76989        Signif Level (JB=0)  0.41273753
```

Chi-Squared(2)=   1.769887 with Significance Level 0.41273753

R6: Program (ARCH TEST)
```
*calendar 1980
allocate 25
open data data.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q p y
set lq = Log(q)
set lp = Log(p)
set ly = Log(y)
```

(continued)
```
set lq1 = lq{1}
set lp1 = lp{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg(noprint) lq / resids
# constant lq1 ly ly1
set ressqr = resids**2
linreg(noprint) ressqr
# constant ressqr{1}
compute chistat = %NOBS*%RSQUARED
CDF CHISQR CHISTAT
```

R6: Result (ARCH TEST)

Chi-Squared(1)=   1.721925 with Significance Level 0.18944547

R7: Program (RESET TEST)
```
*calendar 1980
allocate 25
open data data.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q p y
set lq = Log(q)
set lp = Log(p)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set lp1 = lp{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg(noprint) lq / resids
# constant lq1 ly ly1
set fitted = lq-resids
set fittedsq = fitted**2
linreg(noprint) lq
# constant lq1 ly ly1 fittedsq
exclude
#fittedsq
```

R7: Result (RESET TEST)
```
Null Hypothesis : The Following Coefficients Are Zero
FITTEDSQ
F(1,19)=   2.13550 with Significance Level 0.16026582
```

R8: Program (CHOW TEST)

```
*calendar 1980
allocate 25
open data data.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q p y year
set lq = Log(q)
set lp = Log(p)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set lp1 = lp{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
set large = year < 2000
set small = year >= 2000


linreg(smpl=large) lq
# constant lq1 ly ly1
compute rsst1 = %rss , nobst1 = %ndf

linreg(smpl=small) lq
# constant lq1 ly ly1
compute rsst2 = %rss , nobst2 = %ndf

linreg lq
# constant lq1 ly ly1
compute rsst = %rss

com fchow = (((rsst-(rsst1+rsst2)) / (rsst1+rsst2))*$
(24.0-8.0)/4.0)
com fforc = ((rsst-rsst1) / rsst1)*((nobst1-$
(4.0+nobst2)) / nobst2)
cdf ftest fchow (24-8) 4
cdf ftest fforc (nobst1-(4+nobst2)) nobst2
```

R8: Result (CHOW TEST)

Linear Regression - Estimation by Least Squares
Dependent Variable LQ
Usable Observations   19   Degrees of Freedom   15
 Total Observations   24   Skipped/Missing   5

Centered R**2   0.969507   R Bar **2   0.963408
Uncentered R**2   0.999831   T x R**2   18.997
Mean of Dependent Variable   12.562617579
Std Error of Dependent Variable 0.962946314
Standard Error of Estimate   0.184202104
Sum of Squared Residuals   0.5089562276
Regression F(3,15)   158.9707
Significance Level of F   0.00000000
Durbin-Watson Statistic   1.468553

Variable	Coeff	Std Error	T-Stat	Signif
1. Constant	-8.39138846	4.60664777	-1.82158	0.08851922
2. LQ1	0.38124128	0.24579695	1.55104	0.14173115
3. LY	12.07890846	2.66724594	4.52861	0.00039985
4. LY1	-8.38523232	2.57632296	-3.25473	0.00533139

Linear Regression - Estimation by Least Squares
Dependent Variable LQ
Usable Observations   5   Degrees of Freedom   1
 Total Observations   24   Skipped/Missing   19
Centered R**2   0.974287   R Bar **2   0.897146
Uncentered R**2   0.999996   T x R**2   5.000
Mean of Dependent Variable   13.854657984
Std Error of Dependent Variable 0.190233104
Standard Error of Estimate   0.061009285
Sum of Squared Residuals   0.0037221329
Regression F(3,1)   12.6301
Significance Level of F   0.20329069
Durbin-Watson Statistic   2.552399

Variable	Coeff	Std Error	T-Stat	Signif
1. Constant	-8.79377513	3.90139150	-2.25401	0.26582942
2. LQ1	-0.76189200	0.54793843	-1.39047	0.39692200
3. LY	12.33589586	3.83483803	3.21680	0.19187566
4. LY1	-5.23938061	3.28589578	-1.59451	0.35660026

Linear Regression - Estimation by Least Squares
Dependent Variable LQ
Usable Observations   24   Degrees of Freedom   20
Centered R**2   0.972802   R Bar **2   0.968723
Uncentered R**2   0.999840   T x R**2   23.996
Mean of Dependent Variable   12.831792663
Std Error of Dependent Variable 1.009594237
Standard Error of Estimate   0.178550932
Sum of Squared Residuals   0.6376087095
Regression F(3,20)   238.4518
Significance Level of F   0.00000000
Durbin-Watson Statistic   1.767638

Variable	Coeff	Std Error	T-Stat	Signif
1. Constant	-2.04747298	1.76735111	-1.15850	0.26030757
2. LQ1	0.68687208	0.12731082	5.39524	0.00002790
3. LY	10.52108336	2.37314119	4.43340	0.00025551
4. LY1	-9.17254670	2.33285387	-3.93190	0.00082493

F(16,4)=   0.97473 with Significance Level 0.57615872
F(10,1)=   2.52777 with Significance Level 0.45653285

T1: Program(OLS-1)
*calendar 1984
allocate 21
open data dataa.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q p y
set lq = Log(q)
set lp = Log(p)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set lp1 = lp{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg lq
constant lq1 lp lp1 ly ly1

T1: Result (OLS-1)
Linear Regression - Estimation by Least Squares
Dependent Variable LQ
Usable Observations   16   Degrees of Freedom   10
Centered R**2   0.863270   R Bar **2   0.794904
Uncentered R**2   0.999844   T x R**2   15.998
Mean of Dependent Variable   10.448787225
Std Error of Dependent Variable 0.364600646
Standard Error of Estimate   0.165118468
Sum of Squared Residuals   0.2726410841
Regression F(5,10)   12.6273
Significance Level of F   0.00046764
Durbin-Watson Statistic   2.025706

Variable	Coeff	Std Error	T-Stat	Signif
1. Constant	1.52698103	11.06550704	0.13799	0.89298376
2. LQ1	-0.05923038	0.28671177	-0.20659	0.84047950
3. LP	-0.16462700	0.19995071	-0.82334	0.42951358
4. LP1	0.16520151	0.23715480	0.69660	0.50192525
5. LY	6.17528852	3.60918962	1.71099	0.11786916
6. LY1	-3.99073016	2.96558555	-1.34568	0.20812134

T2: Program (OLS-2)
*calendar 1984
allocate 21
open data dataa.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q p y d
set lq = Log(q)
set lp = Log(p)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set lp1 = lp{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg lq
constant lq1 d

T2: Result (OLS-2)
Linear Regression - Estimation by Least Squares
Dependent Variable LQ
Usable Observations   20   Degrees of Freedom   17
Centered R**2   0.917779   R Bar **2 0.908106
Uncentered R**2   0.999824   T x R**2   19.996
Mean of Dependent Variable   10.275334024
Std Error of Dependent Variable 0.488823653
Standard Error of Estimate   0.148182171
Sum of Squared Residuals   0.3732852486
Regression F(2,17)   94.8799
Significance Level of F   0.00000000
Durbin-Watson Statistic   2.551831

Variable	Coeff	Std Error	T-Stat	Signif
1. Constant	1.088919900	0.678816612	1.60414	0.12709774
2. LQ1	0.905119249	0.066669772	13.57616	0.00000000
3. D	-0.672446547	0.153821016	-4.37162	0.00041576

T3: Program (WHITE TEST)
```
*calendar 1984
allocate 21
open data dataa.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q y d
set lq = Log(q)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg(noprint) lq / resids
# constant lq1 d
set sd = d**2
set slq1 = lq1**2
set ressqr = resids**2
set lq1d = lq1*d
linreg(noprint) ressqr
# constant lq1 d slq1 sd  lq1d
compute chistat = %NOBS*%RSQUARED
CDF CHISQR CHISTAT 5
```

T3: Result (WHITE TEST)
Chi-Squared(5)=   2.360099 with Significance Level 0.79740096

T4: Program (GODFREY TEST)
```
*calendar 1984
allocate 21
open data dataa.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q y d
set lq = Log(q)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg(noprint) lq / resids
# constant lq1 d
linreg(noprint) resids
# constant lq1 d resids{1 to 2}
cdf chisqr %trsq 2
```

T4: Result (GODFREY TEST)
Chi-Squared(2)=   3.987232 with Significance Level 0.13620201

T5: Program (JARQUE-BERA TEST)
```
*calendar 1984
allocate 21
open data dataa.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q p y d
set lq = Log(q)
set lp = Log(p)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set lp1 = lp{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg(noprint) lq / resids
# constant lq1 d
stats resids
compute jbstat=((%nobs/6.0)*(%skewness**2))+((%nobs/24.0)*(%kurtosis**2))
cdf chisqr jbstat 2
```

T5:Result (JARQUE-BERA TEST)
Statistics on Series RESIDS
Observations   20
Sample Mean   -0.0000000000   Variance   0.019647
Standard Error 0.1401663013   SE of Sample Mean   0.031342
t-Statistic   -0.00000   Signif Level (Mean=0) 1.00000000
Skewness   -0.34710   Signif Level (Sk=0)   0.55789863
Kurtosis   0.26144   Signif Level (Ku=0)   0.84261070
Jarque-Bera   0.45855   Signif Level (JB=0)   0.79511177

Chi-Squared(2)=   0.458545 with Significance Level 0.79511177

T6: Program(ARCH TEST)

```
*calendar 1984
allocate 21
open data dataa.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q p y d
set lq = Log(q)
set lp = Log(p)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set lp1 = lp{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg(noprint) lq / resids
# constant lq1 d
set ressqr = resids**2
linreg(noprint) ressqr
# constant ressqr{1}
compute chistat = %NOBS*%RSQUARED
CDF CHISQR CHISTAT 1
```

T6: Result (ARCH TEST)
Chi-Squared(1)=   0.056388 with Significance Level 0.81229811

T7:Program (RESET TEST)

```
*calendar 1984
allocate 21
open data dataa.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q p y d
```

```
set lq = Log(q)
set lp = Log(p)
set ly = Log(y)
set lq1 = lq{1}
set lp1 = lp{1}
set ly1 = ly{1}
linreg(noprint) lq / resids
# constant lq1 d
set fitted = lq-resids
set fittedsq = fitted**2
linreg(noprint) lq
# constant lq1 d fittedsq
exclude
#fittedsq
```

T7: Result (RESET TEST)
Null Hypothesis : The Following Coefficients Are Zero
FITTEDSQ
F(1,16)=   1.28877 with Significance Level 0.27299544

T8: Program (CHOW TEST)

```
*calendar 1984
allocate 21
open data dataa.xls
data(format=xls,org=columns) / q p y year d
set lq = Log(q)
set small = year < 2000
set large = year >= 2000

linreg(smpl=small) lq
# constant lq1 d
compute rsssmall = %rss , ndfsmall = %ndf

linreg(smpl=large) lq
# constant lq1 d
compute rsslarge = %rss , ndflarge = %ndf

linreg lq
# constant lq1 d
compute rsspool = %rss
```

compute rssunr = rsssmall+rsslarge , ndfunr = ndfsmall+ndflarge
compute fstat = ((rsspool-rssunr)/2) / (rssunr/ndfunr)
cdf ftest fstat 2 ndfunr

T8: Result (CHOW TEST)
Linear Regression - Estimation by Least Squares
Dependent Variable LQ
Usable Observations   15   Degrees of Freedom   12
 Total Observations   16   Skipped/Missing   1
Centered R**2   0.827352   R Bar **2   0.798577
Uncentered R**2 0.999820   T x R**2   14.997
Mean of Dependent Variable   10.413821600
Std Error of Dependent Variable 0.348525637
Standard Error of Estimate   0.156418843
Sum of Squared Residuals   0.2936022526
Regression F(2,12)   28.7528
Significance Level of F   0.00002648
Durbin-Watson Statistic   1.881638

Variable	Coeff	Std Error	T-Stat	Signif
1. Constant	2.359509785	1.173077837	2.01138	0.06729647
2. LQ1	0.782385699	0.113400627	6.89931	0.00001653
3. D	-0.651893153	0.163217809	-3.99401	0.00178080

Linear Regression - Estimation by Least Squares
Dependent Variable LQ
Usable Observations   1   Degrees of Freedom   0
 Total Observations   16   Skipped/Missing   15
Centered R**2   0.000000   R Bar **2   0.000000
Uncentered R**2 1.000000   T x R**2   1.000
Mean of Dependent Variable   10.973271605
Std Error of Dependent Variable 0.000000000
Standard Error of Estimate   0.000000000
Sum of Squared Residuals   0.000000
Durbin-Watson Statistic   0.000000

Variable	Coeff	Std Error	T-Stat	Signif
1. Constant	10.973271605	0.000000000	0.00000	0.00000000
2. LQ1	0.000000000	0.000000000	0.00000	0.00000000
3. D	0.000000000	0.000000000	0.00000	0.00000000

Linear Regression - Estimation by Least Squares
Dependent Variable LQ
Usable Observations   16   Degrees of Freedom   13
Centered R**2   0.833163   R Bar **2   0.807495
Uncentered R**2 0.999810   T x R**2   15.997
Mean of Dependent Variable   10.448787225
Std Error of Dependent Variable 0.364600646
Standard Error of Estimate   0.159969762
Sum of Squared Residuals   0.3326742205
Regression F(2,13)   32.4601
Significance Level of F   0.00000881
Durbin-Watson Statistic   2.373691

Variable	Coeff	Std Error	T-Stat	Signif
1. Constant	1.972935438	1.158198555	1.70345	0.11225470
2. LQ1	0.821049830	0.111674056	7.35220	0.00000557
3. D	-0.672061156	0.166123181	-4.04556	0.00138790

F(2,12)=   0.79847 with Significance Level 0.47254308

Tourism Demand for Turkey: Models, Analysis and Results

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study is to analyse the factors of the tourism demand in Turkey for the arrivals from OECD countries. In the estimation period, the general-to-specific modelling approach is used. Autoregressive Distributed Lag Model is applied for each country and the related models are determined . 1980-2004 time period is used as an estimation period and each countries' demand to Turkey are analysed in detail with demand elasticities and model results. This study not only introduces the econometric side of the tourism, it also mentions the economical results and gives ideas about the future plans for tourism.

Keywords: tourism demand, Turkish tourism, OECD countries, econometric models, , tourist arrivals

Cost Efficiency Measurement of Foodservice Systems:
A Stochastic Frontier Approach

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ABSTRACT

The growing size and complexity of modern foodservices requires sophisticated methods of analysis of the efficiency of foodservice systems. Traditionally, partial ratios and regression analysis have been used in this field to assess productivity. The sophisticated techniques (data envelopment analysis, stochastic frontier, thick frontier, distribution free technique) offer an integrated approach to the assessment of the multiple inputs and outputs of the systems. In this paper, the traditional as well as the advanced approaches to measure productivity are reviewed. An overview of the methodology for a current study based on a stochastic frontier approach in a variety of foodservice systems settings is also presented.

Keywords: food service systems, efficiency, stochastic frontier approach.

INTRODUCTION

Food services are an integral part of the hospitality and healthcare sector, and the growth in size of establishments has led to the increased need for bulk food production. In Australia, for example, the sector has reached $AU30 billion in 2005 with the expected growth rate of 3.8% by 2007 (Food and Beverage Global Report 2005).In the US, the contracts in hospitals represent alone around $US 3.778 billion with a current growth of 8.8 % (Zenk 2005). A variety of technological options are available to large scale operators in convention centers, casinos, stadiums, foodservices in healthcare, education and transport sectors. These include cook-hot-holding, traditional cook-chill, sous- vide (cooked-in-a-bag) and cook-freeze systems. The Australian Health Departments operate 13 centralized cook-chill production units (CPU) in New South Wales and 38 in Victoria; the majority of Queensland hospitals serve cook-freeze meals (Krassie 2005). The cook-chill system is used by the majority of public hospitals in Europe (the UK, France, Sweden, Netherlands, and Denmark) as well as the US (McCree 2005). In the UK, 300 million cook-chill and cook-freeze meals are served each year at a cost of around £500 million (McCree 2005).

The strategic significance of the use of a particular system lies in quality outcomes such as the sensory characteristics of the food as well as the efficiency of the capital investment, which includes facility and equipment cost. In Australia, $AU2 million (Moss 2005) was spent on the equipment for a cook-chill central production unit (CPU) at Westmead hospital (Sydney) producing 10,000 meals a day. Such investments are usually offset by savings in labor and food costs. For example, a reduction of 10% in food cost and 12 FTEs (full time equivalent employees) followed the introduction of cook-chill at St. Vincent hospital in Indianapolis (US) (Chater 1999). At Metrohealth public hospitals (US), 70% of labor became redundant with the conversion to the sous- vide system, this resulted in $US1.2 million savings per year (Foutty 2004). These isolated examples do not compensate for the lack of statistical data on the performance of the systems. The descriptive lists of advantages and disadvantages available in the promotional materials supplied by manufacturers of the equipment do not provide an objective evidence of potential benefits. The studies conducted in this field failed to support the rationale for the system introduction (Greathouse 1987, Clark, Woodman and Rimmington 1996). Consequently, managers need a standard approach of assessing the operational outcomes of the systems.

Traditionally, single or partial productivity measures (food or labor cost per meal) were used with the linear regression as an analytical tool (Mibey and William 2002, Clark, Woodman and Rimmington 1996, Hong and Kirk 1995). Despite the complex settings of foodservices systems, advanced techniques such as the data envelopment analysis (DEA), stochastic frontier analysis (SFA), thick frontier approach (TFA) and distribution free technique (DFA) have never been applied to assess the efficiency of these systems. Sophisticated statistical techniques could overcome the limitation of the traditional methods, which may show savings in one area (labor, for example), but would not indicate an unsatisfactory performance in another area (capital investment, for example).

Productivity measures have been categorized as either total factor or partial factor indicators. Partial factor approaches such as simple performance ratios take into account only specific part of the company relating changes of one input to one output of goods and services (ADA 2005, Reynolds 1998). Total factor measures such as DEA and SFA, on the other hand, take into account the global behavior of the company relating the multiple inputs and outputs. The

following overview includes a brief description of traditional as well as the more sophisticated efficiency frontier techniques as well as the methodology for a study based on the stochastic frontier analysis in a variety of foodservice systems settings.

TRADITIONAL PRODUCTIVITY APPROACHES

Traditionally, in the studies on foodservice systems the approaches to measure productivity have been limited to the use of partial ratios and the Key Performance Indicators (KPI's). Those that are most common are FTEs (Greathouse 1987), meals produced per labor hour (Hong and Kirk 1995) and food cost per meal. Partial indicators are used then the performance of a particular operational area is assessed. Problems arise when managers treat a partial measure as an indicator of the overall performance of the operation without considering all the interferences from other variables (Reynolds 1998). Partial ratios do not account for the relationships and trade-offs between different inputs and outputs (O'Donnell and Westhuizen 2005). For example, the performance indicator (the ratio of the Search Decision Rule schedule cost to master labor schedule cost) was higher and labor demands fluctuations were lower in cook-chill in comparison with a conventional system (Connell, Everett and Moore 1984). The quantitative assessment of 66 institutional food services (Greathouse 1987), on the other hand, did not demonstrate the advantages of cook-chill and cook-freeze in terms of FTEs. Recent comparisons of the systems by Johnson and Chambers (2000) and Mibey and Williams (2002) confirmed these findings.

The relationship between inputs and outputs can be analyzed using a total factor approach such as regression analysis. It is a parametric method that requires a general production model to be specified. Typically, regression analysis takes into account a single output or multiple inputs or vice versa. It can be used in multiple inputs and outputs settings but requires the estimation of more than one equation. In foodservice systems, Clark, Woodman and Rimmington (1996) applied ordinarily least square regression analysis to compare labor productivity between cook-chill and conventional systems. It was demonstrated that the use of pre-prepared vegetables (an interfering factor by its nature) coupled with cook-chill results in substantial productivity gains – 3.340 - 1.1000 (cook-chill) vs. 960 – 3.180 (conventional) meals/ 20 chefs. There was, however, a high variation of the data around the regression line. The accuracy of the analysis was affected by the fact that other inputs and outputs (such as food and capital costs) were not taken into account. Additionally, the

use of regression as a productivity analysis tool can itself lead to inaccuracy in measurements as it allocates all the sources of variations to inefficiency reasons without separating the random noise from the genuine trends in the data set.

EFFICIENCY FRONTIER TECHNIQUES

The limitations of the traditional approaches in measuring productivity have been addressed by the development of efficient frontier techniques which benchmark the efficiency of similar organizations by explicitly considering multiple inputs and outputs. Theoretically, efficiency in production consists of technical efficiency, allocative and cost efficiency. A firm is said to be technically efficient if it produces a given set of outputs using the smallest amount of inputs, allocatively efficient it uses the mix of inputs that produce a given quantity of output at a minimum cost; and cost efficient if it is both technically and allocatively efficient (O'Donnell and Westhuizen 2005). There are four frontier methods can be divided into two groups: non-parametric (DEA) which does not account for errors of measurements; and parametric (SFA, TFA and DFA) which do. None of these methods have so far been applied to the area of foodservice systems despite their wide application in other service settings.

A common feature of the parametric approaches is that they all define variations from efficient frontier (a graphical representation of firms which are 100% efficient such as shown in Figure 1) using alternative assumptions regarding the probability distribution of the error term representing inefficiencies (Anderson et al.1999). Within the DEA framework, linear programming is used for the construction of the efficiency frontier. The relative efficiencies of operations is assessed by comparing all set of inputs and outputs into a single measure of productive efficiency taking a value between zero (poor efficiency) and 1 (maximum efficiency). Instead of a pre-specified functional form, the frontier is convex shaped and based on the construction of piece-wise linear combinations of the most efficient units. For example, the hypothetical restaurants 1 and 3 shown in Figure 1 are fully efficient because their performance indicators lie on the frontier. The restaurants 2 and 4, on the other hand, are inefficient, their indicators lie to the northeast of the frontier. Restaurant 2 could reduce its inputs by about 30% before it would reach the efficient frontier at point A. The mathematical programming necessary to estimate the efficiency measures as specified by the DEA requires solving the following linear programming problem subject to the input-output constraints:

$$\text{Min} \quad \theta$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i y_{ij} \ge y_{nj} \qquad \text{for } j = 1,...,J$$

$$\theta x_{nk} - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i x_{ik} \ge 0 \qquad \text{for } k = 1,...,K$$

$$\theta \text{ and all } \lambda_j \ge 0$$

Where J is the number of outputs and K is the number of inputs for every firm. N is the number of firms, and is the intensity coefficient for firm i. The constraint specifies constant return to scale and enforces the linearity assumption.

Figure 1. DEA Efficiency frontier: Illustrating restaurant input-output data (1, 2, 3, 4 are hypothetical restaurants)
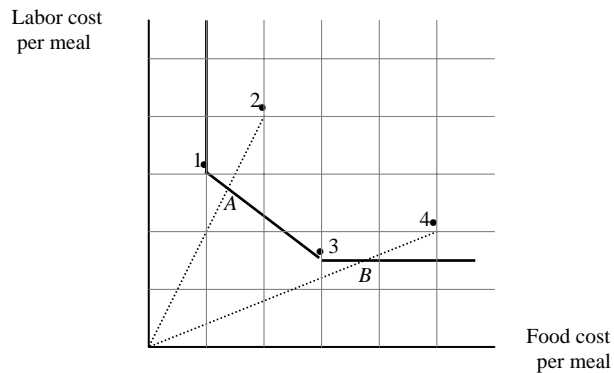
DEA was applied to estimate the performance and the sources of inefficiencies of different industries including: healthcare such as hospitals (Giokas 2001), education such as schools, universities (Abott and Doucouliagos 2003), banks (Luo 2003), and hospitality industry such as hotels and tourism organizations (Bell and Morey 1995, Reynolds 2003).The limitation of DEA is that it is a deterministic rather than a statistical technique; its results are therefore sensitive to measurement errors. If one organization's inputs or outputs are underestimated or overestimated, then that organization can become an outlier (a data point that is located far from the rest of the data) that significantly

distorts the shape of the frontier and reduce the efficiency score of other organizations included in the sample.

SFA overcomes the limitations of DEA by separating a firm's specific efficiency and random error. It incorporates two parts error-term: one part of the error is assumed to follow a symmetric distribution (usually the standard normal) and to capture random error; the other part of the error reflects inefficiency and is assumed to follow several common distribution such as half-normal, truncated and exponential distribution. In general, the representation of the stochastic frontier model is as follow:

$\ln (Y_{it}) = X_{it}\beta + V_{it} - U_{it},$ i = 1, 2, ... N where

Y_{it} is the output of the i-th firm at the t-th time period;

X_{it} denotes a (1XK) vector of input values and other associated variables;

β is a (KX1) vector of unknown scalar parameters to be estimated;

V_{it} are the usual random errors accounts for measurement error and other random factors, assumed to be iid with N $(0, \sigma_v^2)$ independently of the U_{it}s;

U_{it}s hold non-negative values which are assumed to account technical inefficiency in the model;

The SFA-based model yields technical, allocative and cost efficiency that are free from distortion and statistic noise inherent in the deterministic models such as DEA (Ferrier and Lovell 1990). SFA was applied in a number of studies to estimate the efficiency levels in different hotel operations (Anderson et al.1999, Barros 2004). The primary limitation of SFA, however, is that there is generally no prior justification for the selection of any particular distributional form of the Uits term accounting for inefficiency. The use of half-normal distribution for example could yield efficiency estimates that are different from the one estimated with a truncated normal distribution.

An alternative parametric approach, TFA, is a regression-base technique that does not calculate individual efficiency levels; instead it measures the overall efficiency. In contrast to SFA is imposes no distribution assumptions to the estimation of efficiency. The deviation from the efficiency frontier and random error are separated by dividing the magnitude of the error term into quartiles (values that divide the observations in a numeric sample into four intervals, each containing 25% of the data). Any difference within the first and fourth quartiles represents random error while the deviations between the first and fourth quartiles represent inefficiencies. The use of technique is limited as it does not generate cost efficiency estimates for each producer in the sample. It

generates only an overall efficiency estimate for the producers operating in the high cost quartile relative to the produced in the low cost quartile ((Kumbhakar and Lovell 2000). Finally, with DFA the average efficiency of each unit is assumed to be constant over time while the random error term tends to averages out to zero (Berger 1993). The limitation of this approach is that data where firms are observed at numerous periods is required so that the error term can cancel out; therefore only panel estimates of efficiency over the entire time interval are available.

While the efficiency frontier techniques have been applied to analyze productivity in different industries, there is no research to our knowledge that adopted these techniques in the area of foodservice systems. Each of these techniques has its own advantages and limitations. Although DEA is simple to apply in the estimation of multiple inputs and outputs, it is sensitive to measurement errors and does not allow for random deviations from the efficiency frontier. Between the parametric techniques, SFA is used most often as it takes into account measurement error, thus allowing for additional evidence on the true structure of the efficiency frontier.

METHODOLOGY

The suggested methodology integrates stochastic frontier analysis in order to overcome the limitations of the productivity studies in the area of foodservice systems. In comparisons to the traditional efficiency measurement techniques detailed above, stochastic frontier is selected as it allows for additional evidence on the true structure of the efficiency frontier. It is expected to be most relevant in the foodservice system situation where the data are influenced by measurement errors due to the inherent diversity of the systems and the effects of other variables or interfering factors (Figure 2) on the efficiency outcomes.

The technical, allocative and cost efficiencies of the different foodservice systems will be measured and compared in the proposed study, with technical efficiency looking at producing the outputs using the smallest amount of inputs, allocative efficiency looking at using the right mix of inputs to produce outputs at a minimum cost and cost efficiency looking at the total overall efficiency .In summary the main objectives of our study are as follow:

- To identify variables to be considered in the financial and operational assessment of conventional, cook-chill, cook-freeze and sous-vide systems

1. To develop an aggregate productivity measure, which would compare simultaneously multiple units and outputs of comparable units (using a benchmark of 100% efficiency)
2. To identify inefficient operations as well as the sources and amounts of their inefficiency
3. To identify economies of scale and determine their effect on efficiency
4. To provide a benchmarking framework illustrating the difference in cost, technical and allocative efficiency between the hospital private and public sectors.
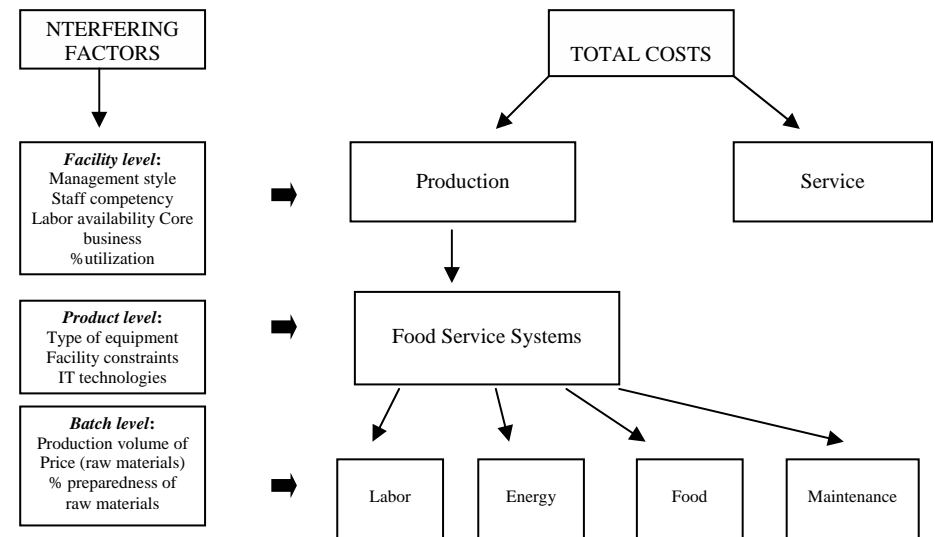

Figure 2. The interfering factors in estimating the efficiency of a foodservice system

The study started with an extensive review leading to the development of a thorough questionnaire (Web based: http://sites.uws.edu.au/research/food-services/questionnaire) which will be distributed in the US and Australia for data collection. The focus of the questionnaire was on the production cost (unlike the service and delivery costs), and the so-called interfering factors (Figure 2) such as the degree of readiness of prepared vegetables and the skill level of employees which themselves interfere with the impact of the systems on the efficiency of a foodservice operation. Areas where the systems are expected to provide operational advantages such as food and labor costs were addressed in the questionnaire, the main variables are summarized in Table 1. The

questionnaire was first discussed with foodservice managers through a focus group and then piloted with eight hospitals from both the private and public sectors to ensure its reliability and validity. The output considered is the number of meals produced and the inputs are the number of full time equivalent employees, total food cost, total energy cost, size of the production area and capacity of equipment.

Table 1. Main variables addressed in the questionnaire

Variables	Justification
Number of full time employees	• One of the claimed advantages of foodservice systems is the reduction in number of employees • Contradictory reports have been published related to labor costs savings based on the type of foodservice system (Mibey and Williams 2001, Nettles, Gregoire and Canter 1994)
Skill level of employees	• Another positive outcome cited for the use of new foodservice system compared with the traditional foodservice system is the reduction in the number of skilled employees
Food Cost	• One of the claimed advantages of foodservice systems is the reduction in food cost (Nettles, Gregoire and Canter 1994) • Limited studies have supported these claimed food cost savings (Greathouse 1987)
Size of the production area	• Space requirements for foodservice systems vary with the type of foodservice system • Space requirements can limit the introduction of a particular system due the inefficient space available within an operation
Type and number of equipment (e.g.: Blast chiller; combi oven; blast freezer, etc...)	• Foodservice equipment needs will differ based on the type of food production system used • The cost of equipment and refrigeration for example in cook-chill operation is 15 to 20% higher compared with a conventional system • The number of equipment was determined to have an influence on the productivity of the cook-chill systems. In fact hotels and hospitals using a higher number of equipment with the cook-chill system were more productive than those using lower number of equipment (Clark, Woodman and Rimmington 1996)
Degree of readiness of raw materials (e.g. :% of vegetables or meat bought ready prepared)	• The degree to which the food is bought prepared can affect the food cost incurred by the systems • The use of ready prepared vegetable in combination with cook-chill has resulted in significant productivity gains (Clark, Woodman and Rimmington 1996)

CONCLUSIONS

The claims that foodservice systems could provide operational benefits have not been adequately proven in quantitative studies. The need to integrate numerous inputs and outputs as well as to separate the efficiencies delivered by the systems from other interfering factors requires complex statistical techniques. These include data envelopment analysis, stochastic frontier approach, thick frontier approach and distribution free technique, which offer the total measure of performance. In contrast to the partial productivity ratios such as food or labor cost per meal used traditionally in this field, these modern techniques allow a comprehensive productivity evaluation as they generate an aggregate productivity score by comparing simultaneously multiple inputs and outputs. Stochastic frontier analysis was selected for the proposed study as it takes into account the measurement error in the estimation of efficiency making it most relevant in the foodservice systems application where data are heavily influenced by measurement errors and the effects of other interfering variables.

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The Attractiveness of Seri Tanjung Homestay in Melaka, Malaysia as a Tourist Destination

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ABSTRACT

Homestay program is a potential form of tourism industry that grows fast in Malaysia as well as other countries worldwide. This study aims to establish and develop a more successful and comptetitive homestay program in the state of Melaka, Malaysia. This paper also attempts to assist the homestay operator and tourism government officials to better understand the sustainability of the homestay program and to develop a well structured quality program in that area. In this study, researchers discussed on the enhancement efforts that would improve the Seri Tanjung Homestay's attractiveness. Findings showed that Seri Tanjung Homestay lacked publicity and tourists arrivals have declined recently. Some discussion on enhancement efforts inclusive of future planning, development and improvement on the quality of the program had been highlighted.

Keywords: homestay, sustainability, product enhancement, package improvement, ecotourism.

Achieving the Millennium Development Goals: Issues and Options for the Nigeria's Tourism Industry

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ABSTRACT

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are a potentially powerful tool for economic development. There is the growing awareness about the economic importance of tourism in Nigeria. Though the industry is fraught with certain challenges, which are seemingly insurmountable, it has a crucial role to play in helping Nigeria to achieve the 2015 anti-poverty MDGs. This paper discusses some of the potential benefits of the tourism industry in Nigeria as well as an overview of the industry. Furthermore, it states the MDGs and its limitations. Furthermore it will discuss some of the problems that could impede the growth of the tourism sector. As Nigeria is becoming keenly aware of the substantial development potentials of tourism, this paper presents some recommendations to be considered in order to reap these potentials and facilitate the process of achieving the MDGs.

Keywords: MDGs, tourism industry, Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

Many countries have experienced how tourism and related recreation activities can help to increase and diversity their economic bases, particularly in rural areas (Fawson, Thilmany and Keith 1998). Several empirical studies have also documented that tourism has direct, indirect and induced impacts on economic development (Slee, Farr, and Snowdon, 1997). In fact, the industry is one of the most crucial tradable sectors in the world. Tourism is an effective weapon which can assist underdeveloped countries to achieve the 2015 anti – poverty MDGs. Globally the tourism industry has created 100, 000 new jobs a year, thus accounting for 11 per cent of global employment (WTO 2004). Furthermore, tourism is the only service industry where there is a positive balance of trade flows from first world to their world countries. Most African cities where half of young people account for about 50 per cent of the population could reap enormous rewards from growth of this industry. According to the WTO, 50 per cent of the world's poorest nations rank tourism in their top three income sources, attracting vital foreign exchange.

In 2000, the leaders and heads of state of 189 countries signed the Millennium Declaration, which set a series of targets for global action against poverty by 2015. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are the result of this process. Meeting the MDGs would not completely eliminate economic poverty; but meeting them could make a positive difference to millions of women, men, and children. In the past decade, 59 countries – predominantly in sub - Saharan Africa and the former Soviet Union – have slid further down the poverty ladder, as they contend with HIV/AIDS, conflict, and enormous foreign debts (UNDP 2004).

The paper, therefore attempts to re-examine the crucial role and significance of tourism for Nigeria's development effort, the problems, and suggestions for possible measures to take to tackle the identified problems, such that tourism can be effectively used to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

AN OVERVIEW OF TOURISM INDUSTRY IN NIGERIA

With the demise of military rule in Nigeria, the government is keenly interested in reaping the dividends of democracy by developing its tourism industry. Nigeria is richly endowed with natural, cultural and geographical resources. Nigeria is the most populous African country with a current population of about 130 million people, a land area of 923, 777km, a coastal zone of 830km and an exclusive economic zone of 256, 000km of the Atlantic Ocean. Since Nigeria is relatively blessed with all year round sun, it has a wide variety of natural attractions to capture some of the tourist markets. Thus, the need to embark on an aggressive policy of fostering the development of its tourism industry.

The Federal Ministry of Commerce and Tourism (FMCT) is saddled with the responsibility of policy formulation and monitoring, planning and funding nationally – oriented tourism infrastructure. It also represents the country in international tourism events, and maintains links with the state governments on all tourism-related matters. In addition, the National Council on Commerce and Tourism, comprising the Minister, Commissioners, and representatives of travel agents, hoteliers and catering associations, tour operators and boards of airlines, coordinates the planning and development of tourism in Nigeria. Also, the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC), which was established by

Decree No. 81 of 1992, regulates and supervises the registration and grading of tourism enterprises among others.

The State Tourism Boards (STBs) identify, preserve, protect and develop tourism assets and resources within the States, and coordinate the activities of tourism agencies. The local government tourism committees identify potential tourist attractions, serve information centres and preserve and maintain monuments and museums.

Of relevance is the Hospitality and Tourism Establishment Regulation 1997, which provides that the owner of every hospitality and tourism establishment shall from the commencement of operations, apply to the NTDC in the prescribed form for the registration, classification or reclassification of a hospitality or tourism establishment on payment of such fee as may be prescribed by the corporation for time to time. The requirement for registration is therefore a prelude to classification and grading of such establishments which is provided for by regulations No. 10 and 11.

Economic Significance

Tourism is a non-agricultural, economic sector. Tourism has a substantial role to play in the expanding and diversifying Nigeria's economic base. Among other contributions, the tourism sector has been shown as providing income-earning opportunities for a large number of people. It has been estimated that if developed, tourism will be the biggest employer of labour in Nigeria; generating employment for millions of people. Tourism employment will touch almost every aspect of the Nigerian economy, from the taxi drivers to bank managers (The Guardian Newspaper, 2005). The industry has multiplier impact on such other sectors as transportation, hotels, financial institutions, hospitals, aviation and environment.

Experience on tourism development in the Caribbean to date indicates that growth in tourism services could result in the following sustainability impacts: [1] generally positive impacts of macro-economic indicators (contribution to GDP, export earnings, government tax revenues), and [2] opportunities in employment to develop professional skills. Some of the social costs of tourism promotion include: [1] a high risk of over-reliance on one sector and therefore increasing vulnerability; [2] higher risks of social problems (for instance, AIDS) and not necessarily better working conditions (seasonal jobs) which does not significantly alleviate poverty; [3] risk of worsening environmental damages due to the development of hotel construction and increased tourist arrivals exist

but so do opportunities for transfer of environmentally sound practices; and [4] the nature and degree of these impacts depend on a range of variables; the type of tourism (land-based or cruise tourism, and niche markets), investments (hotels, construction, management, contracts and environmentally sound investments) types of jobs created, tourist behaviour (expenditure activities) and the institutional framework (social programmes, environmental management)

Performance and Potentials of Tourism

Tourism has performed impressively in many developed countries and the newly industrialised Asian nations. One can sum up the performance, role or potential contributions of the tourism sector as follows:

1. Tourism provides a major source of employment opportunities for a large majority of people, being labour intensive with higher capacity for employment generation. In Nigeria, it has the potential to absorb a high percentage of teeming millions of people who are not gainfully employed. The majority of those willing to work about (70 – 80 %) because operations in the tourism industry are mainly labour intensive and the industry includes hotels, airlines, travel agency and all tourism related organisations.

2. Serving as a valuable training ground for the creation and development of local entrepreneurs and hospitality managers in several areas of economic activity.

3. They serve in some ways to aid the process of income redistribution as they impact more positively on the bulk of low-income people.

4. Tourism is the most effective means to bring about structural transformation in the rural areas.

5. There has been increasing role tourism in FDI flows, making those enterprises to enter the international market. It serves as a veritable avenue for attracting FDI.

6. Poverty reduction – have better capacity to reduce poverty, inequality and social vices.

7. GDP contribution – the contribution of tourism to the Nigerian economy has relatively been on the increase since independence.

8. Entrepreneurial development – provides good preparation ground for the development of indigenous entrepreneurs, which drive the wealth creation process at all levels.

Problems of the Tourism Industry

The problems of tourism in Nigeria are hardly that of dearth of policies or institutions to support them, but more of the effectiveness of such policies and institutions that are today grossly deficient and deplorable. Changing policies of the state are often times detrimental to the growth and survival of the industry. In addition, Nigeria has not been able to attract international tourist to her shores due the industry's inability to have a well-focused promotion and marketing policy that would embrace crucial national and local events. The infrastructural decay has posed formidable obstacle that needs urgent attention by the government. In fact, the industry lacks the enabling environment to attract foreigners for tourism and investments capable of earning the nation a fortune in terms of foreign exchange.

It is important to note that another reason why nature tourism has not boomed considerably in Nigeria is because the country missed the opportunity to develop its wildlife base or ecotourism in the mid – 1960s, while it was still an agrarian nation endowed with abundant natural resources. During the same period, East Africa was developing rapidly as an ecotourism destination, and succeeded in absorbing much of the available market in Africa. Unlike in West Africa, the East African Travel and Tourist Association was created during the colonial era to promote East African attractions. Furthermore, the civil war of 1967 – 70 and the oil boom that occasioned corruption, insecurity, mismanagement, unplanned urbanisation and rural disivestment for giving the country a bad image and putting off tourist from Nigeria.

In spite of the awareness of immense socio-economic benefits from ecotourism, it is unfortunate that the industry is still assigned low priority in federal and state fiscal policies' planning and co-ordination. This has led to the deterioration of many protected areas, particularly forest reserves, national parks, game reserves and sanctuaries.

However, the main issue of concern is why past attempts and strategies to assist tourism development have not yielded much, while in many developing countries, especially in Asia, their economies have been considerably improved through the fostering of their tourism industries. Some problematic issues of great interest include: (1) the need to know more about the extent and peculiar nature of the problems of tourism within the Nigerian socio-economic

environment; and (2) which policies and strategies could prove effective in tackling the multifaceted problems that have continued to vitiate various policies targeted at fostering tourism.

Typical Problems of the Tourism Industry in Generating Finance

The main problems that have been hampering the financing and development of hotels include:

1. Problem of obtaining finances at right time and on satisfactory terms.
2. Difficulty of demonstrating chances of success due mainly to hotel difficulty in preparing bankable feasibility reports, et cetera.
3. Risks of default in the context of the highly unconducive operating environment.
4. Lack of adequate required collateral security often demanded by banks for loan.
5. Information gap – how and where to obtain funds?
6. Low entrepreneurial skills – poor management expertise.
7. Inadequate and poor infrastructures – hotel owners have to make huge investments in the provision of such infrastructure as electricity.
8. Multiplicity of policies / regulatory measures.
9. Poor implementation of policies, particularly government policies that may be either inadequate or inappropriate.
10. Deficiency in policy implementation.

The other problems of financing confronting hotels are analysed in table 1 below:

Table 1. Financial problems facing hotels in Nigeria

Problems	No of Firms	Percentage
Inability to provide collateral securities	73	30.41
Discriminating lending attitude of commercial banks	57	23.75
Cumbersome loan granting process of the small-scale industries loan scheme	46	19.17
Short –term nature of commercial bank loans	24	10.00
The stringent conditions and high cost of raising funds through the stock exchange.	40	16.67
Total	240	100

Source: From a survey undertaken by the author

From the table 1, the most serious problem facing tourist services providers in obtaining bank loans is the inability to provide collateral securities demanded by banks. This problem accounts for about 31 per cent of all the problems facing these hotels. In order of seriousness, discriminatory lending attitude of banks is 24 per cent, cumbersome loan granting process of the hotels loan scheme is 19 per cent, and the stringent conditions and high cost of raising funds through stock exchange is 17 per cent.

Limitations of the MDGs

The MDGs emerged from the UN system as an attempt to develop concrete, measurable commitments that would advance the agendas of the UN conferences of the 1990s and the Millennium Declaration. The goal was to provide real momentum for accountability, including follow-through by the North on the Monterry Consensus. There is merit in focusing on a few concrete goals and mobilising energy to achieve them after decades of setbacks. Yet there are also serious limitations. Among many critiques about the MDGs are the following:

1. The MDGs drastically limit the scope of their attention, and set a minimalist agenda.

2. They are a technocratic effort to solve systemic political issues, which have to do with global distribution of power and wealth between and within nations.

3. In their initial formulation, they have omitted too much of the Beijing and Cairo agendas (as well as the outcomes of other key UN conferences); and they restrict their focus on gender equality, including it as one of the eight Goals. For example, they include Goals related to HIV, maternal health, and gender equality, but have left out the overall Cairo goal of universal access to sexual and reproductive health care for all by 2015.

4. They seek to eradicate poverty with a top – down approach that virtually excludes poor people, particularly women, from decision making.

5. They assume that growth, via macroeconomic policies that conform to the Washington Consensus, is the means to eradicate poverty; even when per capita income fell in 54 countries in the 1990s during the years of this same economic reform.

6. The MDGs focus on implementation in the global South, without mechanisms of accountability being set up to grow the actions of nations of the North. For the peoples in the South, this is particularly important in relation to Goal 8 on 'global partnership', which calls on the North to increase aid, support debt reduction, and open markets in the North to Southern goods. For peoples in the North, this is problematic because it apparently absolves their governments of responsibility to address issues of poverty, gender equality, and environmental sustainability within their own borders (commitments that they made in the 1990s).

CONCLUSIONS

The role of tourism cannot be overemphasised in Nigeria's efforts at ensuring sustainable development, poverty alleviation and achievement of the MDGs. Thus, there is a dire need to design a tourism strategy, which would foster the development, all tourism – related activities. In addition, tourism is of significant importance in terms of economic policy objectives. Over the years, tourism industry has played crucial role in the development of export capacity, investment opportunities, and creative production activities in the face of depressed economic outlook.

Although, successive governments in Nigeria have attempted to foster the development of tourism activities, most efforts have been piecemeal and half-hearted in nature, which have made such measures largely ineffective, mainly because of their poor designs and poor implementation. In order to enable the tourism industry to contribute maximally to the Nigerian economy, such policies and programmes must be designed to emphasise its importance in terms of wealth creation, individual initiative, self – gainful occupation, conducive operating environment, and dynamic competitiveness. The three tiers of government, especially at the local level must simplify operational rules and regulations bearing on various hotels.

Synergies and high linkages must be promoted. In addition, it is necessary to channel more real resources to those hotels that are capable of penetrating and elevating the fragmented production units.

In view of the foregoing, the following recommendations are considered very vital for harnessing the potentials of tourism in Nigeria, and which should thus make it realistically feasible to use tourism to achieve the MDGs. Such countries as Singapore, Malaysia, Brazil, Mexico and Korea have attained this feat.

It is necessary to hold governments to account through national and international monitoring of progress on tourism development programmes. This includes innovations in measuring and monitoring which focuses on improving national statistics, creating alternative indicators and indices, and producing supporting studies. Every state of the federation must identify indicators and devise strategies that accord with the resources and capabilities at its disposal. It is unfortunate to note that there is really no serious commitment to collected tourism data, because there is little agreement on the importance of the industry.

Another strategy is to link work on MDGs to work on tourism development. The most effective work on tourism development takes place when there is adequate understanding of how policy frameworks are influenced by global trends and agreements. These are the bases for the construction of proposals for policy alternatives, which would lead, to the achievement of goals such as poverty eradication, advances in education, improved health, and environmental protection – the MDGs

Government should establish relevant, well adapted and appropriately structured institutions and organisations to provide support for the tourism industry operators in such aspects as: procurement, supply and distribution of materials; supply of local /`imported machines for use on concessional terms; training in several technical grades; and creation of favourable market conditions.

Furthermore, there exists the need for the establishment of some relevant institutions and organisations which will help in the development of the tourism sector. Those to be set up can include institute for tourism studies; centre for responsible tourism, ecotourism studies and research programme; institute for hotel and hospitality studies; et cetera. Related to this is the development of the capacity building programmes that meet the needs of tourists and provide equitable distribution of revenues through participatory and democratic processes that engages people at all levels particularly urban and rural youth who are the future of Africa.

Tourism should feature in Nigeria's National Economic and Empowerment Development Strategy (NEEDS) that aims to combat poverty and encourage development in Nigeria. In other words, there is the need to link the NEEDS with the MDGs. This implies that, in order to benefit from the high – profile attention received by the MDGs as the new consensus framework for development discourse and assistance, all those committed to the fostering of tourism development need to develop strategies for monitoring and measuring progress towards the achievement of the NEEDS objectives, and building this into work on the MDGs.

Security is a vital component that gives the tourism industry the desired cover especially when considering the life of tourists. Security of tourist destination is the most critical responsibility of any nation that opens its borders to foreign tourists. However, this suggests that the security force, that is the Nigerian Police Force, has a crucial role to play in promoting tourism by getting rid of violent crimes and armed robbery.

With respect to the chronic issue of tourism financing strategy and the lethargy of our banks in utilising the funds being accumulated idly for their use, government should formulate the financial policies that would encourage banks as well as insurance companies to form venture capital companies to participate in projects requiring high risk capital. Furthermore, in order to meet the needs for all relevant parties involved or keenly interested in the equity investment fund scheme (that is, Tourism Equity Investment Scheme [TEIS]) to fulfill some identified responsibilities, there is the urgent need to facilitate the formation of the recommended existence of partnership and strategic alliances groups as it is obtainable and effective in some Asian countries. The group will consist of:

1. Financing and funding parties (for example, Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), banks, Bankers' Committee, Independent Founders).

2. Industrial and Enterprises Parties – (for example, Tourism promoters and large enterprises as mentors).

3. Organs to foster enabling environment and formation or working of partnership groups (for example, government, CBN).

Banks should not only offer loans to tourism operators, they should assist them with the syndication of loans as well as with technical advisory services. In some countries like Germany, commercial banks could assist tourism operators

to prepare feasibility report as a way of encouraging efficient project formulation and implementation.

Government should urgently tackle the problem of infrastructure development and maintenance. These include electricity, water and efficient transportation system, which have considerably positive impact on tourism operations. Also, the Nigerian Investment Promotion Commission (NIPC) must therefore step up the tempo in beckoning investors to develop infrastructure for tourism.

The need exists for the government to provide some appropriate incentives in order to encourage private institutions to provide loans and equity finance on suitable terms for tourism investors, by compensating such corporate bodies through generous tax rebates, and other incentives.

Private Sector Participation (PSP) is the engine house of the tourism industry. Private sector should be able to organise an annual tourism fair, so that the world will better know about Nigeria, since the government cannot handle it effectively. In fact, the prospects of PSP in ecotourism is very bright but this may be of no effect unless social infrastructures such as the uninterrupted supply of electricity, supply of pipe borne water, and good network of roads are provided by the government.

In the long term, the NTDC Decree No. 81 of 1992 is in dire need of re-enactment or support and most of its provisions on tourism development measures, compliance and offences are scanty and vague. What is required, in the alternative, may be the promulgation of a comprehensive hotel and tourism establishments act after wide consultations with stakeholders, which will contain detailed provisions on registration and licences, collection, payment of hotel taxes and penalties in default of payment of taxes, offences and penalties, suspension or cancellation of licenses, proof of offences and appeals.

The government should furnish the tourism industry operators – hoteliers, travel agents, tour operators and car hire services - with adequate information regarding the possibility of obtaining assistance from all the possible sources, including finance, markets for their products, services, et cetera. The Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC) must not relent in its efforts to create awareness for what tourism is and the benefits that flow from it. The investors (both local and foreign) in Nigeria's tourism industry should be enlightened to know that the tourism sector enjoys preferred sector status which translates to tax holidays, longer years of moratorium, import duty exemption on tourism related equipment and other incentives. Furthermore, the investors

should be informed that state governments issue certificates of occupancy to land for tourism development purposes and some have specific areas as tourism development zones.

Promoting and marketing tourism should be the operative concept of a travel trade fair. This will serve the travel and tourism market in Nigerian and other West African countries.

Finally, since tourism is an industry where knowledge and experience are shared, stakeholders and nations in the process of harmonisation like the ECOWAS members should collaborate in tourism research, planning, development, and marketing between nations so as to foster regional peace and harmony. This regional collaboration in the area of transportation, information technology, marketing, visas, and standards of living should be emphasised. It is important that tourism should be compatible with sustainable regional development and consider issues that involve the information society. An example is the forthcoming 'Conference on Community – based Tourism and Poverty Reduction in West Africa 29 September, 1st October, 2005. Furthermore, Nigeria should exploit the full opportunities afforded by its being a member of ECOWAS to promote its tourism destinations as a regional package since tourism is no longer operated on country – by – country basis, but rather on regional platform.

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Tourism Dysfunctions and Ways to Prevent it: A Case Study in Dubai

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ABSTRACT

Susceptibility to tourism dysfunctions varies between different cultures and religions: depends on the level of social development, education, distribution of income from the tourism industry and many other factors. An important question would be also: who is the tourist? Is he aware of local norms? Doest he respect it? After the 11th September the incoming tourism in Dubai decreased as in other Muslim countries. In order to improve the situation, the Tourism Department shifted promotion of the tourism to the countries where people are less afraid (comparing with citizens of USA and UK) of acts of aggression from Muslims. Due to such changes American tourists became exchanged by less demanding but very rich tourists from former USSR. Therefore the tourist industry in Dubai underwent only slight and short-lasting recession. The change of nationality of incoming people leads to some intercultural confrontations. Behaviour of the citizens from the former USSR is much more free and easy comparing with behaviour of other Europeans who are more accustomed to different cultures. Very frequently the new tourists dress too scanty and often one can see a bikini in the centre of the city (because it is hot…). The government of Dubai does not react yet – it is afraid of being accused of fundamentalism and does not want to "frighten tourists". However, total ignorance can lead to aggression from native citizens or very conservative incomers from neighbouring Oman.

Keywords: Dubai, tourism functions, tourism dysfunctions.

INTRODUCTION

The role of tourism in the process of creating and recreating social and cultural spaces from the macro level of global culture to the micro level of local communities cannot be overestimated. Tourists bring their own customs and habits to the visited country. They are real proof of presence of "an alien". Many times they undermine obligatory norms – in a positive and negative meaning. They are not aware of a cultural shock they cause or they just don't bother. Influence of tourism on changes in local communities is nowadays seen not only as economical profit but also as a cultural problem. Cultural dysfunctions, especially of a religion background, pertain not only to natives but also to the visitors. Aggression can manifest itself in little behaviours (throwing stones) but also in terrorist attacks (destruction of "the immorality centre").

Susceptibility to tourism dysfunctions varies between different cultures and religions: depends on the level of social development, education, distribution of income from the tourism industry and many other factors. Religion plays here an important role (Danecki 1997-98). For example in Buddhism countries which accept differentiation in spiritual development and human imperfection (sources of which are in lack of enlightenment) the susceptibility to the tourism dysfunctions is lower comparing with Islam, Judaism or Christian countries (Jackowski 2003). Similar situation is in Hinduism India which is used to the castes system strengthening material inequality where the susceptibility to the tourism dysfunctions (shock caused by the wealth of tourists) is lower than in e.g. black Africa.

An important question would be also: who is the tourist? Is he aware of local norms? Doest he respect it? Behaviour of tourists as well as behaviour of the local population is influenced by several factors such as: age, educational background, lifestyle, wealth, etc. The native country is obviously of great importance. For example tourists from colonial countries (Great Britain, France) are much more familiar with cultural diversity and aware of different standards. Citizens of the former Soviet Union and Germany are those who trigger cultural dysfunctions most frequently. The previous ones usually are not aware of breaking rules (70 years of communism undermined the position of religion, therefore a respectful attitude towards religion is difficult for citizens of the former USSR) while the behaviour of the latter ones demands a longer explanation, far exceeding aims of this study. The cultural dysfunctions' ringleader is usually the, so called, (German) mass-tourist. In case of qualified and exclusive tourism, we deal with a totally different behaviour.

It is obvious that certain types of tourism (mass-tourism, relaxation) trigger cultural dysfunctions more often comparing with other types (exclusive tourism, back-packing, etc.). This is obviously due to a different cultural level of travellers. From another hand tourist are subjects of judgement which is based not only on cultural reality of the visited country but also on stereotypes created by mass-media. This especially pertains to poor countries where images of Europe and USA are based on TV serials, "Dynasty"-style soap operas which shows wealthy, idyllic and not existing world. Expectations from the wealthy tourists are too high and causes a lot of bitterness (e.g. the visitor has money but doesn't want to share).

