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CONTENTS

service they have experienced. If tour guiding service is a core component of heritage tour, then the tour guides (TGs) as being a frontline employee in the tourism industry play an important role in shaping tourist experience in a destination. This study evaluates the relationship between tour guide (TG) performance and tourist's satisfaction in terms of psychological, spiritual and practical content during heritage guided tours in Egypt. A questionnaire was distributed among 200 tourists of different nationalities. Results derived from the respondents showed that (TG) performance affects tourist experience. For a satisfied tourist transmits his/her positive experience (word of mouth) to third persons as well as repeating his/her visit. Finally the study ends up by a set of recommendations for TGs to consistently emphasize a creative approach in order to maintain high standards of TG performance.

The current study concentrates on factors affecting the intentions of academics attending an academic conference. It highlights the importance of academic conferences and academic conference tourism and discusses meetings, the convention industry and also their utility in the career development of academics. Through qualitative research and a review of the literature on conference tourism push and pull motivation factors are suggested. The power of these factors to predict the intention to attend an academic conference is examined through quantitative research and regression analysis. The results indicate that 'pull' factors are better predictors of the intention to attend an academic conference than motivational 'push' factors.

The tour operators offering their services in established and traditional tourism destinations for a long time face the issue of the lack of sustainable elements in their holiday packages and their focus is mostly on the classic 3S model. However, either their target markets or the needs of destinations for sustainable approaches push for the enrichment of the offered packages. Therefore, this paper studies the potential for enrichment of classical tour packages by incorporating components of the destinations natural and cultural resources. To recognize these elements research has been conducted on the impressiveness of natural and cultural resources. The results indicate not only the potential for product enrichment with unused, till now, elements but also suggest the creation of

destination management on a local level and the multifaceted visitor economy. Outcomes of the analysis suggest that further enquiry into the blurred visitor economy concept is imperative, particularly in times of organisational restructuring, changing destination management priorities and increased competition.

Second home tourism is one of the patterns of tourism development especially in rural and mountainous areas that is obtained through ownership of second homes (bungalows or holiday homes). World's economic, social and cultural developments after the Second World War, with improving communication and transportation, increased leisure time. The possibility of allocating some part of revenue for unnecessary affaires caused the spread of rural tourism and consequently the popularity of second homes in the western world and many other countries. This paper introduced the second homes, their emergence and spread in all around the world, their geographical and spatial analysis and the importance of rural development, and then it investigated the role of second home tourism in rural development and their tourism development implications in all the environmental, economic, and social aspects. At last Sustainable development of rural tourism strategies was examined.

RESEARCH NOTES:

In current situation where Iran is struggling to get through consecutive sanctions, developing tourism industry and attracting foreign tourist and also the use of the exchange rate and low values of Rial can be a viable solution strategy. Iran can be a cheap destination for countries with high currency value which can be a successful factor in attracting tourism from other countries. Placed among the first ten countries with cultural and natural attractions, distinct hospitality and delivering cheaper services compared to other destinations are the main factors which can be used in creating a destination brand for Iran. On this basis, relying on real advantage of its unique attractions is much better than creating artificial spaces and short-term booms. The present study investigated the brand image of tourism in Iran, before and after the sanctions. Data are

EDITORIAL

This is the nineteenth issue of TOURISMOS, starting its 10th year of publication. In the previous eighteen issues, our multidisciplinary journal aimed at providing a platform that supports the transmission of new scholarly discoveries in the fields of tourism and hospitality, and we have been excited about offering a platform that supports scholars in building upon intellectual treasures and advancing our understanding about various fields of research in novel and meaningful ways. Capitalising on this effort, we now focus on furthering our scope and consolidating our position in both conceptual developments and practical applications in tourism, travel, leisure and hospitality.

All research papers and case studies presented in this issue, address a number of topics namely family tourism, tourists' satisfaction, conference tourism, ecotourism, ethnic tourism, destination management, second home tourism, tourism marketing, destination image, and tourism education.

Based on the previous analysis, we trust that you will enjoy reading the present issue, and we look forward to presenting you our next in autumn 2014!

Paris Tsartas
Editor-in-Chief

Evangelos Christou
Editor

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AN IMPORTANCE-PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS OF INTERNATIONAL VISITORS TO PENANG ISLAND, MALAYSIA

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This paper examines international visitors' perceived importance and performance of 12 destination attributes of Penang Island using an Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA). The result was drawn from a questionnaire survey of 803 respondents who visited the island between August and November 2012. The importance-performance analysis grids illustrate that Penang Island performs well in six attributes namely 1) safety and security; 2) image of destination; 3) friendliness of the people; 4) variety of tourism attractions; 5) value for money; and 6) accessibility to the destination. The attribute of cultural and historical uniqueness appears to get too much concentration, and five attributes fell into the Low Priority quadrant. Safety and security was found to be the determining attribute for international visitors. Implications and recommendations for Penang managers and marketers were discussed.

Keywords: *Importance-performance analysis, international visitors, destination attributes, Penang Island.*

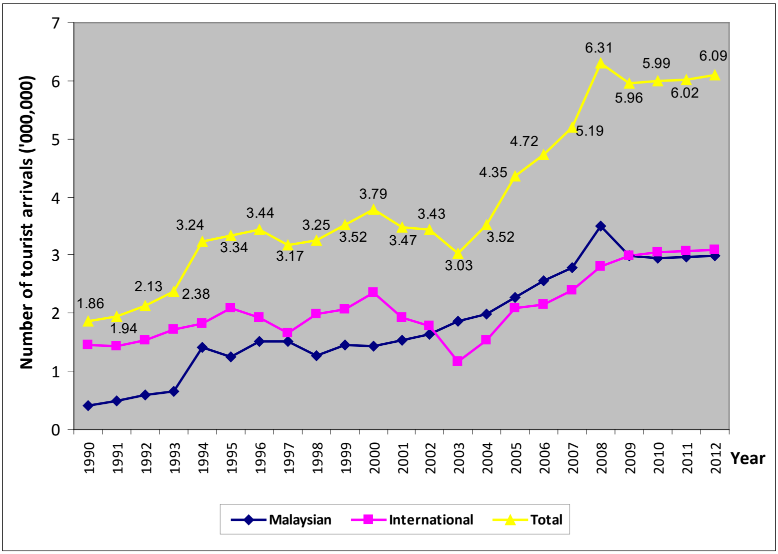
JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Penang Island and the Tourism Industry

Tourism has been an important industry in Malaysia for a number of years. As one of the country's leading tourist destinations particularly after Kuala Lumpur and Pahang (The Star Online, 2012), Penang received over 90.14 million visitors from 1990 to 2012 with an annual average of 3.92 million visitors (Figure 1). The total arrivals for 2012 reached a record of 6.09 million, representing a remarkable growth of 3.27 times over 1990. According to Penang Global Tourism (2012), Penang's top five foreign tourist generating markets (travelling by air) in 2012 were Indonesia (234,703), Singapore (98,777), China (43,676), Japan (24,454), and United States of America (19,948). Recognized by its government as an important source of revenue and catalyst to the state's economic growth, tourism, which is placed as the second sector after manufacturing (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2010), accounted for 39% of Penang's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2012 (Chua, 2012).

Figure 1. Visitor arrivals to Penang State, 1990-2012



Source: Compiled from Penang Development Corporation (PDC), 1990-1999; DCT Consultancy Services Sdn. Bhd., 2000-2003; PDC Consultancy Sdn. Bhd. & Penang Tourism Action Council, 2004; Penang Development Corporation, 2005-2006; Penang Global Tourism, 2007-2013

Despite the tremendous growth, Penang's inbound tourism has experienced a number of unprecedented declines since 1997. The fall in visitor arrivals, particularly from the international tourist market, has been intensified by global disruptions and threats such as the 1997 Asian financial crisis and the 2003 terror bombings in Jakarta and Bali, which have made international tourists stay away from visiting Southeast Asian countries. Furthermore, Penang Island is now considered less attractive as a "sun, sea and sand" (3S) destination which previously contributed to the island's reputation as the "Pearl of the Orient". As 3S tourism has been promoted up to its maximum in the 1990s (Cairns, 2002), Hooi (2006) asserted that the island's charm was slowly diminishing and fast losing out to emerging destinations like Phuket, Bali and other Indo-China countries which are regarded as more "exotic" in the eyes of Western foreigners.

Nevertheless, the designation of Penang's capital city, George Town, along with Malacca, as a World Heritage Site (WHS) in July 2008, has brought back visitors to the island. The number of visitors in 2008 recorded the highest arrival in Penang's history with 6.31 million visitors. As a WHS, the uniqueness of George Town lies in the cross-roads of religious pluralism, historic townscape and living heritage. In consequence, "novelty and knowledge seeking" and "cultural and historical attractions" have been the most important push and pull motives of international visitors for visiting Penang in recent years (Yousefi and Marzuki, 2012).

Since maintaining that the WHS status is important for retaining tourists in Penang Island as well as attracting new ones, it is vital to understand how the visitors perceived the product and service attributes in the destination in order to develop appropriate marketing strategies that better satisfy them. The provision of products and services that perform better than other destinations in those aspects of tourism experience (Dwyer and Kim, 2003) would make Penang remain vibrant. Moreover, tourists would be more likely to give positive ratings to destinations they visited when their expectations were met (Pritchard and Havitz, 2006). In light of these considerations, Penang's immediate need is to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the products and services they provide as well as, accurately define their importance and performance. Hence, it is the intention of this paper to identify both the importance and performance of destination attributes in Penang Island using the Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) from the perception of international visitors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Importance-Performance Analysis

Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) is a useful technique that was introduced by Martilla and James (1977) in the late 1970s that is capable of providing managers and marketers with valuable information for both satisfaction measurement and resources performance, in an easy applicable format. IPA is able to give a quick overview of what areas are most in need of improvement and what areas receive too much attention from management (Lacher and Harril, 2010). The fundamental assumption of IPA is that the level of customers' satisfaction with the attributes is mainly derived from their expectations and judgment of the product's or service's performance (Chu and Choi, 2000).

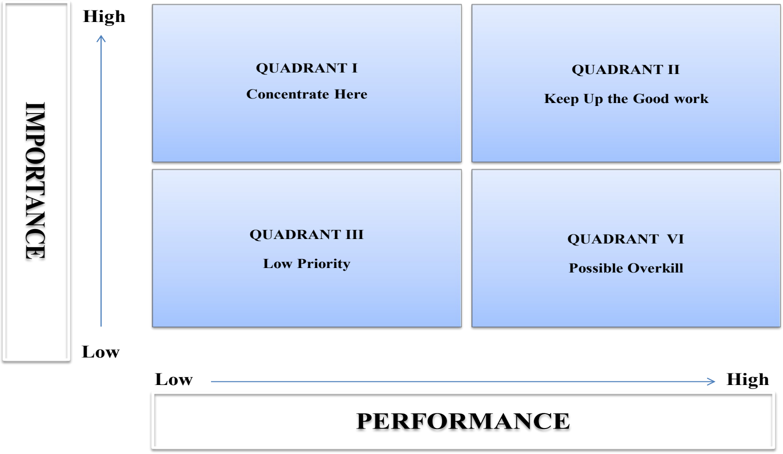
Martilla and James (1977) have applied the IPA technique to analyse the performance of the automobile industry. In their study, a set of key attributes of a target product is generated and subjects rate each attribute for its importance in a purchase decision. The attributes of importance need to be measured prior to, rather than after, an actual purchase experience, because the IPA in general pursues understanding the role of the key selected attributes in a purchase decision. Performance is then measured using the same set of attributes so that importance and performance can be directly compared within the same attributes via the IPA or grid. The scores of importance and performance are obtained from a survey instrument Likert scale. In the survey, the customers are asked two questions about each attribute that may read something like below:

How important is this attribute?

How well did this attribute perform?

The interpretation of the importance and performance scores is graphically presented on a grid divided into four quadrants (Figure 2). The Y-axis demonstrates the customers' perceived importance of selected attributes, while X-axis reports on the performance (of products or services) of the same attributes. The four identifiable quadrants include Concentrate Here, Keep up the Good Work, Low Priority, and Possible Overkill. Interpretation of the IPA grid is rather straightforward as explain in Table 1.

Figure 2. Importance-performance analysis grid



Since the late 1970s, IPA has become a popular managerial tool that has been broadly used to identify the strengths and weaknesses of brands, products, services and retail establishments in various industries (Chapman, 1993) including tourism. While, Lewis (1985) reported the IPA as a competitive analysis technique to identify tourist's perceptions of the hotel industry, Chu and Choi (2000) have used IPA to examine business and leisure travellers' perceived importance and performance of six hotel selection factors in the Hong Kong hotel industry. Wade and Eagles (2003) have applied IPA, complemented with market segmentation technique, to measure the service quality of Tanzania's National Parks. Lee and Lee (2009) adopted IPA to examine the cross-cultural comparison of the image of Guam as perceived by Korean and Japanese leisure travellers. Recently, IPA was applied to Robinson Crusoe Island Resort in Fiji to investigate the salient features perceived by backpackers and to measure their satisfaction towards experience gained at the resort (Lück, 2011). Apart from that, IPA also has been applied to ski resorts (Hudson and Shephard, 1998), tourist activities (Lacher and Harril, 2010), heritage site (Yurtseven, 2006), and tourist-destination shopping centres (Kinley et al., 2002).

Table 1. Description of IPA quadrants

Quadrant	Description
Quadrant I: Concentrate here *High Importance, Low Performance*	This quadrant is the most critical categorisation because it provides a classification of elements in which the firm fails to satisfy the customer perceived level of performance in areas they judge as salient. Under performance in these attributes requires immediate attention and the highest prioritisation in terms of resources and effort. The factors identified in this quadrant represent major weaknesses and threats to competitiveness. Policy changes and strategies should focus on directing marginal resources and extra effort to these attributes.
Quadrant II: Keep up the good work *High Importance, High Performance*	Attributes falling within this quadrant are indicative of a firm's success in meeting customer standards of performance in areas which customer deem relevant. They represent major strengths and potential competitive advantages that should be maintained or exploited. It is assumed that scarce resources are being effectively allocated where they are needed most and that the current action strategies should be kept in place or enhanced (Wade and Eagles, 2003).
Quadrant III: Low priority *Low Importance Low Performance*	Attributes falling in this category do not embody an immediate competitive threat and are viewed as minor weaknesses. They are likely to attract low priority in the rationing of scarce resources by decision makers and are potential candidates for losing out completely on resources and effort. If no gains can be achieved from improved performance, extra effort in this area is unnecessary (Azzopardi and Nash, 2013).
Quadrant IV: Possible overkill *Low Importance, High Performance*	This area captures those attributes that are suggestive of over performance. Marginal resources are being directed at attributes that represent minor strengths that have minimum impact on the firm's relative competitiveness. These attributes signify inefficient use of resources and should command the lowest priority for improvement. Cost cutting strategies may be appropriate to release resources and effort to be redeployed where they are needed.

Source: Adapted from Martilla and James (1977), Chu and Choi (2000).

Perceived Importance and Performance Attributes

Attribute of importance is generally regarded as a person's general assessment of the significance of an attribute for a service. A review of the literature suggests that tourist satisfaction is assessed in terms of both expectations that relate to certain important attributes and judgments of the attribute performance (Beldona and Cobanoglu, 2007). However, there appears to have been diverse conclusions made about how one should relate attributes of importance and performance. The concept of importance is viewed by tourists the same as satisfaction (Yang et al., 2009). When a customer perceives an attribute as important, the customer will believe that the attribute will play a significant role in influencing his or her service choice (Chi and Qu, 2008). More recently, the term importance has been used to refer to the perceived importance of an attribute and its effect on service in the destination area (Frías-Jamilena et al., 2013). Weber (2000) agrees with this view in term of important attributes considered important by consumers, and that the various services are perceived to differ. Matzler et al. (2004) assert that performance lies in customer perceptions of the performance of the attribute. The more favourable the perception of performance, the greater the likelihood of it being chosen from among similar alternatives.

The Influence of Destination Attributes on Destination Choice

Different attributes may influence destination choice. Those attributes directly influencing destination choice are determinant attributes that may arouse tourists looking for intentions and differentiate from other competitor destination offerings (Ranjanthran and Mohammed, 2010). The services and facilities offered by a tourism destination are those features of services that lead tourists to choose that service over others (Cerviño and Cubillo, 2005). Oh (2001) agrees that cleanliness of the accommodation, followed by safety and security, accommodation value for money, courtesy and helpfulness of staff were identified as top attributes for travellers in destination choice selection. In addition, Chu and Choi (2000) mentioned that personal services, physical attractiveness, opportunities for relaxation, standard of services, appealing image, and value for money were significantly evaluated by travellers. However, an extensive review of the literature in the tourism industry suggests that attributes such as image of the destination, variety of tourism attractions, historical uniqueness, value for money, safety and security, cleanliness of destination, and accommodation service have been considered by most tourists in choice decision (Chu and Choi, 2000, Guillet et al., 2011, Pritchard and Havitz, 2006, Yousefi and Marzuki, 2012).

Destination image is one of the important attributes in influencing decisions made by travellers as to which destination to visit (Mat Som et al., 2012, Rittichainuwat et al., 2001, Yousefi and Marzuki, 2012). Rittichainuwat et al. (2001) found that value for money was considered as important in affecting tourism destination selection. Limanond and Niemeier (2003) mentioned that accessibility to the destination is an undeniable asset to any kind of attraction. It is true that there are cases where people will take extra time and effort to reach unusually good entertainment value like that secluded fishing high in the sierras reached only by mule, but worth the hardship. These, however, are exceptions. There is a preponderance of vacation travellers who demand ease of access; without it, an attraction is at a severe competitive disadvantage (Shi and Ying, 2008).

Grosspietsch's (2006) study observed that in the international travel market friendliness builds tourism. It is interesting to note that the main attraction for visitors to Bermuda was the friendliness of the people. Rittichainuwat (2006) described friendliness of the local people, service - minded people and relaxing atmosphere as very important elements for travellers. Chen and Hsu (2000) confirmed the positive effect of availability of information in a tourist destination that will seek tourism development assistance. Goossens (2000) suggested that information availability plays an important role in the tourist's decision making process. Many studies have pointed out the relationship between availability of information and ease of communication (Chen and Tsai, 2007, Prayag, 2009, Rittichainuwat, 2006). Cleanliness of destination has been identified and reviewed by a number of scholars. Most notably, Chu and Choi (2000) found that cleanliness, comfort of place and quality of the environment were three attributes in which destinations received the highest ratings from tourists and visitors. Enright and Newton (2004) also found that cleanliness was the most important factor influencing the travellers in their destination selection. Local transport services in destination have received considerable attention from researchers and practitioners as an important benchmark for developing the tourist destination (Liu et al., 2008).

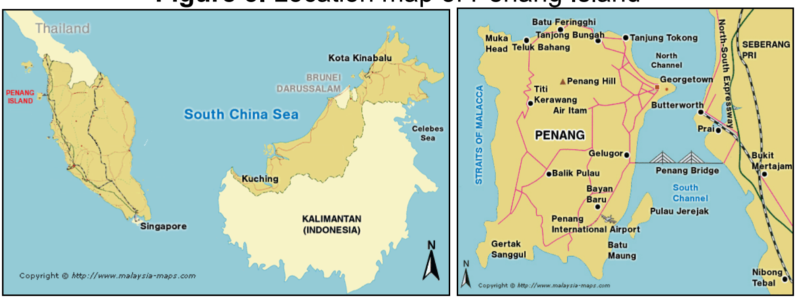
It is strategically important to understand and to identify the attributes that are perceived by travellers as important in their destination selection choice as well as to examine how travellers perceive these attributes. It is also very likely that a traveller's favourable post-purchase experience may lead him or her to repurchase if the traveller is satisfied with the destination performance.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The Study Site

The research was conducted in Penang Island, Malaysia (Figure 3). Penang Island is located in north-western Peninsular Malaysia specifically between latitude 5°24′00″N and 100°14′20″E longitude. The island which has a total land area of 293 km^2 is easily accessible, either by air, ferry and cruise, or land transport. The island is connected to the mainland by a 13.5 km bridge, the longest bridge in Malaysia. The capital city of Penang State is George Town, named after Britain's King George III and situated in the north-eastern cape of Penang Island. The total population of the island in 2010 was approximately 750,000 and the islanders are predominantly Chinese (41.7%), followed by Malay (41.3%), Indian (9.8%) and others (7.2%). Although Penang State is composed of two parts i.e. Penang Island and Seberang Perai (the mainland), the name of Penang is widely known and referred to Penang Island, which is how it will be referred to in this paper.

Figure 3. Location map of Penang Island



Source: http://www.malaysia-map.com

Tourism started in Penang as early as 1834, when the first reference of 'tourist' in the island was published in a travelogue (Begbie as cited in Din, 1986). A few hotels namely Hotel de L'Europe, E & O, Runnymede and the Crag Hotel on Penang Hill were established in the 19th century as a response to British and Europeans expatriate's demands (Snodgrass, 1980). Starting from the 1940s, Penang promoted the 3S - sun, sea and sand, where Ferringi beach and tropical weather were the key selling points. However, the economic recession that affected Penang's tourism sector in the late 1990s has pressured the government to focus on heritage tourism in order to sustain the sector generally. The conservation and preservation efforts carried out for historic buildings, melting pot communities and living cultures mainly in the inner city of George Town was recognized by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) which therefore granted World Heritage Site status. Apart from heritage tourism, Penang continues to promote itself as a 3S destination, Meeting, Incentive, Convention and Exhibition (MICE) hub (The Star Online, 2013), as well as a gastronomy paradise (Zainal et al., 2010). Due to this variety of key selling points, the state government therefore adopted the slogan “Penang Has It All” in its marketing and promotional campaigns (Eng, 2008). Without having any specific brand name for Penang, the destination managers and marketers recently faced difficulties in assessing visitor satisfaction from its marketing programs. Certainly, the application of IPA would benefit them, and Penang offers an excellent case study example for this study.

Questionnaire Design

This study utilized a questionnaire as a survey instrument. Based on a review of relevant literature, 14 destination attributes were identified. These attributes were presented and discussed in a focus group discussion with tourism industry professionals on July 2012. The professionals among whom were hotel managers, travel agents, airline officials, airport staff and tourist attraction representatives, selected 12 destination attributes and discarded two attributes that were not significantly relevant to Penang’s situation.

The questionnaire contained 31 questions and was structured into four parts, namely (1) travel planning, (2) travel expenditure and shopping, (3) travel preference and opinion, and (4) demographic background. Section three was the most important part of the survey and it was, in essence, the IPA instrument. The respondent was required to rate the attributes based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1, not at all important to 5, extremely important, in the Importance part, and from 1, poor in 5, excellent, in the Performance part. Prior to the main survey, a pilot survey was conducted in July 2012 and from there, several changes were made, e.g. word replacement and reduction to avoid ambiguity and confusion. The final survey instrument was initially written in English and then translated into Mandarin, Arabic and Japanese by fluent bilingual experts to capture a wider range of respondents.

Sampling and Data Collection

The sample chosen in this study were international tourists who visited Penang between August and November 2012. The survey population was based on the total number of international arrivals to Penang in 2011. Using the Raosoft Online Sample Size Calculator, the sample size was calculated. Data were collected from tourists in the departure hall of Penang International Airport, Swettenham Pier Passenger Terminal, Beach Street tourist information centre, departure hall of the Penang Hill top station and other tourist spots, by trained enumerators. The tourists were selected using a random sampling approach and the selection is based on two justifications namely; (1) respondent must be aged 18 and above and, (2) respondent is not transient tourist. The questionnaire was completed either by face to face interview with the tourists or with self-completion by tourists. From the 1000 questionnaires distributed, 851 forms were returned of which only 803 forms were usable (80.3%). The number of usable questionnaires exceeded the sample size.

Data Analysis

In the first stage of analysis, descriptive analysis was computed on the respondents' demographic, travelling profiles and expenditure patterns. The reliability test was performed on each 12 items of destination importance and performance respectively to test the stability of variables and only variables that had coefficients equal or greater than 0.70 were acceptable and considered an excellent indication of constructing reliability. The Cronbach's Alpha for 12 items of destination importance was found 0.874, which is an indication of strong item homogeneity. While, the reliability value for 12 items of performance was 0.879. All items appeared to be worthy of retention.

In the next stage, the mean score of each importance and performance attribute were calculated and then presented onto a two-dimensional grid where the Importance values (Y-axis) were plotted against Performance values (X-axis). The overall means of the importance and performance score were used to position the crosshairs of the grid. Using the mean scores for crosshair positioning is a more critical approach than using the middle point of the scale or some arbitrary point (Lück, 2011). In certain cases where there is insufficient amount of variance or when the importance ratings show a non-normal distribution pattern, the use of median is recommended (Martilla and James, 1977).

Figure 4 illustrates the resulting graphic representation of the data that produced the four quadrants. The information gained from the plotting of the results reveals the weaknesses and strengths of Penang as a destination.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Demographic and Travelling Characteristics of Respondents

As shown in Table 2, the respondents consisted of 55.3% male and 44.7% female. The international visitors are mainly from ASEAN (23.9%), Europe (18.9%) and Eastern Asia (14.1%). The biggest age group is youth respondents aged 18 to 35 years old (63.5%). Married travellers were more numerous than single travellers. The majority of respondents obtained tertiary education and above (89.3%) and work as white-collar. More than half of the respondents received a monthly income between MYR 5,000 and MYR 50,000.

The respondents visited Penang mainly for leisure or holiday (52.4%) (Table 3). The respondents obtained their information prior to travel from many sources. Most of them trusted the internet (31.1%) rather than relying on word-of-mouth from friends and relatives (22.8%) and their own past experience (15.2%). The survey discovered that the majority of respondents were first time travellers (68.2%) and travelled independently to Penang (79.7%) mainly with spouse (26.5%), family members (22.8%) or friends (22.7%). Only 18.6% were travelling alone. The average number of persons travelling together was 3 people. They spent an average of 14.76 days at destinations, although the majority stayed 3-7 days (54.7%). Hotels and resorts (49.4%) continue to be the most preferred type of accommodation. Whereas budget lodgings like motel, inn, chalet, guest house and hostel constituted 20.7% of accommodation choice. Public transport (60.9%) such as taxi and bus is the most frequently used options for respondents to move within a destination. A smaller number (3.5%) rode trishaw during their visit. On average, the respondents spent over MYR 2,636.48 ranging from MYR 80.00 to MYR 40,000.00. The main items they purchased were local foods, beverages or fruits (42.0%), followed by clothes, bags, shoes or watches (27.5%) and souvenirs at tourist bazaars (20.4%).

Table 2. Demographic characteristics of the survey respondents

Region of residence	%	Occupation	%
ASEAN	23.9	Professional	34.7
Europe	18.9	Non-working	27.2
Eastern Asia	14.1	Technician & associate professional	19.0
Western Asia	12.5	Legislator, senior official & manager	8.1
Americas	9.5	Service worker & shop sales worker	4.8
Oceania	7.6	Clerical worker	3.8
Southern Asia	7.4	Craft & related trades worker	1.2
Africa	5.8	Plant & machine-operator & assembler	0.6
Central Asia	0.3	Skilled agricultural & fishery worker	0.5
Gender		**Monthly income (in MYR)**	
Male	55.3	< 5,000	42.7
Female	44.7	5,001 – 10,000	23.4
		10,001 – 50,000	29.3
Age		50,001 – 100,000	2.3
18 – 35 years old	63.5	> 100,001	2.3
36 – 54 years old	31.2		
> 55 years old	5.3	**Education level**	
		Higher degree	45.1
Marital status		Tertiary education	44.2
Married	53.2	Secondary education	9.1
Single	44.1	Primary education	1.0
Divorcee/Widowed	2.8	No formal education	0.6

Table 3. Travelling pattern of the survey respondents

Purpose of visit	%	Source of information	%
Leisure/Recreation/holidays	52.4	Internet	31.1
Visit friends/relatives (VFR)	12.7	Word-of-mouth	22.8
Education/study/teaching	10.3	Past experience	15.2
Business/professional	10.0	Magazine/guide book	13.6
Health treatment	3.9	Travel agency/tour company	5.8
Honeymoon	3.7	Television/radio	5.3
Convention/conference	2.2	Government tourist office	2.1
Shopping	1.4	Airlines directly	1.6
Incentive travel	1.4	Expo/exhibition/tourism fair	1.3
Government affairs	0.9	In-flight information systems	1.0
Sporting tournament/event	0.6	Others (GPS, university etc.)	0.2
Religion/pilgrimages	0.5		
		No. of visit to Penang	
Length of stay		First time	68.2
1- 2 days	20.1	More than 1 time	31.8
3 -7 days	54.7		
8 – 14 days	11.0	**Trip mode**	
15 – 30 days	6.7	FIT	79.7
31 – 60 days	1.9	On package	20.3
> 60 days	5.6		
		Travelling party	
Accommodation		Spouse/Partner	26.5
Hotel/Resort	49.4	Family/relatives	22.8
Motel/inn/chalet/hostel	20.7	Friend(s)	22.7
Friend or relative's house	14.3	Travelling alone	18.6
Timeshare/apartment	5.7	Business associate(s)	6.9
Rest house/bungalow/villa	3.7	Tour group member	1.9
Homestay	3.5	Travellers met along the way	0.4
Cruise ship	1.5	Incentive group	0.2
Campsite	1.2		
		Expenses (in MYR)	
Transportation		< 500	22.0
Public transport	60.9	501 – 1,000	21.2
Rented vehicle	17.4	1,001 – 5,000	46.3
Personal vehicle	13.4	5,001 – 10,000	7.4
Company vehicle	3.9	> 10,000	3.1
Trishaw	3.5		
Walking	0.9		

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Importance–Performance Analysis Grid

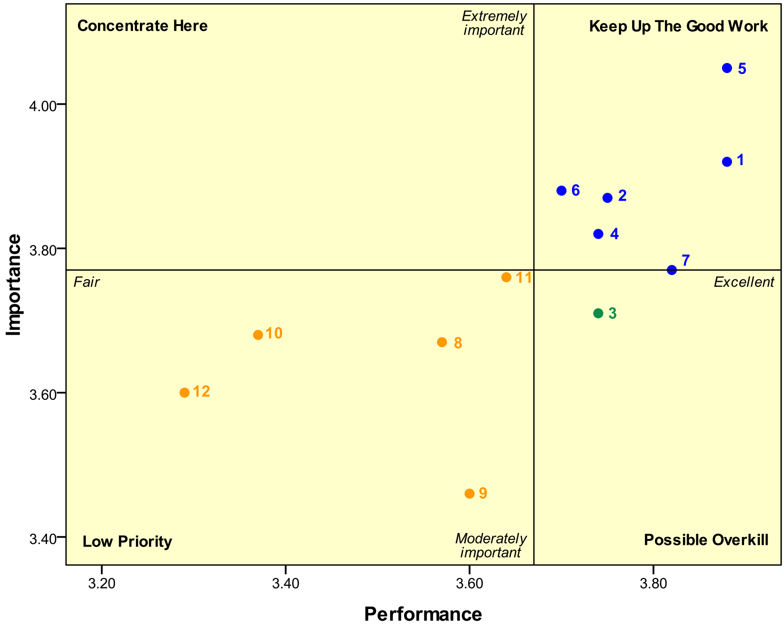
Table 4 illustrates the mean scores of the 12 destination attributes of Penang perceived by international visitors in relation to Importance and Performance. The data were then plotted onto the IPA grid presentation (Figure 4). In Figure 4, the X-axis represents the perceptions of Performance score relating to international visitors' experience of Penang's products and services. The Y-axis represents the relative scores of Importance items on the same attributes. The mean Importance rating for the pooled data was 3.77 and the mean Performance rating was 3.67. The mean Importance and Performance ratings derived from our data provided the grid crashers presentation on which the four quadrants were identified. As shown in Figure 4, six attributes identified in Keep up the Good Work quadrant, one in the Possible Overkill quadrant and five in the Low Priority quadrant. The following provides some meaningful insights about the 'quadrant' presentation.

Table 4. Twelve features of the importance-performance analysis

No	Attribute	[a]Mean Importance	[b]Mean Performance	Difference
1	Image of destination	3.92	3.88	-0.04
2	Variety of tourism attractions	3.87	3.75	-0.12
3	Cultural/historical uniqueness	3.71	3.74	0.03
4	Value for money	3.82	3.74	-0.08
5	Safety and security	4.05	3.88	-0.17
6	Accessibility to destination	3.88	3.70	-0.18
7	Friendliness of the people	3.77	3.82	0.05
8	Availability of information	3.67	3.57	-0.1
9	Ease of communication	3.46	3.60	0.14
10	Cleanliness of destination	3.68	3.37	-0.31
11	Accommodation services	3.76	3.64	-0.12
12	Local transport services	3.60	3.29	-0.31
Total		45.19	43.98	-1.21
Central line		3.77	3.67	

a Mean scale: 1 - not at all important to 5 - extremely important
b Mean scale: 1 - poor to 5 - excellent

Figure 4. Importance-performance analysis grid of Penang attributes perceived by international travellers



First Quadrant: Concentrate Here

The analysis did not identify any attributes as being highly important with relatively low performance. One possible explanation is that most respondents simply perceived that all attributes presented to them were important and the performance was relatively satisfactory.

Second Quadrant: Keep Up The Good Work

Six attributes were identified in this second quadrant. The findings indicated that these attributes are perceived as high importance by the respondents and at the same time their performance was very good. So, the destination marketers should keep up the good work with regard to these attributes. In other words, 'safety and security', 'image of destination', 'variety of tourism attractions', 'value for money', 'friendliness of people' and, 'accessibility to the destination' were the major strengths of Penang that marketers should continue to emphasize.

The two attributes that obtained the highest performance scores namely 'safety and security' (mean=3.88; SD=0.825) and 'image of destination' (mean=3.88; SD=0.786), mirror that Penang prides itself as a safe destination to visit by international visitors.

Third Quadrant: Low Priority

The third quadrant was called 'Low Priority' because the attributes identified in this area were considered lower in both importance and performance. Five attributes fell into this category including 'accommodation services', 'availability of information', 'ease of communication', 'cleanliness of destination' and 'local transport services'. Although the result showed that international visitors did not perceive these items important, this does not mean that destination managers and marketers should reduce their efforts to improve such services. On the contrary, these service categories are often considered as the essential facilities or basic needs to tourists.

Fourth Quadrant: Possible Overkill

Only one item was placed in the category of low importance and high performance, i.e. 'cultural/historical uniqueness'. Destination marketers need to strategically consider the aspect of cultural and historical distinctiveness. As George Town has been listed as a World Heritage Site, Penang has received well deserved recognition for its cultural and historical products. Therefore, this attribute need not be overemphasized and further investment to enhance this element needs to be considered carefully.

CONCLUSION

This paper examined international visitors' perceived importance and performance of twelve of Penang's destination attributes using an Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA). The main group of respondents were young, educated, independent and first-time type group of visitors who came for leisure and preferred to stay at the hotels and resorts as well as relying on internet resources and word-of-mouth as their main sources of information. Only 5.3% of the respondents were senior travellers (more than 55 years old). The results showed that overall, respondents were fairly satisfied with their experience of Penang Island. In particular, their satisfaction measurements of 12 destination attributes were presented in the IPA grid.

The IPA grids have shown that 'safety and security', 'image of destination', 'variety of tourism attractions', 'value for money', 'friendliness of people' and, 'accessibility to the destination' fell into Keep Up the Good Work quadrant; 'accommodation services', 'availability of information', 'ease of communication', 'cleanliness of destination' and 'local transport services' in the Low Priority quadrant; and 'cultural/historical uniqueness' in Possible Overkill quadrant. No attribute has been identified in the Concentrate Here quadrant. The respondents considered 'safety and security' as the most important item in determining Penang as their holiday destination prior to the trip. Knowing how visitors perceived the quality of services and facilities is the means by which Penang can position itself and differentiate itself from competitors and at the same time be able to prioritise tasks, allocate resources and develop tailor-made marketing tactics and strategies for their market segments.

The use of IPA has contributed both to the literature and the tourism sector in Penang. IPA is an effective way for management to identify what problems exists and why (Chu and Choi, 2000), and at the same time, the results provide valuable insights to tourism players in strategizing their marketing programs pertaining to services and product, to meet and better satisfy the international visitors' requirements and expectations. However, there are a few areas regarding two possible applications of IPA that should be tackled in future research. The suggestions include applying the IPA technique to assess the perceptions of different categories of visitors in Penang such as male and female tourists, Asian and Western tourists, business and leisure tourists, first-time and repeat tourists as well as youth and senior travellers. Analysing the perceptions of quality for different market segments can better assist managers and marketers to address and develop specific needs and tourism packages of a particular segment. As this study only focused on international travellers, it suggested that future research examines domestic travellers to identify the important performance analysis factors that influence their decision to visit and revisit Penang Island.

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APPRAISAL OF FAMILY-FRIENDLY TOURISM IN MALAYSIA

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Family tourism is a growing market even though it is understudied and unexplored in Malaysia. Given the rising purchasing power and quality of life among families, and little work has been done on exploring these family friendly policies and their implementations, this article aims to uncover to what extent that family-friendly policies are implemented in Malaysia. This article utilised a descriptive method with qualitative data from historical writings, tourism reports and research findings concerning the participation of family tourists. This study revealed that the policies and implementations of family tourism are of different level of concern among various stakeholders. At the national level, families are encouraged at both explicit and implicit initiatives, while at the tourism providers families characters are commoditised as tourism products. The changing demand of families received attentions from the tourism providers as well as from the governmental agencies. The setting up of a comprehensive guideline on family-friendly destination should stand as a competitive edge in promoting family tourism.

Keywords: *family-friendly destination, family tourism, vacationing, caring, tourism providers, commoditization*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is competitive in nature and is changing rapidly in both the developed and developing countries. Due to these circumstances of the changing taste among new tourists and the increase in quality of life, both the private and public tourism destinations and providers have responsively and innovatively attended to product development and the needs of these market segments (Cook, 1996; Beirne, 1999; Decrop & Snelders, 2004; Yeoman, 2012). One of these growing segments is family tourism, and it has been argued that providing a family-friendly destination will guarantee their visitations (Bert & Lehto, 2008; Coates, 1996; Cook, 1996). Moreover, as the family tourists are changing dramatically in terms of their travel demand, style and taste (Cohen & Harris, 1998), a holistic understanding of what constitutes a friendly tourism destination is therefore pertinent (Bert and Lehto, 2008; Kang et al., 2003; Goldscheisder, 2000). This trend is apparently creating competing destinations including those in the United States, United Kingdom, Australia, Singapore and Thailand (Kang et al., 2003; Beioley, 2004; Gardyn, 2001, Beirne, 1999; Boylu & Terzioğlu, 2010; Yeoman, 2012). However, among family vacation sites and destinations that are popular, one of the selling points in marketing and branding of the tourism site or destination is still having a friendly destination.

In Malaysia, family tourism is a growing market for both the domestic and international segments. However, both the domestic and international tourism providers still lack a clear practice in meeting the needs of the family market. In terms of the domestic market, factors of increased quality time, changing of family characteristics and spending abilities and habits have provided a strong basis for a better approach in conceptualizing and designing a family-friendly tourism destination. On the other hand, in terms of the international market, the family market in Malaysia has been interpreted as tourists who are mostly ‘of the Middle East origins’ (Mohd Yusoff & Abdullah, 2011; Ariffin & Hasim, 2009). This situation reveals that very little attempt has been made in exploring family tourism and that no attempt has been made to uncover the real meaning of family-friendly policy and implementation.

To date, no comprehensive study has been explicitly conducted on this matter in Malaysia; hence, there exists confusion over what tourism-friendly destination should be among those in the tourism businesses and tourism governance. For this reason, there is an urgency to examine and uncover what is of importance in family tourism since the family-friendly policy and practices in Malaysia are crucial and are definitely supported by a strong basis. Even though tourism has been significantly contributing to the country's economy through the large percentage of income generated from international tourists as well as ranked fourth as the source of national income, attempts toward strengthening the country's capability in harnessing the potentials of family tourism is still far from making it the key strategies in the tourism development policies.

Although there were several domestic tourism surveys carried out in the 1980s and early 1990s (Tourism Development Corporation 1988, 1991), it is only quite recently that domestic tourism has been extensively researched; among others these studies involved the profiling of domestic tourism (Badaruddin & Omar 2005; Foong–Peng, 1997), domestic tourist and lifestyle (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004; Biro Rundingan UKM, 1998) and vacation among urban Malay families (Habibah, 2007) and family vacation history (Habibah & Hamzah, 2012). However, tourism is one of the key sectors that are spearheading the country in achieving high economic growth through high yield tourism spending. In fact, tourism is one of the key sectors in the economic transformation plan toward achieving a developed nation in 2020. Yet, the family orientation policy seems to be understated and has only been emphasized recently in which it is generally stated as a fun family destination for domestic tourists, or more specifically to attract and cater for the growing international markets (Malaysia, 2010).

Taking into consideration that tourism-friendly destination has now become the selling point, it can be claimed that Malaysian tourism providers have yet to take full advantage of this niche. Therefore, this study aims to identify the family-friendly policies at three levels of implementations, namely at the national level, the tourism production system level and the consuming family unit level.

LITERATURE REVIEW OF FAMILY-FRIENDLY TOURISM

Conceptualizing the family tourism

There is no one complete and mutually agreed definition of family tourism among practitioners and tourism scholars (Kelly, 1999; Gardyn, 2001; Chesworth, 2003; Rugh, 2008; Schänzel, 2010). Taking into account that family tourism is mostly positioned in tourism studies compared to family studies, the following perspectives should become the basis in reconceptualising family tourism.

Family tourism from the perspective of the family tourists is simply a travel with several members or all the members of a family unit to a chosen destination. Even though the relevancy of this definition has been challenged as the characteristics of families have changed in the last two decades, the following characteristics should however, become the tenet of family tourism (Brown, 1995). Although the purpose of family travel varies, it is mainly concerned with social bonding, inter-generation interest and family reunion (Yeoman, 2012; Schänzel, 2010; Kluin & Lehto, 2012). The changing concept of family means that recent family tourism is no longer a travel of the nuclear family. It currently extends beyond the nature of family units and to certain circumstances it is bounded to the definition of a family commonly applied in the country. In recent developments, studies on family tourism have highlighted the importance of exogenous and endogenous factors, including changes in travelling mode and increase of quality of life (Cook & Cleary, 1983; Maken, 1992; Gilbert & Abdullah, 1996).

On the other hand, family tourism from the perspective of tourism providers means provision of facilities for the family at the destination or at the tourism providers' premises. As such, most providers will ensure the provision of family facilities in the context of their services, their business premises, and at the site or destination (Brey & Lehto, 2008). A hotel or resort for example, will ensure that the family room, stay, food, and services fit the needs of the family during their vacation. The shopping sector on the other hand, will facilitate the shopping experiences of the family members and ensure all their needs and those of interrelated services such as dining, baby-care and mother's feeding room are provided under one roof. Theme parks will definitely be designed to transform the concept of 'family fun', 'play' and 'togetherness' at their modern re (created) leisure-scape.

Family tourism is not a new agenda in developed countries (Krippendorf, 1987; Goodrich, 2000; Yeoman, 2012; Obrador, 2012). Drawing upon the voluminous amount of literature in the early 50s and 60s until recently, four major themes can be summarized. The first is the decision making of family tourism, which mostly focuses on the processes of decision making. The majority of the studies have operationally viewed family decision making as being one of three categories: husband-dominant, wife-dominant, or joint decision between husband and wife (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Nichols & Snepenger, 1988). The second stage concentrates on the family tourism dynamics according to the life cycle of the family (Consenza & Davis, 1981; Fodness, 1992; Belch & Willis, 2002; Bojanic, 1992, Bialeschki & Michener, 1994), while the third theme tends to look into the production of more specialized products for family tourism, including theme parks, zoo resort, sport, and cruise vacation (Brown, 1995; Milman, 1997; Carpenter, 1999; Lockstone & Baum, 2008). Studies grouped under the fourth theme tends to concentrate on the role of family tourism in generating value chain for the economy, either locally or regionally, and quality of life (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004; Brey & Lehto, 2008; Schänzel, 2010), including the Visit Family and Friend (VFR) and Visit Relatives and Friends (VRF) in their home country or country of origin (Cohen & Harris, 1998; Moscardo et al., 2000). Studies that add to the importance of family segmentation according to vacation decision making (Kang et al., 2009; Moscardo et al., 1996), impacts of year-round holidays on family vacation (Preecy, 2012) and decision making and women as well as spouses roles are still expanding (Belch & Willis, 2002; Bronner & de Hoog, 2008; Chen et al 2009, Obrador, 2012; Barlés-Arizón et al., 2013; Kozak, 2010).

Family tourist

The family is a fundamental building block in a society, a business and consumerism, and therefore, unravelling their characteristics and needs to spur family tourism is essential. Several initiatives in typologising the family tourist can be tracked in developed nations (Rugh, 2008, Southall, 2010; Gardner, 1995). Historically, in the 1930s or in the golden age, Rugh (2008) categorized the American family tourists into four, comprising of the 'heritage travel', 'vacation out West', 'back to nature' and 'resting in the countryside'. Mintel (2009) on the other hand identified seven categories that ranged from single to silver haired families, in which their demand on family-friendly facilities and services is central to most of these segments. Yeoman (2012) asserts that as family characteristics have changed, so has the behaviour of the family tourists. Besides the conventional role of the husband-wife or father-mother on vacation, travels with kids are growing significantly (Cullingford, 1995; Thornton, Shaw & William, 1997; Lohmann & Danielsson, 2004). The intergenerational vacation is seemingly dominating the Visit Family and Friend (VFR) segment while the concept of fatherhood is also attracting the family tourist (Moscardo et al., 2000, Seaton & Palmer, 1997; Poel, Masurel & Nijkamp, 2004; Schänze & Smith, 2012). Above all, several recent studies, as shown in Table 1, have revealed that the family tourists or the family market are those tourists who undertake travelling with all the members or only selected members of the family unit or families, with the purpose of vacation and fulfilling the family's leisure needs at either domestic or international destinations.

Table 1. Definition of Family Tourist

Scholars	Locality and segments	Family tourist characteristics
Gonzales and Molina, 2009	Spanish family tourist	The second largest segment of Spanish tourist. Travel in private vehicles compared to using the coach or train. The sun and sea is the most important motivation even though VFR accounts for a large percentage of the trips. Private residences are preferred, followed by apartments (25.1%). The majority travelled in family groups, followed by couples.
Mintel (2009)	U.S family travel market	The family leisure market is challenged by demographic trends including a rise in single-parent families, and rising socioeconomic inequalities. There is a growing demand for grandparent/ grandchildren and multi-generational family leisure. Leisure products for younger families are likely to experience greater growth.
Yeoman (2012)	Australian family holiday segment	Family holidays are opportunities for 'quality family time', allow bonding, and ensure happiness and togetherness of the family, away from the distractions of everyday life. The reasons families go on holiday differ from those of the general holidaying individuals. Family holidays are less about an escape or break 'from' home routines and more about spending time 'with' the family (including extended family), doing novel activities and creating positive memories. For children, family holidays involve social fun, (re) connecting people and social practices.
Lohmann & Danielsson (2004)	German family	Family is the "new" trend affecting tourism. One-child family and seniors travelling with children create implications for product design.
Carr (2012)	Global trend	Family and multigenerational travels are the luxury that consumers are seeking for. Top reasons for travels are "seeking authentic experiences in new destinations," "rest and relaxation" and "personal enrichment". Luxury travel utilizes storytelling in its marketing campaigns.
	Asia Pacific	Asia Pacific Family Travel 2012 survey found that families on vacation spend even more than they already do. Survey of key cities in seven Asia Pacific markets estimated that 44 million people travel on family holidays every year – chalking up an annual spending of US$29 billion. 51 million trips are made each year of which the length of stay for domestic in comparison to international family travel is 4 days and 8 days respectively.

Ariffin and Hasim (2009)	Arab Family tourist.	Arab tourists usually travel in the family group of 14 to 21 members; Demand demand a very high level of service in their travel experiences. They prefer five-star hotels and high quality service apartments especially with inter-connecting rooms to ensure allow convenient access to their younger family members. Collectivism ("we" not "I") – belonging to family and friendship group are very crucial. Parents are highly influential in most decision making.

Source: Gonzales and Molina, 2009; Mintel, 2009; Yeoman, 2012; Lohmann & Danielsson, 2004; Carr, 2012, Ariffin and Hasim (2009).

Even though the literature on family tourism emphasizes on the family members' characteristics, as part of tourism studies, one cannot overlook the categorization of tourists that is often referred to, especially the conventional Cohen's typology in the tourism bubble and Plog's motivational studies. In Malaysia, the market segmentation divides tourists into five groups, namely "the Satisfiers", "the Dreamers", "the Indoors", "the Achievers" and "the Escapists" with five major motives of pleasure travel which are "nature", "culture", "budget", "adventure" and "freedom" respectively (Abd Aziz & Ariffin, 2009). These labels provide a general idea of lifestyle and travel motivations of pleasure tourists. However, this classification fails to distinguish where family tourists lie as the key player in pleasure travel.

Family-friendly destination, policies and implementation in tourism

According to the United States market studies, family-friendly destination is quite a recent phenomenon. In translating this concept into the premises or localities of tourism, many tourism businesses are being inspired to create their environment in favour of the family tourists. Based on the existing practices undertaken in several selective markets, for example Singapore, the UK and other tourism sub-sectors, a family-friendly destination comprises of facilities that meet and satisfy each of the family members' needs. Table 3 shows some of the criteria chosen to represent a family-friendly destination. One significant practice is the priority given to the growing kids as the determinant of travel. Apart from children, family-friendly destination comprises of facilities centred on family safety and leisure. Meanwhile, family-friendly theme parks are moving toward the concept of engaging family tourists with animals and education. This is indeed an important change because considerable attention is given to the individual's time, parent's vacation time and environmentally-friendly practices.

Similar to family-friendly destinations, family-friendly policies and implementations are rarely established explicitly in tourism studies even though these practices have been employed and accomplished implicitly. However, recent studies on shopping, accommodation, gastronomy and theme parks demonstrate the stakeholders' commitments in fulfilling the family's needs during vacation. Some examples are presented below:

i) In Singapore, since family-friendly destination is considered a newly growing concept, the three levels of tourism providers, namely the government, business community and the public are given full responsibility to refurbish their premises or areas of public interest. The industries and business entities are encouraged to establish family-friendly environment according to the Code on Barrier Free Accessibility in Buildings, especially in meeting the needs of families with children. These guidelines include the provision of family rooms, diaper changing stations, child-friendly toilets, children's play areas, lockers for prams and other heavy belongings, pram and child buggy rental facilities, flexible arrangement of tables and chairs in eating places, and the provision of baby chairs in eating places (Anon, 2012).

ii) Another example is the establishment of Family Tourism Destination (FTD) in Salou of Catalonia. The family-friendly practices are managed as follows: firstly, a special FTD seal of approval is given to municipalities and tourist areas in recognition of their especially family-oriented facilities and high quality services. This requires them to offer family-friendly accommodation and catering facilities, and to have a wide range of entertainment and leisure options. The introduction of the FTD brand is a gradual process. During the first year, the municipality or area has a minimum of 15% of its tourist facilities certified as Family Tourism Destinations, rising to 35% over the years. Secondly, safety, communication and family-friendliness are aspects of concern in both the public and private space including tourist accommodation. A wide range of services for children can be found, ranging from high chairs, nappy changing areas, babysitting services, nurseries, beach play areas, children's water sport equipment for hire, adventure sports for all ages to activities for children to discover the culture and history of the municipality and the parks, children's guide to the municipality, as well as easy access to information and tourist offices (Banyeres, 2008).

Thus, based on the above mentioned literatures, the authors in this study have identified several components that may determine the extent of family-friendly policy and implementation in tourism which can be seen at the three levels, namely the national level, the tourism business initiatives and the family tourist.

METHODS

Data collection and analysis

Utilising a qualitative method, this study was conducted in three phases. Phase one drew upon the existing literatures on family tourism, especially from tourism scholars and experts on family studies. Based on the literature on family tourism, the authors focused on several aspects of family-friendly components comprising the family as the key actor, diversity of family attractions, cultural factors, pricing, accessibility, image, political stability, safety and health. These have assisted the authors to identify the family-friendly entities in both the tangible and intangible products as well as family experiences.

The second phase of this study focused on family tourism and tourism studies in the Malaysian context. In deriving 'who are the actors', 'what elements are they representing' and 'where are the localities of the activities/experience', sources of data were divided into several categories, which included the documents of national plans such as the Five Year Plans as well as tourism documents produced by the Ministry of Tourism and Tourism Malaysia. The five year plan documents in fact, provided an overview at the national, local and industrial level. The authors also looked into various reports on domestic tourists and recreational activities.

Taking into account that family tourists and family tourism are often discussed as part of the social-dimensions of tourist profiling in the Malaysian context, hence the third phase involved the analysis of the descriptive illustration of the family tourists while they had their vacation. Specifically, the domestic tourists' survey by Tourism Malaysia was used to gauge the patterns of family tourism.

Based on the above mentioned phases, and particularly with the data collected, this study used the qualitative method to examine the family-friendly initiatives at the three institutional levels of family tourism and family tourists which were i) the national level, ii) the tourism providers and iii) the family as the tourist. All of these procedures provided evidence of the family-friendly policies and implementations in the Malaysian context.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The family-friendly initiatives were examined at three institutional levels of family tourism and family tourists, namely i) the national tourism organization, ii) the tourism providers and iii) the family as the tourist.

Institutionalization of family tourism at the national level

Being regarded as a consumer-oriented product that is in favour of the family segment, family characteristics and images should be ideally represented and portrayed in family tourism. Hence, in attracting both the international and domestic tourists, needs of the family play an integral part at all levels of production, be it at the policy, planning or product development stage which covers the promotion, marketing and services that it has to provide. Is this scenario visibly taking place in the country's tourism development so far?

At the national level, tourism is governed by the Ministry of Tourism who is responsible for the policy, infrastructure improvement, beautification, environmental protection and new investment, and in providing promotion both locally and internationally. Besides the Ministry, several ministries also lend their hand in organising tourism related events, especially the Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development and Ministry of Culture, Arts and Heritage. However, after more than 40 years of being involved in tourism since hosting the PATA meeting in 1972, the country's tourism policy, planning and development are still considered to be at the periphery of the development stage. At this juncture, it seems uncertain whether tourism has been successfully implemented, especially in terms of domestic tourism. Looking at the tourism policy, it appears that the international tourist market has been given more priority instead, with the majority of the policies being an "elite driven policy," as Richter (1999: 42) asserts:

… Tourism policy in most countries has been an elite-driven policy, chosen by the powerful for political and economic advantage on both personal and regimen levels. It is characteristically at the beginning a chosen policy, something governments choose to embark upon, not something forced on them…

Domestic tourism was not given much attention in the early decades of the country's participation in the 1970s and 1980s. However, during those two decades, masses of families were significantly involved in domestic tourism, flocking into a cluster of tourist areas such as beaches, hill stations and cities for a short break or holidays. Additionally, during those days, most of the travels were influenced by leisure and escape from work as well as visiting friends and relatives. Even though accessibility to destinations was moderate, many still pursued it with personal transportation.

It was in fact only during the Visit Malaysia Year 1990 that more efforts were introduced to ensure continuous progression in domestic tourism. Following this, even though the Seventh and Eighth Malaysia Plan had introduced customer and tactical-based product development, family-friendly tourism was not listed as one of the key products. Instead, the senior citizen, student, honeymooners, shopping tourism, Malaysia my second home and theme park tourist segments were given wide coverage and promotion (Malaysia 2003, 359-361; Malaysia 2006, 201-203). From such scenario, it can be summed up that family tourism is yet to be infused in tourism Malaysia only generally, not at the exclusion dimensions as what have been stressed in other products in the international promotion and marketing wise. Spatially, more destinations are dispersed in the West Coast compared to the east coast of Peninsular Malaysia and East Malaysia (Mohd Shahwahid et al., 1991). Even though the National Tourism Master Plan was launched in 1975 and has been implemented since then, family tourism was not exclusively focused on as the key actors of the tourism market.

Nevertheless, in the present-day era, vigorous efforts were made in portraying the significance of family on vacation or holidaying together with family members in particular at the national level, especially when these activities are associated with fostering a caring family, as well as community and societal bonding. Promotions not only focused on urban citizens in major cities such as Kuala Lumpur and Johor Bahru, but were also extended to the medium sized towns and tourist destinations including Seremban, Melaka, Shah Alam and Genting Highlands (Habibah, 2007; MATTA 2014).

However, the underlying reasons for the enhancement of promotions in *Cuti-cuti Malaysia* in the four major segments, including those classified as the inactive family segment was quite misleading, and this occurred because of the limitation in understanding what matters in family tourism. The intensification of promotion among the Malay families was mainly with the aim of enhancing 'the correct ways of spending holidays' rather than only 'spending vacation as *balik kampung* (going back to their home town)'. The families are encouraged to travel, share and experience many activities as well as consume the facilities at tourism destinations. In fact, in one of the Tourism Ministry initiatives in

Cuti-cuti Malaysia, a similar emphasis was made:

Planned holidays among families and friends are a necessity in life, he said when launching the "Cuti Cuti Malaysia Train"...."Go on holidays with your families and friends so that your productivity will increase, your quality of life will improve and last but not least you can strengthen that special link... By touring the country and shopping together with the family, you will be helping the country also in promoting domestic tourism…

(*Utusan Express* 31 October 2000)

Although it is not a conflicting issue, it still indicates disagreements in understanding, practices and interests between families, business or tourism providers and the government. Meanwhile, the various different ministries and agencies including the Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development and Ministry of Culture, Art and Heritage (recent name-Ministry of Tourism and Culture) are lending their hands in organizing programmes that encourage and promote tourism. Some of these programmes are the 'Domestic Tourism Campaign','Happy Family' and 1Malaysia that demonstrated family tourism coexists with other programmes, strategies and national aspiration (Anon, 2004; Habibah, 2007).

Of recent Visit Malaysia 2014, through Cuti-cuti Malaysia, all segments including families are encouraged to take part in tourism activities. With almost every state offers wide ranges of tourism products throughout the year, families' choices remain intact with the lifestyle, school holidays and spending capability as well as the rising cost of living.

Commoditization of families as tourism product

The private sector, in general, is likely to initiate a more family-oriented tourism compared to the public sector whose initiatives normally emphasise on all products and segments. Historically, the role of the private sector can be seen in the early 1960s. These recent days, the modern economic sector has created a leisure-based market demand-supply which includes a working system that separates the formal working hours, break hours and paid-day-off. Through the International Labour Law and National Labour Law, each employee in the public or private sector is eligible for paid-vacation-leave. The regulation indicates the complexity of the production system which allows the intervention of tourism providers at various levels and sectors. However, besides providing vacation opportunities for the employees, it also has widened the segmentation in the marketplace in terms of accommodation, landscape, food, music, home, leisure activities and sports.

Marketing mechanism

As a consumer-oriented product, competitive pricing and accessibility to marketing channels to all family segments, regardless of their region, race, socioeconomic and cultural background are some of the key conditions for family tourism business expansion. In simple words, all family segments have an equal opportunity to consume family tourism and therefore, tourism providers at all levels should attempt these markets.

In Malaysia, marketing tourism is undertaken at various stages and mechanisms. At the national level, most of the strategic and direct marketing programmes are implemented by the government or the related stakeholders. Through Tourism Malaysia, the marketing network and promotion maintains its priority in developing the international tourist sector compared to the domestic sector. This can be seen in the programmes that are strategically aimed at increasing the number of tourism offices abroad from 30 to 40, compared to the tourist information centres in the country, which is not only small in numbers but limited in its facilities and located only in major destinations. Nevertheless, at the state level, the pro-active roles are reflected in the domestic marketing campaigns. This initiative was in fact a shift from the conventional campaign for international markets often organised in the 1970s, 1980s and early 1990s (Malaysia, 1995).

At the core of the private sector marketing, tactical approaches are more preferred as these allow widening of the market segmentation. However, family segmentation is not explicitly portrayed. Among the travel agencies for example, packaging of the product to the urban population and international markets is significantly attempted. Data derived from 1970 to 2000 implied that more sales were focused on the overseas market, and these were mostly operating in major cities. It was only in the early 2000 that marketing was widened and strategically included all segments of the population to fly for domestic destination. Packaging of the cheapest travel mode was due to mass marketing, in which MATTA, MAS, AirAsia and FireFly were among the providers who have materialised to increase domestic tourists or travellers (Habibah, 2007). This has directly reduced discrimination and segregation between the elites and the masses, and between the major and remote destinations. Based on these channels, not only the major urban centres - Kuala Lumpur, Johor Bahru and Georgetown are given access to potential segments, similar promotional campaigns in secondary cities - Ipoh and Kuantan and surrounding towns are capable of capturing the family segment as well.

Another successful strategy is the Matta International Travel Fair (MITF), which was first organized in 1991. During the MITF 1991, only 9,000 visitors attended the fair, while during the MITF 2005 and 2006, the crowds reached up to 60,000 and 90,000 visitors respectively. While the MITF22 was organised in Kuala Lumpur, similar smaller exhibitions were conducted in other destinations, namely in Sabah, Perak and Sarawak, thus, providing more chances for families at different levels of accessibility to consume or engage in family tourism. In fact, visitors attending the Matta Mach and Matta September 2013 reached to a higher volume and exceed the organiser's estimation, 100, 118 and 120,000 visitors respectively (Matta 2013), and family tours are among the popular package deals for both domestic and international market sold. Added to this, smart partnerships between the aviation, transportation and communication agencies in packaging family-oriented packages also provided family tourists a wide range of choices; some of the smart partnerships included collaborative network between Air Asia and Pos Malaysia, and networking between PLUS Highways with some of the theme parks (Habibah, 2007).

Other than encouraging vacation, creating the family image is also crucial in dealing with what families want when they are at the destinations. This is clearly demonstrated in some of the private initiatives. 'Jalan-jalan cari makan', 'destinasi pelancongan' and 'Breakaway Destination' are some of the initiatives that encouraged the local family to vacate locally - nationwide, while the Discovery Channel and Travel Channel approached families toward their participation in international travels (Shazryn, 2007). By using media approaches, these domestic and international family images are directing vacationers to choose both local and international destinations.

The recent trend is the use of websites and tourism portals which are often operationalised in improving channels as well as dimensions of product image. Based on the promotional network analysis, efforts in creating and improving family vacation images in this country are still far behind in comparison to the initiatives taken by developed countries. Family images can be viewed from various perspectives especially 'who should be there', and 'what facilities' or 'which activities fit and are enjoyed the most' by family vacationers. To date, there is no single local website that provides comprehensive knowledge regarding family vacation activities in Malaysia. In contrast, international tourism website agencies such as 'Expedia.com', 'travel with kids', 'Family Travel Engine' and 'all travelling kids family vacations' provide comprehensive information and knowledge on family tourism. Added to this, various segments with respect to family life cycle, needs, motivations and experiences as well as tips for success are also well informed in these sites.

In fact, an initiative of a German private TV to record a holiday-themed family vacation, Nature Adventure in Sarawak clearly shows that the international agency is promoting family vacation more than the local agencies. It was only in conjunction with Visit Malaysia Year 2007 that one of the television reality show Cuti Cuti Famili recorded the fun and uniqueness of family vacation, thus paving the involvements of local family as a host in order to develop a family vacation image in promoting tourism in Malaysia. From the marketing wise of the private-led initiatives, families began to be dealt exclusively as a prospective tourist segment.

Of recent development, this country is hosting a Visit Malaysia Year 2014 (VMY 2014) with the theme "Celebrating 1Malaysia Truly Asia" to reflect the diversity in unity of all Malaysians. Being considered as a national mission, every family has multi-facet roles to play; as users/ users/tourists, frontline, organiser and host of the country. Simply, with more than 200 events/tourism products available in 2014, families remain key player and determinant in tourism development at the national level. They are expected to participate actively at any national, state and local events, hence, making the enjoyment of hosting mega events more fruitful in terms of generating income and creating businesses.

Initiatives of the tourism sub-sectors

This study also carried out an overview of the initiatives by tourism sub-sectors in providing what has been commoditised as family tourism. Taking into consideration that accommodation or the hotel sector, shopping and food, and gastronomic tourism are among the highest spending sectors in tourism receipts, this study explored how these sub-sectors generate innovative commoditisation of 'family faces', for both the domestic as well as the international markets.

Table 2. Diversifying family needs in the accommodation sector

Facilities or Services	Commoditisation of family segment
Rooms – Various types	• Various offer from time to time and season to season. • Extra charge according to season, peak and super peak season. • Family room, available for family with small kids at least 2 adults and 2 children.
Baby needs and Kids needs	• Children's bed available with extra charge
Baby sitters	• Charge with services provided, and services provided apart from the room.
Swimming pool for kids and family	• Free with parent guardian. • Only in house guests can use these facilities while visitors of the guest are not allowed.
Kids club and games for family	• Need entry fees or member fees during stay in. • Facilities and game room – indoor and outdoor provided, some are free of charge with only some facilities requiring a small fee – bicycle, kayak and woodball.
Restaurant, café, breakfast and menu.	• Complimentary in family room, breakfast provided for two adults and two kids. • Family areas and kids' menu in selective café and restaurant. Kids' hour. • Food for kids and kids' areas. Charges on perusal.
Leisure and Recreation	• Family leisure and Family recreation – Karaoke for family. • Play with pets, Rabbit Park, birding, flora and fauna, bicycle and horse riding provided where a small fee is charged. • Children's program – cartoons.
Guest Room/ Family areas	• Provided in family room, normally in resort and holiday villas.
Kids' games indoor and outdoor	• Not provided in room, only at games or kids' room. Kids' TV channels not provided to all.
Golf	• Provided to members only.
Decoration	• Does not provide decoration concept for children, only in international hotels that collaborate with international providers of kids' games in this initiative, such as Barbie.

Source: Habibah 200

The hotel sector is one of the examples where innovative initiatives in packaging to the family tourists are generated. Simply put, families are commodities in various forms of sales and packages and these can be seen in Table 2 and Figure 1. Ranging from the conventional room offerings – family room, family hours, family games both indoors and outdoors, the recent offerings are more innovative that transcend the family's needs for family food, family day and family gatherings. In fact, customer oriented services tackle the keen interests and needs of the family members especially the children and the elderly, generating substantial amounts of business during peak seasons (Ben, 2004). However, the local news still reported that family segments have only received little attention from the hoteliers as mentioned below:

Many hotels make the mistake of not offering more than the staple television or swimming pool for their guests' recreation. So, a hotel with more varied diversions – such as children's playground, telematches and volleyball games – will certainly draw repeat visitors. Managing a resort or hotel recreation programme requires loads of energy and creativity,... Immediate focus … is to make the Children's Programme the regional market leader. The resort also offers facilities such as water sports, tennis, basketball, archery, volleyball and scheduled games and lessons such as aerobics, water aerobics, cooking and carving classes, tai chi and yoga (The Star 2003, 12 January).

Various special occasions related to families such as celebrating a family member's birthday, anniversary, mother's day, father's day as well as family day are commodities as family products available in the accommodation sector. The accommodation or hotel sector does indeed create suitable menus in meeting the needs of the celebration of ethnic festivals such as *Makan Besar* which is normally practiced during the Chinese New Year and the Breaking of Fast during the Ramadan month (Yip, 2004). Therefore, whatever opportunities of social fabrications of the modern family lifestyles can be translated into family tourism be they the economy or the five star hotel offerings. Moreover, taking the special incentive of RM3, 000 spending for such activities, intensification of family day among corporate and business organisations have helped to double the demand of family tourists as the guest of the hotel sector.

Shopping is another proactive sector accommodating the family's needs in tourism. During the early years of tourism development in the country (in the 1970s), shopping malls are not considered as tourism products. However, as tourism began to flourish, and is defined as an amalgam of activities including shopping, it is therefore unsurprising that many shopping malls have explored into providing family enjoyment, fun and experiences. In the late 1990s especially, shopping is themed in the promotional campaigns for both domestic and international markets.