METHODOLOGY

The research on the influence of religion upon the development of tourism demands use of an interdisciplinary methodology. This consists of a variety of methods from: study of religions, social geography, sociology, cultural anthropology and other disciplines which deal with tourism. In the author's opinion only such an amalgamate of methods can produce outcomes closest to the truth.

During the research in Dubai several methods were used, among which were methods and research tools from the American School of Cultural Anthropology, widely used for research on cultural identity in Asia and Africa. While sociological tools (questionnaires, statistical analysis) provide quantitative data, the Chicago School Tools are used in qualitative analysis. They bring best results in the research on taboo issues and behaviours which the researched group of people is not necessarily aware of. In the author's opinion one of the taboo issues is religion which is treated by Muslims very emotionally (many behaviours rooted in the religion cannot be easily and logically explained by the believers basing only on the knowledge of the doctrine). The mentioned methods are widely used, in a modified form, by the Silesian School of Sociology in research on trade groups, ethnical minorities and local societies especially in the Upper Silesia (Sztumski 1984).

The information used in this work comes from field studies performed in UAE in May 2003. Following methods were used: direct participating observation, indirect participating observation, open questionnaire interviews, open and anonymous individual interviews, etc. The interviews were done with natives of Dubai and with managers of hotels. The World Tourism Organisation, the World Travel and Tourism Council and the Dubai Tourism and Commerce Marketing provided necessary statistics for further analysis.

Development of Tourism in Dubai

The history of economic growth in Dubai is a history of a single generation. Only 40 year ago the desert spanned places where nowadays there are most luxurious hotels. The local population earned living fishing and collecting pearls. There were no asphalt streets, nor solid multi-storey beautiful houses in the country. The historical museum presents photographs taken in 60' and showing barefooted men, women in masks and herds of sheep on threshing-floors. The Emirates constituted independent countries which often competed with each other at that time (PWN Encyclopaedia 1999).

Everything changed in 1966 when crude oil was discovered in Abu Dhabi. It was associated with a flow of huge investments providing fast rise of income for the state and its citizens. Smaller deposits of oil were also discovered in other emirates. In Dubai the natural resources were not very abundant but the country benefited from the trade of oil (enlarging the port and relevant services) and provided goods for rich citizens of other emirates. Due to well-managed economic activity Dubai became the second richest Arab emirate (after Abu Dhabi).

The decision of creation of the United Arab Emirates in 1971 was also crucial. Sheikhs of seven Emirates: Abu Dhabi, Ajman, Fujairah, Ras Al. Chajma, Sharja, Umm al.-Kajwajnz and Dubai decided to have common foreign politics while maintaining sizeable inner autonomies. Only Qatar and Bahrain did not join the Union. The sheikh of Dubai is, according to law, the second important person in the Union, while the most important is the sheikh of Abu Dhabi (Dluzewska 2005).

Each emirate on its own decides about regulations pertaining to alcohol, dress, marriages, etc. It is therefore not a secret that the issues are regulated differently. The economic situation in each emirate is also different. The wealthiest are those with crude oil deposits. Administrative territories of each emirate are not coherent and are not delimited by clearly designed borders – the situation is actually opposite. Some emirates, eg. Sharjah, Ajman, Fujairah and Dubai are composed of enclaves throughout whole UAE. Neighbouring Oman has part of its territory in the middle of the United Arab Emirates. Such administrative division becomes understandable when we get to know local traditions: all land properties (at the sea-side and in mountains) of a sheikh were incorporated into his emirate. For example Dubai has a vast mountainous area around the Hatta oasis (at Oman boarder) and the sand desert (at Abu Dhabi). The area of Dubai is 3 900 km² (The surface of the United Arab Emirates is 83 600 km²) and the country's population is 674 000. Dubai is a very safe country with one of the world lowest crime rates.

The tourism investment boom began in years 1994-1996 and it reached as much as 35% of all investments in the United Arab Emirates. Nowadays it amounts for 28% and this index is the highest in all Middle East countries (World Travel and Tourism Council). It should be kept in mind that this is average for all emirates in the UAE. Since the majority of the tourism investments is concentrated in Dubai, this index is much higher for that country.

Flow of foreign capital is usually associated with a risk of a huge outflow of capital from the country. In order to stop money from flowing out of the country, the government legally guaranteed citizens the right of at least 51% ownership. It means that shares in all hotels, automobile salons, shops, restaurants and other services must be owned in at least 51% by the citizens of the UAE therefore providing income for the local population (Dubai Government web sides). However there are three exceptional zones (including the Festival City and the Palm) where foreigners can hold 100% of the shares.

Nowadays Dubai has the richest tourism infrastructure among all Middle East countries. Here are the most luxurious chain hotels, conference and shopping centres, etc. The international airport operates very efficiently, being also a very important transit place for Far East travel.

World Tourism Organisation (WTO), World Travel and Tourism Council and DTCM (Department of Tourism and Commerce Marketing; Government of Dubai) do not publish statistics pertaining to each single emirate. All the data pertain to the United Arab Emirates as a whole and therefore the statistics are too low for the purpose of tourism analysis only for Dubai.

United Arab Emirate's Travel & Tourism Economy (direct and indirect impact) in 2005 is expected to account for 12.5% of GDP and 183,576jobs (12.4% of total employment). In practice tourism industry shown on average for all Emirates is mostly generated by Dubai – surface of 3885 km2 , 1,04 million inhabitants. Dubai is one of the biggest tourist powers of the world. The tourism development forecast for coming years are very promising. In years 2003-2004 benefits from the incoming tourism in UAE increased by 6.3%.

The original population of Emirates makes only 20 % of whole population. Foreigners with the temporal employment contracts make the rest. The tourist sector (except for the management of highest degree) is based mostly on foreigners labor. Travel and Tourism in United Arab Emirates in 2005 is expected to generate USD20,743.2million of economic activity (Total Demand) (WTTC).

Predisposition of Dubai for Particular Types of Tourism

Geographical conditions and physical relief of Dubai make it a very good destination for a variety of tourism types. Sandy beaches and warm sea allow for typical relaxation. Rocky mountains in the area of Hatta and sandy desert are ideal for alternative and qualified tourism (Geografia państw świata 1999). A relatively small size of the country and therefore proximity to a variety of

"attractions" makes organisation of tourism quite easy. During one day it is possible to enjoy sunbathing and then participate in a safari on desert dunes. A warm climate enables tourism year round. The duty free zone is a huge advantage.

Tourist attractions are nevertheless mainly created by special investments, which not only serve tourists but become tourist attractions on their own. A good example is the 7-stars hotel (the only one in the world) – Burj Al Arab which belongs to the local chain The Jumeirah. The hotel is a member of a prestigious group The Leading Hotels of the World, which decided to grant it 7 starts (normally highest rank is 5*). Such exceptionally high notes for the Burj Al Arab are thanks to a helicopter landing pad, interior details made of real gold, an underwater restaurant, extra new technologies, a jacuzzi in every room and natural size cosmetics of Hermes. In the Burj Al Arab there are no normal rooms – only apartments. Many tourists from around the world arrive here just to see the hotel. Zone around the hotel is prohibited from public. In order to see the Burj Al Arab one has to be its guest or buy a special tour (including a dinner in the hotel) for an equivalent of 110 USD per person. There is no shortage of visitors.

Among overnight guests in the Burj Al Arab there are Germans, Russians, Americans and citizens of Arab countries. In a case of Europeans and Americans the stay is usually organised by travel agencies as a part of a package. Majority of such the guest seeks relaxation, businessmen constitute about 20% .

Several hotels of famous chains were recently built in Dubai, such as: Hilton – 2 buildings, Shangri La, Dusit, Fairmont, many buildings of The Leading Small Hotels of The World and other hotels in a category from 2* to 5*. The most expensive hotels (5*) prevail (Dluzewska 2004). Construction of The Four Season is on its way. Mariott, Intercontinental, Sheraton, Hyatt, Jumeirah Beach, Twin Tower, etc. were present in Dubai before opening of the Burj Al Arab. All the hotels have rich conference facilities, fitness complex and are equipped with all possible modern facilities and amenities: fast internet access, plasma screens, CD projections, etc. Many hotels have helicopter landing pads – mainly for the future when traffic jams make getting to the hotels difficult (Dluzewska 2004).

Despite creation of new buildings, the hotels are occupied in 99% in certain seasons. Such situation is especially during the most important fairs and exhibitions . Such data shows enormous increase in tourist arrivals. In

comparison hotels occupancy rate in years 2000 – 2001 did not exceed 70% on average (see Table 1 and 2).

Table 1. Hotels' occupancy rate

	2000	*2001*	*Change in %*
Number of hotels	265	264	-0.38
Number of rooms	20,315	21,428	5.48
Number of beds	33,365	25,483	6.35
Average occupancy of rooms (in %)	61.21	60.90	-0.51
Average occupancy of beds (in %)	57.87	57.19	-1.18
Number of guests	2,835,638	3,064,701	8.08
Number of overnight stays	7,117,452	7,185,837	0.96

Source: DTCM

Table 2. Incoming tourism in Dubai (tourists staying in hotels).

	2000	*2001*	*Change in %*
Other Emirates (UAE)	96,244	93,709	-2.63
Other countries AGCC	168,493	176,334	4.65
Other Arab countries	71,056	68,791	-3.19
Asia	123,502	113,576	-8.04
Australia and Pacific	2,760	3,372	22.17
Africa (except Arab countries)	13,581	19,136	40.90
Europe	94,606	71,970	-23.93
South and North America	14,329	15,036	4.93
Total	584,571	561,924	-3.87

Source: DTCM

Types of Tourists

Businessmen and participants of a variety of conferences constitute a substantial percentage of all tourists arriving to Dubai. The share of business travel in 2004 increased by 10.1% comparing with a year 2003 while the share of the relaxation tourism increased only by 3.9% (WTTC). Recently, aside conference travels, organisation of incentive travels quickly develops. Talking about "logistics", Dubai is ideally suited to such type of events. In is possible to enjoy almost everything in a very short time: diving in a coral reef, jeep riding across desert dunes, swimming in natural pools of the Hatta mountains, enjoying highest luxury or crazy shopping in the duty free zone. In case of the business travels, excellent hotel and conference base equipped with any possible modern

technology: fast telecommunication, projectors, plasma screens, etc., plays a very important role.

Dubai is visited by guests from all over the world. People from Arab countries and from India dominate. Germans and Russians prevail among Europeans. Arrivals from the former USSR recently quickly increase. In a sense they replaced arrivals from the USA which drastically decreased after September 11 (see table 2). Statistical data prepared by DTCM show substantial increase in arriving tourist's material status. This is mainly due to increase in the business travel and a constant specialisation of Dubai in exclusive tourism offer.

In the near future tourists will be tempted by the super modern Festival City built with a great dash and the only in the world underwater hotel which will maintain a standard like that of the Burj Al Arab – 7 stars. One of co-investors is a company from Germany (DTCM). A lot is also being said about the so called Palm. It is an artificially created island in a shape of a palm where most luxurious and highly secured residents, each having private beach, sometimes on both sides of the house. The Palm will be also a place of luxury shops and top restaurants. Among plot owners there are people from newspapers' first pages – they are tempted not only by great luxury and security but also by lack of paparazzi.

The Tourism Success Phenomenon in Dubai

The tourism success in Dubai is surprising taking under consideration localisation of the country in a very conservative and, one would say, hostile part of the world. In a sense, Dubai remained very conservative indeed. The country is one of a very few places in the world where modernity lives aside traditionalism, where the new is mixed with the old. The local population of the Emirates uses satellite phones and newest cars but also maintains traditional norms and dresses very conservatively in public places.

The state government implemented a preferential system of wages for its citizens. In case when a citizen of the UAE decides to take a professional position normally taken by a foreigner (e.g. in a bank) he or she will earn four time better on average. The lowest unemployment benefit for citizens of the UAE exceeds equivalent of 4000 PLN (Dluzewska 2005). The state government invests in the national culture: architecture of housing estates for the local population resembles traditional houses (only sanitary facilities are different). Numerous culture centres are built. A good example is the Hatta Heritage Village – a special outdoor museum dedicated to Dubai history and culture.

Such investments are directed towards citizens of the UAE and are thought to take care of the tradition, nevertheless they are also a place of interest for foreign tourists (Middle East Tourism Market Trends 1989-1998).

Dubai is "a country of foreigners": Hindus, Pakistanis, Thais, Venezuelans, British, Germans, Russians – foreigners constitute as many as 80% of all inhabitants. Only a few of them can speak Arabic and therefore English is an "official" language. Natives of Dubai speak English very well. Foreign nationals are usually given specific jobs: Thais work in hotel receptions and as waiters, Hindus as builders, citizens of South America and Russia work in travel agencies, British in education... Of course sometimes there are departures from this national rule. Only those who have a valid work contract are given a right of residency. It is verified every two years and ends with the end of the working contract, even for those born in Dubai. After reaching retirement age, which is 65 years, foreign workers are obliged to return to the country where they came from (Dubai government web sides). Workers of upper professional categories can reside with their families. The necessity of continuous employment is a serious obstacle to a classic immigration and all problems associated with it: cultural differences, unemployment, social security, benefits, etc. Natives usually are employed by the state (administration, ministries) or by air lines and get better salaries. Workers of state institutions have two days off per week – Thursdays and Fridays, while private companies allow their workers only one day off – Friday.

The right of residency is given only to those with a valid job contract and it is verified every two years. This is the reason why there are no problems commonly associated with immigrants such as necessity of paying unemployment benefits etc. The country is seen as the economic Mecca – there are no taxes for the citizens (also for foreigners). Only economic activity is taxed (4%). The visa system is very restrictive. Only those invited by residents of the UAE and tourists (upon showing a voucher from a travel agency) get visas (DTCM).

Structure and Development of the Incoming Tourism

Incoming tourists in Dubai are not restricted by special behaviour regulations. There is no obligation to wear a proper dress in public places. As far as the legal law is considered, it is not a crime to wear a swim suit in the city centre, although it would be unthinkable by the natives. Unfortunately tourists do not always respect local tradition. Frequently one can see scanty short trousers,

décolletage (women's dress), lack of a shirt (men's dress). In city districts by the sea side, one can often notice a woman in a bikini or a man in beach briefs. Such a sight is not welcome even in Europe but in Arab countries it is totally unacceptable. It may be a good idea for the Dubai government to introduce certain regulations pertaining to a proper dress in public places in order to prevent provoking native people. However there are fears that such an action will trigger accusation of fundamentalism and discourage tourists. Indeed such fears are quite rational. In a neighbouring Sharji (the most conservative Emirate) you are forbidden to show your back, stomach and thighs. A swim suit can worn only in designated places (a beach, a swimming pool or in a hotel area). Information about moral issues' regulations in Sharji, which are published abroad, are not true and very unjust. Fouls information that tourists are obliged to cover their bodies and published in a guidebook "Polak za granicą" issued by Polish Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Warsaw 2001).

Tourists do not have to obey "moral rules" saying that a man and a woman can't sleep in the same room unless they are married or a brother and a sister. In theory such regulation are obligatory in other emirates but in practice they are not respected in hotels.

Citizens of Dubai are also not obliged to follow regulations about a proper dress or behaviour, but in practice only a married couple stays in a one hotel room.

After the 11th September, in order to improve the tourism decrease, the Tourism Department of Dubai shifted promotion of the tourism to the countries where people are less afraid of acts of aggression from Muslims (comparing with citizens of USA and UK). Due to such changes American tourists became exchanged by less demanding but very rich tourists from former USSR. Therefore the tourist industry in Dubai underwent only slight and short-lasting recession.

The change of nationality of incoming people leads to some intercultural confrontations. Behaviour of the citizens from the former USSR is much more free and easy comparing with behaviour of other Europeans or Americans who are more accustomed to different cultures. Very frequently the new tourists dress too scanty and often one can see a bikini in the centre of the city (because it is hot…). The government of Dubai does not react yet – it is afraid of being accused of fundamentalism and does not want to "frighten tourists". However, total ignorance can lead to aggression from native citizens or very conservative incomers from neighbouring Oman.

CONCLUSIONS

The majority of misbehaviours have roots in a lack of knowledge and not in bad intentions. Therefore it seems a good idea to develop a proper education regarding cultural environments of countries from where tourists come from. For people of Poland where there is a very strong position of religion, it would be probably enough to make a reference to the behaviour in a church (e.g. imagine a group of tourists wearing bikinis and entering a church – what do you feel?). Such a campaign should be different in the former USSR and different in Western Europe, etc. In any case, it is essential to have a good knowledge of Islamic norms as well as a knowledge of a cultural background of the country where tourists come from (Dluzewska 2006). Implementation of such a program in Dubai seems easy due to lack of financial problems. Therefore specific research should be financed and a proper strategy should be undertaken. On the other hand, threats that can steam from cultural dysfunctions are very serious. Of course there are many ways tourists can get information about cultural differences. Some are successfully used in other Muslim countries (e.g. Maldives, Philippines) or in Christian places of worship (Italy, Spain, Monaco).

Information provided by tour-operators, excursion pilots and a hotel reception is of great importance. Nevertheless, moderation must be displayed – exaggerated advice can discourage tourists from visiting certain places. The main task of the "information campaign" should be enlightenment about specific "delicate issues". It does not mean that a visiting woman should cover hair (or a face as it is done in Dubai) in order to follow local regulations. Actually, by doing this she can obtain quite an opposite effect. It is enough if a tourist will not drastically disregard the norms – will not wear a swim suit in a city centre, the thing that would not be done by citizens of the former USSR or Germany in their motherlands anyway...

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Official Dubai government web sides, chapter pertaining work regulations.
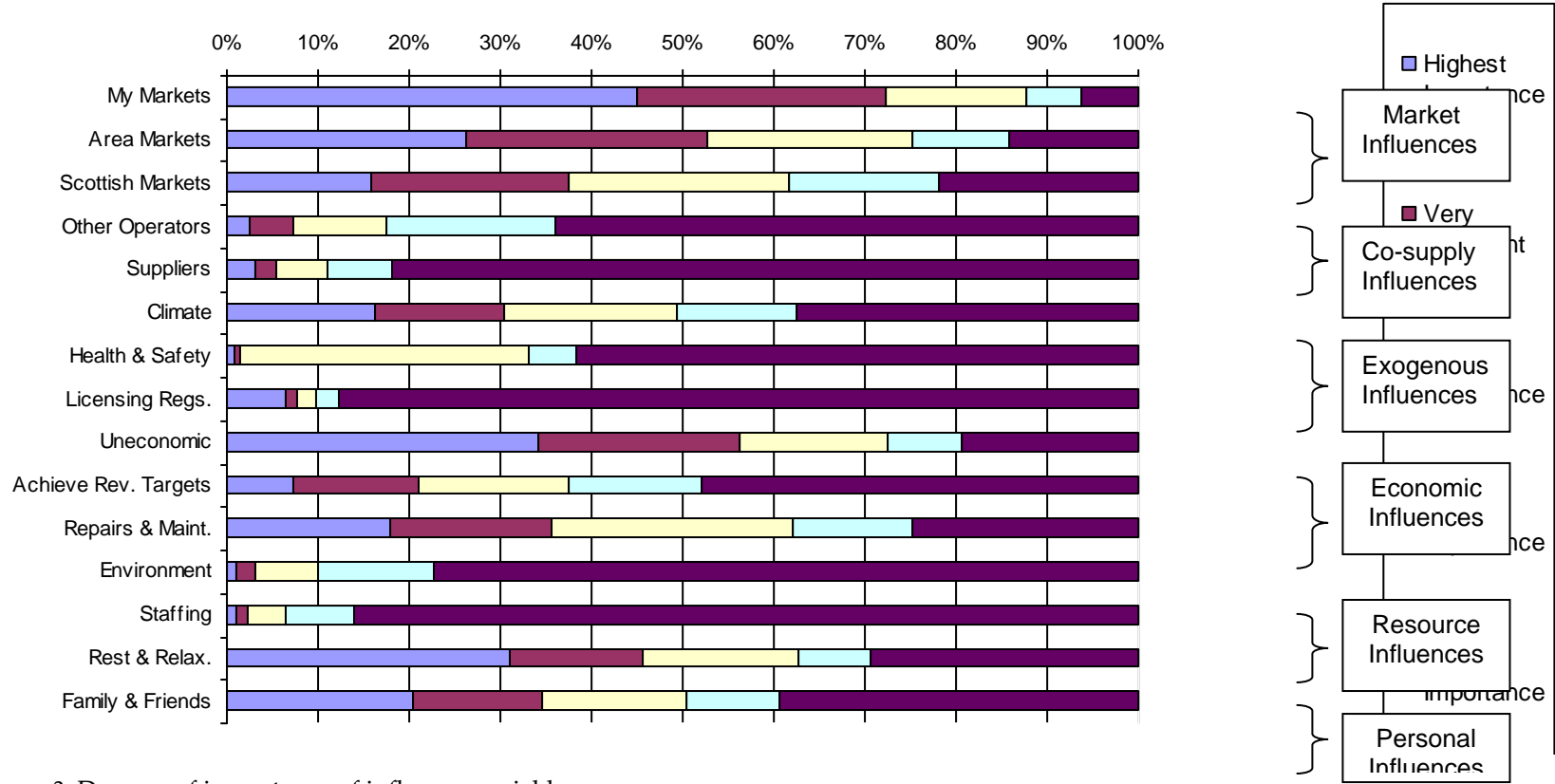
http:// www.dubaitourism.ae

http:// www.uae-pages.com

Figure 2. Degrees of importance of influence variables

Table 3. Motivational and Influence variables on seasonal trading

Variable Type				
Economic	*Exogenous*	*Intrinsic Personal*	*Market*	*Natural*
Variable Clusters				

i)   Viability
ii) Operational Costs
    • overheads
    • utilities
    • maintenance
    • upgrading
iii) Fiscal
    • community charge
    • VAT threshold
    • Business taxes
iv) Staffing
    • labour investment
    • volunteers
v) Yield Related
    • turnover
    • return on capital
    • pricing propensity
vi) Work related
    • home as workplace
    • hours of work
    • workload
    • other work commitments
	i) Institutional
	    • calendar effects
	    • the school year
	ii) Role of Public Agencies
	    • bureaucracy
	    • financial assistance
	    • licenses
	iii) Location related
	    • location
	    • site closure
	    • cost of access to destination area
	iv) Access related
	    • signage
	    • access to property
	v) Transport related
	    • transport infrastructure
	    • frequency
	    • ferry services
	vi) Local destination issues
	    • other amenities closed
	    • destination facilities
	vii) Other factors
	    • public health (epidemics)
		i) Work-Life Balance
		    • lifestyle specified
		    • free time
		    • rest/relaxation
		    • escape/get away
		ii) Social priorities
		    • friends visiting
		    • family commitments
		    • meet people
		iii) Internalised variables
		    • privacy
		    • self-occupancy
		iv) Lifecycle & Health
		    • age
		    • retirement
		    • energy
		    • mental wellbeing
		v) Migration
		vi) Altruism
		    • conservation
		    • local community benefits
		    • local economic impacts
		vii) Performance
		    • quest for standards
			i) State of the market
			    • lack of business
			    • type/nature of tourism
			    • competition
			    • tourist perceptions
			    • market trend
			ii) Product related
			    • season specific recreations
			    • golf
			    • fishing
			    • flora/fauna/wildlife resources
			iii) Business configuration
			    • multi-service operation
			iv) Student lets
			v) Marketing responses
			    • advertising
			    • web/internet
			    • market data/information
			vi) Business responses
			    • open to request
			    • service development
			    • product development
			    • market growth
				i) Climate/weather
				ii) Intrinsic natural seasonal variables
				    • daylight hours
				    • tides
				iii) Individual climatic variables
				    • frost
				    • extreme cold
				    • rainfall/wet
				    • snow
				    • sunshine
				    • wind
				iv) Climatic/weather consequences
				    • dampness
				    • flooding
				    • safety

Total Clusters : 6 Total Variables : 25 Total Data Items: 317	Total Clusters : 7 Total Variables : 26 Total Data Items : 251	Total Clusters : 7 Total Variables : 24 Total Data items : 190	Total Clusters : 6 Total Variables : 25 Total Data items : 372	Total Clusters : 4 Total Variables : 12 Total Data items : 162

112 Reasons to Trade Seasonally: A Motivation and Influence Paradigm of Scottish Seasonal Tourism Businesses

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines linkages between seasonal causation in tourism and the motivations and influences of seasonally trading tourism businesses, a largely ignored factor within the tourism seasonality arena. This holds true even in places where seasonality remains endemic, such as in large parts of Scotland. However, a number of investigative strands within the small tourism and hospitality business literature indicate potential links between seasonal trading and the business goals and demographics of their proprietors. A recent motivational and behavioural survey of seasonally trading tourism business proprietors in Scotland reveals a complex mix of factors influencing or determining the temporal pattern of trading, far wider than the dictates of consumer demand. From the findings, a motivational paradigm for seasonal trading is presented and discussed in the context that supply-side focused approaches to examining seasonality are as valid as conventional demand-side approaches to gain a real understanding of the total dynamic of a seasonal tourism economy.

Keywords: seasonality, small business, trading motivation, Scotland.

INTRODUCTION

A considerable body of knowledge pertaining to tourism's temporal patterns has built up during the past decades, both conceptually and empirically. In many ways this mirrors the growth of tourism itself. The regularity of references to seasonality within the literature is perhaps unsurprising, given the pervasiveness of the condition on a global basis. Temporal concentrations in the movement of people are one of the most distinctive features of tourism (Butler 2001) across many parts of the world. Indeed, as Hartmann (1986: 25) reminds us, tourism has been developed under 'seasonal auspices'. However, seasonality remains one of the least understood aspects of tourism (Higham and Hinch 2002), certainly in terms of its underlying causation (Butler 2001).

Previous exploratory research by this author in a rural, geographically peripheral part of Scotland has highlighted the emotiveness of seasonality as

an issue among tourism businesses and policy makers (Goulding and Hay 2001). That research study exposed the importance proprietors of small and micro-scale tourism related businesses attach to public agency involvement in what they consider to be the 'problem' of a seasonal tourism economy. This reflects the widespread implications of the phenomenon, which have also received much coverage in the literature during the past 40 years.

Of course, the debate on tourism seasonality can be considered merely academic to many primary locations that enjoy multi-market tourism and highly capitalised international investment. This is especially so in the face of powerful forces for change such as the deregulation of air traffic, the concomitant rapid expansion of low cost airline sector, the advent of on-line distribution systems extending to small, independent operators and the increasing market presence in peripheral locations of global accommodation operators. Yet in public policy terms, the reality is that seasonality is still considered to be a persistent 'problem' to be overcome in many rural, seaside and regional urban centres. This has been well evidenced in Scotland through successive national and regional tourism strategies (HIE 1991; STCG 1994, 1999; Scottish Executive 2000, 2002).

In recent years, increasing research attention has been paid to the motivations and aspirations of small tourism and hospitality businesses and their proprietors in order to increase understanding of their dynamics. In many places they constitute a significant part of the tourism capacity, visitor experience and local ambience at the destination (Middleton and Clarke 2001). However, few empirical studies have concentrated on such businesses which operate seasonally, even in destinations in which seasonality remains acute and in which seasonal trading is endemic. Despite signs of a gradual trend towards a year round tourism economy, Scotland's tourism industry continues to be characterised by pronounced temporal variation in demand and, especially in the rural areas, by the existence of seasonal trading businesses across the various accommodation and other tourism service sectors.

Accordingly, in an attempt to contribute to the knowledge gap in the seasonal trading motivations and behaviours of Scotland's tourism sector, a demographic and behavioural survey of seasonal tourism business proprietors was undertaken across the country during the last quarter of 2004. This represents fieldwork towards an investigation into the motivations and influences underlying temporal trading in Scottish tourism, as part of a doctoral research programme. This paper proceeds with a contextualisation of

that research within the tourism seasonality and small business literature. The study methodology is then outlined, followed by the presentation and discussion of preliminary findings in which a motivational paradigm of seasonal trading is presented. This draws on the emerging qualitative and quantitative data. In conclusion, the paper suggests how subsequent data analysis aims to contribute to a clearer understanding of the links between seasonal trading and the trading motivations, influences and behaviours of Scotland's small tourism operators.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Not unnaturally, much of the extensive academic literature pertaining to seasonality in tourism views the subject as a distinctly demand-led phenomenon, which is reflected in the nature of its causation. There are a number of reasons that help explain why the role of supply-side factors in the seasonality equation is misunderstood.

First, the concept of 'supply-side' is inherently indistinct in relation to seasonal causation. As an example of this, Butler's (2001) construct of influences encompasses a broad range of issues termed as 'supply attributes' including climatic conditions, physical attractions, activity opportunities and social/cultural attractions/events. In turn, these are modified by a diverse range of 'actions' that include investment in new amenities, fiscal measures, pricing, and market diversification. It would seem logical that in adopting such a framework, wider distributional and infrastructural elements such as transport and travel trade components should be included as supply-side influences on tourism seasonality. The recent and on-going trend towards the opening up of peripheral areas by low cost airlines serving regional airports in Europe, aided by European Union regional funding, is a case in point. However, Baum and Hagen (1999) supplement the range of seasonality influences with the addition of competition from other economic sectors and the alternative use of tourism resources. These are seen as constraints within the supply-side paradigm.

Individual business responses, collective business 'actions' such as destination marketing networks, as well as public agency interventions, all contribute towards the' modifying actions' that Butler refers to, as noted by Goulding and Hay 2001. Figure 1 is an adaptation of Butler's (2001) model, designed to illustrate the prevailing supply-side seasonality paradigm. In the model, business responses to seasonality and public policy measures are seen as

distinct from each another, though in both cases they might reflect either a prevailing acceptance of the seasonal 'status quo' or the need to 'do something about it'.
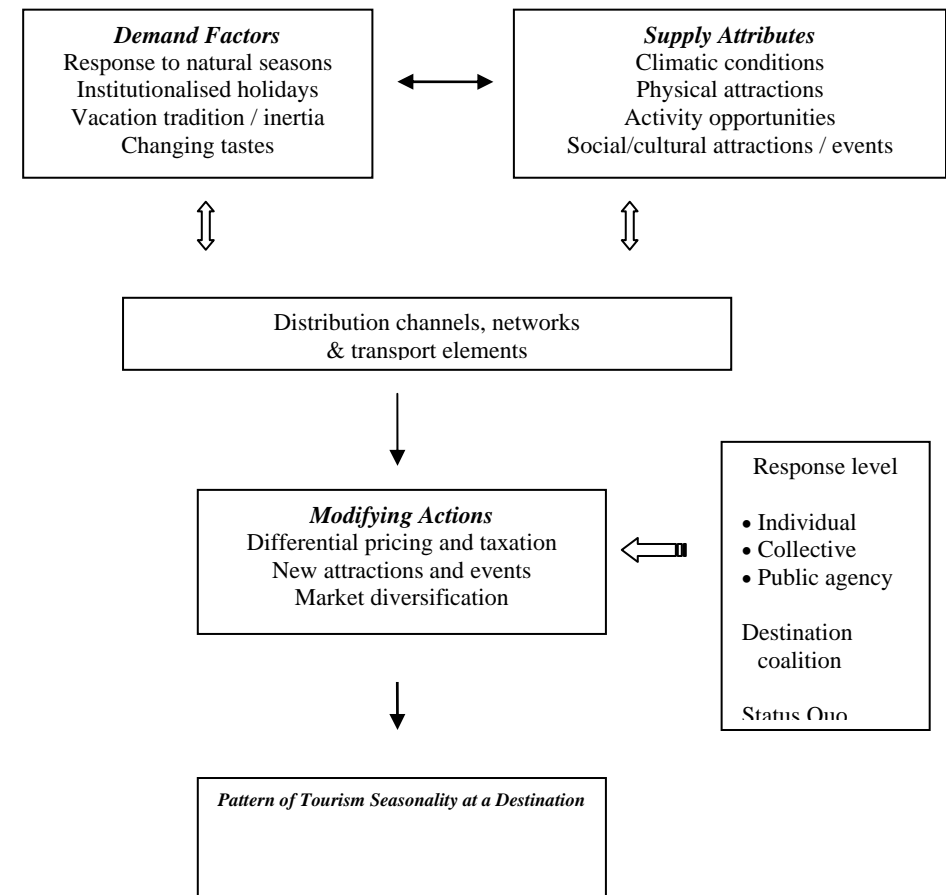

Figure 1. Influences on patterns of tourism seasonality

Source: Adapted from Butler 2001:9.

The second 'problem' relating to a supply-side causation analysis is that, in practice, seasonality derives from causal factors that shape both demand and supply patterns of tourism activity. These are frequently distinguished in the

literature as two sub-groups of phenomena, referred to as 'natural' and 'institutional'' factors (Bar On 1975; Hartmann 1986; Allcock 1995; Baum and Hagen 1999; Butler 2001). The first relate to the effects of climatic factors on the demand or supply of tourism; the latter category embraces social, religious and cultural customs, institutional holidays (e.g. school breaks), business customs, inertia/tradition, calendar effects, supply side constraints such as labour shortages, the dual use of facilities (Frechtling 2001; Baum and Hagen 1999) and in the widest context, factors that result from long established human decisions (Butler 2001).

Finally, at an individual business or 'micro' level, the range of supply-side factors influencing seasonal trading patterns is varied and under-conceptualised. It is assumed to include both exogenous supply factors such regulatory measures and intrinsic factors pertaining to the business itself, including the motivations of its proprietors. Understanding the nature of such factors is a key research aims underlying the current study.

In summary, relatively few attempts have been made to develop a holistic understanding of supply-related aspects of seasonality. Moreover the role of individual operators' trading behaviours and underlying motivations and aspirations as part of the 'seasonality supply process' (Butler and Mao 1997) in any given destination have received minimal attention within the tourism seasonality literature and empirically.

Small Tourism Businesses' Trading Motivations

Several investigative threads within the small tourism and hospitality business literature point to potential links between seasonal trading and the business motivations of proprietors. Pertinent to this study are aspects of small firm theory (i.e. business start-up and growth factors), quality of life and lifestyle proprietorship, household demographics and migrationally motivated proprietorship. Each of these is briefly reviewed in this section.

First, much of the emerging small firm theory regarding tourism and hospitality businesses points to the motivational complexity of business start-up and lifecycle goals. This has been recorded in a number of contexts around the world, such as family tourism business entrepreneurship (Getz et al. 2004), commercial home enterprise and female proprietorship (Lynch 2005, 1998) and rural tourism businesses (Komppula 2004) among others. Within a Scottish context, Morrison (2002) observes that many small-scale tourism business proprietors have multiple sets of goals, in which the notion of 'satisficing'

financial returns to support lifestyle ideals is prevalent. The balance between business growth and profit/revenue targets, on the one hand, and non-economic goals including family welfare, home-keeping or health related factors on the other, epitomises an aspirational divergence. She notes that "…securing sufficient income to….[provide]….a satisfactory level of funds to sustain enjoyment in their chosen lifestyle" (Morrison 2002: 1-2) is not uncommon in small accommodation businesses in Scotland. Indeed, business growth and profitability are often likely to be sub-optimal because of the importance attached to non-economic aspirations. While on the one hand Thomas (2000) claims that the bulk of small tourism firms do not aspire to grow, other studies have shown otherwise. Buick et al. (2000) for example, have recorded the opposite finding from their study of small, independent Scottish hotels.

In recent years, significant empirical work in the area of entrepreneurship motivation has led to the concept of the 'lifestyle business' gaining increasing recognition. By 'lifestyle business' is meant one in which the proprietor(s) of a firm either balance the economic and non-economic goals of their operation, or indeed are motivated by a set of 'lifestyle' aspirations (Williams et al. 1989; Lynch 1998; Morrison 2002; Morrison and Teixeira 2004) which can be disparate in nature. There is, however, much debate of the validity of the term in relation to entrepreneurial goals and behaviours. Indeed Ateljevic and Doorne (2000) suggest that to make sense of 'lifestyle proprietorship' requires a critical understanding of the entrepreneurs' cultural and social values and expectations. According to Morrison et al. (2001) in their study of hospitality operators, such values and expectations are self-selected by the proprietors.

Lifestyle aspirations are thus wide ranging, encompassing aspects such as the hope of personal happiness (Heelas and Morris 1992), a desire for 'autonomy, control, independence' (Kuratko and Hodgetts 1998:2), 'intrinsic satisfactions' (for example, living in a beautiful natural environment) and 'social relationships' (Lynch 1998; Williams et al. 1989). To this end, seasonal trading affords a proprietor the opportunity to share his/her home for part of the year. Such aspirations emphasise quality of life attributes such as personal relationships, personal development, benefiting from a slower pace of life, showcasing the domestic and local environment to visitors and compartmentalising work and leisure (Goulding et al. 2004). These benefits are typically pursued by balancing the business with other aspirational priorities throughout the year.

The links between household demographics and seasonal trading are still largely unexplored although some empirical studies on family business motivations have served to articulate links with seasonal trading. Getz and Carlsen's study of family tourism businesses in Western Australia notes the importance of 'lots of free time together' as a family goal among tourism proprietors, in which seasonality "…does offer families a lull during which pursuit of family and lifestyle goals can dominate" (2000:555). However, in other forms of household business structure such as sole proprietorship or pre-family 'copreneur' business couples (Getz et al. 2004:98), there is as yet little or no empirical basis for such observations regarding the use or role of down-time. Retirement proprietorship affords little more empirical insight, even though observationally, seasonal trading is seen as a better fit with the aspirations of many 'retired proprietors' than is full year trading.

In-migration adds a further dimension to the largely unexplored inter-relationships between seasonal trading and business motivations. Living in the right environment is rated very highly as a goal by respondents in Getz and Petersen's (2002) parallel Canadian and Danish studies of family tourism business proprietors. A study of tourism businesses in a Cornish coastal resort (Williams et al 1989) recorded the desire by proprietors to escape from the 'rat race' of urban and city-scale living. Moving to the county also provided an opportunity to prospective tourism entrepreneurs to move up the housing ladder through investing in larger property which has the potential to generate income from visitors. The authors found that a significant proportion of entrepreneurs (over 80%) who ran hotels were in-migrants. Many of them had originally come to Cornwall on holiday, had been seduced by the quality of the environment there and subsequently entered the Cornish tourism industry as owner/proprietors themselves. This had led to the suggestion that such tourism entrepreneurship can be seen as a form of consumption rather than production (Williams et al. 1989). It brought attention to the links between incomer business proprietors and their propensity to trade seasonally with the resulting implications on the destination's competitiveness.

Study Objectives

The broad aim of the overall research programme is to investigate tourism seasonality from a supply-side perspective, in particular the role(s) of seasonal trading as influenced by the motivations, attitudes and behaviours of independent seasonally trading tourism businesses in Scotland. The extent to which seasonal trading is intrinsically motivated or represents an imposed

condition for such operators remains a largely unexplored question within the Scottish, or indeed any other, tourism context. Getz and Nilsson's (2004) study of seasonal operators on the Danish island of Bornholm provided a similar context in terms of a cool temperate peripheral location in northern Europe. However, that study focused more on the operators' response strategies to the prevailing market conditions, rather than their trading motivations per se.

Three sets of objectives have framed the fieldwork element of the research. These are: 1) to determine the business operating patterns of the seasonal trading population in Scotland, including variations, patterns and trends in the trading behaviour of temporal tourism businesses and the longevity of seasonal trading; 2) to determine influences on seasonal trading and to ascertain the strength of economic motivations vs 'lifestyle' and other non-economic motivations in the decision to trade seasonally; and 3) to explore the demographics of seasonal trading businesses, including business formation and ownership/proprietorship details, other businesses operated and migrational entrepreneurship. The remainder of this paper presents and discusses fieldwork findings illustrating the influences and motivational range of seasonal trading among small tourism business proprietors in Scotland. These represent a descriptive analysis of closed-ended responses and a thematic content analysis of qualitative questionnaire data.

METHODOLOGY

A census of seasonal trading businesses was taken from a sample frame of Scottish Area Tourist Board (ATB) accommodation and activity ('things to see and do') publications. These consumer guides provide service listings and descriptions of all subscribing ATB member businesses. All fourteen Scottish ATB areas were selected, enabling a nationwide database to be assembled. Adopting a census rather than a sampling approach of seasonal trading businesses was deemed preferable for the purposes of validity and access. However it is acknowledged that the sampling frames used do not necessarily reflect the full extent of Scotland's seasonal trading tourism businesses, given that an unknown number of such businesses do not subscribe to tourist board membership.

Based on the findings of a previous limited scale exploratory study in one region of Scotland, a self-completion questionnaire was developed and piloted in two modes, postally and electronically. On the strength of the results from the pre-testing process, the questionnaire was distributed to 1,803 businesses

in October 2004. These included any business identified as having distinct periods of closure within a year, to enable capture of seasonal traders and, as a control variable, some who might identify as 'year round' traders despite publicising periods of closure.

The questionnaire was constructed in three parts, each seeking to elicit data broadly reflecting the three objectives outlined earlier. Data needs on operating patterns and business demographics were approached through mainly discrete close ended questions and attitude statements in order to help quantify the findings. Fifteen influence criteria on seasonal trading patterns, including a range of economic, social, market and institutional factors, were addressed in the second part of the questionnaire, using a Likert-style importance scale to test the relative value of such influences (Table 1). They were mostly issues that had emerged from the exploratory study, but also drawn from the tourism and small business literature, as having some resonance with small tourism businesses in terms of their seasonal trading patterns.

Table 1. Seasonal Trading Influence Statement Themes

Influence Statement Themes	Questions
Market Influences	a) ; b) ; c)
Co-supply influences	d) ; e)
Exogenous (natural / legislative) influences	f) ; g) ; h)
Economic influences	i) ; j) ; k)
Resource related influences	l) ; m)
Personal influences	n) ; o)

The inclusion of market influences (statements a) to c)) reflects the primacy of demand factors as explanatory to seasonality within the literature (Bar On 1975, CEC 1993, Grant et al. 1997, among others). They were included to provide a clear context against which other influencing factors may be evaluated. All others had been articulated in some form in the pilot study. A 40% usable response rate to the survey (721 respondents) predicated data analysis using SPSS V12 software. In light of the fact that data analysis is ongoing, the following findings and discussion is restricted to primary/frequency based data and findings from the qualitative elements of the study.

Four forms of qualitative or descriptive data were gleaned from the survey instrument, including open-ended questions, variant responses, data specifiers

(eg specifying a year or occupation) and annotations made by respondents on the questionnaire. Through a simple content analysis process, each item of data was manually recorded (n=1292) and codified, resulting in a narrative database comprising data from 429 businesses. In turn, these were subject to contextual and thematic analyses, which generated 112 discrete variable descriptors, categorisable into five broad variable groups: economic variables, exogenous, intrinsic personal, market and natural variables. These broadly mirrored the six statement 'themes' identified in Table 1 above, reflecting the range of influence factors. Finally, each of the five variable groups was subjected to a further thematic narrative analysis to identify variable clusters, of which 30 distinct clusters were apparent. These are discussed in the next section.

DISUCSSION

Just over half the 721 responses (52.5%, n= 379) were from the serviced accommodation sectors (bed and breakfasts, guest houses, hotels and inns) with a further 30% (n=212) representing self-catering establishments and 10% (n=72) encompassing holiday caravan and camping parks. The remaining 8% (n=58) derived mainly from non-accommodation sectors, chiefly visitor attractions (3.7%, n=27). The seeming under-representation of this category reflects the relatively low number of privately operated attractions in Scotland and the tendency of those operators, especially in the urban areas, to trade all year round. Tour operators and 'other' services such as craft retail and food service outlets comprised just under 4.5% (n=31) of total analysable responses.

10 of the 14 ATB areas furnished a response rate close to the 40% mean, reflecting a broad representation of urban/rural differences. Given that seasonality in Scottish tourism is predominantly a rural phenomenon, the sample base was weighted accordingly. Thus, 54.6% of usable responses (n=394) emanate from the Highlands, Argyll and the northern and western isles, the areas generally furthest from any large urban centres.

It must be stressed that variance and reliability tests have not yet been conducted on any of the following data and accordingly correlational findings are not included in this analysis. 75 operators, representing 10.1% of the sample, indicate they operate on a year round basis and do not identify as 'seasonal traders' despite their less than year round published entries in ATB consumer guides. This seems to reinforce the definitional vagueness which has long been a feature of seasonality measurement from a supply-side

perspective, as highlighted previously by this author (Goulding 2004). Although there may be a compelling case that from a demand generating perspective seasonality is an inherently ethnocentric construct (Hartmann 1986; Allcock 1995), initial findings in this study suggest a parallel supply-side element to seasonal ethnocentricity, certainly in terms of self-perception of trading behaviours.

On the other hand, flexibility in trading periods by self-identified seasonal operators is prevalent, with over 45% of respondents indicating they change their published operating periods either by extending opening to accommodate extra demand (37.2%, n=268) or by premature or ad hoc closure or not accepting business during normal trading periods from time to time (19.0%, n=137). Some operators claim to do both. Finally, the responses reveal a very high degree (84%, n=606) of proprietors claiming to have always traded seasonally. 'Tradition' and 'inertia' are integral components of the causal mix for seasonality of demand (Butler 2001, Baum and Hagen 1999). It is thus suggested that the prevalence of a 'tradition' of seasonal trading among Scottish small tourism business proprietors again reveals a hitherto unrecorded conceptual parallel to the demand-side phenomenon.

Using a five point Likert-style scale with scale variables ranging from 'extreme importance' to 'of no importance', attitudinal statements of the type "I trade seasonally because…." or "my trading season is determined by…." were constructed. The most potent influences emerging from the responses not unnaturally include market variables, as recorded in Figure 2.

Indeed, 72.3% of operators (n=463) identify the temporal nature of their specific markets ("the markets I serve…") as an extremely- or very important influence on their seasonal trading, while 52.6% (n=341) similarly identify that of "…the tourism market in my area". Meanwhile 56.3% (n=362) cite viability ("… uneconomic to stay open longer") as a primary influence, while contrarily 21% (n=131) of seasonal respondents claim the ability to achieve their targets within their operating season as a major influence on the decision to trade seasonally. Rest and relaxation (45.6%, n=293) and the needs of friends or family (34.4%, n=219) also rate highly as influencing factors. Interestingly, climate is rated by only 30.4% (n=196) as a primary influence on the length of the trading period.

On the other hand, concern for the environment, licensing regulations, staff availability and the operating periods of other businesses are rated much less important as major influencers, as depicted in Figure 2 above. The relative strength of each influence variable and of the six themed influence groups is shown in Table 2, which ranks the variables according to their mean score.

Table 2. Ranking of Influence Variables by Mean Scores

Ranking	Variable Code	Variable Description	Mean Score	Influence Group
1	7a	Influence of my markets	2.99	Market
2	7i	Uneconomic to stay open	2.44	Economic
3	7b	Influence of area markets	2.40	Market
4	7n	Rest & Relaxation	2.10	Personal
5	7c	Influence of Scottish market	1.93	Market
6	7k	Repairs & maintenance	1.91	Economic
7	7o	Family & friends	1.66	Personal
8	7f	Influence of climate	1.59	Exogenous
9	7j	Achieves targets in season	1.18	Economic
10	7d	Influence of other operators	0.63	Co-supply
11	7e	Influence of suppliers	0.38	Co-supply
12	7l	Concern for environment	0.37	Resource
13	7h	Influence of licensing regs.	0.36	Exogenous
14	7m	Influence of staff availability	0.24	Resource
15	7g	Influence of health & safety	0.23	Exogenous

Market and economic variable groups are seen to dominate the higher rankings and display much greater strength as influence variables than any other type. These two categories are broadly followed by personal variables (rest and relaxation, family and friends), co-supply variables (behaviours of other operators and suppliers) and finally exogenous (licensing and health and safety) and resource variables (environmental and staff) as the lowest ranking groups. However, there are some distinct variations by accommodation type. For example, licensing regulations are deemed of great importance by 56.7% of holiday/ touring park operators (n= 38/67), while rest and relaxation is ranked highly by guest house operators (72.3%, n= 47/65) and bed and breakfast operators (61.2%, n=139/227).

Four 'agree / neutral / disagree' attitudinal statements were included in the questionnaire, relating to lifestyle and economic goals. Asked whether the operating season is chosen to fit in the operator's lifestyle, 44.5% of the total

sample (n=321) agree to the statement, while almost two-thirds (62.7%, n=452) express a preference for seasonal, as opposed to year round trading. Against this, less than a quarter (23.3%, n=168) feel that maximising revenues is not a priority and a similar proportion (23.7%) display neutrality with the largest share (42.4%) disagreeing, suggesting a dichotomous relationship between economic and lifestyle related motivations. This is despite the fact that just over half the sample (51%, n=368) disagrees with the statement that they could operate the business profitably on a year round basis.

Table 3 displays the results from three rounds of content and thematic narrative analysis, as discussed in the Methodology. Each column represents one of the five variable groups and contains the emerging variable clusters within each. Selected examples of individual variables are provided for each cluster, given that the complete analysis identified 112 discrete variables.

Perhaps unsurprisingly, market related variables are the most frequently raised in the narratives (n=372) and within this category, factors pertaining to the state of the market are most prevalent as causal or influencing factors on the pattern of trading (n=143). Next frequently discussed market related factors are the types of product and service developments proprietors would consider as seasonal extension tools and the channels to support market growth. However, some traders claim to tailor their operating periods to defined recreational markets which are inherently seasonal in nature. Golf, fishing and shooting are three primary examples of this in parts of rural Scotland.

Economic factors are cited second to market factors (n=317), chief among which are operational costs, work related variables and viability. They exert strong influence on reinforcing existing seasonal trading patterns. In the Highlands and Islands, heating costs and utilities pose a proportionally greater definitional issue for trading behaviours than in urban and less peripheral regions, often allied to weather related factors.

Exogenous factors (n=251) are dominated by proprietors' perceptions of public sector agents (local and national government, tourist boards and economic development bodies) as instrumental in seasonal market failure (n=80). This is reinforced by the supply-dynamic in the local destination (eg other amenities closed) and the role of public transport in seasonal determination.

Intrinsic personal variables are articulated by 190 respondents. Foremost among these are factors related to the work-life balance, in which holidays/breaks/escape, 'lifestyle' explicitly, the need for free time and simple preference for temporal trading are expressed (n=79). Lifecycle and health and social priorities follow in order of frequency.

Finally, the findings suggest that climate and weather related variables are of generally less importance than the other four categories as factors influencing or motivating small tourism business traders. Clearly there is a direct and indirect climatic effect, given, for example, the consequences of weather patterns on public transport and on the fabric of buildings. However, only 162 narratives from 429 (roughly a third) articulated this variable type.

CONCLUSIONS

The emerging findings already point to a wide-ranging and complex motivational and influence mix on seasonal trading among small Scottish tourism related businesses. The data suggests the existence of a great diversity and breadth of variables associated with the phenomenon, a significant degree of flexibility and pragmatism in trading patterns, both in seasonal extension and closure behaviours, varying patterns of influence according to operational sector and dichotomous relationships between concerning and non-economic aspirations.

The roles of seasonal and temporal trading have so far been equated very largely within the paradigms of market failure (Frechtling 2001) and strategies to 'overcome the problem' (Allcock 1995; Baum and Hagen 1999; Butler 2001). Both are well illustrated in Getz and Nilsson's (2002) study of businesses operating on a highly seasonal Danish island (Bornholm). The authors classify business behaviours as either 'combating strategies' (active expansion of the season), 'coping' ('living with seasonality and the absence of attempts to expand) or 'capitulating' (shrinking or terminating the business). There is much evidence of all three behaviours in the Scottish study from the results obtained thus far.

Elsewhere in the literature, it is acknowledged that seasonality affords proprietors a 'downtime' which may serve one or more business purposes such as refurbishment (Grant et al. 1997) or business/marketing planning (Morrison 2002; Getz et al. 2004) or an opportunity to pursue different income/employment activities in off-season periods (Flognfeldt 2001). The social and familial roles of seasonal downtime in family run operations are

empirically noted in the Western Australia family firm study (Getz and Carlsen 2000) and by Lynch (1998) with regard to commercial home entrepreneurs. Findings from exploratory interviews for the current Scottish study generally accord with the above roles, but also identify other distinct seasonal trading roles highlighted by proprietors, namely (Goulding et al 2004: 231):

1. serving as a framework for living: eg offering stability, predictability, control
2. complementing time-related lifestyle goals
3. enhancing emotional attachment to the physical space, the home
4. practicing environmental values and concerns
5. enabling realisation of physical and mental rest and relaxation.

The apparent dichotomy between the preference to trade seasonally and practicing flexibility in opening and closure periods may simply underscore a degree of pragmatism or market opportunism by proprietors, in particular where the business is secondary to other economic activities or functions within a 'pluriactive' household economy (Ilbery and Bowler 1998: 75). Indeed, the study reveals agriculture/farming to be the most prevalent 'other occupation' for seasonal Scottish tourism operators. Likewise, the seeming disparity between the preference towards seasonal trading on the one hand and the predisposition towards maximising revenue on the other, may simply represent a response to the dynamic of market forces in which regions of Scotland are gradually opening up to longer periods of tourism activity. Both issues invite further investigation.

Sectoral differences and location specific factors provide yet further layers of complexity. In the latter case, this is illustrated in two forms: firstly, through localised market adaptation, which is especially evident in the self-catering sector in university towns (complementary seasons enabling short stay tourism markets and long stay student letting) and secondly, through numerous exogenous constraints in local trading environments. For island based operators, these include the vagaries of ferry operators' seasonal timetables. More generally in rural areas, the closure of attractions and visitor centres in a locality is perceived to depress the market and impact on viability. Among holiday/touring park operators there is a notable susceptibility to seasonal trading constraints imposed by local authorities, which differ by area. For those operators, such constraints along with other exogenous factors are

articulated as often as market and economic variables. This factor mix is illustrated in Figure 3 which plots the distribution of narrative variable responses by the five principal operating sectors.
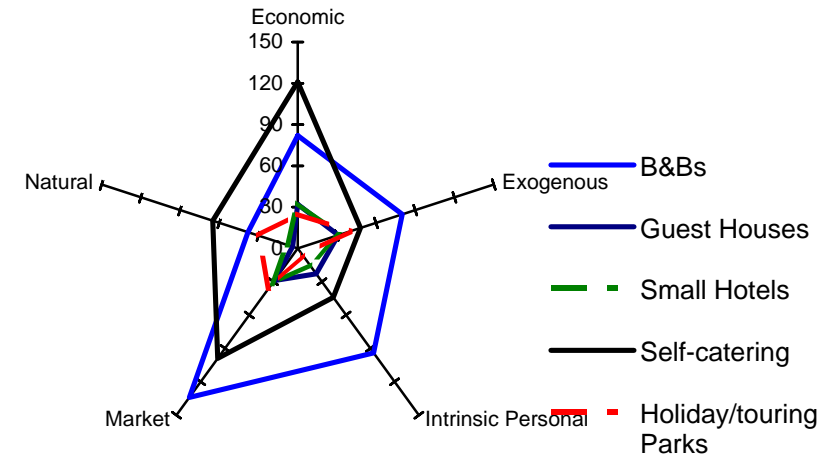

Figure 3. Sectoral variations in the Motivational-influence paradigm

Key differences are apparent between the five accommodation sectors, in terms of the relative strength of articulation of each motivational or influence type. Intrinsic personal trade-offs are frequently stated among bed and breakfast operators and guest house operators, whose propensity to close for short periods may be greater than other types of operation. Indeed, Hall and Rusher's (2004) study of New Zealand bed and breakfast establishments supports the strength of lifestyle and supporting leisure interests as major motivators for operating the business. Conversely, making lots of money is recorded as being of low importance to operators (op cit). Prevalent among self-catering respondents is the combination of economic and natural factors, in which winter climate related costs, implications for upgrading and repair and staff costs among others inhibit year round operation. Such comments are often framed within the context of low or minimal demand during off-peak periods.

Many of the issues arising from the tourism seasonality, lifestyle and small tourism business literatures resonate with temporal trading behaviours. It is clear that seasonal trading is a choice for some operators, either pre-determined, adopted en route or bought into and out of periodically, this latter observed by Hall and Rusher (2004) among bed and breakfast operators. For the majority, it is a condition that prevails beyond their control and for whom a particular combination of market, economic, natural and/or exogenous factors exert influence on the decisions guiding their operating patterns.

A distinct paradigm of motivational and influence factors is emerging among Scotland's seasonal traders, encompassing intrinsic and exogenous dimensions, a mix of market and non-market factors, economic and lifestyle related dimensions and both sector- and location specific factors. Thematic analysis and cluster-refining techniques are on-going and accordingly the nuances of motivation and influence have yet to be mapped.

The complex seasonal trading dynamic operating at the 'micro' level has clear macro-level implications, especially where seasonal extension or a year round tourism economy are central to Scottish public policy goals (Scottish Executive 2000), most particularly in rural peripheral areas of Scotland with narrow economic bases. The phenomenon of small tourism businesses choosing to operate on a seasonal basis remains a thorn in the side of destination management organisations and economic development agencies, who equate the practice as detrimental to destination competitiveness and image (Scottish Enterprise 1996; Scottish Executive 2000).