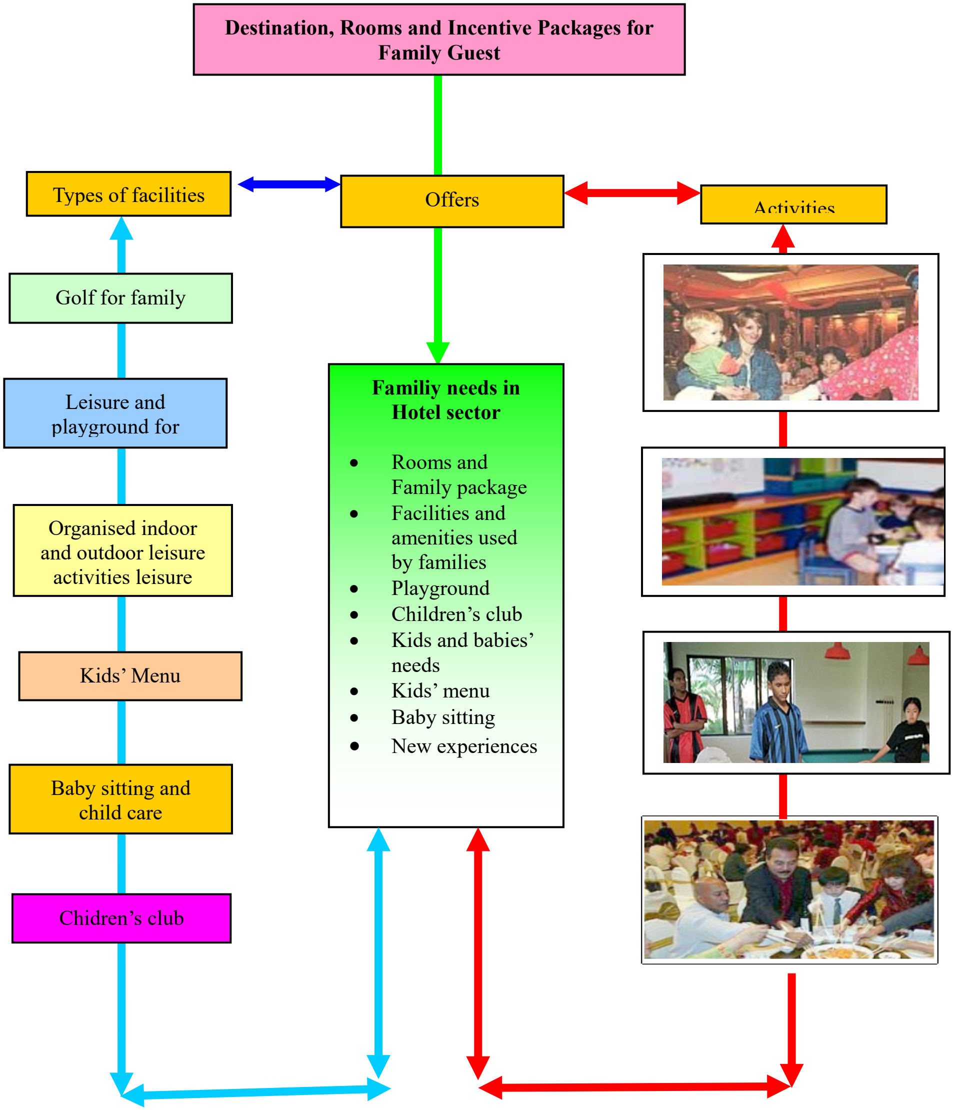

Figure 1. Commoditisation of Family Tourism

Source: Habibah, 2007

Due to the increase in the number of families favouring shopping as a major activity during vacation, many premises and outlets have intensified their indoor ambiances with family facilities, catering to family needs and characteristics, including baby's changing room and baby sitters facilities. Besides the seasonal offerings to all members of families, they also collaborate with other sectors, i.e. transportation, hotels as well as theme parks in packaging family tourism experiences.The current trend is the offering of free holiday packages from mega-shopping malls as a way of showing their appreciation to the family shoppers and caring business entity.

The theme parks, normally perceived as postmodern tourism development also adopted a customer-oriented approach in designing their landscape exclusively for family fun and recreation. Although this sector is considered a late comer in the Malaysian tourism landscape, almost every state currently offers theme parks for family fun and excitement as their unique selling point. The promotional campaigns often demonstrate the unforgettable moments of family members having fun at the water parks, indoor games as well as the enduring adventure experiences. In fact, theme parks promote the caring and social bonding that attract most urban families.

THE CONSUMING FAMILY

One significant factor that influences the rising number of family tourists is the changing lifestyles of the Malaysian families. As the country is heading toward becoming a high income nation, families with increasing household income tend to acquire higher purchasing power. In short, the rising number of families with purchasing power have helped to move these families toward purchasing of non-basic goods and services especially leisure and tour packages. The existence of dual family income in the country where mothers are now playing significant role in family spending has also impacted the family holiday's consumption. The mothers often do not determine the choices of vacation, but now their influence is often extended to what and where to spend and the length of stay. More importantly, while earlier motives for vacation seem to be linked to escaping from the home environment, the recent trend of consuming families is associated with 'home away from home'. This theme has eventually had more impact on the comfort, safety and leisure of the family.

In addition, women's involvement in the formal employment sector has boosted the leisure needs among dual-income families. Their involvements have not only contributed to the rising of the women, mother and family's purchasing power, but it has also increased the desire of having quality time with family members. Realizing the changes in lifestyle and the desire of the mothers to have a "break" from the household routine without sacrificing the needs of the family, the entrepreneurs are seen to provide a variety of vacation products according to the current needs of the family.

Furthermore, the changing style of purchasing power because of the extensive usage of credit cards has also influenced vacation purchases among those in the family segment. It is estimated that by 2013, household income will increase to RM47, 400.00 with the high and middle income group serving as the most important consumer groups particularly in transportation, communication, recreational and educational expenses. Recreational expenditure is forecasted to increase to 6.4 percent of household spending, compared with 5.8 percent a decade earlier. This certainly enhances the families' ability to go for a vacation, locally or abroad.

CONCLUSION

This study revealed that the family-friendly policies and its implementations in Malaysia were dealt with at the three institutional levels of tourism, namely the national, the state and private-led tourism providers and the consuming families. Although diverse approaches have been attempted in the commoditization of family tourism, as yet there is no guideline, framework and indicators on what signifies a family-friendly destination. In terms of implementation, the family-friendly concept has been interpreted and developed to increase the number of family tourists.

At the national level, family tourism was linked with the national policies, aiming at achieving social and caring society. At the tourism providers' level, initiatives were associated with being friendly and caring to the families to ensure the market's sustainability. Although commoditisation of family characters in tourism landscape emerged in many of the postmodern products, especially in term theme parks and accommodation sector. At the family level, however, family vacation is consumed because of the extensive promotional campaigns from both the national and private entities as well as the increasing awareness on the need to take more vacations to have better family quality time.

Therefore, at these three tiers of policies and implementation, interpretation of what signifies family-friendly destination depends on the mechanism, creativity and knowledge of the stakeholders be they the governance, tourism providers or the family unit itself. In conclusion, it is timely to establish a guideline of family-friendly destination with serious consideration of these three levels of family tourism system. This is to ensure family tourism sustainable, and more important, every family has her/his basic needs of the high income citizenry.

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SATISFACTION FORMATION AND TYPOLOGY OF BAR CUSTOMERS

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The main purposes of this study is to identify the service features that determine overall customer satisfaction in the entertainment industry and to suggest a satisfaction-based typology of bar customers depending on their loyalty status. The research questions were examined using a sample of 1,263 multinational bar customers in Greece. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis coupled with cluster analysis were used to examine the extent to which elements of satisfaction may be identified and combined with loyalty rankings to segment the bar market's customers. The results showed support for both hypotheses and confirmed that interactive and physical elements are antecedents of customer satisfaction. Moreover, results found that bar customers may be segmented into four distinct groups (enthusiastic, apathetic, peripheral and kinetic). The bar managers may better address their customers' requirements by choosing whether to invest in refurbishing the establishment or better train their personnel to maximise patron satisfaction and loyalty.

Keywords: *service features, satisfaction, loyalty, bars*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Entertainment has long been recognised as a consistent part of everyday life. It has been constantly growing, providing economic, cultural and social benefits on community cohesions (Jiwa et al., 2009; Tutenges, 2013). Nightlife is also considered a part of a typical country tourist package as many travelers may select or evaluate, among other criteria, a destination because of its availability of bars or clubs, their operating hours, the provided quality, etc. (Narayan et al., 2008).

However, the existing service marketing literature provided limited insight into consumer behavior and attitudes regarding various entertainment venues and the factors that influence customer satisfaction and loyalty. The main body of literature neglects the bar sector in general and the extant theory, in this area, is rather thin, especially in the field of customer loyalty and retention. One possible explanation may be that the switching costs in bars are very low and the impact of cost on customers' satisfaction elasticity is very low (Lee et al., 2001). However, it is reasonable to assume that a high level of satisfaction is strongly correlated with increased customer loyalty.

Motivated by this lack of findings, the current research focus on nightclubs and bars, stressing the need for a new instrument that will be closely positioned to meet bar customer needs and expectations and try to investigate service features, taking into consideration particularities that result from the nature of the bars. Moreover, it is focused on the measurement and ranking of the importance of these service features in the overall customer satisfaction. Finally, it suggests a satisfaction-based typology of bar customers based on loyalty rankings.

The following part of the paper presents the theoretical background. In the next section, the research methodology is reported. A discussion of the findings and the managerial implications comprised the following section. The paper completed with survey conclusions.

THE TRIAD: SERVICE FEATURES - CUSTOMER SATISFACTION - LOYALTY

Many models have been developed to measure service quality. The most widely acknowledged model is the American five-dimension SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al., 1988). However, SERVQUAL's applicability to different service industries has been questioned in terms of the number and the nature of its dimensions (Jabnoun and Khalifa, 2005). Thus, the development of industry-specific measures was proposed (Dabholkar et al., 1996) and numerous studies in different service sectors have sought to develop industry-specific service-quality scales (Ladhari, 2009). Accordingly, in the sector of hedonic services, researchers used a modified or adapted version of SERVQUAL or developed new instruments for the measurement of service quality.

Specifically, the results of a survey conducted within the hospitality industry of North Cyprus supported the notion that service quality consists of two dimensions — tangibles and intangibles (Nadiri and Hussain, 2005). Blešić et al. (2011) measured service quality in spa hotels and revealed quality problems, such as inappropriate arrangement of facilities and equipment, age of facilities in general, lack of understanding of contemporary demand trends, the unaccomplished process of hotel privatization, uniformity of tourism offers and lack of market research related to hotel services consumers. In addition, Akbaba (2006) created a questionnaire with 29 questions to measure service quality in Turkish business hotels. He identified four dimensions – tangibles, adequacy in service supply, understanding and caring, assurance and convenience. Soriano (2002), using a large sample of Spanish restaurants (N=3.872), evaluated their food quality, their service quality, their atmosphere quality and their price/quality ratio. Stevens et al. (1995) used SERVQUAL as a basis to create a service quality measure named DINESERV, which focused on measuring the level of employee service and restaurant atmosphere. Their instrument consists of 29 questions divided into five determinants (tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy), enriching the tangibility dimension with more items (ten instead of four). Khan (2003) examined service quality expectations in ecotourism, using an adapted version of SERVQUAL dubbed ECOSERV. She used six dimensions (tangibles, ecotangibles, reliability, assurance, responsiveness, and empathy) and noticed that ecotourists had generally lower expectations than those of other consumers in other contexts.

From the aforementioned brief literature review and taking into consideration the expanded review in this matter by Ladhari (2008; 2009), it can be supported that the number and nature of the dimensions in the context of hedonic services varied from two to ten, depending on the service context (hotel, restaurant, tourism, etc). Similarly, the measurement of service features in bars is too different to implement by merely adapting the existing instruments. For example, a fundamental difference of this service industry is that consumers will often use some affective criteria to evaluate service, in addition to the traditional service quality measures. Specifically, they mainly visit a bar for enjoyment purposes and evaluate it in terms of how much pleasure they have received. Hence, arousal will be more pronounced in the quality evaluation (Jiang and Wang, 2006). Thus, to gain a better understanding of the factors that lead to consumer choices, satisfaction, and loyalty behaviors, this study needs to go beyond the traditional SERVQUAL and develop a bar industry service-quality scale.

Another issue that employs researchers is the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction. Some researchers consider the concepts of service quality and customer satisfaction to be synonymous (Oliva et al., 1992) whereas others have found notable distinctions between them (Sureshchandar et al., 2002). Different opinions have also been expressed about the antecedents of service quality and customer satisfaction (Cronin and Taylor, 1994, Ting, 2004). Recent approaches argue for the benefit of merging the two heavily debated service elements into one (Gronroos, 2001) stating that service quality dimensions should be measured alongside customer satisfaction. Quality, as such, should not be measured, because research indicates that the technical and functional features directly influence perceived customer satisfaction. The two-factor model of service quality (physical and interactive features) as well as the direct relationship of these two features with customer satisfaction was recently confirmed (Pantouvakis and Bouranta, 2013).

Customer loyalty was viewed as the strength of the relationship between an individual's relative attitude toward an entity and subsequent repeat patronage (Dick and Basu, 1994). More recently, loyalty has been conceived as the revealed customers' behavior, which is mainly defined with reference to the pattern of past purchases. Customer buying is performed through trial and error by choosing the brand that provides a satisfactory experience without devoting time, trouble and effort to search for an alternative, except when the usual brand is unavailable (Ehrenberg et al., 2004). At times, loyalty is described not as a behavior but as a strong attitudinal commitment to a brand (Mellens et al., 1996), taking the form of a consistently favourable set of stated beliefs — e.g., to like, feel committed to, recommend, and have positive feelings toward the brand purchased (Dick and Basu, 1994). It is assumed that it is more profitable to retain existing customers than to attract new customers, and it is commonly assumed that customer satisfaction serves as a particularly important antecedent of customer retention and thus long-term customer relationships through loyalty (Chatzigeorgiou et al., 2009). Loureiro and Gonzalez (2008) also indicated that satisfaction is related to loyalty through trust.

METHODOLOGY

Hypotheses formation

It has been supported that environment quality and interaction dimensions tend to be important in hedonic service consumption (Nguyen et al., 2012). In addition, as it has been mentioned, recent studies also supported the superiority of the two-dimensional instruments (Pantouvakis and Bouranta, 2013, Pantouvakis, 2010). Hence, this survey focused on these two service features.

According to Joseph-Mathews et al. (2009), one fringe benefit that many service providers have focused on is the physical environment which has become an opportunity to aid in the affective gratification consumers actively seek out in a hedonic service. In the bar sector, Grayson and McNeill (2009: 519) highlighted the importance of environment, supported that "bars tend to sell a similar range of products, they differentiate themselves from competitors by manipulating elements of their environment to create a unique atmosphere". In addition, Skinner et al. (2005) found that the bar exterior is the most important factor for customers in deciding whether to enter such a bar for the first time. Grayson and McNeill (2009) initiated that atmosphere cues such as music, lighting, layout (crowding, waiting queue, knowledge) have the ability to creative positive emotions and behaviors of customers. Caldwell and Hibbert (2002) examined the effect of music as one atmospheric element that affected restaurant patron behavior and Pons et al. (2006) focused on crowding as a positive aspect of social environments that can enhance consumer enjoyment. The quality and variety of drinks, which is the tangible good exchanged, is also a deciding factor for many guests when they pick a bar to visit (Lashley and Rowson, 2000).

Such hedonic services offer also an intangible experience that related "to the nature of interaction between the service firm and its customers and the process by which the core service is delivered" (Bell et al., 2005: 172). Interactive features refer to the interface communication between the customer and the first-line employee of a firm, which take time during the moment of thruth (Bouranta et al., 2009). Consumer behavior in bars is thus shaped in part by the exchange between the customer and the environment in which the provision of the service takes place.

Following the previously presented contentions, it is logical to assume that:

H1: Physical and Interactive features *best describe overall customer satisfaction in the bar industry*

According to Blešić et al. (2011), identification of consumer segments plays an important role in proper positioning within the market since the different segments, which share dissimilar characteristics of consumers, require different treatment. It is proposed that new and loyal customers should be treated as distinct segments (Mittal and Katrichis, 2000). The link between satisfaction and loyalty has been used extensively to segment different markets or characterise customer types.

Specifically, Ehrenberg and Scriven (1999) found three segments that best describe the loyalty status of customers to a brand: the monogamous (100% loyal), the promiscuous (no loyalty to any brand) and the polygamous (loyal to a portfolio of brands in a product category), with the latter being the majority. Jones and Sasser (1995) presented a very intuitive classification of an individual's link between satisfaction and loyalty. They were classified into four different groups: loyalist/apostle (high satisfaction-high loyalty), defector/terrorist (low satisfaction-low loyalty), mercenary (high satisfaction-low loyalty), and hostage (low satisfaction-high loyalty). Similarly, Rowley (2005) identified four segments of loyal customer (captive, convenience-seekers, contented and committed), explaining the customer typical behaviors and attitudes associated with each category. Santos et al. (2013) presented a market segmentation of a Portuguese social tourism program, based, among other characteristics, seniors' loyalty. They found three groups: the passive seniors, the socio-cultural seniors, and the active seniors. Another study, in the hotel industry, suggested a taxonomic framework that categorizes loyalty program members into four classes. Class members differ with respect to the attitudes they hold, the behaviors they exhibit, and the motivations they have for maintaining membership in the program (Hansen et al., 2010).

Using the two service features from H1, the second hypothesis was formed:

H2: The bar customers may be segmented into a number of groups according to their level of overall satisfaction and loyalty

The questionnaire and the sample

The questionnaire consisted of 20 items split into three survey instruments that measure service features, overall satisfaction and loyalty. The physical features are represented in the current research instrument through eleven items, focusing on bar decoration, ambience and comfort. It is analogous to Bitner's (1992) spatial layout, signs and artefacts, music (Kubacki, 2008; Minor et al., 2004), cleanliness (Barber and Scarcelli, 2010), and quality and variety of drinks (Knowles and Howley, 2000). Measurements of the personnel's attitudes and skills (helpfulness, friendliness, politeness and efficiency) are also considered essential for the provision of bar (Guerrier and Abib, 2001; Nickson et al., 2005) and they have been included in the present survey's research instrument through four relevant items.

Two items investigating a) the overall perceived satisfaction from the venue, and b) the overall satisfaction received from the total offering were included in the survey's instrument as a control for overall satisfaction-related variables.

A further item investigating the price - satisfaction relationship was used as a simplified indicator of the value that the customer receives as a function of the perceived price. In the bar sector, researchers have proposed that bars may find areas of competitive advantage like reputation, customer satisfaction and atmosphere other than in price promotions, since customers are not price-sensitive (Hobbs and Rowley, 2008).

Following the previously explained contentions regarding stated or revealed approaches to loyalty, this study subscribes to an attitude-driven behavior. Two main items of customer loyalty were investigated: customer recommendation and customer repurchase intention (Boulding et al., 1993).

All instrument items, except for demographical characteristics, were answered on a seven-point psychometric Likert scale (anchored on 1 – “strongly disagree” through 7 – “strongly agree”). Three distinct versions of the same questionnaire in Greek, English and German were produced to enable a range of nationals to answer it in face-to-face 15-minute interviews. This structure questionnaire was introduced over a one-month period (July) in three tourist cities of northern Crete (Heraclion, Rethymnon and Chania), which is known for its active nightlife.

Respondents were patrons in 100 bars in these cities and were approached by especially trained interviewers during selected times of a day throughout this month-long period. Respondents belong to more than 30 nationalities, with the majority (54%) being Greek. As far as the demographic characteristics of the sample were concerned, respondents were split reasonably evenly between males (53.9 percent) and females (46.1 percent). Customers ranged in age between 25 or less (56.2%) to 45 (4.6%).

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The service feature items exhibit satisfactory reliability and rather strong item-to-total correlations (Table 1). Their score are at 5.07 (SD=0.86). The highest score appears in relation to cleanliness, ambience and quality of drink/food and the lowest one in relation to price of drink/food, appearance of the personnel and their knowledge about drink/food. Moreover, the three overall satisfaction items also show satisfactory reliability, very high item-to-total correlations and mean overall satisfaction score at 4.97 (SD=1.14), not statistically different from that measured through the 15 service feature items described above

($p<0.01$). The two loyalty items also exhibit satisfactory reliability and strong item-to-total correlations.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of measurement instruments (N=1,263)

No.	**Service features Inventory** (independent items)	**Mean / SD** (1)	**Item/total correlation**
Q1	The friendly behavior of the personnel	5.03 / 1.33	0.636
Q2	The way my order is delivered	4.81 / 1.25	0.608
Q3	The helpfulness of the personnel	5.15 / 1.29	0.680
Q4	The politeness of the personnel	5.21 / 1.30	0.656
Q5	The ambience in the bar	5.38 / 1.24	0.631
Q6	The quality of drink and/or food offered	5.36 / 1.34	0.648
Q7	The variety of drink and/or food offered	5.07 / 1.31	0.568
Q8	The price of drink and/or food offered	4.69 / 1.46	0.487
Q9	The personnel's knowledge about the drink and/or food offered	4.80 / 1.33	0.533
Q10	The way the personnel looks / is dressed	4.74 / 1.47	0.476
Q11	The speed of service	4.95 / 1.38	0.613
Q12	The decoration / style of the bar	5.12 / 1.38	0.542
Q13	The comfort / relaxation I feel in the bar	5.16 / 1.23	0.513
Q14	The music played in the bar	5.14 / 1.52	0.437
Q15	The cleanness of the bathrooms / toilets	5.43 / 1.45	0.550
	Mean and SD, 15 independent items	**5.07 / 0.86**	
	Cronbach a	**0.895**	

	Overall Customer Satisfaction (dependent items)	**Mean / SD** (2)	**Item/total correlation**
q1	The overall opinion I have about this bar is…	5.06 / 1.29	0.700
q2	The overall opinion I have about the quality of service in this bar is…	5.06 / 1.28	0.728
q3	The overall opinion I have about the relation of quality and price in this bar is…	4.79 / 1.39	0.627
	Mean and SD, 3 dependent items	**4.97 / 1.14**	
	Cronbach a	**0.826**	

	Loyalty	**Mean / SD** (3)	**Item/total correlation**
L1	I would recommend this bar	5.23 / 1.47	0.290
L2	I would come again to this bar	5.33 / 1.46	0.333
	Mean and SD, 2 loyalty items	**5.28 / 1.47**	
	Cronbach a	**0.798**	

1: *"How satisfied are you with…?", 7-point Likert scale, 1: "not at all satisfied" to 7: "absolutely satisfied"*
2: *"Based on my experience…", 7-point Semantic scale, 1: "very bad" to 7: "very good"*
3: *"Express your degree of agreement with the following statements", 7-point Likert scale, 1: "strongly disagree" to 7: "strongly agree"*

A combination of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted while the instrument was under development. Two factors based on eleven out of fifteen initial items emerged from EFA with the Principal Components estimation method, Varimax rotation and 60.95% cumulative variance explained. Based on the item loadings, the two factors are labelled: a) Factor 1: interactive, incorporating items related to the interaction between customers and personnel (items Q3, Q1, Q4 and Q2, Cronbach α: 0.866); and b) Factor 2: physical, incorporating items related to the technical or functional part of the service quality (items Q12, Q14, Q13, Q15, Q7, Q6 and Q5, Cronbach α: 0.812). Finally, EFA justified the existence of a uni-dimensional overall satisfaction factor (Cronbach α: 0.826).

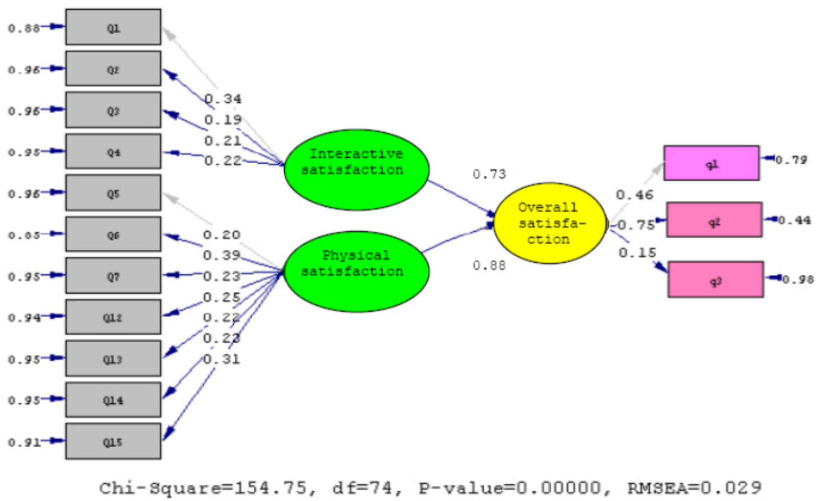

Figure 1. Structural Equation Model of Customer Satisfaction (Standardised Solution), N=1,263

CFA was then performed for the factor pattern suggested by EFA (Figure 1), assuming that the eleven items repeat EFA's factorial structure. The observed variables were slightly non-normal with kurtosis under 1, which has been reduced by normalizing the distribution of the variables before CFA. The estimation method of CFA model parameters was Maximum Likelihood, which usually produces quite robust findings also against the violation of the normality assumption. The hypothesised model was clearly accepted (chi-Square [74]: 154.75, $p<0.001$, CFI: 0.96, NNFI: 0.95, RMSEA: 0.029).

A satisfaction-based segmentation task was implemented as a final stage of the analysis. The variables used as grouping criteria were the two factors that emerged through CFA. After initial implementation of Hierarchical Cluster Analysis, the k-means procedure was employed based on hierarchical clusters' centroids with the option of identifying three to seven clusters. The four-cluster solution was finally selected (Pearson correlation between hierarchical and k-means procedures 0.789, $p<0.01$) and justified through Discriminant analysis (Wilk's Lamda 0.752, chi-square [2] = 358.6, $p<0.01$, 88.3% of original grouped cases correctly classified, see Figure 2). Statistically significant differences among the four clusters (Table 2) were established using chi-square and one-way Dancan and Scheffe post-hoc ANOVA tests.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In relation to its objectives, the present work first identified and confirmed that two service features determine overall customer satisfaction in the bar industry, in line with a substantial part of the literature: the physical features, related to the service offering in the bar per se and the environment in which the service is provided; and the interactive features, related to the interaction between customer and personnel. Thus, hypothesis H1 is justified. Quality of drink/food offered and cleanness appeared to have stronger impact than other items on the physical features (Figure 1). Moreover, personnel efficiency (the way an order is being delivered) emerged as the strongest component of the interactive features.

The sample's mean score in the interactive is lower than that in the physical features (4.66 and 4.98 respectively; see Table 2). Regarding the importance ranking of the two service features, both have a very strong and almost equal influence upon the overall satisfaction factor. Moreover, sample's overall satisfaction score measured through the relevant dependent construct is found at 4.78. The above satisfaction scores at the middle, neither dissatisfied nor satisfied, increment of the 1-7 scale indicate that the sample possibly constitutes more than one type of bar customer in relation to their satisfaction levels and justify the subsequent implementation of cluster analysis.

Table 2. Customer Clusters' Satisfaction Mean Scores and Profile, N=1,263, %

Variable description	Mean score / factor	Sig.	Cluster 1 (22.09%): *very satisfied*	Cluster 2 (15.99%): *indifferent*	Cluster 3 (52.65%): *average satisfied*	Cluster 4 (9.26%): *dissatisfied*
Clustering factors						
Factor 1: INTERACTIVE	4.66	*	**6.30** (1)	4.40	5.11	*2.85*
Factor 2: PHYSICAL	4.98	*	**6.20**	*3.98*	5.36	4.38
Dependent factor						
Factor 3: OVERALL SATISFACT.	4.78	*	**5.84**	4.02	5.09	*3.77*
Loyalty items						
I would recommend this restaurant / bar	4.89	*	**6.19** (2)	4.16	5.39	*3.82*
I would come again in this restaurant / bar	5.07	*	**6.15**	4.48	5.43	*4.24*
Age	Sample					
24 or <	53.4		51.6	**61.4**	53.1	47.0
25-34	26.8		25.1	24.3	26.4	**37.6**
35-44	10.8	**	**11.8**	8.4	11.2	10.3
45-54	7.7		**10.4**	5.0	8.1	2.6
55 or >	1.3		1.1	1.0	1.2	**2.6**

**: Duncan and Scheffe Post-hoc ANOVA paired tests, p<0.01*
***: Chi square tests, p<0.05*
1: End-points: 1= "not at all satisfied", 2= "dissatisfied", 3= "rather dissatisfied", 4= "neither…nor…", 5= "rather satisfied", 6= "satisfied", 7= "absolutely satisfied"
***2:** End-points: 1= "strongly disagree", 2= "disagree", 3= "rather disagree", 4= "neither…nor…", 5= "rather agree", 6= "agree", 7= "strongly agree"*

Indeed, and in relation to the second objective of the survey, cluster analysis identified the existence of four distinct customer types, justifying hypothesis H2. Cluster 4 exhibits the lowest interactive score, the second-lower physical score and the lowest overall satisfaction score. Its members also show the lowest loyalty scores. In terms of age, cluster 4 includes a percentage substantially higher than the sample's average percentage of customers in the 25-34-year age group. Based on the above-described profile, cluster 4 members are dissatisfied and disloyal patrons that are ready to move and can therefore be named as the "kinetic" bar customers. Cluster 2 exhibits the second-lowest interactive score (at the "neither dissatisfied nor satisfied" increment, the lowest physical score (at the "rather not satisfied" increment) and the second-lowest overall satisfaction score (at the "neither dissatisfied nor satisfied" increment). It shows the second-lowest loyalty scores and includes a percentage higher than the sample's average percentage of customers in the 24 years or lower age group. Thus, cluster 2 members can thus be named the "apathetic" bar customers.

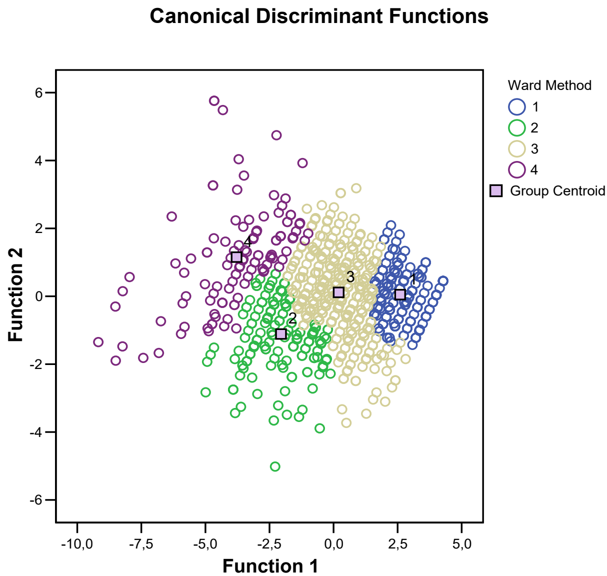

Figure 2. Discriminant Analysis Results, All-groups Scattered Plot, N=1,263 (*)

**: Function 1 = interactive satisfaction and function 2 = physical satisfaction.*
Scales of function 1 and 2 are equivalent to 1-7 scales of the two satisfaction factors
***Key:** Group 1=very satisfied, group 2=indifferent, group 3=average satisfied, group 4=dissatisfied*

Cluster 3 exhibits the second-highest interactive score, the second-highest physical score and the second-highest overall satisfaction score. The latter is not statistically different from the average satisfaction measured through the initial 3 overall satisfaction items ($p<0.01$). It also shows the second-highest loyalty scores. In terms of age, it closely follows the distribution of the overall sample. Cluster 3 members can be named the "peripheral" bar customers. Finally, cluster 1 exhibits a higher interactive score, the highest physical score and the highest overall satisfaction score. It also shows the highest loyalty scores and includes a percentage higher than the sample's average percentage of customers in the 35-44 and 45-54 years of age groups. Hence, cluster 1 members can be named the "enthusiastic" bar customers. The implications for the bar industry of the above-described satisfaction typology of customers are substantial. First, it is crucial to consider that the lower satisfaction scores at the overall sample level as well as for more than 60% of the sample (clusters 3 and 4) are found in relation to the interactive features. Thus, customer-personnel interaction and elements like personnel politeness, friendliness and helpfulness are not only satisfaction parameters as important as the overall service offering (e.g. quality and variety of drinks) and the service provision environment (e.g. ambience, music, style, comfort), but also the main reason behind the dissatisfaction or the rather modest satisfaction expressed by the majority of the sample.

An additional finding with substantial implications is the direct relation that exists between all types of overall satisfaction and customer loyalty. Indeed, as customer satisfaction increases from the dissatisfied to the very satisfied clusters, so does their loyalty, whereas Pearson correlation between the overall satisfaction factor and the two loyalty items is very high (0.866 and 0.880 respectively, $p<0.01$). This fact leads to the conclusion that, despite the very low switching costs in bars and the impact of cost on customers' satisfaction elasticity, overall customer satisfaction always functions as a prerequisite for customer retention.

CONCLUSION

The present survey, using an international sample of 1,263 multinational customers of 100 bars in northern Crete in Greece, identified two service features, determined overall satisfaction and provided their relevant satisfaction scores. Customers used physical environment and employee services as key components of their experience. Previous studies in hedonic services have led to the same conclusion, the two dimension perspective. Specifically, the use of a two-factor structure (tangibles and intangibles) is recommended by Reimer and Kuehn (2005), who tested their model in two service industries (retail banking and restaurants). A survey by Nadiri and Hussain (2005) assessed the hospitality industry in North Cyprus and supported the notion that service quality consists of two dimensions (tangibles and intangibles). Previous studies in the tourism field have led to the same conclusion — that the service quality has two dimensions (Ekinci et al., 2003; Karatepe and Avci, 2002).

It has been argued that in order for companies to succeed, service encounters should be customized. Thus, this paper discriminated among four types of customers based on their satisfaction scores (enthusiastic, apathetic, peripheral and kinetic). The importance of the interactive features in shaping moderate or low satisfaction and the strong correlation between satisfaction and loyalty are among the most important implications of the present work for the bar industry.

Finally, a very interesting extension of the present survey will be the inclusion of loyalty as a distinct component of the satisfaction model and the analysis of its role as a direct outcome of the quality-satisfaction dyad, together with the price considerations of the average customer in bars. Thus the bar managers may better address their customers' requirements by choosing whether to invest in refurbishing the establishment or better train their personnel to maximise patron satisfaction and loyalty (Pratten, 2004).

As with any research, this study has certain limitations that should be taken into consideration when interpreting the results. First and foremost, the study was restricted to one sector only, so that a verification of the findings in other hedonic services is desirable. In addition, all of the constructs were measured at one point in time, essentially from a static perspective. It may be worthwhile to study the proposed hypothesis over time in order to take into account the dynamics of personal values and consumer perceptions.

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EVALUATING TOURIST SATISFACTION IN ACCORDANCE TO TOUR GUIDES PERFORMANCE: HERITAGE GUIDED TOURS IN EGYPT

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Tourism is one of the top priorities for many countries, because of its contribution to economy in terms of foreign exchange earnings, creation of employment opportunities and promoting international understanding. Furthermore, Cultural heritage tourism has become an increasingly important factor for tourist destinations, and cultural tourist as the one who is interested in experiencing the culture of the destination spends money, time and other resources on a trip or visit to receive an experience that provides psychological benefits. Happy and satisfied customers are more likely to return and more likely to say positive things about the service they have experienced. If tour guiding service is a core component of heritage tour, then the tour guides (TGs) as being a frontline employee in the tourism industry play an important role in shaping tourist experience in a destination. This study evaluates the relationship between tour guide (TG) performance and tourist's satisfaction in terms of psychological, spiritual and practical content during heritage guided tours in Egypt. A questionnaire was distributed among 200 tourists of different nationalities. Results derived from the respondents showed that (TG) performance affects tourist experience. For a satisfied tourist transmits his/her positive experience (word of mouth) to third persons as well as repeating his/her visit. Finally the study ends up by a set of recommendations for TGs to consistently emphasize a creative approach in order to maintain high standards of TG performance.