Although many of the issues are universal, the seasonality dynamic is specific to each destination. In the case of Scotland, the prevalence of extreme seasonal variations, especially in the rural areas, of a mixed tourism economy and the major role of family tourism businesses create extra dimensions to understanding an already complex dynamic. There is much scope for further investigation, particularly regarding the relationships between seasonal trading and lifestyle, household demographics, business longevity and the 'inertia' factor. This paper has set out to chart the paradigm within which such linkages and relationships may be further explored.

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Employment Agencies as Labour Suppliers and Partners: Evidence from the Supply Chain Operations in the Hotel Sector

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ABSTRACT

Using qualitative data collected from seven UK-based medium- to large-sized organisations, the paper explains how the survey organisations operating in hotel sector changed their human resource strategies, staff recruitment in particular, from the traditional permanent recruitment to temporary and contract-based employment. To cope with the new strategy, the organisations placed a heavy emphasis on establishing a firm relationship with employment agencies, who act as an intermediary between supply side and demand side. The paper particularly highlights the paramount importance of circulating labour – as opposed to material – as an ingredient in the production process of products and services which characterises the workforce in service-oriented organisations. Finally, our findings suggest that quality of the workforce provided by the employment agencies – compared to other performance objectives such as cost, speed, dependability, flexibility – is particularly central to the interests of the hotel management, thereby forming the backdrop to their decision on whether to maintain these supply operations or not.

Keywords: supply chain management, service sector (hospitality industry), employment agencies.

INTRODUCTION

"Where product demand fluctuated, the effect on the demand for labour depended on the use of techniques to smooth production (for example, the use of stocks or the movement of services over time)" (Casey, Metcalf and Millward 1997: 150). Because the demand (for both tangible products and intangible services) varies across the day, the week, the year or even years, companies have to adjust their supplies, in terms of product production and service delivery, accordingly.

Within most sectors of the economy, accurate demand prediction plays an essential part. Without reasonable predictability, most business operations, whether in services or elsewhere, would face major operational and labour scheduling problems. This need for accurate demand forecasting influences

industries, especially in sectors which have very short lead-times (in other words, the gap of time-scale between the demand and the supply of products and services is short), the hospitality industry for example. Guerrier and Lockwood (1989b: 411) note that "the nature of the demand for hotel accommodation and associated services is very difficult to predict and suffers from wide variations in volume and type".

In conjunction with the above three factors, in terms of the demand fluctuations, unstable demand forecasts, and the need to act quickly in line with various demands, a smooth streamline of production of both tangible products and intangible services is essential to organisations. Consequently, production line analysis and the associated supply chain management (SCM) for delivering "raw material" are required to make the streamlined operation run efficiently and smoothly. As the majority of supply chain literature points to the management of a flow of "raw material" within the supplying network, relatively few researchers argue a possibility of circulating labour and manpower as an ingredient in the production process of products and services.

This paper explains how service operations incorporate manufacturing strategies, SCM in particular, as possible reactions to demand fluctuation and human resource recruitment and staffing. Through 15 in-depth interviews with seven hotel housekeeping managers and their partner employment agency managers, this study explores the practices of labour supply chains applied in the hospitality industry.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the hotel industry, products provided have two dimensions, namely tangible products (e.g. hotel rooms, restaurant meals and pub drinks) and intangible services (e.g. warm greeting, rapid speed, and outlet atmosphere). In addition to its service sector characteristics (e.g. intangibility, perishability, variability, simultaneous production and consumption, and inseparability), variability in demand is a feature of the hospitality sector which exerts considerable influence on its labour market characteristics (Guerrier and Lockwood 1989b; Baum 1995). Unlike most other service businesses, hospitality can be operational 24/7/12/365 and this, in itself, impacts upon the availability of labour, scheduling and rostering, remuneration, conditions and welfare. Of course, not all hospitality businesses operate to this extreme schedule but operations such as airport hotels must be prepared to offer their full range of services on a round the clock basis.

However, the reality of hospitality work is that much of it is required at times when other people are at leisure, in other words at essentially antisocial times.

However, within this 24/7/12/365 delivery model, demand is extremely variable and, frequently, unpredictable and this is a defining characteristic of the sector. Demand variability is at its most extreme in the form of seasonal variation (Baum and Lundtorp 2000) and managing this characteristic of the sector in many parts of the world has been the focus of considerable policy debate. Its labour market impact is upon matters such as employment sustainability, skills development and the delivery of consistent quality. Demand variability also exists at a more micro level within the sector in terms of, for example, differences between mid-week and weekend occupancy in business operations and between breakfast and lunch service in many hotels. Such variation has social as well as practical consequences and, historically has been the justification of split shifts within the sector, itself an alleged cause of alcoholism among hospitality employees (Wood 1997). The sector also caters for extremes in demand in areas such as banqueting where it may be occasional or erratic and where the management response is generally to employ an "army" of casual or agency staff as and when demand dictates. Some demand may also be unpredictable as in the case of cancelled flights where an airport hotel may be required to cater for an additional 200 guests at very short notice or "chance" guests seeking accommodation or meals without prior reservation. As a consequence, hospitality employees frequently face demands on their personal time, in the interests of their customers, which take them beyond contractual or, indeed, legal norms.

With this highly fluctuating demand from its customers, it is difficult to predict and schedule a proper "production plan". Hospitality operations need to predict how many room attendants they will require on a daily basis; how much fresh food ingredients to purchase; and how many banqueting staff to schedule. In many respects, there is little difference between requirements across these categories of demand prediction. The demand pattern in the sector can fluctuate at very short notice. In the restaurant, peak hours may be during mealtimes, in terms of breakfast (7 a.m. – 10 a.m.), lunch (12 noon – 2 p.m.) and dinner (7 p.m. – 10 p.m.). In lodging businesses, the demand pattern is influenced heavily by seasonality. There may be high occupancy rates in the summer in beach resorts and high demand for ski chalets during the winter season. The demand variation influences the nature of the supply side for both commodity supplies and for labour. Demand fluctuation in the hotel sector highlights the importance and appropriateness of utilising labour flexibility in this industry. The next

section discusses the characteristics of hotel labour that contribute to achieving the goal of being flexible within organisations.

Characteristics of Labour in the Hotel Sector

Labour intensity is a widely attributed feature of the hospitality sector although changes with respect to product, service expectations and technology have altered this picture to some degree in recent years (Kelliher and Johnson 1987; Baum and Odgers 2001). With the development of various forms of support technology, the hotel operations system has been improved towards the development of more efficient and cost-saving practices. For example, central reservation systems, employing effective yield management, benefit the industry in terms of forecasting sales, and managing good customer relationship marketing and after-sales service. Moreover, the introduction of labour saving technology provides the industry with opportunities to improve the quality of much soul-destroying work so accurately described by writers from Orwell (1933) through to Gabriel (1988). All these new technologies make the hotel sector more efficient and responsive to customers' expectation. However, there are some functions which cannot be substituted by technology, such as room cleaning, table serving, door greeting and other personal services. The new technology brings out better "tools" for the operations to manage, but not for them to entirely replace, routine work. In a people-oriented or labour-intensive industry, labour still plays an important part in the production procedures. However, as Guerrier and Adib (2001) point out, the duty of the hospitality worker is to manage the "dirty" and to keep it away from the guest as far as is possible.

Furthermore, it is commonly suggested in the literature that hospitality work has several unpleasant characteristics, such as long working and unsocial hours, relatively poor pay, low social status, shift working and arbitrary supervision (Riley 1991; Lucas 1995; Wood 1997; Baum, Amoah and Spivack 1997; Kelliher and Perrett 2001; Guerrier and Adib 2001).

In addition to labour intensity, these and other characteristics of hospitality work such as a perception of low skills demands have been well documented (Gabriel 1988; Baum 1995; Wood 1997). Some of these features are culture and location-specific as in the case of the skills demands of the sector (Baum 2002) but, in combination, they create a working environment and culture within which management seeks to minimise cost and pursue productivity

enhancement strategies while, at the same time, recognising the competitive value of maintaining quality. These may not be compatible objectives.

Due to the labour intensity and low skill requirements of the hotel sector, these two labour characteristics, to a certain extent, ensure that some hotel labour can be identified as peripheral in terms of the flexible firm model (Atkinson 1984, 1985). Hence, low skill requirements increase the chance that hotel labour can be substituted by the use of external sources of labour. The next section presents the pressures on the hotel sector to achieve flexibility.

Need for Flexibility

One response of managers in hospitality to the challenge of demand variation and the characteristics of the labour market within the sector has been to seek greater flexibility in the workplace. For hospitality managers, "flexibility" seems to be a popular solution to fluctuation and demand variability. However, to what extent can flexible management strategies be effectively utilised in hospitality? This discussion within hospitality originated with the work of Guerrier and Lockwood (1989a, b). It is argued that "in order to use flexibility to cope with changes in levels of demand across various departments or 'product lines', there is an obvious need for accurate forecasts" (Guerrier and Lockwood 1989b: 411). With synchronousness, the time-scale between the hospitality service demand and supply is relatively short. Therefore, this means that the nature of flexibility pursued in the industry generally is on an ad hoc basis rather than with advance planning.

Flexibility strategies for an organisation include functional, numerical, and distancing flexibilities (Atkinson 1984, 1985). Guerrier and Lockwood (1989b: 416) argue that "hotels seem to manage demand fluctuations through the use of part-time and casual workers rather than through 'functional' flexibility strategies". Furthermore, Walsh's (1991: 113) argument that labour can be purchased almost on an "as needed" or "just-in-time" basis extends the potential of flexibility models within hospitality.

In Guerrier and Lockwood's (1989b) discussion, it is found that many hotels make extensive use of "distancing" strategies in several operational functions, such as contracting out the cleaning of hotel public areas, the chambermaiding operation, laundry and the management of leisure facilities. Wood (1999: 2) argues "the concept of outsourcing has become accepted as part of the fabric of hotel operations". He also indicates the two most popular areas for external servicing as the laundry and housekeeping departments. By doing so,

"across a hotel, the outsourcing of many functions can be more economic (because both the number and competitiveness of specialist companies servicing such needs have grown allowing purchasers to achieve cost savings); release management time for other customer-oriented activities; and displace risk" (Wood 1999: 2).

Outsourcing means employing an outside contractor to take over the in-house function under the roof of a client company. For instance, the Travelodge Hotel group frequently outsource their food and beverage functions to Little Chef restaurants.

However, Purcell and Purcell (1998) point to another flexibility strategy, in-sourcing, which can be applied to SCM in the hotel sector. In-sourcing implies use of the supply of labour from employment agencies to fill temporary vacancies. In other words, by employing agency staff in clients' premises and under their in-house supervision, agency staff work in client companies while hotels retain control of the workers who work under their roof. The only difference between agency and company staff relates to payroll. Permanent staff are on the payroll system, but agency staff are paid by the agency that contracted them for the work. In general, the need for flexibility in the hotel sector can be concluded by Reilly's (1998) argument.

"Employers are seeking a better match between labour inputs and work outputs. They can achieve this through variation in working hours or in numbers employed. They can extend it further into improved employee deployment across tasks, choice of work location, or change of employer. In these ways costs can be minimized, service enhanced, and greater efficiency achieved" (Reilly 1998: 16).

He, then, further asserts that the use of just-in-time approaches strengthens the need for flexible working options. In conclusion, the need to achieve flexibility in the hotel sector is confirmed in the literature. However, there is no general rule that guides the sector which type of flexibility strategies to adopt as their best option. The next section demonstrates hotel recruitment practices and is intended to illustrate how this sector employs its staff.

Recruitment in the Hotel Sector

"The function of management is to transform the potential level of physical and/or intellectual labour into actual value-added labour. Significantly, HRM is

about the narrowing of the gap between employees' potential and their actual performance" (Sheridan and Conway 2001: 5).

From the human resource management (HRM) literature, the main practices include human resource planning, staffing, appraising, compensating, training, and labour relations developing (Storey and Sisson 1993; McGunnigle and Jameson 2000; Kelliher and Perrett 2001). In general, all HRM practices aim at ensuring the right people (with the right working attitude) are in the right place at the right time (Carroll et al. 1999; Sisson and Storey 2000; McGunnigle and Jameson 2000).

Human Resource Planning

Storey and Sisson (1993) argue an ideal Human Resource Planning (HRP) model which suggests several steps in order to ensure an adequate supply of the "right people" for an organisation. Their HRP model indicates the close relationship between demand and supply. The model includes the forecast of future organisational demand for labour and the supply of labour (either internally or externally), comparing the two profiles, and making action plans to "reconcile" them. Before recruiting and selection staff, well-designed human resource planning is essential to implement human resource management in an organisation.

Appeared in the HRP model, recruitment of suitable people to work in an organisation can be categorised into two broad dimensions, namely internal recruitment and external recruitment. It is suggested that internal recruitment (i.e. employ from the internal labour market within the organisation) involves transferring existing staff from one position to another. In contrast, external recruitment involves recruiting a labour force from the external labour market. As a consequence, this external approach indicates an injection of new blood into an organisation, whereas in internal recruitment, the company maintains the same workforce (Riley 1991; Storey and Sisson 1993; Sisson and Storey 2000).

Sisson and Storey (2000: 90) argue a recent emphasis on "external flexibility, i.e. the ability of the organisation to vary its commitments through reductions in the number of employees or changes in their status (for example from permanent to temporary) or through subcontracting". Searching for external flexibility means organisations fill their labour demand from the external labour market. In other words, firms implement external recruitment. The difference between utilising externality flexibility and adopting external recruitment depends on who the employer is. In most cases, using external flexibility means organisations

contracting out certain operations to external subcontractors or in-sourcing external staff from employment agencies to perform tasks. By contrast, conducting external recruitment in an organisation can only indicate the source of labour supply which is from the external labour market, but does not identify the staff's actual employers.

Recruitment Methods

According to McGunnigle and Jameson (2000: 406), "within the hotel-specific research into HRM and personnel practices, recruitment and selection and training and development are identified as the primary functions of the personnel or human resource manager". Researchers argue that getting recruitment and selection right first time can assist companies to overcome the problem of skills shortages and associated labour turnover rates (Sisson and Storey 2000).

Approaches adopted for internal recruitment include word-of-mouth recommendations, notice board advertisements, staff appraisals and career development reviews, which provide much information about the internal labour market. To recruit externally, various methods can be utilised, such as advertising, using employment agencies and job centres, registers, selection consultants, introductions by existing staff, people who have left the organisation, people applied on previous occasions and casual callers and respondents (Storey and Sisson 1993).

Apart from the approaches suggested while conducting both internal and external recruitments, another classification can be applied. It is argued that it is possible to define recruitment methods into two categories, in terms of formal recruitment methods – including press advertisements, use of jobcentres and other agencies and informal approaches, such as word-of-mouth, recommendations from existing staff (Carroll et al. 1999; Jameson 2000; Kelliher and Perrett 2001).

Carroll et al. (1999: 238) argue that amongst informal and formal methods, "while it (the informal method) was the most popular method for recruiting managers and manual workers, more formal methods tended to be adopted for recruiting clerical and technical employees". This assertion is confirmed by Jameson's (2000) research which points out that the informal method, especially the word-of-mouth technique, has been adopted more commonly than formal recruitment approaches in the hotel and catering industry. This is supported by the work of Kelliher and Perrett (2001: 429), who note that "candidates for

operational posts were sourced through advertising, word of mouth, internally and by recommendation". These research findings show the importance of informal means of recruiting.

In conclusion, recruitment in the hotel sector initiates from carefully designed human resource planning, in terms of the number of staff required, forecasts of labour supply, the source of staff, and, finally, the actual recruitment plan. Several recruitment methods are identified with the tendency to use external recruitment and informal recruitment methods in the sector. Much of the literature suggests the important role that word-of-mouth techniques play amongst informal recruitment methods.

By incorporating the need for flexibility and the tendency to use external labour in the hotel sector, the next section postulates a hotel labour supply chain which bridges two main theories, namely labour flexibility and supply chain management.

The Hotel Labour Supply Chain

Riley and Lockwood (1997) argue that there is a need for constant manipulation of labour supply to match labour demand, i.e. a continual rebalancing of labour supply in the production line, is evident in the fast food operations such as Burger King. However, can this concept be applied in the hotel sector which has relatively more complicated components in their products and services?

It is common for hotels to contract out or search for distancing or external flexibility in certain departments, such as housekeeping, laundry and banqueting and catering departments (Guerrier and Lockwood 1989b; Purcell and Purcell 1998; Wood 1999). Within the literature on recruitment and selection, the concept of a theoretical labour supply chain in the hotel sector has not yet been developed, although the practice of using external labour suppliers, i.e. employment agencies, to provide manpower within the hotel sector has been utilised for decades. In this paper, employment agencies act as an intermediate between job seekers and client organisations.

Several reasons are suggested in the literature for using agency workers. These include the need to complete special projects or a one-off tasks; to acquire special skills from agency professionals; to meet fluctuation in demand; to fill in temporary absences, such as sick leave or maternity leave; to test via "trial and error" prospective new staff; and to reduce labour costs (Hotopp 2000; Purcell and Cam 2002; Forde 1998; Ward et al. 2001; Jones 2002; Allan 2000; Timo 2001).

Pressures resulting from seasonality and demand fluctuation are more severe when there is a concern about inventory perishability and the lead-time between demand and supply is relatively short. Moreover, when the lead-time is short, companies have to respond rapidly to prevent customer dissatisfaction. In this case, temporary staff from external sources simply acted as a "spare tyre" or work on an ad hoc basis for client companies to keep their daily functions running smoothly.

Rawstron (1999) argues that, in many cities within the UK and particularly in London, there is a continual shortage of housekeeping attendants and hotels utilise agency workers to fill gaps. Flexibility and cost effectiveness are another advantages of agency staff arrangements. Rawstron (1999) also confirms this benefit to hotel operations. However, he indicates several drawbacks to using agencies, in terms of additional costs, low levels of training, low levels of motivation, lack of loyalty to the hotel, and loss of productivity.

Some hotels use agencies as a back-up or "buffer stock" (Amadeo and Horton 1997) as and when needed. "From a commercial perspective the labour supply bureau (i.e. employment agency) contributes to the management of the employment relationships by servicing client organisations, providing appropriate skills at the point when they are needed" (Druker and Stanworth 2001: 78). Timo (2001: 300) argues that the practice of using agency staff has origins in "the need to create a ready pool of useful labour which is both reliable and able to be called upon on a 'just-in time' reflecting changes in hotel workload". He also suggests the utilisation of this ready pool is an on-going assignment with no specific work duration indicated, especially in departments such as kitchens, restaurants and housekeeping. Already, there are some hotels that are increasingly dependent on the services and labour provided by employment agencies. Agency workers make up a considerable portion of total staff employed in the organisation. At the extreme, some hotels, especially newly built premises, were designed to use employment agencies as their partner or outsourcing contractor from the beginning of their operations (Lai and Baum 2005).

According to Cante et al. (2004: 232), "conceptualising a supply chain for a service company can be more difficult than for a product industry, with the product industry's flow of raw material through finished goods". Unlike its counterpart manufacturing industry, the service industry provides two sets of "merchandises", namely tangible products and intangible services. Each of these goods shares short lead-time between "ordering" and "manufacturing" in

nature. As a consequence, a proposed labour supply chain model has to be flexible enough to react to any expected and unexpected circumstances. Apart from the difficulty argued by Cante et al. (2004) in forming a supply chain between employment agencies and client companies, they confirm the assertion of considering the employment agency industry as a service supply chain from the "raw material" of job-seeking candidates to the "end clients" of companies in search of a labour force.

However, Guerrier and Lockwood (1989b) caution against a possible drawback of using the external staff from employment agencies, as they may have less commitment to the client organisation and therefore lower output and standards of service performed. They then suggest a need to bring external staff into closer contact with the client company in order to make best use of the workforce. This gives attention to building up the labour supply chain in the hotel sector.

Cox et al. (2004: 358) argue that, within the supply chain, "buyers are normally satisfied if they receive the basic functionality expected at the cost negotiated. Conversely, if buyers do not receive basic functionality and/or costs increase unexpectedly then buyers are dissatisfied". Cox (2004: 350) also suggests that "if it is possible for the buyer and suppliers in a supply chain network to develop proactive long-term collaborative relationships, and if these relationships can be directed towards constant innovation on functionality and cost, then this must be the most advantageous proposition for a buyer at the end of the chain". These quotes show three elements in an effective supply chain, in terms of functionality expectation, negotiated cost, and proactive long-term collaborative relationships. A question, therefore, raised, whether these circumstances apply in the proposed theoretical labour supply chain in the hotel sector?

In this paper, a central concept, the model of demand and supply, which can be linked with two different theories, namely labour flexibility and SCM, is discussed. Originating as management techniques adopted in the manufacturing industry, SCM can be seen as successful from previous studies. However, the literature with respect to studies addressing the possibility of implementing these manufacturing management systems in the service sector is limited.

Indeed, several difficulties might be faced in transposing models developed for the manufacturing sector to services through, for example, the production-line analysis (Levitt 1972). These difficulties include the unpredictable nature of customer behaviour in their demand for services, and the inappropriateness of

regarding service employees as robots (Bowen and Youngdahl 1998). However, with evidence from previous successful implementation of production-line analysis in the service industry, there is justification for SCM to be applied elsewhere and confirms that manufacturing management systems can be adapted for use in the service industry.

In SCM, it focuses on management of the material flow and aims to incorporate an extended range of suppliers. Consequently, a prolonged and close relationship between buyers and suppliers is essential in achieving the goals which underpin SCM. In analysing the demand pattern of hotel operations and the characteristics of the hotel labour force, it is evident that the hotel sector is in need of flexibility. No general rule is suggested in the literature in choosing an appropriate labour flexibility strategy. However, a tendency to use external flexibility is found in the literature.

METHODOLOGY

Due to a relatively limited literature of relevance to general employment agency practices in the recruitment and employment industry, especially in the hotel sector, this research focuses on understanding the phenomenon of agency operations in hotels. In other words, the purpose of the study is to explore the practices of agencies and client hotels, in terms of labour supply and relationship maintenance. The objective is to develop a labour supply chain model and to stimulate further research. In this empirical study, data were collected from two interviewee groups, in terms of hotels and employment agencies, which represent clients and suppliers in labour supply chain relationships. The data collection ran from October 2003 until April 2004. 15 in-depth interviews were conducted and each informant was interviewed for from one hour to two hours. Each survey hotel uses varying numbers of employment agencies. In some hotels, only one partner agency is employed; but the other hotels use up to six employment agencies. The study includes seven hotel housekeeping departments and their partner employment agencies (labour suppliers). All the survey hotels are located in the Greater London area, and rated as either 4- or 5-star. The main recourse to limit cases to one geographical area was to eliminate possible variance caused by different locations and the influence of local labour markets. Furthermore, by limiting samples to four- and five-star hotels, the researchers tried to narrow down possible impacts of different human resource requirements due to different quality level of products and services provided by each property.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

In summarising the empirical findings and the relevant literature, several issues can be identified and highlighted as follows.

It is beneficial for hotels to use agencies as their labour suppliers: The reasons why hotels use agency staff are to obtain flexibility, cost effectiveness, ease of dismissal, and a good quality of agency services and staff. Hiring agency workers can also help hotels to solve their problems in recruiting suitable staff and for housekeeping managers wishing to prevent their departments from being outsourced.

Hotels choose their partner agencies based on the quality of services supplied, not agency charge rates: Although labour costs reduction is an important motivation to hotels when deciding to employ staff through agencies, the agency charge rates are not the first criterion in selection hotels' partner agencies. In other words, the hotels do not always choose the agencies that can supply the cheapest labour. Three main selection criteria emerged from the study, in terms of previous working relationships, company policy, and trial and error methods. Previous working relationships seem to be a relatively important selection factor. Hotels prefer to use agencies that they have known for a long time or the agencies whose director or managers have worked in the hotel sector in the past. In some hotel groups, headquarters provide nominated agency lists and regulate their housekeeping managers so that they can only select partner agencies from the preferred lists. Other hotels use trial and error methods to test-try agencies before building further working relationships with them. All three criteria indicate hotels' concern regarding the quality of the agency, rather than the cost at which they can supply workers. Therefore, it is not in the interests of employment agencies to reduce their asking price for the sake of wining a contract. Instead of this pricing strategy, agencies benefit from paying more attention to the services and staff they supply to their clients.

A small team of agencies (less than 4 agencies) is preferred by hotels: Most hotels in the study use less than 4 employment agencies to meet their labour requirements. Amongst these hotels, some of them even only employ one single agency to supply housekeeping staff. If hotels use a large team of agencies, much paper work and coordination is need. On the other hand, some hotels do not feel secure if they have only one agency and, therefore, do not want to "put all their eggs in one basket". Hence, a preference for a small team of agencies was identified in this study.

Payment to agencies is based on the amount of work that has been done: Before sending staff into hotels, agency charge rates are agreed and the rates are charged on the basis of per hour worked or per room cleaned. Hotels pay for the amount of services they request. The agencies then are in charge of payroll and payment to agency workers. A common rule in the industry is "no work, no payment". Most hotels use agency workers as part of their labour flexibility strategy. Hotels do not intend to hire their agency workers as permanent members of staff, although agency staff may have already worked in the same positions for a long time.

"Word of mouth" is the most applied technique to recruit both an agency (from hotels' point of view) and agency staff (from the agencies' point of view): When hotels select their partner agencies or when agencies want to market their businesses, a "word of mouth" approach is confirmed, by both hotel and agency managers in the study, as the most effective method. This also links with the finding that hotels tend to use previous working relationships as one of the main criteria in selecting partner agencies. This informal approach is also adopted by agencies to recruit job seekers to work for them. Agency managers note that the word-of-mouth approach and internal recommendation by existing agency workers helps to promote agencies to attract job candidates for work placements.

No contracts are signed in hotel labour supply chains: No signed contracts are needed within a hotel supply chain. One cause of possible confusion is the nature of the actual contractual relationships between buyers and suppliers. No signed contracts were found in the study. There exists only trust and a "gentleman's" agreement between them. Flexibility is the main motivation behind this approach. Client hotels want to use agencies to gain labour flexibility in adjusting their manpower levels, as well as the flexibility to change their labour suppliers. On the other hand, agencies want to keep their flexibility in not being obligated to supply a fixed amount of labour to their clients on a daily basis. A number of agencies do not ask their clients to sign a binding contract because they consider client hotels do not favour this obligation. Moreover, agencies are afraid that insisting on signed contracts will decrease their chance to supply labour to that hotel. However, agencies will accept signed contract if their clients wish. Therefore, flexibility is confirmed to be an important motivation for hotels to use agencies as their labour supplier in order to adjust their manpower levels according to hotels' own demand patterns.

There are a variety of reasons for agency staff to work for agencies: Although the study did not focus on the reasons why agency staff work as agency temps from an agency staff point of view, both hotel and agency managers provided their observations with regard to this matter. Several reasons were noted in terms of involuntary reasons (e.g. difficulties in finding permanent jobs) and voluntary motivation (e.g. freedom, flexibility, being able to work overtime, and gaining various work experience). This shows that not all agency staff are forced to work as temporary workers, and a certain percentage of them choose to work for agencies out of preference.

Retaining agency staff is important to hotels, and hotels do not treat their agency staff differently from their own permanent staff: Long-term tenure of agency staff in the hotels was found in this study. This shows that hotels not only use numerical labour flexibility to react to their labour shortage problems, but also adopt agency staff as part of their human resource strategies, and consider their agencies as their labour suppliers. As a result, stable and continuing relationships between client hotels and agencies, the postulated hotel labour supply chains, are formed and enhanced. To maintain these long term relationships with agencies and agency staff, the hotels benefit from treating their agency workers as if they were the hotels' own permanent member of staff. In addition to this fair treatment, giving enough work and coping with staff's special requests are also important in retaining agency workers in the same client hotel.

The agency industry is competitive in nature: It is suggested that as a result of deregulation (Purcell and Cam 2002; Rankin 2004), there are many small and medium enterprise (SME) employment agencies in the industry (Hotopp 2000; Key Note Market Report 2003). Because of the limited constraints to entry, the agency industry is competitive. Furthermore, hotels tend to use only a small number of agencies and most of partner agencies have already supplied staff to clients for a long period of time. These combined factors increase the competition further. However, on the other hand, once working relationships have been established and are well maintained by supplying good quality staff, agency businesses are relatively secure due to client's preference to keep existing suppliers.

Hotels are generally satisfied with their partner agencies: In this study, hotels were satisfied with their partner agencies and did not wish to change their labour suppliers. The ambiguous division as to whether partner or labour supplier relationships exist in between hotels and agencies indicates two issues.

First, managers may not yet realise the benefits of the introduction supply chain management into the sector, especially in the housekeeping departments, although they have already worked with such arrangements for a long period of time. The second issue raised is agencies are not only a labour supplier, but also a partner to their client hotels, at least psychologically.

There is a trend to continue using agency staff in the future: All survey hotel managers confirm that they will keep using agency workers in the future. They will not abandon this labour flexibility strategy. This is positive news for the sustainability of the agency industry.

These issues were generated and interpreted from the empirical study in the hotel sectors, and housekeeping departments in particular. In summary, a labour supply chain can be established in the hotel sector, due to the existing long-term or permanent supply relationships between hotels and agencies. Many reasons can be identified for hotels to use agencies. Some of them are widely suggested in the literature, such as flexibility and cost effectiveness. Others are novel to the literature, avoidance of outsourcing for example. Using agency staff allows hotel managers more control over their staffing practices. It is also noted that by long-term utilisation, hotels benefit more from this practice compared with just using it as emergency cover. This notion makes it possible to integrate concepts of supply chain management with the use of agency workers. Consequently, a partnership labour supply chain will, achieving its goal – to supply the right person to the right place at the right time.

CONCLUSIONS

In this study, the research focuses on how hotels adopt labour flexibility, with special reference to external quantitative flexibility. In other words, when employing staff from external labour suppliers, employment agencies for example, how does this strategy contribute to the effectiveness and efficiency of hotel operations? In addition, can this utilisation of external labour be managed in a systematic manner incorporating manufacturing techniques, such as supply chain management? The systematic utilisation of external quantitative flexibility is a further focus in the study.

Labour flexibility is defined as the ability to adjust manpower levels in an organisation under fluctuating and uncertain circumstances (Blyton and Morris 1989; Mouriki 1994; Looise, Van Riemsdijk and de Lange 1998; Volberda 1998). Demand fluctuation means that the hotel sector, a labour-intensive industry, is in need of labour flexibility. The hotel sector has key service sector

characteristics, such as intangibility, perishability, variability, simultaneous production and consumption, and inseparability (Schroeder 1993; Baum 1995; Knowles 1998; Korczynski 2002). These service characteristics make the sector focus efforts into the process of producing services and products, in order to make sure each stage in the production line is in a perfect condition to satisfy customers. SCM, which is normally applied in manufacturing industries, provide insights to this objective.

This study contributes to greater understanding with respect to the utilisation of employment agencies. In addition to the theoretical contribution, this study also extends our knowledge of the work environment within the hospitality context. Limited studies focus on hotel housekeeping departments, the biggest unit, in terms of the number of employees, in a hotel. The findings noted an effective staffing alternative for managers in hospitality and the wider service industry. With the implementation of SCM concepts, some service characteristics, such as perishability, variability, simultaneous production and consumption, and demand fluctuation can be dealt with. Labour supply chains and supply partnerships are shown to satisfy hotels' needs for labour flexibility and cost effectiveness, even without hotel managers' awareness of the existence of such supply chains. This study highlights the benefits of labour supply chains for the service industry.

Within this empirical study, a number of insights in relation to the hotel labour supply chain are provided. It is suggested that, by conducting further studies (both qualitative and quantitative researches) on this topic, a more systematic understanding of the labour supply chain can be achieved. Research findings can also assist in identifying effective labour solutions for the hospitality industry, as well as in the wider service industry.

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Problems and Potential of Sustainable Community-based Tourism: A Case of Fireflies Park in Kampung Kuantan, Kuala Selangor, Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

There are two places in this world that hold million of fireflies, scientifically known as pteroptye tener, with their mysterious wonders and the flashes of 'luminous green lights'. They are found at Kampung (also known as village) Kuantan, Kuala Selangor, Malaysia and the other at Amazon River in Brazil. These fireflies become the major attraction for visitors to Kuala Selangor and bringing in much revenue to the locals. As a result, it is important to conduct a case study to identify the sustainable ecotourism at Kampung Kuantan Fireflies Park. This study aimed to identify problems and potentials of Fireflies Park. From the findings, it is evident that the park faced problems in environmental quality, tourists' facilities and services although some potentials of the park could be identified too. Results of the study indicated that there is room for improvement towards better sustainable ecotourism at Fireflies Park. Some recommendations and suggestions for local authority to improve the park were discussed.

Keywords: sustainable, eco tourism, community, fireflies

Mongolia's Image as a Tourist Destination: Perceptions of Foreign Tourists

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the concept of tourist destination image and, in particular, the relationship between the perceived and projected images of Mongolia. As tourism is an important source of foreign exchange and provides jobs for a large number of people, the Mongolian government is quite interested in increasing the number of tourists visiting the country. As Mongolia tries to create its destination image as a preferred travel destination, it is important for its travel industry to understand perceptions held by people within its target market and the way in which images are produced and projected by local tourism institutions. In order to do the research, two types of images were studied. The perceived images of tourists were analyzed using a survey. The projected images were obtained through an analysis of travel brochures and through interviews with tour companies at the destination. In addition, the influences of information source were analyzed in relation to the perception of Mongolia as a tourist destination. The results suggest that, in general, the tourists' image perceptions of Mongolia are positive. The results indicate that natural beauty, traditional nomadic lifestyles and friendly local people were important images of Mongolia among the respondents. The areas of most concern were its lower ratings on safety of transportation, accommodation conditions and accessible tourist attractions. Some differences were noted between the projected and the perceived images of Mongolia. The research implications are also highlighted and the thesis concludes by recommending possible marketing strategies.

Keywords: destination image, perceived and projected images, international tourists.

INTRODUCTION

Destination imagery has been studied in so many different ways. It can be complicated and difficult to understand but knowledge of tourists' images of a destination is crucial for successful marketing (Jensen and Korneliassen 2002). According to Fakeye and Crompton (1991) destinations with positive images can be expected to progress while those with less favourable images may never achieve their full tourism potential. Image is a special term that has been used differently in a large number of contexts; it is a term that has many different meanings (Jenkins 1999). The definition for tourist destination image most commonly cited in research is that by Crompton (1979: 19); it is "the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination." The image

projected by tourist destinations to potential tourists is a topic of interest to tourist destination bodies. Understanding "projected" images and the images "perceived" by tourists is important to destinations and their competitiveness (Britton 1979; Mayo and Jarvis 1981; Mathiesen and Wall 1982; Ahmed 1991; Joppe 2001; Lennon *et al*. 2000; Awaritefe 2004). The potential tourist is a consumer who faces a choice of alternative holiday destinations and their decision-making process will be influenced by a variety of factors. The factors influencing the consumer's perceived image of a destination have been comprehensively analyzed in the literature and models of consumer behaviour (Hunt 1975; Moutinho 1987; Chon 1990; Moscardo 1996). It is important to analyze relationships between the two concepts: projected and perceived images (Ashworth 1988). As Andreu (2000) stated consumer behaviour research involves the existence of external and internal factors of the individual image.

Mongolia, known as a homeland of Genghis Khan, is a developing country in the heart of Central Asia. The country has an immense potential for tourism, yet tourism is only starting to develop after the collapse of the communist regime in 1990. Unlike other Central Asian countries, Mongolia has fascinating geographical landscapes, untouched wild nature, unique nomadic cultures and traditional lifestyles and many species of flora and fauna. Mongolia offers a wonderful adventurous opportunities for horse, camel and yak riding, trekking, bird watching, hunting or mountain climbing, one can hardly find anywhere in the world (Investor's Forum 2002). According to the statistics from the Mongolian Tourism Board, 165,899 leisure tourists visited Mongolia out of a total 192,051 visitors including VFR, students and business travellers. The income from tourism is estimated at USD102.9 million in 2001, which accounts for 10.2% of GDP (Annual Statistics, MTB 2002).

Furthermore, Mongolia's geographical location makes itself a special bridge between the East and West. Mongolia was formerly famous for the "Silk Road" trail which crossed throughout the country in the thirteenth century. Mongolia is close to East Asia, a large tourism market that borders two potential markets that could be the source of an enormous number of visitors in the future: the Russian Federation and the People's Republic of China. Millions of people fly over Mongolia every year from Europe to East Asia, yet Mongolia attracts approximately 200,000 visitors per year (Investor's Forum 2002).

Prior to 1990 there arrivals were mainly from the Russian Federation and Eastern and Central Europe. Juulchin Corporation, the only state owned tourist

agency, exclusively handled leisure tourists. Under the 70-odd-year long Soviet style "Command Economy" no concept of marketing, service and hospitality existed. After the democratic revolution in 1990, many private companies have expanded their activities in the tourism industry and the numbers of tourists have increased. Many of the tourists that now visit are from North America, Western Europe and Asian countries. Mongolia, like many post communist countries in Eastern Europe and Asia, is also struggling to overcome its social and economic problems (Clottey 2003). While tourism represents one of the developing countries' best economic growth opportunities, they face numerous challenges including promoting the country to potential markets, high transportation prices and lack of infrastructure (www.world-tourism.org). According to Butler's (1980) product development model in a tourism area, Mongolian tourism is only at the exploration level and it is regarded as a Special Interest Tourism destination with a rather small and limited market base. Like any developing country where tourism development is at the exploratory stage of product development, it is necessary to create a distinct destination image for destination branding.

The specific objective of this study is to understand how Mongolia is currently perceived as a travel destination by foreign tourists and is projected as a travel destination by tourism authorities and tourism business. It is important for its travel industry to understand perceptions held by people within its target markets. The major research question is: What are the primary images of Mongolia that are perceived by international visitors and projected by tourism institutions? To answer the above question, the following research aims are raised. 1) determine the way in which Mongolia is perceived by tourists from different countries; 2) define whether these perceived image correspond with the images that are produced by tourism institutions; and 3) clarify whether these perceived images influence tourist satisfaction, intention to return and willingness to recommend Mongolia as a destination; and 4) suggest appropriate tourism promotion strategies based on the research findings.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of destination image has attracted tourism researchers' attention for over 30 years which had resulted in a rich body of literature (Schneider and Sonmez 1999). According to Pearce (1982) a city's image is made up knowledge of mental pictures and experiences possessed by people within the city. As competition between destinations increases, cities have created their own images with positive features and characteristics (Kotler 1993). Seaton and

Bennett (1996) write that "a destination image is the sum of ideas and impressions that a tourist prospect holds about a destination". It may include information about its geography, people, infrastructure, climate, cost and history as well as an evaluation of attractiveness and safety (Seaton and Bennett 1996). According to Gartner (1986), people's perceptions of various attributes within a destination will form a composite or overall image of that destination. An important issue is to outline the relationship between overall image and other components of image, together with the fact that the overall perception may be favorable or unfavourable (Ahmed 1991).

Travel consumers' destination image is defined as the perceptions that people hold about a destination in which they do not reside (Hunt 1971). Perceptions of destinations and the components that contribute to the overall combined image can vary greatly according to the amount of travel experience. This experience tends to influence the way that travellers view the world. Perceptions can be incorrect and often differ from country to country. With a comparison to the other destination image studies, there have been comparatively less attention paid to the study of perceived and projected image. Bignon (1998) and Sirakaya and Sonmez (2001), for example, surveyed individuals that were either experienced or interested in international travel in general, but had not necessarily been to the study destination before.

The destination image can be analyzed from two points of view: 1) The projected image through the promotional activities of tourist destination bodies and tour operators as well as news and information about the destination derived from multiple sources; 2) The perceived image by the tourist, generated from the information received through, for example, word of mouth, and his/her experience at the destination (Ashworth 1988; Kotler 1993). This discussion has pointed out a lack of research into the relationship between the potential tourists perceived images of a destination and the produced images with regard to the same destination (Ashworth and Goodall 1988). It is surprising that very few studies (for example, except Andreu 2000; Grosspietsch in press) could be found that aimed at directly comparing the image perceived by visitors to the destination with the image projected by tour operators.

METHODOLOGY

A variety of research designs were used in order to determine the images perceived by visitors and projected by tour companies in Mongolia. The main research method chosen to collect information from tourists was a questionnaire

survey. The second research method of the study is a qualitative approach called a key informant interview. The questionnaire was completed by international visitors to the country and examined their perceptions of Mongolia's destination image; the interviews were centred on the projected images produced by tour companies and the Mongolian Tourism Board. The questionnaire for the visitors consisted of 34 questions including 10 open-ended and 24 close-ended questions. The open-ended questions in the questionnaire were designed to let the respondents think freely to determine their perceptions of Mongolia. The question "What three words and phrases would you use to describe Mongolia as a destination?" was borrowed from Echtner and Ritchie's study on destination images and was intended to capture the more affective or holistic components of image.

As the aim of the study is to investigate the international visitors' image of Mongolia as a destination, the target population for the survey consisted of international visitors who were travelling in Mongolia. Of the 303 questionnaires distributed to the international visitors, 280 were valid to be used a response rate of 94.4%. In terms of two sets of questions about image attributes, the response rates varied due to the completion of the questions. 197 respondents answered first set of questions about image attributes whereas 150 respondents replied to the second set of questions. The questionnaire survey was conducted at the three tourist sites in Mongolia: the capital city Ulaanbaatar, Terelj National Park and Kharkhorin (the ancient capital of Mongolian Empire) between the months of July and August 2004.

Due to the nature of the research and in order to get a better understanding about projected images of Mongolia, qualitative and semi-structured key informant interviews were conducted. The researcher developed two sets of interview questions. One set of questions was for representatives of the local tour companies and the other set of questions was for the Mongolian Tourism Board. In order to get an in-depth view of projected images of Mongolia projected by local authorities, content analysis was undertaken. Content analysis is a research tool used to determine the presence of certain words, visual images or concepts within texts or sets of texts. Tourist brochures produced by Mongolian tour companies were collected randomly from the companies while the researcher was in Mongolia. In total, the researcher analyzed 5 brochures representing large and small tour companies in Mongolia as well as the guidebook *Lonely Planet - Mongolia* which is produced by a foreign publication company that promotes Mongolia.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The gender balance shown within the sample (n=280) indicated that there were more female (53.6%) than male (46.4%) visitors to Mongolia. The respondents' demographic profile is shown in Table 1. In addition, the researcher was unable to approach certain potential respondents. Basically, many package tourists were unable to respond to the survey due to the time schedule of their trips. The researcher tried to approach them but she was turned down on several occasions. These package tours were so tightly regimented that there was no time for these travellers to complete the questionnaire survey. As a result most of the respondents were independent, young travellers who belong to the age group of 20 to 29 years.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the respondents

	Characteristics	Percentage of Respondents n=280
Gender	Male	46.4%
	Female	53.6%
Marital status	Single	49.3%
	married de facto partners	42.5%
	divorced/widowed/separated	8.2%
Travel partner	Alone	20.4%
	spouse/partner	32.5%
	Children	2.5%
	spouse/ partner/ children	1.1%
	business companion	3.9%
	Friends	31.4%
	Others	8.2%
Travel decision making	*individual decision*	39.6%
	joint decision	54.6%
	other	5.7%

The origins of the 280 survey respondents' are presented in Figure 1. It shows a particular picture of the origins of respondents of the survey. It should be noted that the results were influenced by the researcher's inability to approach certain respondents. The survey was carried out in English. As a result, most of the respondents were from English speaking countries and countries where many

citizens understand English in Europe. A large number of Asian visitors especially those visitors who arrived from South Korea and Japan were not included in the questionnaire survey. These Asian tourists were part of package tours and the researcher had trouble getting access to them.
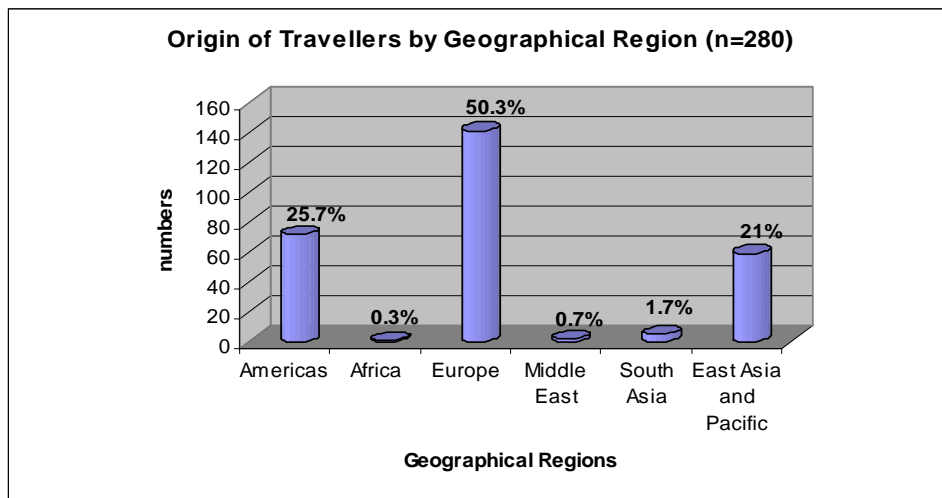

Figure 1. Origin of travellers by geographic region

The respondents' were asked about the purpose of their visit to the country and the length of their stay. The length of stay is shown in Table 2. In this question, the respondents were permitted to choose only one response. Visitors come to the country for holidays (80.7%), business (10%), to visit friends and relatives (3.2%), study (3.9%) and for other reasons such as missionary and volunteer work (2.1%).

Respondents used various kinds of information sources, which is shown in Table 3. Tourist information centres (3.5%) were ranked last, which means respondents did not use this source of information frequently. It can be explained by the non-existence of permanent tourist information centres in Ulaanbaatar. Brochures, magazines, and newspapers were used by some survey respondents (11.4%).

Table 2. Respondents' length of stay

Rank	Days	% Respondents (n=280)
1	1-7 days	28.8%
2	8-14 days	21.2%
3	15-21 days	19.6%
4	29-35 days	10.4%
5	22-28 days	9.5%
6	56 above days	6.0%
7	43-49 days	1.7%
8	36-42 days	1.4%

Table 3. Sources of Information used to plan a trip to Mongolia

Rank	Sources of Information	Frequency	Percentage
1	travel guidebook	57	20.3%
2	the Internet	47	16.7%
3	other people who travelled to MGL	38	13.5%
4	travel brochures/magazines/newspapers	32	11.4%
5	travel agents	29	10.3%
5	travel documentaries or TV programs	29	10.3%
6	people from Mongolia	23	9.6%
7	previous visits to the country	11	3.9%
8	tourist information centre	10	3.5%

Note: visitors could indicate that they used more than one source

Survey respondents were asked if they had been to Mongolia before. Previous travel experience to the country was found to be low; almost 92% of the respondents were first-time visitors. 8% was repeat visitors. Therefore, research on differences between first time and repeat visitors would be potential future research topic.

In order to get respondents' first thoughts and impressions of Mongolia without influencing them through statements featured as part of the close-ended questions, the open-ended question was asked first. Due to this, one might think that the image held was very clear and it was easy for the respondents to describe their images of Mongolia. The answers of survey respondents were clustered by similar words and phrases by the researcher. Table 4 presents a summary of the answers provided by the respondents to the open-ended questions. The respondents were asked an open-ended question aimed at examining the unique and holistic elements of the destination image. The question was "What three words or phrases would you use to describe

Mongolia?" The word most frequently chosen by the respondents to Mongolia was the adjective "beautiful" This word was used in combination of words like "country", "nature", "scenery" and "mountain" (33.2%). The next word was related to Mongolia's expansiveness such as "vast", "open", "no fence", "huge", "space room" and "large" (30.0%).

Table 4. Words and phrases that visitors used to describe Mongolia (n=263)

Rank	Three words and phrases	% of Respondents
1	"Beautiful" - country/nature/scenery/people/mountain	33.20%
2	Vast/open/no fence/ huge/space/room/spacious/large	30.00%
3	Friendly/welcoming/honest/accepting	29.20%
4	"Great" - culture, tradition, history, lifestyle	10.30%
5	Breathtaking, adorable, charming, gorgeous, incredible,amazing, surprising, grand, majestic, captivating, impressive, miracle	10.30%
6	Nature/reign of nature/impressive nature	10.30%
7	"Wild " - land/people/flower/nature/landscape	10%
8	Growing urban area, quickly changing country, developing, efficient on the move, interesting justification of modernity, civilized, need to control over development, environmentally, politically and culturally progressive, young democratic state, promising future, enriching	9.20%
9	Horses/nomads/ger/horse riding/sheep	7.10%
10	Less populated, population spread widely, sparse, low population density, uncrowded, empty, inhabited	5.70%

Some noteworthy words used by survey respondents were "vodka", "airag" (fermented mare's milk), "mutton soup" (2.5%), "bad bumpy roads" (2.1%) and "like stepping into another century", "reminds me of Lapland" and "wild west in 1880, America" (0.7%)". These words are basically related to the countryside and nomadic lifestyle. The most frequently used negative adjectives were "poor", "stupid drivers", "rundown", "lost", "broken" and "dirty Ulaanbaatar." Difficulty (2.1%) was also commonly included in the respondents' image while some respondents expected the trip to be easier.

With a comparison to the results of this open-ended question, the tour companies at the destination projected the images of Mongolia in similar ways. All five tour companies that were interviewed organise tours in the destinations such as Terelj National Park, Kharkhorin, Lake Khuvsgul and the Gobi. These are the popular destinations in demand now in Mongolia. Since the products and tours that they sell are almost identical, the images that the tour companies

portray in their promotional materials are similar. For example, Company C said "…all the tour companies in Mongolia market Mongolia in exactly the same way. If you browse through the Internet and websites different companies portray the destinations similarly, even the structures of the companies are similar to each other." The tour companies usually chose the images on their promotional materials. The images that are projected by the tour companies can be classified as follows:

1. *Images of Nature* - These images are basically related to the trips offered by a tour company at a certain destination. This includes open steppe landscape, snow capped mountains, mountain forests, images of Lake Khuvsgul and Gobi landscape.

2. *Images of Nomadic Lifestyle and People* – These images portray the people's lifestyle in the countryside such as everyday life of nomadic people, horseman with lasso, livestock breeding and their traditional accommodation, "ger" (traditional nomadic felt dwelling made by wood and felt).

3. *Images of Cultural Heritage* – These are the images that show the cultural heritages of the nation. It comprises the images of Buddhist temples and monks, Tsam religious dance, monuments, museums, man-shaped stone monuments and paintings of deer on rocks and Mongolian art.

4. *Images of Genghis Khan* - These are the images that are based on Mongolian history mainly related to the Mongolian warrior statesman Genghis Khan and his descendents.

The images that are depicted on the promotional materials of the Mongolian Tourism Board (MTB) are similar to the images on the tour companies' promotional materials. The interviewee from the MTB said they did not have any market research regarding the images that would be selected for official promotional materials. They chose a certain image after a collaborative discussion. Basically the MTB uses the images that show Mongolia's natural uniqueness and nomadic lifestyle. The MTB interviewee mentioned that Mongolia's image is its nomadic lifestyle and people.

After completing the open-ended questions, respondents were then asked to indicate their level of agreement concerning two sets of close-ended questions. The respondents evaluated the first set of questions, their level of agreement concerning 21 pre-developed statements on images of Mongolia measured using a 5-point Likert scale (Table 5). Out of 280 surveys administered to

international tourists, 197 respondents completed and ranked all of the image attributes on the 5-point Likert scale. The highest image attribute rated by respondents was "attractive natural scenery"; almost 86.3% of the respondents strongly agreed that this image described Mongolia quite well.

Table 5. Visitors who "Strongly Agreed" and "Agreed" with these Image Attributes

Rank	Image attributes	%	Number (n=197)	%	Number (n=197)
		Strongly Agree		Agree	
1	Attractive natural scenery	86.3%	170	10.2%	20
2	A rich nomadic culture	69.5%	137	23.4%	46
3	Close to nature	62.4%	123	28.4%	56
4	Opportunities for adventure	58.9%	116	32.0%	63
5	Beautiful wildlife	55.8%	110	25.9%	51
6	Friendly locals	48.2%	95	38.6%	76
7	Hospitable to tourists	32.0%	63	52.0%	103
8	Many cultural sites	23.9%	47	40.1%	79
9	Safe	21.8%	43	49.2%	97
10	Inexpensive destination	20.8%	41	36.0%	71
11	Pleasant weather	18.3%	36	47.7%	94
12	A variety of arts/crafts	17.8%	35	45.2%	89
13	Unsafe drinking water	13.7%	27	29.4%	58
14	Poor accommodation	13.7%	27	15.7%	31
15	Politically stable	12.2%	24	36.5%	72
16	Accessible tourist attraction	10.7%	21	37.1%	73
17	Clean	10.7%	21	31.5%	62
18	Unsafe transportation	8.1%	16	18.8%	37
19	Good nightlife	6.6%	13	11.7%	23
20	Too many beggars	5.6%	11	16.8%	33
21	Poor guiding	2.5%	5	16.8%	33

Similar to the responses from the open ended questions, natural scenery and natural attractions (86.3%) were most often regarded as the country's main image as a tourist destination. Mongolia's traditional way of life and nomadic culture in particular was second (69.5%). Many respondents thought Mongolia was close to nature (62.4%). Image statements with respect to service facilities and infrastructure such as accommodation, transportation and accessible tourist attractions were indicated slightly lower. Transportation was a significant matter; almost 26.9% of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed that they felt unsafe while they were travelling in vehicles in Mongolia. Some of the

statements from the open ended question supported this result; "bad bumpy roads in the countryside", "stupid drivers" and "traffic chaos."

Answers from the open ended question "how has your perception changed after arrival to Mongolia?" support the above statement. 41.2% of respondents said that their perceptions of Mongolia had changed. A number of respondents commented about change: "more modern than expected and UB [Ulaanbaatar] is more developed than I thought it would be"; "more modern than expected but still stuck to some extent in Soviet Era"; "it is far more modern and easy to get around than I was lead [sic] to believe". The next question was about respondents' expectations about their visit in Mongolia. According to Oliver (1980), consumers purchase goods and services with pre- purchase expectations about performance. In terms of respondents' expectations in Mongolia, responses were quite high. 47.1% strongly agreed that their expectations about Mongolia have been met and 25.7% strongly agreed their expectations were exceeded. Some respondents said that they did not know what to expect which also shows a lack of information about Mongolia abroad in general.

In response to a question regarding the overall rating and evaluation of their stay in Mongolia, nearly 48% of the respondents rated the country as excellent, 52% of them rated it as good and less than 1% thought their stay in Mongolia was poor. 97% of the respondents answered that they would recommend Mongolia as a destination to other visitors. Over 50% said "yes" when they asked if they would return and 43.6% indicated they would "maybe" return to Mongolia in the future. Future research would analyse further relationship between image perception and travellers' intention to return and recommendation to others.

Content Analysis of the Projected Image

Using a content analysis, the contents of 314 brochure pictures from the five brochures produced by tour companies in Mongolia plus a guidebook, *Lonely Planet - Mongolia* were analysed. The guidebook *Lonely Planet – Mongolia* individually presents 78 pictures of Mongolia. The results reveal that natural attractions, man-made attractions and people and their lifestyle dominate the visual images of the promotional materials. The visual images in the brochures (236) and in the guidebook (78) can be presented as follows:

Natural – The majority of the images in the brochures have a strong focus on natural attractions, especially steppe landscape, parks/reserves, flora and fauna

and a diverse range of topographical features. Out of 236 brochures images that were analysed, 35% of the images display nature, its wild scenery, flora and fauna and rivers.

Nomadic lifestyle – Images of nomadic lifestyles in the brochures are relatively common. As the interviewee from Company B pointed out, Mongolia's image and nomadic lifestyle are inseparable. Within all the pictures in the 5 brochures that were analysed, 28.1% of the images were related to the nomadic lifestyle, people and livestock breeding. In this category, the most commonly depicted pictures were people from the countryside.

Man-made attractions – The images of these attractions are rather broad, encompassing what Mongolians have built as well as references made to culture and history. It also included tourist amenities and infrastructure such as types of accommodation and transportation. The images of Buddhist temples, ruins, monuments, museums and art works are broadly portrayed in this category. Almost 27.3% of the 236 brochure images presented historical and cultural man-made attractions.

Cultural events – The images of cultural events especially Naadam, the nationwide festival which is held in the second week of July, and Tsagaan Sar – the Mongolian Lunar New Year in February was pictured in the brochures. 5.1% of the images were dedicated to the Naadam festival. Naadam festival is a main attraction itself as the MTB official mentioned in the interview that almost 50% of the tourists arrive in Mongolia during the festival time. This explains why the images of the Naadam festival frequently occur in the brochures.

Activities – The activities portrayed in tourist brochures are mainly related to trip activities. 3.9% of the images usually involve a journey which conveys the movement of the tourist through the destination.