Keywords*: Heritage, Guided tours, Tourist Satisfaction, Tourist experience, Word of mouth, Repeating visit.*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is one of the fastest growing industries in the world as being one of the top priorities for many countries, for its contribution to economy in terms of foreign exchange earnings, creation of employment opportunities and promoting international understanding (Rajeev & Shyju, 2008). Due to World Travel and Tourism council (WTTC) report in 2012, Travel and Tourism contributed to GDP in USD 194.9bn (7.7% of GDP), and supported 4,411,000 jobs equivalent to 6.8% of total employment (www.wttc.org). For this purpose Tourism was designed to meet a very different set of leisure needs (Falk, 2009).

Visiting cultural heritage sites has become a powerful tourist attractions (Laws, 1998), for heritage is not only about what occurred during the past, It is about the present generation who continues to cherish and to learn about vibrant and glorious history, culture and past civilization and cultural traditions that people proudly preserve (Chai, 2011). Therefore cultural heritage tourism carries both tangible and intangible values; tangible as sites, structure, as well as natural features and land scape that have cultural significance, while intangible refers to social practices and rituals that define the identity of a society (Dimitriyadis et al, 2012). In the broadest sense cultural assets can attract tourism to specific destination, and tourism can bring new and fresh resources to the cultural section and the entire region (Alberti et al, 2012), also become major force in economic and urban revitalization (Alzua et al, 1998).

Furthermore, Cultural heritage tourism has gained an increasing importance at different levels of the economy and that regions may build their competitiveness leveraging their cultural heritage (Alberti et al, 2012).

Christou (2005) signified that cultural heritage tourist as one who experience historic sites, monuments, and buildings; visits museums and galleries; attends concerts and the performing arts, and interested in experiencing the culture of the destination spends money, time and other resources on a trip or a visit, to receive an experience that provides mainly psychological benefits, so the experience the tourists derive from interacting with the service is an important factor. And heritage interpretation according to Coccossis (2005) is an important part of any visitor management plan. In order to be highly effective, a variety of measures for site interpretation should be chosen with the intention of making the visit as enjoyable and informative as possible in contrast to the needs of different categories of visitors. In the sense tour guiding service is a core component of any package tour as tour guide (TG) is a frontline employee in the tourism industry who plays an important role in shaping tourist experience in a destination. (Huang et al., 2010).

According to the World Federation of Tourist Guides Association (WFTGA) a tour guide is the person who guides visitors in the language of their choice and interprets the cultural and natural heritage of an area, and who normally possesses an area-specific qualification usually issued and/or recognized by the appropriate authority (WFTGA, 2003). While Heung (2008) defined TG as one who bears different roles throughout the journey, including information giver, instructor, motivator, ambassador, entertainer and leader. Instrumentally, TG monitors the itinerary. On the other hand, a TG serves the role of motivator and entertainer with the responsibility to stimulate tourists' positive feelings and create a warm atmosphere during the tour, as tourists require a large amount of information to understand tourism spots (Fang Jin-yun, 2008).

While Gale & Beeftink (2005) referred to the importance of TGs' knowledge, skill, and ability on participants' satisfaction as they create special moments for their groups and make ordinary moments of itinerary extraordinary, also as being in a continuous and intense contact with the tour participants. Therefore they are responsible for achieving customer satisfaction throughout the tour's entire duration.

Based on the previous information, this study was undertaken to evaluate TGs performance on heritage guided tours in Egypt and its reflection on creating visitor satisfaction, positive word of mouth and repeat visitation. In essence, this means presenting descriptive statistics based on the opinion of the respondents to determine: TG performance in terms of interpretation skills, personal attributes, interpersonal skills, and emergency handling ability in accordance to government regulations and safety policy, and to evaluate its effect on tourist experience.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Satisfaction relates to visitor's experience, so tourist satisfaction is defined as the quality of visitors' experience and the psychological outcome derived from interaction with different service facets in a destination (Huang et al., 2010). Ellis & Vogelsong (2002) stated that past travel experiences significantly influence future destination selection, and tourist satisfaction is significantly related to customer loyalty, repeat visitation, and positive social communication. Therefore tourists experience has an impact on tourism demand that influence tourist destination (Rajeev & Shyju, 2008).

Being able to offer an attractive tourist destination indicates having a deep understanding of the motives that leads a tourist to choose one particular destination among all alternatives. Furthermore, the activities performed during the stay at the holiday destination and the experiences during these activities are clear source of satisfaction for the tourist

(Armario, 2008). This means that customer satisfaction influences the choice of a destination, the consumption of products and services and the decision to return, for this reason customer satisfaction is increasingly becoming a corporate goal, and more and more companies strive for quality in their product or service (Esu & Arrey, 2009).

Interpretation service creates visitor satisfaction, positive word of mouth reports and repeat visitation, as interpretation translates an expert's technical account into a message in the language of the visitor, relating the context to his/ her everyday life and experiences and involving visitors in the explorative learning and entertainment process (Papathanasiou-Zuhrt et al, 2005).

Armario (2008) asserted that the level of tourist satisfaction is crucial for business success in tourism management, and so Kozak (2001) has mentioned that customer satisfaction been dominated by measurement of guest satisfaction with tourism services, taking into consideration the expectations generated before and during the trip, as well as the tourist's perception of the service received (Armario, 2008).

Consequently customer satisfaction as a feeling or an attitude of a customer towards a service after it has been used (Esu & Arrey, 2009), often subjects upon levels of individual effort and expectation (Ellis & Vogelsong, 2002). As happy and satisfied customers are more likely to return and more likely to say positive things about the service they have experienced (Christou, 2005).

Understanding what drives satisfaction for a tourist has become one of the most relevant areas of research for the tourism industry, for satisfied tourist tend to transmit their positive experience to others and to repeat their visit (Armario, 2008). Hence visitor satisfaction is the goal that both private and public heritage tourism organizations strive to achieve (Christou, 2005). Then again TGs as Heung (2008) mentioned are important to the tourist's perception of the whole tour, for TGs primary responsibilities are to lead the tour, solve problems and assure customer satisfaction during the journey.

Additionally TGs can enrich the visitor's experience thus their knowledge and skills are very important. So they need to be carefully selected, trained, motivated, monitored and regularly evaluated (Coccossis, 2005).

As previously mentioned satisfaction is always associated with service quality, so TGs quality service to tourists is essential to the success of the tour also critical to the overall image of the destination they represent. End result TGs are highly responsible for achieving tourist satisfaction (Huang et al., 2010) as being a critical service feature in package tours (Heung, 2008).

STUDY HYPOTHESES

The study aims at testing the following hypotheses:
H1: TGs performances affect tourist experience.
H2: TGs performances influence the success of the heritage guided tours in Egypt.
H3: TGs performances influence visitor overall satisfaction.
H4: TGs performances affect word of mouth and repeat visitation.

STUDY METHODOLOGY

The study is an analytical study divided into two main sections. The reviews of literature discuss the role of TG on heritage guided tours, and its importance to formulate tourist experience. In addition how TGs performance influence visitor satisfaction, which direct word of mouth and repeat visitation. The literature study was based on journal articles, books, and similar studies, the internet played a role in this study. The data was collected from a questionnaire distributed among a random sample of tourists. The questionnaire was divided into three parts; the first part was concerned with measuring the performance of the TGs in forty three statements. The second part concluded ten statements focusing on the effect of TG on tour experience. While the third part revealed tourists personal information, and consisting of eleven statements to know the demographic features of a sample of tourists visiting Egypt on heritage guided tours. The respondents were required to answer according the Likert scale that ranges from (1) to (5), as (1) matches strongly disagree/ very unsatisfactory answer, while (5) matches strongly agree/ very satisfactory answer. The questionnaire was mainly based on the study developed on previous studies, the review of literature therein and the researcher view. Face validity and reliability of the questionnaire was applied through two experts; one in the field of tour guiding and one academic. The questionnaire was reviewed according to the remarks given.

Respondents were requested to fill the questionnaire in aspect to their tour experience in accordance to TG performance. Two hundred self-administered questionnaires were distributed by the researcher on tourists during their guided tours in Egypt. It took about twelve months to complete distribution around the years 2010 and 2012, due to continued tensions in Egypt during the year 2011, but international tourist arrivals in the Middle East were estimated at 52 million in 2012 with a rebound (+18%) to Egypt (www.unwto.org). The distribution produced 150 questionnaires representing a response rate of 75%.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The profile of the respondents highlighted specific characteristics related to gender, marital status, age, educational background and nationality. The results revealed that male tourists are almost equal to female ones equivalent to 53.3% and 46.7% respectively. A percentage of 31.3% were single in contrast to 66.7% married. Most of the studied sample were young travellers as 39.3% their ages range between 18 to 28 and 20.7% their ages range between 29 to 39, while 40% of the respondents were distributed by 12% for the ones between 40 – 49, 2.7% for 50 – 60 and 1.3% for above 60.

The studied sample showed that 85.3% with a frequent number of 128 respondents visited Egypt for leisure reasons, this increasing popularity of Egypt as a tourism destination was obvious among the European tourists, with Russian tourists accounting for the largest share of arrivals at 24% followed by the British travellers with 16.7%. Also the rates of the other nationalities were for European tourists as Italians, Germans, Danish, French, Greeks, Belgium, Bulgarians, Croatians and Icelandic tourists participated by 14%, 13.3%, 8.7%, 6%, 4.7%, 4%, 4%, 3.3% and 1.3% correspondingly. Future expectations indicates that international tourist arrivals to increase at a healthy rate of over 12% with Europe as the primary source of tourism for Egypt (www.researchandmarkets.com).

Table (1) showed the results regarding the evaluation of the importance of the aspects of TGs performance during guided tours. According to the results collected from the respondents; the statements S1- S9 and S40 - S43 with a positive mean that ranges between (4.3 – 4.5) and (4.4 – 4.5) illuminated that TGs demonstrated an excellent level of interpretation skills in terms of giving full knowledge of the destination in reference to heritage site locations, historical and geographical background, paying attention to details, humanities and customs related to these heritage sites, in addition to tailoring content to fit different audiences in timely manner.

Table 1. Aspects of tour guide (TG) performance

Aspects of Tour Guide performances	Strongly disagree 1		Disagree 2		Not sure 3		Agree 4		Strongly agree 5		Mean
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
1. She/he gave full knowledge of the destination.	1	0.7	4	2.7	4	2.7	64	42.7	77	51.3	4.4
2. She/he clearly explained the locations and layouts of heritage sites.	1	0.7	3	2.0	-	-	65	43.3	81	54.0	4.5
3. The information offered is sufficiently detailed to enjoy the attraction.	1	0.7	2	1.3	4	2.7	67	44.7	76	50.7	4.4
4. She/he paid attention to detail.	2	1.3	4	2.7	5	3.3	74	49.3	65	43.3	4.3
5. She/he understood history, geography and the humanity of historical interest.	1	0.7	1	0.7	1	0.7	74	49.3	73	48.7	4.4
6. She/he demonstrated interest and enthusiasm.	1	0.7	5	3.3	1	0.7	82	54.7	61	40.7	4.3
7. She/he was punctual.	1	0.7	4	2.7	-	-	75	50.0	70	46.7	4.4
8. She/he showed good time management skills.	2	1.3	4	2.7	-	-	78	52.0	66	44.0	4.3
9. She/he modified the content to fit different audiences.	1	0.7	4	2.7	2	1.3	74	49.3	69	46.0	4.4
10. She/he treated people with respect.	-	-	2	1.3	-	-	42	28.0	106	70.7	4.7
11. She/he generated friendly atmosphere.	1	0.7	3	2.0	2	1.3	53	35.3	91	60.7	4.5
12. She/he appeared neat and tidy.	-	-	3	2.0	-	-	55	36.7	92	61.3	4.6
13. She/he enjoyed serving people.	2	1.3	4	2.7	6	4.0	60	40.0	78	52.0	4.4
14. She/he was a good team player.	1	0.7	2	1.3	2	1.3	57	38.0	88	58.7	4.5
15. She/he demonstrated good moral, conduct, and honesty.	-	-	2	1.3	-	-	54	36.0	94	62.7	4.6
16. She/he exhibited self-disciplined.	1	0.7	4	2.7	-	-	94	62.7	51	34.0	4.3
17. She/he actively conserved the environment.	-	-	3	2.0	3	2.0	83	55.3	61	40.7	4.3
18. She/he interacted well with the visitors.	1	0.7	3	2.0	1	0.7	84	56.0	61	40.7	4.3
19. She/he helped visitors with realistic visiting experience.	1	0.7	4	2.7	1	0.7	85	56.7	59	39.3	4.3
20. She/he accommodated visitors' special needs.	2	1.3	4	2.7	-	-	91	60.7	53	35.3	4.3

21. She/he continuously asked for feedback on the tour.	1	0.7	3	2.0	3	2.0	85	56.7	58	38.7	4.3
22. She/he showed interest in our customs, life style, etc.	2	1.3	2	1.3	2	1.3	92	61.3	52	34.7	4.3
23. She/he changed in presentation styles.	1	0.7	5	3.3	-	-	90	60.0	54	36.0	4.3
24. She/he handled obstacles in quick and skillful fashion.	1	0.7	2	1.3	3	2.0	89	59.3	55	36.7	4.3
25. She/he generated an atmosphere full of vividness.	1	0.7	5	3.3	-	-	85	56.7	59	39.3	4.3
26. She/he welcomed mentoring trainee guides.	-	-	2	1.3	6	4.0	86	57.3	56	37.3	4.3
27. She/he showed appropriate use of oral and body language.	-	-	-	-	-	-	68	45.3	82	54.7	4.5
28. She/he spoke in a good/clear accent.	-	-	-	-	-	-	71	47.3	79	52.7	4.5
29. She/he showed good communication skills.	-	-	3	2.0	3	2.0	70	46.7	74	49.3	4.4
30. She/he responded to emergency situations rapidly.	-	-	2	1.3	5	3.3	78	52.0	65	43.3	4.3
31. She/he could perform first aid in emergency.	-	-	2	1.3	6	4.0	77	51.3	64	42.7	4.4
32. She/he maintained the safety of oneself and tourists.	-	-	-	-	4	2.7	78	52.0	68	45.3	4.4
33. She/he informed us of safety policies.	-	-	-	-	5	3.3	72	48.0	73	48.7	4.5
34. She/he showed leadership skills during the tour.	1	0.7	2	1.3	2	1.3	58	38.7	87	58.0	4.5
35. She/he handled repetitive situation in a know-how fashion.	1	0.7	1	0.7	3	2.0	61	40.7	84	56.0	4.5
36. She/he had quick response in unforeseen situations.	2	1.3	1	0.7	13	8.7	77	51.3	57	38.0	4.2
37. She/he was self-confident and open-minded.	-	-	3	2.0	3	2.0	62	41.3	82	54.7	4.5
38. She/he perceived strong problem solving abilities.	1	0.7	2	1.3	6	4.0	47	31.3	94	62.7	4.5
39. She/he could understand differences among us and respond accordingly.	-	-	5	3.3	2	1.3	60	40.0	83	55.3	4.5
40. Her/his way of escorting the tour gave the impression that she/he is well trained.	-	-	4	2.7	2	1.3	66	44.0	78	52.0	4.5
41. She/he used to brief us on daily itinerary.	-	-	-	-	3	2.0	74	49.3	73	48.7	4.5
42. She/he informed us about destination's customs.	-	-	5	3.3	-	-	73	48.7	72	48.0	4.4
43. She/he gave information about forbidden and limited behaviors at the attraction.	-	-	5	3.3	-	-	71	47.3	74	49.3	4.4

The statements from S10 to S20 with a positive mean that ranges between (4.3 – 4.7) were concerned with the TGs personal attributes, according to respondents TGs accompanied them showed what job required; from being dedicated as illustrated by the mean (4.4) and (4.5) for S13 and S14 respectively, also persistence and having the ability to deal tactfully with tourist as asserted by the respondents in S18 and S19, for 56% agreed and 40.7% strongly agreed in S18 on TGs interacted well with the visitors while in S19 56.7% agreed and 39.3% strongly agreed on TGs helping visitors with realistic visiting experience. Also respondents stated that their TGs were able to put people at ease by being friendly in S11with a positive mean (4.5), polite in S10 with a positive mean (4.7), outgoing in S12 and S15with a positive mean (4.6), helpful in S20 with (4.3) mean, and responsible in S16 and S17with (4.3) mean.

According to the respondents TGs showed their concern to self-development by showing skills of leadership during the tour as mentioned in S34 with a positive mean of (4.5). As for S24, S36 and S38 with a mean (4.3), (4.2) and (4.5) correspondingly respondents agreed that their TGs handled obstacles and unforeseen situation in quick and skillful fashion, also handled repetitive situation in a know-how fashion, in addition to problem solving abilities. They pointed out that TGs asked for continuous feedback in S21 with a positive mean of (4.3). Apart from the previous the respondents appreciated that TGs had cross-culture awareness as mentioned in S22 with a positive mean (4.3) for being interested in tourists' customs and lifestyles, also respondents in S39 with a mean of (4.5) specified their understanding of the differences among his/her clients. Furthermore, respondents emphasized that their TGs in S25 with a mean of (4.3) generated an atmosphere full of vividness.

Additionally, respondents mentioned in S23 that TGs focused on changing presentation styles with a mean (4.3), and showed good communication skills in S29 with a positive mean of (4.4) by the appropriate use of oral and body language as asserted in S27, and the good/clear accent followed in S28 with a positive mean of (4.5).

The respondents agreed on TGs demonstrating emergency handling ability by responding to emergency situations in S30 with a positive mean (4.3), performing first aid in case of emergency in S31 with positive mean (4.4), maintaining of oneself and his/her clients in S32 with a mean (4.4), and informing his/her clients of safety policies in S33with a positive mean (4.5).

Table 2. Effect of TG performance on Tour experience

Effect of Tour Guide on Tour experience	Very unsatisfactory 1		Unsatisfactory 2		Not sure 3		satisfactory 4		Very satisfactory 5		Mean
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
1. The quality of this tour.	1	0.7	4	2.7	-	-	45	30.0	100	66.7	4.6
2. The guide influence on your experience.	2	1.3	3	2.0	-	-	47	31.3	98	65.3	4.6
3. The information provided by the tour guide in accordance to your expectations in relation to the following:											
• Egyptian customs	-	-	4	2.7	2	1.3	81	54.0	63	42.0	4.4
• History	-	-	1	0.7	-	-	56	37.3	93	62.0	4.6
• Geography (e.g. pattern of city development)	-	-	5	3.3	1	0.7	84	56.0	60	40.0	4.3
• Current events	2	1.3	7	4.7	8	5.3	94	62.7	39	26.0	4.1
• Shopping	-	-	2	1.3	7	4.7	97	64.7	44	29.3	4.2
• Recreation facilities	-	-	4	2.7	2	1.3	94	62.7	50	33.3	4.3
• Special sites	-	-	4	2.7	1	0.7	85	56.7	60	40.0	4.3
• Landmarks	-	-	4	2.7	1	0.7	82	54.7	63	42.0	4.4
4. The tour guide's attempts to encourage social interaction with your fellow passengers.	-	-	4	2.7	1	0.7	83	55.3	62	41.3	4.4
5. The ease of understanding information presented by the guide.	-	-	4	2.7	-	-	54	36.0	92	61.3	4.6
6. The guides' presentation.	-	-	3	2.0	1	0.7	46	30.7	100	66.7	4.6
7. The overall satisfaction level of this visiting experience.	-	-	4	2.7	1	0.7	48	32.0	97	64.7	4.6

Table (2) revealed the respondents opinion regarding TGs performance in terms of meetings their expectations in relation to Egyptian customs, history, geography, current events, shopping, recreation facilities, special sites and landmarks with a positive mean that ranges between 4.1 and 4.6 for the sub-statements of S3, in addition to TGs capability of developing the information in a professional manner as stated by the respondents in S5 and S6 with a positive mean of 4.6, Also

TGs encouraged social interaction with the respondents fellow passengers as in S4 with a mean 4.4.

According to the respondents 96.7% were satisfied and very satisfied with the quality of their tour as stated in S1. Also they affirmed that TGs had a satisfactory influence on their experience in S2 with a positive mean 4.6. S7 concluded that the respondents were overall satisfied with their visiting experience with a mean 4.6.

Table 3. Tourist response in relation to their satisfaction with TGs Performance

Statements	**Strongly disagree 1**		**Disagree 2**		**Not sure 3**		**Agree 4**		**Strongly agree 5**		**Mean**
	F	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	
1. I feel at home in this tourist destination.	2	1.3	2	1.3	7	4.7	65	43.3	74	49.3	4.4
2. I will revisit this tourist destination again.	1	0.7	5	3.3	7	4.7	44	29.3	93	62.0	4.5
3. I will recommend this tourist destination to my friends and relatives.	-	-	4	2.7	6	4.0	43	28.7	97	64.7	4.6

And in table (3), S1 showed that 92.6% of the respondents agreed and strongly agreed that they feel at home in Egypt, also they agreed and strongly agreed in S2 and S3 with a positive mean of 4.4 and 4.6 respectively on repeat visitation and word of mouth recommendation.

Regarding the previous results, table (1) showed that 51.3% of the respondents with frequent number of 77 agreed and 44.7% with a frequent number of 67 strongly agreed on the skills acquired by TGs (TGs performance), that explains the importance of interpretation as being relevant to tourism and recreation, for interpretation is a key to ensuring the quality of a tourist experience (Alzua et al, 1998), for it is known that information on its own is not interpretation. Interpretation is an art, whether the materials being presented are scientific, historical, architectural or environmental and the chief aim of interpretation is not instruction, but provocation. So interpretation aims to present a whole rather than a part (Sigala, 2005).

In accordance to the fact that increasing numbers of people view cultural sites as an opportunity to promote a free choice of learning experience (Alzua et al, 1998), most heritage tourists are accompanied by guides to provide them with information to help them enjoy their visit (Laws, 1998), respondents in S3 affirmed by the positive mean of (4.4) that the information offered by their TGs is sufficiently detailed to enjoy the attraction. Also heritage interpretation as mentioned by Papathanasiou-Zuhrt (2005) is a multidisciplinary process of message communication, aiming to reveal effectively to visitors a place's natural and cultural wealth, S1 and S2 with a positive mean of (4.4) and (4.5) respectively stated that TGs gave full knowledge of the destination. Furthermore, acted as mediators between the site and the visitor to make these two realities come together as one (Falk, 2009).

As both leaders and hosts, TGs accept the challenges of creating a harmonious and cohesive atmosphere in which people can be comfortable, learn, and enjoy themselves (Ponds, 1993: 123), which required a basic understanding of human nature through the positive mean of (4.4) in S9, an attitude of respect as in S10 with positive mean of (4.7), willingness to serve, and interest in people as in S6 with positive mean of (4.3). In addition TGs as public speakers, they must possess the ability to communicate in an engaging way in order to formulate the images that they should project to travelers (Ponds, 1993: 137) that was asserted by the positive mean of (4.4) in S29.

As for table (2), the results emphasized the effect of TGs on tour experience for 96.7% of the respondents with a frequent number of 145 were satisfied and very satisfied with their TGs performance, which proved that TGs play an important role during the tour as the tourists may rely on the tour guide to ensure what core services is performed (Heung, 2008), also proved that business ethics is important to meet expectations of all customers (Ayob et al., 2009).

Table (3) showed that 62% with a frequent number of 93strongly agreed, and 30% with a frequent number 46 agreed on the positive influence of TGs' performance on their future destination decision, Ellis & Vogelsong (2002) mentioned that quality service leaves a positive impression on visitors, for Tourists' satisfaction with their holiday experiences at a destination as stated by Kozak (2001) is important to the decision – making. Furthermore many tourists tend to gather information by word of mouth (Furutani & Fujita, 2005). It is significant that the studied sample showed that 84% of the respondents had visited Egypt more than 4 times.

Table 4. Correlation between different items of the study.

		Aspects of tour guide performance	Effect of Tour Guide on Tour Experience	Tourist Satisfaction in accordance to TG Performance
Aspects of tour guide performance	Pearson Correlation	1	0.724	0.568
Effect of Tour Guide on Tour Experience	Pearson Correlation	0.724	1	0.649
Tourist response in relation to their satisfaction with TGs Performance	Pearson Correlation	0.568	0.649	1

Subsequently the study revealed that there was a highly significant association between the three items of the study as shown in table (4) as each item is positively related to the other according to Pearson's correlation.

Table 5. *Cronbach's alpha* of different items of the study

	Cronbach's alpha
Aspects of tour guide performance	0.898
Effect of Tour Guide on Tour Experience	0.921
Tourist response in relation to their satisfaction with TGs Performance	0.907

Also there was a high level of stability and reliability among the three items of the study according Cronbach's alpha as shown in table (5).

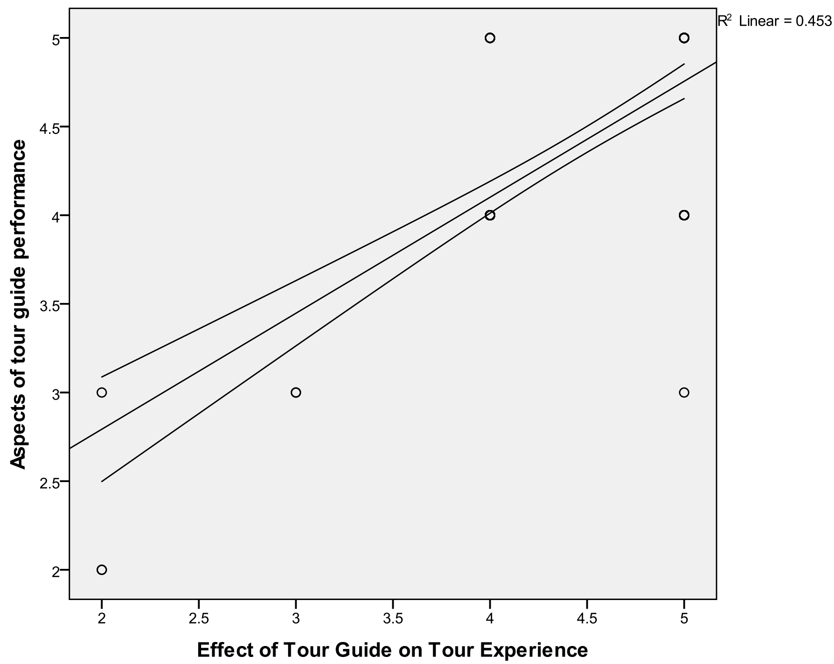

Figure 1. Effect of TG on tour experience in accordance to TG performance

Accordingly visits to heritage sites are influenced by individual prior experience, and TGs can excite one member with a different level of interest, knowledge, and understanding (Laws, 1998) as shown in figure(1) that demonstrated a high significant association between effects of TG on tour experience in accordance to aspects of TG performance. Nevertheless positive past experiences contribute to future tourism decision (Gale & Beeftink, 2005), and figure (2) and (3) showed that there was a high significant association between Tourist response in relation to their satisfaction with TG performance in accordance to aspects of TG performance, and Tourist response in relation to their satisfaction with TG performance in accordance to effect of TG on tour experience.

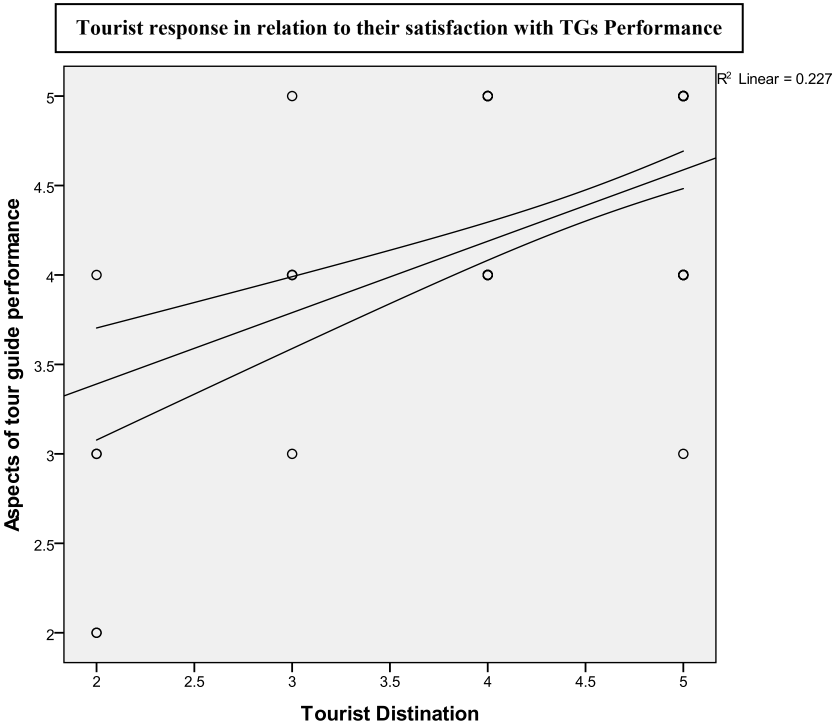

Figure 2. Tourist response in accordance to TG performance

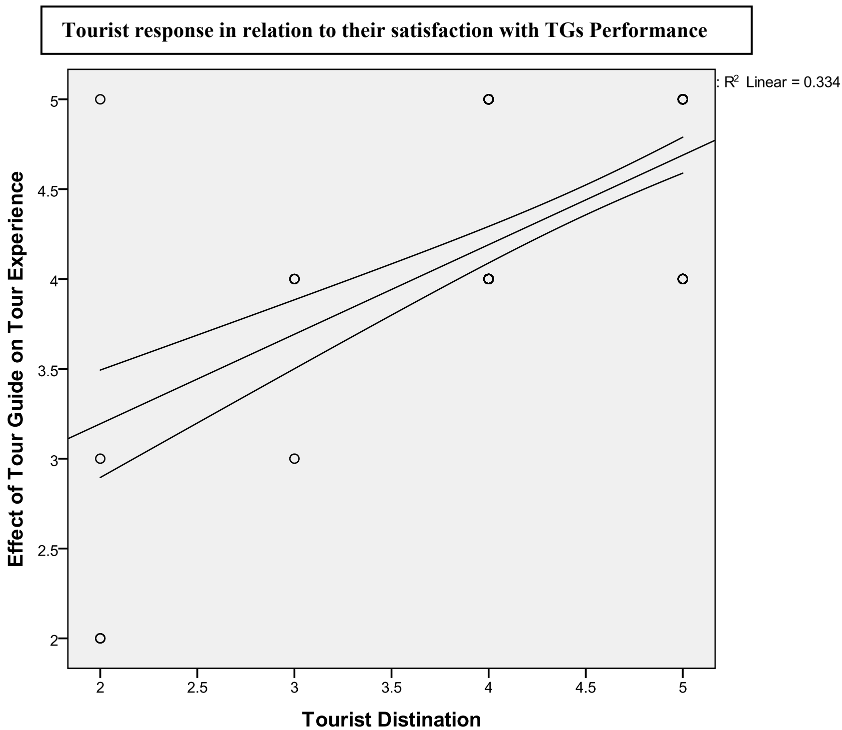

Figure 3. Tourist response in accordance to tour experience

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Visits to Egypt rose from 1.5 million in 1982 to 14 million in 2010, as Egypt has no competitors because of its unique cultural heritage tourism resources (planbleu.org). Although inbound tourists during the year 2011 to Egypt were 9,497,000 partly explained by mass arrivals of Palestinians and Libyans in comparing to the 14,051,000 tourists that arrived during the year 2010 (wdi.worldbank.org). There were good signs of recovery that occurred in October 2012 by a growth rate of +18% compared to the 37% decline seen in the previous year (www.euromonitor.com).

Despite global economic uncertainty one billion tourists had travelled the world in 2012, this development of tourists' destinations to be considered as a central theme in the tourism literature (Henderson, 2006) for the outstanding value of cultural and natural heritage sites to humanity.

In essence a TG is a key cluster for long-term success of region as he/she should communicate well with tourists providing visitors with a unique experience to create a certain level of satisfaction. Therefor there is a definite relationship among tourist satisfaction, intention to return and positive word of mouth communication and TG quality service.

In order to perform a high level of quality TG service it is recommended to implement:

1. A score monitoring system on TG practice.
2. Policies to regulate TG practices and ensure TG performance.
3. Provide training programs to develop TG skills in order to acquire a creative approach to offer more reasons for repeat visitation.
4. A flow chart on two phases before service and after service.

Also Travel agencies should place great significance on TG performance as this dimension is a key feature for agency reputation and customer word of mouth, Therefor they should pay particular attention to the recruitment and selection of TG and offer programs that help their staff to develop a professional attitude.

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TRAINING OR VACATION? THE ACADEMIC CONFERENCE TOURISM

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The current study concentrates on factors affecting the intentions of academics attending an academic conference. It highlights the importance of academic conferences and academic conference tourism and discusses meetings, the convention industry and also their utility in the career development of academics. Through qualitative research and a review of the literature on conference tourism push and pull motivation factors are suggested. The power of these factors to predict the intention to attend an academic conference is examined through quantitative research and regression analysis. The results indicate that 'pull' factors are better predictors of the intention to attend an academic conference than motivational 'push' factors.

Keywords: *Conference Tourism, Academic development, Push Factors, Pull Factors*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is indeed one of the sectors which can provide lots of revenue, for some areas or even nations. It can take many forms. It is recognized that it should be targeted in an appropriate manner (Campiranon & Arcodia, 2007). Convention tourism and the management of Meetings, Incentives, Conventions, and Exhibitions (MICE) events in general, is an area that is increasingly attracting interest from place marketers. Academics are recently reporting the attempts of certain areas to increase the inflow of tourists through this avenue, as well as the difficulties relating to co-ordination of the various interested parties in doing so (Priporas, 2005; McCartney, 2008). The offer that delegates purchase comprises of the event itself and the associated accommodation, transport and sometimes excursions/touring before or after the event (Smith & Garnham, 2006). It is a tourism sub-sector that is growing in some economies, and is a trend identified over a decade ago (Hing, McCabe, Lewis & Leiper, 1998). In the literature there is some discussion on the need to develop the appropriate standards in the MICE events to meet the needs of participants/visitors (de Lara & Har, 2008), but very little attention on what the visitors actually want (Yoo & Chon, 2008) and how their desires affect their behaviour.