Lonely Planet – Mongolia, the guidebook, is published by an Australia based publishing company. Content analysis was conducted on the 3rd edition of *Lonely Planet – Mongolia* which was published in 2001. In total, 78 colour and black and white visual images were in the *Lonely Planet*. Out of 78 visual images, 53.8% feature people and their lifestyle with a combination of nature. In the guidebook, people are mainly male, for example, horsemen in the steppe, wrestlers and hunters. People were usually portrayed in ethnic dress in rural areas including Kazakhs who live in the far western part of the country. 17.4% of the images showed primitive nature and its attractions that include physical features, flora and fauna, water and climate.

Mongolia rates highly on natural attractions, traditional nomadic culture and friendly people. The unique and holistic images which included "wilderness", "open-empty space", "horse-oriented culture" as well as general atmosphere components such as "laidback", "frontier", "rugged", "variety" and "diversity" are important when developing promotional activities via print and electronic media such as guidebooks, brochures, journals, television commercials and websites. The results indicate that respondents' at-destination images were based predominantly on organic rather than induced sources of information. Personal sources such as word-of-mouth from other travellers and guidebooks were the most frequently used and important information sources for trip planning. General knowledge presumably based on education and general exposure to guidebooks was also important. Tourism in Mongolia is still in its early stage. From the projected images perspective, the research results appear at their forming stage too. Although local tourism representatives are aware of the importance of destination imagery in marketing promotional materials, there are a number of issues to consider:

1. According to the interview results, the images that are portrayed in the promotional materials by the MTB and tour companies were similar. There are not many differences between the images that are portrayed in the promotional materials. Those companies which are new to the tourism business depict the images quite similarly to other companies. This is understandable because the destinations that are offered by tour companies are almost identical.

2. The MTB and tour companies are aware of the importance of destination imagery. However, their awareness of the importance of destination imagery does not feed into their marketing efforts. Tour companies and the MTB do not use market research to shape the way they promote Mongolia, which is very essential to promote a country as a destination. The MTB do not intend to conduct a survey either (Interview, MTB). The surveys that have been done by the tour companies were basically surveys about customer's satisfaction with service quality.

3. Within the projected images produced by tour companies, there were no image differences for different markets. Tour companies do not produce different brochures in different languages. The companies that have been in the tourism business comparatively long enough do select more adventurous images when they market Mongolia to the Western

tourists and use images of steppe landscape and open sky for Asians, particularly for Japanese and Korean visitors.

4. The way in which the MTB and tour companies obtain and use images is problematic. Generally, the MTB does not have any image archives or image files. Sometimes they do select from photographs already taken by photo studios or travellers. The tour companies which have years of experiences own photo archives. They are able to buy photos or hire a professional photographer when they launch new promotional activities. Newly founded tour companies admitted they copy or duplicate the images that used by other tour companies and organizations. This problem needs to be addressed.

5. Once the tour operators create the promotional materials, they tended to use it for two or three years. Publishing brochures every year is very costly for some tour companies. Information on the website such as trip price and schedule are changed accordingly in a year but the images stay similar.

6. Positively, all the interviewees agreed that Mongolia's destination image needs to be improved and Mongolia should create and have its own distinctive images. Tour companies expect integrated promotional activities from the government and the MTB to promote Mongolia as a competitive destination in the Asia Pacific region.

The findings enhance the promotional activities undertaken by government organizations responsible for promoting Mongolia as a destination. Since 1990, the tourism industry has started to develop in a modern context; there was a notable lack of integration in promotion strategies toward positioning Mongolia as a destination in the region. Generally, there needs to be integrated promotion activities that involve government organizations, NGOs and private sector actors that consistently aim to consolidate the images of Mongolia as a destination with a broad appeal. Additionally, Mongolia is being promoted for holidays that can satisfy a wide variety of market segments with types of specialised holidays that are specifically based on different products such as rural tourism, nature based tourism, religious tourism, cultural tourism and tourism oriented around hunting trips.

CONCLUSIONS

The tourism industry in Mongolia is still in its early stage. Most international visitors who were surveyed during their visit in the country perceive Mongolia's image positively. The literature says that those people who have visited a specific travel destination will have strong perceptions of that destination. These consumers can generate positive word-of-mouth communications, thereby influencing other consumers' perceptions of that destination. Understanding the development of consumer perceptions can possibly influence and even predict their future intentions.

The overall analysis indicated that Mongolia can develop its image as a nature based, eco-tourism destination – an image which is starting to be established. The country's infrastructure and tourism facilities are perceived as being rather poor. A well planned image promotion campaign with the necessary improvements in these areas can be helpful. As tourism in Mongolia is a comparatively new economic sector, and the government of Mongolia recognizes its contribution to economy, there are some issues in terms of the image formation process that needed to be examined. The issues are as followed:

Firstly, building the image itself is a very difficult task. This is a very slow process that needs time and money. For developing countries such as Mongolia, achieving destination marketing is a very complicated task. Creating images like "Amazing Thailand" and "Truly Asia" would require incredible amounts of money but at this stage the Mongolian government and the Mongolian Tourism Board can not afford it. There are certain ways to create the images and a successful marketing campaign; for example, there needs to be adequate cooperation with international donor organizations which will support marketing efforts. These organizations should be aware that destination marketing attracts tourists and is needed to develop tourism. Currently, there is a lack of vision to find the funding. Although the World Bank and the IMF have financed projects in Mongolia, they have yet to finance a major tourism oriented project, as they have done in Turkey (www.imf.org) and elsewhere. This type of aid would greatly enhance the tourism sector of Mongolia.

Secondly, there are some functioning issues about government organizations such as the MTB. The MTB was established in 1999 as a government implementing agency which is responsible for tourism industry related issues such as law, regulation, marketing and service. Although it is an organization that is responsible for marketing Mongolia as a destination, the majority of the

interviewees representing tour companies considered that these days it is not a strong institution to deal with destination imagery. It was founded not long ago and has been under funded and changes frequently when elections occur. The MTB official agreed that they lacked professionals as well as sufficient funding. From the researcher's point of view, the MTB is a relatively new organization that is still developing. Tourism is a new sector of the economy in Mongolia and tourism institutions and industry have started to form since 1990. Although it is a matter of time, tourism institutions such as the government, NGOs and the private sector should cooperate closely to create destination images.

Thirdly, Mongolia itself has a low profile and recognition in the Western world. For example, most of the survey respondents did not have any idea what to expect. It means that there needs more marketing promotion such as special advertisements on TV and news magazines. The other way to attract public attention is through film. The tour companies projected images of Genghis Khan a great deal but not many survey respondents thought that images of Genghis Khan accurately described Mongolia as a destination. The filming of the Lord of the Rings in New Zealand had a tremendous impact on New Zealand tourism. Mongolia would be an ideal place to film a movie about the warrior-statesman Genghis Khan. Fourth, respondents viewed Mongolia as a destination which offers attractive natural scenery, beautiful wildlife, nomadic lifestyle and opportunity for adventure. More intensive marketing efforts should be made to enhance the offering of unique events such as "Enjoy and Taste the Wild Nature" and "Mongolian Nomadic Festival" or "Mongolia - the Great Adventure". Fifth, in terms of a marketing campaign, Mongolia probably has to have professional help from some marketing agency such as some well-known destination marketing agency which has done this kind of campaign before. Sixth, projected images that appear in the brochures and websites were nearly identical. One way to study tourists' perceptions of a destination is Visitor-Employed Photography (VEP) (Mackay 2004). It has potential for capturing and analyzing people's perceptions of a destination. VEP involves distributing disposable cameras to research participants who are instructed to photograph scenes and items that appeal to them. In order to get visual records of what best captured the visitor's images of the destination, the tour companies and the government tourism organization could use the VEP method. The VEP method can provide visual images of the destination by the respondents, which then can be compared to pictures used in current promotional efforts.

As the global tourist industry expands to become an increasingly important part of international economy, countries such as Mongolia are starting to compete in the international marketplace to attract tourists. The recipe for a country's attraction (e.g. Mongolia's reliance on the natural and scenic attractions) needs to be re-evaluated taking into account changing patterns of tourism flows, such as the expansion of East Asian countries such as South Korea, Singapore and Malaysia as sources of tourists. There is a need to investigate whether the images of countries projected to the world and perceived by international tourists and potential tourist are the most appropriate for new markets. The study identified several issues as priority for future marketing strategies, particularly aspects of services regarding transportation and accommodation facilities, the range of activities offered in the country and the great value of human assets within the destination.

During the progress of the research, several limitations were indicated. Firstly, the questionnaire was developed in English which meant the researcher could only approach visitor who spoke English. A large number of Asian markets, especially those from Japan and South Korea were not included in the survey. Second, the researcher surveyed international visitor who were travelling in Mongolia-that is, at the destination. It should be noted that the result should be different if she had surveyed potential tourists to Mongolia in New Zealand. Third, questionnaire surveys usually involve substantial numbers of subjects ranging from 50-60 to many thousands. Due to the amount of time which was given to the researcher and her difficulties moving within the country as well as size of the country, the sample size reached 280. Fourth, the survey was carried out between July and August, which is the tourist season. Due to heat and sunshine, surveying tourists outside of the attraction was basically impossible. The refusal rate was high when the visitors were asked to participate the survey outside of the attractions. Fifth, questionnaire lengths itself caused some limitations and no responses.

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The Exhibition Industry and the Impact of Work Experience on Students, Universities and Organisers

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ABSTRACT

In a world where the internet is becoming a more and more important tool, it can be argued that the growth of the internet and e-commerce may have a negative effect on the traditional exhibition industry, as more and more products and services are sold on-line. However, despite of the emergence of new media and even "virtual exhibitions", there doesn't seem to be a good substitute for face-to-face exhibitions industry as each event is a unique moment in one place at one time and it is still considered to be significant. Therefore, it is essential to prepare the qualified students for the booming exhibitions industry. One of the ways of preparing the students is through effective teaching and training at the universities` departments of tourism and hospitality management.. Putting the academic knowledge in to the practice is an important but too often mislead concept in Turkey. The work experience is a valuable way of increasing the employability of the students before they graduate. In this study we are hoping to identify and understand the role and importance of work experience and to find the ways to provide both an academic and professionally recognised qualification and open the door to challenging careers in the rapidly expanding exhibitions industry.

Keywords: exhibitions, work experience, employability, collaboration, career advice.

INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this study is to give an overview of the exhibition industry and to display the importance of work experience for students, employers, universities and the industry. In this study we will explore the relationships between tourism and hospitality education and the exhibition industry. The scope and size of the events industry means that there are excellent career prospects in the sport, arts, music, trade conference and exhibition for graduates. There are also a growing number of wider opportunities in institutions, agencies and the corporate sector. We will look into the development and growth of events education covering aspects of teaching, learning, assessment and placement, however, the format of the event is. We will try to see the ways to have an action plan for the future development of events teaching and practising for both students and professionals who work in the tourism, hospitality and events industries in Turkey. This plan would provide students with the chance to experience work within the sector relevant

to their studies. By skills gained through reflective learning and making the most of the work experience, students can see where their skills lie and how they can prepare themselves for future employment. In today's competitive environment, a crucial factor for success is the availability of knowledgeable, skilled and adaptable employees. Universities play a key role in producing these employees. While all aspects of the event industry will be taught by university, students can gain the essential skills by actually doing the job in the industry so that they can further apply their skills and theoretical understanding. The collaboration in between the education and industry is essential as well as networking with other academics, researchers and industry professionals so that the contributors to the field can be increased.

We would like to highlight few facts before we announce the sections. Firstly, this study concerns higher education: the graduate and undergraduate students in the tourism and hospitality management. Secondly, there was a deliberate effort not to classify exhibitions as a separate sector of the events industry although the classification does exist (the precise classification merits its own study) we wanted to concentrate on work experience in exhibitions. This was also due to the diverse nature of the events industry. From an emerging to an established subject area, it was hard to identify and place exhibitions in the world of event management – from large scale exhibitions, conferences to small meetings. The third fact is that most of the facts and information mentioned in this study are taken from various valuable sources. These sources were mainly the institutions and associations directly related to the exhibition industry such as AEO (Association of Exhibition Organisers), UFI (The Global Association of the Exhibition Industry), ICCA (International Congress and Conference Association), ICVB (Istanbul Convention and Visitors Bureau). Another source was the professionals from the universities career advice centres and NWEC (National Work Experience Council).

This study will have two main sections: Industry and education enforced with work experience. In the first section, we will start by giving some very brief facts and figures on the tourism and hospitality industry as well as the events industry both in Turkey and worldwide. Second section will identify the understanding of work experience and its benefits. We will explore in detail the role of work experience and its benefits for students, employers, universities and the industry. We will then move on to see how work experience is perceived in the UK, Europe and Turkey. The role and importance of a career advice centre within the universities will be highlighted shortly before conclusion. In the conclusion, we will sum up the major findings of the study to

see how work experience is valued by employers and how rewarding it can be for students.

A GLANCE AT THE EXHIBITION INDUSTRY

The international tourism and hospitality industry is competitive and fast growing and we are all aware of its importance and impact on the economies. Nevertheless, we will try to remind some facts to indicate the significance of exhibitions within the travel and tourism phenomenon in contemporary society.

The tourism industry is considered to be one of the major industries in the world's economy. According to Kirk, 21st century economics will be dominated by three industries: telecommunications, information technology and the tourism industry. (for details see *http://www.intstudy.com/articles/saap5a03.htm).* Praetzel states that the world's single largest industry is the hospitality and tourism industry. It employs 10% of the worldwide labour force and is projected to grow at a rapid rate over the next several decades. (for detail see *http://www.culinaryprograms.com/tourism.htm).* The continuous change of the nature of the tourism industry both in scope and direction is worth mentioning. The diversity of the industries that the travel and tourism represents and is related to cannot be overestimated. The growth of the divers industries can open up many job opportunities for graduates, not only in traditional areas such as: hotels, restaurants, retailing, transportation, travel agencies, tour companies, tourist attractions, leisure, recreation and sport, cultural industries, but also in the exhibition industry.

Exhibitions are an influential and extremely cost-effective business instrument and a key component of communications and promotion. They play a major role in bringing national and international buyers and sellers together under one roof. They enable a potential buyer to see comparable products and services in action and speak to a sales person face-to-face, in a more informal setting than a sales presentation. Exhibitions are a vital part of the marketing mix in established economies.

The exhibition industry can be an important source of revenue for the countries. In addition to trade generated at the event itself, those who travel to shows (both domestically and internationally) spend money on travel, accommodation and leisure tourism. According to Reed Exhibitions (for details see *http://www.reedexpo.com)* - recognized as one of the leading Exhibition and Conference Organizers in the world- exhibitions in new and emerging markets are a major stimulus for industrial and commercial development: Not only do

exhibitions drive industrial development and technology transfer and boost regional and national industry but they also stimulate foreign investment in industry and infrastructure. According to Reed Exhibitions, the events industry also has a major impact on local and national economies as exhibitions generate direct spending in local hotels, restaurants, transport etc. and they create employment directly in convention centres, hotels, restaurants etc, and indirectly, by assisting the development of small and medium enterprises. Raising the city/regional profile is another important asset that exhibitions offer local economies.

The nature of the exhibition industry makes it difficult to find accurate and detailed statistic. Nevertheless more and more specific reports and statistics are being produced by associations or institutions such as AEO, UFI, ICCA, ICVB and so on. The "Euro Fair Statistics" (for details see *http://www.fkm.de/Pages/download_gb.html*) brochure, which has been published recently, covers audited exhibitor, space and visitor figures for 1415 trade fairs and exhibitions. The report presents data from 11 auditing organizations, operating in 18 countries: Austria, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Poland, Portugal, Romania, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and Ukraine. Another study entitled "Economic impact of the UK Exhibitions industry", commissioned by the Association of Exhibition Organisers (AEO) and supported by the Association of Event Venues (AEV) has been published on 17 November 2005 (for details see *http://www.aeo.org.uk/page.cfm/T=m/Action=Press/PressID=11*). This was the first ever Economic Impact Study of the UK exhibition industry. This report reveals that 137,000 jobs and £9.3 billion have been generated through UK exhibitions. This unique study outlines the significant contribution the exhibition industry makes to the national economy and shows the power of the exhibitions industry in the UK. ICCA, the global community for the event industry, which enables its members to generate and maintain a significant competitive advantage, has published their new Statistics Report: "The International Association Meetings Market 1995-2004". (for details see *http://www.iccaworld.com/npps/story.cfm?ID=901).* Over the ten year period from 1995 to 2004, ICCA has registered an increase of 60% in the total number of international association meetings in the world, which take place regularly and which rotate between at least three countries. The figures presented in the report support evidence that the relative importance of regional meetings is growing and highlights the massive growth of the event industry in the key Asian economies. The report presents a comprehensive analysis of past, present

and future trends in international events industry. Despite Europe's leading position in the fair industry at the moment, Asian region is showing a significant development in the events industry and trends confirm that Asian region has its advantages. Let us now move on to see the exhibition industry in Turkey.

A Glance at the Exhibition Industry in Turkey

According to ICCA`s above mentioned statistics Europe is the leader in the congress and event market with 59% and Asia is the second rank with 18% and North America is the third with 11%. In the European market at the moment, Barcelona is the leading city. According to reports for 1998 -2003 Istanbul is the 18th city. However this is changing as according to the estimations Istanbul is the 15th in market share by the number of international meeting per city. (For detail see *http://www.icvb.org/congress_iamd.asp).* These estimations are clear indications of Turkey`s place in the exhibition and events industry. The vast benefits that the Turkish economy can receive from the exhibition industry's cross promotion were not recognised by the authorities until recently. The lack of a proper Convention and Visitors Bureau is a clear example to show how behind Turkey was until 1997. The ICVB (Istanbul Convention and Visitors Bureau) only began to operate in 1997 and is quickly catching up with its competitors. ICVB aims to simplify fairs and conferences, fair planning and the assessment of fair and conference success, as the economic value of events gives a great insight into the global market as well as regional markets. ICVB plans to bring together the international congresses, meetings and travel groups in Istanbul, to expand Istanbul's potential in the conference industry to promote the city in the international arena.

ICVB is already organising many successful projects and is planning a number of future international projects expected to attract vast number of delegates. ICVB has already recognised the value of collaborating with the major players in the industry. Therefore, they are in co-operation with academics, universities and other industry representatives in order to attract more congresses and meetings to Istanbul. ICVB is currently working on other international projects and supports ministry level projects. According to the general Manager of ICVB, Handan Boyce, between the years of 2004 to 2012 ICVB took part in 30 congresses and the total estimated delegate number is more than 215,000. (for details see *http://www.icvb.org)* Boyce announces that the total revenue from the tourism industry in the world is 560 Billion USD. Congress tourism accounts for 30% of it. (170 Billion USD). However Turkey has only 2% (200 Million USD) of

the world tourism revenue. i.e. just 1% of world congress revenue. It has been estimated that 75 million people are travelling each year and Istanbul is hosting 100000 of these people. Boyce states that three are no specific or clear statistics about the revenue generated by congress tourism or the number of congresses held in Turkey and ICVB`s major source for statistics in the conference industry is ICCA. Istanbul has many advantages for congress tourism such as bed capacity, congress centres, and transport and world standard venues. Its cultural and historical position is no doubt another advantage. However Istanbul's disadvantages such as service quality and Istanbul's political and economic image in the international market need to be taken care of. The destination promotion and marketing mix for the city can be improved if city gets both the scientific and financial help and support.. Promotion is a complex issue involving a country's political, economic, natural and historical position and infrastructures. Boyce is hopeful that Turkey's membership to the European Union will bring more to the tourism and congress market.

When we look at the universities and their positioning compared with the industry we are all concerned about the relatively rapid but inefficient change in tourism and hospitality management schools in Turkish Universities. This fact has been highlighted by Kozak, in one of the series of articles entitled "Tourism Education Discussions" published on the "journal of tourism" worldwide website, (2005) (for details see *http://www.turizmgazetesi.com/articles).* According to Kozak, Turkey has 17 tourism management and hospitality schools at the moment. However, he has doubts about the schools` ability to compete with their rivals in Europe. In one of the Tourism Education Discussions (2005) he foresees the difficulties that Turkish tourism and hospitality schools might have when competing with their international components. These doubts are based on several reasons such as the education being national, inability of global thinking, the lack of competition among the national schools, the difficulty of responding to the international competition. Kozak states that these facts need urgent attention more than ever, especially during the discussions for Turkey's membership to the EU as this would mean that the educational institutions` regulations and programmes should be coherent with those of the European Union. Kozak quite rightly suggests that international relations will be an important component of all academic tourism and hospitality schools programmes and the contents of their courses and work experience will have to be reviewed soon. He has serious questions on the current state of the buildings, equipment and specifically the academic staff of the tourism and hospitality schools compared with their international rivals. Universities in

Turkey offer a range of courses at all levels (undergraduate and post graduate) using different methods of studying. Course titles covering the main employment areas in the travel and tourism industry mostly include hotel management and travel and tourism management. It would not be unfair to say that although exhibitions and conferences form part of the studies in most of the tourism and hospitality management schools, its importance has been ignored if not has not been sufficiently highlighted.

We will now look into the work experience concept and its benefits. We will see how students can benefit from gaining valuable experience while the businesses involved see it as an effective way of recruitment.

WORK EXPERIENCE, ITS IMPORTANCE AND BENEFITS

According to NCWE (National Council for Work Experience based in UK *http://www.work-experience.org),* work experience means different things to different people but in essence it is any form of work that one does before one starts her/his career. The most important thing is that all work gives some experience. The experience could take the form of short term, long term or part time employment, and could be paid or unpaid.

Employers are not concerned about what degree students have - they mostly ask only one question. "Can this person do the job?" This trend is affecting even the universities as we even see some university departments (especially the vocational courses like tourism) advertising themselves as a kind of employment agencies as they place more and more emphasis on preparing students for the world of work. There are a number of reasons for undertaking work experience but the main benefit is learning about the world of work. One of the aims of work experience is to develop skills for education and employability. Work experience increases students' employability by providing them with an insight into their transferable skills. These insights can be incorporated into a personal learning and development plan. Students will be encouraged to understand the importance of making connections between work, study and their future life and career plans. They will enhance their analytical and reflective skills; and clarify their plans for their future careers. We will now see in detail the benefits of the work experience.

The Benefits of Work Experience

Introducing graduates into the world of work through work experience while they are studying has its benefits for both the student and the employer. Its

contribution for the universities and the industry is worth a mention. Below are the benefits of work experience for all parties concerned in the field.

Benefits for Students

According to the Hobsons Work Experience Guide 2005, being a graduate is no longer enough to secure a good job when students leave university. So many people have degrees these days that students will need to stand out from the crowd when applying for jobs. The highly skilled workforce creates a lot of competition for popular jobs, and employers can afford to be picky. Employers increasingly want new recruits to be able to add value to their organisation straightaway. If students can demonstrate that they have already achieved a certain level of competence, they will be likely to get the job they want. According to Sue Johnson (Work Experience Project Manager at Warwick University), research has shown that 70% of students who have completed formal work experience join their placement provider on graduation. She states that above all work experience is about students getting out there, doing something, and being able to promote themselves. It's about taking responsibility for making the most of any opportunities that come their way. The important thing is to be able to articulate their achievements to potential employers so that they know what students are capable of doing. In a world where everything is inevitably in constant change and competitive, there is a need for the up-to-date information and knowledge. The following points highlight what students can achieve from this competitive industry while undertaking a variety of work experience opportunities. These benefits are compiled from different sources but mainly from NWEC (National Work Experience Council*http://www.work-experience.org)* and there is no particular order.

1. Understanding about career choices and planning before they graduate and a chance to see the reality of working life. Students can see the realities of the position they are interested in. Even if they are in a junior position, they will get to observe people who are qualified and more senior, examine what they do and form an opinion about what they like or do not like doing within the exhibition industry. Therefore, they will have a realistic knowledge of exhibitions and will make their mind up earlier. In essence, work experience gives students the opportunity to determine whether the exhibition industry is for them. If it isn't, then they have at least discovered the tasks they like and dislike doing, which is the knowledge they take with them to the next placement!

2. Judging for them selves and assessing what they are good at. A way of thinking about who they really are, what they want from life and how they are going to get it. Students can have an increased self confidence, global perspectives and clearer focus and raised ambitions.

3. Developing vital 'employability' skills for the future (communication, problem solving, IT, team working and improving their own learning and performance). This way they can enhance their employability, as employers would generally rather employ someone who is already "tried and tested". For example, delivering presentations successfully requires the skills of research, information handling, creativity, IT skills, oral and written communication and interpersonal skills. It may also include team work and leadership skills.

4. Seeing the difference between belonging to a college and belonging to a company (involvement in companies` activities, belonging to the work community and overall social experience.) Experiencing the real world of work. Knowing what it means to complete a job, to work under supervision and to relate to other employees.

5. Using academic skills in a practical setting. It won't be all theory but they will also be learning from people who actually know the job. A way of carrying out a task, reflecting on it and receiving feedback; in other words learning by doing.

6. Enhancing their CV to show the development of their skills and the experience which are required for the next job application.

7. Learning about marketing, negotiation, planning and organising, time management and how to run effective events. Developing financial and organisational skills.

8. Earning extra money if the work experience is paid, and budgeting their money at an earlier stage.

9. Meeting people who had different views on life and working with people from any cultural background.

10. Contributing ideas and opinions throughout the placement period and influencing others. Taking decisions and responsibility. A way of proving that they can do multitasks and can deal with many different people at a time.

11. Creating their network of contacts. Meeting people who are actively involved in the sector in which the students want to work is invaluable. Students can start building their network of contacts for the future.

12. Committing them selves to enhance both their skills and their approach in the short and long term. Demonstrating to a prospective employer that they can commit and adapt to work disciplines, take the initiative, be flexible and react positively to the parts of the job they find they don't like and pick up some 'commercial awareness' as they go along. An ideal way of proving to a future employer that they have a sense of the responsibility, motivation and enthusiasm to do something worthwhile.

13. Technical knowledge and a variety of experiences as exhibitions cover so many different industries.

14. Setting themselves goals that stretch them, aiming to work to a higher standard while they are doing the work experience. Keeping a portfolio or record sheet of the work experience (recording all the experiences, the skills developed, the responsibilities undertaken). A simple record sheet can help a student capture their experiences, the skills they used and the outcomes they achieved.

15. Getting familiar with the exhibition industry's terminology to develop understanding of the conference and events area.

16. Having the on site experience by actually seeing the exhibition happening. Seeing how to confront problems and how to handle on site crisis.

17. They get to travel further distances as some of the exhibitions can take place out of the country and experience working with other cultures, other teams and sub-contractors.

Most of the benefits listed above can be obtained through well structured and supervised work experience. Nevertheless how students manage themselves in relation to the workplace depends a lot on their values and expectations. The attitude of their immediate manager will influence the level of job activity and how they are treated will impact the efforts they make. The people who influence students are also important in shaping their work experiences as they will have some bearing on the standards of behaviour students set for themselves and others. Students` expectations and experiences will also

influence whether they feel encouraged to learn and perform to a higher standard.

Benefits for Employers (Organisers)

According to the NCWE, employers in the UK want to recruit graduates who have some knowledge of the world of work and this is something that students are becoming more aware of. Research shows that employer investment in work experience pays off. Research conducted by Manchester University and UMIST Careers Service (for details see *www.GraduateCareersOnline.com/workplace/survey)* shows that an average of 70% work experience placements leads to a graduate job offer. The most popular reason for offering work experience was recruitment into graduate roles (80%). Of the high proportion of students typically offered graduate roles, an average of 70% accepted, highlighting the confidence that both employers and students have in work experience in determining their future employment relationship. Scott Foley, survey co-ordinator, comments: "The survey highlights just how important work experience has become to graduate recruiters, not just as a development tool, but also as a recruitment method in its own right. Recruiters are using work experience as a way of accessing graduate talent early".

Increasingly, exhibition organisers see offering work experience as an effective way of recruiting graduates, as both have a chance to see what each has to offer. This trend is likely to continue and demonstrates the growing importance of getting some form of work experience before leaving university. Students also benefit by gaining an understanding of what employers are looking for. It is important to highlight that the students asking for work experience are looking for the opportunity to develop the skills they need for the world of work. Therefore they are usually enthusiastic and hardworking. According to the Prospects website employers are looking for the following skills from the graduates, from their first day of employment: Communication (ability to communicate orally, in writing or via computer/electronic means: written reports, letters, presentations, and verbal telephone and presentation skills, team work (working well with others in order to achieve a common objective), leadership (being able to motivate and encourage others, whilst taking the lead), initiative (ability to see opportunities and to set and achieve goals), problem solving (analysis, judgement and decision making / thinking things through in a logical way in order to determine key issues), flexibility/adaptability (ability to handle change and adapt to new situations), self-awareness (knowing their strengths and skills and having the confidence to put these across),

commitment/motivation(having energy and enthusiasm in pursuing projects), competence and understanding of numerical data, statistics and graphs, interpersonal skills (self management i.e. good time keeping, meeting deadlines and time management). Most of these "employability" skills and qualities can be developed through work experience. Therefore, employers can have ready to work candidates without the hassle of training them when they actually start to work with the company. In addition, Prospects (www.prospects.ac.uk) states that employers like to see applicants having some business awareness as this can have an impact on their organisation. Some of the benefits of work experience for the employers are as followed:

1. Students on placements can be seen as an extended interview, thereby cutting down on recruitment costs. Employing a student who had done work experience is a cost effective and flexible solution to the employers` recruitment needs. If a student has been put through the same selection process as any other prospective employee and then this same student becomes a permanent employee in the future, the employer's investment and human resource's time will be worth it.

2. Students can come with a fresh pair of eyes and creative thinking to help solve problems and they can offer many additional qualities to the organization.

3. An extra help to develop new ideas and an opportunity to transfer new fresh ideas directly from universities to business. When students go on work experience they may sometimes give their own point of view which could benefit the company. Students and graduates can improve the competitiveness of companies, in particular small and medium sized enterprises.

4. Students can develop projects that the company just hasn't had the time or resources to carry out. Therefore employers be more profitable, reduce costs and make better use of time.

5. Preparing the task list (written or oral) for the students requires a clear understanding and structured role. Therefore it is a chance for the organiser to review their task and roles amongst their employees.

6. Students` up to date IT skills and knowledge of new technologies is an important advantage to employers.

7. An employer can see their business benefit as a result by employing a student from the tourism and hospitality school. The employer can profit from the student's academic knowledge.

8. It is an opportunity to see what graduates are capable of. Employers may enjoy the experience as much as the students, if not more!

Today's university students can focus on business issues and solutions resolve business problems effectively through work experience. They are good team workers and they can think for themselves. Students can undertake projects that include marketing and market research, developing IT systems, design and implementation of databases, creating a website, research and development, reviewing work processes and efficiency which can be mutually beneficial for both students and employers. Most graduate employers expect new recruits to make a contribution to their organisations from day one. It is to the universities to prepare students for this.

Benefits for Universities

It would be fair to suggest that tourism and hospitality departments need the industry as much as the industry needs them. Qualified personnel are an asset to the organisers but without experience, the glamour of the qualification can easily fade away. So can the reputation of the university. The following are some reasons and ways in which work experience can benefit universities:

1. Universities effectiveness assessments are increasingly looking for evidence of links to industry. One of the links can be made through the work experience. Work experience and its value can be used as a selling point to attract more students to the tourism faculties.

2. Having an insight into what is happening in the industry so that academic learning can be enhanced through practical experience. Not only will students have a realistic view of the industry but the universities will also benefit from the real, practical side of the industry. Having an insight into what is happening in industry is an advantage.

3. Arranging work experience for the students requires a good careers advice centre within the university which is a great asset. The careers advice centre will have to be in contact with various players of the industry (Ministry, Associations, Exhibition Organisers, etc) and the university can benefit from this collaboration.

4. It can help to improve the quality of study (through the students` greater self-confidence, motivation, time management and application of what has been taught) and better understanding of what is taught during the course

5. It can also help academics to enrich their experience and this will make higher education better and more relevant to the lives of graduates as the academics will be asked to learn and teach differently, more effectively and relevantly.

6. The work experience associated with the course will attract new students. Students can highlight the benefits of their work experience and how this has helped their current studies. This will help new students to be pro-active with regard to work experience.

7. The university's course program will inevitably be looked at on a regular basis inn order to make sure that industry's expectations and needs are met. This can be done through the students` feedback taken from the work experience. This way innovative teaching methods and strategies with a strong practical element can be achieved.

8. University can be competitive not nationally but internationally, too.

Let's now see the benefits of work experience for the industry.

Benefits for the Industry

Events industry is becoming increasingly important within both the business and voluntary sectors. Events industry ranges in scope, scale and complexity from mega-events to a corporate meeting and cover activities from sport and culture to product launches and fundraising. Exhibitions are renowned for producing positive business-to-business relationships between exhibiting companies and visitors. Whether it is to see the latest product offerings; to compare and evaluate competitive products; to network or to purchase something new, there is one common goal in all exhibitions: to learn about the latest styles, trends, modifications and improvements to their existing products and/or services. The exhibition organisers' success is directly related to how well their personnel (both on and off site) interact with the exhibitors and visitors. Organisers increasingly need highly qualified staff who have done work experience during their studies. Work experience with an exhibition organiser is a way to see the growth, awareness and value of exhibitions, congresses and other face-to-face marketing events in a world where everything

seems to be built on-line. It is impossible to have a face-to-face relationship with a website or a sales brochure no matter how good they are. Having a good relationship with the exhibitors, delegates or visitors depends on the key communications skills which are ideally gained through work experience. Exhibitions crosses the boundaries between marketing, customer service, finance, planning and other business skills to develop multi-disciplined, creative team leaders and members able to organise the largest event down to the smallest detail. Practical application of knowledge is important for the business,

1. A student who had done the right work experience offers the right skills to be used in the right position, leading to better performance and profit for the company and eventually a better outcome for the industry. The industry will benefit from well trained, highly skilled, multifaceted and up-to-date personnel.

2. Work experience will help the industry to have structured and carefully designed methods in place.

3. A way of seeing the industry's competitiveness not only in the country but also in the international arena.

4. A way of having a strong network and communication chain between the industries` major players such as exhibition organisers, associations, universities, visitor bureaus and others. The stronger the chain is the better for the industry.

How Work Experience is perceived in the UK and Europe?

Events management as a subject area is only recently gaining acceptance, however the subject itself has been in development for many years and is a recognised area of study and research in the UK and elsewhere. In the UK, most undergraduate courses include a period of work placement as part of the course, varying in length from 6 months to one year. Work experience is seen to be an integral part of the course, where the student has the opportunity to practice what they have learned in college or university.

A National Council for Work Experience (NCWE *http://www.work-experience.org*) has been established in the UK and has been running for over 5 years to help deliver its core strategy of helping all students and graduates find suitable careers and employment. The main aim of the NCWE is to provide information about work experience. NCWE aims to engage business and higher education in

a national effort to promote student work experience, building on a current and past work and encourage the spreads of good practice. NCWE also aims to increase awareness of growing importance of students employability debate amongst the employers so that more opportunities are offered. NCWE`s main concerns are circulating the information, encouraging the development of standards for all forms of work experience activity and work-related learning by working closely with others in the field. National networking conferences are organised by NCWE in order to provide a good example of work experience network guide which can be used by career advice centres at the universities.

Another national body in the UK is NASES *(www.nases.org.uk)* , the National Association for Student Employment Services which also prepares students for work. NASES held a workshop, "Preparing Students for the World of Work", in London on 9th February 2005. The aim of the Workshop was to provide practical tools and guidance for practitioners in the field of work experience to enable them to enhance the support they provide to both students and employers. The workshop also looked at ways in which students can be made aware of the relevance of getting some practical experience of any kind.

In order to facilitate, encourage and support this development for the future, AEME (the Association for Events Management Education, *http://www.aeme.org)* has been established as a new subject association. This will not only enable events management educators to work together effectively for the development of the subject area, but also ensure that the events subject is represented and involved in discussions. Therefore students can go for careers in the hospitality industry with an emphasis on managing exhibitions and conferences.

The Association of Conference and Events (ACE), in association with the UK Centre for Events Management at Leeds Metropolitan University, is hosting a careers fair for students and young professionals who work in the tourism, hospitality and events industries. The Association aims to support and raise the profile of the events management discipline through the sharing of education and best practice. It is also known to be the first international organisation to draw together events management educators and will act as a channel through which industry, professional bodies and the media can liaise with events education providers.

In a press release entitled "Experience more vital than a degree for 'entry level' staff say mid-sized employers" published on 7 September 2005 on KPGM`s World Wide Web site (www.kpgm.co.uk) Ian Hopkinson, People Services Partner at KPMG, highlights the importance of work experience, saying "While

achieving a good degree clearly remains important when entering the job market, our research has shown that if a candidate can demonstrate relevant work experience this is a significant consideration for many employers". A series of 'Preparing for Work Experience' seminars were held by Liz Rhodes. (hhtp://www.work-experience.org) The aim was to enable students to better prepare themselves for the mandatory work experience element of the course. The seminars were designed as a combination of lecturing and student participation and comprised a mix of group work, exercises, role-plays, tasks and feedback.

The National curriculum in UK takes work experience quite seriously. Universities are known to be offering masters level courses ranging from events management and leisure, tourism and/or hospitality with events, through to an increasing number of specialised courses in specific events sectors, such as conference/convention management, festivals, exhibitions, or sports events. Work placement is applied as a module into the universities` degree programmes.

The importance of work experience is more and more recognized not only in UK but also in Europe. Participants of the An European Work Experience 2005 Conference held in Brighton on 13-14 June 2005 agreed a declaration promoting, supporting and developing quality work experience for the benefit of students, organisations and the economy. The purpose was to show an international consensus on what needs to be done regarding work experience and by whom, in order that it is given the prominence and support it deserves.

In order to ensure that exhibitions continue to be recognised and appreciated for their true value in the marketing mix, The Global Association of the Exhibition Organisers (UFI *http://www.ufi.org)* has worked closely with universities (ie: University of Cooperative Education, Ravensburg, Germany) to develop a focused eight-hour curriculum for use by professors in introductory level university courses. By making this course available, it is UFI's intention to provide university professors with a free, off-the-shelf tool for adaptation within their academic programmes. The programme is designed to introduce students in marketing, communications, B2B, PR and business administration classes to the unique role of exhibitions throughout history for the promotion of business relations, products and services.

How Work Experience is Perceived in Turkey?

No comprehensive studies have yet taken place to establish a national network specifically for the exhibitions industry in Turkey. A number of authors have explored different aspects of the tourism and hospitality education, training and research. Some Turkish universities are already demonstrating a practice of work experience particularly in tourism and hotel management. They, for example, require their students, to do a compulsory work experience and the students spend some weeks every summer on a placement with the industry (mostly with hotels, travel agencies, etc) for which they are credited in their study. However the value of work experience and ideas have been addressed by different universities in different ways. It is only through the individual efforts of by certain academics, graduates through the seminars, academic researches that we learn about the vast range of problems and issues that need to be addressed collectively. One of these efforts is made by Kozak through his research on the tourism industry, especially on the employment of the students. Kozak has done a valuable series of reports on the status of our current tourism schools and work experience. He publishes these studies on the worldwide website under the title "Tourism Education Discussions" (2005) *(http://www.turizmgazetesi.com/articles).* According to Kozak, there are 35 *tourism programs in 26 faculties, within the 25 different universities in Turkey.*

Kozak, in his series of articles in "Work Experience Dossier" (2005) *(http://www.turizmgazetesi.com/articles)* has identified a number of problems faced by students, employers and schools while students underwent work experience. He also has some suggestions to overcome of these problems. The following problems are not specific to the exhibition industry nevertheless most of them are common issues that need to be addressed. The common problems faced by students are as followed: being considered as cheap labour; problems concerning the rotation and adaptation period; being forced to work in non-relevant departments; problems that are caused by the all-inclusive packages system; problems concerning social rights (ie: national insurance, weekly holiday allowance); lack of personnel areas, problems relating to accommodation and food facilities. Employers and the industry are also facing problems such as work experience taken as a compulsory formality. Some cheat on the experience history or do not understand the full value of work experience. Work experience opportunities often result from personal contacts rather than a co-ordinated effort. Students have a knowledge and experience far behind that of the industry as there is not enough time for work experience. Lack of documentation on work experience (record sheet, evaluation sheet, etc) is

another problems faced by both employers and the industry. The tourism and hospitality departments in their turn suffering from the following problems: Time and resources for work experience are limited for both academics and employers, problems caused by students` adaptation and rotation, lack of resource for following the students` work experience. The time that employers require for work experience is not very convenient to the tourism schools` programs. Kozak has a number of suggestions to overcome of these problems (2005) and these can be listed as below:

1. Current practice for work experience should be reviewed and organised with educational and career-development objectives in mind.

2. Work experience is the first step in to the world of work, therefore first experience and other experiences during the studies are important and can have an effect on students` choices when they graduate.

3. Students should have a preparation period before the work experience to ensure that work experience is effective. This preparation should be done either by teachers with direct knowledge and experience in the industry or by professionals from the industry.

4. Student's expectations should not be high; they should be prepared not to take task on management level but more practical tasks.

5. There is an urgent need for careers advice centre and co-ordinator so that the work experience can be supervised and followed efficiently. It is important that the work experience co-ordinator has both the knowledge and experience in the industry.

6. Decisions relating to the work experience should come from both the industry and the universities so that the problems can easily be identified and solved. At the moment there is a lack of communication between the universities and the industry.

In addition to Kozak`s suggestions, it would be fair to add the following suggestions for quality work experience beneficial for students, universities and the employers:

1. The employer should think through what they need the student to do. This should normally be task requiring specialist knowledge or skills which are probably not currently present within the organisation. The employer should state their needs upfront. They also should be clear about the objectives of the job they want them to do. They should put

them through the same selection process as any other prospective employee.

2. The level of supervision needs to be related to the level of responsibility employers give students. Whatever students are doing, the employer will get better quality out of them if they give them support from the start. Ideally, the student should have a mentor within the company who they can turn to for advice and support. This has the added advantage of developing the staff at the same time.

3. Legislation or forcing employers to take the student on board for work experience may not always be beneficial and effective. Therefore, the importance of work experience should be promoted so that employers can actually see and understand the real benefits to them and to their business. Only in this way will employers want to take a student for work experience into their organization but not forced.

4. Ethical management in the company is an important point worth mentioning.

We will now move on to the following section to see what career services are and what are they doing to help students and employers. We will use a UK style careers advice centre as a model, as it is an established service and the outcome of it is highly recognised and valued.

Careers Advice Centre and its Importance

Careers advice centre may help students find suitable work placements which will prepare them for careers in management within the tourism and hospitality industries, as well as exhibition industry. These centres have become recognised as independent and authoritative by the business and academic communities in UK as they give expertise and advice on all aspects regarding work experience. If we apply their role to the exhibition industry, careers advice centre can offer assistance to the students and the event organisers, whether it concerns exhibitions, congresses, seminars, workshops, etc. They can also offer support and advice to students and help them multiply the value of every experience they have. Career advice centres will be promoting, supporting and developing quality work experience for the benefit of students, organisers and the university.

Careers advice centre's main activities are disseminating information and good practice for students, encouraging and supporting the development of high

standards across all forms of work experience, encouraging more employers to provide placement opportunities.

Below are some of the services an ideal career advice centre should offer:

1. Raising the academic value of work experience.

2. Researching, coordinating and circulating information on best practice.

3. Producing guides, materials, handbooks and software to facilitate the maximum learning value and the development of key skills. Being part of a distribution system for speedy distribution of job specifications for some placements.

4. Building an easy communication with all students and advising them to get the most out of their work experience.

5. Working in partnership with universities, employers and students and offering training, advice and consultancy on best practice to employers and universities.

6. Keeping the professional network active and using this network for help and advice, the exchange of useful information, etc.

7. Discussing placement related issues such as student funding, employment legislation, suspect placements/practices, etc. Organising workshops and conferences for practitioners and acting as a forum for discussion of work experience issues.

8. Urging employers to look at ways in which they can collaborate with universities to provide a wide range of placements in business.

9. Providing training materials for academic staff preparing students for work experience.

10. Addressing the issues both of quality and quantity of work experience and providing materials.

11. Encouraging an increase in the volume of quality work experience in all its forms

12. Building a work placement as an applied module into the degree program so that students can spend few weeks every summer on placement in the industry for which they are credited in their study modules.

CONCLUSIONS

After giving some relevant details on the exhibition industry and the importance of work experience and how career services can help to create better work experience options we will now highlight few points that can sum up what has been found.

The exhibition industry is continuously expanding and new opportunities are constantly being created. For people with the right skills, experience and qualities, there are many exciting and challenging careers on offer. Work experience gives students a chance to put academic knowledge into practice. Students can decide the kind of the work experience that fits with their interest and academic commitments. It also gives students evidence of the skills they need for employment and shows employers what the students have to offer. Work experience provides students with the chance to learn from others who have years of experience within an organisation. By contributing to the organiser and learning from it, students will develop some of the key employability skills that all employers look for when recruiting graduates such as improving own learning and performance, communication, working with others, information technology, and problem solving. Work experience may help students to be offered a job at the same company, to stand out from the increasingly competitive job market; to test out career options before graduation; to test themselves to see whether they want to pursue the job after the graduation; to improve students' knowledge of themselves; to build their confidence and maturity by working with others; to experience working with exhibitors from very different backgrounds and above all to bridge the gap between university and the world of work. Not only will students learn things which will help them in their studies but they also will witness a totally different way of life. For some it may even be a life changing experience as work experience helps students develop both professionally and personally. Although the majority of employers remain convinced of the increasing and/or continued value of a degree they are more and more interested in individual personality above university, subject and course type when they look for their future employees. It is also important to note that students are applying for a job in a competitive field therefore relevant work experience is crucial. Students have to be proactive in order to succeed in exhibitions and conferences industry.

As for employers, we have seen that they may be unaware of advances in the tourism and hospitality education. Having a period of temporary student employment within a framework of learning objectives and assessment can help

to the employer to build constant link with universities. By offering students a period of work experience, the exhibition organizer can also gain new ideas and fresh enthusiasm, as well as a cost-effective flexible solution to its recruitment needs. Employers say placements have a key part to play in the preparation for work experience. However, more students can only benefit from them if increasing number of employers came forward. Employers should be urged to look at the ways in which they can collaborate with higher education.

We have seen the importance of career advice centre at the universities in building a bridge between the employers and students. It has been highlighted that career advice centre works to improve the quality and value of work placements as well as exchange and develop ideas that will improve the management of work placements. They promote the benefits of work experience. Career advice centre can provide a wide range of selected relevant work experience options so that students can make the most of the opportunity to develop personal and course-related or job specific skills, to think about what has been learned and how to apply that learning in the future. However, a good career advice service can be successful if it is run by a co-ordinator who knows both the industry and education. There should be an appointed career advice service co-coordinator whose main role is to be involved in helping students and graduates find work experience and placements in the industry.

A clear need for collaboration between the industry and the universities in developing both the events subject and best practice has been highlighted. The collaboration and closer relationship between higher education and exhibition industry can be rewarding for both sides: there will be placements provided for the tourism departments and the employers will closely be involved in the development of the degree. Nevertheless this collaboration requires appropriate career advice centres and co-ordinators within the universities. The support from local bodies, government and associations is essential in order to provide high-quality and effective work experience for students and employers. The government can fund the projects that are to increase significantly the number of students who have the opportunity improve their work readiness through high quality work experience. Establishment of a national centre for work experience is another vital need however this could be a further step once the career advice centre has been put in place.

Until this stage we have tried to highlight the importance of the establishment of a careers advice centre within the tourism and hospitality departments. However, we all know that one sided efforts cannot take us any further than

where we are now. In order for work experience to be used widely and efficiently there should be a network of efforts where not only the students and organisers meet but also where the governmental and non-governmental institutions (i.e. Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Ministry of Education, High Education Institution, - YOK-, ICVB, so on.) make their own contributions. The concerned parties in this field   (governmental bodies, institutions, exhibition organisers and universities) should be well aware of their crucial role in making exhibitions and conferences one of the leading industries in Turkey as it already is in the developed countries.

The ideas pursued through this study are neither new nor revolutionary. This study, as many others here today, hopes to re-gain the sight of the essential ideas and standards on graduate research in tourism and we hope that we have managed to make a modest contribution to this important and much needed meeting.

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A Conceptual Model of New Product and Efficiency
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ABSTRACT

The rapid integrating global economy, technological changes and shifting consumer preferences are together increasing competitive pressure for most companies. Moving in tandem with this development, catering and restaurant businesses in the past few years show that the foodservice industry in Malaysia continues to grow rapidly, particularly in the regions of Klang Valley, Johor and Penang. In 2003, there were 20, 325 foodservice businesses representing total growth in units of 16% between 1999-2003. As a result, it is reasonable to argue that restaurateurs are forced to rethink their business strategies, production processes and management practices to improve their functioning and adapt to a changing business environment. The purpose of this paper is to reviews the issues surrounding the conceptualizations of efficiency strategy and explores the determinants affecting strategy adoption in restaurant organizations. The review confirms that there is a growing acceptance that no single strategy-planning model can guarantee any restaurant organizations to gain sustainable competitive advantage. Specifically, the concepts associated with strategy and new product development (NPD) in facilitating strategy adoption in restaurant businesses are discussed.

Keywords: new product development, restaurant business, efficiency strategy.

INTRODUCTION

The word "strategy" is derived from the Greek word strategia, meaning "generalship". A renowned Sun Tzu's The Art of War, published more than 2000 years ago, provide valuable impetus of how strategy was used in commanding and controlling army movements in a battle field. This notion of generalship (strategy) employed by Army generals in a war against enemies (competitors) by wining battle through sheer force (superior resources), impenetrable fortress (a protected market or monopoly), and/or guerrilla warfare (going after competitors when they are not expecting it) served a

reasonable indicator of how to date business strategy was echoed. Nevertheless, because of the aim of the strategy is on winning the war by abolishing competitors, this to some extent, shed some loopholes. Quite simply, in today business enterprises, it is not only to command effective strategies to overcome rival competitors or to dictate customers what they can buy but also be able to listen to what buyers wanted (Oliver 2001).

Over the past few years, there has been wide recognition of the increasing role of knowledge within the production process. The rapidly integrating global economy, technological change and shifting consumer preferences are together increasing competitive pressure for most firms (Teoh and Sim 1997). Firms that are dealing with food business are no exception to this dilemma, particularly those that are operating in turbulent competitive markets. Nowadays, restaurateurs face greater competitive pressures to make better use of knowledge and human resources to realize benefits from intangible investments and to respond to new demands from consumers. Thus, it is reasonable to argue that restaurateurs are forced to rethink their business strategy, production process and management practices to improve their functioning ad adapt to a changing business environment.

While the notion of inquest plausible innovative product development strategy to prolong products sustainability in turbulent competitive markets have been always evident in innovation and strategy literatures, important refinements of such strategy have been developed in the past five decades ago. Any effort to understand success of new product development (NPD) must rest on an underlying theory of the firm and an associated theory of strategy. While there has been considerable progress in developing NPD frameworks that explain differing competitive success at any given point in time, our understanding of the dynamic processes by which firms perceive and ultimately attain superior market positions is far less developed. To some degree, some previous research has tended to fragment the important parts of the problem rather than integrate them.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There are many definitions of strategy and most of these are from academic books that commonly referred in business schools today. While there has been a flood of recent attempts to define 'strategy', for the purpose of this paper, the following definitions should serve good sound knowledge of what is strategy.

In a general sense, strategy is the intended or unintended actions taken to match the organization with its environment (Mintzberg 1978). Oliver's (2001) definition of strategy suggests that "strategy is understanding an industry structure and dynamics, determining the organization's relative position in that industry, and taking action to either change the industry structure or the organization's position to improve organizational results". Hofer and Schendel, (1978) surveyed the early development of the concept of strategy, starting with Chandler's (1962) definition, which stated "the determination of the basic long-term goals and objectives of an enterprise, and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals". Segev (1987) highlighted the differentiation between the content of strategy, such as "what should be done in order to align the organization and the environment, and the process of strategy-making, such as "how these actions are determined or developed". Both of these compounding theories of strategy are well explained by many renowned past authors.

For example, Segev (1987), cited from past authors (Andrews 1971; Chandler 1962; Hofer and Schendel 1978; Rumelt 1974), notes that "on the corporate level, strategy is the selection of product markets, or industries, and allocation of resources among them [while] on the business level, … [it is] the competitive tools used to give organization its distinctive competence which depends on task environment characteristics". On the other hands, cited from these authors (Ansoff 1965; Cyert and March 1963; Mintzberg 1978; Hofer and Schendel 1978; Segev 1978) denotes that "strategy-making is the process whereby strategies are consolidated [and] sometimes subdivided into strategy formulation and strategy implementation".

New Product Development Strategy

Before further details of NPD strategy is highlighted, the term so called 'new product' needs to be comprehended and defined. The term 'new product' is indefinite. This is to some extent partly because of different used of interpretations of the term. Fuller (1991) argues a new product should incorporate either the development or introduction of a product not formerly manufactured by a company or the presentation of an old product into a new market. Kotler, Armstrong, Saunders and Wong (2001), on the other hands, claim that it should be made of only original products or product improvements and modifications that the company develops through its own research and development efforts.

Booz, Allen and Hamilton (1965) and Urban and Houser (1993) highlighted the uncertainty of new product development success. They explained that new product development requires quite a substantial sum of budgets therefore careful planning of the development stages is crucially essential. Recent research dictates that many new products were introduced in the market but quite a number of these products failed to gain market share. Rudder, Ainsworth, and Holgate (2001) cited from the work of Rudolf (1995) demonstrate that out of 8,077 new products that were introduced in US retail market, 80 to 90 percent failed within a year.

A highly exemplary research work of Booz, Allen and Hamilton (1982) concluded that "only 10 percent of all new products introduced over the last five years were truly innovative or new to the world" (8). A summary of their research findings is illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Six categories of new product development

	%
1. New to the world products	10
2. New product lines: new product that, for the first time, allow a company to enter an established market	20
3. Additions to existing product lines: new products that supplement a company's established product lines	26
4. Improvements in/revisions to existing products: new products that provide improvement performance or greater perceived value, and replace existing products	27
5. Repositioning of existing products that are targeted to new markets or market segments	7
6. Cost reduction: new products that provide similar performance at lower cost	11

Source: Booz, Allen and Hamilton (1982)

The study of Rudder (2003) of the NPD activities in the UK reveals that "food manufacturers are proactive in making a range of 'adjustments' to their products rather than developing 'new to the world product' (460). Therefore, if this is what transpired of actual practice from the above two research findings, then the introduction of so called 'newness' is quite rare.

Booz, Allen and Hamilton (1982) noted that 90 percent of products developed were not 'new to the world' rather alternative strategies of number 2 to 6 were found to be the prevalent practice. Rudder (2003) continues that in order to be a successful new product in the marketplace, types and quality of food products are judged on "benchmarking exercise". Benchmarking enables organizations

improve their performance against the norm (Kozak and Rimmington 1998). Specifically, competitor's products are evaluated against the company's own product to ascertain whether the standard, taste or flavour is of the same level of whether improvement or changes need to be made" (Rudder 2003: 462). By undertaking benchmarking activities, an analysis of gap between the baseline and the benchmark is identified and the company is then in a position to respond.

Because of there is limited introduction of 'new to the world' product, product 'line extension' is reported to be constantly traded in the market (Hanna, Ayer, Ridnour and Gordon 1995; Fuller 1994; Dacko 2000). Rubber (2003) cited the work of Samli and Webber (2000), summaries the following reasons as to why companies preferred to line extension of product development (Rubber 2003: 463 after Samli and Webber 2000:37):

1. they require limited resources and know-how;

2. the are fairly simple and straightforward and may generate, however temporarily, increased volumes in sales;

3. they do not require new production facilities or capabilities;

4. they can be introduced to market within a relatively short time span;

5. they present a relatively risk-free development

6. they generally only require short-term planning before their manufacture; and

7. they can be introduced to the marketplace relatively quickly

NPD requires proper planning process and procedures in order to be able to introduce a new product that is innovative. Table 2 provides a good platform as to how firms engage in NPD. All of the proposed strategies suggest that NPD encompasses a step-by-step process and involvement several departments within the organization are essential. External factors, such as consumer trends and learning from rival competitors are part of the development process. However, the time undertaken to develop a new product from input to output stages remain an uncertain. Recent research believes that to develop a complete cycle of new product require acute planning and undergo various stages of development process before being launch, which takes months or even more than a year. Suwannaporn and Speece (2000) take the view that "it is difficult to follow a methodical step to step NPD process because of short product life and rapidly changing consumer needs quickly render product obsolete" (599). They claim that NPD should be continuous learning process. Factors that emerged and may influence the product success during the development process need to

be incorporated and reinforced. Hence, what actually being planned earlier may not necessary yield the desire product because reinforcement of emerging factors during the development process cause some alterations.

Table 2. Strategic models of new food product developments

Kotler and Armstrong et al (1991)	Urban and Hauser (1993)	MacFie (1994)	Booz, Allen and Hamilton (1965)	Graf and Saguy (1991)	Fuller (1994)
1. İdea	Opportunity	Concept	Exploration	Screening	İdea
2. Idea screening	Design	Concept	Screening	Feasibility	Ing of idea
3. Concept and testing	Testing	Product	Business	Development	Development
4. Marketing strategy development	Introduction	Product	Development	Commercialisatioın	Production
5. Business	Life-cycle maenagement	Packaging development	Testing (including advertising materials)	Maintanance	Consumer
6. Product		First production run			Test market
7. Testing			Launch		
8. Commercialisation					

Source. Adapted from Rudder, Ainsworth, and Holgate (2001)

Menu Product Development Strategy in Foodservice Industry

Review of this literature demonstrates that new menu product development strategy is conducted through a systematic process (Feinstein 1986; Jones 1996). Mooney (1994), who proposed similar methodological approach, advocates that "this type of disciplined approach is being utilised more frequently by foodservice management in many sectors of the industry".

Feltenstein's (1986) NPD strategy. The framework constitutes of six stages. The first stage is to assemble new-product task force, which comprise of expert individuals from different departments, namely marketing, finance, accounting and operation with the organisation. He suggests that a new coordinator be appointed and regular meetings are adhered to aiming for setting new assignments, provide timely updates and facilitate research efforts. The second stage is to set new-product priorities, which has five categories. Feltenstein

emphasises that a benchmark has to be made and it becomes the priories of the overall goal of the company. It is the rule of guidance so that everybody is adhered to it and personal biases and tastes are put to halt. All these priorities are listed down on a worksheet, and an analysis is conducted to review corporate goal, audit existing items and list opportunities or treats to the chain. The third stage follows by generating new-product idea. In this stage, new-product priorities that have been specified are those that have matched with the company goal and strategy. It goes then to the fourth stage where formal customised screening methods are performed. Basically, such screening methods involved two ways of processes that are qualitative and quantitative analysis. Feltenstein proclaims, "qualitative analysis involves answering a series of pertinent, open-ended questions about the prospective menu idea [whereas] quantitative analysis involves numerical ratings of ideas". After that, a selection of ideas is performed. Ideas that matched close to the company's benchmark and qualitative judgement and high in qualitative scores are short-listed for product development (fifth stage). Those products that are selected for development will be monitored of their recipe formulation, operational specifications, unit operational testing and market testing. Finally, the sixth stage is planning the marketing and rollout campaigns. Feltenstein elaborates that before the new menu items go into the actual market, they should be tested internally through focus groups, free sample test trials, etc. to see what reactions from the consumers.

Mooney's (1994) NPD strategy. According to Mooney, the ideal menu planning should come after the goals and objectives of the restaurant. What types of service and strategy need to be adopted should correspond from the marketing objective and environmental analysis. The compilation of menu selections can be generated from various sources. Both internal - chef skills and gastronomic expertise and external - cooking books, competitors and understanding of existing and potential market demands sources are commonly sought by menu planners to generate product ideas. Mooney continues that based on the idea generation gathered, final new menu items are short-listed. A menu framework is then being developed. In this menu framework, the production costs of these new menu items are analysed. Finding-out the costs of each individual dish and the overall costs of the menu items is essential in order to set the selling price. Modification bound to happen during the processes of commissioning the menu testing. Thus, standard specifications such as standard recipes, portion control, and production process are vital during the commissioning the menu testing. Once the menus are properly tested, the menus are ready for launch.

Mooney points that the menus should be reviewed at least three times every two years based on the market trends. Menu analysis should be the integral part for reviewing the status of the menu items performance. He suggests that introduction of new dishes should be thoroughly tested in the market before adding onto the menu.

Jones's (1996) NPD strategy. Jones outlines 15-steps of processes of new-product or new-service development. According to him, it begins with formulating ideas. It starts with the company's objective(s) that have to be well stated. Subsequently, a well-designed strategy has to be put forward in order to lead and guide the innovation process. To make sure that the innovation is achieved, the company has to be organised. One ways of doing it is to have a research and development department so that new ideas are generated. New ideas come from various ways, namely external sources, internal consultation and brainstorming. Yet, an ad hoc basis is quite common practice, especially in small companies, where most of it comes from individual or customers feedback. Screening new ideas is also being conducted, particularly when developing new service, so that only those that seem feasible are processed. The second stage is development, which involves four steps. The aim of this stage is to "enable the company to decide whether it will proceed with development". Ideas that have passed from the first stage and known to be critical to the service element are expanded into full-fledged concept. Next is to test this concept by getting an input from the users – customers. Here, the use of customer survey, focus groups, etc. is recommended. Once this is done, implications of the concept to the business are examined. Such analysis covers "a complete market assessment and the drafting of a budget for developing and introducing the proposed product or service". Once this is completed, an authorisation from the top management is sought so that implementation of the ideas may begin. The third stage is testing and design. Jones argues that new-product and new-service development are designed and tested by a different department or personal. "For products this may largely center around a specialist team [whereas] for services the activity involves both the input of prospective users and the active cooperation of the operational personnel who will ultimately be delivering the service". Process and system are to be designed and tested.

According to Jones, "for a new product it may be necessary to design new production processes, develop new equipment, or make new dies or mouldings [on the other hand] a new service…encompasses the whole delivery process, not just the element experienced by the counter, and often involves back-of-

house process engineering". Once a product or service is approved, and process and system development are designed and tested; a marketing-program is designed and testing is performed. At the same time, personnel training are also undergone so that "all employees are familiarised with the nature and operational details of the new service". The last stage is evaluating the innovation and it covers four steps as well. Product and service testing are conducted internally where "operations personnel are involved in a pilot run, used to determine potential customer acceptance and ensure smooth functioning". Subsequently, test marketing is performed to see the saleability of the new service. Once the product and service is completely tested, the product is launched into the market. Finally, a post-launch review is conducted to see if further improvement need to be done.

Another version of product development strategies is proposed by Miller (1987), which he called it "phases of menu development". Miller proposes four phases in menu development, namely the conceptual stage, the operational stage, decline and transition. He argues that menu is the focal point of a restaurant business. Therefore, it dictates the overall concept of the restaurant from human resources to purchase of kitchen equipments until the restaurant's decor. In a nutshell, whatever restaurant owners or operators wish to venture into foodservice business, the concept of menu has to be established first before embarking to recruit personal staffs, acquiring facilities and equipments and décor designs. The operational phase outlines the importance of current food trends and public eating habits. According to Miller, awareness in popularity in foods demand through record keeping of individual menu item's sales proves to be decisive to the success of an ongoing operation. Menu items that diminishes its popularity and profitability should be eliminated and replace by one that is known to be in high demand. The next phase is decline, a basic marketing theory of product life cycle. According to this theory, any product will go through four stages of life cycle - concept, growth, maturity and decline. Therefore, for every menu item there comes a time when it reaches to decline stages, restaurateurs must make changes or revises their menu based on the prevalence of consumer food preferences. The final phase is transition. Miller advocates that because of the constant change in the environments, such as new demographics and eating habits, there is a likelihood of transition change into difference concepts of menu.

Review of Efficiency Strategies

The success of product and efficiency strategies adoption and its survival depend upon a clear understanding on consumers behaviour – "what they want, how they choose, how they are influenced in what they choose, what they would prefer if it were available" (Hemmington 1994). Consumer behaviour very much depends on their perception of needs and wants. Indeed, it is a highly complex process because most consumers subject to different dining experiences from time to time. Some of these experiences range from a quick service concept offering low price, speed and consistency to a fine dining which deliver an experience, style and ambience. Regardless of what kinds of experiences they may encounter and how frequent it might be, it is the food quality that provokes the outcome of the consumer behaviour (Collie and Sparks 1999). Obviously, learning about consumer behaviour in the foodservice industry is not a simple task. Khan (1991) argues that "no matter how sophisticated preparation methods are or how attractively foods are served, a menu is of little practical value if the foods in it are not liked by the consumer". To comprehend fully the intricacies involved in food and foodservice preferences, it is necessary to analyse all interrelated aspects. Some of the efficiency strategies that are highlighted in foodservice literature are as follows:

From the Consumers' View Points

Looking at the intrinsic factors, it is argued that how the food is being prepared and presented on the plate dictate affections on consumer preferences. This is because first sighting of the food, to some extent, creates both desirable and undesirable attributes. "Familiar foods are easily recognised and the sight of unfamiliar ones gives rise to a state of alertness which last until they are tasted and approved" (Cracknell and Nobis 1985: 18). Needful to say, each or a combination of these intrinsic factors, such as appearance, colour, odour, texture, temperature, flavour and quality indeed have profound affect on food preferences and acceptances (Khan 1991; Jones 1988).

On the other hand, extrinsic factors involve four direct external factors that can influence food preferences and acceptances. Firstly, the types of restaurant are quite important on consumer preferences. Each of these restaurants portrait different concepts and therefore their menu characteristics is also varied. For instance, the effect of a fine dining restaurant on food preferences and acceptances compared to a fast food restaurant is obvious. Secondly, the quality of the food, in most case, is a function of the situation in which it is to be consumed. Food is expected to be good when it is associated with social or

business occasions. For example, foods that are served at a business function are expected to be something outstanding, which co-relates with the occasion itself.

Thirdly, the influence of advertising on consumers eating habit cannot be denied (Jones 1988). Advertising and sales promotion is one of the dominant methods that are used to increase food profitability and introduce new menu items. Consumers are tempted to try new food when it is appealingly advertised. Fourthly, selecting the right foods at the right time at the right place appear to be somewhat immune to the influence of the natural phenomena such as climate variations, availability of foods supply and the day of the week. For example, ice cream is regarded a popular preferences during the hot summer months. Hours of meal service and length of the meal times may also have an effect on food preferences.

Apart from the two factors discussed above, physiological disorders can have a profound effect on food preferences by changing the appreciation, perception, or appetite toward food. These changes are often associated with psychological influences commonly related to health, age and gender. For instance, an old woman that is health conscious surely affects her food preferences and acceptances. In addition, personal factors may also likely effect food preferences. For example, the term 'value for money' is the common perception that associates with the individual expectations and satisfaction (Asseal, 1994) when comes to food preferences. The selection of foods is judged based on what is expected which in turn fulfil the individual's satisfaction.

However, there is no precise answer that tells the exact level of individual's satisfaction but such socio-psychological theory provides some fundamental guideline. For example, the level of expectation is much higher at a fine dining restaurant compare to a fast food restaurant. Needless to say, "people perceive things as they expect them to be, rather than as they are" (Khan 1991: 57). Secondly, according to Maslow's theory the hierarchy of needs suggests that people satisfy their lower level needs before the next needs at the next level can be activated. What inspires about this theory is that people are only motivated to seek for the upper vertical of needs after the lower level of needs is fulfilled. Therefore, in this case, the selection of foods is in fact depends on the level of needs that the individual pursuing. To the utmost cases, priority starts at the basic food preferences that are enough to justify his or her hunger. However, when hunger is no longer the issue, priority will starts at more authentic gourmet foods, which associate with the next level of self-actualisation needs that is for personal fulfilment (Khan 1991).

Thirdly, personal dining experiences also have a great impact on food preferences and acceptances. Favourable dining experiences lead to lasting familiarisation of the food choice while unfavourable experience results to adverse effect on the food choice (Khan 1991). Finally, Influences of other persons, such as celebrities, friends, and family have the influence on individual food preferences. Notably, many restaurants have the strategy of advertising their foods that associates with popular person.

From the Management's View Points

The chef gastronomic expertise to employees serving skills has enormous influences on product innovation and creativity. Previous study have cited the cities of Sydney, Adelaide and Melbourne, which their foodservice market are known to have highly saturated yet, innovative gastronomic cuisines introduced by many full-service restaurants have made these cities as being one of the world's leading gastronomic food destinations (Spark, Bowen, and Klag 2003). To a large extent, the level of personal skills requirement depends on the types of restaurant establishments. Ideally, the personal skills must coincide with the degree of the menu requirements, which in fact correspond with the type of the restaurant concepts. In a general overview, there are five types of restaurant and each of them has a different menu characteristics and operational features (Muller and Woods 1994).

From a restaurant's concepts, it dictates what product efficiencies needs to be offered (Jones 1996a) and this subsequently correspond to what personal skills needed to be adhered to in order to achieve the goals and objectives of the organisation. For instance, the quick service restaurant would probably suit with the 'fast-food concept' where discretion, attitude or skills of its employees are less dominant (Ball 1994). In contrast, up-scale restaurant is obviously highly dependant on the individual skill and expertise from the serving staff and chef due to the menu's complexity and customisation (Jones 1996a).

Fuller and Waller (1991) suggest that the purchasing/installation of equipment should be decided only after the product concept is finalised. Existing equipment provision should be reviewed periodically in the light of the actual product requirements. This is because proper types of equipment and its arrangement layout lead to smooth operation. Efficient product planning requires a well-balanced approach toward the utilisation of materials, equipment and employees. Furthermore, the right combination of equipment utilisation results in prolonged life span of the equipment. In addition, capitalising the size and capacity of the equipment available is worth to be

considered. However, this again reflects to the availability of goods supply, which dictates some of the goods are readily available without having to prepare from scratch.

Determinants of New Product Development Strategy

The theory of strategy shed some lights as how it is seen as a way of integrating the activities of the diverse functional departments within a firm, including marketing, production, research and development, procurement, finance, and the like (Porter 1991). The acceptability of firm success lies on the multifunctional activities that are closely intertwined. Nonetheless, deploying the best strategy will not bear fruitful outcomes without efficient organization (Oetinger 2004). The degree of integration of the activities is relatively subjective and hard to measure, and varies from one individual decision-making to another and to some extent, confine to the firm's policies. Thus, a question that is worth asking is what strategy best fit in order to develop/ introduce a product that is quick to produce and able to sustain itself profitably in a competitive market for a reasonable period? Emerging of new theory of strategy for business planning in academia is plentiful. One should wonder why despite the fact that the refinement of NPD strategy is well highlighted in literature, yet, as far as it is known, none of these models of strategy totally embraced in actual industry practice. The answer to this lies to the following discussions.

The decision to which direction the ship should go is simply rest on the captain's hands on the navigation wheel. The agility of the captain to navigate the ship in an open sea that is so uncertain and unpredictable is very much depend on his experience and whichever direction he made correspond to his risk-taking decision-making behaviour. In Miles and Snow's (1978) typology of strategic types, four archetypes- prospectors, analyzers, defenders, and reactors- were introduced to classify firm orientation and/or individual decision-making behaviours toward product-market development. Based on these strategic archetypes, to some degrees, strategy of the firm may fall either one or a combination of the four Miles and Snow's archetypes. Indeed, such strategic type will lead the ship to its intended journey. Nevertheless, we argue that a wise captain will not take the risk to gamble to continue the journey when facing rough and stormy sea. As the unexpected uncontrollable environmental changes do occurs, firms are forced to re-align their strategic types. It should be recognized that whatever changes to the taste of consumers' preferences and acceptances, firms that are able to cater this changes are likely to gain

competitive advantage. Therefore, to some extent, firm's strategy does change over times due to changes in the market demands.

CONCLUSIONS

Firms that operate their businesses in turbulent competitive markets face greater challenges to achieve competitive advantage. Introducing a new product that is quick to develop and able to sustain itself profitably in a competitive market for a reasonable period is what firms dream about. The conceptualization of NPD strategy is well presented in literature. The refinement of NPD strategy over the past few decades helps to comprehend the intricacies from various variables intertwined together. Indeed, models of NPD strategy have been developed more than four decades ago. To date such refinement of NPD strategy models is still being developed and test of their validity. This to some extent, wonder why there is a 'never-ending story' of this issue, which may implied that some of the NPD strategy models are mere hypotheses, which need to be tested its validity in empirical research.

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Putting a Face on the Bones: Marketing Sterkfontein as Premier African Tourist Destination

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INTRODUCTION

A handful of the world's great cities trace their heritage to early human settlements thousands of years back. Johannesburg's earliest residents were in the neighborhood three or four million years ago.

Visitors to Johannesburg in the Gauteng province in South Africa are greeted by a provocative tourist advertisement that invites you to fit four million years into your visit. Granted, many sites promise to take you back hundreds of years, thousands even. Heritage tourism embraces among other sites, visits to places of importance where particular cultures and people have dominated. However, once you are promised visits extending back millions of years to revisit the very earliest of natural locations, a period of pre-culture and indeed pre-people, as we are now acquainted with these terms, you are in the domain of palaeo-tourism.

Palaeo-anthropology is concerned with the origins of humankind and the fossil evidence for this evolution from ape to human. Palaeo-tourism itself is a term that describes tourism based on fossil and archaeological sites of significance. This paper considers the example of palaeo-tourism in the Sterkfontein Cave, situated in the geographic space named the Cradle of Humankind World Heritage Site. The paper however, will look at how tourist experiences are shaped and appended to experiences of a redefined self. This redefined self is actualised through a process of selectively appropriating, modeling and canonizing certain artefacts that articulate new ways of recognizing that self previously rendered invisible in history.

The paper will look at the marketing metaphor and narrative strategies that are sustained for the Sterkfontein Cave and the Cradle that make the past present in the here and now and connects the defined self to an unbroken trajectory of prehistory. The marketing mechanism functions to promote a particular set of sponsored allegories in celebration of this self. This is facilitated through the use of particular interpretations and representations of the fossil artefacts, which in turn aid in the production of a founding narrative that attempts to recover a privileged relationship with the past. From the naming of the interpretive centre of the Sterkfontein Cave, to the design vocabulary of the centre, to the introduction provided in the Field-guide to the Cradle of Humankind, there is a particular face and identity grafted onto these bones. Through web and media communications, and architectural design the Cradle is marketed as the birthplace of the world's humanity. Humanity and all people are seen as having their roots in Africa, and being in essence African.

Heritage Tourism

Tourism is a burgeoning industry and heritage tourism is a field of tourism that most countries seek actively to develop, being as it is a showcase, of often what is unique to that particular country.

Of tourism in the new democratic South Africa, says Marschall,

"In South Africa, … since the advent of the post-apartheid period, the country has been fascinated – if not obsessed – with the identification, celebration, evaluation, reassessment and, not least, commodification of "heritage". (Marschall 2005a:103) Marschall's research focus has been the South African monuments and their relationship to power and national identity. Our particular focus is the site of the Cradle of Humankind, which is an example of this celebration of heritage.

Architectural Design

The Cradle of Humankind comprises about forty fossil sites, 13 of which have been excavated. About forty percent of the world's hominid, that is, human ancestor fossils has been found here. A massive monolith at the side of the road beckons the entrance to the most famous of the caves, Sterkfontein. Attached to Sterkfontein is a newly revamped museum that houses scientifically accurate fossil replicas. Guided tours are offered at Sterkfontein where the guides are from the community, and have been trained by palaeo-anthropologists.

While the various palaeo-archeological sites of the Cradle attract the attention of both lay tourist and specialised scientist alike, the newly built interpretive complex of Maropeng is specifically designed for the tourist.

This is a Tumulus shaped building and in all the official media releases, claimed as being the first of its kind in the world opening to the public on 9 December

2005. The building is designed to look like an ancient burial mound. The engineered form of the mound, we are told in the press communications, signify all those of the past who are buried in the African land. Another press article in the local newspaper tells us that the significance of the Tumulus is to pay homage to the spirituality of burial of past societies in that area (www.joburg.org.za).

The Tumulus itself comprises four stories with a basement level consisting of an underground lake. Thus the spatial ordering places the bottom-most level inside the ground and continues the metaphor of the burial mound. Visitors explore this along a delineated path moving through a time line. Thereafter, the journey continues through an experience highlighting the history of our world and humankind as a species, brought to life via audiovisual techniques and theme-park technology. From here you enter a square tube cave, following another time line. The cave is designed to resemble a spine, with vertebrae protruding above the ground, and is designed to be the focus of the walk back.

A Tumulus is a mound of earth and stones raised over a grave. Tumuli are also known as barrows or burial mounds and can be found throughout much of the world. Thus the architectural idiom is not quite African vernacular.

However, just as the structure attempts a symbiosis between an ancient looking façade and modern rear view, so too is there a symbiosis between working in an ancient, yet universally found architectural expression while ascribing to it an African relevance in claiming that the structure symbolises all those in the past that have been buried, in Africa. Whether overtly intentional or not, articulating the significance of the design in such a manner renders the architectural expression that much more readable. For in African traditional religion, belief in the ancestors is an integral part of the worldview where worship and respect is offered to the ancestral beings.

Furthermore, the Tumulus, the official press-reports declares is designed to look like an ancient burial mound from the front and, a modern structure from the rear. Again the marriage of the ancient and universal in the form of the mound roots us in the past, while the modern materials and functionality places us squarely in the present. The exterior is constructed of steel, glass and concrete. All these serve as covert pointers to our origins in the past and our evolution to the present and show our original beginnings and civilized present all tracing back to the rooted mound in Africa.

In addition the Tumulus echoes what by now is becoming a sustained marketing refrain, that all who have passed on are African ancestors. The Tumulus may well be a universal burial mound that can be found over much of the European world, but the people buried, are claimed as being related to the African in Africa, and so continues the theme of reclamation. Thus, while the design is not local, it nevertheless speaks in a South African architectural language. Marschall and Kearney have researched architecture in the new South Africa. Their book (2000) predates the construction of Maropeng (2004-2005) by a few years. Yet all of six years into the country's democracy they have numerous examples of architectural designs in their discussion of (architectural) opportunities for relevance. They point out that all too often attempts at Africanised architecture focus on the superficial inclusion of familiar 'African' forms. (Marschall and Kearney 2000:167) They rightly inform us that much more that the readily recognisable form of the African vernacular needs to be assimilated. They remind us that the most important concept in African societies is ubuntu, which very loosely communicates the belief that an individual is only truly defined by his/her relationship to other people (ibid: 170-71). This notion is indeed a vital construct of the African worldview. It is the lens through which he/she understands himself/herself. Thus, relevant architecture that seeks to articulate an African vernacular needs to be cognisant of such essential tenets in the way different parts of the building are relationally designed and positioned to one another. This is clearly expressed in African traditional architecture with their aspects of communal design and access in their circular arrangement and relational positioning of the homesteads showing the different homes in spatial relationship to one another.

The architecture of the interpretive site is claimed as having been designed to symbolize the journey through time from our ancient origins to today. The architectural language is in that sense meant to communicate to us our relationship to the archaeological site of the Cradle and our relationship to the unfolding evolution of humankind here. The architectural language is thus readily comprehensible and does indeed emerge as relevant - relevant to what the site wishes to sell to the tourist, that is to say. Heritage sites are after all places of consumption, and as such they will be consumed at different levels by different categories of tourists. (Graham et al. 2000:20) Consumption presupposes a consumable, which in this instance is provided by the particular representations in the so-called interpretive center. Interpretation is a communication process designed to reveal meanings and relationships. The

design, both inside and out is meant to facilitate us, the visitor, discovering our relationship to our history, our so-called real roots.

The web site puts it thus:

From the moment the visitor arrives at the car park the journey of discovery starts. The iconic architecture and layout of the sites sets the scene for discovery as the huge mound of the Tumulus comes into view (www.joburg.org.za).

Indeed the sustained refrain of the website is entrenched in the slogan of "Discover Yourself".

The official website explains that the name Maropeng means "returning to the place of origin", in the indigenous Setswana language. The narrative continues, that:

Maropeng has been chosen as the name of the new visitors center at the Cradle of Humankind to remind us that the ancestors of all humans, wherever they may live today, originally, came from Africa. When visiting the Cradle of Humankind, people are actually 'returning to their place of origin.'

The home page of Sterkfontein Caves tells us that:

"…returning to the place of origin is the theme of the visitor attraction and highlights the fact that humankind originated from Africa".

http://www.discoveryourself.co.za/sterkfontein/source/content/media/media.htm.

The Logo/Narrative as Representation

Virtually every human society holds a fascination with our deep past. For many, the scientific study of human origins called palaeo-anthropology is one of the most exciting scientific fields because it investigates the origin, over millions of year, of the universal and defining traits that make our species what it is. The logo is said to be an artistic depiction of this origin.

The narrative in the web page and pamphlet of Maropeng then goes on to explain the interpretation embedded in the logo itself, stating that the depiction of the world denotes the universal significance of the Cradle of Humankind, the location of Maropeng. We are told that it is the ancestral home to all people, no matter what colour, culture or creed they are. The various executive members of Management, in various press releases, echo this bequeathing.

The depiction of Africa and the foot in Africa stepping beyond Africa is explained as denoting humankind's origin as species. We are told that our hominid ancestors moved out of Africa northwards, and spread across the globe, while continuing to evolve.

We are informed in elegant and evocative language that:

Long, long ago, millions of moons back …

Africa gave birth in her steamy jungles and great rift valleys and along her pristine coastlines to humankind. You and I, and all our ancestors, can trace back our bloodlines to our common ancestry in the heat, dust and beauty of this great continent.

A visit to Maropeng, in the cradle of humankind is to step back into the past and to ponder our origins as a species.

The narrative of the logo draws from sound assumptions and palaeo-anthropological theories. Indeed it carries a quotation from the world-renown palaeo-anatomist, Prof. Phillip Tobias of the University of Witwatersrand himself who states that:

"In our quest to get nearer to the truth of how humans evolved, there is no part of the world that has yielded more secrets than the dozen or more fossil-bearing caves in the cradle of Humankind."

The logo of the footprints that originate on the continent of Africa, and then step beyond is evocative rendering of the Out of Africa theory. There are two contending theories for the emergence of modern humans. The first is the Multi-Regional Theory, which puts forward that early human ancestors in the form of Homo erectus evolved in different parts of the world in geographically discreet spaces such as Java, China and parts of Europe and from these parts migrated to populate other parts of the world. Until recently this was the dominant theory that was widely accepted.

Don Johanson states that approximately 100,000 years ago, the World was occupied by a morphologically diverse group of hominids. In Africa and the Middle East there was Homo sapiens; in Asia, Homo erectus; and in Europe, Homo neanderthalensis. By 30,000 years ago however, this taxonomic diversity vanishes and humans in all parts of the world had evolved into both the anatomically and behaviorally modern form. Johanson points out that the nature of this transformation is the focus of great difference and debate between two schools of thought: One that stresses multiregional continuity and the other that suggests a single origin for modern humans.

(http://www.mnsu.edu/emuseum/information/biography)

The *Multiregional Continuity Model* holds that after Homo erectus left Africa and dispersed into other portions of the Old World, regional populations slowly evolved into modern humans.

In contrast, the *Out of Africa Model* affirms that modern humans evolved relatively recently, that they evolved in Africa, migrated into Eurasia and in turn replaced all populations, which had descended from Homo erectus.

For Don Johanson an eminent palaeo-scientist and the discoverer of the world famous fossil assemblage Lucy, "the majority of anatomical, archaeological and genetic evidence gives credence to the view that fully modern humans are a relatively recent evolutionary phenomenon." And that the beginning of modern humans points to the Out of Africa Model that postulates a single, African origin for Homo sapiens.

(http://www.mnsu.edu/emuseum/information/biography)

And this is the scientific model that is appropriated and becomes a kind of founding narrative for the interpretive center of Sterkfontein.

However, as recently as few weeks prior to the writing of this, in February 2 2006, is released yet another scientific report by yet another leading palaeo-anthropologist, A Templeton. A journalist puts it thus:

A new, more robust analysis of recently derived human gene trees by Alan R. Templeton, … shows three distinct major waves of human migration out of Africa instead of just two, and statistically refutes — strongly — the 'Out of Africa' replacement theory.

Such is the nature of the current controversy. Although most scientists are inclined to view the evidential import of single origin or Out of Africa, the scientific jury is still out and sustained ongoing palaeo- archaeological discoveries coupled with mDNA studies forces a review of both the theories almost consistently.

However, the narrative of the logo is the epic story of humankind's journey from ape to human that privileges a particular scientific viewpoint reifying that viewpoint as true while relegating the other Multiregional model as untrue. In the discussion of the relationships amongst heritage, power and identity, Graham et al. (2000:33), refer to a polyvocality of interpretation. They also iterate that "none the less, the images portrayed are selected by someone, thereby raising issues of privileging or suppressing particular viewpoints".

Most evidence, claim some scientists, points to the first Out of Africa theory because:

1. Fossils of modern-like humans are found in Africa
2. Stone tools and other artefacts support African origin
3. DNA studies suggest a founding population in Africa

However, the words:

- trace our bloodlines, rather than trace our DNA;
- Africa gave birth to humanity;

- are not exactly scientific jargon. The scientific theory is itself overly simplified and reified as definitive truth and is an example of selective appropriation and remembering. This glosses over the fact that the origin of humans is probably one of the most hotly contested issues in paleoanthropology.

Marschall states "every new political order forms a group identity through a process of selective remembering and invention of usable pasts", (Marschall 2005:19). In the case of Sterkfontein it is a prehistoric usable past drawn from science, but selectively so. The logo is thus not national wishful thinking, artistic license or fabrication. It is based on sound scientific theory. The narrative that wraps around this however, is clothed in emotively rich language that celebrates this scientific theory as a socio-political vindication of Africa as original birthplace. The politics of representation is shaped by and in turn moulds the mechanisms by which heritage is interpreted. (Graham et al. 2000:30).

Palaeo-Heritage and Identity

In an article entitled *Making Money from Memories Marschall* states that, "if heritage is a vehicle for nation building and for constructing a new identity, its commodification and exploitation for tourism serves to portray that identity to the outside world (2005a: 108).

In another article on forging national identity she (Marschall) talks of the construction or forging of a compelling foundation myth (2005b:19-20). She asserts that the foundation myth traces the roots and defines the birth of a new nation, and gives us the framework into which events and artefacts may be embedded.

In any society, certain memories are valued, because they are linked to that society's present sense of identity or a new identity it intends to foster. Through institutionalized remembrance we want to ensure that selected individual or collective memories are incorporated into cultural memory (ibid).

Here though it is not so much a myth but a scientific construct that is appropriated. Acceptance and appropriation of the Out of Africa Model for human evolution returns the African people to what is understood by some to be their place as pivotal actors in the saga of evolution and the culmination in humanity. And when intellectuals who are not specifically trained as scientists task themselves with speaking in a scientific idiom it goes without saying that there are subtexts of socio-political commentary that are attached where the science more often than not serves the ends of the socio-political rhetoric.

This is also the thrust of the address entitled Africa's Roots of Humanity and Civilization, given in 2000 for Africa Commemoration Day, by Runoko Rashidi where he asserts that his paper is designed to help reconnect and refocus the history of the African.

… "That Other African." This is not the stereotypical African savage, but the African that first peopled the earth, and gave birth to or significantly influenced the world's oldest and most magnificent civilizations. This is the African that first entered Asia, Europe, Australia, the South Pacific, and the early Americas not as slave, but as master. We now know, based on recent scientific studies of DNA, that modern humanity, originated in Africa, that Black people are the world's original people, and that all modern humans can ultimately trace their ancestral roots back to Africa. If not for the primordial migrations of early African people, humanity would have remained physically Africoid, and the rest of the world outside of the African continent absent of human life. (www.cwo.coml-lucomi/runoko.html)

Embedded in this speech by a writer-historian of sorts, are a multitude of negations. There is a vehement negation of the African as other, as the native, as the barbarian, as the uncivilized, and as the primitive. Compounded to this denial are certain reclamations, that of greatest antiquity, African as original, as civilized and as authoring humanity everywhere through his prehistoric migrations.

This claim to prehistory continues in the words of the CEO of Maropeng a' Africa, Rob King who asserts that the development "is not only part of our national pride, but of the world", claiming that the centre's logo "denotes the universal relevance of the Cradle of Humankind as the ancestral home to all, no matter what colour, culture or creed" *(http://www.southafrica.info/pls/procs/iac.page)*. Brand manager for Maropeng, Chrissi Dunk states that, "Maropeng at the Cradle of Humankind is not only part of our national pride …" The rest of that sentence is an echo of the Rob King, except that she adds, "after all we share 99% of our DNA" *(http://www.discoveryourself.co.za/sterkfontein/source/content/media)*. The premier of Gauteng Shilowa claims:

"If we want to make sense of where we are going as a nation, and what our future holds, we need to make sense of where we come from. … Make sense of our heritage hence the name Maropeng" *(http://www.southafrica.info/pls/procs/iac.page)*.

Understandably it is an eminent person in the shape of Thabo Mbeki, the President of South Africa, who is asked to formally open the Maropeng center as he had the Sterkfontein Caves a few years ago. Here he states that the Cradle could be compared to a massive 47-hectare library of archeological and palaeontological information with Maropeng offering an abundant reference section. He adds that, "Maropeng is our own 21st century humble contribution to record for posterity the story of evolutionary human biology and geography as it unfolds,"

(http://www.discoveryourself.co.za/sterkfontein/source/content/media/media/htm)

Also understandable, albeit, for a rather different reason, why it is that a political giant, the same President of South Africa, rather than a scientific giant or anthropologist that is tasked with writing the foreword to the Field Guide to the Cradle of Humankind. Here Mbeki asserts in much more muscular words that:

… the book is itself an important contribution to the understanding of human evolution and emphasizes the centrality of South Africa and other countries on the African continent in unraveling the important subject of our origins….[W]e are able to proclaim that humanity emerged in the highlands and savannas of the vast African continent. (Hilton-Barber et al 2002:4)

Mbeki, later in the same foreword states that: "As a result of rigorous studies by numerous scientists, we now know that, and list the following:

-   South Africa and other African countries have yielded fossils that prove that humans originated in Africa, and that it was here that that they first walked on two feet

-   It was on the African continent that our early human ancestors developed larger brains relative to other primates;

- Modern technology originated in East Africa, where the first stone tools were manufactured and used;

- Our early human ancestors first controlled and made fire in South Africa.

He goes on to say that it is these very innovations and inventions that are in large part, evident in the Cradle of Humankind, and have allowed "humanity to colonize the entire world, and develop a variety of civilizations at different points in our history." (ibid: 5). Mbeki ascribes all the great ancient civilizations to be essentially African in origin. There is an interesting inversion of the word colonize here used perhaps in a more scientific idiom, when a species makes a home somewhere. However, it juxtaposes against the use of colonize as an act of dominance and control, as an act laying claim to and taking possession of a place over the weaker categories of people. Especially the African peoples who have lived a long history of slavery and oppression. Mbeki continues that, despite these imperative contributions to humanity, "Africa today is poor and underdeveloped, the result of a brutal slave trade and subsequent colonial and neo-colonial plunder" (ibid), and goes on to say:

 "Accordingly, as Africans, we must overcome the debilitating effects of an unjust past that sought to inculcate the notion that black people are by nature inferior [and we] … should help Africans realize that, having given birth to humanity, we must reverse the effects of …dehumanization that have characterized our recent past." (ibid).

He ends by proclaiming his hope that "our [the government's} investment in the Cradle of Humankind … will give the people of the world an opportunity to better understand their own origin, evolution and development into sophisticated modern human beings." (ibid) This emerges as a clear exercise in a sort of re-inheritance by those written out of history, with a claim now to prehistory, and reminds us that heritage is also a political resource (Graham et al. 2000:18).

The Rejection of the African Specimen

In a paper in the Transactions of the Royal Society of SA Tobias et al look at the establishment of palaeo-anthropology as a discipline in South Africa and point to the founding figures of Raymond Dart and Robert Broom. They point out that in the first half of the 20th century the preoccupation of many scholars was the search for the so-called missing link. In the wake of this are two classic fossil finds. The Taung Child in South Africa and Peking man in China. We are told

though that the two discoveries of the 1920s were however, differentially accepted (Tobias et al: 2001:1), and that the specimen from Africa was subjected to immense resistance, which lasted for about 30 years. The fossil discovery from China had almost immediate acceptance as being that of an ancestral hominid. The question of course is why this history of rejection for one and acceptance for the other, given that neither fossil specimen was a fake and, and are now viewed as seminal benchmarks in the way that other fossil discoveries are measured and understood? Tobias et al take us through a list of six biases that prejudice against the acceptance of the Taung fossil. Some biases are understandable given the morphological considerations in that the Taung specimen was of a child while Peking was an adult. There were also still creationist biases at work that were more amenable to the more anthropus-like or man-like Peking, that the more pithecus or ape-like Taung. Other biases are baldly political. These are referred to (ibid: 1-2) as:

1) Geographical locality

2) Geocentric biases

3) The Piltdown competitor

Regarding number one, it was Asia that was considered by most researchers to be the cradle of Humankind even though Charles Darwin had predicted Africa as the birthplace as this was where the great apes were to be found. Peking man it appeared was in the right continent while the Taung Child was not (ibid). Geocentric bias is explained as European prejudice against both Africa and Africans, culminating in the rejection of the claims of the African fossil as the unauthentic "other". There was less prejudice toward the Orient, which appeared alluring and magical.

Lastly, The Piltdown fossil, which was found in Britain, appeared to have better pedigree. Tobias et al (ibid) point to the fact that this fossil discovered a decade earlier was in keeping with current theory about brain size. The Taung Child exhibited a cranial capacity and pithecus suite of features that went against the grain of the prevailing 'science'. However, my sense is also that this fossil was more readily accepted because it was found in the right geographical space. When presented in its home country to the esteemed members of the Royal Geographical Society it was met with great enthusiasm, despite the fact that some scientists had grave misgivings about the specimen. These were understandable misgivings, considering that a routine examination some decades later in the wake of new technology, reveals the Piltdown specimen to

be a fake. There was thus much more to be read into the acceptance and rejection of the early specimens in the throes of prevailing biases and at a time when scientific analysis was in its infancy and could not be called to render a more dispassionate verdict

This rejection of Africa and the African has been of course entrenched in deep intellectual superiority over the 'other' that expresses itself in the violence of the rejection and exclusivistic denial of the other. It is perhaps, although not specifically, but generally against such a particular trajectory of a history of rejection that Mbeki makes the whole world African in origin. Spaces always exist for dissident voices to write back against the other from their own positions. In the newly constructed artefacts, the narrative representations, the African or native is no longer the marginalized other of the imperialistic ethnologist and anthropologist. In an interesting twist in the tale the 'other' has written himself as the privileged one, and sees himself as in the position to, not create a different other, but seeks to abandon that term altogether rendering all others as the same one. All colonial dualisms are eschewed in a bid for a common past or heritage. Graham et al (2000:236) assert that the concept of a common heritage of humanity has universal appeal and serves to reinforce the ideals of human equality and common destiny, a forward looking future. In this context it is common descent, or past that is reinforced.

Colonialism has created a discontinuity in the history of the country (Kruger et al 2005: 242), or rather in the recording of the history of the marginalised categories of people. An abandoning or throwing off of the shackles of the inferior native or other demonstrates also a clear move to insert the histories of those previously rendered absent, as without a history. In Jacob Zuma's, the former president of South Africa's address at the National Heritage Council Civil Society Conference he refers to the birth of democracy in South Africa in 1994 and states:

… We had to introduce the history and experience of the Black majority into the archives and heritage architecture of our country. We had to reverse the legacy of apartheid, which had rendered black people almost non-existent in the cultural institutions and symbols of our country.

(www. anc.org.za/ancdocs/history/zuma/2005/jz0312.html)

He refers to the South African hosting of the World Heritage Committee in July of this year and lists the issues that he felt ought to be raised at that gathering to be that "the role of heritage sites in the development, production and

transformation of identities", among others, adding that "the promotion and preservation of the country should move from the margins to the mainstream" (ibid.).

This transforming of identities and the introduction into the history and experience of the African majority into the archives and heritage architecture of the country summons into play an archetypal narrative of ones origin, either reinserted from the past or newly constructed. Marschall reminds us that at the center of nation are to be found narration, stories of national origins, myths of founding fathers, and genealogies of heroes. (Marschall: 2005:19) Here though we have a genealogy of early humankind, the heroes are Taung Child, Mrs. Ples and Little Foot, the founding fathers are Raymond Dart and Robert Broom. Raymond Dart was of course the one who provided the analysis for the Taung cranial specimen, the specimen that was eventually accepted as a new species, Australopithecus Africanus, or Southern ape of Africa. His supporter Robert Broom, the founder of Mrs. Ples, another Australopithecine specimen that vindicated Dart's claims and the more recent Philip Tobias and Ron Clark the discoverer of the fossil skeleton Little Foot. Thus Mrs. Ples, Little Foot and the Taung Child figure prominently in the genealogy of heroes of the new founding narrative. These are now epic heroes, the discovery of whom, offers vindication to the supporters of the Out of Africa theory of human beginnings. Mrs. Ples was discovered in the embedded breccia and initially named plesianthropus transvenlesis or near human of the Transvaal and is the most complete cranium of Australopithecus Africanus found to date. Little foot is the name given to the four million year old skeleton, also found at Sterkfontein. Little Foot itself is the most complete skeleton of Australopithecus Africanus.

The web site of Maropeng presents Mrs. Ples and Little Foot with a history that tie in with our present. They are the fossil conduits that help in re-claiming the past. Although more scientific descriptions of the australopithecine finds are made in the Sterkfontein web site windows, the Maropeng or the interpretive centre windows presents these hominids as characters that that all of us can relate to. Each short description culminates in endorsing the idea of humankind's birth in Africa. The website poses and answers the questions thus:

Who is Mrs. Ples?

"Mrs. Ples was born over two million years ago and lived and died in the Cradle of Humankind. An australopithecine like Little Foot, Mrs. Ples was almost human in that she could walk upright, but had a smaller brain, similar in

size to that of a modern chimpanzee. In 1947, Dr Robert Broom and his assistant, John Robinson, discovered her skull buried at the Sterkfontein Caves. Their discovery highlighted the possibility that humankind was born in Africa - something many were skeptical of at the time". (Italics mine)

Who is Little Foot?

"One day, around 4.17-million years ago, a small australopithecine - an ancestor of all modern humans - tripped and fell down a steep, covered, vertical shaft into a cave below. He never escaped from the cave, and now lies, his skull resting on an outstretched arm, embedded in the rock, bearing witness to the fact that humanity was born in Africa".(italics mine)

(http://www.discoveryourself.co.za/sterkfontein/source/content/media/media/htm)

Conclusion

In the final analysis heritage in the context of Sterkfontein is multi-sold and consumed at various levels, archaeological site (Sterkfontein) and interpretive site (Maropeng). At the latter the authored models of narrativised and architectural representations, are inextricably entwined with defining a new African self-rooted in the birth of humanity. The visit to the Cradle is robustly touted as a return to the roots of you and I and as a return to the beginnings of your and my humanity. The narrative and architectural representations fossilize and become artefacts that are experienced by the tourist in as much as are the material artefacts, the actual bones.

South Africa is indeed home to some world famous assemblages of human fossil remains. Myriad fossil assemblages of australopithecines embedded deep in the breccias have been excavated in the dolomite caves in the various sites such as Swartkrans, Gladysvale and Drimolen, all in the Cradle of Humankind. Evidence of early tool technologies and evidence of the earliest documented controlled use of fire are also present at Swartkrans. And southern and east Africa has been accepted by a large section of human evolution scientists as being the original ground for the emergence of both anatomically modern humans in the form of Homo Sapiens Sapiens, as well as early culture, in the form of stone tool technologies and body décor.

However, these palaeo-anthropological discoveries and theories are appropriated and pressed into the service of affirming an African identity for the world at large, with Africa declared as the home of the world's ancestors and calls into question privileged interpretations and representations of

heritage. This canonized interpretation emerges as a prismatic reflection of African identity where the lines blur between anthropological theories and national proprietorship and pride and where the fossils are situated as artefacts of a new heritage.

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Customers Assessment of Ethnic Restaurants: A Comparison of Indian Muslim and Malay Restaurants

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates factors moderating customers of patronizing restaurants and examine whether there are any similarities and differences in the propensity and susceptibility among the customers towards patronizing Indian Muslim and Malay restaurants. Survey was conducted at four Indian Muslim and Malay restaurants Shah Alam area (capital city state of Selangor). Forty completed questionnaire were obtained from each restaurant with the total of 320 respondents. Besides quality of food, efficient and consistent of service are considered as major factors contribute to customers' propensity of patronizing restaurants, follows by the availability of snack food, opening hours and serving varieties of food. Significant differences exist between Indian Muslim and Malay restaurants in term of customers' expectations and perceptions. Efficient and consistent of service, availability of snack food, employees' friendliness and pleasant internal environment are the major determinant influencing customers' propensity and it appears that these elements were met in Indian Muslim restaurant compared to Malay restaurants. However, there is strong evidence that the majority of customers explicitly perceived that Malay restaurants offered food that suit for all appetite and serving more versatile food than did the Indian Muslim restaurants. Malay restaurant operators therefore should not overlook the positive perceptions held by the customers, but rather consider concentrating on other elements that can attract more customers on priority basis.

Keywords: food service, food experience, food quality, comparative analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Restaurant businesses are seen now as one of the fastest growing sectors within the foodservice industry in Malaysia. A chic unconventional restaurants mushrooming all over the place occupying strategic corner of shop lots, housing estates, heritage bungalows, near popular nightspots even the disused building (Nadzri 2005). The changes in demand of customers' tastes, eating out habits

probably caused of this boom. In addition, the multi-culture patterns of ethnic groups might also give significant impact on the growth through a magnificent blend of foods, service, ambience, design and range of cuisines. From this new wave the choices of restaurants has becoming unlimited either for upscale, medium scale restaurants, café, coffee shop or coffee tiam (Chinese) to a hawker stalls and pushcarts. However, for this paper focus is specifically given to medium scale of ethnic restaurants.

As upscale restaurants, medium scale ethnic restaurants are made up of three major ethnic groups namely Malays, Chinese and Indians (Indian Hindu and Indian Muslim). They are well accepted as most of these restaurants incorporate cuisines from each ethnic group and formed a unique Malaysian gastronomic heritage. In fact, many medium scales of ethnic restaurants now do a little bit of everything to keep up with changing trends to satisfy customers' wide-ranging tastes. Malay restaurants for instance often described of serving spicy and flavorful food ranging from famous nasi lemak, rendang, masak lemak, masak asam pedas to a variety of noodles dishes are no longer concentrated on their treasures of cuisines. Similar to Chinese and Indian restaurants, although their cuisines are greatly influence by their originate descendants most of them are broadening their horizons by combining the flavors and taste to suit other ethnic favorites. Clear examples can be seen in chicken rice, sweet and sour sup, idlee, prata, nasi kandar, mee goreng and many more. However, despite of these changes most of the Chinese and Indian Hindu restaurants are popular among its own ethnic. This probably because the Malays who represent a large Muslim population were strictly concerned on halal and haram of food they consumed. Therefore, Malay customers were found less keen to patronizing these restaurants. This is not to generalize that all Chinese and Indian Hindu restaurants serving non-halal food.

The above scenario has given Malay and Indian Muslim popularly known as Mamak restaurants competing with each other in attracting customers especially among the Malays. Nevertheless, Indian Muslim restaurant restaurants are believe to be more popular than Malays restaurants of the same class. This is evidence as Indian Muslim restaurants are seen always fully packed with customers most of the time (breakfast, lunch and dinner) compared to Malay restaurants, which are only received customers at one meal period. Besides that, the sustainability of these restaurants is much longer compared to Malay restaurants. As evidence, most of the Malay restaurants with a few exception are getting customers at the beginning of their business operation but unable to sustain after few years. Therefore, there must be a few factors that

contribute to this development. According to Nadzri (2005), one of the interesting elements in Indian Muslim restaurants is that they know how to attract customers particularly the young and the yuppies with big screen television with amplified sound systems ideal for live football, comfortable chairs and table, brightly - lit interiors with clear colorful menu boards on the wall and ample outdoor tables. The old days of typical Indian Muslim restaurants in hot and humid shop lots with wet mosaic floors tiled and cheap plastic chairs are over in Malaysia. Most of these restaurants also operate 24 hours a day compared to other ethnic restaurants, providing a wide variety of Malaysian staple ranging from rice and curry to naan bread and mutton soup. An article written by Mat Ruzki (2003) on "Why choose Indian Muslim restaurants?" states that it is easy to get your favorite pulled tea or teh tarik in local term, or feeling like eating piping hot nasi lemak even late in the evening. Just look for any Indian Muslim restaurants in the town, you will be able to have your favorite food and drink

With regards to quality of food, Alina and Roslina (2003) who investigated the factors influencing customers patronizing Indian Muslim restaurants revealed that quality food is not a major attributes contribute to the increase in popularity of this ethnic restaurant in Shah Alam (capital city of Selangor state) compared to service, operation hours, ambience and pricing. Result of this recent study has brought a critical question as to whether similar trends hold true to most of the Malay restaurants or otherwise. Based on their work (Alina and Roslina, 2003) this study, therefore, is to investigate factors moderating people of patronizing restaurants and to examine whether there are any similarities and differences in the propensity and susceptibility among the customers towards patronizing Indian Muslim and Malay restaurants.

METHODOLOGY

To investigate the propensity of customers toward patronizing the restaurants, qualitative approach through interviews is consider the most effective method as it gives a lot more opportunity for qualitative data. However, it was felt that the use of this method was considered time consuming and needed a large budget. Based on these constraints, the researchers decided to opt for a descriptive design (Pizam, quoted in Brent Ritchie and Goeldner 1987) using a survey consisting of a self-completed questionnaire (Robson 1993). This technique is relatively low cost and enables to collect and process large amounts of data with acceptable accuracy of result.

The survey questionnaire was divided into three major sections. Each section contained questions addressing the variables to suit the research objectives. The first section (A) comprised thirteen questions written in a limited choice single response format. Questions were designed using nominal scale and focused on respondent demographic profile. Items relating to gender, occupation and level of income were included in this section. These data were required to measure the extent that demographic and socio economic backgrounds may moderate respondents' decision of patronizing the restaurants. Items in section B were used to assess the basic view of respondents about what are the important elements for them to patronizing the restaurants. Most of the items in this section were replicated from previous study (Alina and Roslina 2003) with a few additional and minor modification of wording to address specific need of the current research. Respondents were asked to report their views on a five point type likert scale ranging from 1 with " totally disagree " and 5 " totally agree".

It was decided that to obtain 40 completed survey from each restaurant. This would give a sample large enough for vigorous statistical analysis. These restaurants were selected because of similar price range and customers' profile which comprises of students, government servants and private company employees. The researchers and research assistant conducted the survey at four Indian Muslim and Malay restaurants at the Shah Alam area in the month of July 2005 during lunch and dinnertime. Restaurant patrons were approached and requested to complete the survey and were informed that their individual responses were anonymous and confidential. A total of 320 usable questionnaires were obtained (160 from Indian Muslim restaurants and 160 from Malay restaurant). The SPSS software package was used for data analysis. Basic descriptive statistics, frequencies, paired sample t- tests were computed.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Before proceeding into the specific responses to items of the data collection and comparing the reported scores, attention is first given to the overall dimensions of respondents' profiles. This is to see the pattern on each independent variable used such gender, ethnicity, age, occupation and marital status towards propensity of patronizing the restaurants.

As can be seen in Table 1, the number of males exceeded females' respondents with 70.3 per cent against 29.7 per cent. This is expected, as males are believed patronizing the restaurants more compared to females. Age of the respondents was well distributed across the given choices with 65.6 in the ranges between

26- 55 years and 23.8per cent under 25 years old. With regards to ethnicity, Malay constituted around 76.3 per cent of the total respondents with 19.4 percent Chinese and 4.4 per cent Indian. This proportion did provide a reasonable representation of ethnic ratio in Shah Alam area, which consists of 85:10: 5 (Malay, Chinese and Indians). Around 42.5 per cent of the respondents were in occupation as government servant, 32.2 per cent were students in higher institutions, 18.8 in private sector and 6.6 per cent self employed. It appears that the patrons of restaurants in this area are more among the government servant and students than those in private company and self employed. This is not surprising, since many government offices and higher institutions (MARA University of Technology, Industrial University of Selangor and Polytechnic) were located in Shah Alam area. In term marital status, 69.4 were married and 30.6per cent were still single. Results show that 66.9 of the total respondents were from Shah Alam compared to 33.1 per cent from outside of this city.

Table 1. Respondents' demographic structure

Variables	n	%
Gender		
Male	225	70.3
Female	95	39.7
Ethnicity		
Malay	244	76.3
Chinese	62	19.4
Indian	14	4.3
Marital Status		
Single	90	30.6
Married	222	69.4
Age		
Under 25	76	23.7
26-35 years	105	32.8
36-45 years	105	32.8
46-55 years	31	9.7
Above 56 years	3	.9
Occupation		
Student	103	32.2
Self-employs	21	6.6
Government servants	136	42.5
Private	60	18.8
Resident		
Shah Alam	214	69.9
Outside Shah Alam	105	33.1

The Influencing Factors

To address one of the objectives of the study, the descriptive statistic looking at the mean scores of the all respondents was employed. The findings are presented in Table 2 in descending order. Result shows that the most important factors influencing customers' patronizing the restaurant in Shah Alam are; having consistent of service (4.33), efficient of service (4.28), taste of food (4.20), availability of snack food (4.08) and opening hours (4.06). This follows by the availability of varieties of food (3.96), restaurants having more service staff (3.85), price of food (3.83), established name (3.83) and employees' friendliness (3.80). Together these points suggest that consistency in both food and service are integral element in the restaurant. This on the other hand can contribute to a significant to positive word of mouth as well as repeat and referral patronage. This result also in line with Bolton and Drew (1991), which pointed that service and taste of food to have significant influence on patronage behavior.

Table 2. Mean of importance to respondents of patronizing restaurants

Items	n	Mean	S.D
Consistent of service	320	4.33	.770
Efficient of service	320	4.28	.688
Taste of food	320	4.20	.801
Availability of snack food	320	4.08	.839
Opening hours	320	4.06	.855
Varieties of food	320	3.96	.818
Food more versatile	320	3.91	1.14
More service staff	320	3.85	.845
Price of food	320	3.83	.823
Established name	320	3.83	.776
Customer service (employees friendliness)	320	3.80	.723
More customers	320	3.79	.934
Accessibility	320	3.75	.674
Comfortable	320	3.74	.847
Meeting friends	320	3.71	.723

Note: Not all the items are included in this list.

Comparisons of Customer Perceptions

The Paired samples t- test was used to investigate if there any differences in perceptions between responses of Indian Muslim and Malay restaurants. Table 3 presents the result (mean scores) from the analyses and highlights the items for statistically significant differences were identified. A number of patterns

were identified which indicated some distinctions of respondents' perceptions and expectations between Indian Muslim and Malay restaurants. As such, respondents reported they strongly agreed that Indian Muslim restaurants have given efficient service (3.83) than did Malay restaurants (2.42, p<.000). Similarly, they were more in agreement that Indian Muslim restaurants gave a fast service (3.81 compared to 3.67, p<.000), having more friendly employees (3.78 compared to 3.12, p<.000) and provides consistent of service (4.04 compared to 2.75, p<.000). This idea is further strengthened with the respondents strongly agreed that Indian Muslim restaurants of having more staff (4.33) than those in Malay restaurants (2.99, p<.000). Together these findings suggest that customers in Shah Alam in particular are more demanding and indeed have higher expectations for efficient, consistent of service and friendliness of employees when patronizing restaurants. It appears that these elements were met in Indian Muslim compared to Malay restaurants.

Table 3. Respondents in Indian Muslim and Malay restaurant

Items	n	Rest	Mean	S.D	t- value	sig 2-tail
Efficient of service	320	Indian Muslim	3.83	.823	13.523	*.000***
		Malay	2.49	.822		
Fast service	320	Indian Muslim	3.81	.798	9.899	*.000***
		Malay	3.67	2.76		
Good customer service	320	Indian Muslim	3.78	.934	17.597	*.000***
		Malay	3.12	.643		
Consistent of service	320	Indian Muslim	4.04	.855	17.519	*.000***
		Malay	2.75	.710		
Good taste of food	320	Indian Muslim	3.54	.680	1.434	.152
		Malay	3.46	.541		
Variety of food	320	Indian Muslim	3.76	.584	.067	.964
		Malay	3.76	.611		
Cheaper price of food	320	Indian Muslim	3.45	.884	.619	.527
		Malay	3.40	.754		
Good food presentation	320	Indian Muslim	3.20	.678	.188	.851
		Malay	3.20	.693		
Food suit for all appetite	320	Indian Muslim	3.60	.643	-9.924	*.000***
		Malay	3.65	.520		
Food more versatile	320	Indian Muslim	3.60	.691	4.830	*.000***
		Malay	3.81	.599		
Only curry product	320	Indian Muslim	3.83	.776	9.752	*.000***
		Malay	3.29	.787		

Items	n	Rest	Mean	S.D	t-value	sig 2-tail
Availability of snack food	320	Indian Muslim	4.20	.801	25.741	*.000***
		Malay	2.53	.762		
Longer opening hours	320	Indian Muslim	4.28	.688	21.625	*.000***
		Malay	3.30	.592		
More customers	320	Indian Muslim	4.10	.599	12.402	*.001***
		Malay	3.34	.956		
Good location	320	Indian Muslim	3.85	.845	1.702	.089
		Malay	3.77	.543		
Place of meeting friends	320	Indian Muslim	3.80	.894	12.220	*.000***
		Malay	3.10	.731		
More comfortable	320	Indian Muslim	4.08	.817	7.139	*.000*
		Malay	3.57	.683		
Place for discussion	320	Indian Muslim	3.57	1.13	7.980	*.000***
		Malay	3.00	.723		
Having clear menu board	320	Indian Muslim	3.96	.818	7.244	*.000***
		Malay	3.59	.723		
Maintain cleanliness	320	Indian Muslim	3.13	.794	-.6721	.502
		Malay	3.21	1.17		
Good ambience	320	Indian Muslim	3.58	.637	5.862	*.000***
		Malay	3.38	.729		
Having more staff	320	Indian Muslim	4.33	.770	22.741	*.000***
		Malay	2.90	.550		
Having some kind of attraction	320	Indian Muslim	3.78	.494	1.828	.122
		Malay	3.65	.654		
Having better entertainment	320	Indian Muslim	3.74	.674	16.647	*.000***
		Malay	2.89	.585		
A lot parking space	320	Indian Muslim	3.71	.847	1.612	.054
		Malay	3.15	.738		
More established name	320	Indian Muslim	3.80	.723	2.650	.233
		Malay	3.75	.773		
Easy access	320	Indian Muslim	3.78	.839	1.139	.342
		Malay	3.76	.616		

Note: 1. Level of significance are indicated as * p < 0.05; ** p< 0.01; *** p< 0.001
　　　2. Statistically significant differences between groups in " Sig 2- tail" are bolded
　　　3. Scale 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Slightly agree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

With regard to the taste and price of food, respondents agreed that both types of restaurants serving an acceptable quality of food (3.54 for Indian Muslim and 3.46 for Malay), provides variety of food (3.76 for Indian Muslim and 3.76 for Malay) and charging a reasonable price (3.45 for Indian Muslim and 3.40 for Malay). This indicates that the high expectations on these elements by the customers were met in both types of restaurants. However, despite of these

perceptions respondents were in agreement that Malay restaurants offered food that suit for all appetite (3.65) than Indian Muslim restaurants (3.60, p<.000) and serving more versatile of food (3.81 compared to 3.60, p<.000). This was supported by their somewhat agreed that Indian Muslim restaurants (3.83) only serving curry products compared to Malay restaurants (3.29, p<.000).