Conference tourism though has received relatively little research attention (Oppermann and Chon, 1997; Zelinsky, 1994; Zhang, Leung and Qu, 2007), despite the economic impact of conventions and conferences and their social role to promote knowledge and training. This is partially explained by the difficulty to monitor and measure the economic significance of MICE events due to differences in definitions of the meeting and convention sector and non-standardized industry data collection (Carlsen, 2005). However, research on the importance of conferences and conference tourism for professional career development is also sparse. More research studies are needed to understand the relationship between conference participation and career development, especially in the case of academic careers, where the role of conference attendance has an atypical importance. Although there is not an extensive body of literature focusing on academic careers, existing research studies argue that the academic career system has unique features in comparison with traditional career models (Baruch and Hall, 2004; Kaulisch and Enders, 2005). In addition, the dominant trends in academia today seem to change the academic profession and specify certain requirements and routes for the career development of academics. Successively, these career development requirements and routes highlight the important role of academic conferences and conference tourism for the academic staff, as well as for the academia as a whole.

The existing literature in the field of convention participation includes some models of the conference participation decision-making process (Oppermann and Chon, 1997; Zhang, Leung and Qu, 2007; Lee and Back, 2007), which provide research insights on the factors affecting conference participation behaviour. However, there are many calls for a more detailed analysis of the factors affecting participation intentions and their relative influence on intentions (Zhang, Leung and Qu, 2007, Oppermann and Chon, 1997; Lee and Back, 2007; Lee and Back 2005). Lee and Back (2005) assert that "*existing studies tend to focus on simply identifying motivational and inhibiting factors from similar association meetings, which resulted in similar findings*" and that "*extensive* *empirical research is needed to identify motivating and prohibiting factors for different types of respondents and association meetings*" (p. 418). This study is of interest to associations that organize conventions, the policy makers and the tourism industry itself, because an individual has a wide range of choice of different conventions where participation is voluntary (Hiller 1995).

Specifically, in the case of *academic conference* participation, an analysis of the factors affecting participation intentions is still lacking. Academics may not differ from other professionals if we consider that they also go through a professional career with certain qualification requirements, certain employment and working conditions and several changing work roles. However, academic careers possess certain characteristics that differentiate them from careers in other organizations (Kaulisch and Enders, 2005). The dynamics and complexity of the academic career (Kaulish and Enders, 2005) is mostly due to the multiple roles and functions of the academic staff, which are further transformed by the relative changes and trends in the higher education system during the last two decades (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 1998).

This paper aims to unfold the reasons that academics choose to participate to conferences. It fists outlines the importance of conferences in the career of academics. The paper continues by discussing reasons that tourists visit certain locations. It then outlines the two phases of this research project, which are followed by the results of the study. Conclusions are offered, and management implications are explored and directions for future research are also suggested.

THE ACADEMIC PROFESSION AND CAREER: THE ROLE OF ACADEMIC RESEARCH

Academic careers appear to be complex and dynamic (Kaulisch and Enders, 2005; McInnis, 2007). The complexity is generated from the multiple roles of academics as teachers, researchers and academic administrators (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 1998; de Janasz and Sullivan, 2004) and also from the changing conditions of the academic "job market".

Although most of the existing literature on academic work and career focuses on the academic role of teaching, it is commonly accepted that the academic work also includes the functions of research and administration (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 1998; McInnis, 2007; de Janasz and Sullivan, 2004). The literature on teaching in higher education includes guides on teaching and also discusses some of the aspects of tutoring, supervision, assessment, use of technology and student learning (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 1998). On the other hand, research appears to be an important academic performance indicator (Bowen, 2005) and plays a very critical role in terms of reputation, prestige and promotion (Bowen, 2005; Armstrong and Sperry, 1995). Finally, administration and management, such as deans of departments, faculties and committees, are undoubtedly another role within academic life (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 1998). Manifestly, the share of academic time between these three roles varies according to seniority and permanence of position (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 1998). However, performance in these three areas generally defines a successful career in academia (de Janasz and Sullivan, 2004).

Today, progressively universities world-wide increase their research and publication requirements for tenure (Bowen, 2005). Further, a large proportion of 'PhD-holders' cannot obtain tenure-track jobs inside the academia, which suggests the existence of growing competition and unemployment within the academic 'job market'. In this competitive academic arena, academics should possess more than good teaching skills. They must develop competencies that enhance their prestige and reputation beyond their host institution (de Janasz and Sullivan, 2004).

Academic performance can be evaluated in different ways within the academia. However, it has recently been argued that the criteria for promotion, focuses more on research and publication rather than on teaching evaluation (Forster, 2001; Richardson and McKenna, 2003). The allocation criteria for academics are connected to their performance in terms of publication, conference proceedings, research funds and activity (Kaulisch and Enders, 2005; Baruch and Hall, 2004). Academic publishing is necessary in order for research work to be peer reviewed and become available to a wider audience. Further, academic writing and publishing does not only constitute the last stage of the research process. They could be considered as an important and separate role of academics, considering that the presentation and communication of the research work to the academic community requires additional skills and efforts (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 1998). This consideration highlights the importance of academic conferences, where academics have the opportunity to present and communicate their work, seek feedback and create valuable professional networks. Bowen (2005) suggests that academics should keep a "steady stream of research flowing" (p.635) and invest money and time to attend academic conferences, even if their host institution has limited funding to support them. They "should manage their own research career and not let their academic program manage it for them" (Bowen, 2005, p.636).

The knowledge production within the academia is done within disciplines and specialties (Kaulisch and Enders, 2005) and is strongly related with the work and progress of academics all over the world (Gläser, 2001). This global nature of academia suggests that academics tend to be much more informed about the international situation, such as research studies, research methods, teaching methods, trends and innovations, within their academic field than about the situation in other academic fields within their own institution (Kaulisch and Enders, 2005). Thus, the knowledge production within the academia is based on established and “informal” networks (informal social interaction) across institutions and academics.

Networking with other faculty is important for an academic. This, in order to be informed on the innovations in his/her field and eventual involvement in research projects and professional associations (de Janasz and Sullivan, 2004). The establishment of professional networks with colleagues inside and outside the host institution helps academics to be aware of new developments and trends in their field. Without these contacts and information, their research work would stay behind national academic and/or single institution boundaries. Through networks, academics have the possibility to exchange knowledge with their colleagues. Consequently, involvement in research projects and professional associations enhances their reputation, skills and academic performance (Richardson and McKenna, 2003). The networking ability and involvement in research projects and/or obtaining resources for said projects is considered not only an asset but a necessary skill for academics today (de Janasz and Sullivan, 2004).

THE NEED TO ATTEND ACADEMIC CONFERENCES

Conference tourism has an important economic impact on local and national economies. It also encompasses other sectors of the economy including hotels, retail trade, facilities providers, catering, services providers, translators and trasportation, and its impact is measured by the number of jobs, personal income (salaries) and business income (profits) created (Randall and Warf, 1996). Conference organizers’ and delegates’ expenditures generate new income in the host region, which stimulates the local economy. Further, international and prestigious conferences attract international delegates and accelerate tourism activity, which is not limited to the host city. On the other hand, academic conference participation is very important for all professionals working within the academic discipline. It is necessary for academic career development, intellectual stimulation and personal development. It also provides conference participants with a vacation opportunity and a chance for "escape", relaxation and social interaction.

An academic conference is a type of professional conference, which "serves" the academic profession. Further, Bauman (1998) used the characterization "tourists" to describe a new cultural elite – a cosmopolitan group of intensive travellers - which consists of academics, researchers and experts (Høyer and Næss, 2001). Trips to attend conferences are part of the modern tourism industry and the considerable recorded mobility of conference attendees establishes the concept of *conference tourism* (Høyer and Næss, 2001). In turn, the term "academic conference tourism" used in this study particularly refers to academic scholarly conferences and their attendance by academics and researchers. The characteristics and operation of academic conferences are first described to provide an overall image and operation framework of these events. These characteristics highlight the unique contribution of these conferences to the career development of their delegates. The given vacation opportunity related to the attendance of academic conferences is a feature that will be separately noted. This opportunity highlights additional influencing factors for conference participation intentions of academics, which will be discussed in the next chapter of this study.

The knowledge production within academia is done within disciplines and specialties (Kaulisch and Enders, 2005) and is strongly related to the work and progress of academics world wide (Gläser, 2001). Considering the competitive academic "job-market" and the need for personal competences and career development, academics should be well informed on the international situation, such as. research studies, research methods, teaching methods, trends and innovations, within their academic discipline (Kaulisch and Enders, 2005). On the other hand, prestige and reputation are a major point of differentiation for academics and constitute an indirect indicator of academic performance (Kaulisch and Enders, 2005). Reputation relies on scholarly productivity, which in turn relies on research activity and the availability of resources for it (Latour and Woolgar, 1979). The integrated characteristics of academic conferences serve the needs of academic career development. Academic conferences are a "showcase" of recent research and communicate the scientific knowledge across the academia (Ravn, 2007, p.213). Academics stay in touch with recent research activity and teaching methods. They advance their own skills and transfer the new knowledge to their host institution. The participation in an academic conference and the publication of a paper presented in the conference proceedings and books enriches the curriculum vitae of an academic and permits more qualifications for promotion and grants (Ravn, 2007). Therefore, academic conference attendance creates value both for the individual academic and the host institution.

RESEARCH FOCUS

Understanding the factors affecting conference participation intentions is very important considering the large and growing economic activity within the conventions industry (Var, Cesario and Mauser, 1985; Lee and Back, 2005). Conference participants spend more money than leisure tourists (Zhang, Leung and Qu, 2007; Randall and Warf, 1996) and bring multi-economic benefits to the host destination (Oppermann and Chon, 1997). They are considered as opinion leaders who can give a positive image to the host destination through word-of-mouth promotion (Zhang, Leung and Qu, 2007). They are also likely to re-visit the host destination as tourists (Braun and Rungeling, 1992). Repeat visits and word of mouth promotion of the host destination increase the regional and national tourism activity (Lee and Back, 2005). Further, understanding the factors affecting conference participation helps conference organizers and associations to improve the quality of their services and therefore, maximize the number of delegates attending. A small number of attendees is "embarrassing to both the (convention) planner and the agency" (Var, Cesario and Mauser, 1985, p.197) and reduces the attractiveness of the particular convention.

There is previous research which suggested that there are certain factors that can be motivating participants to attend conventions and conferences.

- Destination stimulus, which is related to the country or the specific city of visit (Boo Hoh and Jones, 2008). Many researchers suggest that the location is a factor in choosing a convention (Oppermann and Chon, 1997; Jago and Deery, 2005; Zhang, Leung and Qu, 2007; Yoo and Chon, 2008), or even examined the role of the attraction of the city as a stand alone factor (Kang, Suh and Jo, 2005; Boo Hoh and Jones, 2008). The destination attraction includes the cultural, shopping or sightseeing opportunities (Beck and Lalopa, 2001) and participants often add a day before or after to enjoy their visit to the conference venue (Davidson, 2003). Career-oriented travel is a valuable experience of "working holiday", which provides the travellers (conference participants) with new career competences, “broadens their minds” and makes them multicultural (Inkson and Myers, 2003).

- Professional and social networking opportunities is often on the top of the list of the reasons that an individual may attend a conference (Ngamsom and Beck, 2000; Beck and Lalopa, 2001; Yoo and Chon, 2008). Clearly participants want to meet other participants. The participation in an academic conference is connected with a series of other benefits for the delegates. Except for the scientific-related part of the conference, the pre/post conference activities and social event provided by the organizer are very worthy to mention (Jago and Deery, 2005). These ‘get-together’ activities include lunches, dinners, and events during the conference, or before and after the formal program (Høyer and Næss, 2001).
- The association that is organising the conference as well as the perceived quality of the conference (Oppermann and Chon, 1997; Zhang, Leung and Qu, 2007).
- Educational opportunities is a factor that is perceived as very important when an individual is deciding to attend a conference (Beck and Lalopa, 2001; Yoo and Chon, 2008)
- Safety and health situation (Yoo and Chon, 2008), including the safety that conference participants will feel that they get from the physical features of the service they are consuming from the totality of the offer. Their considerations involve not only the conference venue but also the hotel, the airlines, the food and other possible services they will be getting (Jago and Deery, 2005; Hilliard and Baloglu, 2008).
- Travelability (Yoo and Chon, 2008) and the opportunity to travel (Ngamsom and Beck, 2000) are also mentioned as reasons to go to a conference. In the case of oversea conferences, delegates have the opportunity to visit a foreign destination, attend local events, “meet” a new culture and local people, sightsee and “escape” from daily routines (Høyer and Næss, 2001).
- Personal factors can also be influencing the choice of attending a conference (Oppermann and Chon, 1997; Zhang, Leung and Qu, 2007)

Some research in convention and meeting management focuses on conventions in general and not academic conferences explicitelly (Boo Hoh and Jones, 2008; Yoo and Chon, 2008) and sometimes is targeting meeting planners, rather than conference attendees (Kang, Suh and Jo, 2005).Academics may not differ from other professionals if we consider that they also go through a professional career with certain qualification requirements, certain employment and working conditions and several changing work roles. However, academic careers possess certain characteristics that differentiate them from careers in other organizations (Kaulisch and Enders, 2005). However, the need for the development of an Academic Conference Participation (ACP) Model is justified by the unique contribution of academic conferences to the career development of academics. Furthermore, there are calls from researchers in the field of convention participation for empirical testing to verify the predictive power of the proposed models (Lee and Back, 2005). In the case of academic conferences, the factors affecting participation highlight the needs and priorities of academics while engaging in this process. They highlight behaviours and routes, which are dominant and followed by the majority of academics for their career development. This reflection is absent in all the previous convention participation studies. More generally, the majority of studies in convention and meeting tourism concentrate on meeting planners and their convention site selection decisions (Zhang, Leung and Qu., 2007; Oppermann and Chon, 1997).

Both, academic conferences and academics pose different characteristics in comparison with other professional conferences and delegates. Academic conferences are a “showcase” of recent research and give academics the opportunity to communicate their scientific work across the academia (Ravn, 2007, p.213). They create value for academics, enrich their curriculum vitae and give them more qualifications for promotion and grants (Ravn, 2007). Ravn (2007) asserts that these characteristics and benefits of academic conferences are absent at other professional conferences where, typically, presenters are invited experts and delegates have only a little time for discussion and contribution. In turn, these invited experts are being remunerated to make their presentation and they benefit little professionally from this process. Further, academic conference participants have different needs and priorities while engaging in this participation process, since their participation to conferences is necessary for the career development of academics today. Consequently, academic conference participation intentions may be affected by additional factors, which are not present in existing convention participation models.

The research on general tourism has attempted to identify the drivers of choice of visitors for a long time. In the literature, one of the most well accepted reasons on influencing people to travel for pleasure revolves around the theory of “Push” and “Pull” motivation (e.g. Yuan and McDonad, 1990; Uysal and Jurowski, 1994; Oh, Uysal and Weaver, 1995; Turnbull and Usal, 1995; Baloglu and Uyssal 1996; Jang and Cai, 2002; Kim and Lee, 2002; Kozak, 2002; Bogari, Crowther, and Marr 2003; Yoon and Uysal, 2005).

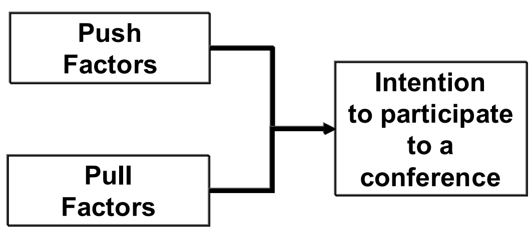
Klenosky (2002: 385) argues that: *"Push factors refer to the specific forces in our lives that lead to the decision to take a vacation (i.e., to travel outside of our normal daily environment"*. Most Push factors are origin-related and involve socio-psychological concerns and intrinsic desires such as the need for escape, relaxation, health and fitness, adventure, prestige, and social interaction (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Yan and McDonad, 1990; Usal and Jurowski, 1993; Fodness, 1994; Uysal and Hagan, 1994; Cha, McCcleary and Uysal, 1995; Oh, Uysal and Weaver, 1995; Turnbull and Usal, 1995; Baloglu and Uysal, 1996; Hanqin and Lam, 1999; Jang and Cai, 2002; Kim and Lee, 2002; Kozak 2002; Bogari, Crowther and Marr, 2003; Bansal and Eiselt, 2004; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). On the other hand, Pull factors give hints about what external attributes draw tourists to visit particular places (Sirrakaya and McLellan, 1997; You, O'Leary, Morrison and Hong, 2000; Klenosky, 2002). They have frequently involved intangibles and other resources such as the availability of recreational facilities, historical values and destination image. They emerge as a result of the attractiveness of the selected area (Yuan and McDonald, 1990; Uysal and Hagan, 1993; Klenosky, 2002) and are characterized in terms of the features or attractions of the destination itself, such as sunshine, beaches, sports facilities, and cheap airfares (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola 1982; Yan and McDonad, 1990; Usal and Jurowski, 1994; Oh, Uysal. and Weaver, 1995; Turnbull and Usal, 1995; Balogul and Uysal, 1996; Sirrakaya and McLellan, 1997; Hanqin and Lam, 1999; Jang and Cai, 2002; Kim and Lee, 2002; Klenosky, 2002; Kozak 2002; Bogar, Crowther and Marr, 2003; Yoon and Uysal, 2005).

In principle, this theory relative to tourist motives, assumes that people travel and select destinations according to different ‘Push’ and ‘Pull’ variables. This is a two-step process, involving “Push” factors, which prompt someone to leave his/her home, and “Pull” factors, which draw a person to travel to a particular place.

Although the Push and Pull factors have been presented in the tourism literature over thirty years ago (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982), and since then they have been established and extensively used, their suitability and the potential dimensions they might have in convention tourism in general and in conference tourism in particular have not been investigated extensively and by using many multi-item possible dimensions (Beck and Lalopa, 2001). Some of the papers published in the area of convention and meeting management are conceptual (Davidson, 2003) and some exploratory and qualitative (Jago and Deery, 2005). Until recently, most of the published research that uses quantitative data only reported descriptive statistics (Lee and Back, 2005b). Some of the existing research only deals with the development of a scale and did not really attempt to link the components of this scale with the actual or indented behaviour participants (Beck and Lalopa, 2001; Yoo and Chon, 2008). The minority of the papers published in the area of convention and meeting management collected data from attendees (Lee and Back, 2005b). A number of the published academic papers are using data collected from participants of a specific conference or/and from members of a given preselected association (Ngamsom and Beck, 2000; Beck and Lalopa, 2001) or approached participants as they were attending a specific convention (Boo, Hoh and Jones, 2008; Hilliard and Baloglu, 2008). These participants are likely to express views influenced from the reputation of the association and the conference, as well as from any specific incidents that were taking place during the conference.

This study is designed to fill this research gap, aiming to statistically examine the influence of the proposed factors on meeting participation intentions from the perspective of academics as potential meeting academic attendees. It is suggested that organizers of academic conferences should consider unique factors which may affect the participation intentions of academics. These influencing factors may not appear between attendees of other professional conferences/conventions. Again, the consideration of these unique factors will allow conference organizers to provide academics with improved and competitive services and achieve a higher turnout in terms of participants' satisfaction and future participation.

Figure 1. Conference Participation Factors



Therefore, this study has two main objectives: to explore whether Push and Pull factors exist in Conference Tourism and to investigate the relevant influence of the Pull and Push factors in the choice of a scientific conference (Figure 1).

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Since there was very limited information on the potential push and pull factors that might influence academics in their selection of a conference, a two stage approach was employed for this study. For the initial identification of the push and pull factors, the first stage of the research, long interviews were conducted (McCracken, 1988). Previous research has also attempted to identify push and pull factors in the tourism industry through unstructured interviews with visitors of a tourism attraction (Johns and Gyimóthy, 2003). In this case, the interviews were based on a topic guide with open-ended questions, but the emphasis was on the interviewee's point of view. The interviews were tape recorded, in order to have the data in its natural form (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). The twelve participants for the long interviews were recruited purposively (Miles and Heberman, 1994). A mixture of people who possessed different experiences in participating in academic conferences but who were exposed to a research-led environment were chosen to be the informants, as well as people with less exposure to a research led environment. Five academics and three PhD students from the research-led University in the UK as well as four academics from a non research-led university in the UK (New University) were the subjects of this initial study. The academics were from different academic levels and experience bases. The interviews lasted from 30 to 45 minutes each. The interviews were transcribed and the content analyzed. Two different researchers were involved in this stage, in order to validate the findings of the qualitative stage. The interviews helped in the recognition of potential push and pull factors. Furthermore, items were developed based on the information collected from the qualitative second stage and formed a good portion the item pool. Additional items were also taken from relevant literature of tourism. The totality of the generated items was then given to 3 experts, in order to secure face and content validity. The drafted questionnaire was then distributed to a convenience sample of 50 academics and PhD students for a pre-test.

The final instrument used for the quantitative data collection was a structured questionnaire with Likert-type 5-point scales (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree). Considering the fact that the case of academic conferences and academics as delegates had not been researched before, appropriate measures were not available for most of the constructs. In this exploratory study nine push and ten pull factors were included. No existing construct was used in its totality to measure any of the dimensions. The items included in the final instrument are presented in the appendix. The only existing scale planned to be used was the Lee and Back (2007) scale for conference participation intention. However, the three items of the scale were so highly inter-correlated we decided to use a single item to describe the construct, since the other two did not really provided any additional information.

The last incident method was used to collect the data. Respondents were asked to answer the questionnaire having in mind the last call for papers they remembered receiving. This specific request was selected as researchers did not want to have bias towards conferences that respondents were planning to attend. To ensure a considerable number of completed questionnaires, both online survey and paper survey was used. The paper format was distributed in the three Universities based in Glasgow Scotland. In the online survey, the questionnaire was sent as an attachment to academics in various positions working in Universities across the UK. The e-mail was send through a university e-mail account. Although it is not the most common data collection method in convention and meeting management research (Lee and Back, 2005b) contacting the sample through an e-mail is a tactic that has been used when it is attempted to approach academics working in many organisations (Kang, Suh and Jo, 2005). In total 800 questionnaires to potential conference attendees in various business disciplines were distributed and 242 usable questionnaires were returned. The characteristics of the sample are detailed on table 1. Responses from potential conference participants who had never participated in a conference were eliminated from the sample.

Table 1. The Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Female	94	38.84%
	Male	146	60.33%
	n/a	2	0.83%
Position	PhD student	68	28.10%
	Associate Lecturer	4	1.65%
	Lecturer	32	13.22%
	Senior Lecturer	50	20.66%
	Principal Lecturer	8	3.31%
	Reader	4	1.65%
	Professor	58	23.97%
	Research Assistant	4	1.65%
	Research Associate	2	0.83%
	Research Fellow	8	3.31%
	Scientific Collaborator	2	0.83%
	Visiting Staff	2	0.83%
	TOTAL	242	100.00%

FINDINGS

The data was first cleaned. All the multi-item scales used in the study can be considered reliable since the dimensions of the measured multi items constructs had alpha reliability coefficients very close in excess of .70, or high and positive Pearson correlation (Table 2). The intercorelations of the items used in each scale with more than 2 items were also less than .45 and they were adding information in the scale. Therefore it can be argued that all items were indeed measuring the same construct. The correlations between the study variables reported on table 3, were proven in some occasions significant in a .05 level, but they were not considered to be problematic. The stronger correlation in this data set was proven to be one between a push factor (time availability) and a pull factor (previous experience), which were not considered linked on a theoretical basis.

Table 2. Reliability of the Study Variables

	no of items	Reliability Analysis		mean	sd
PUSH FACTORS					
Professional Advancement Factors					
Career Development	2	0.80	#	3.38	0.91
Paper Presentation and Publication	4	0.75	*	3.41	0.82
Personal Contacts	4	0.75	*	3.63	0.77
Personal Factors					
Escape	3	0.79	*	2.92	1.01
Interaction with Academics	2	0.40	#	2.64	0.85
Desire to learn	3	0.68	*	3.56	0.70
Time Availability	3	0.80	*	3.98	0.86
Family influence	1	.		2.19	1.07
Word of Mouth	3	0.85	*	3.05	1.00
PULL FACTORS					
Locational Factors					
Climate	3	0.85	*	2.18	0.94
Accommodation, Transport	3	0.88	*	3.49	1.14
Desire to Travel to the destination	1			2.86	1.20
Sightseeing & Social Events	2	0.39	#	2.73	0.95
Distance	1			3.44	1.15
Academic Conference Factors					
Previous Experience	3	0.81	*	3.72	0.96
Pre/Post Activities	3	0.85	*	2.48	0.90
Conference Reputation	5	0.74	*	3.59	0.79
Funding	1			3.88	1.05
CONFERENCE PARTICIPATION INTEREST	1			3.59	1.23

Table 3. Correlation of the Study Variables

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
PUSH FACTORS																		
1. Career Development	0.62 *	0.49 *	0.00	-0.11	0.47 *	0.40 *	0.11	0.39 *	0.56 *	0.19 *	-0.01	0.07	0.06	-0.11	-0.16 *	0.29 *	-0.04	0.40 *
2. Paper Presentation and Publication		0.67 *	-0.02	0.05	0.35 *	0.33 *	-0.08	0.30 *	0.38 *	0.29 *	0.27 *	0.02	0.12	-0.05	0.10	0.40 *	0.21 *	0.43 *
3. Personal Contacts		1.00	0.16 *	0.15	0.32 *	0.39 *	0.13	0.47 *	0.39 *	0.25 *	0.31 *	-0.04	0.12	0.14	0.15	0.40 *	0.19 *	0.34 *
4. Escape			1.00	0.37 *	-0.14 #	-0.08	0.23 *	0.05	0.00	0.40 *	0.35 *	0.57 *	0.32 *	-0.24 *	0.44 *	0.09	0.35 *	-0.19 *
5. Interaction with Academics				1.00	0.04	-0.15 #	0.16 *	0.20 *	-0.05	0.27 *	0.24 *	0.29 *	0.33 *	0.06	0.46 *	0.00	0.20 *	0.15 #
6. Desire to learn					1.00	0.11	-0.12	0.14	0.27 *	-0.02	-0.14	0.09	0.22 *	-0.11	-0.08	0.28 *	-0.14	0.20 *
7. Time Availability						1.00	0.32 *	0.31 *	0.82 *	0.27 *	0.08	-0.19 *	-0.04	0.50 *	-0.35 *	0.17 *	-0.01	0.22 *
8. Family influence							1.00	0.24 *	0.33 *	0.43 *	0.14 #	0.32 *	0.21 *	0.23 *	-0.06	-0.09	0.22 *	0.14 #
9. Word of Mouth								1.00	0.31 *	0.17 *	0.23 *	0.09	0.13 #	0.16 *	0.22 *	0.25 *	0.17 *	0.20 *
PULL FACTORS																		
10. Previous Experience									1.00	0.37 *	0.10	0.03	0.09	0.29 *	-0.30 *	0.24 *	-0.07	0.34 *
11. Climate										1.00	0.44 *	0.55 *	0.57 *	-0.07	0.28 *	0.11	0.23 *	0.18 *
12. Accommodation, Transport											1.00	0.36 *	0.25 *	-0.02	0.32 *	0.13 #	0.51 *	-0.05
13. Desire to Travel to the destination												1.00	0.65 *	-0.39 *	0.30 *	-0.07	0.32 *	-0.02
14. Sightseeing & Social Events													1.00	-0.21 *	0.35 *	0.01	0.09	0.13 #
15. Distance														1.00	-0.31 *	-0.02	0.05	0.30 *
16. Pre/Post Activities															1.00	0.29 *	0.26 *	-0.16 *
17. Conference Reputation																1.00	-0.06	0.03
18. Funding																	1.00	-0.05
19. I will make an effort to attend this academic conference																		1.00

** sing .01*
 # sign. 0.05

When the regression analysis was performed, only some of the proposed relationships were not proved to be statistically significant (Table 3), and therefore a revised model was developed, where the links among variables not statistically significant at the .05 level were deleted with stepwise regression. Both sets of results are reported. The regression analysis in the revised model showed respectable explanatory power, since the adjusted R^2 was .47 (Table 3). Although the variables are inter-correlated, regression analysis can be performed in this data set, since the degree of multi-collinearity is not considered as problematic. All variance inflation factor (VIF) values are below 10, the benchmark suggested by Neter, Wesserman and Kutner (1990) and all tolerance values are greater than 0.02.

Three of the push factors were proven to be significant in the revised model. The best predictors seem to be; time availability and the probability for publication. If academics do not have time, or if they feel that their work is not going to be published to an expected extent, they are less willing to attend a conference. Some role is also played by the perception that a conference presentation might help in career development.

In total six pull factors were significant in the revised model. The most important of them is the distance of the trip. Other factors that were linked with the destination were also important. Academics want to be able to see the area and participate in social events during the conference. The difficulties they anticipate encountering during the trip were a factor that does not motivate conference selection. Surprisingly, the conference reputation has a negative link with the intention to participate. This could be due to the fact that academics prefer smaller conferences in which they can interact. They also base their intention to participate on previous experience from the same conference. The availability of funding for the conference is also a significant factor for determining participation intentions.

Table 4. Predictors of Conference Participation

	Full model				Revised model			
	Stand Beta	t	tolerance	VIF	Stand Beta	t	tolerance	VIF
PUSH FACTORS								
Career Development	0.26	3.09 *	0.31	3.24	0.21	2.83 *	0.42	2.41
Paper Presentation and Publication	0.43	4.67 *	0.27	3.67	0.50	7.09 *	0.47	2.14
Personal Contacts	0.10	1.19	0.31	3.22				
Escape	-0.18	-2.43 #	0.41	2.46				
Interaction with Academics	0.15	2.32 #	0.55	1.82				
Desire to learn	-0.14	-2.13 #	0.52	1.93				
Time Availability	-0.54	-4.87 *	0.19	5.35	-0.57	-5.73 *	0.24	4.18
Family influence	0.03	0.46	0.51	1.98				
Word of Mouth	-0.04	-0.60	0.53	1.89				
PULL FACTORS								
Previous Experience	0.32	2.93 *	0.19	5.17	0.38	3.80 *	0.23	4.26
Climate	0.08	1.00	0.34	2.92				
Accommodation, Transport	-0.18	-2.58 #	0.47	2.13	-0.14	-2.18 #	0.59	1.70
Desire to Travel to the destination	0.06	0.65	0.23	4.39				
Sightseeing & Social Events	0.14	1.84	0.41	2.47	0.17	3.23 *	0.85	1.18
Distance (DT1)	0.46	6.39 *	0.43	2.31	0.54	8.74 *	0.60	1.66
Pre/Post Activities	-0.09	-1.10	0.35	2.83				
Conference Reputation	-0.14	-2.21 #	0.58	1.71	-0.21	-3.95 *	0.79	1.27
Funding	-0.08	-1.19	0.50	1.99	-0.11	-1.86 #	0.65	1.53
Adjusted R2		0.48				0.47		
F		12.92				23.35		

* sing .01
# sign. 0.05

DISCUSSION

The current study is an initial investigation and effort to combine convention and meetings literature and the literature on career development. It contributes to the further study of both convention participation and career development by highlighting their relationship. This reflection is absent in all the previous convention participation studies. Considering calls of previous researchers for the need of "extensive empirical research….to identify motivating and prohibiting factors for different types of respondents and association meetings" (Lee and Back, 2005, p.418) the current study introduces an *Academic Conference Participation* (ACP) Model to identify factors affecting participation intentions of academics as potential attendees. Moreover, the study went further to statistically test the proposed model, as opposed to previous theoretical studies in the field of convention participation (Zhang, Leung and Qu*,* 2007; Oppermann and Chon, 1997) and to propose a refined model, which shows the relative significance of the proposed influencing factors. This effort aimed at providing the basis for further research to clarify and enrich its results. In the methodological part of the study, the use of different data collection methods also provides useful information on their advantages and disadvantages.

The results of this study can be useful for convention industry practitioners. Understanding the factors affecting conference participation helps conference organizers and associations to improve the quality of their services and maximize the number of delegates attending. Especially in the case of academic conferences, organizers should consider unique factors that may affect the participation intentions of academics. These influencing factors may not appear between attendees of other professional conferences/conventions. Considering the results of the study, the "need for career development" appears to be a facilitator in conference participation. On the other hand, "networking opportunities", the importance of "paper presentation / publication" and opportunities of "knowledge and learning" appear as not to be expected by academics during their conference participation. This fact may indicate a negative "image" of academic conferences. In this case, conference organizers should create conferences that promote knowledge exchange, professional contacts and incorporate friendly networking activity (Ravn, 2007). Previous "personal experience" appears to play an important role for future participation. Therefore, conference organizers should carefully "build" a favourable image and reputation for their conferences.

Furthermore, three location factors are included in the anticipated model. The "image of the conference host destination", the "sightseeing opportunities" and "accommodation / transportation cost" in the host destination influence participation intentions of potential attendees. This suggests that the development of conference tourism does not only rely on the individual efforts of conference organizers and associations. Local and national authorities and tourism organizations have a share of responsibility in attracting overseas delegates by developing a favourable host destination image and providing suitable conditions for conference and conventions in terms of facilities, such as conference centers and convention centers transportation and accommodation. Conventions and meetings make a major contribution to the growth of local and national economies (Lee and Back, 2005). As indicated earlier, “the average conference delegate spends approximately 2.0 to 2.5 times the amount spent by recreational (leisure) tourists on a daily basis.” (Randall and Warf, 1996) and repeat visits and word of mouth promotion of the host destination promote the growth of regional and national tourism activity (Lee and Back, 2005).

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

One can not ignore that the selected domain (*academic conferences*) can be considered as restricted. Academic conferences are an individual type of professional conference and a niche market within the convention and meeting industry. Therefore, generalizing the proposed model and the results of this study to describe behaviours regarding the participation in other professional conferences would not be appropriate. In addition, different national academic systems and regulations in the academic profession may differentiate the perceptions of academics regarding conference participation. Moreover, different funding regulations for the attendance of academic conferences inside academic institutions may also play an important role in conference participation of academics.

In the methodological part of the study, the limitations are related to the selected data collection method and its aspects. In the case of the online survey, the questionnaire was sent via e-mail to the respondents. Further, the questionnaire was an attached word file and not an embedded questionnaire (in which the questions are to be found in the body of the e-mail). Bryman (2004) asserts that the embedded questionnaire requires less computer expertise, it is easier for the respondent to return to the researcher and it can achieve higher response rate in comparison with the attached questionnaire. On the other hand, in the case of the attached questionnaire, the researcher has to deal with the fact that many respondents would be not willing to open the attachment because of concerns about viruses and Internet threats (Bryman, 2004). Moreover, Bryman (2004) asserts that e-mail surveys have lower response rates in comparison with postal questionnaire surveys and “respondents may find it difficult to believe that their replies really are confidential and will be treated anonymously” (p.485). Further, the length of questionnaire (64 Likert-type scale statements) together with the multiple “mouse point-clicks” required to complete it made the participation in the research time-consuming for the individual respondent. Alternatively, the study could have used a web survey, in which the respondents would be directed to the website of the research in which the questionnaire could be found and completed.