The most interesting in this analysis is perhaps related to these three items. As such, respondents strongly agreed that the availability of the snack food could always be obtained in Indian Muslim restaurants (4.20) than did in Malay restaurants (2.52, p<.000). They also attach strong agreement that these restaurants were getting more customers (4.10 compared to 3.34, p<.001) and having longer opening hours (4.28 compared to 3.30, p< .000). In actual fact, this impression might hold true as Indian Muslim restaurants were seen to offer snack food such as roti canai, roti bakar, nan bread, chapattis and noodles all day long and in operation twenty four hours and seven days a week compared to most of the Malay of restaurants. With that impression it is not surprising that these restaurants received more customers.

Also particularly notable are the six other items showing statistically significant differences. Respondents reported themselves higher level of agreement that Indian Muslim restaurants provides more comfortable restaurant environment (4.08) than Malay restaurants (3.58, p<.000), having clear menu board (3.96 compared to 3.59, p<.000), provides good ambience (3.58 compared to 3.38, p<.000) and provides better entertainment (3.74 compared to 2.89, p<.000). With this perceptions, respondents also agreed that Indian Muslim restaurants were more suitable for meeting friends (3.80 compared to 3.10, p<.000) and place for discussion (3.57 compared to 3.00, p<.000). All these point taken together fit the idea that atmosphere, ambience and internal environment of a restaurant are fairly important for customers decision to go out to restaurant. In fact Marvin (1992) stated that sight, sound, smell and touch all combine to create the stage setting for dining experience.

With regard to other items, similar pattern of ratings appeared related to food presentation, restaurant location, cleanliness, availability of parking space, established name and accessibility. From these ratings, it could be said that respondents of having the same perceptions and expectations particularly on cleanliness regardless type of restaurants or they may take for granted that some of these elements are beyond restaurants owner control like parking space and accessibility.

CONCLUSIONS

From the overall result, it is evident that besides quality of food, efficient and consistent of service are considered as major attributes contribute to Shah Alam customers' propensity of patronizing restaurants. These follow by the availability of snack food, opening hours and serving varieties of food. Nevertheless, despite of these indicators identified, a very clear picture emerged in this study that most of the mentioned elements were met in Indian Muslim compared to Malay restaurants. In fact, some other determinants such as comfortability, clear menu board, pleasant ambience and entertainment are also contribute to the popularity of Indian Muslim restaurants in Shah Alam area. Some of this finding strengthens the result of the previous study (Alina and Roslina, 2003). The different perceptions especially among the Malay customers have given significant impact and implications to Malay restaurant operators. Malay restaurants are perhaps least able to attract more customers at all periods and consequently this probably will lead to inability to increase their business prosperity as opposed to Indian Muslim restaurants. This scenario highlights several important points, which should be taken action by Malay restaurants operators.

On the basis on of these research findings also there is strong evidence that the majority of customers explicitly perceived that Malay restaurants offered food that suit for all appetite and serving more versatile food than did the Indian Muslim restaurants. Malay restaurant operators therefore should not overlook the positive perceptions held by the customers, but rather consider concentrating on other elements that can attract more customers on priority basis. This can be done through improving their service by delivering more prompt and efficient service consistently to the customers. This could be achieved by properly training the staff and educate them to be more sensitive on this aspects. Even though, this kind of approach may add a cost in both resources and money but it would help the staff to better understands the importance service delivery in restaurant business operation. In addition, communication skills of serving staff with the customers should be improved. Finally, it is hope that the recommendation and information flow from this study could facilitate Malay restaurant operators to better understand customer needs therefore can well positioning themselves and be more competitive in the fast growing trend of restaurant businesses in Malaysia.

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Ecotourism and Simulated Attractions: Tourists' Attitudes toward Integrated Sites in a Desert Area

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the attitudes of tourists toward a conceptual planning approach, which combines elements of ecotourism with themed and simulated attractions, for sustainable tourism development in desert areas. Based on a survey of 453 tourists, the study examines the respondents' preferences regarding suggested contents and facilities of tourist attractions to be developed in the Israeli desert area of the Negev. The findings indicate that the respondents do not necessarily see contradictions between the seemingly irreconcilable ecotourism elements and themed simulations. Specifically, they express clear preference for the development of sites that include appropriate infrastructure and themed simulations that preserve local nature and culture. The study findings are discussed within the frameworks of ecotourism, postmodern tourism and tourism development in desert areas.

Keywords: ecotourism, postmodern tourism, sustainable development and desert tourism.

INTRODUCTION

The notion of desert areas as suitable for nature-based tourism (Weaver 2001a) has been implemented in the Israeli arid region of the Negev for decades. However, ecotourism ventures that were developed in the Negev during the last decade did not provide enough revenue and failed to offer a panacea to this peripheral and arid region (Freeman and Sultan 2002; Reichel and Uriely 2002). The need for tourism development that consists of environmental, social as well

as financial sustainability in this region has been recognized by Reichel and Uriely (2003) who suggested an integrative planning approach for tourism development in the Negev. The suggested integrative plan combines seemingly contradicting concepts by integrating elements of ecotourism with themed attractions and man-made simulations. The integrative approach is presented as an alternative vis-à-vis either mass tourism per se, or "hard" ecotourism (Weaver and Lawton 2002). In this respect, it resembles the notion of "ecological mass tourism" (Blamey 2001; Weaver 2001b) since mass tourism elements such as simulations are adopted and the construction of large scale attractions is considered within the framework of ecotourism. In addition, the integrative planning approach corresponds to conceptualizations of "postmodern culture" and "postmodern tourism". Specifically, arguments about a breakdown in conventional distinctions, such as "real" vs. contrived experiences, that supposedly occur in contemporary Western societies (e.g. Budrillard 1983; Lash and Urry 1994; Rojek 1995; Urry 1990; Uriely 1997, 2005) are taken into account and translated into an active tourism planning approach (Reichel and Uriely 2003).

The potential of the integrative approach for enhancing market demand for tourist visitations in desert areas was introduced by Reichel and Uriely (2003) as a major strength of their suggested tourism development plan. This argument is empirically investigated in this study by examining the readiness of potential customers to experience tourism products derived from the integrative eco-simulated perspective. Based on a survey of 453 tourists, the study examines tourists' attitudes and preferences toward the development of new tourist sites in the Negev Desert of Israel that entails combinations of various elements of eco-simulated tourism. By focusing on the response of potential customers, this study aims to provide additional insight into the debate about the feasibility of "soft" versions of ecotourism. Another contribution of this empirical study concerns the translation of theoretical arguments about supposed trends of postmodern culture into concrete aspects of consumers' behavior. Finally, this study might also shed light on the nature of demand for desert tourism attractions.

The following sections of the paper begin with literature review on ecotourism followed by a discussion on postmodern culture and postmodern tourism. Next, a detailed background on the Negev region is presented, followed by details on the methodology and results of measuring tourist's attitudes and preferences. Finally, the findings are discussed with respect to relevant theories in tourism

studies, practical implications regarding the Negev region, and the study's limitations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Ecotourism and sustainable tourism development became established concepts, which, since the 1980's, have often been used interchangeably within the industry and tourism studies. For the purpose of this article, sustainability is treated as a major component of ecotourism defined as "responsible travel in which the visitor is aware and takes into account the effect of his or her actions on both the host culture and the environment" (Brouse 1992: 23). Similarly, Wight (1993: 5) argues that ecotourism is "an enlightening nature travel experience that contributes to conservation of the ecosystem, while respecting the integrity of host communities". From a supply-side perspective, Sirakaya, Sasidharan and Sönmez (1999), in their survey of eco-tour operators, quote an operator who suggests a comprehensive definition:

"Ecotourism is….carefully planned tourist activity (whether natural, historical, botanical, ornithological, or archaeological tours) that is compatible with sound ecological principles. Ecotourism results in no ecological damage from group impact on national park and/or natural history resources. It is the philosophy of travel companies to support/use the destination's local resources, operators, lodging, guides, and other tourist facilities or services and of showing evidence of continued support for the destination's conservation/preservation program and long-term planning" (p.171).

The definitions presented above, comply with recent conceptualizations (Blamey 2001; Weaver 2005) that stress the following aspects as core features of ecotourism: a) based on natural attractions that might incorporate cultural heritage components; b) the provision of learning opportunities and experiences that differentiate ecotourism sites from nature-based sites designated solely for relaxation and hedonistic motivations; and c) planning and management in such a way as to maximize the likelihood of environmentally and socio-culturally sustainable outcomes.

The concepts of ecotourism and sustainable tourism development have been gaining prominence since the mid-80's as a panacea for the destructive impacts of conventional mass tourism (Choi and Sirakaya 2005; Weaver 2005). Accordingly, many researchers and practitioners advocate a 'hard' variant of ecotourism as an alternative form of tourism that provides host environments and communities with a more appropriate alternative than conventional mass tourism. While the latter is large-scale, corporate-controlled and oriented to

short-term profitability, ("hard") ecotourism is associated with small-scale, community-controlled and long-term social well-being (Blamey 2001). Similarly, the notion of sustainable tourism development emerged as an alternative to the problematic outcomes of conventional tourism development (Hunter 1997). Within the sustainable framework, development is no longer perceived as a synonym solely to economic growth, but is addressed mainly in terms of environmental, social, cultural and political viability (Choi and Sirakaya 2005). Nevertheless, even those who advocate the notion of ecotourism as an opposite alternative to conventional mass tourism agree that, like all other forms of tourism, the feasibility of ecotourism depends upon financial sustainability and high levels of tourist satisfaction (Weaver 2005).

The recognized need for financial sustainability of ecotourism ventures, is defined as the responsibility to be "profitable in both the immediate and long term" (McKercher 2003: 4), is manifested in consumer behavior studies that focus on the demographics, the motivations and the service-related expectations of ecotourists (Khan 2003; Honey 1999; Lew 1998; Wearing and Neil 1999; Ryan, Hughes and Chirgwin 2000). In terms of demographics, the consumers of ecotourism products are portrayed as educated and well-off individuals mainly from advanced industrialized societies (Honey 1999; Wearing and Neil 1999). While their motivations are heterogeneous, they are committed to the environment and search for learning experiences (Wearing and Neil 1999). While their expectations for service quality are slightly lower than those of conventional tourists (Khan 2003), while vacationing, they resemble the latter in terms of their search for fun, relaxation, shopping and spectacle (Ryan et al. 2003).

The need for financial sustainability combined with the quest for environmental-friendly and socially responsible tourism stimulated numerous discussions and debates about the scope and nature of ecotourism (for example, Blamey 2001; Butler 2002; Cohen 1995; Deng, King and Bauer 2002; Honey 1999; Weaver 2001b, 2005; Wheeller 1997). In this context, the tension between the need for financial profits and the original perspective of "hard" ecotourism as a complete opposition to mass tourism has been compromised by the perspective of "soft" ecotourism (Blamey 2001; Chapman 1995; Lindberg 1991; Weaver 2001b, 2005). In line with the latter, activities that involve large numbers of visitors making relatively short and physically comfortable visits to serviced sites as one component of a multipurpose experience facilitated by the formal industry, do not necessarily stand in contrast to ecotourism (Weaver 2005). Moreover, scholars, such as Blamey (2001), Lück (2002) and Weaver (2001b)

argue that the viability of values associated with ecotourism depends upon their incorporation into the main stream of mass tourism, rather than their materialization within a small segment of eco-tourists. In light of this approach, ecotourism is not perceived as a distinctive form of tourism but as an ideology to be implemented in the tourism industry as a whole.

The ongoing debate about "soft" and mass ecotourism in terms of the well-being of the environment and the local population is beyond the scope of the empirical investigation presented below. Instead, the study responds to the recognized need for financial sustainability of ecotourism ventures by analyzing preferences and attitudes of potential tourists toward a conceptual planning approach, which integrates ecotourism products with themed and simulated attractions, for sustainable tourism development in desert areas (Reichel and Uriely 2003). This conceptual approach, which connects ostensibly separate dimensions of tourist experiences, entails conceptualizations of "postmodern culture' in general, and "postmodern tourism" in particular.

Post-modernity and Tourism

The terms "postmodernism" and "post-modernity" are associated with diverse interrelated phenomena that developed after World War II in varied spheres of activity, such as art, architecture, science, politics, cinema, sport, and tourism (Denzin 1991). Among the major trends associated with post-modernity, one could point toward different developments, such as the proliferation of simulated environments and contrived experiences, (Budrillard 1983; Eco 1986) the growing awareness to the natural, (Urry 1990) and a shift toward non-positivistic interpretive and critical theorizing (Bauman 1992; Denzin 1991). Moreover, the postmodern condition involves a breakdown in conventional distinctions between various spheres of social activity, such as "high" and "low" culture, work and leisure, and "real" vs. contrived experiences (Lash and Urry 1994; Rojek 1995; Uriely 1997, 2005; Urry 1990).

Since the late 1970's a growing number of scholars have addressed various tourist activities as expressions of postmodernist culture. Contemporary trends in tourism, such as the rise of small and specialized agencies, the growing attraction of nostalgia, and "heritage tourism", the flourishing of nature-oriented tourism, and the proliferation of simulated tourism environments, are all labeled as aspects of postmodern tourism (Urry 1990; Uriely 1997, 2005). Indeed, scholarly discourse in this field consists of two theoretical perspectives of postmodern tourism - the "simulational" and the "other" (Munt, 1994). The "simulational" line of scholarship focuses on the analysis of "hyper-real"

experiences and refers to simulated theme parks and other contrived attractions as typical postmodern environments (Baudrillard 1983; Eco 1986; Featherston 1991; Gottdiner 1995; Lash and Urry 1994; Pretes 1995). Conceptualizations of the "other" postmodern tourism stress the search for the "real" and indicate the growing appeal of the "natural" and the countryside as postmodern expressions (Barrett 1989; Munt 1994; Poon 1989; Urry 1990).

The distinction between the "simulational" and the "other" postmodern tourism appears to follow the polarity observed as previously mentioned in earlier theories of modern tourism. While "simulational" postmodern tourism follows Boorstin's notion of "pseudo-events" (1964), the "other" concept of postmodern tourism is compatible with MacCannell's argument regarding the quest for authenticity (1973). However, unlike the earlier notions of modern tourism, the "simulational" and the "other" dimensions of postmodern tourism do not derive from two opposing camps of scholars. On the contrary, some of the important scholars of postmodern tourism include both the "simulational" and the "other" dimensions in their complete portrayal of postmodern tourism (Urry 1990; Uriely 1997, 2005). Furthermore, unlike former theories of modern tourism, both dimensions of postmodern tourism generate complementary, rather than contradictory proposals with regard to the nature of tourism. For instance, Munt's article on the "other" postmodern tourism begins with the following statement regarding the "simulational" trend of postmodern tourism: "I do not set out to challenge these but to consider figuratively the "other" possibilities of postmodern tourism" (1994: 101). According to Uriely (1997, 2005), this statement reflects the compromising nature of postmodern theories that entails what Denzin (1991: 27) calls "both-and" rather than "either-or" scientific attitudes.

The "integrative approach" suggested by Reichel and Uriely (2002, 2003) adopts the "both-and" postmodern premise, while taking an active approach for frontier tourism development in the Negev. Specifically, the integrative approach toward tourism development assumes that sustainability and contrived attractions are not necessarily conflicting. Moreover, the integrative approach is designed to be compatible with the principle of maintaining the right balance between preservation, development, and exposure to tourists while considering the well-being of the local communities in terms of employment. Clearly, this planning approach is based on the presumed demand of market segments that gravitate toward natural and "contrived" tourism attractions, with a desire to preserve the environment, as well as to ensure the sustainability of neighboring communities (Rotem 2002). Furthermore, the

integrative approach corresponds to conceptualizations that stress the pluralized nature of contemporary tourist experiences, in which the aforementioned "both-and" tendency prevails (Uriely 2005). Specifically, the integrative approach appears to provide an appropriate venue for contemporary tourists, such as the "post tourist" (Feifer 1985) and the multi-type backpacker (Uriely, Yonay and Simchai 2002), who enjoy movement across different types of experiences in a single excursion.

Note that the combination between the seemingly contradictory components – natural attractions and man-made simulations – has already proved that it can be a successful way to attract tourists. An example of a successful site that combines heritage and nature-based attractions with themes and simulations is the "World of Salt" attraction in the Hallein salt mines near the city of Salzburg, Austria. The salt industry in the area of Salzburg, referred to as "The White Gold", was an important part of the economic and the commerce life of the local community in the past. Nowadays, this past industry functions one of the main tourist attractions in the area. By using simulations, the tourist site provides the visitors with experiential knowledge about the methods of salt mining. Wearing white uniforms of salt miners, the visitors begin their tour with a miniature train that drive them to the salt mine in the heart of the mountain. Along the tour, a 'real' miner (played by an actor) tells the visitors about the history of the site while vocal and visual effects are used to strengthen the visitor's experience (Visit-Salzburg 2006).

One can seriously doubt if the "World of Salt" would have become such a successful tourist attraction in case it relied solely on the natural features of the site. In this respect, Pretes (1995) argues that natural and cultural advantages of a destination are often insufficient to attract a significant number of tourists. Although "The World of Salt" is an important site both historically and environmentally, it has developed in a way that enables interactive simulative mining experiences to the visitors. On the other hand, one should not undermine the 'authentic' aspects of this site, including its location and history. Note that while the "World of Salt" might not be considered as a typical eco-tourism venture, it is used here as an example for a tourist site that integrates theming and man-made simulations with heritage and natural components.

Tourism Development in the Negev Desert: The Current State

The common notion of frontier desert tourism is usually distinct from contrived attractions. It is often associated with concepts such as nature, "eco", sustainable, and adventure tourism. In this context, Weaver (2001a) suggests

that desert areas are appropriate for the development of ecotourism since they are usually unspoiled by industrial or other human activity, consist of geological attractions, provide the visitors with excellent conditions of visibility and facilitates encounters with undisturbed local cultures. However, it is clear that the "contrived" has penetrated the desert environment. For example, the city of Las Vegas, where gaming takes place in the stimulated environments of theme-related hotels/casinos, is currently one of the most impressive illustrations of mass tourism based on contrived attractions. With more than 35 million annual visitors and over 130,000 hotel rooms (Las Vegas Convention and Visitors Authority 2006), Las Vegas is probably the most financially successful tourist destination in arid deserts. Yet, Las Vegas as a tourist destination is often viewed as the archetype anti-sustainable form of tourism development (Gottdiener, Collins and Dickens 1999). Note, however, that Las Vegas is one of the most prominent manifestations of the "simulational" postmodern tourism. Thus, it cannot serve as a model for the integrative planning approach, which aims to provide desert areas with both financial and environmental sustainability.

The notion of the desert as a suitable site only for nature-oriented activities seems to be compatible with the aforementioned "other" rather than the "simulational" approach of postmodern tourism. This "nature-oriented" approach has dominated tourism planning and development of the Israeli Negev Desert for decades. Specifically, the Israeli government created an incentive system that was intended to encourage entrepreneurial tourism investment in the Negev. It was assured that tourist ventures would be primarily small-scale and appropriate for nature-oriented attractions by applying strict planning and zoning regulations by the Ministry of Tourism and regional councils. These ventures were designed "nature-oriented" sites - presumably the opposite of contrived tourist attractions (Lerner and Haber 2001; Haber and Lerner 2002).

This traditional approach is challenged here in light of both the current situation of tourism development in the Negev, and experience gained at other locations. With the exception of the frontier city of Eilat, most of the tourism ventures in the Negev region suffered a severe recession during the late 1990's as a result of the prevailing geopolitical conditions in the Middle East (Freeman and Sultan 2002; Reichel and Uriely 2002). Foreign tourists who visited Israel despite the perception of risk and instability, preferred to follow the routes of Christianity and Judaism, and not visit the unspoiled natural sites of the Negev (Freeman and Sultan 2002). The government agency for tourism development in the

Negev did encourage domestic visitors to fill the void left by foreign tourists, but most of the promotion was directed toward special events and vacation offers that did not provide sufficient revenue to reverse the effects of the recession (Reichel and Uriely 2002, 2003).

Despite limited economic prospects during the years 1995-1999, several entrepreneurs started small nature-based and ecotourism ventures in the Negev region. No comprehensive statistics are available, but several anecdotes attest to the state of tourism development. For example, Haber and Lerner (2002) identified ventures developed by families to augment their income. These ventures reflect the growing trend towards rural tourism in Israel, predominantly mentioned in the context of the green, luscious image of northern Israel (Fleischer and Pizam 1997; Reichel, Lowengart and Milman 2000). In addition, Israeli Bedouins, in an attempt to conserve their rich desert lifestyle and traditions, have also established their own ventures. Other ventures are devoted to desert wildlife, allowing visitors to interact with local fauna. A cursory examination of these nature-related ventures indicates an entrepreneurial attempt to take advantage of the unique conditions of the Negev frontier, including the focus on authentic and nature-oriented attractions (Reichel and Uriely 2002, 2003). Note that while this approach toward tourism development emerged without governmental direction, it is compatible with the Zionist ethos that includes a romantic view of nature and the environment (Uriely and Ron 2003). At the same time, this entrepreneurial approach toward tourism development in the Negev ignores the aforementioned increasing demand for simulated attractions associated with postmodern tourism.

The reliance on small nature-oriented and authentic tourism ventures failed to offer a panacea to the sparsely populated and economically deprived Negev region. One might ask, however, what would have happened had the entrepreneurial efforts been directed toward a wider mix of ventures beyond the "authentic"? The main premise of this study is, had the motivation and ability in evidence among these entrepreneurs been directed toward a more integrative plan entailing simulated attractions and theme-related ventures, they would probably have achieved better results. In this context, Haber and Lerner (2002) suggested that the coexistence of natural and man-made attractions might add to the success of tourist ventures in the Negev region. Given the possibility to integrate presumably conflicting elements of eco-tourism, man-made attractions and themes, this study attempts to explore tourists' attitudes toward integrative elements of new sites to be developed in the Negev region of Israel. Specifically, questions are raised as to whether

potential tourists find various combinations of natural and man-made features attractive components for newly developed tourist sites.

METHODOLOGY

The attitudes of tourists toward various combinations of natural attractions and man-made simulations were measured by means of a questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed through a three stage process. First, the aforementioned literature, both on ecotourism and postmodern tourism, served as a basis for generating specific issues to be investigated (e.g. Choi & Sirakaya 2005; Uriely 2005; Weaver 2001b). Next, a panel of 15 Israeli tourism researchers from various academic institutions convened as a focus group. They recommended methods of constructing combinations of eco-simulated tourist sites and assessing demand for such scenarios. Finally, 11 in-depth interviews were conducted with tourism practitioners on their perceptions regarding the suggested combination of natural attractions with man-made simulations in the Negev area. Each interview, lasting between one and two hours, was recorded and transcribed. The practitioners were selected according to the "theoretical sample" approaches (Five-Schaw 1995) in which interviewees are selected according to their possible contribution to the subject under study. The sample included experts from municipal authorities, tourism consultants, lodging operators, academic researchers and a manager of a non-profit organization called "Sustainable Negev". All the eleven deal with different forms of tourism in the Negev area.

The final questionnaire included specific questions about tourists' interest in themes like archeology, ancient cultures and traditions, desert agriculture, and bible stories. Questions were also included relating to the preferred level of development of infrastructure and facilities (minimal vs. fully developed), preferred size of site, preference for wholly natural vs. "staged" or "contrived" sites, questions about attractions to be included in a site, (ranging from restaurant and coffee shops to desert excursions, spa treatment, and involvement in theme-related activities). In addition, specific questions explored the extent of potential interest in archeological sites that combine historical simulations, and those displaying Bedouin culture and traditions. Finally, background questions related to the respondent, including age, gender, occupation, income, and country of residence.

The questionnaires were designed in Hebrew, French and English. The Hebrew version was intended for the Israeli sample which comprised 253 respondents personally interviewed by one of the authors during August and September of

2004. Eight towns across Israel were chosen to ensure maximal heterogeneity among potential visitors. In each town Israelis were approached according to the principles of "heterogeneous purposive sample" (Finn, Elliot-White and Walton 2000), during different times of the day, both during the week and on weekends. The intent was to ensure heterogeneity albeit not applying random sampling methods.   The French and English questionnaires were used in interviewing foreign tourists at central tourist attractions (The Western Wall, Massada, and the resort city of Eilat). The sample included 156 English-speaking, and 44 French-speaking respondents. At each location, tourists were approached in accordance with the aforementioned heterogeneous purposive sample principles. In sum, although both samples might be considered "convenient samples", adhering to the maximal heterogeneity principles assure considerable variance among the respondents.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This section begins with the description of respondents' preferences in terms of themes and features associated with tourist sites to be developed in the Negev region. The themes and features are also analyzed in terms of underlying dimensions. Next, the respondents' attitudes toward the aforementioned integrative planning approach are presented, including preferences towards the character of development, and specific future sites that combine preservation of the natural environment and tourist site development.

Preferred Tourist Site Themes

Participants were asked to express their preferences for 11 possible themes for tourism venture development. The themes included nature and landscape, ancient culture and traditions, stories of the bible, desert animals, archeology, space themes, bird watching, the Syrian-African Rift, desert flora, desert agriculture, and geology. As can be seen in Table 1, nature and landscape was the category most preferred (m=4.12), followed by ancient cultures and traditions (m=3.82). Desert flora, desert agriculture and geology were the least preferred themes (m=2.79, m=2.66, m=2.50, respectively).

A factor analysis of Principle Component extraction with Varimax rotation was utilized to examine the possible underlying dimensions among the themes presented to the respondents. As depicted in Table 2, two distinct dimensions were identified: "history" and "nature", explaining 54.5% of the variance. The factor of "history" consists of four themes: archeology; ancient cultures and traditions; geology; and stories of the Bible. While the theme of geology seems

to be out of context at first sight, further inquiry revealed that the respondents often considered this theme as part of the Negev's visual history. The factor of "nature" includes seven themes: bird-watching; desert animals; desert fauna; nature and landscape; the Syrian-African Rift; desert agriculture; and space-related themes.

Table 1. Tourist site development themes

Theme	N	Mean	S.D.
Nature and landscape	448	4.12	1.07
Ancient culture and tradition	444	3.82	1.19
Stories of the Bible	435	3.61	1.37
Desert animals	441	3.55	1.30
Archeology	435	3.21	1.34
Space Themes	431	3.09	1.48
Bird watching	439	2.99	1.39
The Syrian-African Rift	432	2.96	1.36
Desert fauna	440	2.79	1.32
Desert agriculture	434	2.66	1.32
Geology	435	2.50	1.27

Preferred Tourist Site Features

Respondents were asked to consider various possible features or components to be included in the development of new Negev tourist sites. Table 3 depicts 13 features that were evaluated as possible components of a newly developed tourist site in the Negev region. The highest ranked feature is "serene and relaxing atmosphere" (m=4.35 on a five point scale), followed by "convenient accessibility" (4.12) "land cruises" and "restaurants and cafes" (3.73). The three least desired features were "organized children's activities" (m=3.21); "organized adult activities" (3.15); and "audio-visual shows" (2.93). Other features include cultural activities, spa services, physical activities, transportation to the site, usage of high technology means and on-site entertainment.

A factor analysis of Principle Component extraction with Varimax rotation was conducted to identify domains among the site features presented to respondents. As depicted in Table 4, two distinct dimensions were recognized: "on-site entertainment services" and "outdoor physical activities", explaining 46.8% of the variance. The factor of "on-site entertainment services" includes eight features: restaurants and cafes; entertainment; organized children's activities; cultural activities; transportation to site; organized adult activities; spa

services; and usage of high-tech means. The factor of "outdoor physical activities" consists of two features: land cruises and physical activities.

Table 2. Factor Analysis of the suggested tourist site themes

Themes[a]	Factor 1[b]: History	Factor 2[c]: Nature
Initial eigenvalues	4.593	1.400
(Cronbach's alpha)	(0.749)	(0.831)
Archeology	0.833	
Ancient culture and tradition	0.813	
Geology	0.682	
Stories of the Bible	0.564	
Bird watching		0.814
Desert animals		0.806
Desert fauna		0.675
Nature and landscape		0.659
The Syrian-African Rift		0.602
Desert agriculture		0.570
Space-related themes		0.503

Note: Extraction method: principal component analysis. Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in three iterations.
a. The highest factor each theme was loaded was included.
b. The total variance explained by factor 1 is 41.759%.
c. The total variance explained by factor 2 is 12.725%.

Table 3. Preferred tourist site teatures

Feature	N	Mean	S.D.
Serene and relaxing atmosphere	443	4.35	0.93
Convenient accessibility	443	4.12	1.03
Land cruises	442	3.93	1.09
Restaurants and cafes	444	3.73	1.19
Cultural activities	445	3.62	1.16
Spa services	438	3.58	1.36
Physical activities	440	3.49	1.25
Transportation to site	442	3.38	1.43
Usage of high-tech means	437	3.29	1.30
Entertainment	437	3.28	1.41
Organized children activities	435	3.21	1.52
Organized adult activities	436	3.15	1.38
Sight and sound shows	439	2.93	1.29

Preferred Type of Development

Two questions examined the preferred balance between preservation of the natural environment and tourist site development. The first question examined the preference for a new tourist site in the Negev in terms of four options: a. a natural site with minimal development of infrastructure and facilities; b. a site that combines both preservation of the natural environment and development of infrastructure and facilities; c. a site based mainly on man-made infrastructure and facilities; and d. "it does not matter to me".

Table 4. Factor analysis of the suggested tourist site features

Features[a]	Factor 1[b]: On-site Entertainment Services	Factor 2[c]: Outdoor Physical Activities
Initial eigenvalues	4.863	1.225
(Cronbach's alpha)	(0.851)	(0.482)
Restaurants and cafes	0.721	
Entertainment	0.766	
Organized children activities	0.627	
Cultural activities	0.687	
Transportation to site	0.512	
Organized adult activities	0.697	
Spa services	0.651	
Usage of high-tech means	0.637	
Land cruises		0.765
Physical activities		0.577

Note: Extraction method: principal component analysis. Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in three iterations.
a. The highest factor each feature was loaded was included.
b. The total variance explained by factor 1 is 37.409%.
c. The total variance explained by factor 2 is 9.425%.

Table 5. Preferred character of tourist site

Preference	N	%
A site with a minimal development of infrastructure and facilities	65	%14
A site that combines preservation of the natural environment along with the development of infrastructure and facilities	296	%66
A fully developed site with simulated attractions	59	%13
It doesn't matter to me	30	%7
Total	450	100%

As can be seen in Table 5, most of the respondents (66 percent) prefer the balance between preservation and infrastructure and facility development. The more extreme approaches: 14 percent (65) preferred a whole natural site, with minimal development of infrastructure and facilities, while 13 percent (59) preferred a site based on a thorough development of man made infrastructure and facilities. Only seven percent of the sample (30) selected the option of "it does not matter to me." The preferred character of tourist site development was addressed by another question that explicitly asked if the person preferred a totally "natural" site or totally man made "artificial" site, including "in between" options. The two "natural" categories ("totally natural" and "somewhat natural") were selected by 253 respondents (56 percent); the combined natural and artificial, by 177 persons (39 percent); and the two artificial categories ("somewhat" and "totally artificial") by 19 respondents (4 percent). Note that as a discrete category, the aforementioned "combined natural and artificial" option was the highest selected category.

However, the findings reveal that in terms of size, location and accommodations, respondents are ready for only a limited level of tourism development in the Negev region. Akin to ecotourism features, most of the respondents preferred small to mid-size tourist sites. Specifically, 225 of all respondents (about 50 percent) clearly preferred visiting small-scale tourist sites, containing a limited number of visitors; 192 respondents (43 percent) preferred the option of medium size sites, containing hundreds of visitors simultaneously, and only 29 persons (6 percent) preferred the large-scale option, containing thousands of visitors at the same time. Also, most of the respondents (53 percent) preferred visiting tourist sites to be developed in open unspoiled areas. Out of this segment, 54 percent preferred the sites to be close to exiting towns. Twenty eight percent of all respondents preferred that the new site be developed within a local town, village or kibbutz. In terms of accommodation, four or five star hotels were preferred by 171 respondents (38 percent); 165 (46 percent) preferred 2-3 star hotels 117 (26 percent) preferred rural accommodation, known as "desert style zimmers" (B&B).

Preferences for Combined Tourist Sites

Ten scenarios of possible tourist sites to be developed in the Negev region were presented to the respondents. Each possible site represents a particular theme with both natural and man-made components. For example, The Syrian-African Rift as a theme includes audiovisual explanations and manifestations of geological processes, earthquake simulations, excursions and observatories. As

noted earlier, the ten sites were derived from a panel of industry experts and represent the integrative approach under investigation. In essence, each site comprises the themes presented in Table 1, and the features presented in Table 2. Each site or scenario was evaluated by respondents on a scale ranging from 1 = not interested in visiting this site to 5 = very interested in visiting this site. Table 6 presents the ten scenarios in order of descending preference.

Table 6. Tourist preferences for sites to be developed in the negev region

Description of the site	N	Mean	S.D.
Nature and Geology related in the Ramon Crater – including excursions and an audiovisual shows at the Crater.	449	3.47	1.22
A Salt theme park in the Dead Sea – attractions about the salt, including sculptures, audiovisual shows of Lot wife's story, etc.	448	3.44	1.22
Outer Space Park – a star observatory in Ramon Crater that combines star observation with outer space related themes.	448	3.42	1.33
Historic archeology sites that combine simulations that illustrate historical anecdotes (such as the Nabatean heritage).	449	3.40	1.32
"The Syrian-African Rift Valley" Park – exhibits, interpretations of geological processes, stimulations of earthquakes, observation points and excursions.	448	3.28	1.26
Sites that display Bedouin culture and tradition.	449	3.25	1.32
A site that presents contemporary life in the Negev, including agriculture, desert architecture and flood control.	449	3.17	1.26
"Ecology Park" – tourist center that promotes the conservation of the natural environment and combines activities and demonstrations on the subject.	446	3.14	1.29
Bird watching Park.	446	3.03	1.36
Sites in agricultural areas that include visit to farms and demonstration of advanced desert watering and gardening methods.	451	2.86	1.31

The scenario or tourist site with the highest preference is a nature and geology-related park in the Ramon crater - including excursions and a sight and sound show at the crater. (mean=3.47 on a five point scale), followed by a salt theme park at the Dead Sea, including attractions relating to salt. (Salt sculptures and a sight and sound show on the story of Lot Wife's). (m=3.44). The third preferred attraction scenario is an outer space park, including an observatory at the

Ramon Crater combining star observation with outer-space related themes. The least preferred project is the development of sites in agricultural areas that include visits to farms, and demonstrations of advanced desert agricultural methods (m=2.86). Note that features ranked low in Table 2, were favorably perceived as ingredients of a scenario in Table 6. For example, site and sound shows were ranked the lowest in terms of desired features, yet were included in the highest desirable scenario of a geology park.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper empirically examined the attitude of potential tourists toward an integrative planning approach, which combines elements of ecotourism with themed and simulated attractions, designated for the Negev Desert in Israel (Reichel and Uriely 2003). The results of the investigation indicate that the respondents are in favor of an integrative approach that combines seemingly contradicting concepts, such as "tourism development" with "environmental preservation" or "natural" with "artificial" sites. Specifically, only a minority of the respondents preferred either a wholly natural site with minimal development of infrastructure and facilities, or a site based on a thorough development of man made infrastructure and facilities. In addition, the discrete category of "combined natural and artificial" was the respondents' most favored choice. However, while the respondents expressed positive attitudes toward this integrative approach, they preferred only a limited level of tourism development that complies with the current notion of the Negev Desert as a suitable destination for nature-based sites and ecotourism ventures. In this regard, most of the respondents preferred "totally natural" and "somewhat natural" sites and only a small minority was in favor of "somewhat artificial" and "totally artificial" sites. In addition, the findings indicate that most of the respondents preferred the kind of development akin to the features of ecotourism ventures, including small to mid-size tourist sites located in unspoiled open areas (yet close to the region's towns) and include moderate accommodations.

These findings shed light on the issue of postmodernity and tourism, the theoretical source of the integrative planning approach. Specifically, the results are congruent with the following observations regarding postmodern culture and postmodern tourism: a) that the homogenized nature of "modern" tourist experiences is replaced by the postmodern inclination toward pluralized experiences (Uriely 2005). In line with this perspective, several studies suggest that tourists of the postmodern era enjoy moving across different types of

experience on a single vacation (Feifer 1985; Uriely, Yonay and Simchai 2002); b) that postmodern culture involves a breakdown in conventional distinctions, such as contrived vs. "real" tourist experiences (Munt 1994; Urry 1990); c) that postmodern culture is characterized by a "both-and," rather than "either-or" orientation (Denzin 1991). Thus, seemingly contradictory products of tourism, such as man-made simulations and nature, are perceived as complementary, rather than conflicting dimensions of the postmodern tourist experience (Uriely 1997, 2005). Note that while these observations regarding postmodern culture and tourism rely on extensive theorizing, thus far, they receive little support by empirical research, notably quantitative methods. Accordingly, the current study's contribution to this literature concerns the empirical support it provides to the conceptualizations of postmodern culture and tourism. Furthermore, the study findings validate the attempt of the integrative approach (Reichel and Uriely 2002, 2003) to translate conceptualizations of culture into an active planning approach for tourism development.

The findings of this study also provide additional insight into the discussion about the scope and nature of ecotourism. As mentioned earlier, scholars, such as Blamey (2001) Chapman (1995), Lindberg (1991) and Weaver (2001b, 2005) suggest that the viability of ecotourism ventures depends upon high levels of tourist satisfaction and a large number of visitors to generate financial profit. Accordingly, the above scholars advocate "soft" versions of ecotourism that do not necessarily stand in contrast to the features of conventional mass tourism. The potential tourist sites examined in this study derive from the integrative approach that adopts the "soft" version of ecotourism and beyond, by combining elements of ecotourism with conventional characteristics of mass tourism. Specifically, the findings reveal that the respondents are in favor of an approach that integrates "tourism development" with "environmental preservation" and have a preference for "combined natural and artificial" sites. In addition, while the revealed dimensions of themes and site features include core elements of ecotourism such as "nature", "history", and "outdoor physical activity", they also include a typical "soft" component of "on-site entertainment services". Clearly, the findings of this study point toward the economic potential of "soft" or "ecological mass tourism" ventures (Blamey 2001; Weaver 2001b) by stressing the positive response of potential customers to tourist sites developed in line with this approach of ecotourism. Considering the recognized need for financial sustainability of ecotourism ventures, the consumers' voice revealed in this study is certainly an important dimension of the debate about the future nature of ecotourism. In this respect, the current study supports the position

that the viability of values associated with ecotourism depends upon their incorporation into the main stream of mass tourism (Blamey 2001; Weaver 2001b). This approach of "ecological mass-tourism" might be more effective than the development of ecotourism as a distinctive form of tourism designated for a small segment of hard-core environmentalists.

 Another contribution of this study concerns the issue of tourist development in desert environments. As noted above, these areas are usually developed either as mass tourism destinations relying on contrived attractions, (as illustrated by the gaming industry of Las Vegas), or as space designated for ecotourism ventures like those developed in the Israeli Negev Desert in the last decade. The results of this study indicate that the respondents are in favor of a third way of tourism development in the Negev Desert: integrating elements of mass tourism within the framework of ecotourism. This finding supports the conclusion of Haber and Lerner (2002) who suggest that the coexistence of natural and man-made attractions might add to the success of tourist ventures in the Negev region. Yet, the respondents of the current study prefer to maintain the development of the Negev Desert as a tourist destination relying mainly on nature-based and history-oriented sites, rather than a sharp shift toward contrived tourism often associated with Las Vegas. In this regard, it appears that gradual changes are more likely to be accepted by potential consumers than a dramatic shift that would contradict the already existing image of the destination. Specifically, a tourist destination that is already associated with nature should not be dramatically repositioned as a totally contrived site. Accordingly, it is suggested that recommendations for future tourism development in desert areas should be contextual and take into account the specifics of the destination to be developed, including its already existing character and image. The importance of context was also evident in the revealed discrepancies between the respondents' preferred general themes and their evaluation of specific sites to be developed within the Negev region. For example, while geology was the least preferred theme to be developed in the Negev when presented alone and out of context, the highest preference for specific tourist sites to be developed was a nature and geology-related park in the Ramon Crater -including excursions and a sight and sound show at the Crater.

Finally, several issues about this study should be highlighted: The study does not attempt to enter the terminological and ideological debates regarding concepts, such as soft/hard ecotourism, responsible tourism, pro-poor tourism, and sustainable tourism development. Instead, this study adopted recent

conceptualizations (Blamey 2001; Weaver 2005) of ecotourism ventures as nature-based attractions that might incorporate cultural heritage components; the provision of learning opportunities and experiences that differentiate ecotourism sites from nature-based sites designated solely for relaxation and hedonistic motivations; and planning and management in a way to maximize the likelihood of environmentally and socio-culturally sustainable outcomes. In addition, the study relied on the premise that financial sustainability is crucial for the success of ecotourism ventures. Given this approach, the study attempted to empirically test the possibility of combining the "simulated and contrived" with eco-tourism. The empirical examination indicates various levels of interest and potential demand for different feature combinations that represent the combined approach as a basis for a tourism development plan for the Negev Desert. Clearly, the results should be cautiously interpreted in light of the inclusion of both foreign tourists and potential Israeli tourists in the sample. Also, the Israeli domestic sample was not random, and can be considered a "theoretical" sample. Consequently, the clearly expressed interest in the combined approach reported in this paper needs to be further empirically studied. Apparently, given the plethora of conceptual and advocacy oriented studies, the lack of a large-scale empirical study is evident.

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Journey from the Humps of the Camels to the Floors of the Rich: The Commodification of Traditional Turkish Carpets

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ABSTRACT

Intensification of commercial production for tourism and external markets have transformed the traditional production techniques of Turkish carpets. Forms and meanings that traveled through space and time for centuries have been lost. Women have been particularly affected by these changes. In the process of commodification, weaving has been stripped out of the house and its social context and taken to factory-like environments where the women work in alien surroundings for a wage. The cultural meaning of weaving and the link that this activity provided to the natural environment has been cut. The vast majority of women who continue to weave today no longer make a direct connection between the weaving process and nature. A few local projects have emerged in on attempt to rectify the negative impacts of the commodification of carpet production. However, most of the carpets produced in these cooperatives remain commodities for sale to foreign tourists and external markets. Many of the alienating effects of commodity production continue to afflict the process.

Keywords: commodification, Turkish carpets, gender, tourism, natural dyeing, DOBAG.

INTRODUCTION

Traditional crafts are material expressions of a culture. For centuries hand made crafts served as means of communication between people who led different lives and had different cultures and languages, but could identify across the divide with symbols. Crafts were once for everyday use as well as commodities to trade. Today, the use many hand-made crafts has practically vanished, and most crafts are produced for their esthetic use and their authenticity, not their use value alone. Today, consumers demand their "traditional" crafts in special sizes and colors even when they are exotic hand-made crafts. Often it is market that decides which traditional craft should be produced, according to the logic of profit maximization.

This paper examines the commodification of traditional Turkish carpets, which used to be a medium of material cultural expression rooted in the history of Anatolian weaving. Traditional Turkish carpets always served as a commodity of exchange, along with their uses in everyday life. However, intensification of commercial production for tourism and external markets has transformed traditional production techniques. Woven forms and meanings that have traveled through space and time for centuries have been lost in this process. In this study I explore the transition of Turkish carpets from an artifact of everyday life imbued with cultural meaning to commodity of international exchange. First, I will discuss the mysterious history of the origins of Turkish carpets in Anatolia, and as well as the traditional functions and meanings of Anatolian carpets. I will also explain the traditional weaving techniques of Anatolia. Second, I will discuss the process of industrialization and commodification of Turkish carpets for tourist consumption and external markets. I will focus on the impacts of the transformation on traditional knowledge and women as traditional weavers. Finally, I will discuss the efforts of local cooperatives to revive traditional carpet weaving in Turkey.

TRADITIONAL TURKISH CARPETS

The 'magical fascination' of unwritten history in the carpets, which eludes purely rational contemplation. Made by eyes and hands that relay the visions and beliefs of many centuries, the carpets draw the beholder to look and look and look - perhaps to see, if only for a moment, some part of what the weaver saw (Bohler quoted in Peterson 1991: 9).

History and Origins of Traditional Turkish Carpets

In 1949, the Soviet archeologist Sergei Rudenko discovered the oldest surviving knotted carpet in the Pazyryk Valley in the Altai Mountains of southern Siberia. It was dated to be the 4th or 3rd century BC (Curatola 1981 and Opie 1992). Archeologist noted that it was made using the [so-called] "Turkish knot". The carpet fragment had been preserved very well in the Siberian ice. Although Thompson and Bohler assert that the red fibers in the rug were dyed with "Polish Kermes", available throughout the Central Asian steppe region (Opie 1992). Archeologist Rudenko claims that the carpet was dyed with the Mount Ararat Kermes, available in Persia proper (Curatola 1981).

There is no common explanation of where traditional Turkish carpet weaving originated. There are two historical perspectives: the Turkmen

Theory and the Goddess Theory. According to Turkmen Theory, carpet production and design in Anatolia originated in Central Asia, and were brought by Turkic nomads to Anatolia after the 11th century.
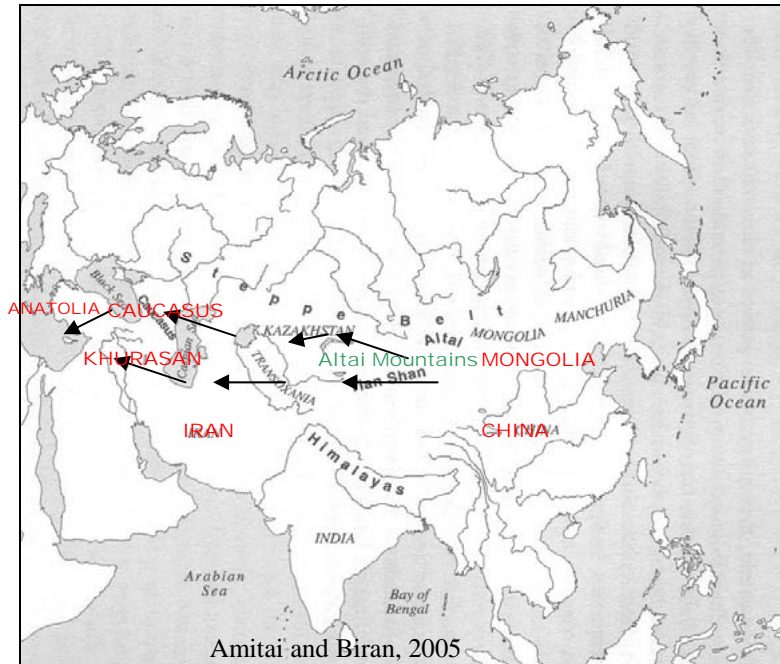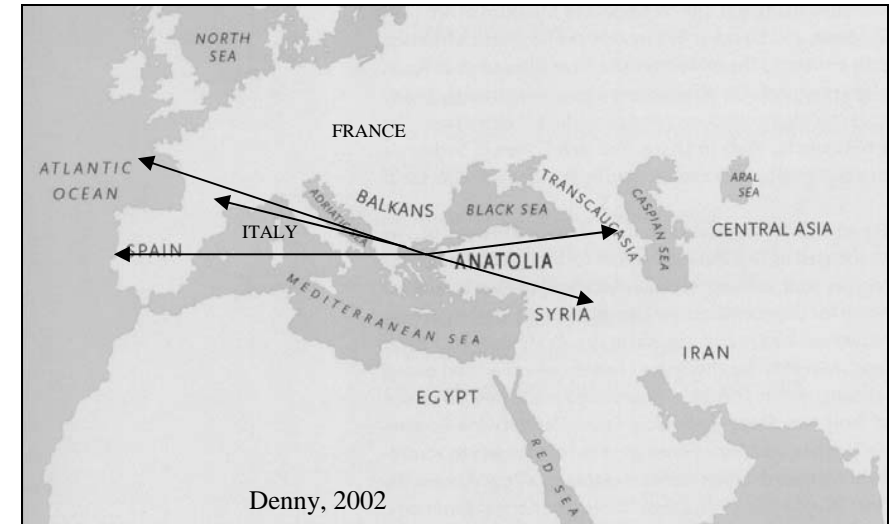

Map 1. Turkmen theory of the origin of Anatolian Carpets

Davies explains, "The Turkic and Mongolian tribes adopted certain motifs from the dominant Chinese culture, made them their own, and brought them westward, dispersing these influences as they migrated to Khurasan and on to the Caucasus and Anatolia" (1993:79). The Goddess Theory places emphasis on the indigenous origins of Anatolian carpets. It argues that carpet weaving and patterns originated in Anatolia, and spread from to the east there to west, because they already existed in Anatolia when nomadic Turks started to migrate to this land.

Davies explains "Rather than being the product of outside influences the Anatolian kilim is seen as descending in a direct line from Neolithic prototypes, presumed to have existed in the form of woven hangings

displayed in cult rooms devoted to the worship of a fertility goddess" (1993:69). The Goddess Theorists claim that sheep were being domesticated in 7,000 BC in Southwest Anatolia and linen cloth weaving had existed in çatalhöyűk in 6,000 BC and. By the fourth and third millennia BC sheep were already used for wool production (Davies 1993).

Map 2. Origins of Anatolian carpets according to the Goddess Theory

Despite the claims of these theories, the origins of the traditional Turkish carpets remain mysterious. Anatolia was a crucial land between the weaving regions of Europe, Middle East and Central Asia. It was the bridge between the mass movements of peoples and cultures from east to west and west to east. It is believed that the Crusaders were probably the first to carry oriental carpets to Europe on their return home in the eleventh century (Anderson 1998). This was the first time that exotic carpets of the east were introduced to the west. In the fifteenth century, Turkish carpets were already decorating the houses and the churches of wealthy Europeans. Raby states that "Documents from 1492 record the export of Turkish rugs to Italy, evidenced by the depiction of Turkish carpets in European paintings from the fifteenth century" (1986:30). During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the demand for Turkish carpets was so high throughout Europe that hundreds of thousands were imported by to the west (Erdmann 1977). By the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, the fame of Turkish carpets made Turkey the center of world

carpet trade as well as a transit market for carpets made in other Asian nations (Yelda 2004). Today, Turkish carpets are produced in special sizes and motifs depending on the demand from tourists and external markets.

Functions of the Traditional Turkish Carpets

Traditional Turkish carpets served several purposes. One of the most important functions was for everyday use. Nomadic Turks carried their carpets with them while they were migrating from one place to another. Carpets helped nomads to protect themselves from the cold and harsh environment of deserts and mountains. Carpets were woven in different sizes to meet the needs of everyday use. The walls and the doors of the nomad tents were covered by carpets to prevent dust and cold air from coming into the tent. Carpets were also used as dust covers over loaded camels during migration. Denny explains "Rugs formed the basic furnishing of nomad tents, provided the "clean place"…[and] served as a symbol of wealth and as a substitute for money" (1973:17-18). Carpets were produced to meet the space requirements of family dwellings, either in a permanent context or within a semi-nomadic lifestyle (Breu and Marchese 1999).

Carpets had meaning and represented spiritual and cultural values for the weavers and their society. Breu and Marchese state that "in addition to their practical use and purpose, items were invested with meaning that had common understanding within Turkish culture"(1999:244). As Davies argues "Certain rugs are also used to wrap the corpse. It is believed that the spirit of the dead person travels to join his ancestors only on the home carpet" (1993:64). Carpets were woven, used, and donated to mosques to gain God's grace. The creation of a dowry, which remains a tradition in parts of Anatolia, was one of the cultural reasons for women to weave. Denny argues "Rugs were used in place of money for the dowries of young girls, whose value as wives was based not on the more ephemeral current values of appearance and personality" (1973:18). Carpets besides serving in everyday use, were also traded when needed.

Symbolism in Traditional Turkish Rugs and Carpets

Village carpets, like other folk-art genres, act as a connecting thread between the weaver and her cultural, regional, and personal identity. Designs connect past and present--a link in time. Regional variants connect the weaver to her family

community--a link to place. Village carpets represent a living tradition of Anatolian carpet making with a long history of incorporating change (Anderson 1998:20).

The form and the meaning of traditional Turkish carpets have changed with time and space. To understand the carpet motifs, it is necessary to reconstruct the history, tradition, beliefs and understanding of the visual world of the weavers of the time. Nomadic people moved from one place to another and carried their designs with them. On occasion they joined with other groups and adopted their design or created new ones. Today, many women who weave traditional Turkish carpets in Anatolia do not know the original meaning of the motifs, or at least they keep this secret. Valcarenghi says "If you ask [a] weaver today why they always repeat the same motif on their [kilim] they inevitably respond anane, which means traditions in Turkish and, at the same time (phonetically) 'from mother to daughter'" (1994:15).

One of the most repeated motifs in traditional Turkish carpets is called elibelinde, which represents a human-like shape where the arms seem to curve towards the hips, waist or underbreast. According to Goddess Theorists, this motif has been used in Anatolia since the neolithic period, and the mother goddess is usually shown with hands cupping her breast, an offering of her fertility and the protector of nature (Balpinar 1990). Another common motif is the Tree of Life (Tuba) as symbol of life or paradise in Islamic tradition, or in its shamanistic sense, as the axle of the universe (Davies 1993). Pre-Islamic nomad carpets in Anatolia were naïve imitations of the natural world. However, orthodox Islamic thought brought the idea of "the denaturalization of nature". Islam's strong rejection of idolatry translated into the prohibition of pictorial representation of most living creatures, including humans. Cammann argues that "The most rigid orthodox Muslims themselves have always spurned pictorial art, refusing to accept pictures of any living things except flowers and trees, and thus they naturally rejected any type of symbolism that involved direct representation of birds, beast, or men [women]" (1972:6).

Duality is another most constant symbol to be found in traditional Turkish rugs and carpets, underlining the fact that "unity does not lie in one, but in two" (Valcarenghi 1994). Colors were also important in everyday iconography of traditional rugs and carpets. They had magical and

religious meanings and conveyed messages and emotions. It is known that a sect of Islamic nomads called "the Alevi-Bektasi" used red kilims as places to resolve their conflicts. The red kilim was a special place of truth, judgment and reconciliation (Davies 1993).

Traditional Turkish Weaving Techniques

No energy is created without bipolarity, without positive and negative. No child is born without the meeting of a man and woman. Good without evil, dark without light, death without life remain abstract virtualities. Whatever contains opposites (in this case is the loom) was identified with the image of nature that included every element and its opposite…the image of spinning and weaving represents the activity of the creative and shaping force of nature. The activity of the great ordinary mother of matter is compared with skillful twisting and weaving, which gives articulation, symmetrical form and delicacy to the raw material (Valcarenghi 1994:9).

More than a century ago, most of the traditional Turkish carpets were woven with traditional techniques. Natural dyes from plants were used to dye the fiber. Wool was the most common fiber used in traditional carpet weavings since it already contained certain mordants, chemical substances that fix the dye to the wool. Traditionally, Anatolian tribal weavers fermented their wool before dyeing to create an ideal environment for the dyeing process. Davies explains "In the yarn-fermenting process, hanks of wool are soaked for a period ranging from three to ten months, usually in a solution of wheat bran, sour dough, and mordant salts" (1993:21). Acidity and the temperature of the water helped to control the colors produced. Each tribal group used to gather their own dyeing plants depending on the time of the year and availability of plants in the areas they passed on their migratory routes. Breu and Marchese argues "a semi-nomadic traditional color combination may vary according to available plant communities. It was not uncommon for a nomadic group to produce items with different color combinations but with the same geometric design due to their migratory patterns. Objects produced in the summer may have been [a] radically different color from those produced in the winter" (1999: 246). Usually the roots and the flowers of the plants were collected and grounded into powder for the dyeing process. Red color came from a wild madder plant called Rubia tinctorum. Blue came from the leaves of the indigo plant (Isatis tinctoria). About 25 different plants gave the different shades of yellow, the most common one being the

flowers of wild chamomile (Anthemis china). Brown came from walnuts and black from the bark of the oak tree. Many other colors were created by mixing different dyes together. Wool was sheared, washed, dried, and spun prior to fermentation. After dyeing, looms were prepared. The designs were already in the memories of the women.

Traditional weaving was one way for people to socialize and share in the work of others, a practice known as imece in Turkish. This indigenous knowledge of carpet weaving passed from mother to daughter and father to son for centuries. However, the adoption of synthetic dyes, the mechanization of carpet production, and the intensification of production for tourist consumption and external markets have practically vanquished the indigenous knowledge of carpet weaving in Anatolia.

INDUSTRIALIZATION AND COMMODIFICATION OF TURKISH CARPETS

The secular republic of Turkey was established in 1923 after the collapse of the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman Empire had already started a trend toward the Westernization of institutions. However, the Kemalist model for catching up with Western nations accelerated the process of Westernization through self-sufficient industrial development. Davidson argues that "The economic program of the republic had elements of state socialism, but it was not socialist or dogmatic; it was pragmatic. 'State capitalism' is as good a term for it as any" (1988:141). A five year plan was implemented in the early 1930s to accelerate industrial development. Textile was one of the first sectors to be industrialized (Davidson 1988). Up until the 1980s, the Turkish government implemented import-substitution policies with the aim to strengthen industrial development. However, starting in the 1980s, the Turkish government has implemented liberalization and export-oriented economic policies to acquire foreign exchange and make payments on international debt. The settlement of nomads, originally started under the Ottoman Empire, was accelerated with the process of Westernization and industrialization of the Turkish Republic. They either settled voluntarily or were forced by the Turkish government to take up residence in villages (Anderson 1998).

The Impact of Tourism and External Markets on Traditional Weaving

Precapitalist relations are characterized by ownership of the means of production. For artisans this includes tools such as looms or kilns and raw materials such as

cloth or thread, production for personal or household use, and control over their own labor. Capitalist relations of production are characterized by lack of ownership of the means of production, the alienation of producers from the product, and production for exchange on the market (Tice 1995:10).

Although traditional Turkish carpets have always been traded as commodities, woven for exchange as well as for home consumption, the increase in foreign tourism, primarily German and British, and trade with European countries and the United States, in Turkey in the 1980s intensified the production of carpets mainly in exchange for cash. Commercial production for tourist consumption and external markets has altered the traditional functions, meanings, and techniques of traditional carpet weaving. Markwick states that "tourism leads to detrimental forms of commercialization or 'commoditization'. Commoditization alters the meaning of cultural products, such as folk/ethic arts, eventually making them meaningless" (2001:31). However, Cohen argues that "Commoditization need not destroy the meaning of cultural products, rather that it may change and add new ones…[this] sometimes occurs gradually through growing contact with outsiders; sometimes rapidly as a result of sudden change, development or historical intervention" (1989:164). Breu and Marchese claim that "External markets can dictate trend or have impact in altering the production schema of objects in demand…This is readily seen in the integration of Turkish society into a more global economy and the impact this has had on items that are usually considered staples of Turkish folk culture - Anatolian carpets and flat weavers" (1999:243).

Weavers used to own their means of production. They decided the shape, size, and meaning of the product, and were directly involved in the process of exchange. Today, the middleman or the merchant usually owns the means of production. They redefine the shape, size and the design of the product depending on its marketability, and engage directly in trading the product in both domestic and foreign markets. The merchant acts as the source of knowledge on external market conditions: changes in product demand, changes in stylistic interpretation, or changes in the general appearances of the product (Breu and Marchese 1999). The merchants make the most profit out of the carpet business, while the weaver becomes increasingly distant from the market for her product. Breu and Marchese argue "Merchants take an active role in redefining culture and cultural systems that emphasize efficiency of production,

reduce cost, and maximize profit. Concepts of tradition are meaningless and are dictated by external concerns far removed from the cultural heritage of the indigenous population" (1999:247).

Today, production has moved away from the houses or tents of the weavers to factory like locations where weavers have become the merchants' contracted workers. Breu and Marchese argue "Weavers simply became contracted labourers removed from [the] cultural heritage of their predecessors. Weaving locations were centralized away from home and the general routine of the family" (1999:246). Weaving used to provide income for the weaver whenever her family needed cash, but today, weaving has become the primary source of income for the family. Subsistence farmers and herders have become marginalized rural proletarians dependent on the cash economy. A villager in Turkey explains "But if it were not for this carpet business, we would still live hard lives…the carpet business has been the primary source of income for our villagers. Carpets woven, sold, and converted into money enable us to do our other jobs" (an interview with a villager quoted in Glassie 1993:645).

Industrialization, Commercialization and the Changes in Turkish Carpets

Natural plants have been used for dyeing textiles since 2000 BC. In 1856, William Henry Perkin discovered the synthetic dye. The dye industry rapidly expanded throughout the world. Germans became the leaders in the patenting and standardization of synthetic dyes. Synthetic aniline dyes became available in Turkey in the 1880s (Anderson 1998). Synthetic dyes have been widely used in both traditional Turkish carpet weaving and in the mechanized carpet industries throughout the world. Commercial synthetic dyes reduce the labor involved in the dying processes. Peterson argues "Because these so-called aniline dyes were cheaper than traditional dyes, could be produced in any quantity, and were easier and less time-consuming to use than traditional dyes. They soon invaded Turkey's carpet-weaving cottage industry" (1991:3).

As the Anatolian weavers adopted synthetic dye colors in their weavings, the tradition of natural dyeing began to vanish. Davies explains "When the Anatolian weaver rejected madder, with its nineteen different dyestuff[s] and extraordinary range of color potentialities, for a packet of synthetic primary red, she left behind an ancient tradition and a distinctive color

sense and began to enter the new aesthetic of the modern industrialized world" (1993:25).

Synthetic dyes were also supported by the expansion of a mechanized carpet industry in Turkey, where carpets were mass-produced in factories by mechanic looms. Anderson argues "Synthetic dyes are cheaper to produce than natural dyes, they could be processed in large quantities and took less time to make and use. They were ideal for the mass-production of factory textiles" (1998:3). Peterson states that "The final blow came in the 1960's when a new mechanized rug industry took over the small market for hand-knotted rugs, and village weavers were urged to imitate the look of machine-made carpets" (1991:4).

Impacts on Gender

Weaving is a highly gendered craft. In many weaving societies, as in Turkey, carpet weaving remains a female task. Dyeing and weaving are mostly women's work. Very few men engage in the dyeing processes, and practically none in weaving. Men are usually involved in the final stages of the process-the selling of the finished goods. However, women also play an important role in selling their arts in markets in villages, where the sell or barter their carpets (Atlihan 1993). Traditional carpet weaving has social, practical and economic dimensions. Traditionally, after nomads settled in a region during the summer months, women worked in the fields. In winters, having moved to new quarters, the women would weave for household use, and for exchange or cash. Weaving for a dowry was and still is another important tradition that explains why women are the weavers. Daughters are taught to weave from a very early age in hopes of making them more marriageable. Different weaving designs and use of different colors have traditionally been passed from mother to daughter. For centuries, weaving helped women socialize by sharing their work with others. Anderson states "Women like to weave in pairs. Socializing at the loom helps pass the time and alleviate boredom, and work goes quickly" (1998:26). Carpet weaving had cultural meaning and provided status for women. Women expressed their visual world in their art of weaving by symbolizing their feelings, and passed their designs from generation to generation.

However, women today weave motifs that are imposed by market forces. Many women weave as contracted laborers of merchants. They weave for

tourist consumption and external markets. The art of weaving has been standardized and weavers are increasingly forced to produce carpets that look mass-produced. The concept of socializing at the loom has almost completely disappeared by the dislocation of production from the home to factory like environments. Anderson argues that "With the increased demand from foreign markets, dealers were keen to bolster their output and established local ateliers, hiring young girls to work for a daily wage. Grossly unpaid [underpaid], many weavers felt exploited as cheap labor" (1998:5).

WHO ARE THE CONSUMERS?

The traditional functional value of carpets has practically disappeared. Today, carpets are mainly produced and consumed by tourists and foreign markets for decorative purposes. Buying traditional crafts temporarily connects the consumer to the producers' traditional culture. The consumers think that they are buying exotic art that is produced by traditional knowledge. Scrase discusses "In the act of buying an artisanal commodity, Western consumers are at once buying the experience of 'authenticity' and 'traditionalism' in a way that symbolically connects the community back to the producer" (2002:9). Today, most of the carpets in touristic cities and towns are woven for tourists' tastes and external markets. They are not produced in the traditional sizes, or have traditional colors and motifs. Breu and Marchese argue that "The dimension of carpets and [kilims] made by nomadic, semi-nomadic or sedentary peoples are often not suitable for modern dwellings. Today, proportion of newly made products are standardized to foreign households, having been dictated by the touristic consumer who is seeking a specific product" (1999:245). They continue "Consumers demanded specific dimensions, characteristics, and color combinations that were not found in traditional carpet productions of the past. Uniqueness of design and color was replaced by need for volume. Highly detailed [Uşak] pieces and ancillary traditional pattering was abandoned in favor of simplified computer generated designs that could be manipulated in order to meet changing market conditions. Every aspect of production was 'costed out' in order to maximize profit. The result was standardization…" (1999:245). Most customers seek the near-perfection of standardized synthetically dyed carpets. For others, evenness is uninteresting; they are looking for imperfection where unevenness is the sign of an artist's hand.

Many of the most valuable traditional Turkish carpets were created to decorate museums or are owned by wealthy private collectors or dealers in the West (M'Closkey 2002). Traditionally woven carpets for dust covers on loaded camels became the masterpieces of wealthy carpet collectors in Europe, the US or Turkey. The cheap standardized and synthetically dyed, hand-knotted or machine woven rugs and carpets are sold to the general Turkish public or to low budget tourists.

The young man who stands around the bus stop station in Ayvacık, where the carpets are piled for shipment, will tell you that these rugs are for the halk, the people (they are Turks who cannot afford better and for tourist traveling on a limited budget), while the naturally dyed carpets are for the 'capitalists' (Glassie 1993:643).

Turkish people, even village carpet weavers, have lost the tradition of using their own carpets in their houses. Instead they consume the cheapest machine manufactured carpets that they can find.

REVIVING TRADITIONAL TURKISH CARPET PRODUCTION

In the 1970s, a small group of people, with the support of the Turkish government started a local movement to revive traditional Turkish carpet weaving in Anatolia. They reintroduced old techniques of natural dying and weaving with traditional motifs.

Natural Dye Research and Development Project (DOBAG)

In the 1960s, Dr. Harald Bohmer, a German chemist, became interested in the colorful antique carpets of Turkish museums. He noticed that Anatolian carpets had lost their integrity and soul. He revisited Turkey in 1974 and started to identify the plant sources of traditional natural dyes. He faced the problem of reconstructing the traditional dyeing process because he did not find any literature about it, and the tradition had been abandoned for a long time. Knowledge had ceased to be passed from generation to generation. Bohler and the faculty of Fine Arts at Marmara University in Istanbul, Turkey, agreed to start the Doğal Boya Araştırma ve Geliştime Projesi (DOBAG) (The Natural Dye Research and Development Project.) The goals of the project are;

To put into practice Bohmer's research on natural dyes by teaching dying methods in selected villages, and form a self-financing cooperative to

market the "new" carpets. The subsequent goal was to revitalize and conserve traditional carpet making and with strict quality controls, restore the integrity of the craft. Moreover, a retail commodity would supplement family incomes and improve economic conditions in impoverished areas. To promote sufficiency, villagers themselves would make up the membership of the cooperative. (Anderson 1998: 6)

The Ayvacık area was an ideal place to start the project since it was still preserving the traditional village motifs and had an unbroken weaving tradition. Ayvacık is in Northwest Aegean peninsula of Turkey covering 550 square miles, with a total village population of about 28,000 people. The region has 66 outlying villages. It was largely nomadic. Local people call themselves Yőrűk Turks, Yőrűk meaning "we who roam," and were settled voluntarily or by government enforcement in the 1920s. (Anderson 1998:10) Ayvacık became the first carpet weaving cooperative supported by the government with an initial loan of $100,000. In 1982, a year after the establishment of the Ayvacık cooperative, the project expanded to a second region South of Ayvacık called the Yuntdağ. Yuntdağ is a mountain range between Manisa and Bergama that reaches over 1,000 m. Yunt is an old Turkish word meaning horse and dağ means mountain, literally means horse mountain country. There are 50 small villages are located in the slopes and the valleys of Yuntdağ. The inhabitants are also nomadic Yörűk Turks. Yuntdağ was selected because its isolation has allowed traditional carpet weaving and other folk art to survive with little outside influence.

In Ayvacık, dye demonstrations are open to everyone in the village. Each weaver supplies her own tools and materials, and she is free to sell her carpets to the cooperative or anywhere she chooses. However, in Yuntdağ, only one person from each village was trained to practice natural dyeing and these villagers worked for the cooperative. In Yuntdağ, the cooperative provide all the tools and materials and pays the weaver for the labor. In the Ayvacık cooperative, it is the men who hold the cooperative membership and receive payment on behalf of the women weaver. At the Yuntdağ cooperative the women weavers hold the membership, creating the first and only all female cooperative in Turkey (Anderson 1998).
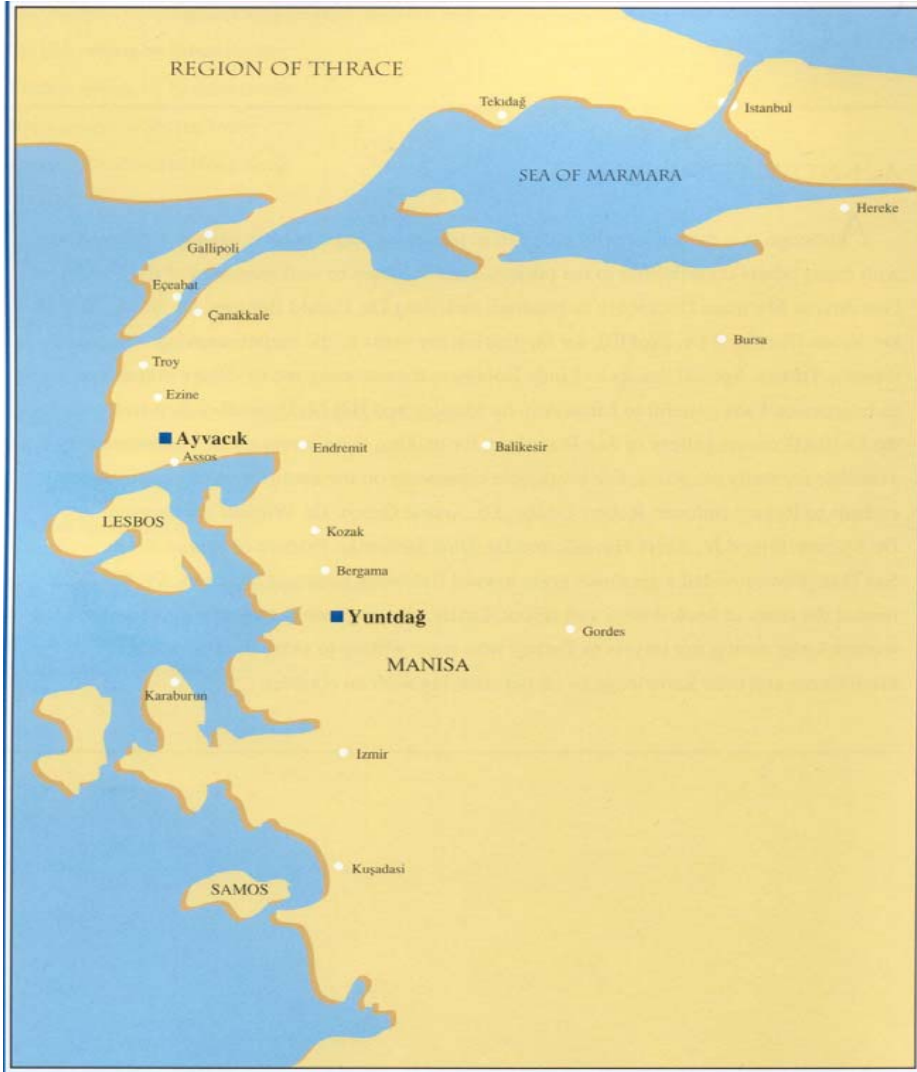
Map 3: Ayvacık and Yuntağ Weaving cooperatives

In both cooperatives weavers are free to make personal choices of colors and motifs for their carpets as long as they fit the quality standards set out by DOBAG. Anderson explains that "Each DOBAG carpet is registered at Marmara University and is sold with an attached leather tag guaranteeing that the carpet is dyed with natural dyes, has an authentic Turkish village pattern (rather than a copy of a Caucasian or Persian design) " (1998:14).

Women work in the fields during the summer and harvest months, and from September to May women fit weaving into their household chores. Most carpets are woven on a communal basis with villagers sharing the work, depending on the size of the carpet. Women can sit and weave side by side at the loom. In the Ayvacık cooperative, although the women weave together, they do not share the profit. One woman provides the tools and materials and decides the design. When a weaver receives help from another weaver, she will owe knots made on her carpet to her helper, and will repay her by working on the helper's rug on a later day. They are basically bartering labor. In general, the weaver receives payment from the cooperatives depending on the number of knots in her carpet. Cooperatives guarantee that weavers are compensated fairly for their work. Additionally, the weavers receive 70% of the profit from each carpet sold in the export market.

DOBAG carpets are only sold in external markets. Most of the carpets are exclusively made for export, and are shipped directly from villages. There are five distribution centers around the world: San Francisco, Oslo, Copenhagen, Bonn, and Perth. The cooperatives' carpets are also sent to selected dealers in Oxford, London, Dublin, and Oldenburg (Anderson 1998). Naturally dyed and traditionally woven carpets produced at the DOBAG cooperatives decorate the walls and the floors of homes and museums of Europe, to the benefit of the poor areas of the Aegean coast without disrupting the social structure and traditional way of life (Anderson 1998).

Kavacık Project

Another effort to revive traditional carpet weaving represented by the Kavacık Project, established in the city of İstanbul in 1986. Yorgo Mihailidis, a copper merchant, and Ahmet Abuska, a villager from a Mount Ararat, were inspired by the idea of reviving the traditional natural dyeing and conservation of the Turkish carpet tradition in the İstanbul region. The purpose of the project was to achieve the conservation and promotion of the Anatolian carpet tradition by producing high quality village carpets while at the same time improving the employment situation in gecekondu around İstanbul. The project aims to use materials and techniques that were used in the villages before synthetic dyes were introduced. The main priority was the uniqueness of every single carpet - not their mass production (Bieber 1990). Many families who live in

Gecekondu dwellings migrated to İstanbul from their villages, primarily for economic reasons. However, 75% of women living in gecekondu remain unemployed. The Kavacik Project has provided job opportunities for Gecekondu women and connected them with their former activities. Bieber claims "In order to encourage the workers and maintain their morale, they are paid and enjoy a number of social benefits" (1990:170). The Kavacik Project uses only high quality wool from Karaman sheep and two hundred women are employed around Anatolia to supply traditionally carded and spun wool for the project. The Kavacık Project practices the wool fermentation technique for the dying process, one of the oldest dyeing traditions in Anatolia.

The DOBAG and Kavacık Projects are local efforts to revive the traditional knowledge of carpet weaving in Anatolia. In both cases, the projects aim to provide fair wages and working conditions for weavers; far better conditions from those prevailing in a factory, and an environment where variety of designs in carpets can be expressed. Weavers are strongly encouraged to engage to the production process. However, the weavers who sell their labor to cooperatives remain alienated from their product even when they own the means of production. In the case of the DOBAG project, most of the carpets woven by women are exported to foreign markets. The traditional value and the quality of the carpets are only appreciated and enjoyed by the wealthy foreign consumers. In the case of the Ayvacık cooperative, weavers have the choice to sell their carpets elsewhere and they usually sell them to merchants who have businesses in tourist towns. The weaver, aware of the value and the quality of her labor and product, generally charges high prices. Naturally, merchants in the business also sell the product at high prices to high income Turks and tourists.

CONCLUSIONS

The production of carpets in Anatolia has gone through enormous modifications over the last century. Carpets were traditionally produced primarily for their use-value to the household and were loaded with cultural meaning. The introduction of synthetic dyes in the late 19th century, the mechanization of Turkish looms in the early 20th century, and the development of a rapidly expanding tourist market in the 1980s have reshaped the production process and cultural meaning of weaving in Anatolia. Nowadays, carpets are rarely produced for their household use-

value. Instead, they are mostly produced to generate income for the household, as a commodity of exchange for cash earnings. The vast majority of carpets sold in the Turkish domestic market are machine produced in factories where no weaving skills are required and workers can be easily replaced. Hand-made carpets and rugs are currently produced mainly for foreign markets, tourists, and the Turkish upper-middle class. Most of this production takes place in ateliers where the weavers are provided synthetically dyed fibers (wool, cotton, silk and synthetics), standard-size metal looms, and the motifs of the carpet that they must produce. The carpet merchants who own these ateliers choose the design according to the variations in taste in the tourist and external markets. Weavers in these workshops no longer own the means of production (wool, dyes, loom, design), control the production process, or dispose of the product itself. They have been reduced to skilled hired labor.

Women have been particularly affected by these changes because they have traditionally been the ones in charge of practically the entire process of carpet making. Men participated in some activities such as shearing, dyeing and commercialization of the product, but the entire process of wool spinning, design and weaving was always conducted by women. The changes in carpet production represent a loss to women weavers at several levels. Whereas traditional weaving was a social activity embedded in daily household chores and seasonal in character, commodified weaving has been stripped out of the household and its social context and taken to factory-like environments where the women work in alien surroundings for a wage. Having lost control over the means of production, women weavers are alienated from the production process itself and the product of their labor. In this transition to wage labor not only have they lost control over inputs and outputs, but the cultural meaning of weaving and the link that this activity provided to the natural environment has severed.

The traditional process of carpet production required women to engage with nature through the collection of plants for dyes. The vast majority of women who continue to weave today no longer make a direct connection between the weaving process and nature. The widespread use of synthetic dyes has resulted in the disappearance of traditional knowledge regarding the uses of a great diversity of plants. As a result weavers no longer view the natural world as an integral part of the weaving process. Even

materials such as the loom and fiber do not seem to have any ties to the immediate natural surroundings. Traditionally, weavers found inspiration for motifs in nature. Carpets and rugs were often a cultural expression of the weaver's relation to nature. With motifs and designs provided by merchants to please capricious foreign taste, weaving no longer serves as a means of cultural expression. The work process in the atelier, and the product itself, becomes fully disconnected from the local cultural and natural environment that traditionally were the sources of its inspiration.

A few local projects have emerged in an attempt to rectify the negative impact of the commodification of carpet production. The creation of cooperatives where the weavers have control over the motifs and design of the product, and where traditional dyeing methods have been reintroduced, can contribute to a regeneration of the ties between weaving, culture, and nature. However, most of the carpets produced in these cooperatives remain commodities for sale to foreign tourists and distant markets, not for everyday use in the household. Depending on the particular rules of these cooperatives relating to ownership of the looms and wool, or disposal of carpets and rugs, many of the alienating effects of commodity production continue to afflict the process.

An interesting question that merits further research is the relation between the settlement of nomadic tribes within a strong weaving tradition and the use of plant dyes. Nomads traditionally gathered plants for dyeing as they moved from summer to winter quarters. Limited geographic space many of these plants are no longer available. This may have contributed to use of synthetic dyes and may represent an important barrier to be reintroduction of traditional dyeing in Anatolia.

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A Competitiveness Analysis of Eight Mediterranean Countries based on Tourism Indices

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ABSTRACT

Competitiveness of a tourism destination and benchmarking are receiving increasing attention from both industry and academia. The purpose of this study is to identify the relative performance of select Mediterranean destinations (Algeria, Egypt, France, Greece, Italy, Morocco, Spain, Turkey) based on the competitive data monitor and tourism indices published by World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC). The multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) analysis was utilized to analyze both attributes and objects in a joint space. The findings showed two groups of destinations that have similar competitiveness profiles and three destinations with unique competitiveness profiles. The first group of destinations includes France and Italy whereas the second group set consists of Spain, Turkey, and Greece. Lastly, Morocco, Egypt, and Algeria are located far away from other destinations on the perceptual map suggesting that these countries have unique competitiveness profiles. The relative performance of the destination countries along with twelve specific tourism indices and the limitations of the study were discussed.

Keywords: Mediterranean countries/tourism indices/competitiveness/perceptual map

INTRODUCTION

Competitiveness of a tourism destination and benchmarking are getting more academic attention and increasingly becoming more critical in today's world as destinations strive for bigger tourism market share and income (Kozak 2004; Crouch and Ritchie 1999; Kozak and Rimmington 1999). Competitiveness is a more critical concept for destinations which rely heavily on tourism earnings for their economies. However, it is also very complex to measure (Porter 1990). To measure competitiveness, destinations should first define the concept of competitiveness. Some authors have defined competitiveness as a multidimensional concept that requires superiority in several aspects while defined it as a general concept that encompasses price differentials coupled with exchange rate movements, productivity levels of various components of the tourist industry and qualitative factors affecting the attractiveness of a

destination (Dwyer, Forsyth and Rao (2000). To achieve competitive advantage for its tourism industry, a destination should ensure that its overall attributes are superior to that of the alternative destinations that potential visitors might visit (Dwyer 2004). As a consequence, destination competitiveness and positioning has become very popular in the tourism literature (Goodrich 1977; Ahmed 1991; Pearce 1997; Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001). As tourists visit other destinations and gain experience, they naturally make comparisons between facilities, attractions, and service standards of various destinations (Laws 1995). Since a destination cannot gain competitive advantage over every other destination, it should identify its primary competitors. This is also called a destination's competitive set (Kozak and Rimmington 1999). Some destinations are never in direct competition as they are offering completely different products and locations. Gursoy and Kendall (2005) stated that most studies have been using subjective surveys of consumer opinions to position the destinations. Surveys are considered to be subjective in general since the measures (in the form of questions and scales) used in each survey are not comparable. In this respect, Gursoy and Kendall (2005) drew attention to the importance of using more objective information to develop better positioning of the destinations.

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to reveal strengths, weaknesses and competitor sets of selected Mediterranean destinations (Algeria, Egypt, France, Greece, Italy, Morocco, Spain, Turkey). By being aware of their competitor sets, these countries can allocate their resources in the most effective way to compete with other countries. The study also helps for benchmarking as it will identify their relative performance. The data, tourism indices, for this research was obtained from World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC). The indices included in the study are hotel price, purchasing power parity, taxes on goods and services, tourism participation, tourism impact, roads, population density, CO_2 emissions, environmental treaties, visa requirements, tourism openness, and daily newspapers.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) (Alscal procedure) analysis was conducted using SPSS 13.0 to examine attributes and objects simultaneously that would not be detected otherwise. In addition, this particular analysis enables the reader not only to examine whether there is a relationship between

the variables, but also to assess the type of the relationship between these variables. The perceptual maps serve as a tool to analyze both attributes and objects in a joint space.

This study identified two groups of destinations that have similar competitiveness profiles and three destinations with unique competitiveness profiles. The first group of destinations includes France and Italy. The second group includes Spain, Turkey, and Greece. Lastly, Morocco, Egypt, and Algeria are located far away from other destinations on the perceptual map suggesting that these countries have unique competitiveness profiles.

As seen in Figure 1, in the first group, France and Italy are located close to newspaper and road attributes suggesting that these destinations are more competitive than other destinations in those areas. Spain, Turkey, and Greece are located close to the first group but there are slight differences between these two groups. Spain, Turkey, and Greece appear to be more competitive than other destinations in terms of taxes on goods and services. According to Figure 2, Morocco is located close to tourism impact and tourism openness attributes suggesting that it is more competitive than other destinations in those areas. Egypt is another destination without any close competitors and it is more competitive than other destinations in terms of hotel price, purchasing power parity, CO2 emission, population density, and environmental treaties. Lastly, Algeria is located close to tourism participation and visa attributes suggesting that it is more competitive in those areas than other destinations.

As Figure 1 and Table 1 show, the first group, Italy and France, are more competitive than other destinations in terms of number of people having access to newspapers and roads constructed. The number of people having access to newspapers is a criteria that reveals the education level of citizens and a nation's adult literacy rate. It can be assumed that people having access to newspapers at least four times a week are more open-minded and educated, which is very important for the image of a destination. Italy and France are also more competitive than other destinations in terms of road infrastructure. Despite the fact that most of the image creators have not realized its importance yet, roads are very important for the transportation of tourists and accessibility of the destination. If roads are well constructed, tourists can stay longer, travel more, and spend more tourism dollars. With Algeria, Italy and France are also relatively competitive in visa requirements, suggesting that they do not require visas for U.S., UK, German, French and Italian citizens to enter the country. However, Spain and Italy appear to be the least competitive in tourism impact

and tourism openness implying that tourism receipts and expenditures do not take a huge share in the whole economy. The small share of tourism industry can prevent the industry from taking incentives from governments and tourism may not be the government's primary concern when passing legislations and acts.
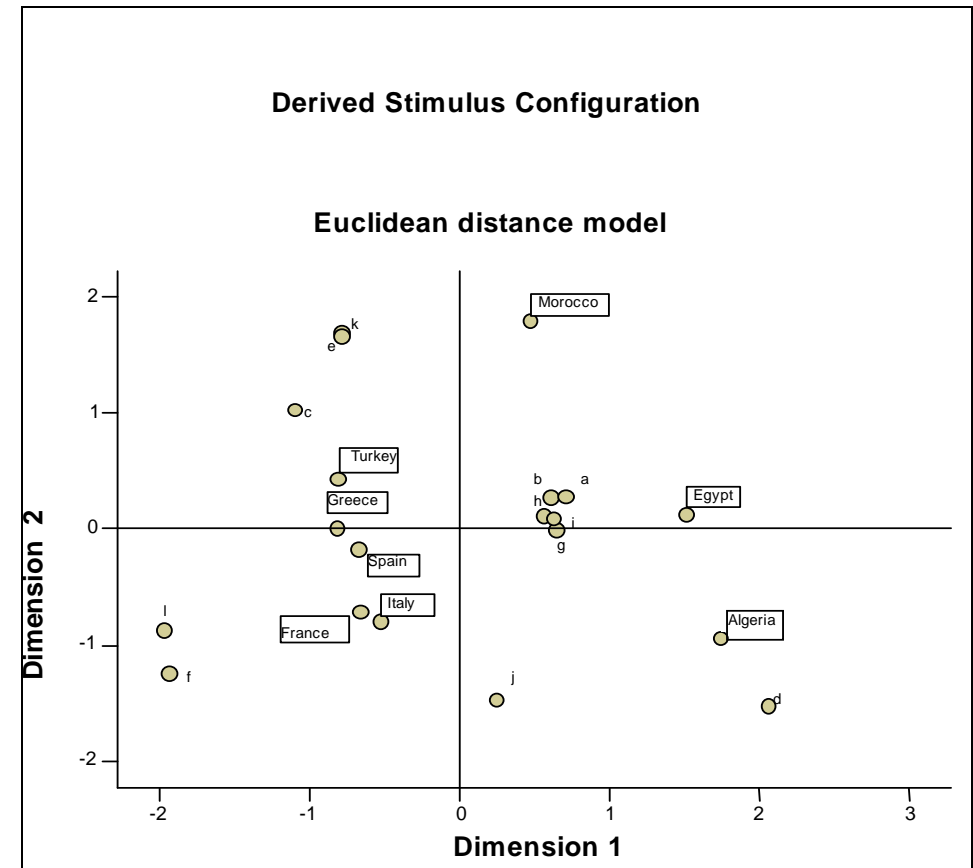
a= hotel price
b=purchasing power parity
c= taxes on goods and services
d= tourism participation
e= tourism impact
f= road

g= population density
h= C02 emission
i= environmental treaties
j= visa
k= tourism openness
l= newspaper

Figure 1. Multidimensional perceptual map

The second group, Greece, Spain, and Turkey, are more competitive than other destinations in taxes on goods and services. With the help of low tax rates, tourism industry professionals of these destinations can spend their earnings for advertising campaigns, or the construction of tourism facilities, rather than paying for taxes. Furthermore, they can offer more reasonable prices of tourism products and services to attract more visitors. However, Greece, Spain, and Turkey are least competitive in tourism participation, suggesting that despite their potentials, they cannot attract people to work in the hospitality industry.

Table 1. SWOT Analysis of Mediterranean destinations

Destinations	Strenghts	Weaknesses
Italy, France	Newspaper, road, visa	Tourism impact, tourism openness
Turkey, Spain, Greece	Taxes on good and services	Tourism participation
Morocco	Tourism openness, tourism impact	Newspaper, road, visa, tourism participation
Egypt	Hotel price, purchasing power parity, CO2 emission, environmental treaties, population density	Newspaper, road
Algeria	Tourism participation, visa	Tourism impact, tourism openness

Despite the fact that tourism industry generates 5.2 percent of Turkey's GDP (Gross Domestic Product) it can still be suggested from the findings that Turkey is not successful in attracting its people to work in the hospitality industry. In addition, Turkey's main advantage for many years was its low prices to attract visitors. However, it can be interpreted from these findings that countries, such as Egypt and Morocco, have used price cutting strategy to increase their market share in the world's tourism industry. These findings also indicate that Turkey unlike Morocco, Algeria, and Egypt does not have unique positioning in the Mediterranean tourism market and has strong and close competitors, like Greece and Spain.

There are some limitations of this study. First of all, it is valid as long as the data provided by WTTC is valid. We did not have any control over the data collection and the creation of the indexes. Because of the lack of multiple data sources, data could not be cross checked (Zikmund, 2005). This study used a limited number of attributes and countries due to the lack of available data. We do not know whether these attributes are fully determinants in designing destination's competitor sets. There might be some other attributes that are

important competitive variables but this study does not include them. In addition, there may be other countries that are not included in this study but are actually in the competitive set of those destinations analyzed herein. Another limitation is that we do not know if the differences are significant since MDS is a not an inferential technique. Finally, the results of this study are based on the actual values although potential traveler's perceptions for each destination might be different from what is shown in here.

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Sport-climbing Tourism on Kalymnos: Exploiting a Natural Resource

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INTRODUCTION

The presentation gives an overview of tourism in Kalymnos, and identifies factors contributing to low levels of tourism in the past. These include the absence of an airport on the island, long transfer times, and few sandy beaches. The development of Sport-climbing tourism, and the effect on the island, is examined and it is postulated that, in addition to reversing the previous decline in tourism, it is bringing additional benefits. These include the growth in the shoulder seasons, preference for smaller family-run accommodation, and positive impacts in Islanders' sense of identity. The characteristics of the new tourists are explained with reference to Csikszentmihalyi's concept of flow, and typologies such as Cohen's .Prime identified motivations are to undertake the activity of climbing, in suitable climatic conditions. Secondary motivations are identified, referring to previously unpublished work by the author on the travel motivations of UK climbers.

By referring to the rapid development of Sport-climbing tourism in Kalymnos, and the important part played in this by the local municipality, and contrasting this with the haphazard nature of Sport-climbing development in other tourism destinations (e.g. Railay, Thailand) the poster develops a model to describe the level of contribution that local agencies make in establishing this form of tourism. A five-level model of local agency involvement is postulated, with levels ranging from Hostility, through Indifference, to the highest level: Instigation. The presentation argues that there is limited evidence of planned assistance from local agencies in developing Sport-climbing tourism, with the consequence that many potential destinations for this form of tourism either do not develop or proceed at a slow and unplanned rate. The experience of Kalymnos provides a template for other destinations to follow; even here, however, elements of chance have been involved, and therefore the level 5: Instigation stage has not been achieved. A brief postscript on the current

development of this form of tourism in the area around Antalya and Fethiye will be included, along with a suggested structure for further development.

Keywords: shoulder season, local agency involvement, instigation.

Socio-cultural Impacts of Tourism: A Hosts Perspective

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ABSTRACT

There exists a growing body of literature on economic and environmental impacts in developing countries, yet in the area of the effects of tourism on society and culture the literature is still limited. Furthermore, the little research that has been undertaken which focuses upon developing countries often assumes a Western perspective. Therefore the purpose of this study was to examine the socio-cultural impacts of tourism in a destination context and from a host perspective. The study touches on areas of employment, gender and development issues, host / guest relationships, tourism as a form of progression, moral issues and economic factors. The interviews revealed that residents both supported the current magnitude of tourism and favoured its expansion. The results suggest that residents who were dependent upon tourism could differentiate between economic benefits and social costs, which were often interactional, and that awareness of negative consequences does not lead to opposition towards further tourism development. More importantly, local residents demonstrated feelings of pride and happiness with regard to both tourism and tourists, pointing out that their cultural interaction and exchange has improved their knowledge, capability and capacity.

Keywords: social cultural impacts, host perceptions, cultural viewpoints.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a global phenomenon considered to be one of the largest industries in the world. According to Page, Brunt, Busby, and Connell (2001) tourism has grown rapidly in the post-war period, notably within the developing countries. The perceptions associated with developing countries previously saw images of famine, poverty, starvation and war. These images have been superseded by those of environmental beauty and as offering traditions and cultures of benefit and some interest to the Western world. As a result two significant changes have occurred, firstly, the developed countries of the world have shown interest in visiting these countries and as a result tour operators offer package holidays to certain destinations. Secondly, governments from developing countries have realised that by promoting tourism they can gain foreign exchange. Tourism is a social event; which involves interaction between different societies and cultures therefore one can assume that there will be an exchange of values, opinions and lifestyles. Socio-cultural impacts are "about the effects on the people of host

communities, of their direct and indirect associations with tourists" (Mathieson and Wall 1982:133)

A growing body of literature on economic and environmental impacts in developing countries exists, yet in the area of the effects of tourism on society and culture the literature is still limited. Furthermore, the little research that has been undertaken which focuses upon developing countries often assumes a Western perspective and portrays a negative outlook The purpose of this study was to examine the socio-cultural impacts of tourism in a destination context and from a host perspective, to investigate in depth local people and their views, that being the local community of Kovalam beach in Kerala and their perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of tourism.

Research into host perceptions of tourism can be used as a valuable tool for future planning of tourism. Theobald mentions the incorporation of community perspectives in future planning, yet one could suggest that it is only as a token gesture as he says that these people "are not necessarily experts in tourism planning" (1994:155). It seems almost as if tourism and its planning is taking priority over people's feelings and perspectives, when the reality is that we should be learning from peoples past and present experiences to develop a form of tourism that is socially and culturally beneficial to the host population.

Faulkner and Tideswell (1997) note that with the growth of tourism at new destinations and increasing activity at established destinations, many local communities are experiencing the impacts of this growth. According to MacCannell (1976), Smith (1977), De Kadt (1979) and Murphy (1985) "Tourism is a socio-cultural event for the traveller and the host" (in Page, Brunt, Busby and Connell 2001:276). This means that wherever tourism takes place there is an exchange of socio-cultural values, practices and traditions on both parties. Smith (1989) among many other authors calls these exchanges "impacts", which can be either positive or negative. According to Brown (1998:67), social-cultural impacts may arise from at least four different situations. Yet one must consider a fifth situation, in terms of post-colonial destinations whereby residents are faced with familiar behaviour and demands from tourists, similar to those of the colonizers, but have the knowledge and ability to take advantage and capitalize on them. It can be suggested that a range of factors will influence the nature and extent of socio-cultural impacts. According to Sharpley (1994) these include the size and development of the tourism industry, at what pace tourism is developed, how important the tourism industry is and the types and numbers of tourists that visit.

De Kadt (1979) defines the demonstration effect as "changes in attitudes, values or behaviour which can result from merely observing tourists" with Youell (1998) suggesting that the hosts seek to emulate the values and behavior of their guests whilst aspiring to obtain material possessions. This may cause either beneficial or detrimental effects on the host community. Brown (1998:70) observes that through the demonstration effect, tourism contributes to disruption in certain communities, yet in the same sentence admits that the media have just as much effect. Therefore, it is questionable as to what extent tourism can shelve the blame. A part of the demonstration effect is acculturation, whereby it is suggested that one can identify a long-term change in a culture and society, which may occur as a result of tourism. This does not signify destruction but rather a sharing of values. On the other hand, cultural drift attributes itself to a temporary transformation in the hosts' behaviour for the duration of the host and guest encounter (Burns 1999). It must be noted that the demonstration effect is not a one-way process and often tourists in a resort, or when they return home, try to emulate their hosts' behaviour, by way of dress style, food tastes and even religious characteristics.

Culture is an attractive part of the tourism product, which in turn is often used as a sales tool. This can take the form of any cultural aspect such as religion, language, tradition, handicrafts or lifestyle, presented in a package form for the tourist to purchase and which according to Gartner (1996), affects the production and nature of the original product and thus constitutes a "symbolically incomplete" experience (Graburn 1984 in Harrison 1992: 21). It has been argued that traditional dance forms, such as Khathakali have lost all meaning when placed into a sixty-minute package and sold to the tourists'. Kathakali, which means, "story play" is a performing art, which incorporates dance, folklore and tradition. The dramas are based on Hindu epics and last for up to twenty-four hours (Cannon and Davies 2000:32). Jacob (1998:155) describes it as capsule form for the entertainment of the tourists. However, due to the complexity of the system of symbols involved, a lot of effort and intelligent viewing is required (ibid).Therefore one can suggest that by adapting the dance to suit the tourists, it allows for the preservation of a traditional art form and keeps the Kathakali culture alive. Youell (1998) suggests that distortions in local customs and alterations to religious codes are occurring to accommodate the tourists. Furthermore, he suggests that tourism leads to a loss of traditional industries and craftwork, when people are tempted to work in tourism or begin to import mass-produced tourist goods.

The moral issues concerned with impacts of tourism are largely concerned with sex tourism and crime, which are often inter-linked with drug and alcohol use. Yet, one must take into account that different societies and cultures have different morals and values, and what may be acceptable to one society maybe considered unacceptable to another. Sex tourism appears under many guises, however since this study took place romance, love and erotic tourism are becoming terms perhaps more suited to some aspects of sexual relations within tourism relations. This can occur not only on a host/guest relationship but also between the tourists themselves. Opperman (1999) argues that sex tourism is not simply a matter of monetary exchange but should be viewed as multi dimensional. Concerning the host/guest relationship it is often perceived to be degrading and exploitive of the host population, however De Albuquerque (1999) found that sex tourism in the Caribbean was generally mutually beneficial (in Dank and Refinette 1999). Therefore it is important not to generalize and to consider specific impacts with relation to their social and spatial context. Also one has to consider within each location as to whether tourism has created a sex trade or whether a sex trade has stimulated a tourism market (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, Shepherd, and Wanhill 1998). The issues surrounding crime are listed by Ryan (1993:173) as having five different relationships with tourism. However Mathieson and Wall (1982), among many, question to what extent tourism contributes to an increase in crime. Also, one must consider the possibility that tourists may engage in criminal activities or behavior whilst on holiday.

Tourism unites people all over the world and therefore could be seen as being representative of a combination of societies and cultures. Most tourism literature focuses on culture in its material form and fails to recognise personal or societal thoughts, values and behaviour, the non-material aspects of culture. According to Fox (1977) the social effects of tourism are broad ranging and refer to ways in which tourism contributes to changes in value systems, individual behaviour, family relationships, collective lifestyle, safety levels, moral conduct, creative expressions, traditional ceremonies and community organisations (in Ap 1990:611) "Society is the sum of human conditions and activity regarded as a whole functioning interdependently and the customs and organisation of that ordered community" (Thompson 1996:978).

Culture is complex and there are many definitions and perceptions of what culture is. Tylor (1924) defined culture as "that complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (in Reisinger and Turner

2003:5). These conditioning elements consist of a person's everyday life. They include language, traditions, religion, education and leisure activities and are acquired over time. They form the basis of an individual's identity within their circle of a society thus showing that society and culture are interrelated. However one can suggest that some cultural characteristics can be categorised into gender, caste/class and religion. Culture is not static, it is dynamic and susceptible to change over time, therefore whenever two cultures interact, they will have impacts upon each other. Rojek and Urry (1997) discuss the notion that people tour cultures and that culture and objects travel. Therefore it can be suggested that tourism and culture cannot be separated but have to be viewed as a part of a whole. Furthermore, as this concept suggests that people tour cultures, both the host and guest can be looked on as participating in a form of cultural tourism at the same time. Jafari (1987) discusses the notion of a tourist culture, whereby host and guest behave differently when together, although both parties retain some of their original culture they produce this new form of tourist culture at tourism destinations. If one considers this idea it begins to raise the question of whether: when people of two cultures meet, do they change their identity for that period of time in order to portray an image which they may possibly desire to be?

Globalisation indicates cultural exchange on a daily basis yet within the context of tourism, culture is not only an integral part of a person's identity, society or day-to-day life, it can also be viewed as a commodity, a resource base for tourism, a unique product; which provides an attraction for the tourist consumer. Burns (1999) discusses the idea that in today's post-modern society, particularly in the West and growing in the less developed countries, consumerism and commoditization are interlinked and whereby components of the host culture are adapted and offered to tourists for consumption. Selwyn (1996) argues that this commoditization leads to a loss of meaning of culture and a lack of societal bonding (in Burns 1999). Furthermore, he assumes that the commoditization and consumerism of a tourism product leads to a state of cultural dependency by the host population. The dependency theory is used both in international and domestic tourism, with the notion that the core regions exploit the periphery areas, a concept of power relations through economic benefit (Graburn and Moore 1994)

It is suggested that the host/guest relationship is no different to the process of globalisation, whereby when the host enters into his daily working routine he adapts his culture to suit a situation. With the case of India, Sheth (1979) agrees with this idea, taking it one step further by relating it to the Hindu culture and its caste system and rigidness, he notes that people "had a propensity to make adjustments with changing environments, Indian employers and workers could easily compartmentalise their social behaviour at home and in the office" (in Roy and Tisdell 1998:129).This is not to say that certain aspects of acculturation will not take place, this is a phenomena that is almost certain to happen when two cultures meet. Acculturation theory explains that when two cultures come into contact of any duration, each becomes somewhat like the other through a process of borrowing (Nunez 1989:266). Burns (1999) believes that the stronger culture (with no connotations of superiority) is the richer one economically and they will dominate and change the weaker (not meaning inferior), poorer culture. Yet, again one has to consider from what viewpoint one takes the approach, whether culture is based on economical factors or rooted in history and traditions. It can be argued that in the case of most less developed countries the foundations of their culture is located thousands of years before and evolves around religion and tradition; which is the basis of their family morals, values and traditions. These countries adapt through time and take on change, yet remain rooted in their foundations.

Liu and Var (1986) observe that there is an absence of a comprehensive tourism theory concerned with the impacts of tourism, furthermore Ap, describes the impact field as being "exploratory in nature and primarily descriptive" (1992:660) Most literature written on socio-cultural impacts is somewhat biased as it focuses mainly on the negative impacts and little on the positive benefits, unless there is the underlying factor of economic benefit. In addition it assumes a Western perspective and from an academic point of view. Therefore one has to question whether the people of developing countries who are living within communities that host tourism, regard theories of socio cultural impacts in the same manner. No two societies are the same and none represent a homogeneous group, therefore one has to be careful not to make broad statements and theories. Doxey (1975) produced a conceptual model based on levels of host irritation, however if one compares this to Butlers model (1980) of resort development (both in Page, Brunt, Busby, and Connell 2001) it becomes apparent that the diversity of societies is not accounted for. Different groups of people within a society will have different perceptions.

Most literature concerned with socio cultural impacts does not take into account the individual history of a destination and how that may have shaped a place prior to tourism. As Dunlop (2001) discusses, India has a long history of invasion by countries from the Western world. Its people have encountered numerous changes from invasion to colonisation, through to independence and

new political rules. Therefore it can be suggested that this is a nation who have encountered socio cultural change many times including the impacts associated with change and are able to adapt whilst retaining their basic cultural foundations. In contrast, it could be argued that through colonisation, the Indigenous peoples have become subordinated and their previous lifestyles have been wiped out, perhaps suggesting tourism as a form of neo-colonialism. Guha (1997) remarks "moreover, by exposing their subjects to the seduction of the industrial economy and consumer society, the British ensured that the process of change they initiated would continue, and indeed intensify, after they left Indian shores" (in Badan 1997:157)

Mowforth and Munt (1998:50) compare tourism to colonialism by describing tourism destinations as "the retention of former colonies in a state of perpetual subordination to the First World, in spite of former political independence". Williams and Chrisman (1993:4) point out that colonialism maintained an unequal international relationship of economic and political power. This meant that the indigenous peoples of the less developed countries found themselves in a position of economic, social and cultural change, dominated and exploited by the colonisers of the Western world. They became members of a proletarian society whereby they were the lower class and the colonisers the upper class. "Economic, political, military, social and cultural changes were imposed or adopted by the local people and so evolved an intersocietal transaction" (Smith 1989:38). Lichtheim called it "the relationship of a hegemonial state to people or nations under its control" (in Hall 1994:124). Colonialism was concerned with power, domination and control of one group over another, therefore tourism can perpetuate this notion, yet many post colonial societies are built upon the foundations of their colonists. Palmer (1994) points out in her study of colonialism and the Bahamas, political, legal and educational systems remained in place continuing to reinforce the British connection. With regard to India there is also the caste system which continues, and has underpinnings of power, domination and control of the higher castes over the lower castes. It is suggested that neo-colonialist ideas are associated with the images used to attract tourists, therefore suggesting as does Palmer (1994) that, only by a country controlling their own image presented to the tourists, will this attitude change. Through this change one could envisage a transition of the socio-cultural impacts. Badan (1997) points out that the characteristics of the host society must be taken into account as these will have a large influence on the degree of development and change, moreover he considers weaker areas will be

more susceptible to outside economical influences and therefore socio-cultural impacts.

Society along with culture is not static but dynamic and Brown (1998:67) determines that change is rarely provoked by a single cause, i.e. tourism. Greenwood (1989) reinforces this, pointing out that tourism is only one of a number of modernising, westernising or disruptive forces in a complex and changing world (in Smith 1977). As Brent Ritchie and Goeldner (1994) discuss, changes in culture are driven externally by long-term environmental changes and contact with other cultures, and internally through modernisation and intracultural conflict. Tourism can promote both external and internal change, therefore one can suggest that it is paramount to obtain and analyse a hosts thoughts and perceptions within the socio cultural field related to tourism.

Crick (1989) discusses the idea that tourism contributes to social and cultural change but because it is a highly visual industry, it often becomes the scapegoat for socio-cultural change (in Brunt and Courtney 1999:497). McCabe and Stocks (1998) in their research into social issues in Goa, noted that the social impacts were varied, complex and inter-related. Impacts theories tend to be very generalised but India is a huge country, highly religious with a caste-based society and rich and varied in culture therefore one can suggest that socio cultural impacts are likely to be localised. Lickorish (1991:97). considers that tourism is normally localised and therefore impacts tend to be localised, he points out that "to refer to the social and cultural impacts in India must be an absurdity" He goes onto discuss that the changes to a society will be influenced by many factors such as basic cultural and religious strengths, the size of a country and how tourism has spread. Oppermann and Chon (1997) similarly agree but also include the development status and resource base of a country.

On this basis if one considers tourism books written by authors of a specific nationality about tourism in their own country, for example Chopra (1991) one can see that they have the basic understanding of their own society and culture which gives them a leading insight, this enables them to use Western theory but placed within its cultural context. Gupta (1999:91) states that "Religious pilgrimages have taken place for hundreds of years without causing the negative environmental, cultural and social impacts associated with tourism" From this he determines that lessons can be learned for modern tourism. Again one can see with regards to the principles of sustainable tourism, one can argue that each destination is site specific with its own culture and environment.

Rarhod (1998) whilst acknowledging that tourism contributes towards negative impacts recognises that there are many positive social impacts. Both Chopra and Rarhod are female Indian authors; within the context of India one can suggest this to be a relevant positive social effect in itself. Tourism has raised the profile of women with regard to academia but also has encouraged and made it possible for all women to become a part of one of the biggest industries in the world. Yet, if one considers Jacob's work on Kovalam, an Indian national working as a journalist and writer, one can find what he calls a "disturbing critique of the development/dependency model based on international tourism" (1998:160). Written from an ethnocentric point of view, one can argue that academics, laymen and people working and living within the tourism industry, no matter whether all having a similar culture, they will all have different understandings of what tourism signifies to them.

There has been minimal research conducted from a host perspective, Milman and Pizam (1988), King, Pizam and Milman (1993) and Dowling (1993, in Tosun 2001) conducted research which showed that even with high levels of development the hosts perception of the socio cultural changes was positive. Importantly, King, Pizam and Milman (1993) identified within their case study that, residents dependant upon tourism identified and recognised both the negative and positive impacts associated with tourism, yet the negative impacts recognised did not lead to a loss of support for the industry. Negative impacts as identified to them included alcoholism, drug addictions, crime, openness to sex and traffic conditions, whilst the predominant positive social factors were work attitudes, hospitality to strangers and confidence among people, the rest being mainly economic in their foundations. Faulkner and Tideswell (1997) observe that a number of studies have shown that where residents are dependent upon tourism for their livelihood, there is a tendency to either emphasis positive impacts or accept negative impacts on the community more readily. This is, as they suggest an important finding as it indicates that these people are able to differentiate between the economic benefits and the social and cultural costs, but remain supportive of tourism. Moreover, other studies by Maddox (1996) and Sammy (1980) have shown that local residents have shown friendliness, receptivity and an interest to know tourists as individuals (in King, Pizam and Milman 1993). Often an underlying factor with regard to the socio-cultural impacts is the economic benefits. Therefore it could be suggested that socio-cultural impacts are dependent upon economic factors, people are making money from tourism and therefore are buying into modernisation and

colonialism in the form of money giving power, it could be further suggested that these societies are engaging in Western capitalist systems.

Within the socio-cultural domain, theorists often focus upon less developed countries and concentrate upon the negative aspects. Few studies highlight the positive socio-cultural effects of tourism and host/guest relationships. Throughout the world societies and cultures have differing perceptions, morals and values, therefore the impacts of tourism will be viewed differently. Thus, when considering socio-cultural impacts, a society, its culture, history and characteristics must be examined.

METHODOLOGY

This study is of a socio-cultural, anthropological nature as it is concerned with human social and cultural life and is descriptive using participant observation and informal interviews. Gunn (1994) mentions that some scholars denigrate the value of descriptive research, however they declare it to be valuable and necessary within the tourism research field. A case study format was chosen as a thorough examination of particular aspects of a social setting was to be conducted. Furthermore, background information can be gathered which can in turn lead to deeper investigation through the generation of a hypotheses (in Brent Ritchie and Goeldner 1994:98). Finn, Elliot-White and Walton (2000:82) agree and point out that case studies provide a richness and uniqueness in data. Yet case studies have their limitations as they are time consuming, vulnerable to subjective biases and have limited generalizability. In order to effectively focus on the study, a research strategy was implemented with the aim of obtaining accurate and detailed information from the host population of one local community. Due to the nature of this study it was imperative to visit the destination and communicate with the local people, therefore making it an ethnographic study. As Burgess (1993) points out the ethnographer needs to live within the social situation that is to be studied to enable him to use both observation and interview techniques. Moreover, it is important to use both techniques in order to be able to understand people's perceptions as opposed to relying on one option of what people either say or do. Also being reflective in that it is necessary to learn the special views of the hosts and the local meanings (Densin and Lincoln 1998).

The methods used were qualitative in nature, as they consist of people's opinions and perceptions, real life events, Peterson points out "Qualitative research involves talking in depth and in detail with a few individuals, whereas

with quantitative research the goal is to develop important but limited information from each individual and to talk with a sizable number of individuals in order to draw inferences about the population at large" (1994:487). Kelly (1980) argues that "Qualitative rather than quantitative techniques are better at providing an understanding of peoples' needs and aspirations" (in Veal 1997:130). The core of the research strategy and design incorporates a social field survey conducted in the local community of a mass tourism beach resort in Kovalam, Kerala. The destination was visited on three separate occasions within a period of twelve months, initially to research the effects of tourism on the different religious groups. The second visit was to carry out the research for this study, however at the time it was off-season and it was thought that a further visit was required to observe and identify any changes in perceptions and attitudes when the destination was in the midst of peak season. Useful contacts were made on each of these visits, which allowed the strategy for research to be an ongoing process.