As indicated earlier in the presentation of the questionnaire, a highlighted note in the questionnaire introduction asks the respondent to think about the last “Call for Papers” that they received to participate in an academic conference before indicating the level of their agreement with each one of the questionnaire statements. However, the feedback from a number of respondents indicates that the last “Call for Papers” as a reference to complete the questionnaire was problematic. The bulk of “Call for Papers” received by an individual academic during a particular season makes it difficult for some respondents to think about the last one of them to guide their thinking. Further, many of the received “Call for Papers” pertain to irrelevant conferences and they are not taken into account by the recipient. Therefore, it would be more appropriate for the research questionnaire to ask the respondent to think about the last “Call for Papers” regarding a conference relevant to their field of interest.

Although the paper contributes to the introduction of an academic conference participation model, it examined mainly academics from UK universities. For model generalization purposes, further studies with respect to different academic systems characteristics must be conducted. Further, this study may be viewed as a first step in a series of studies that will hopefully lead to a more quantitative approach and generalized basis for the examination of convention participation. This paper generates calls not only for further research studies in the field of convention participation, but also for future studies to explore the importance of conferences for professional career development. Although the majority of convention research studies focuses on the economic impact of convention industry on the local and national economy, the important role of this industry in the emerging ‘knowledge society’ should not be neglected. Future research studies should explore the role of conferences and conference industry on the career development of attendees and more generally the promotion of knowledge and education.

Further, “academe is a growing sector with importance beyond its physical size” (Baruch and Hall, 2004, p.258). However, the existing literature on academic work and career is still limited. We need to further study how the academic profession changes and which are the new requirements and routes for the career development of academics. Academic careers are located both in “traditional” and “new” careers (Richardson and McKenna, 2003; Kaulisch and Enders, 2005) and their examination provides useful insights for the majority of professional careers, both in the public and private sector. The findings of this study are preliminary and should be treated as such. Considering the limitations of the current study, future research is needed to re-examine and confirm or revise the proposed model and results. Different strategies and combination of data collection procedures can be used to achieve higher response rates thereby leading to more robust models. Many of the factors suggested by the relevant literature as influencing conference participation intentions were found to be non-influencable, when empirically tested. Further research could identify how non-influencable factors of the attendees' participation intentions could become influencable and possible additional factors affecting conference participation intentions should be identified by using both quantitative and qualitative research methods.

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APPENDIX

Push Factors:

PROFESSIONAL ADVANCEMENT FACTORS

Career Development (CD)

- *Participating in this academic conference is likely to help me advance my academic career.*
- *Presenting my research paper in this academic conference is likely to help me advance my academic career.*

Paper Presentation / Publication (PPP)

- *I am looking forward to see my work included to this conference's proceedings.*
- *It is very important for me to present my research paper in this academic conference.*
- *I am looking for feedback about my research work after my presentation*
- *Special issues of academic journals associated with this academic conference are an important parameter for me.*

Professional Contacts (PC)

- *I am likely to meet potential research partners by participating in this academic conference.*
- *I expect to strengthen my professional relationships with academic colleagues by participating in this academic conference.*
- *Participating in this academic conference is a way to support the association and its members.*
- *By participating in this conference I feel as a member of the academic community.*

PERSONAL FACTORS

Escape (E)

- *This conference's host destination is likely to be a good place for me to relax.*
- *Participating in this academic conference is a way to escape from ordinary life.*
- *A trip to this conference's host destination is likely to enhance my feeling of well-being.*

Interaction with Academics (DL)

- *I am likely to meet many participants with different interests and life styles by participating in this academic conference*

- *Participating in this academic conference gives me the opportunity to meet local academics*

Desire to Learn (DL)

- *I feel that I will learn the trends in my field by participating in this academic conference.*
- *I am likely to learn new skills by attending this academic conference.*
- *Participating in academic conferences keeps me up with changes in my academic field.*

Time Availability (TA)

- *I do not have time available to participate in this academic conference.*
- *I do have other priorities of my academic job during the period of the conference.*
- *I am busy with my university / social obligations during the period of this conference.*

Word of Mouth Influence (WMI)

- *Other academic and association's members have a good opinion about this conference.*
- *Other academics that previously attended this conference did have a good experience there.*
- *Other academics have a good opinion about this conference / association.*

Pull Factors:

LOCATIONAL FACTORS

Climate ©

- *I like the climate in this conference's host destination.*
- *Temperature in this conference's host destination is important good for me.*
- *I am very concerned about the weather in this conference's host destination.*

Accommodation / Transportation Cost/Facilities (ATCF)

- *I will seek information about the travelling / transportation cost of my participation in this academic conference.*
- *Before I decide to attend this academic conference I have to consider the availability of accommodation / hotel facilities in the host destination.*
- *I will try to learn about the quality and cost of accommodation in this conference host destination.*

Destination Attraction

- *I have a desire to travel to this conference host destination.*

Sightseeing / Social Events Opportunities (SEO)

- *Sightseeing in this conference host destination is good.*
- *I have a desire to attend social events in this academic conference destination.*

Distance of Trip (DT)

- *The distance of the trip to this conference host destination is an important issue for me.*

ACADEMIC CONFERENCE FACTORS

Previous Experience (PE)

- *I have good experiences from this association's conferences.*
- *I have good experiences from this particular conference.*
- *I have good experiences from this host destination.*

Pre / Post Activities (PPA)

- *I can participate in pre / post conference activities which I particularly enjoy in this academic conference.*
- *Quality of the pre / post conference activities is important for me.*
- *I will check for the pre / post conference activities before I decide to attend this academic conference.*

Conference Reputation (CI)

- *The identity of this conference organizer is important for me.*
- *The identity of the conference association is important for me.*
- *I seek information about the prestige of this conference.*
- *I take into account the quality of papers presented in this association's conferences.*
- *I try to learn about the host location / facilities of this academic conference.*

Funding / Registration Cost (FRC)

- *Availability of academic funding is is an important issue for me*

PARTICIPATION INTENTION:

- I will make an effort to attend this academic conference

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THE ENRICHMENT OF TOUR OPERATORS' PRODUCT BY INCORPORATING SUSTAINABLE ELEMENTS. A TOURISM AND TRAVEL MARKETING APPROACH

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The tour operators offering their services in established and traditional tourism destinations for a long time face the issue of the lack of sustainable elements in their holiday packages and their focus is mostly on the classic 3S model. However, either their target markets or the needs of destinations for sustainable approaches push for the enrichment of the offered packages. Therefore, this paper studies the potential for enrichment of classical tour packages by incorporating components of the destinations natural and cultural resources. To recognize these elements research has been conducted on the impressiveness of natural and cultural resources. The results indicate not only the potential for product enrichment with unused, till now, elements but also suggest the creation of new packages for targeted markets. Facts that are positive for both the tour operators and the prosperity of the destination.

Keywords: *tour operators, holiday package, tourism destination, natural and physical resources, sustainability*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

For several countries and regions tourism stands as the only or as the most significant, means to achieve economic development (Bramwell and Lane, 1993). However, the importance of this activity and its sensitivity to a variety of external and internal influences demands a more considerate and sustainable approach to its development.

Several studies have supported the significance of tourism to employment and economic development (Rebollo & Baidal, 2003; Tapper & Font, 2005; Wijk and Persoon, 2006). However, even more scholars have indicated that tourism development is also associated with negative effects, especially environmental and social ones. Issues like depletion of resources, pollution, waste generation and alterations or destruction of local cultures (Wijk and Persoon, 2006; Sigala, 2008; Chheang, 2009; Gronau and Kaufmann, 2009) have been addressed.

According to a number of studies, it is the mass tourism activities that are considered responsible for generating the most severe negative impacts of tourism. However, mass tourism is a reality of our time that will continue to expand, meaning that the challenge of sustainable tourism is to find ways to ascribe sustainable attributes to mass tourism activities (Swarbrooke, 1999). For destinations that have followed the model of mass tourism development it is technically impossible to revert to a thoroughly sustainable model. For these destinations sustainability is associated with the protection of the environment, the use of green energy solutions and the general upgrading of its tourism supply, giving emphasis to the historical and cultural resources of the destination. As Clarke (1997) indicates no tourism activity is inherently sustainable, but all tourism activities should strive for sustainability.

As Sigala (2008) suggests, sustainable practices should be incorporated in all tourism enterprises since the image the tourist forms for a tour and a destination is holistic and the tour operator packages rely on the high level of service of all the involved providers.

As Trivun et al., point out (2008, p.175) the tour operators “create final product to be offered to market, transforming attractions and services into products with tailored personality. Specialization in this field of travel has changed the structure of travel industry and hospitality”. The creation of the product includes actions related to the tour operator’s choice of the destination and selection of holiday package components. It is important for tour operators to choose destinations that have product components which are attractive to their clientele.

As Cooper et al indicate (1993) the attractions generate the visit to a destination, while the other support services and facilities are also essential for tourism, but would not exist without the attractions. This is because demand for tourism products and services derives from those tourists drawn to the area by the attractions and the resources. It is the attractions and the resources of a destination, whether these are manmade features, natural features or cultural resources, or even events, that provide the initial motivation to visit. Traditionally, resources have been a neglected sector for the tourist industry due to their variety and fragmented ownership pattern.

However, the tourism package for mature and established destinations is limited to classic representations of the 3S model, with basic sightseeing options.

It must be noted that even though all inclusive package tours are at a rise (ABTA, 2014) and price appears to be the most significant choice criterion for a destination, probably due to the economic crisis, an attempt to distinguish a destination from its competition and give it an aura of uniqueness remains imperative.

A growing demand for more environmentally and culturally sensitive holiday experiences arises. Many tourists, nowadays, expect sustainability practices to be integrated into their holiday which means that tour operators must comply accordingly to remain competitive (Font and Cochrane, 2005).

Especially, the natural and cultural resources or attractions of a destination are the basis for an effort to offer products with sustainable elements. The incorporation of such elements into package tours is in compliance with the expressed wants and desires of the tourists and will support the destination's effort to promote features others than the 3S and achieve more sustainable forms of tourism.

This study taking into consideration the above will try to demonstrate that a mass tourism destination, focused on the classical sea, sand and sun model of tourism, can be proved much more impressive and interesting to the visitor, concerning both its natural and cultural resources than it was expected. The holiday package "consumption" can be proved valuable for the destination and give information for the enrichment of the tour operators product based on the elements that visitors found most impressive.

TOUR OPERATORS – TOURISM SYSTEM AND THE NECESSITY FOR SUSTAINABLE APPROACHES

Tour operators, in the past, have not been associated with environmental and social sensitivities. However, they claim that they are not the ones who cause conspicuous large-scale damage to the environment (Miller, 2001). Their position being that they are simply intermediaries between customers and service providers and that the environmental and social impacts to the destinations are the responsibility of the local authorities and the various local enterprises and providers. These self-perceptions as well as profit maximization motives and managerial opinions, are most likely the reason they have been fairly slow to respond to the need for sustainable approaches.

Due to their key position in the tourism system, and their control or effect on the distribution channels and the creation of specific package tours, tour operators are the main link between the various service providers and target markets. They affect business operations, operational management and strategies such as pricing, product policies and promotional activities. Globalization and the various trends for vertical, horizontal and diagonal integration have led to massive global enterprises that have a great potential to influence purchase decisions and travel trends (Aguilo et al., 2001; Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001; Cavlek, 2002; Medina-Munoz et al., 2003; Seales and Stein, 2012).

Due to the above, together with the aggressive competition, they are often considered responsible for many of the undesirable effects of tourism development and lack of sustainable approaches to the planning of their packages (Bianchi, 2004; Bastakis et al., 2004; Budeanu, 2005; Dodds and Kuehne, 2010).

Even though, as Mason (2003) states, tour operators have a reputation for being associated with negative impacts and creating problems, they are however, especially the large-scale ones with great economic power, in an ideal position to facilitate the dissemination of sustainable policies and attitudes through the entire tourism industry (Tepelus, 2005; Wijk and Persoon, 2006; Font et al., 2008). In fact, many studies indicate that tour operators are in many ways the key to achieving more sustainable forms of tourism (Swarbrooke, 1999; Wijk and Persoon, 2006; Frey and George, 2010) and managing the expressed travel trends.

It is evident that in order to deal with the negative effects of tourism, the sector requires new tools and methods that minimize harm while allowing the development and management of tourism activities in ways that contribute to sustainable development (Tepelus, 2005).

However, as the literature suggests, most authors and researchers have concentrated on more sustainable practices in regards to the environment, energy consumption, waste management and infrastructure development. Few studies have focused in an attempt to provide information regarding the actual product offered by the destination, through the tour operators and how it could be enriched and expanded to contain elements that will be in accordance with the new demands of tourists for sustainable approaches. The incorporation of elements such as the historical areas, the picturesque villages, historical towns, the variety of physical environment, the mountains and hills, the countryside, etc will offer the opportunity to the visitors to know another aspect of the product and satisfy their search for environmental and cultural components. At the same time this approach will offer the opportunity to the tour operators to differentiate their product and comply with the expressed needs and wants of their clientele.

This study aims to showcase the areas in which tour operators could guide their efforts in expanding and enriching their product for an already established destination, which has reached the mature phase in its product life cycle, using the proposals of the clientele. Specifically, it will attempt to assess the resources of a destination in terms of the impression they impact to the visitor. Considering that the creation and promotion of new tour packages present certain risks, it is the job of the tour operators' marketing department to try and find ways to minimize them. One possible way is to use the assessment of the visitors themselves regarding the destination's resources, in terms of impressiveness and bet on the best possible options.

The destination examined, which is the island of Corfu, is a typical, insular Mediterranean destination, known mostly for mass tourism packages, with the demand for its product managed mainly by foreign tour operators. Hence it is typical of most Mediterranean destinations where tourism packages promote the beaches and entertainment facilities ignoring other elements that could enrich the product offered. It is a place that apart from its beaches and entertainment facilities has a rich history and impressive cultural past as well as a variety of natural beauty, green environment, picturesque villages and physical resources. However, it is a fact that these are seldom if ever mentioned or promoted in the various package tours to the destination. The majority of the tourism packages offered to its target market are limited to the classic representations of the 3S model, with basic sightseeing options.

The study tries to establish whether a destinations' history, cultural past, natural beauty, green environment, picturesque villages and physical resources can be used in expanding and enriching its product.

The destination under consideration shows fluctuations in arrivals, an element that can be associated to a variety of reasons, among them and most likely the saturation of the product and the interchangeability with other similar destinations. An issue that is common knowledge for mass tourism destinations.

Therefore, an effort to enrich the product with cultural and natural elements could be worthwhile. Such an effort can be achieved through research that will attempt to measure the impression that these resources have on the visitors, trying to select the most impressive ones to be used in a future product planning.

This study will try to support that a mass tourism destination applying the 3S model can enrich its offer by relying in its natural and cultural resources, since these have yet to be exploited by marketing to the extent of their capabilities. However, considering the limited financial means of destinations and the reticence of tour operators planning departments to invest in new products, the careful selection of such resources is necessary. Research in the opinions of the existing clientele that looks for their proposals to enrich the product is the best method to assure the most effective allocation of the available budgets.

For a tour operator to consider the enrichment of its product and the expansion of its offer some basic practical business requirements must be fulfilled. Requirements that can operate as a stimulus and propel them to design new products. The most important requirement is the possibility to expand their customer base and achieve profits.

In order to meet this requirement a multitude of information and data must be obtained and analyzed. These information and data include the following:

- The destination's existing offer and resources
- The offer and resources should be evaluated as impressive and worthwhile by the prospective visitors in order to be taken into consideration for a future purchase decision
- The tour operator should have already identified the evolving needs and wants of the target markets and be willing to enrich its product to meet them.
- The tour operator should apply proper market research methods to ensure communication with its clientele and the recognition of their needs.

For the design of this research the above considerations where taken into account for the construction of a research instrument, a structured questionnaire, destined to the actual visitor. This questionnaire through its content and structure converted into variables all the above points allowing the testing of specific hypotheses.

The most effective way to answer the issues mentioned is the creation of a research instrument that will transform specific questions into research variables. These questions will ask initially the opinion of the destination's visitors regarding their expectations for the physical and cultural resources and subsequently their evaluations of the same resources after the "consumption" of the chosen package tour. The recording of the difference between the evaluation and the expectation will reveal not only the assessment of the resources but most importantly the measurement of their impressiveness. This element could be considered the guideline for the exploitation and incorporation of these features to enrich the tourism packages of tour operators.

Firstly, we will examine if there are demographic groups, at both phases of expectation and evaluation, which operate as differentiating factors, so as to examine the existence of possible target groups' characteristics and focus on them. Consequently, the differences between evaluation and expectation for every element of the natural and cultural resources and demographic group will be examined.

FORMATION OF THE HYPOTHESES

Therefore, the following sets of hypotheses will be developed and tested.

A. 1st set of hypotheses

The general statement of the hypotheses is:

H0: There are no significant differences among the several demographic categories concerning the expectation about the natural and cultural resources' impressiveness

VS

H1: There are significant differences among the several demographic categories concerning the expectation about the natural and cultural resources' impressiveness

The expectations about the natural and cultural resources' impressiveness consist of 9 variables and concern the several demographic categories, so the above general statement of hypotheses is divided into an equal number of partial hypotheses (see table 1)

H0: There are no significant differences among the several demographic categories concerning the evaluation of the natural and cultural resources' impressiveness

VS

H1: There are significant differences among the several demographic categories concerning the evaluation of the natural and cultural resources' impressiveness

The evaluation of the natural and cultural resources' impressiveness consists of 9 variables and concerns the several demographic categories, so the above general statement of hypotheses is divided into an equal number of partial hypotheses (see table 2).

B. 2nd set of hypotheses

The general statement of the hypotheses is:

H0: There are no significant differences between evaluation and expectation within the demographic categories regarding the impressiveness of the natural and cultural resources

VS

H1: There are significant differences between evaluation and expectation within the demographic categories regarding the impressiveness of the natural and cultural resources

For every one of the 9 variables we calculate the difference D=evaluation – expectation and for every difference we test the hypotheses

H0: D=0

versus the alternative

H1: $D \neq 0$ at the level of significance, $\alpha=0, 05$, $p \leq 0, 05$ (see table 3)

For the testing of the hypotheses, ANOVA analysis and descriptive statistics (paired samples t-test differences) were implemented.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The case study was a mature insular Mediterranean destination and the sample was international first-time visitors. Most of them had booked the package tour from a tour operator. They were chosen by random sampling (from the entire island's visiting population) that gave a reliable sample of 375 respondents (e=5%). All the demographic categories were almost equally represented. The research tool was a dual questionnaire where the first section was completed upon check-in and the last before check-out. The first section allowed us to identify the visitors' expectations for the destination's natural and cultural resources impressiveness while the second one displayed their evaluation for them after the "consumption" of the holiday package.

The questions used a 5-point rating scale that allowed the measurement of impressiveness concerning the natural and cultural resources, 1 being "very unimpressive", 2 "quite unimpressive", 3 "neither impressive, nor unimpressive", 4 "quite impressive" and 5 "very impressive".

FINDINGS

Comments on the expectation

According to the results of ANOVA analysis and regarding the expectations about the impressiveness of the natural and cultural resources it is observed that all the demographic characteristics are differentiating factors. Among them the least differentiating one is the education level, while income and age level are the most differentiating ones. Differences are not observed for the sea and fields.

From a careful observation of the below tables results that the expectations have high ratings for all the resources. All the demographic groups demonstrate high expectations about the impressiveness of the resources sea and mountain and hills. The lower income levels demonstrate higher expectations for the resources under consideration. It appears that they have more expectations from their destination choice since they are the ones seeking the more value for their money. The higher level of education has greater expectations about the impressiveness of the physical environment.

Table 1. Expectations about the Natural and Cultural resources' impressiveness *

		Age			Education level			Income level		
	Total	**under 34**	**35-54**	**55+**	**Secondary**	**Professional**	**University**	**under 20000**	**20000-40000**	**40000+**
Island's capital	3,78	3,77	3,69	3,93	3,82	3,71	3,82	3,87	3,70	3,78
Villages	3,73	**3,63**	**3,69**	**3,87**	3,80	3,63	3,75	**3,83**	**3,63**	**3,76**
Historical areas	3,69	**3,51**	**3,75**	**3,78**	3,76	3,62	3,69	3,79	3,68	3,55
Beaches	3,78	3,79	3,81	3,73	3,81	3,78	3,74	**3,96**	**3,64**	**3,73**
Physical environment	3,84	3,93	3,81	3,81	**3,86**	**3,71**	**3,97**	3,93	3,78	3,81
The sea	4,25	4,25	4,25	4,25	4,23	4,21	4,32	4,31	4,19	4,28
Mountains and Hills	4,23	4,27	4,23	4,19	4,25	4,13	4,32	**4,35**	**4,18**	**4,13**
Countryside	3,91	3,85	3,91	3,97	3,96	3,82	3,95	3,98	3,85	3,92
Fields	3,27	3,37	3,23	3,23	3,26	3,22	3,33	3,31	3,21	3,29

**The significant differences among the ages, level of education and income are highlighted in bold lettering and are the differences which support the respective alternative hypotheses H1 (1st SET of hypotheses) regarding the expectations (ANOVA analysis).*

Comments on the evaluation

According to the results of ANOVA analysis and regarding the evaluations for the impressiveness, the level of education is not a differentiating factor. The level of income, in this case appears to be the more differentiating factor, similarly as with expectations. In accordance with the expectations, the lower incomes have the higher evaluation for the impressiveness of the natural resources.

The lower levels of education consider “quite” and “very” impressive the island capital city, the physical environment, the sea, the mountains and hills and the countryside.

Table 2. Evaluations of the Natural and Cultural resources' impressiveness *

		Age			Education level			Income level		
	Total	**under 34**	**35-54**	**55+**	**Secondary**	**Professional**	**University**	**under 20000**	**20000-40000**	**40000+**
Island's capital	4,03	**4,02**	**3,93**	**4,19**	4,04	3,99	4,05	**4,19**	**3,92**	**3,96**
Villages	3,81	3,75	3,78	3,90	3,81	3,79	3,82	3,93	3,73	3,73
Historical areas	3,79	**3,64**	**3,77**	**3,96**	3,80	3,82	3,75	3,88	3,78	3,67
Beaches	3,73	3,74	3,75	3,68	3,71	3,83	3,62	**3,94**	**3,55**	**3,70**
Physical environment	3,87	4,03	3,83	3,80	3,79	3,83	4,03	4,00	3,81	3,78
The sea	4,35	4,29	4,39	4,33	4,27	4,37	4,42	4,41	4,32	4,29
Mountains and Hills	4,35	4,37	4,31	4,41	4,34	4,30	4,43	4,43	4,28	4,37
Countryside	3,98	3,94	3,96	4,05	4,03	3,92	3,99	4,07	3,90	3,98
Fields	3,24	3,19	3,26	3,25	3,29	3,24	3,18	**3,33**	**3,11**	**3,34**

**The significant differences among the ages, level of education and income are highlighted in bold lettering and are the differences which support the respective alternative hypotheses H1 (1st SET of hypotheses) regarding the evaluation. (ANOVA analysis).*

Comments on the difference between evaluation and expectation

Significant differences are observed for the 5 from the 9 resources examined and there are all positive regarding the total size of the sample. There are alterations for every variable and are all positive apart from this of the beaches. For the purposes of statistical accuracy we will focus mostly on the variables that present statistically significant differences.

Table 3. Significant differences between expectations and evaluations of the Natural and Cultural resources' impressiveness *

		Age			Education level			Income level		
	Total	**under 34**	**35-54**	**55+**	**Secondary**	**Professional**	**University**	**under 20000**	**20000-40000**	**40000+**
Island's capital	**0,24**	**0,26**	**0,22**	**0,28**	**0,23**	**0,26**	**0,24**	**0,31**	**0,22**	0,18
Villages	0,08	0,11	0,08	0,06	0,01	**0,18**	0,06	0,10	0,10	0,01
Historical areas	**0,10**	0,13	0,02	**0,20**	0,05	**0,20**	0,05	0,10	0,10	0,12
Beaches	-0,05	-0,05	-0,06	-0,05	-0,10	0,06	-0,12	-0,02	-0,09	-0,04
Physical environment	0,03	0,10	0,02	-0,01	-0,06	0,12	0,05	0,07	0,03	-0,02
The sea	**0,10**	0,04	**0,14**	0,07	0,04	**0,15**	0,10	0,10	**0,13**	0,01
Mountains and Hills	**0,12**	0,10	0,07	**0,22**	0,09	**0,17**	0,11	0,08	0,10	**0,24**
Countryside	0,07	0,09	0,05	0,07	0,06	0,10	0,04	0,09	0,05	0,06
Fields	-0,02	**-0,18**	0,03	0,04	0,02	0,03	-0,15	0,01	-0,10	0,06

**The significant differences are highlighted in bold and are the differences which support the respective alternative hypotheses H1 (2st SET of hypotheses) regarding the differences between evaluation and expectations for every variable and demographic category.*

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A general finding is that both expectations and evaluations of the natural and cultural resources of the island received quite high ratings.

- With a significant difference from the others the sea and mountains and hills are set apart.
- At the end of the vacations, evaluations are more positive for five characteristics (island's capital, villages, historical areas, sea, mountains and hills).
- The age groups, the level of education and income are factors which seem to differentiate significantly the answers for varying resources.
- However, these demographic characteristics do not influence the change (increase or decrease) of the ratings between expectation and evaluation.
- The demographic characteristics operate as differentiating factors mostly at the expectations phase.
- The higher ages give more positive evaluations for the island's capital, historical areas and mountains and hills.
- More modifications are observed for the older ages while the most of them are observed into the education level professional,

regarding the phase of the comparison between expectation and evaluation.

- While education is the least differentiating factor at both phases separately, at their comparison the category of professional education is influenced positively for 5 out of the 9 elements of the resources, meaning more than the other educational levels or demographic criteria.
- Medium income respondents and professional level of education ones give lower ratings at both phases in relation to the other levels of the specific demographic characteristics. Statistically significant differences are observed more often to the medium incomes.
- Despite the fact that the observed differences between expectations and evaluations are not statistically significant, it must be noted that the resources of beaches present negative modification for the majority of respondents.

In general (a) the resources are considered impressive at both phases, expectation and evaluation, (b) the more positive evaluations concern the island capital, the sea and the mountains and hills, which impress all the respondents without exception and (c) the evaluations for the impressiveness of the cultural resources, meaning the island capital, villages, historical areas etc. have high ratings.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR TOUR OPERATORS' MARKETING

From the above analysis several significant conclusions are derived. First of all the main selling point of the island, specifically the beaches, receives lower evaluation ratings for its impressiveness. A finding that demonstrates the need to preserve the destination's main selling element but also to enrich the product.

The findings are in accordance with the literature review that supports the need to enrich the product and to preserve the natural and cultural resources of a destination. Visitors describe the most significant, but underused, resources of the island as very impressive and specifically more impressive than they expected. Combining this element with the average responses regarding a basic element of the 3S model, the beaches, supports the statement that destination marketers and tour operators alike should attempt to enrich the product, promoting more unique elements associated with the specific destination.

The findings indicate that tour packages can be differentiated to fit the needs of several groups. For example, higher age respondents are more impressed with the resources and therefore they could be approached with packages containing more sightseeing and cultural options. The results indicate that there is a more sustainable future for mass market destinations that involves the enrichment of its stale 3S model and the preservation of their natural and cultural resources.

The existing clientele of the destination could serve as the basis for the future target markets, essentially we want to achieve repeat visits and loyal customers. A large percentage of the destination's future clientele could come from the existing markets, in terms of demographic characteristics, that would purchase tour packages that incorporate and promote the destination's unused features. Considering that maintaining the existing clientele requires less expenses than to approach new target markets, it is in the tour operators and destinations managers interest to enrich their product.

Also, the findings suggest that the opportunity arises for tour operators to approach new clienteles by designing new packages. Meaning that apart from maintaining the existing clientele through the enrichment of the product they can also expand their clientele by designing packages based mostly on environmental and cultural elements. The high expectation and evaluation rates achieved for "mountains and hills", especially for the groups of older ages, professional education and higher incomes could lead to the creation of eco friendly holiday packages offering bird watching, hiking and other country based activities, as well culture based programs. Additionally, the variable "villages" displayed statistically significant positive differences for the total sample of the respondents, supporting the above opinion. Such packages, introducing alternative forms of tourism, can reduce the seasonality problem of the traditional destinations.

Additionally, the above suggestions would help tour operators to maintain their classic target markets, while at the same time comply with the new trends in tourism and demonstrate their environmental and sustainable sensitivities, disproving the general assumptions to the opposite. While local stakeholders clearly share the responsibility, most tour operators realize that their position as intermediaries, working closely with both tourists and tourism service suppliers allows them to shape the tourism product of a destination and the policies applied regarding the environment and sustainability (Swarbrooke, 1999; Budeanu, 2005; Font and Cochrane, 2005).

However, the achievement of the above goals requires a series of prerequisites in matters of personnel training, product management and marketing, cooperation with local providers and suppliers and cooperation with local authorities and organizations. As Badeley and Font (2011) note, the application of more sustainable practices often stumbles on communication problems between the tour operators and their requirements from local suppliers and more often than not on the low cost approach tour operators have, that passes the cost of sustainability to local suppliers. On the case study, Ionian Eco Villagers, analyzed by Sigala (2013), networking and collaboration between individuals, teams, enterprises, associations and national or regional organizations emerged as essential for the successful application of sustainable and alternative tourism activities. An additional and welcome future development would be increased professionalism in the management of attractions and resources.

However, it is the responsibility of the tour operators' product development department as well as the local authorities to record the impression of the natural and cultural resources, through research, and make them worthy of a visit by incorporating them into tour packages and making the necessary promotional actions, respectively.

In any case the training of the personnel on sustainability issues is imperative. Their training should focus on the selection of destinations which have the potential to offer the components that can minimize the environmental, economic and cultural impacts and on the incorporation of ecological and cultural elements into the holiday package which will be in accordance with the target –markets' demand. Font and Cochrane (2005) explain that the management of sustainable holiday packages necessitates the assessment of the various components of a tour (accommodation, transport services, excursions, natural and cultural resources), in order to determine their potential environmental, social and economic effects, minimize the negative and maximize positive effects to the environment, the local communities and the destination's economy in general.

TOI (Tour Operators Initiative, 2003) suggests that tour operators can support suppliers in their efforts to be more sustainable by raising their awareness on sustainability issues and providing feedback on performance so that they can learn where and how to make improvements. Additionally, they can offer technical support for sustainability actions and create incentives for high performance using contractual procedures to enforce the requirements.

From the above it is clear that the enrichment of the tour operators' product and the application of sustainable elements in their packages is not just an ethical issue but also a sound business decision. Future research is necessary in order to expand on the issue and test the application of the findings in various destinations and resources.

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PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST AS AN ANTECEDENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR: FINDINGS FROM LODGING ENTERPRISES IN TURKEY

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Two concepts that have just made their way into research on management of tourism enterprises are perceived organizational trust (POT) and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Trust and citizenship behaviours of employees have become a central variable in regard to the well-being of organizations. Although the studies of these subjects have increased markedly in the past decade little effort has spotlighted on the relationship between POT and OCB from the point of tourism sector. Therefore in this study the relationship between POT and OCB is examined in Turkey with 412 participants. The analyses found support for 7 hypotheses, including support for a strong relationship between POT and OCB. Contrary to expectations, there were no significant differences between some dimensions of OCB and POT. By the help of findings it is expected to contribute to the theoretical studies in the field of tourism.

Keywords: *Perceived Organizational Trust, Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, Tourism Sector, Lodging Enterprises.*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is obviously an applicable concept for tourism sector, especially for lodging enterprises. To begin with, as Van Dyne and LePine (1998) suggested helping is beneficial for all organizations since roles are generally interdependent and employee cooperation facilitates overall performance. This argument is valid especially in lodging enterprises which are commonly characterized by high levels of interdependence in most functional areas.

Secondly, the importance of managing human resources which can help to increase competitiveness of organizations has also become a vital feature in the success of tourism enterprises. As is known human resources play a significant role in tourism sector and this is as well the answer of the question "why human resources demand special attention?"

The primary reason for this importance is that the services are perceived as inseparable from their providers (Nadiri and Tanova, 2010). Previous researchers have shown that OCB could influence customer loyalty due to improved employee-customer interaction (Bell and Menguc, 2002; Suh and Yoon, 2003; Armario et.al, 2004). Moreover Waltz and Niehoff (1996) found support for their hypothesis (in their study of 34 limited-menu restaurants) that OCB is positively related to organizational performance. Bienstock, et.al, (2003) examined 49 fast-food restaurants and found that OCB was positively related to the extent to which service was delivered according to organizational standards. Additionally similar results were found in studies of Stamper and Van Dyne (2001; 2003) which examined the relationships between OCB and organizational culture in family and chain-owned restaurants.

With the help of previous researches it can easily be understood that OCB are valuable and beneficial work behaviours from an organizational perspective. But what can organizations such as hotels do to build a work environment that elicits OCB? The antecedents of OCB may be numerous some of which can be listed as job satisfaction (Williams and Anderson, 1992), employee mood (William and Wong, 1999), organizational justice (Moorman, Blakely and Niehoff, 1998; Konovsky and Pugh, 1994).

In this study perceived organizational trust (POT) had been chosen as an antecedent of OCB since it is assumed that there exist a very strong relationship between POT and OCB. Since OCB is likely to make enhanced personal and professional outcomes possible, trustworthy managers may be more likely to encourage their subordinates to engage in citizenship behaviours that help them to achieve organizational goals (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff and Blume, 2009). Thus, OCB may possibly emerge from employee trust.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Organizational trust

Trust is an extremely vital component of the organization and the term has been the focal point of quite a few studies on organizational theory (Pillai et al, 1991; Mayer, et al, 1995; Brockner et al, 1997; Lane and Bachmann, 1998; Dirks, 2000; Dirks and Ferrin, 2001; Ugboro, 2003). Furthermore early organizational scholars such as Argyris, Likert and McGregor professed trust to be an important hallmark of effective organizations (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001). Moreover in the studies related with trust the term is typically linked to risk taking, positive expectations and vulnerability.

There are several definitions related to the subject of trust in the literature. For ex. Rousseau et al. (1998:395) defined trust as "*a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another"*. Mayer, et al. on the other hand (1995:712) identified trust broadly as "*the motivation of a party to be open to to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party"*. While there are many definitions of trust in the literature Tschannen-Moran (2001) suggested that there exist no less than five components of trust gathered from the literature which are benevolence, reliability, competency, honesty and openness.