The data was collected through semi-structured open-ended interviews. This method was chosen above other methods as it was felt that they were a more flexible option, which allowed for variation in responses and also enabled the interviewer to go in depth to gather relevant information. Interviews also allowed freedom for the respondent to talk about issues which interested or concerned them. Observational techniques were used to enable the researcher to analyse between words and actions. Cook and Crang (1995) note that interviewing along with observation have been a primary means through which ethnographers have attempted to get to grips with the contexts of people's everyday social, cultural, political and economical lives. The interviews were designed comprising four sections; demographic questions, which included age, gender, residential status, employment status and involvement in tourism, perceptions of socio-cultural impacts, views regarding overall tourism and tourists and changes to tourism. The research was carried out through a cross section of society either living or working within the area of Kovalam beach, as Peterson (1994) observes, it is important to include individuals with a variety of demographic characteristics to ensure that all population subgroups are included. Random sampling was used, half the respondents from the beach area and half situated within two hundred metres behind the beachfront. This sample included key stakeholders, beach boys, waiters, Ayurveda doctors, fishermen, shop owners, rural people and professional people, belonging to a mixture of Christian, Hindu and Muslim religions, men and women, young and old. Four of the interviews conducted were from highly educated professionals

living outside of the area, whom had a working knowledge of Kovalam but who viewed it differently to the actual living and working community of Kovalam. This allowed for a different kind of perspective from people who have expert knowledge in Indian societies and culture.

In addition, language barriers had to be considered. Whilst it was known that most people working in the tourism industry speak English, it became apparent that to obtain the perspectives of a cross section of society, and to achieve a neutral or 'insider' response set to contrast with data collected by the English researcher a native speaker was required. Therefore an English speaking, Muslim Indian student was enlisted to help and conduct interviews in Malayalam, the local language. He was briefed upon the research and asked to both aid the researcher and interview specific sections of the local society alone, mainly those of the Muslim community who were not involved directly with tourism. However interviewing together was seen to be a barrier as the respondents did not feel comfortable discussing in-depth issues in front of a Western woman and an Indian man together. In total thirty-four interviews took place half taken by the researcher in English and half were taken by the Indian student. However, it seems that the English researcher was able to obtain far more in depth data, possibly due to the cultural taboo of discussing matters of a delicate nature. It was proposed that information gained from observational techniques will support primary data. In addition extensive secondary research relating to background information of anthropology, sociology, politics, history and tourism took place. This gave an insight into the society and culture of the past and present.

There were also ethical issues that needed to be addressed; through observation it became apparent that activities related to drugs, alcohol and prostitution were common. From a Western theoretical perspective, it is suggested that these are negative social/cultural impacts of tourism. Therefore it was felt that as these issues were of a delicate nature, it might not be possible to discuss them due to the culture of the people, the strong emphasis on religion and the position of women in society. As a white "foreigner" as well as being female, it was possible that the research process could create skewed results. These facts need to be considered in terms of the dynamics in interviews and also in terms of entering a delicate political and social atmosphere as an outsider. Diplomacy, sensitivity within a divided community and discretion with regard to handling confidential information were essential attributes for the success of the project.

There were certain restrictions and limitations to the study, due to time restrictions it was not possible to get a depth of understanding of the culture and how society functioned. There were also some problems encountered with the methodology. Although the support received from the student was invaluable, limitations were identified with the use of multiple researchers. Firstly, as with all translation it is inevitable that some of the finer points are lost and secondly, the student was not a resident of Kovalam and encountered suspicion. Thirdly, from analysing his findings one can see the same answers repeated over and over again and one has to consider whether the interviews were conducted with an open mind or with preconceived ideas that were transplanted into the respondents mind. Also, the student was not a student of tourism and therefore did not recognise the importance of investigating matters of interest which arose.

Finally, the initial purpose of this research was to investigate the attitudes of the residents towards Kovalam. In practice a high proportion of those interviewed were found to be either employed in or associated with the tourism industry. Therefore it could be suggested that this study is representative mainly of residents who are employed or associated with the tourism industry. In addition, other problems encountered were that privacy when conducting interviews was virtually impossible and it became the norm to attract an audience. Therefore often the respondents would guard their answers or an onlooker would prompt them. As this is a normal part of everyday culture, it would have been considered rude and impolite to turn people away. Occasionally the respondents would be tense and formal during the interview speaking freely after the interview had finished, this meant that an interview could easily exceed the time restraint aspired for.

In general, the interviews, which were conducted in English elicited a welcoming and positive response. Feedback from the respondents pointed to the fact that they enjoyed the opportunity to express their views and ideas. It was felt that although Kovalam is their village, they have no voice with regard to its situation with local authority.

DICUSSION OF FINDINGS

The following sections will now provide an analysis of the host perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of tourism. The analysis shows, as did the study of King, Pizam and Milman (1993) that residents dependent upon tourism were able to identify and recognise both the negative and the positive impacts associated with tourism. Furthermore they were able to differentiate between the economic benefits and the socio-cultural costs, which were often, in this case interactional. Moreover, they recognised that most of the negative impacts were accentuated by tourism or exacerbated, as oppose to being implemented by tourism. Whilst it is not possible to discuss all of the host's perceptions due to limitations of space, this section will aim to cover the greater part of those discussed. As previously discussed society and culture are interrelated, therefore this section will consider them together as opposed to focusing on them as separate issues. Within the social and cultural factors respondents were able to identify four categories of impacts which affected the community: positive, neither positive nor negative (change), negative but acceptable and negative.

Tourism has provided a 'carte blanche' effect for people wanting to work within the tourism industry. This means that people who want to work are able to help themselves and this has given rise to several important social issues. Firstly, it enables the lower caste people to find employment outside of their perceived social standing. This benefits them in two ways, firstly it increases their own self- respect, but also it earns them respect from the rest of the community. As Kovalam consists of predominantly lower classes people feel that the change from traditional work to tourism-orientated work has allowed them to improve their position within society. Secondly, there is the ability for women to work in tourism. On its own this is a major improvement for women, however what it also does is enable women to come into contact with tourists, who treat them as equals and give them respect. According to one female respondent this is not possible within the local community. Singh, Bindloss, Cannon, Conolly, Davis, Greenway, Ham, Harding, Murphy and Plunkett, (2001) note that although women are making inroads into any type of work profession, rural, poor and low caste women are discriminated against and exploited. What is happening in Kovalam through tourism is that women, particularly from lower classes are being allowed to develop and play an important part in society. This is being overcome not only through direct employment in tourism, but also indirectly. Women are beginning to stand out in the local society, they play an active part in the day to day routine which not only raises their profile but makes them and their families, including the men proud of them and one example of this is Thanal, a non governmental agency who are taking poorer, lower caste women and training them in environmental matters and how to effectively deal with matters of waste and pollution.

A previously poor farming and fishing community has now been able to develop and expand due to economic benefit. Not only in terms of infrastructure and modernisation but also tourism has raised the status of the village and more importantly enabled the community to develop and move forward as people, this in turn has made local people proud of their village. Jacob (1989) discusses the society of Kovalam as clan type with disputes and disunity, yet locally it is felt that people enjoy healthy relationships as they have learnt how to communicate between themselves through communicating with the tourists. This has given them greater confidence; they are proud of their village and are aware of the importance of community values. Many of the people interviewed talked about friendships with tourists, whom they now see as visitors as opposed to tourists. With these friendships they are able to exchange cultural values and ideas, improve their knowledge and language skills and some people even felt as though they were able to experience being a part of another culture. It was also mentioned that the tourists were able to gain experience from local life, culture and family values. However it was noted that some people felt that there were different categories of tourists each with different agendas, showing that different types of tourists will have different kinds of impacts.

Tourists enjoy eating local food, drink locally made toddy and learn phrases of Hindu or Malayalam language. The author observed many Western tourists both male and female wearing local traditional dress and learning about local religions, encouraged by local people. On the other hand some local people wore Western dress. It was seen to be a two-way dimension whereby host and guest are both partaking in a form of cultural exchange. This identifies with Rojek and Urry's (1997) idea that people tour culture and therefore is perhaps as suggested previously a form of cultural tourism for both host and guest. The demonstration effect is a two way process, and what is identified in Kovalam by the host is that both host and guest choose to exchange cultural values and lifestyles. However, it is impossible to ascertain from these interviews whether this is a long-term exchange or only for the duration of the tourism season. What is apparent, as Jafari (1987) discusses, both host and guest behave differently when together and produce a new form of culture.

Through these relationships, people have a desire to better themselves and this has led to an increase in education. Cannon and Davis (2000) point out that Kerala has a nearly 100% literacy rate, the highest in India. Yet, one of the respondents from outside of Kovalam questions this, he suggests that although people can speak many different languages they are unable to read or write.

Local people are proud to point out that some tourists have donated money and time and have started up free schools for the children from poorer families. The perceived improvements made to Kovalam through tourism include having its own police station, post office and a regular bus service into the city for both local people and tourists. Also communications have improved and the Internet is now widespread and notably used as a friendship communication source between host and guest. The lifeguard service is a highly regarded asset for the people of Kovalam as is the lighthouse, which was built with money provided by the tourists and enables local fishermen to fish at night time and increase their income. Tourism evidently is thought to have many positive effects with regard to society, culture, economics and the infrastructure. Money that comes into the local economy from tourism is distributed by the Panjayat (local government) to help improve schools, health education, irrigation, agriculture and communications, although this is perceived to be positive, it is questioned as to how much money is really being used in Kovalam. The Panjayat consists of four wards and it is felt that money is being used to develop the other wards, whilst Kovalam is allowed to run down. Comments demonstrated a disliking and almost sadness with lack of government participation against the contrast of happiness with tourists and tourism.

The people that live behind the beach resort were interviewed by the student and interviews either emphasised the ability to be able to look after their family or by a member of the family being able to look after them. Their comments slightly differed from the people interviewed at the beach resort as they mentioned being dependent upon tourism, whereas this was previously not mentioned. They viewed being dependent upon tourism as a good thing. There are two implications that need to be considered here, firstly that due to the lack of job opportunities behind the beach area, tourism provides an option for employment and therefore is seen as a saviour; many peoples comments being related to God. Secondly, as these interviews were carried out by the student and not by the author, one cannot determine if there is any bias. However on this basis, one would presume that if there were any bias it would be shown negatively towards dependency.

A common phrase used was "tourists are like kings and queens" and it could be suggested that some theorists would interpret the phrase as being of a similar nature to colonialism. However what was strongly evident with the people of Kovalam was their hospitality and local people were keen to demonstrate this and their respect for tourists. Two of the people interviewed identified cultural and social change. However, they attribute them not to tourism but to the

effects of colonialism and globalisation, India having had a long history of foreign invasion so therefore accustomed to new people and susceptible to change. People felt strongly about the need to make change in order to improve their lives. This suggests that change is accepted as a normal progression of life and is not necessarily viewed as being either positive or negative. Very few people mention loss of traditions in a regretful manner whereas many discuss development enthusiastically. Many of the traditions and practices have either moved into different geographical areas or have been developed as the host society has developed. The host population has been able to diversify, many of the working traditions such as fishing and stone cutting are considered to be life threatening and people have been able to change their lifestyles, yet still these traditions carry on as they have been passed down into areas of no employment where lower castes reside, thus giving them an opportunity. This contests the theory that traditions and crafts are lost due to tourism. Most respondents stressed that one of the major factors that tourism had allowed was the ability to change and raise their standard of living. With the legacy of colonialism, one can suggest that traditions have been changing for years and therefore due to the interchange between coloniser and colonised, people have realised the benefits of change. One respondent stated that cultural exchange improved knowledge, capability and capacity.

From interviews and observation conducted, Kovalam is associated with sex tourism, drugs and alcohol and which are more often than not interlinked, but also with areas of love, romance and erotic tourism. It appears to be well known that one can access drugs, alcohol and sexual services easily. With regard to sex tourism one can openly observe gay prostitution in the form of beach / room boys, paedophilia, mainly concerned with young boys who are provided through an older boy in the form of mediator for Western men. Female prostitution, more often than not tends to be conducted undercover through the art of Ayurveda and one can also observe older heterosexual Western male / females having sexual relations and getting married with younger Indian boys / girls. There are obvious moral implications; however the research finds these as ambiguous issues. The professional people such as policemen, doctors and professors consider these issues to be both negative and illegal. They also consider the wider implications such as sexual diseases, drug addiction, violence and the introduction of mixed race children as socially unacceptable. However, these people are not directly employed in tourism. They have permanent, titled employment, which means they have a guaranteed income. The people from behind the beach area frequently use the term malpractices to

apply to sex, drugs and alcohol. From this one can identify that they are thought of as negative. Yet, what is odd is that many place the blame on their own people as opposed to the tourists. A concept of local's leading guests astray, which perhaps suggests to them that had the locals not provided these malpractices, they would not exist. Yet, many of these people get their income indirectly through tourism, via relations who often work within these areas. This therefore gives rise to implications of double standards and perhaps suggests that the less involved a person is in tourism at a ground level, the more they can presume and label impacts as being negative. The living and working community at the beach resort are fully aware of the types of activities, which go on. Also several respondents admitted that most of these deviant activities had taken place prior to tourism and had just become exacerbated. However it is not within this culture to discuss these issues so they are not talked about and a blind eye is often turned. Furthermore, several respondents justify these activities in terms of employment, money and the happiness of the tourists and therefore their continuous support.

What is clear is that economic gain has allowed a transition in people's lives. Drugs, alcohol and sex activities provide opportunities for people without work and which is often more beneficial than normal employment. As pointed out Kovalam is not unique there are sex businesses all over the world. Prostitution is commonly known as "the oldest profession in the world" within Western society and it could be suggested that all forms of sexual relations have taken place throughout the world for centuries and are accepted as being services for which money is exchanged. Yet what is apparent in many of the interviews is that people feel that society is changing through the creation of what they term a 'gay / sex culture'. On the one hand this is felt to be negative yet on the other hand it is also acceptable for people to participate in the types of activities associated with these cultures if there is economic gain.

It was apparent from the interviews that economic factors were fundamental with regard to perceptions of tourism. Job and business opportunities were thought of to be the most important as this enabled people to earn a living and in turn improve the standard of living and also one's lifestyle, which in turn made significant impressions upon society. It was noted by some respondents that tourism allows for two important factors, firstly it makes money without having industry and secondly it provides the opportunity to earn foreign exchange. Tourism has provided an economic mainstay within people's lives in terms of work and job security. What is notably important here is that people appear to be happy, they were able to express their feelings freely as they had

no reason to lie. Whilst researching secondary data of previous research on host's perceptions, it appears that sentiments such as happiness have either been omitted or they have not been considered within discussions of research findings. These people have gone from a poor agrarian society to a society, which offers changes and a future. They interpret happiness as having money or work, which they enjoy, this is not unique and one can suggest that this is an underlying factor of many people's minds worldwide.

Within the host population interviewed few people mentioned negative economic factors. Therefore one can suggest that the positive economic factors outweigh the negative impacts and due to the improvements in people's lives from economic gain the negative impacts are either ignored or denied. People having migrated from all over India to work in Kovalam has meant that money is taken out of the area and sent back home to families. Whilst this is seen to be a negative factor by local people, those that have migrated to work in Kovalam will point out that many local people have gone to work in The Gulf and are sending money back to their families in Kovalam. A somewhat different viewpoint was taken from the people interviewed who lived outside of Kovalam. However it is difficult to determine whether this was due to their location or the fact that they were educated people who were involved in tourism but not reliant upon it. Bribery and corruption are common, particularly in matters of tourism development, drugs, sex and alcohol. However, within the local community these factors are taken as a part of everyday life and of which participation is a means to succession. Due to the lack of planning and ad hoc building, one can find adjacent to the beachfront, not even fifty metres away, building developments. The Coastal Zone Regulation forbids any building development less than five hundred metres away from the sea (Jacob1998:118). It appears from talking to people that a common part of everyday life in India is governmental and police corruption and it is this, which allows illegal developments and activities to proceed. It was pointed out to the researcher on several occasions that policemen dream of being posted at Kovalam, as they believe that they will become rich very quickly. With regard to price increases, it became apparent through research that there is a pricing structure, the lowest being for the local people, a middle price for repeat visitors and the highest price for one time visitors, no matter whether international or domestic. Therefore, visitors of Indian nationality can expect to pay higher prices than before due to a developed business economy. Although this study was primarily concerned with the socio-cultural impacts of tourism one could not ignore the economic factors associated with tourism and

how it impacted on society and culture. It has been important to analysis the relationship between socio-cultural impacts and economic benefits in order to demonstrate how a society functions. As this study has been concerned with obtaining host perceptions, genuine views have been reflected, which both agree and disagree with socio-cultural theory. From this one can ascertain that in order to plan and develop tourism it is necessary to take into account the views and thoughts of a host community. As suggested previously, perceptions will vary dependent upon the type of contact a host will have with tourists and also dependent upon what type of relationship the tourism industry has with a host destination.

CONCLUSIONS

This case study has examined the host perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of tourism in Kovalam Beach. The results of the study indicate that support for tourism is strong among residents. They were not opposed to tourism or to further development; in fact the majority supported further development and were critical of the lack of government help and interest. Although there were some differences between those directly working and living at the beach and of those situated behind, one cannot determine the depth of these differences due to them being conducted by different interviewers. Therefore, further studies would need to be conducted by the author to investigate issues in more depth. Generally local residents regarded tourists as both friends and guests and demonstrated positive feelings towards tourists and the industry. The most significant negative feelings appeared to be concerned with the tourism industry and associated with the introduction of charter flights and mass tourism. This led to greater profits for the hoteliers and less profits for the community. As mentioned previously, the analysis shows, as did the study of King, Pizam and Milman (1993) that residents dependent upon tourism were able to identify and recognise both the negative and the positive impacts associated with tourism, yet it did not lead to a loss for the industry. As already stated the respondents were able to identify four categories of impacts, which affected the community; positive, neither positive nor negative, negative but acceptable and negative. The results suggest that the residents, which were dependent upon tourism, can differentiate between economic benefits and social-cultural costs, which were often interactional. Furthermore the awareness of negative consequences does not lead to opposition towards further tourism development. Moreover, they recognised that most of the negative impacts were accentuated by tourism or exacerbated, as oppose to being implemented by

tourism. Colonialism followed by globalisation generally blamed for impacting upon and changing society and culture, rather than tourism.

The immediate perception of tourism was concerned with economic benefits, which have allowed for job and business opportunities. This has enabled people to earn a living and in turn improve their standard of living and lifestyle. It was noted by some respondents that tourism allows for two important factors, firstly it makes money without having industry and secondly it provides the opportunity to earn foreign exchange. This was discussed not only as being important for Kovalam but also for India as a whole, which indicates that people are considering tourism in a wider context through their own experiences. Local residents demonstrated feelings of pride and happiness with regard to both tourism and tourists, pointing out that cultural interaction and exchange has improved their knowledge, capability and capacity. Happiness equated with money, which is often the case in many societies. Tourism has spurred people on to better their lives and education is rising, often in the form of schools provided by the tourists. This relationship between host/guest is seen to benefit both parties economically, socially or culturally. Although some traditions have moved out of Kovalam, they are still nearby. People have found alternative employment whilst the old traditional forms have been passed on to others; therefore one could suggest providing a greater workforce spread over a larger area. Tourism has raised the status of women and lower castes by allowing them to find work and earn an income. This has provided them with respect from the local community and also improves their position within society. More importantly they are treated as equals by the tourists, which is doubtful to happen within their own society.

Whilst it maybe considered by some that the sex industry is just one of the negative impacts concerned with tourism in Kovalam, one has to remember that people appear happy and proud to be associated with the industry. They take into account the wider issues concerned with the social and economic status of the community and of the area. If such activities between mutually consenting adults allows for an income and an improved standard of living then it could be suggested that people in the West should not contest this issue. However with regard to paedophilia, although the economic and social benefits are the same, one has to question the moral values. Although these types of activities cannot be condoned, from a host perspective one could suggest that this type of activity within the less developed world can often be the only method of provision. It is suggested that further research into these issues must be carried out, directed at the both parties of the activity and any other parties involved, such as a

mediator or family and ultimately education and opportunities must be afforded to local people within this situation.

Often it is the case that many of the socio-cultural impacts associated with tourism are considered to be negative. This study presents a contrasting view from the people who are directly involved with tourists, further studies should be conducted to establish how widespread these views are. Future research needs to be conducted over longer periods off time in order to get a depth of understanding of the culture and of how society functions. Furthermore this study demonstrates that perceptions from the local community can aid to the governments future development of tourism.

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Situation of Tourism in Iran: Capabilities and Limitations

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ABSTRACT

Iran has many physical, historical and cultural attractions for foreign tourists, but in this country like many other undeveloped countries, there are very serious problems in this sector. Studies shows that, share of Iran from 622 billion US$ world tourism incomes in 2004, was only about 700,000 US$. Incomings increasing, life styles improvements and general welfare development at recent years in Iran, lead to splendour of internal tourism especially religious tourism. Travel of 15 million local tourists to Mashhad city for pilgrimage of Imam Reza shrine and 250,000$ income for this city in 2004 can confirm are reasons for this claim. Studies shows that a lot of pilgrims from Pakistan, India, Saudi Arabia, Iraq and other countries have came each year to Iran for pilgrimage Imam Reza shrine and other places in Mashhad, Qom, Ray, Shiraz and other pilgrimage cities. The existence of many holy places in one hand and existence of a 25 million Shiite Muslim tourist around the world indicates that the Iranian government and tourisms institutions with considering a precise plan can attract the main portion of above mentioned tourists and their incomes.

Keywords: tourism, pilgrimage tourism, religious tourism, holy places, Iran.

INTRODUCTION

According to WTO definition, the tourist is who travel to a place other than her/his hometown and minimum one night and maximum one year stay there. The main reasons for travel are recreation, resting, visiting of friends and families, pilgrimage, visiting of historical, cultural and art centers, participating in sport competitions and visiting of trade fairs and participating in conferences. Regard to above mentioned definition, tourism phenomena in the world have a long term history but the new style of tourism was born after industry revolution in Europe. Developing in science and technology and as well revealing the deep changes in human communities, lead to planning for recreation and other forms of tourism. So, after 1950 many groups of tourists have begun to trip in the neighbourhood near and far countries. During 50 years, tourism industry developed and today it is an important kinds and fast growing industry in the world.

By looking at the world tourism industry situation in 2004, it is revealed that up to 760 million tourists were traveled in this year. World incomes from this

industry were calculated about 622 billion US $ that is around 10 % of total world grass incomes. Forecasting show that, until to 2010 the number of tourists in the world will reaches to one billion and by to 2020 will reach to 1.6 billion people. According to predictions, the incomes of the world tourism will reaches to 1550 billion US $ until 2020(11).

There are reports that shows in the 2004, USA with 74.5 billion $ located in the first grade, Spain with 45.2 billion $ in the second grade and France with 40.8 billion $ stand in the third grade. Italia, Germany, United Kingdom, China, Turkey, Austria and Australia are other 7 countries that achieved a proper had a good incomes in 2004(18). In 2004, only 690,000 tourists had traveled to Iran and share of Iran from 622 billion $ incomes of this industry was only 700,000 $(11).Iran is one of the 10 important tourist and eco-tourist country in the world. There are more than 1200 main historical and arty places in the Iran. Iranian cultural heritage and tourism organization predicted that in 2020 about 20 million tourists should travel to Iran. Regard to existing predictions, in 2010, at least 4 million tourists should be attracted to Iran (14). In this paper capabilities and problems of tourism industry in Iran will be discussed.

FORMS OF TOURISM

As mentioned above, main principal's reasons for travelling are recreation, resting, visit of friends and families, visiting of religious places, therapy, and visit of historical and cultural centers pilgrimage from holy places, and participate in sports and conferences and others. So, in the following the main kinds of tourism are mentioned in bellow: 1) Recreation tourism: Recreation, resting, use of suitable climates, visiting of families and friends, therapy and so on. Studies show that this kind of tourism is more important than other kinds of tourism. 2) Therapy tourism: use of mineral waters, swimming in holy rivers such as Ganges, use of hot waters is only a few examples of this kind of tourism. 3) Cultural, artistic and historical tourism: historical, cultural and art buildings, museums, universities and laboratories visiting are lying in this category. 4) Religious and pilgrimage tourism: pilgrimage of Kaba, mosques, churches, holy shrines and tombs lying in this category. 5) Sport tourism: including participating in sport competitions and watching the all kinds of plays. 6) Economic and trade tourism: including participation in trade, industry, service fairs and visit of factories and markets. 7) Political and scientific tourism: including participation in meetings, conferences, seminars, national and religious festivals, and burial ceremonies of political leaders.

TOURISM AND ECOTOURISM POTENTIALS IN IRAN

Iran with rich cultural heritage and many beautiful natural land scapes, have many attractions for tourists. In the following the main physical, cultural and historical attractions of Iran are listed.

Physical attractions

Due to their physical and climatic location which is located in volcanic and high pressure belts of the world, Iran has a series of topographic, geomorphologic, geologic and climatologic characteristics. Some of the important features of physical attractions in Iran are listed here. (A) High mountain chains such as Elburz and Zagros with their splendid peaks for example Damavand with 5671 m, Dena with 4409 m, Sabalan with 4811 m, Sahand with 3347 m, Shirkuh with 3313 m, Taftan with 4042 meters above see level are only some of examples. (B) Forests and protected natural zones in north and west parts of Iran.(C) Karestic features such as very beautiful caves for example Alisadr cave and Goori Gale cave in the provinces of Hamedan and Kermanshah.(D) Very beautiful lakes such as Urmia, Hamoon, Maharloo, Zarivar, Bakhtagan lakes and the others.(E) Splendid islands that some of them very famous such as Kish and Gheshm. (F) Marshes and their scarce species of animals' ant plants for example Anzali marsh. (G) Rivers, such as Karoon, Zaiande Roud, Aras and others. (H) Sand dunes, salty playas and many other features in desert zone of Iran.

Historical attractions

Iran has a long history thus there are many Islamic and pre-Islamic buildings and symbols in Iran. It is said that the number of these arts and signs reaches to 1200.The main of these historical monuments are listed bellow: Ruins of Perspolis, Naghshe Rostam, Pasargad, Arg-e-Karim Khan, Bazar-e-Vakil (Shiraz), Arg-e-Bam (Bam), Ali Ghapoo, Chehelsotoon, Emam square (Isfahan), Houses of Boroojerdiha and Tabatabaeiha and very nice air traps (Kashan), Ruins of Hegmatane, Ganjname (Hamedan), Arge Alishah and Azure mosques (Tabriz), Tagh-e-Bostan and Bisotoon (Kermanshah), Falakol Aflak castel (Khorramabad), Shahr-e-sookhte (Sistan and baloochestan), Masjed-e-Jame and Tkie Amir Chakhmagh (Yazd) are some of them.

Cultural and Artistic attractions

Due to location of Iran among ancient civilizations, there are many tribes that who lives in throughout Iran. Tribes of Fars, Turk, Arab, Kurd, Lor, Balooch,

Turkman and others have live in Iran from ancient times. Cultural characteristics of Iranian tribes beside their similarities have many attractions for a lot of world tourists. Some of these attractions listed bellow: 1) 5 % of total Iranian people live in style of migration which called Ashaier. These immigrant people lives in Ardebil, east Azarbaijan, Kermanshah, Lorestan, Fars and some other provinces and they have many special various marriage and mourning ceremonies which can attracts many tourists. 2) About 40 % of Iranians living in rural regions. From this view of point the rural communities of Iran have a high potential for developing the rural tourism that is one of the important kinds of tourism. Virgin rural areas, hand-made artefacts of rural peoples, various ceremonies of rural communities are some of these attractions. 3) Hand-made artefacts and art works of Iranian tribes' shows rich culture and civilization of Iran. Hand Industries such as carpet, inlaid works, relief works, pottery and many other works are a few examples of these cases. 4) One of the most important cultural attractions of the Iran is the tombs of outstanding persons such as Hafez,Sadi (Shiraz), Baba Taher and Aboo Ali Sina (Hamedan), Khaghani and SHahriar (Tabriz), Attar and Omar Khayyam (Neishaboor) and others.

Religious and pilgrimage attractions

There are around 70,000 shrines in Iran that belong to children's of Shiite Imams. Some of these shrines are famous for all Shiite Muslims but others only famous for local peoples. Outside of Iran there are near 250 million Shiite Muslims that 25 million of them travel each year. So there is a high potential for expansion of pilgrimage tourism in Iran. Existence of Imam Reza shrine in Mashhad, shrine of majesty Masoome in Qom, shrine of Imam Khomeini in Tehran and many other shrines belong to Shiite Imams children's indicates the high capabilities in Iran for developing the pilgrimage tourism.

Studies show that in 2004 about 15 million pilgrims traveled to Mashhad. According to Khorasan province governors, the incomes of Mashhad tourism from pilgrims in this year were 2000 billion Rials (about 250 million $). It is predicted that during the next 20 years in each year about 46 million tourists will travel to Mashhad for pilgrimage Imam Reza shrine and other pilgrimage places of this city (11). Beside the above mentioned shrines, shrine of Shah-e-Cherag in Shiraz, shrine of majesty Abdolazim in Ray, shrine of Jalaladdin Ashraf in Astanei-e- Ashrafie, shrine of Seyyed Mohammad Agha in Jolfa are most important than others. Also there are many historic mosques around the Iran that are respectable for many of world Muslims. Sheikh lotfollah mosque in

Isfahan, Jame mosqus in Yazd and Naein, Vakil mosque in Shiraz, Azure mosque in Tabriz are some important examples of these mosques.

As mentioned about the religious and pilgrimage tourism in Iran, it doesn't rely only to Islamic heritage and pilgrimage buildings. There are many holy and pilgrimage places for followers of other religion such as Zoroastrianism, Christianise and Judaism. A-Worship and holy places for Christians such as Vanak Church in Isfahan, Tattoos Church in Makoo and St Stefano's Church in Jolfa in every year can attracts many Christians.B- The most important holy and pilgrimage places for Zoroastrians in Iran consist of Check Checko fire temple in Yazd and temple of Takhte Soleyman In Takab.C- The most important pilgrimage places for Judaism in Iran consist of Shrine of Ester Mordakhai in Hamedan,Shrine of Prophet Daniel in Shoosh and shrine of Prophet Haiaghoogh in Tooyserkan.

LIMITATIONS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN IRAN

As mentioned in previous part, in view of high capacity and high potentials in related to tourism and ecotourism, Iran failed to attract only 690,000 tourists in 2004. Specialists believe that for developing of tourism in Iran a suitable and proper model is needed, but at present there is not any proper model for expansion and developing the tourism. For planning of such suitable model, the following cases are necessary: 1) Full attention to local culture throughout the country. 2) Special emphasise on local tourism with regard to regional tourism planning. 3) Complete attention on environment at ecotourism plans. 4) Enactment of laws for tourist rights. 5) Expansion and development of information technology in related to tourism. 6) Full study of supply and demand processes which is need for tourism industry. 7) Establishing of unique center in order to decision making for tourists and mixing the parallel organizations. 8) Full attention on global tourism markets in future.

According to experts opinion, limitations of tourism development in Iran are not belonged only to the lack of invests and credits also, are not only belongs to the existence problems in organisation of tourism. A main limitation of this sector of industry in Iran, according to the some experts belongs to existence of disagreement between Islamic culture position and demands of tourists (1). Some of experts believe that existence of unclear atmosphere among some of governors and some groups of peoples in Iran, play important role in attraction of tourist to country. For example the former dean of Iranian tourist organization, Mohammad Moezzeddin told in 1999: "I don't understand the necessity of visa in 21 century. Our behaviour with tourists in 21 century is very worse than that 12 century. Why we should be farther back than countries such as Turkey and Malaysia?" Furthermore, there are many other limitations which some of them are listed in the following:

1) Pessimism and lack of confidence to tourist especially foreign tourist in Iran among some of governors and some groups of people. 2) Presence of uncertainty and ambiguity in goals and polices of tourism. 3) Lack of accordance and formation about tourism activities. 4) Shortage of invest and credit for expansion and recruitment of tourism foundations. 5) Lack of efficient specialists in different parts of this industry. 6) Shortage of educational centers which are necessary to development of a progressive tourism industry. 7) Shortage of invest and credits for preparing of necessary equipments. 8) Possession of some tourist places by some organizations. 9) Weakness of publicity and information about attraction of tourism. 10) Existing of negative publicity about tourism security in Iran. 11) Instability of prices and increasingly inflation. 12) Lack of tendency in private sector to invest fund in tourism sector. 13) Lack of tendency in Bank systems to invest fund in tourism industry. 14) Shortage in facilities such as hotels and other kinds of requirements. 15) Shortage of entrainment places in cities and roads. 16) Shortage of traveling equipments such as bus, train and air plane. 17) Lack of cooperation between linked organizations. 18) Existence of many restrictive laws and regulations in relation to tourism.

CONCLUSIONS

According to reports of WTO, although there are many physical, historical and cultural attractions in Iran but in year 2004 only 690,000 tourists traveled to Iran. Incomes of Iran from tourist industry in this year were only 700,000 US $. Existing of 70000 holy shrines belong to Imams and their children and many other holy places belong to Zoroastrians, Christians and Judaism in Iran show that there are many various capabilities for developing the tourism. Iran has enough capacities for change to a religious and pilgrimage center in the Islamic world. Pessimism and lack of confidence in relation to tourism especially foreign tourists, Uncertainty about aims and polices, lack of polish and information, Deficit of invest, lack of efficient specialists, negative publicity around security in Iran, lack of tendency for invest capital in bank system and private sector, are some of important reasons that brought many difficulties and problems for developing the tourism in Iran.

Specialities believe that local tourism in Iran must not be forgotten because there are a big potential for developing of this kind of tourism in Iran. Statistics show that about 80 % of total internal tourists of country are pilgrimage tourists so pay attention to expansion of this form of tourism is very necessary. For example, in 2004 about 15 million tourists traveled to Mashhad for pilgrimage the Imam Reza shrine. Enough attention to securing the fund and credits for preparing the foundations for both internal and foreign pilgrimage tourism are very vital.

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Tourist Satisfaction towards Low-cost Airline Services

Master of Science

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ABSTRACT

The low-cost carriers have performed so successfully over the last decade and this study examines the performance of Air Asia Sdn Bhd, a low cost carrier in Malaysia with other low cost carriers in the region. The study explores the hypothesis that low-cost carriers are successful as they offer a unique combination of price and quality attributes that are offers to customers. The "no frill" airlines appears to be a well established part of the tourism market now as they offer products or services to travelers at lower prices. The main aim of this study is to determine tourist satisfaction offered by low cost airlines service within the region. In today's tourism industry, there is an unprecedented level of interest in tourist satisfaction. Tourist satisfaction measurement is an indispensable aspect of any organization because it identifies why people purchase the product or service and become loyal customer.

The study identifies the interrelationship between tourist expectation, perception and service quality and their influence to tourist satisfaction towards low cost carrier services. One service quality measurement model that has been extensively applied is the SERVQUAL model developed by Parasuraman and his colleagues. The SERVQUAL instrument is adopted in this study to assess overall tourist satisfaction towards low cost airlines service. In order to obtain the data, a triangulation method is being adopted using quantitative and qualitative techniques. A questionnaire is designed to gather the data on the satisfaction attributes of the travelers and personal interview is conducted with the different carrier representatives in order to identify the strategies adopted by the carrier in achieving traveler satisfaction.

Keywords: tourist satisfaction, low-cost, SERVQUAL, service quality, prices.

Organizational Responses to Customer Complaints in the Hotel Industry: Evidence from Northern Cyprus

Master of Science

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ABSTRACT

It is widely accepted that service organizations should consider the critical roles of complaint management and effective service recovery efforts in strict competitive environments. Since their effective efforts result in increases in complainant satisfaction, loyalty, and profitability levels, service organizations consider these efforts crucial determinants for their survival. With this realization, the purpose of this thesis is to investigate the underlying processes through which various organizational responses to complaints affect complainant satisfaction and repurchase intentions through the use of a sample of Turkish customers who had accommodated in three, four, and five star hotels in Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. Broadly speaking, the purpose of this study is based on the measurement of the effects of apology, redress, explanation, attentiveness and promptness on complainant satisfaction and repurchase intentions. In addition, this study aims to examine the relationship between complainant satisfaction and repurchase intentions. Thus, the research model has been designed, and path analysis in LISREL 8.30 has been used for the measurement of the hypothesized relationships.

Findings reveal that all hypothesized relationships were not supported by the empirical data. Broadly speaking, apology, promptness, explanation, attentiveness, and redress have significant positive effects on complainant satisfaction. Additionally, redress appears to be the most influential organizational response on satisfaction. However, explanation is the only organizational response that has been found to be a significant predictor of repurchase intentions. Results also indicate that complainant satisfaction depicted a significant positive relationship with repurchase intentions. The findings of this thesis have some important implications for managers and public officials in the Northern Cyprus hotel industry. At the micro level, hotel managers should firstly be committed to delivery of superior service quality and effective complaint management. Also, they should also satisfy their employees, since job satisfaction leads to customer satisfaction and loyalty. In addition, hotel managers need to establish proper complaint procedures so that their customers know how and where to complaint. Moreover, hotel managers need to organize training sessions based on the critical importance of complaint management and the crucial role of frontline employees in the service encounter. At the macro level, public officials can encourage hotel organizations to deliver exceptional quality to their customers. For this purpose, state-funded training and education programs can be triggered in the industry. Until further studies are conducted, the present study findings and the strategies based on them should remain tentative. As a closing note, replication studies with large sample size elsewhere would be fruitful for further generalizations of the study findings.

Keywords: service failure, complaints, service recovery.

Walking Trails and Tourism: An Exploratory Study in the Portuguese Market

Master of Science

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ABSTRACT

Tourism plays an important role in Portugal, although being mainly concentrated in the Algarve and structured around the "sun and sea" product. Large rural and natural areas of its relatively deserted hinterland are still mostly neglected by tourists (residents and politicians likewise), although natural and cultural attractions abound and show a potential of sustainable tourism development, which may help these areas in maintaining some economic activity and thereby fixing its young population. In this context, a system of well designed and signed walking paths may be an interesting and relatively inexpensive leisure and tourism infrastructure, attracting visitors to natural, rural and mountain areas, making the areas' heritage more accessible and visible and thereby motivating visitors to stay for longer periods of time. The present thesis discusses the relevance of walking trails as a tourism infrastructure, particularly in the scope of sustainable tourism. By comparing Portuguese hikers with those of other nationalities, some significant differences in terms of environmental and tourist behaviors and attitudes become visible. A further comparison between hikers and a group of Portuguese that are not used to walk in nature reveals differences in behaviors and attitudes that may explain the latter group's lack of interest in walking and simultaneously identifies variables that may convert also this group into hikers.

Keywords: walking trails, sustainable tourism, tourist behaviors, rural areas.

The Significance of Ethnic Identities upon Tourism Participation within the Pakistani Community

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

The research study seeks to identify embodiments of ethnic identities upon tourism participation amongst the Pakistani community (Luton, UK). The research aim's to analyze the meaning of tourism within the Pakistani community to further contribute to the debate on the relationships between tourism and ethnicities. The research enquire informs tourism studies about meanings and behaviors of tourists originating from non-western or ethnic backgrounds. The research study aim was fulfilled through the four objectives, which provided scope for interpretation concerning the significance of tourism in the negotiating of ethnic identities. The first objective comprehended the role of migration upon tourism participation in the Pakistani community. Secondly, assessed the influence of such diasporic identities upon tourism behavior as social, religious, cultural, sub-cultural and political affiliations. The third objective discovered barriers to tourism participation affecting citizenships. Fourthly, analysed the usefulness of interpretive ethnography in researching a Pakistani community in tourism studies.

Postcolonial theoretical reflections directed analysis and interpretations in the research study. The postcolonial theories relevant to the investigation are those that explored histories, analyzed locations of homes, questioned positions of diasporas and interpreted identities. Furthermore, such trans-disciplinary theoretical frameworks as anthropology, psychology and sociology were considered from within a postcolonial context. The concoction of multiple theories enhances understandings of the negotiations (re-negotiations and de-negotiations) of ethnic identities in tourism. The thesis combined methodological theories of interpretation and ethnography, referred to as 'interpretive ethnography. The decision to combine the interpretation approach with ethnography was to capture meanings participants give to their behaviours through post-colonial and trans-disciplinary theoretical reflections. Furthermore, the applications of qualitative methods in the research study encouraged participants to attach meanings to the significance of tourism in relation to their ethnic identifications. In addition, interpretive ethnography appears to permit the examination of researcher positions regarding methodological and personal reflexivities.

The emerging findings suggest two main themes are prevalent in the research study centering upon tourism participation and identities. Further to the main theme of tourism participation, sub-themes have surfaced concerning defining of tourism within the Pakistani community, motivations for travel, influence of the 'migration' factor, transnational networking, significance of souvenir purchasing, embodiments of myths and memories in relation to return to the ancestral homeland Pakistan. The sub-themes emerging from the identities theme focus upon transmission of traditions and rituals through tourism, role of the family in influencing tourism behavior, locations of home, complexities of duty and obligations concerning travels to homelands.

Heritage Site Management: The Link between Visitors' Perceptions, Motivations and Expectations

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

In line with the experientially based approach to the understanding of visitors' behavior, this study contends that comprehending visitors' perception of the heritage presented could be beneficial to the segmentation of visitors to heritage settings. As such, the current study explores the link between visitors' perceptions of the site in relation to their own heritage and motivations for the visit. Additionally, the relationship between visitors' perceptions and their expectations of on-site interpretation is explored. Finally, to provide a deeper understanding of the notions suggested visitors' behaviors were investigated in two different contexts: 1) amongst tourists who already decided to visit a particular site, and 2) amongst potential visitors (latent demand).

The site chosen as the focus of the current research was the Anne Frank House in Amsterdam, the Netherlands. First, 60 semi-structured interviews were conducted, intended to discover tourists' motivations and expectations of on-site interpretation. Second, based on the results of the qualitative research and previous studies, (Poria, Butler and Airey 2003, 2004), a questionnaire was designed to examine the research objectives. The questionnaire was completed through face-to-face interviews with 208 participants waiting in line to enter the site. Additionally, 291 interviews were conducted with tourists in Amsterdam who had not visited the Anne Frank House before.

The findings suggest that visitors differ in their behavior, based on their perception of the site. Those who perceived the site as part of their heritage are interested in an emotional visiting experience. For others, the site is 'history', from which they wish to enrich their knowledge. For yet another segment, the site is mostly a tourist attraction where the history presented is not the main reason for the visit. These findings generate diverse implications for heritage site management. For example, the possibility of marketing the site as an emotional experience for those who perceive it as their own heritage, or as enriching visitors' knowledge of historical events, for those who seek an educational experience. Another example is the possibility of providing visitors with different angles of interpretation. Furthermore, the current research indicates the need for a more holistic view in the exploration of tourists' behaviors at heritage sites; namely, taking into consideration site's attributes, tourists, and the relationships between the two. This is in contrast to the standard approach, which highlights either the site's attributes or the tourist's characteristics.

Keywords: Anne Frank House, heritage, interpretation, motivation, perception.

Sustainable Development through Tourism: Conflicts of Theory and Practice in the Annapurna Region

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

This research investigated the conflicts that existed between the theory and policies of tourism as a tool for sustainable development, and the reality of their implementation in the Ghorepani and Tatopani areas of Annapurna, Nepal. It studied the attitudes, values, and practices with references to tourism and sustainable development of the various actors in tourism in the area and the environmental contexts and processes at work. The current theory and policy underpinning measures to implement tourism and sustainable development in the area was examined, and conclusions drawn about the impact of present policies and theory on sustainable development and sustainable tourism on the area. An interpretivist paradigm provided the basis for this study, with elements of a critical social science approach included. An emic approach enabled the researcher to uncover the specific understandings and actualities of stakeholders, along with the underlying environmental structures and the conditions of sustainable development through tourism in the area. These factors, along with the interrelationships between them, formed the basis of a fieldwork period whereby data was gained from key stakeholders through the utilisation of a variety of interviewing and observational techniques.

The results of this research suggest that in the case of the Ghorepani and Tatopani areas of Annapurna, Nepal, western-inspired research and policy frameworks of sustainable development through tourism are deficient. Such frameworks do not account for the local environmental (social, political, economic cultural and ecological) contexts. As such, they are not directly inspired by and fail to identify local field conditions and interrelationships, in particular the intertwined nature of local human-environment-tourism relationships. This had resulted in sustainable tourism development policy, planning, and practice which is largely ad-hoc and flawed.

This study contributes further to the debate surrounding the use of tourism as a tool for sustainable development by finding that the traditional but naïve western dualist assumptions of tourism impacts as propounded by research, policy, and management do not account for the processes in which tourism is working on and through actors and their communities in the Tatopani and Ghorepani areas of Nepal (and vice versa). It consequently finds that sustainable development, when interpreted as a western construct, can be seen to be occurring to a limited and beneficial degree in the areas, but also at a cost to the communities involved which is not being recognised.

Keywords: sustainable development, theory, practice.

Marketing Jordan as a Tourist Destination to Europe: Images as Perceived by British and Swedish Tourists

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

Jordan is highly dependent on tourism as an employment and revenue generator. However, recent trends show that visitors from both the UK and Sweden may have sloped down. Furthermore, although archaeological sites have been identified as major visited attractions, the religious market for Jordan from both the UK and Sweden is promising. Tourism image is critical to the success of any destination, but few image studies to date have focused specifically on either Jordan or the UK and Sweden, and none have analyzed the image of Jordan as a tourist destination in either the UK or Sweden or the influence of religion as a constituent of that image. The aim of this thesis, therefore, is to examine the image of Jordan as a tourist destination as it exists in the British and Swedish markets and to explore the influence of religion as a cultural attribute on the formation of that image.

A number of approaches were used to appraise the image of Jordan in both the UK and Sweden: literature and statistics relating to international, religious, Jordan tourism were reviewed; the role that image plays was examined through an analysis of secondary sources; lastly, the images received by British and Swedish publics were evaluated through qualitative and quantitative primary research in the form of a pre-/post-visitation questionnaire which focused, in particular, on the effect of visitation on the image of Jordan held by British and Swedish tourists as well as the influence of religion as a constituent of that image. Further research will be undertaken in the next stage of the thesis to measure whether individuals' attitudes toward religion affect their images of a destination.

A total of 1300 questionnaires were distributed and 796 were returned (61.2% response rate). The preliminary findings of the thesis show a few number of differences between British and Swedish organic images of Jordan as a tourism destination (the experiential images are not analyzed yet). British tourists see Jordan to have good performance in local people, an interesting place to visit, a cheap place to visit and religious sites. Conversely, they evaluated the country with low performance in nightlife, cleanliness, accommodation and beaches. Swedish tourists, on the other hand, evaluated Jordan to have high performance in an interesting place to visit, religious sites, local people and a cheap place to visit. On the contrary, they see the country to have low performance in cleanliness, nightlife, tourist information and beaches. The literature and primary research identified religious tourism as an important niche for future development. In order to avoid a decrease in Jordan's share of the British and Swedish outbound markets, product and marketing adjustments as well as further research are recommended. The findings of this thesis will contribute to the literature regarding Jordan's tourism destination image.

Keywords: Jordan, UK, Sweden, destination image, religious attitudes, tourism marketing.

Community-Based Ecotourism and Prospects for Sustainable Livelihoods: The Case of KAFRED in Uganda

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

Africa's poverty is at the centre stage in cotemporary development debates. In accordance with the Millennium Development Goals, the World Tourism Organisation has placed tourism at the forefront of poverty reduction in Africa. Tourism is a major economic force in the world. It is an industry that affects many lives of the rural poor across the world. For some communities, tourism is the driving force of development, while for others it brings negative impacts. In both cases, the type and level of involvement of the local people helps to shape the benefits and costs they experience as a result of tourism activities in their lives. Community-based Ecotourism (CBE) in particular has been advocated within the academic literature as an important community economic development strategy due to the potential economic and social benefits that the sector can generate while also protecting the natural resource base. Taking one Community-based organization in Bigodi Parish, one of the 27 parishes surrounding Kibale national park in Uganda, this study analyses Community-based ecotourism's contribution to the struggle to get rid of poverty in rural areas, promote conservation of biocultural resources and contribute to sustainable rural development. Whist it is recognized that rural communities adjacent to protected areas in Uganda suffer considerable social and economic disadvantages; there are some rural communities that have defied the odds. Using natural resources within their jurisdiction they have sought to identify suitable economic and commercial development opportunities directed at enhancing economic, environmental and human development within their remote communities. One of such communities is in Bigodi through the Kibale Association for Rural and Environmental Development (KAFRED).

To assess CBE's contributions, this study adopts Scheyven's (1999) development approach which is complemented by Ashley's (1999) Sustainable livelihood approach. Participatory methods were used between 2004 and 2005. The underlying principles of Community-based ecotourism were challenged by raising the issues of participation, equity, benefit sharing, and by exploring how community-based ecotourism enterprises influence the struggle against poverty as well as motivating conservation and rural development. What is remarkable about the findings on KAFRED is that Community based ecotourism is happening in the middle of rural Uganda and that these are all local initiatives. There is a sense that the local peasantry has a keen appreciation of their environment and of the value of conservation. Rural people in Bigodi have embraced tourism and are gaining benefits from it despite a few problems concerning local people's inexperience.

Keywords: community-based ecotourism, conservation, poverty reduction, protected areas, sustainable livelihoods, rural development.

Strategic Alliances and Network Relationships between a National Tourist Organisations and Profit and Non-Profit Organisations in Malaysia

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

The tourism industry is now facing the challenges of globalization and world crisis that brought about the formulation of cooperative strategies, collaboration, partnerships, and alliances between the components of the tourism industry. This study aims to examine the inter-organizational relationships between the Malaysian National Tourist Organization (Tourism Malaysia) and tourist organizations (profit and non-profit organization) in the development of tourism marketing alliances within the tourism industry in the country. The four main objectives of the study are to: (1) undertake a comprehensive review of the existing inter-organizational alliances and network relationship between Tourism Malaysia and tourist organizations; (2) examine the factors that influence alliance formation and the process involved in its development, identify the motives and underlying reasons for the formation, and criteria used in selection of partners; (3) examine the inter-organizational governance and, (4) assess the performance and outcome of these alliances.

To accomplish the objectives of the study, a development model of tourism marketing alliances was developed, drawing references from similar studies carried out in other countries. The model is divided into four phases: the preliminary phase, the negotiation phase, implementation phase, and the evaluation phase. In the preliminary phase, the study looked into elements of alliance formation such as motives and choice of partners. In the negotiation and implementation phase, it examined the form of governance structure, coverage of marketing activities, and level of cooperation, commitment and trust between alliance partners. In the evaluation stage, the performance and outcome of the alliances were examined using non-financial measure such as influence, satisfaction and communication between alliance partners.

Data were obtained using the triangulation method of questionnaire survey, personal interviews and secondary data. For the questionnaire survey and personal interviews, the respondents were selected from among the executives and management staff of profit and non-profit tourist organizations, as well as Tourism Malaysia, the focal organization. Appropriate statistical techniques were used to test for differences in perceptions between sub-samples of respondents. This research can therefore be used as a reference and a guideline for industry practitioners to help understand the concepts of tourism marketing alliances and network relationships, and for formulating cooperative strategies with tourism partners. A synergy of partnerships between the tourism players and academia can contribute to a more pragmatic approach and a much needed strategy in the present management of the global crisis in the tourism areas.

Keywords: strategic alliances, inter-organizational relationships, network strate.

Food Tourism and the Culinary Tourist

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

Food tourism or tourists' food-related activities at a destination, such as dining and purchasing food products, to experience its culinary attributes; and, the culinary tourist or the tourist for whom food tourism is an important reason influencing his travel behavior, form the theme of this dissertation. The objectives of this dissertation were to: determine the underlying dimensions of food tourism; formulate and test a conceptual framework that explains participation in food tourism; examine the effect of socio-demographic variables on participation in food tourism; segment the tourists based on their participation in food tourism; identify the variables that predict membership in these food tourist segments; and examine the significant association between socio-demographic variables and the food tourist clusters. Further, using a sociological perspective, the findings were interpreted within the combined theoretical framework of the world culture theory of globalization and the cultural capital theory.

Based on the analyses of the mail-survey responses of 341 tourists visiting coastal South Carolina, food tourism revealed five dimensions: dine local, purchase local, drink local, dine elite, and familiarity. The conceptual variables that explained participation in food tourism were food neophobia, variety-seeking, and enduring involvement. Furthermore, age, gender, education, and income influenced participation in food tourism. Segmentation of tourists revealed the presence of three clusters: the culinary tourist, the experiential tourist, and the general tourist. The culinary tourist frequently dines and purchases local food, consumes local beverages, dines at high-class restaurants, and rarely eats at franchisee restaurants, at the destination. This segment was also more educated, earned higher income than the other two segments, and was characterized by its variety-seeking tendency towards food and absence of food neophobia.

The evidence that the fundamental structure of food tourism revolves around the local, but with the presence of the dimension 'familiarity' shows that the dialectics between local and global is at play, lending credence to globalization theory within the food tourism context. Further, the use of cultural capital theory in explaining the culinary tourists is supported by their possession of the indicators of cultural capital, namely an advanced education, and 'cultural omnivorousness' typified by their variety-seeking tendency. The dissertation's findings highlight the role of diverse culinary establishments that contribute to the food tourist experience and recommend the need for collaboration between DMOs and SMEs. The findings also suggest that destinations targeting the culinary tourism market should articulate the availability of indigenous local dishes, varied culinary cultures and activities.

Keywords: food tourism, culinary tourist, special interest tourism, globalization, cultural capital.

Travel as Motivating Force in Negotiating Cultural Identity

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

Mass migration of Chinese to various parts of the world from the early 16th century was well documented. Like many other migrated communities, most members of the Chinese community living in Malaysia retained their ethnic 'Chineseness' while others had chosen to assimilate into the local cultures and intermarried with the locals. Efforts to retain ethnic 'chineseness' may prove challenging because subsequent generations are more culturally localized and may abandon their old traditions. Consequently traveling to the land of their forefathers and visiting the homes and villages of their ancestors are of paramount importance to the Chinese community to maintain and preserve their cultural identity. The paper explores how cultural identity is negotiated through visiting several tourism sites in China. It examines how cultural identity is negotiated by exploring the past, assess the present and shape the future. China represents the past, present and the future for the Chinese community. The nature of this study requires an in-depth understanding of participants' travel motivations and the way they make sense of their identity. For logistical reason the gathering of data for this study will be restricted to the Malaysian Chinese living in state of Sarawak, Malaysia. A selected sample of 40 Malaysian Chinese who have visited China were made. In this study, data gathering method included in-depth, one-to-one, face-to-face semi-structured interviews. Using grounded theory, comparison of the data collected was used to capture emerging themes and ideas from the interview. The inductive approach was for the purpose of generating theory from the data. The phenomenon of Malaysian Chinese visiting China is an eastern concept of travel that is not grounded globally but regionally and locally. Identity is often marked by difference and sameness between 'us' and 'them.' It is found that similar technique is used to differentiate between the 'us' who are similar and yet different. Comparison to compete in order to reflect identities that are better and stronger signified a better Chinese.

Keywords: China, Malaysia, cultural identity.

Motivations and Interface of Host/Guest Sexual Relationships from a Male/Female Perspective

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

Tourism and sex has in the past been associated and understood as being a leisure activity of men who travel to tourism destinations, often developing countries in order to engage in commercial sex with prostitutes or paedophilia activities. (Enloe 1989). For many years 'sex tourism' was the umbrella of which all sexual relationships between travelers and host populations fell under, often used to perpetuate gender roles and reinforce power relations (Pruitt and La Font 995) particularly with regard to a dark side to include paedophiles and male tourists with local female prostitutes. Developing research demonstrates that female tourists also engage in sexual activities whilst on holiday, but as Jeffreys (2003) points out some writers argue that this is not sex tourism but romance tourism. Opperman (1998) and Ryan (1999) are critical of tourism researchers for their narrow definition of sex tourism and also for ignoring female tourists (in Herold et al: 2001) and now we are beginning to see research which uses words such as romance, love and erotic tourism.

Romance tourism is a fairly new concept and generally concerns itself with relationships of some kind, often female travelers and local males, each having different motives and seeking particular benefits (ibid), ultimately suggesting sexual relations. Although termed as romance tourism, women are considered to be traveling in pursuit of sex and romance and as Dahles and Bras (1999) point out, local men are often labeled as gigolos, male prostitutes and entrepreneurs. This is a comparative case study of two villages in India which will examine the sexual relationships between female tourists and local males and consider what, if anything motivates the female tourist to seek out sexual relationships and in turn what draws the local males to the tourist. It will investigate the interface between the two and consider the power relations, context, meanings and the effects of the behaviors of host and guest in order to determine if there are regional, cultural and social differences which impinge upon these relationships. This study is of a socio-cultural, anthropological nature thus making it an ethnographic study. The methods used will be qualitative in nature as they will consist of people's opinions, perceptions and real life events and to effectively focus on the study and obtain valid and accurate information the research strategy will incorporate a social field study. Research will take place using one to one semi structured interviews and observational techniques in order to understand the host / guest interface.

Keywords: romance, sex, host-guest relationships.