In view of the fact that the organizations are also formed by individuals the definition and dimensions of organizational trust are extremely similar to interpersonal trust. For ex. Cook and Wall (1980) define organizational trust as "*the extent to which one is willing to ascribe good intentions to and have confidence in the words and actions of other people*".

According to Dirks and Ferrin (2001) the existence of trust between members of an organization can contribute to the increased efficiency of various organizational tasks. Moreover it is also suggested that trust is beneficial because it facilitates the effects of other determinants on desired outcome.

Studies of trust in organizations generally presented trust as a variable that influences or is influenced by one or more organizational variables and trust has been demonstrated to be an important predictor of organizational outcomes such as OCB (Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Van Dyne et al., 2000; Wong et al, 2006), employee commitment Brocker et al., 1997; Pillai et al., 1991; Ugboro, 2003), and other workplace attitudes, behaviours and performance issues (Jones and George, 1998; Mayer et al., 1995).

Then again it is remarkable that in the studies concerning organizational trust a variety of dimensions have been used. Doesn't matter what the dimensions are, it can be easily understood from the previous researches that employees are more satisfied with their work if they sense that management can be trusted to do what is necessary. This outcome should direct managers towards exercising the ways to increase the level perceived trust of their employees.

Organizational citizenship behaviour

Current researches show that successful organizations derive benefit from employees who do more than their daily duties (Podsakoff et al., 2009) and these behaviours are essential for organizations since it helps the accomplishment of organizational goals (Fisher, McPhail and Menghetti, 2010).

Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) can be defined as individual behaviours that are discretionary and not rewarded directly by the organization (Organ, 1990; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997; Turnipseed and Rassuli, 2005; Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006;

Chiang and Hsiesh, 2012). In other words employees who show OCB not only do their obligations but also initiate voluntary actions beyond their work roles which mean they are helping others without waiting for any rewards, doing a better job, making an effort above and beyond formal requirements, and filling the gap between procedures and regulations. According to Organ (1988) this definition of OCB reflects a "good soldier syndrome".

By reviewing the relevant literature of OCB it can be easily seen that there exist a lack of consensus about the dimensions. Furthermore researchers consider that OCB is a multidimensional construct and OCBs can be divided into two main groups as affiliative and challenging OCB (Williams and Nadin, 2012). The literature mostly examines the affiliative OCB (Bettencourt, 2004). Choi (2007) lists affiliative dimensions as helping behaviour, sportsmanship, loyalty, self-development and civic virtue. Although OCB can take several forms, five main dimensions have been generally suggested and established in the literature (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al, 1990; Niehoff and Moorman, 1993; Konovsky and Organ, 1996; Allison, Voss and Dryer, 2001) as altruism, civic virtue, courtesy, sportsmanship and conscientiousness. Altruism can be defined shortly as behaviours that have the effect of helping other individuals. An employee who is readily helping a customer to handle a problem (Podsakoff et al, 1990) can be given as an example for altruism. Civic virtue can be defined as keeping oneself informed on matters that affect the organization whereas courtesy includes actions aimed at preventing work-related problems with others from occurring (Organ, 1988). On the other hand the negative activities which employees avoid from doing even though he/she has right to do so are considered under the sportsmanship dimension (Organ, 1990). Lastly the behaviour that goes beyond the minimum role requirements such as punctuality (Organ, 1988) is a specific definition of conscientiousness.

Last but not the least Podsakoof et al, (2000) emphasized that OCB contributes to organizational performance by increasing worker or managerial activity, enabling the organization to adapt effectively to environmental changes, strengthening the organization's ability to retain the best employees and releasing resources.

Although previous researches suggested several consequences of the effect of POT and OCB separately on different organizational issues, there are considerably few researches dealing with the effect of POT on OCB. Moreover, neither of these researches is from tourism domain. Researches examining the main effects of trust on OCB are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Researches associated with the effects POT on OCB

Year	Author(s)	Thesis Related to POT and OCB
1990	Podsakoff, et al.	Trust in leader mediates the relationship between leader behaviour and OCB.
1991	Pillai, Schrieseim and Williams	Trust in leader mediates the relationship between leader behaviour and OCB.
1994	Konovsky and Pugh	Trust in manager mediates the relationship between justice and OCB.
1994	Deluga	Trust building by leader has positive effect on OCB.
1995	McAllister	Trust in co-worker has positive effect on OCB.
1996	Robinson	Trust in organization has positive effect on OCB.

METHODOLOGY

Scale and data analysis

To date, many different instruments have been used to study the trust concept. Rotter (1967) developed a personal trust scale which was purely based on the definition of trust and failed to address the relationship of trust with other organizational factors. Bromiley & Cummings (1993) developed their trust inventory that aims to measure the overall feeling of trust of a group in an organization but failed to consider the group members' positive or negative impact on respondent. These instruments also failed to report adequate psychometric property and validity testing data.

Several sources from the literature were used in preparing the questionnaire for the current research. The survey instrument used in the study was composed of three main parts. The first part had 18 questions which were related to perceived organizational trust (POT). POT was measured by using 12 items developed by Nyhan and Marlowe (1997). In their study, Nyhan and Marlowe used measures of trust in two different dimensions as managerial and organizational trust. Moreover 8 items developed by Cook and Wall (1980) were also added to the research scale as interpersonal trust. Consequently in recent study different measures were taken into account and perception of trust was identified as having three main dimensions as (a) trust to the manager, (b) trust of the organization and (c) interpersonal trust.

The second part included 24 questions that related to organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). For the measurement of OCB, 24 items developed by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) were chosen. OCB was identified as having five dimensions as (a) altruism, (b) courtesy, (c) sportsmanship, (d) conscientiousness and (e) civic virtue.

In the study, the reliability of POT as a whole was measured to be ***0.92*** and the reliability of three different trust dimensions were *0.95* for trust to the manager, *0.82* for trust of the organization and *0.86* for interpersonal trust. On the other side the reliability of OCB was measured to be ***0.82***. The reliability of each OCB dimensions were also measured as following; *0.80* for altruism, *0.81* for courtesy, *0.77* for sportsmanship, *0.86* for conscientiousness and *0.94* for civic virtue.

POT and OCB items used a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The last part was made up of 6 demographic questions including; gender, age, education, department, work experience and gender of the manager. Gender and gender of the manager questions were coded as dichotomous variables (1: female and 2: male) and other questions were measured using a 5-point scale. In order to ensure its adequacy, the pre-test questionnaire was subjected to a random sample of 50 hotel employees.

Data analyses for this study comprised descriptive analyses, factor analysis, correlation analyses and regression analyses. The collected data were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The study as well tested the hypothesized relationships utilizing several tests.

Sample and data collection

The data used in this article was collected from 15 national and international chain hotels in Istanbul, Ankara and Izmir -the three biggest cities in Turkey- that agreed to collaborate in this study. The survey universe was consist of hotel employees from four different departments (front-office, housekeeping, food and beverage, guest-relations) as all chain hotels commonly have the same nature of departmentalization. The logic behind including employees from different departments into the research is the fact that the interactions between the employees and supervisors, managers and co-workers seem to change according to departmental differences. It is expected that this hypothesis will be proven throughout the data.

Due to the lack of consistent data regarding the size of the target population (the exact total number of hotel employees) it was considered to be statistically infinite. The questionnaire was provided by human resource departments of the hotels to the employees. The employees were also informed about the study's purpose in this process.

The research was conducted with the permission of hotel managers; however it was impossible to collect data from all employees working in selected hotels. From each participating hotel approximately 35-40 questionnaires were collected. Out of 800 questionnaires distributed to hotels, 412 of them returned thus the response rate was calculated as 51,5%.

Research Model and Hypotheses

To validate the constructs, the research model was estimated with the factor analysis in which all measurement items were loaded on their expected constructs. Depending on these results the research model was designed as shown in Figure 1.

In this study it is aimed to find out the relationship between perceived organizational trust levels (POT) and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). In this context hypotheses were developed as following:

H_1: POT is positively related to overall OCB.

H_2: Interpersonal trust is positively related to the dimensions of OCB.

- H_{2a}: Interpersonal trust is positively related to altruism.
- H_{2b}: Interpersonal trust is positively related to courtesy.
- H_{2c}: Interpersonal trust is positively related to sportsmanship.
- H_{2d}: Interpersonal trust is positively related to conscientiousness.

H_{2e}: Interpersonal trust is positively related to civic virtue.

H_3: Trust to the manager is positively related to the dimensions of OCB.

H_{3a}: Trust to the manager is positively related to altruism.

H_{3b}: Trust to the manager is positively related to courtesy.

H_{3c}: Trust to the manager is positively related to sportsmanship.

H_{3d}: Trust to the manager is positively related to conscientiousness.

H_{3e}: Trust to the manager is positively related to civic virtue.

H_4: Trust of the organization is positively related to the dimensions of OCB.

H_{4a}: Trust of the organization is positively related to altruism.

H_{4b}: Trust of the organization is positively related to courtesy.

H_{4c}: Trust of the organization is positively related to sportsmanship.

H_{4d}: Trust of the organization is positively related to conscientiousness.

H_{4e}: Trust of the organization is positively related to civic virtue.

H_5: There is a relationship between demographic characteristics and POT.

H_{5a}: There is a relationship between gender and POT.

H_{5b}: There is a relationship between gender of the manager and POT.

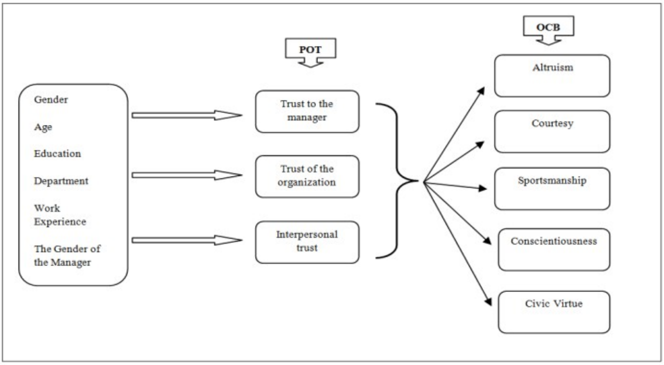
H_{5c}: There is a relationship between age and POT.

H_{5d}: There is a relationship between department and POT.

H_{5e}: There is a relationship between work experience and POT.

H_{5f}: There is a relationship between education and POT.

Figure 1. The Research Model



FINDINGS

Among the 412 respondents, 264 respondents (64%) were female and 148 respondents (36%) were male. 36% of the respondents were aged between 32-37 years. Education levels were fairly high, with over 48% having university degrees or above. The majority (41%) of the respondents had average work experience of 1-5 years. At the same time 92 respondents were from the front office department, 196 were from food and beverage department, 80 were from housekeeping and 44 were from guest-relations department. 194 respondents were working with a female manager whereas 218 were working with a male manager.

In testing model for factor analysis all factor loadings were significant ($p<0.001$). The reliability ranged from 0.72 to 0.95 and the factor loadings of each item on rotated component matrix are demonstrated in Table 2.

Table 2. Results of factor analysis

Constructs		*Factor loadings*	*Reliability*
Perceived Organizational Trust (POT) – Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy: .722			0.92
Trust to the manager	I feel confident that my manager is technically competent at his/her job.	0.90	0.95
	I believe that my manager will take well thought out decisions about his/her job.	0.87	
	I think that my manager will follow through on assignments.	0.86	
	I feel that my manager has an acceptable level of understanding of his/her job.	0.85	
	I believe that my manager is doing do his/her job in an acceptable manner.	0.85	
	I believe everything my manager tells to me.	0.83	
	I feel that my manager is doing his/her job without causing other problems.	0.82	
	I believe that my manager is thinking through what he/she is doing on the job.	0.79	
Trust of the organization	I feel that this organization threats me fairly.	0.78	0.82
	The level of trust between managers and workers is very high in this organization.	0.72	
	The level of trust among the people I work is very high in this organization.	0.83	
	The degree to which we can depend on each other in this organization is very high.	0.82	
Interpersonal trust	I have full confidence in the skills of my coworkers.	0.82	0.86
	Most of my coworkers would get on with their work even if managers were not around.	0.81	
	I can rely on other workers not to make my job more difficult by careless work.	0.80	
	If I got into difficulties at work I know my coworkers would help me out.	0.79	
	I can trust the people I work with to lend me a hand if I needed it.	0.78	
	Most of my coworkers can be relied upon to do as they say they will do.	0.78	
Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) - Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy: .888			0.72
Altruism	I help others who have been absent.	0.77	0,71
	I help others who have heavy workloads.	0.76	
	I help orient new people even though it is not required.	0.73	
	I willingly help others who have work related problems.	0.67	
	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to others.	0.66	
Courtesy	I take steps to try to prevent problems with other workers.	0.80	0,83
	I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's job.	0.78	
	I do not abuse the rights of others.	0.72	
	I always consider the impact of my actions on coworkers.	0.71	
	I try to avoid creating problems for coworkers.	0.71	
Sportsmanship *(R: reversely coded)*	I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	0.79	0,78
	I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.	0.73	
	I tend to make "mountains out of molehills".	0.71	
	I always find fault with what the operation is doing.	0.70	
	I always talk about leaving my job.	0.68	
Conscientiousness	I am always at work on time.	0.80	0,81
	I do not take extra breaks.	0.78	
	I obey company rules even when no one is watching.	0.72	
	I am one of the most conscientious employees in this organization.	0.69	
	I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.	0.64	
Civic virtue	I always attend meetings that are not mandatory.	0.90	0,79
	I attend functions that help the company image.	0.83	
	I keep abreast of changes in the organization.	0.74	
	I keep up with organization announcements.	0.71	

Primarily a correlation analysis was conducted to detect any significant difference between POT and OCB. Table 3 contains the results of the correlation analysis. The findings of the current study suggested that a strong positive correlation was found between the independent and dependant variables ($r=.645$ and $p<01$). As the results of the study supported the hypothesized relationship between POT and OCB, H1 was accepted.

Afterwards H_2 was examined through the correlation analysis to reveal the relationship between interpersonal trust and different dimensions of OCB. A positive correlation was found only between interpersonal trust and sportsmanship ($r=0,246$ and $p=0,001$). Other OCB dimensions (altruism, courtesy, conscientious and civic virtue) were not related to interpersonal trust. Eventually H_{2c} was supported for sportsmanship and other dimensions of OCB (H_{2a}, H_{2b}, H_{2d} and H_{2e}) were rejected.

The same analysis is carried out to find the relationship between trust to manager and OCB dimensions. A positive correlation was found between trust to manager and civic virtue (r=0,164 and p=0,005). $H3_e$ was supported for civic virtue whereas it is rejected for other dimensions ($H3_a$, $H3_b$, $H3_c$ and $H3_e$).

Table 3. Correlations among the study variables

		POT	OCB	Trust to man.	Trust of org.	Interpersonal	Altruism	Courtesy	Sports-manship	Consci-entious	Civic Virtue
POT	Pearson	1	,645**								
	Sig(2-tailed)		,000								
	N	412	412								
OCB	Pearson	,645**	1								
	Sig(2-tailed)	,000									
	N	412	412								
Trust to man.	Pearson	,867**	,586**	1							
	Sig(2-tailed)	,000	,000								
	N	412	412	412							
Trust of org.	Pearson	,831**	,385**	,561**	1						
	Sig(2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000							
	N	412	412	412	412						
Interpersonal	Pearson	,564**	,157*	,268**	,426**	1					
	Sig(2-tailed)	,000	,042	,000	,000						
	N	412	412	412	412	412					
Altruism	Pearson	,149*	,615**	,143	,136	,064	1				
	Sig(2-tailed)	,004	,000	,052	,064	,384					
	N	412	412	412	412	412	412				
Courtesy	Pearson	,047	,623**	,019	,109	,013	,333**	1			
	Sig(2-tailed)	,512	,000	,801	,136	,861	,000				
	N	412	412	412	412	412	412	412			
Sportsmanship	Pearson	,197**	,420**	,105	,170*	,246**	,043	,062	1		
	Sig(2-tailed)	,000	,000	,153	,020	,001	,563	,399			
	N	412	412	412	412	412	412	412	412		
Conscientious	Pearson	,024	,364**	-,023	,053	,068	,131	,190**	-,007	1	
	Sig(2-tailed)	,740	,000	,760	,471	,358	,074	,000	,921		
	N	412	412	412	412	412	412	412	412	412	
Civic Virtue	Pearson	,146*	,672**	,164*	,136	,019	,238**	,341**	,096	,452**	1
	Sig(2-tailed)	,004	,000	,005	,063	,800	,001	,000	,192	,000	
	N	412	412	412	412	412	412	412	412	412	412

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Moreover a positive correlation was found between trust of the organization and sportsmanship (r=0,170 and p=0,020). $H4_c$ was supported for sportsmanship and $H4_a$, $H4_b$, $H4_d$, $H4_e$ were rejected.

On the other hand T Test and Anova Test were conducted to analyze the significant differences in participants' perceptions of organizational trust according to their demographic characteristics such as gender, age, education level, work experience, department and gender of the manager. T Test was applied to analyze the difference in participants'

POT in relation to their gender and gender of their managers. Anova Test was conducted to see the difference in participants' POT in relation to their age, education level, work experience and departments. The results can be observed in Table 4 for T Test and Table 5 for Anova Test.

T test results demonstrated that there is no significant difference between POT and gender (p=0,227) and POT and gender of the participants' manager (p=0,672). H5a and H5b were rejected.

Table 4. T Test results for difference in participants POT in relation to gender and gender of their manager

Gender		**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**t**	**P**
POT	Female	264	3,7218	,72249	-,837	,227
	Male	148	3,8114	,65618	-,861	
Gender of the manager		**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**t**	**P**
POT	Female	194	3,7506	,70232	-,051	,672
	Male	218	3,7559	,70025	-,065	

Table 5. Anova Test results for difference in participants' POT in relation to age, education level, department and work experience

Age		**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**F**	**P**
	20-25	21	2,81			
	26-31	63	3,24			
POT	32-37	148	3,96	215	2,268	**0,000**
	38-45	127	3,39			
	46 and more	53	3,21			
Education Level		**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**F**	**P**
	Primary	0	0			
	High school	62	2,11			
POT	2-year College	117	2,32	215	1,125	0,346
	University	198	2,41			
	Post Graduate	35	2,10			
Department		**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**F**	**P**
	Front Office	92	3,75			
POT	F&B	196	2,98			
	Housekeeping	80	2,01	215	1,432	**0,000**
	Guest Relations	44	3,81			
Work Experience		**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**F**	**P**
	Less than 1 year	24	2,30			
	1-5 years	167	2,21			
POT	6-10 years	108	3,92	215	1,511	**0,000**
	11-15 years	60	3,17			
	16 years and more	53	2,56			

According to Anova Test results a difference was detected between POT and age of the participants (F=2,268 and p=0,000). The Tukey Test was also carried out to analyze the differences between groups. The figures suggested that those who were between 32-37 ages have the highest perception of trust levels than other age groups (H_{5c} was supported). Another test conducted for any difference in the participants' POT according to their department suggested that those who have worked in front office and guest relations have higher POT that those who have worked in food & beverage and housekeeping departments (F=1,432 and p=0,000). So H_{5d} was supported. A further difference was detected between POT and the participants' work experience. The results showed that those who have 6-10 years of experience have the highest level of POT (F=1,511 and p=0,000) which means H_{5e} was supported. No significant difference was detected between POT and education level of the participants (H_{5f} was rejected).

Moreover the R^2 values were used in order to find out what percentage of total change in the dependent variable was due to the independent variable dimensions. The determination factor was found to be r^2: 0,622 which showed that 62% of OCB were dependent on POT. All three dimensions of POT were affecting OCB of the participants in the regression analysis and their Beta (β) levels were as follows: trust to manager ($p=0,000$ and $\beta=0,474$), trust of organization ($p=0,001$ and $\beta=0,371$) and interpersonal trust ($p=0,001$ and $\beta=0,173$).

CONCLUSION

The main objective of this study was to find out the relation and interaction between perceived organizational trust (POT) and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) of employees at lodging enterprises. In this context, the regression analysis results suggested that employees' POT would have a positive impact on their OCB levels. Therefore existing research carried out in the context of the lodging enterprises seems to support the existence of a relationship between POT and OCB. In terms of demographic characteristics, no links had been established between gender and POT and gender of the manager and POT, whereas significant differences had been found between age-department-work experience and POT. The results implied that hotel employees who perceived high levels of trust to manager, trust of organization and interpersonal trust were more willing to perform citizenship activities.

Interdependence is an obligation while working together since people must mostly depend on others to achieve organizational goals. Therefore, managers need to have a better understanding of the role of perceived organizational trust (POT) and its consequences in the lodging enterprises. Since OCB has positive outcomes for employees and the organization itself, lodging enterprises' managers should pay more attention to increase the levels of POT which could also raise the levels of OCB of employees and in this way decrease undesirable negative behaviours.

Consequently, there were several limitations in this study. First is the absence of mediating variables (such as perceived organizational support or justice, turnover intentions) that could help to explain particularly why POT affects OCB in lodging enterprises. Secondly, since all data for the current study were collected from one country, the results may not be generalizable to other employees in different countries. Future studies may test if the inclusion of any mediators in the model changes or not, the relative importance of the relationship between POT and OCB.

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TOURISM MARKET RESEARCH IN SPANISH HIGHER EDUCATION: ETYMOLOGICAL ISSUES

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Tourism market research appears to have increased its academic presence with the introduction of the new university degree in Tourism in Spain. The term tourism market research is widely accepted. However, there is some controversy regarding the use of the terms of market research and commercial research. In some cases, conceptual differences are posed between the two terminologies, while in other cases, a greater equity is advocated. We try to understand the basis of these differences, concluding that the two terminologies have their own limitations, so it would be advisable to use a more appropriate and enlightening term..

Keywords: *marketing, tourism market research, commercial research*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

In 1996 tourism degree studies were included in the Spanish higher education (HE) system, introducing a new period for training professionals in the sector and opening up new possibilities for research development in the tourism field (Cervera-Taulet & Ruiz-Molina, 2008). Following to Munar and Montaño (2009), when the Bologna Declaration was signed in 1999, Spain's HE system had three levels: the first level had 3 year programmes entitled *diplomaturas*, degrees that did not provide access to any upper HE level. All tourism studies in Spain belonged to this level. The second level, *licenciado*, had 5 to 6 year programmes and provided access to doctoral level. No tourism degree was offered at this level. The final level was that of *doctorate*. No doctoral degree in tourism was offered.

In Spanish Higher Education, Tourism Market Research has been an optional subject in the Curricula of the Tourism Diploma (*diplomatura*). The adoption of the European Higher Education Area seems to boost the participation of this subject in the new Tourism Degree. Specifically, the White Paper of the Tourism Degree, developed by the National Agency for Quality Assurance and Accreditation (ANECA, 2004), proposes ten knowledge scopes that represent different academic approaches to tourism. A knowledge scope devoted to areas that may tackle the social or market research is indicated among them.

The subject Tourism Market Research has been given as a compulsory subject for the first time in the University of Seville in academic year 2011-2012. It is a compulsory subject because it must be taken by all the students registered in the Degree. It is a third year subject of the Tourism Degree and consists of 6 ECTS. The teachers of that subject are the authors of this paper. However, this subject is not included in every curriculum of those Spanish universities imparting the Tourism Degree. For instance, among the nine public universities of Andalusia, this subject is taught only in the universities of Cordoba, Malaga and Seville. That is, the subject is imparted in three of the eight universities that currently offer the Tourism Degree. The subject is compulsory in the three universities mentioned. In Spain, the subject is present in the curricula of less than half of the universities. We believe this subject should have a greater academic participation in Andalusia and Spain due to the transcendence of tourism in our country and the need for training the students and enhancing their interest in tourism research.

Tourism Market Research belongs to marketing discipline (defined in Spain, more specifically, as the area for commercialization and market research). The concept of tourism market research may be widely accepted by the academic community, but the term or nomenclature from which it comes reveals its inaccurate use. The linguistic root of that term in marketing literature is *market research*, although the term *commercial research* is also used. In tourism, when it is required to generalize, it may be more accurate to use the term *tourism market research* rather than *tourism commercial research* or *commercial research in tourism*. However, when this process of generalization is limited, the expression *commercial research of a tourism business* is perfectly valid. There is no doubt that the words *commercial* and *tourism* do not really match and require a greater linguistic distance in order to make them clearly understandable.

Obviously, the terms *tourism research* or *research in tourism* are misused for identifying the tourism market research. In this case, research is referenced broadly, comprising any disciplinary or operation scope. The concept of *social research in tourism* also shows the same dilemma, although in a more restricted manner, since this type of tourism research refers to any discipline in the field of social sciences.

To this point, the question arises whether the term *tourism market research* is accepted in the academic community, especially due to resonance or appearance, or it is possible to spread its acceptance mainly for conceptual reasons. In this sense, this paper is focused on the etymology of *tourism market research.* That is, we intend to explore the origins of the term in order to explain, from a greater conceptual background, the reasons by which the terminology used may be accepted or rejected.

This study is an exercise of theoretical reflection, structured in the following epigraphs. First, we try to highlight the semantic divergence about the terms *market research* and *commercial research*. The following epigraph is focused on justifying the reasons of this divergence. And finally, in conclusion, we try to provide solutions that bring the different academic postulates closer.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As previously mentioned, the term *tourism market research* seems to have some consistence in the academic scope versus other similar terms, but we believe it is justified only by matters of form and not background. This is obvious considering the lack of consensus between the implementation of *market* and *commercial research*. In Spain at least, controversy raised between authors, researchers and specialists in the field, which is based on the different ways of understanding these two terms. This way, marketing literature in Spain frequently points out the dichotomy of identifying or not both terms as synonyms. Commercial research is proposed to include market research, but it is also accepted that both terms are concepts that cover the same or almost the same.

As we said, many prestigious Spanish authors, both academics and professionals, have shown their differences about equalizing the terms *market research* and *commercial research.* On the one hand, some authors claim that the concept of commercial research is wider than *market research*, as the last is focused only on knowing the target market (e.g., Miquel, Bigné, Cuenca, Miquel & Lévy, 1999; Pedret, Sagnier & Camp, 2000; Díez & Landa, 2002; Santesmases, 2004; García, 2005). So, for instance, Pedret et al. (2000) state that *commercial research* comprises the study of any problem or chance, no matter if a market is investigated or not. In this case, performing a competition study could be an example, but there is no doubt that the market is the aspect organizations study the most.

On the other hand, some authors consider that *commercial* and *market research* are identical terms (e.g., Ortega, 1990; Ferré, 2003; Fernández, 2004; Trespalacios, Vázquez & Bello, 2005; López-Bonilla & López-Bonilla, 2012). In this case, it is stated that the concept of market is wider than that of target market. It must be highlighted that Trespalacios et al. (2005) defend the greater preponderance of the term *market research,* since, as they indicate, it is the original concept and it is generally used at an international scale.

These are the two positions clearly adopted in the marketing literature in Spain. The balance either favors the equality of both terms or gives more importance to commercial research. A third possibility is not arguable, as so would be that the concept of market research was wider than that of commercial research. Interestingly, a study performed by Landa et al. (2001) indicate that there are a slightly higher percentage of Andalusian managers who believe that market research is conceptually more encompassing than commercial research.

And why would we not think that market research may not be wider than commercial research? To do this, we can consider the differences between the words “market” and “commercial”. As we know, the market is the main core of attention of any organization in the development of a marketing activity in today´s world. Thereby, if an organization performs a study on its competitors, it is probable that the competitors analyzed are those who supply the same market to which that organization is directed to or intends so. If so, all “commercial” studies end up in the ocean of “market”. For instance, competitors or distributors are not studied separately without connecting them to the main body that is the current market or organization potential. In short, as Ferré (2003) suggests, the aim of market research is to obtain factual data about the market in any of its aspects.

Following to Butazzi (1970) and Ortega (1990), this divergence in the terminology used is greatly due to language. Interestingly, both authors hold opposing stances regarding the duality presented in the previous epigraph. So, for instance, Butazzi (1970) states that market research is a pointlessly restrictive expression that, according to the strict meaning of the word, it may refer only to market study.

The word *marketing* was admitted in our official vocabulary not long ago. In the nineties of the XX century, this word was still understood by the Royal Academy of Spanish Language as a voice of English origin that was translated to our language as *mercadotecnia*. Besides, the marketing subject was initially gathered in the university curricula with the term *mercado* (market), which was later replaced by *mercadotecnia* until the term *marketing* was consolidated these days, as it is incorporated with more emphasis in the current undergraduate and postgraduate curricula.

As we know, the concept of marketing developed from the Anglo-Saxon, especially from the United States. But the apparent confusion we may have in our language does not seem to exist in the Anglo-Saxon countries. However, the Anglo-Saxon handbooks of marketing have been translated from a clear orientation toward the use of the terminology *market research*. This is evidenced by the Spanish titles of books from prominent North American authors like Malhotra and Burger (1997), Aaker and Day (1989), Kinnear and Taylor (1989), Malhotra (1997), Zikmund (1998) and Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2004). All these books include the English words *Market Research* in their original titles. Besides, the contents thereof are not limited exclusively to studies of the target market.

To this point, the question arises about which came first, commercial or market research. Which was the first term adopted? Where was it adopted? Perhaps looking over the history we may search for answers in greater depth. Sánchez, Mollá and Calderón (1999) performed an interesting study on the evolution and conceptual development of commercial or market research. Ten evolution stages are established in this study, which are divided in decades regarding the most relevant attributes. We believe other stages focused on the evolution of the terminology used could be added, in line with these stages of the development of the subject content. This way, we will establish four evolution stages, which are origin, transition, determination and reinforcement. In Table 1 we intended to summarize the main events that describe these four stages, marking them chronologically.

The origin of this concept appears in the 1910s. Specifically, Charles Coolidge Parlin was one of the pioneers as he first created, around 1911, a research department at the Curtis Publishing Company, which was known as the *Commercial Research Division*. Around the same time, Professor Duncan, from the University of Chicago, wrote the first important handbook about the subject, whose title was *Commercial Research: an Outline of Working Principles*. The transition stage of the terminology began in the 1920s. The concept of market as a key element for analysis grew in this decade. One of the main contributions in this period was brought by White in 1921, through his book *Market Analysis: its Principles and Methods*. In the 1930s, more important contributions were brought by different authors, like Lazarsfeld in 1934 with his book: *The Psychological Aspect of Marketing Research* and Brown in 1937 with his book: *Market Research and Analysis*.

Table 1. Evolution stages of market research

STAGE	PERIOD	MILESTONE
Origin	1910s	Charles Coolidge Parlin (Curtis Publishing Company) creates a research department known as *Commercial Research Division*
		Prf. Duncan (University of Chicago) publishes a handbook named *Commercial Research: An Outline of Working Principles*
Transition	1920s	The idea of market as a key concept (White, in 1921, and others authors)
Determination	1930s	The *American Marketing Association* (AMA) is created in 1937. Introduction of statistical methodologies
Reinforcement	1970s	The concept of marketing widens (Kotler, in 1967, and others authors)

Source: own elaboration

Now, the determination stage may be located from the introduction of statistical methodologies in the academic literature, at the end of the 1930s. In this stage, a remarked milestone is the founding of the *American Marketing Association* (AMA), which represents a symbol in the development of the scientific literature used in marketing. With this endeavor, the Association published in 1937 a handbook named *The Technique of Marketing Research*, in which various relevant authors participate, like Wheeler, Balzari and Lazarsfeld. This period of determination may be justified also through the ideas of Zaltman and Burger (1980), who state that in the 1940s a subtle but important change occurred in the concept, which evolves from the term *market research* toward *marketing research*. The meaning of this change is justified by the greater research activity in the management environment, which is directly related to the decision-making of the organization. This idea may be inspired on the book of Blankenship and Heidingfiels, 1947, named *Market and Marketing Analysis*, in which they distinguish market analysis from marketing analysis.

Last, a reinforcement stage must be highlighted from the boost and widening of the concept of marketing in the 1970s. Obviously, all the American authors mentioned before belong to this time (Zaltman & Burger, 1980; Aaker & Day, 1989; Kinnear & Taylor, 1989; Malhotra, 1997; Zikmund, 1998; Hair et al., 2004). However, there is no doubt that Philip Kotler should be included among the main spreading authors. Kotler´s book: *Marketing Management* in 1967, as well as its successive editions, has become a classic in the marketing literature and also the most influential book in this subject, as confirmed by Professor Cruz in the prologue of the most recent Spanish edition (Kotler, Cámara, Grande & Cruz, 2003).

But the evolution of the terminology has its foundation in the United States, and not so much in Europe. In the European continent, the proliferation of studies and organizations related to the subject is appreciable from the Second World War. It is odd how in countries like France, Holland, Great Britain or Italy professional institutes and organizations appear, with the word *market* highlighted in their initials as the main element. However, the *European Society for Opinion and Marketing Research Association* (ESOMAR) was created in 1948, as an organization that protected the codes of ethics in applied research. It is possible that in Europe, as well as in other countries out of North America, the term *market research* may have developed in a special manner due to a slower evolution of the concept of *marketing*, mainly, as we observed in the stages previously mentioned.

The term *commercial research* seems to be more characteristic of Spain and its language. The use of this terminology may avoid confusion regarding the application areas involved in such research. However, the term *commercial research* is not so precise, especially considering the conceptual evolution of marketing. Since the 1970s, the concept of marketing involves a number of fundamental transformations, one of them being the growth of marketing activity toward all types of organizations, both lucrative and non-lucrative. In this sense, commercial research is more likely to be related to business organizations, while social sectors should also be considered.

Spanish and Spanish American authors do not have to adopt exactly the same words the Anglo-Saxon do in the theoretical or practical development of the subject. Of course we can use our own terminology, but it is not advisable to put our own obstacles when moving forward in knowledge. It makes no sense that we create our own terminology attempting to facilitate comprehension and then the opposite happens, entering this dilemma. We know that *market* is the most relevant concept in marketing literature. However, the term *market* is not enough to assemble the whole concept of *marketing*, and this last term is already recognized in our language since not too many years. However, the term *market research* has taken deep root in the academic and professional tradition and keeps its linguistic strength. But, is it beginning to be obsolete? Or is it necessary to define its borderlines in more detail?

CONCLUSIONS

From the analysis of the history evolution of *commercial research* and *market research*, we have extracted a semantic evolution of the terminology, in which we observed four stages. Obviously, these stages make more sense in the country where the concept of *marketing* originated and developed. At the first stage the terminology appears and the term *marketing* has no validity. In the second stage, known as "transition stage", the concept *market* is emphasized. The third stage, known as "determination stage", involves the differentiation of the terms *market* and *marketing,* being the last the most relevant. And finally, in the fourth, "reinforcement stage", the terminology adopted must match the current dimensions of the concept of *marketing.* As we observed, these four stages are clearly distinguished in the United States but not in Europe. Perhaps in Europe, in general, the stages of "determination" and "reinforcement" are not definitely closed yet. Perhaps, as Tribe (2006a, 2006b) argues, tourism knowledge is still in a pre-paradigmatic stage.

Taking stock of this, we detected two clear directions in Spain regarding the use of the terminologies *market research* and *commercial research.* One of them could be called *translator´s tendency*, and it is based on the belief that *market research* is the prevailing concept. The other direction, which could be called *adapter´s tendency*, is based on the belief that *commercial research* is wider than *market research.* However, both directions show certain limitations.

Almost all authors, Spanish and non-Spanish, agree that the most commonly accepted definition of *market research* or *commercial research* is the one provided by the American Marketing Association (AMA) in 1987, which is the function that links the consumer, the client and the public to marketing managers through information. This is only the first part of the definition, but it is enough to appreciate that it highlights the connection between two poles, which are the organization and its market. Therefore, all the information that an organization tries to obtain in order to make its marketing decisions comes from the market, directly or indirectly.

With certain doses of eclecticism, it may be assumed - taking a sentence of Suárez (1996) - that the terms *commercial research* and *market research* are close to being synonyms. Thus, we could think that it is not necessary to be so purist about the use of the language. Or maybe it is in this case? Thereby, we can go further in our will to reach a semantic consensus, guided by the words of Pedret et al. (2000), who estate that the concept of *commercial research* is as wide as the concept of *marketing* could be.

In this way, we have already adopted in Spain other terms with similar linguistic structures that suggest that the use of the adjective "commercial" is weak compared to the noun "marketing"; for instance, the concept of "plan de marketing" (marketing plan), "dirección de marketing" (marketing management), "sistema de información de marketing" (marketing information system) or "entorno de marketing" (marketing environment). Can we say that a marketing plan is wider than a commercial plan? And that marketing management includes commercial management? And that the marketing environment is greater than the commercial environment? At least, it seems to be. Confirming these conceptual differences is not enough for better understanding marketing, but they must also be appreciable at a glance.

On the other hand, an example of the formal differences between *commercial research* and *market research* appears in the area of tourism. In this case, the term *tourism market research* is clearly used in the presence of other similar terms due to the sound or aesthetics of the language.

The terminologies c*ommercial research* and *market research* present some deficiencies, as we intended to show. Thus, should we compare and decide which of the two terms shows greater deficiencies? It is not necessary; as neither of them is a precise term and this should be enough for us to adopt an eclectic attitude as we commented above: they are close to being synonyms. Or, they could rather start being synonyms in the Spanish marketing literature in the near future.

Collaboration between Anglo-Saxon and Spanish authors, from Latin-American or other countries, could be a good way of reaching a linguistic consensus, as it occurs in the book of Kotler et al. (2003). But, being purist about the use of the language, the most precise term would be *marketing research* or *tourism marketing research*. This terminology is not widespread yet in the Spanish-speaking world, although it has been already used previously in the translation of some handbook (e.g., Dillon, Madden & Firtle, 1996) or in the work of some renowned Spanish author (e.g., Luque, 1997). In short, the use of this terminology may remove all the deficiencies observed in the terms *commercial research* and *market research*.

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PUBLIC PERCEPTION ON PROMOTING SUSTAINABLE ECOTOURISM AT GUNUNG RENG AREA, JELI DISTRICT, KELANTAN, MALAYSIA

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Gunung Reng area is one of interesting places in the state of Kelantan, Malaysia. It is located in Batu Melintang sub-district, along the East-West Expressway in Jeli district in the northwestern corner of Kelantan. Though the local people designated Gunung Reng as a 'gunung' (the Malay word for 'mount'), it is not a mount in the true definition but it is actually a mogote hill towering above the flat alluvial topography. This study is to discuss the public perception on promoting sustainable ecotourism at this area. This study was carried out by distributing 30 questionnaires to different respondents which consist of local government staff, local communities and visitors (foreign and domestic) to see their perception on the attitude, awareness, and the way to conserve this ecotourism sites.

Keyword: *Public perception, sustainable ecotourism, attitude, awareness, conservation, Gunung Reng, Jeli District, Kelantan.*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Tourism has developed greatly to become one of the world's important economic phenomena (Marzuki *et. al.,* 2011). One of the tourism forms which has been growing rapidly over the last decades is ecotourism. There are actually various definitions of ecotourism. The first broadly accepted and valid definition was established by The International Ecotourism Society (TIES, 1990) that defined ecotourism as *"responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people."*

Ecotourism is a sub-component of the field of sustainable tourism. Ecotourism began as an idea that many hoped could contribute to the conservation of natural resources worldwide. The prime motivation in ecotourism is the observation and appreciation of natural features and related cultural assets (Wood, 2002). Cristina (2004) stated that several objectives of ecotourism are learning, studying or participating in activities that do not bring negative effects to the environment; whilst protecting and empowering the local community socially and economically.

Gunung Reng has been gazetted as a recreational park in Kelantan, Malaysia. It is famous for its beautiful scene and myth. This study is to explain the public perception mainly on the attitude, awareness, and the best way to conserve this ecotourism spot.

ECOTOURISM IN MALAYSIA AND KELANTAN

Malaysia is rich of natural and cultural assets that are beneficial for tourism, especially ecotourism. Malaysia has been listed as one of the twelve mega-biologically diverse countries in the world, which has at least 15,000 species of flowering plants, 286 species of mammals, 150,000 species of invertebrates and 4,000 species of fishes in addition to the countless micro-organisms. Malaysian tropical rainforest is millions of years old and covering 60 per cent of the land mass. Malaysia offer tourists to experience more activities related to the nature such as hiking, jungle tracking, bird and bat watching and caving (Lehan, 2008).

According Marker *et. al.* (2008), Malaysian government has been pursuing ecotourism since the mid-nineties. The development of government policies on ecotourism is set up in the following policies:

1. The National Ecotourism Plan 1995, which identifies 52 potential sites for ecotourism in Malaysia and suggests that Malaysia has a great potential for ecotourism. It further

identifies a number of policies that the government can undertake to strengthen the industry.
2. Seventh Malaysia Plan 1996-2000, which intends to let the private sector implement the bulk of the National Ecotourism Plan.
3. Eight Malaysia Plan 2001-2005, for which the government stepped up its efforts in ecotourism. It wanted to provide policy guidelines for sustainable development, make sure that products offered match the changing demand and by promoting Malaysia as an ecotourism destination.
4. Ninth Malaysia Plan 2006-2010, under which the government seems to increase its efforts on ecotourism and sustainable travel. The government also plans to upgrade and make more ecotourism activities and facilities available.
5. Government promotion, by which the government promotes Malaysia as an ecotourism destination.

The state of Kelantan has a lot to offer for ecotourism as it has many natural resources and features like flora and fauna diversity, hills, caves, waterfalls, and dense jungles. Although ecotourism have some advantages for conservation and development of natural heritages, but lack of the attention on tourism development, lack of the experience on ecotourism planning and finance problem are amongst the significant constraints for ecotourism development in Kelantan (Adriansyah et al, 2013).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials of the research include map, photographs and literatures related to ecotourism and the study area. Methods comprise field observation and questionnaire survey. Field observation has been done several times to see the actual situation and condition of the study area. Questionnaire survey was carried out by distributing 30 questionnaires to different respondents which consist of local government staff, local communities and visitors (foreign and domestic) to see their perception on the attitude, awareness, and the way to conserve this site for the purpose of promoting sustainable ecotourism.

GUNUNG RENG AS AN ECOTOURISM SITE

Gunung Reng (GPS reading of coordinate: $5^0$43’0”N, $101^0$44’38” E) is located in Batu Melintang sub-district, along the East-West Expressway in Jeli district in the northwestern corner of Kelantan, Malaysia, or near Kelantan – Perak state border and Malaysia – Thailand international border (Figure 1). Though the local people designated it as a *'gunung'* (the Malay word for 'mount'), it is not a mount in the true definition but it is actually a mogote hill towering above the flat alluvial topography (Figure 2).

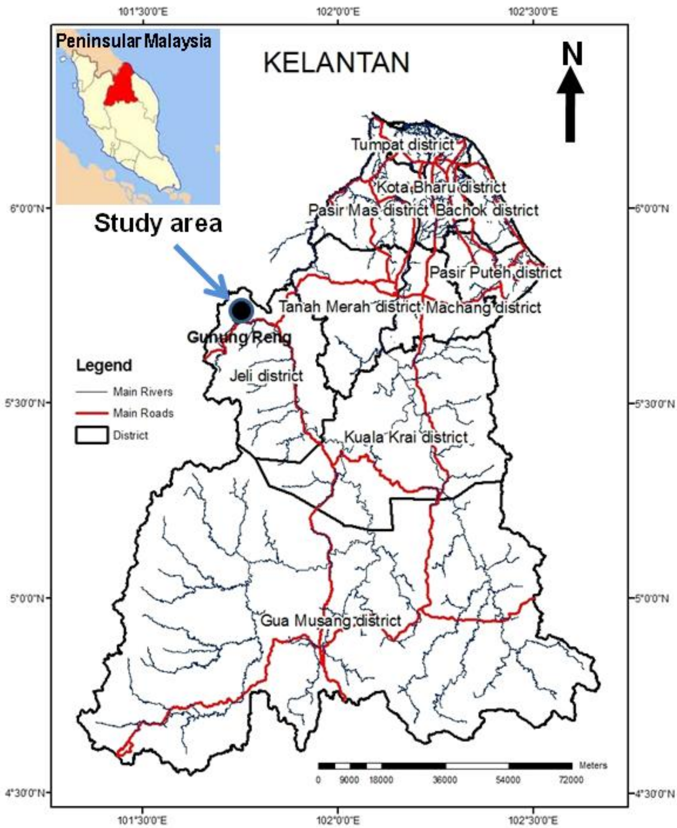

Figure 1. Location map of Gunung Reng area, Jeli District, state of Kelantan, Malaysia.

Its beautiful landscape and some unique features that occur in the area attract visitors to come there. This hill is composed of metamorphosed limestone (marble) sitting on the intrusive body (granitic rocks) and surrounded by quarternary alluvial deposits. The hill possesses some caves, where the main cave (Figure 3) go through the top of the hill. There are some interesting features inside the cave, such as stalagtite and stalagmite (Figure 4). The caves are the places or habitats for bats and doves. Another attraction of the area is the Pergau River (the main and the largest river in the district of Jeli) flowing through the south of the hill which significantly beautify the area.

Figure 2. Gunung Reng area (camera facing northwest)

Figure 3. The main cave of Gunung Reng (camera facing north)

Figure 4. Some unique features (decorations) inside the cave such as stalagtite and stalagmite (this photograph was taken from inside the main cave facing outside or the mouth of the cave, camera facing south).

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This recreational area is also equipped by the authority with some infrastructures such as mosque, community hall, playground, parking lot, public toilets and food stalls (Figure 5). Because of its spectacular natural beauty and uniqueness, it is proper that Gunung Reng become the icon of tourism in Jeli District.

Figure 5. Some facilities and infrastructures provided by the authority to support the tourism activities in Gunung Reng area, such as mosque, community hall, playground, parking lot and food stalls.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 30 questionnaires were distributed randomly to three different categories of respondents, they are local government staff (5 respondents), local communities (8 respondents) and visitors (17 respondents) in Gunung Reng and its surrounding areas. The questionnaire was designed to study on attitude, awareness and the best way to conserve the site. The results of the survey are presented in the following tables (table 1 to table 9).

Attitude

Table 1. The survey of public attitudes in the ecotourism site of Gunung Reng from the category of local government staff (S).

Question	Frequency	Mean, M	Percentage of Respondents (%)
Littering			
-Yes	0	0	0
-No	5	1	100
-Not sure	0	0	0
Vandalism activity observed			
-Yes	4	0.8	80
-No	1	0.2	20
-Not sure	0	0	0
Clean up the site after doing activity			
-Yes	4	0.8	80
-No	1	0.2	20
-Not sure	0	0	0
Follow the rules			
-Yes	4	0.8	80
-No	0	0	0
-Not sure	1	0.2	20

N (S) = 5, N=Total number of respondents, S=local government staff; Mean, M = Σ (X) / N

Table 2. The survey of public attitudes in the ecotourism site of Gunung Reng from the category of local community (C).

Question	Frequency	Mean,M	Percentages of Respondents (%)
Littering			
-Yes	1	0.125	12.5
-No	5	0.625	62.5
-Not sure	2	0.25	25
Vandalism activity observed			
-Yes	4	0.50	50
-No	2	0.25	25
-Not sure	2	0.25	25
Clean up the site after doing activity			
-Yes	6	0.75	75
-No	2	0.25	25
-Not sure	0	0	0
Follow the rules			
-Yes	5	0.625	62.5
-No	2	0.25	25
-Not sure	1	0.125	12.5

N (C) = 8, N=Total number of respondents, C=local community; Mean, M = Σ (X) / N

Table 3. The survey of public attitudes in the ecotourism site of Gunung Reng from the category of tourist (T).

Question	Frequency	Mean, M	Percentage of Respondents (%)
Littering			
-Yes	2	0.117	11.7
-No	13	0.764	76.4
-Not sure	2	0.117	11.7
Vandalism activity observed			
-Yes	11	0.647	64.7
-No	5	0.294	29.4
-Not sure	1	0.059	5.9
Clean up the site after doing activity			
-Yes	14	0.824	82.4
-No	1	0.059	5.9
-Not sure	2	0.117	11.7
Follow the rules			
-Yes	12	0.705	70.5
-No	2	0.117	11.7
-Not sure	3	0.176	17.6

N (T) = 17, N=Total number of respondents, T= tourist;
Mean, M = Σ (X) / N

The attitude of the local government staff, local community, and tourists at Gunung Reng is considerably good. Based on the questionnaire survey, almost all respondents are tending to show their good attitude in several aspects, for example, they choose not to litter the rubbish everywhere (total 23 out of 30 respondents). For the vandalism activity, most of respondents (total 19 out of 30) observed the vandalism activity at the Gunung Reng, especially at the wall of the hill. There are observable vandalism activities that can be seen clearly and it may affect the tourist perception and affect tourist attraction to the place (Figure 6).

The local staff, local community and tourists tend to clean up the sites after doing the activity at Gunung Reng area (total 24 out of 30). Some activities usually done by the visitors, such as camping and recreation with family and friends. Last but not least, almost all respondents want to follow the rule regulated in the area (total 21 out of 30).

Figure 6. Vandalism observed in the wall of Gunung Reng hill.

Awareness

Table 4. The survey of public awareness in the ecotourism site of Gunung Reng from the category of local government staff (S).

Question	Frequency	Mean, M	Percentage of respondent
Importance of ethics			
-Yes	5	1	100
-No	0	0	0
-Not sure	0	0	0
Implemented activities will rise awareness			
-Yes	5	1	100
-No	0	0	0
-Not sure	0	0	0
The most appropriate way to implement public awareness*			
-Newspaper	2	0.4	40
-Advertisement	4	0.8	80
-Internet / webpage	0	0	0
-Social media	3	0.6	60

**Multiple responses permitted*

N (S) = 5, N=Total number of respondents, S=local government staff; Mean, M = Σ (X) / N

Table 5. The survey of public awareness in the ecotourism site of Gunung Reng from the category of local community (C).

Question	Frequency	Mean, M	Percentage of respondent
Importance of ethics			
-Yes	7	0.875	87.5
-No	1	0.125	12.5
-Not sure	0	0	0
Implemented activities will rise awareness			
-Yes	8	1	100
-No	0	0	0
-Not sure	0	0	0
The most appropriate way to implement public awareness*			
-Newspaper	4	0.5	50
-Advertisement	6	0.75	75
-Internet / webpage	6	0.75	75
-Social media	3	0.375	37.5

**Multiple responses permitted*

N (C) = 8, N=Total number of respondents, C=local community;
Mean, M = Σ (X) / N

Table 6. The survey of public awareness in the ecotourism site of Gunung Reng from the category of tourist (T).

Question	Frequency	Mean, M	Percentage of respondent
Importance of ethics			
-Yes	16	0.941	94.1
-No	1	0.059	5.9
-Not sure	0	0	0
Implemented activities will rise awareness			
-Yes	11	0.647	64.7
-No	3	0.176	17.6
-Not sure	3	0.176	17.6
The most appropriate way to implement public awareness*			
-Newspaper	6	0.353	35.3
-Advertisement	8	0.471	47.1
-Internet / webpage	5	0.294	29.4
-Social media	5	0.294	29.4

**Multiple responses permitted*

N (T) = 17, N=Total number of respondents, T= tourist;
Mean, M = Σ (X) / N

The level of awareness among local staf, local community and tourists are high respectively. This is because majority of respondents (total 28 out of 30) assumed that ethics are important when they visit a tourism site.

Almost all respondents (total 24 out of 30) believe that activities carried out at Gunung Reng area are able to encourage the awareness how they should behave in the area. From the survey, we can also know that majority of respondents (total 18 out of 30) believe that the most appropriate way to promote the public awareness to conserve the Gunung Reng area is by advertisement. This is because most people think that media such as television and radio are accessible for all people. Alternative media as the effective ways to implement public awarenes are newspaper (total 12 out of 30), internet/website (total 11 out of 30) and social media (total also 11 out of 30).

Conservation efforts

Table 7. The survey of conservation efforts in the ecotourism site of Gunung Reng from the category of local government staff (S).

Question	Frequency	Mean, M	Percentage of Respondents (%)
This place needs conservation			
-Yes	4	0.8	80
-No	0	0	0
-Not sure	1	0.2	20
The authority cares and concerns the effects of tourism on an environment			
-Yes	2	0.4	40
-No	3	0.6	60
-Not sure	0	0	0
The most suitable way to conserve this place			
-Monitoring program by the authority	2	0.4	40
-Campaign for clean	2	0.4	40
-Educational program for local community	1	0.2	20
The kind of attraction that invite you to the site			
-Historical Value	3	0.6	60
-Nature Landscape	2	0.4	40
-Sports Events	0	0	0
The improvement in the future			
-Price	0	0	0

-Accommodation	2	0.4	40
-Activity	2	0.4	40
-Buffer Zones	0	0	0
-Policy and Act	1	0.2	20

N (S) = 5, N=Total number of respondents, S=local government staff; Mean, M = Σ (X) / N

Table 8. The survey of conservation efforts in the ecotourism site of Gunung Reng from the category of local community (C).

Question	Frequency	Mean, M	Percentage of Respondents (%)
This place needs conservation			
-Yes	8	1	100
-No	0	0	0
-Not sure	0	0	0
The authority cares and concerns the effects of tourism on an environment			
-Yes	3	0.375	37.5
-No	2	0.25	25
-Not sure	3	0.375	37.5
The most suitable way to conserve this place			
-Monitoring program by the authority	3	0.375	37.5
-Campaign for clean	4	0.5	50
-Educational program for local community	1	0.125	12.5
The kind of attraction that invite you to the site			
-Historical Value	4	0.5	50
-Nature Landscape	3	0.375	37.5
-Sports Events	1	0.125	12.5

The improvement in the future			
-Price	0	0	0
-Accommodation	3	0.375	37.5
-Activity	3	0.375	37.5
-Buffer Zones	1	0.125	12.5
-Policy and Act	1	0.125	12.5

N (C) = 8, N=Total number of respondents, C=local community; Mean, M = Σ (X) / N

Table 9. The survey of conservation efforts in the ecotourism site of Gunung Reng from the category of tourist (T).

Question	Frequency	Mean, M	Percentage of Respondents (%)
This place needs conservation			
-Yes	14	0.823	82.3
-No	0	0	0
-Not sure	3	0.176	17.6
The authority cares and concerns the effects of tourism on an environment			
-Yes	6	0.35	35
-No	6	0.35	35
-Not sure	5	0.30	30
The most suitable way to conserve this place			
-Monitoring program by the authority	3	0.176	17.6
-Campaign for clean	8	0.47	47
-Educational program for local community	6	0.353	35.3
The kind of attraction that invite you to the site			
-Historical Value	9	0.53	53
-Nature Landscape	8	0.47	47
-Sports Events	0	0	0

The improvement in the future			
-Price	1	0.059	5.9
-Accommodation	5	0.30	30
-Activity	3	0.176	17.6
-Buffer Zones	2	0.118	11.8
-Policy and Act	6	0.35	35

N (T) = 17, N=Total number of respondents, T= tourist;
Mean, M = Σ (X) / N

From the survey conducted, it shows that most respondents (total 26 out of 30 respondents) agreed that this site needs conservation. They think that because of its natural features, flora and fauna, so this site should be conserved for sustainable development. Some respondents (total 11 out of 30) agreed that the authority cares and concerns about the effect of tourism on an environment. Some others (also total 11 out of 30) are disagree and the rest said that they are not sure with the situation.

The most suitable way to conserve the site according to the survey is by the campaign for the clean (total 14 out of 30). This campaign is important to protect the site and all its features from dirtiness and destruction, so it will conserve the site as the sustainable tourism destination. Other alternative ways for conservation of the area which were suggested by other respondents are through monitoring programmes by the authority (total 8 out of 30) and educational programmes for the local community (also total 8 out of 30).

There are some reasons why people want to come to the area. Based on the survey to the respondents, the first reason is its historical value (total 16 out of 30). The second reason is that people want to enjoy its nature landscape (total 13 out of 30). Another reason why this area is so attractive is the potential for sport activity here such as swimming and rafting (total only 1 out of 30).

Some efforts are needed to be done for the improvement of this area in the future. From the survey, we can know that the first choice of improvement is ‘accommodation’ (chosen by total 10 out of 30 respondents). It is followed by the improvement in term of ‘activity’ (total 8 respondents), ‘policy and act’ (total 8 respondents), ‘buffer zones’ (total 3 respondents), and ‘price’ (total only 1 respondent).

CONCLUSION

In general, we can conclude that public's attitude and awareness on Gunung Reng area are considerably good. Most of people whom we surveyed (consist of local government staff, local community and tourists) show their support to conserve this place for the future benefits. Only few respondents show the negative response in conserving this area. This is probably due to lack of information on the importance of ecotourism site.

This site needs conservation efforts by promoting sustainable ecotourism such as the campaign for cleaning the site, monitoring programmes by the authority and educational programmes for the local community.

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APPENDIX

Table A-1. Type of respondents based on gender on survey of public perception on promoting sustainable ecotourism in Gunung Reng area, Jeli, Kelantan, Malaysia.

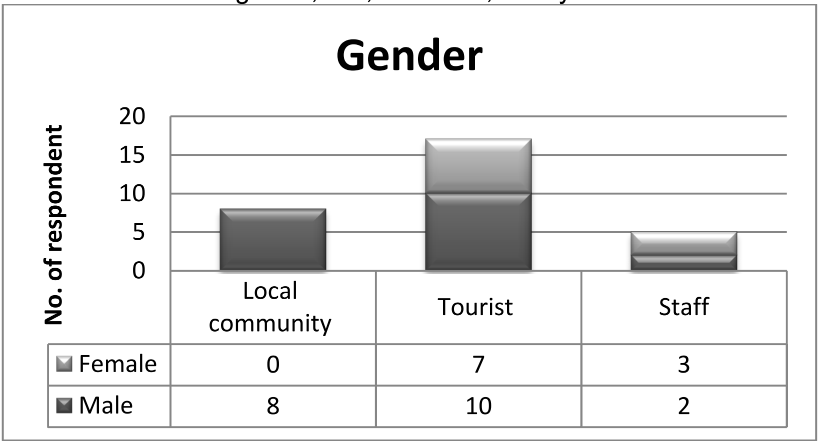


Table A-2. Type of respondents based on ages.

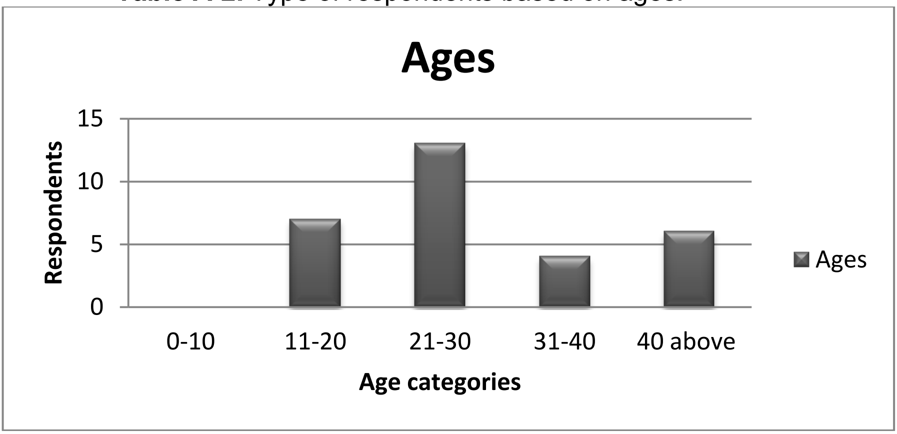
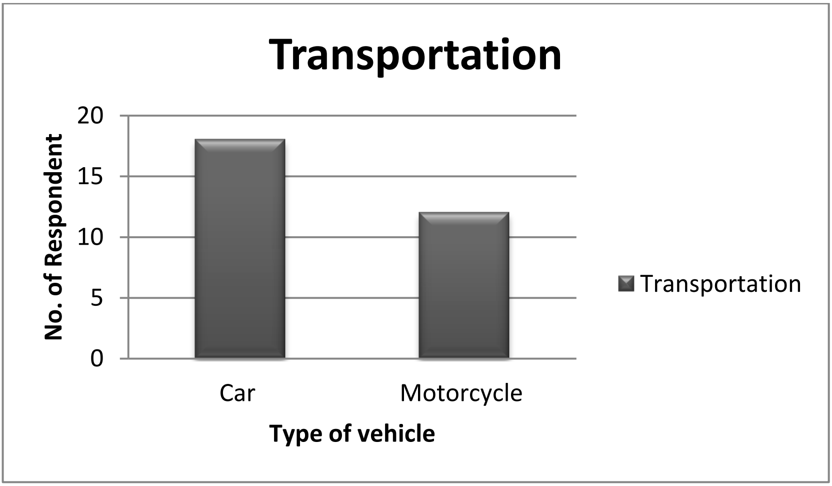


Table A-3. Type of transportation used by respondents to visit the site



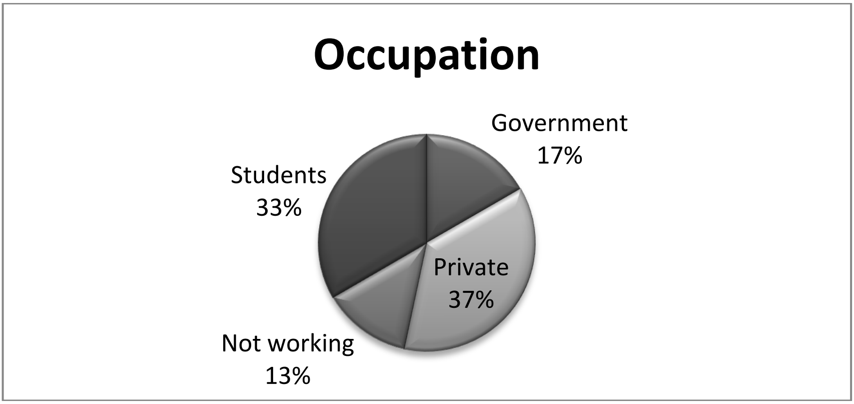


Figure A-1. Pie chart of respondents' occupations.

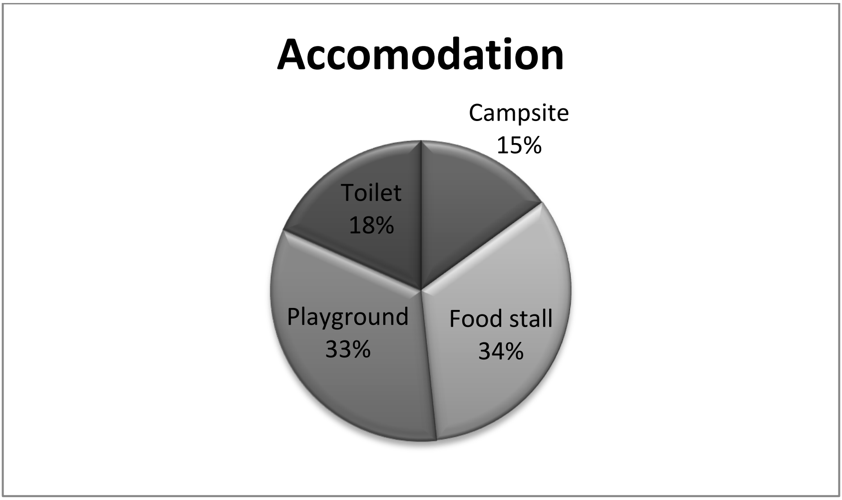


Figure A-2. Accommodation that provided at the site based on respondents' votes.

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Questionnaire

Title: Public Perception on Promoting Sustainable Ecotourism in Gunung Reng Area, Jeli District, Kelantan, Malaysia.

Survey for mini project of subject of Tourism and Natural Resources Management (ENT 3174). All results are confidential.

Objective: To study the impact of public's attitudes and awareness for promoting sustainable ecotourism in Gunung Reng area from the perception of local government staff, local community and tourists in conservation of the area.

Part A: General Information

1. Gender: ☐ M ☐ F	2. Age: __________	3. Nationality / State: __________________
4. Occupation: ☐ Government ☐ Private ☐ Not working ☐ Student		
5. Purpose of visitation: ☐ Hiking ☐ Jungle Trekking ☐ Nature/Wildlife Observation ☐ Educational Trip ☐ Research/Work ☐ Leisure/Holiday ☐ Business ☐		
6. How many times have you visited before? ____ Will you visit again? ☐ Yes ☐ No * If no, why? ____	7. How do you know about this place? ☐ Brochure/Magazine/Newspaper ☐ Media (TV, radio, etc) ☐ Internet ☐ Friends	
8. Duration of visitation: ____(hour/day/week/month/year)		
9. Types of accommodation during visitation: ☐ Chalet ☐ Campsite ☐ Others: ____________________		
10. Number of people during visitation: ________ With: ☐ Family ☐ Friends ☐ Others: _____________________		
11. Transportation used: ☐ Car ☐ Motorcycle ☐ Taxi ☐ Bus ☐ Others: _________________		

Part B: Analysis of public's attitudes and awareness in conservation and management for promoting sustainable ecotourism in Gunung Reng area, Jeli District, Kelantan, Malaysia.

a. Yes b. No c. Not sure

1. Do you throw rubbish everywhere if you couldn't find suitable place for throwing it?
   a. b. c.
2. Do you think ethical manner is important during the visit to Gunung Reng area?
   a. b. c.
3. Have you ever seen vandalism attitudes at this area?
   a. b. c.
4. Do you want to clean up this place after doing some activities (camping, picnic, etc...)?
   a. b. c.
5. Does this place need conservation?
   a. b. c.
6. In your opinion, does the activity in Gunung Reng area give awareness to the tourists?
   a. b. c.
7. Do you follow any rule and regulation that provided by the administration?
   a. b. c.
8. Do you think that the authority care and concern the effects of tourism on an environment?
   a. b. c.
9. Level of satisfaction during the visit:
   ☐ High ☐ Medium ☐ Low
10. What is the most suitable way to conserve this place?
   ☐ Monitoring programme by the authority
   ☐ Educational programme for local community
   ☐ Campaign for clean
11. Which is the best way to promote the public awareness to conserve this place?
   ☐ Newspaper ☐ Advertisement ☐ Internet/website
   ☐ Social/Network

12. What kind of attraction that invite you to this site?
 Historical Value Nature Landscape Sporting events
Nightlife Mountain Climate
13. Improvement in the future:
Price Accommodation Activity Promotion
Buffer Zones Cleanliness Policy and Act

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ACHIEVING AUTHENTICITY THROUGH ETHNIC TOURISM, A CONSUMER PERSPECTIVE

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Ethnic tourism is considered a unique type of tourism since it enables the tourist to experience and learn about other cultures through their traditions, customs lifestyle and practice. Authenticity is an important concept in ethnic tourism studies. This article examines tourists' participation in ethnic attractions and products, and the levels of satisfaction with their experiences based upon empirical research conducted in number of Nubian villages which still exist north of the Dam. Field research was done through visiting, interviewing some of the local people and observing their lifestyle. A survey of 600 visitors to Nubian villages was also conducted, only 560 questionnaires were valid to analysis out of which 89.2% was international and 10.8% was domestic. The study finds out that authenticity is a major concern among international tourists. Although it was the first experience for large number of tourists but they have different reasons for getting through this experience.

Keywords: *ethnic tourism, authenticity, Nubian heritage*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry has been affected by globalization. This new phenomena paved the way towards new dimensions in the tourism industry, as well as the appreciation of past cultures and traditions. Obviously, this made tourist destinations try to diversify their supply and offer new types and techniques to fulfill these demands. Ethnic tourism is considered a unique type of tourism since it enables the tourist to experience and learn about other cultures through their traditions, customs lifestyle and practice. Authenticity is an important concept in ethnic tourism studies as well as a critical issue in tourism practice.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Ethnic tourism

Ethnic tourism is "travel motivated by search for the first hand, authentic and sometimes intimate contact with people whose ethnic and /or cultural background is different from the tourists" (Sanyal, 2011). Ethnic tourism is considered a unique type that enables the tourist to experience the practices of another culture, and may include performances, presentations and attractions portraying presented by small, often isolated indigenous communities. Ethnic tourism is related to the more popularly known nature or eco-tourism. In which people visit a region, usually in a third world country, in order to enjoy its natural beauty. Nature tourism can also imply social awareness because it "creates an understanding of cultural and natural history, while safeguarding the integrity of the ecosystem and producing economic benefits that encourage conservation" (Anderson, 1994).

These traditional groups of people live in a unique blend with the environment; they interact and depend upon it. Because of the ethnic groups' dependence on the environment, it is difficult to separate ethnic tourism from the landscape in which it occurs. For the visitor it is an enjoyment of the environment and the experience of the primitive, simple, ethnic tourism. From the visitor's point of view, ethnic tourism is "travel motivated by the search for the firsthand, authentic and sometimes intimate contact with people whose ethnic and/or cultural background is different from the tourists" (Anderson, 1994). Ethnic tourists are also motivated by the desire to see some of the "endangered" cultures which may rapidly disappear through absorption into the nation's majority. The visitor's experience usually includes opportunities to see and take pictures of people in their traditional dress, observe their living environment and purchase local handmade products.

Features of the ethnic tourists

Tourists do differ in terms of the experience they seek in ethnic tourism situations. Some may see personal ethnic contact as difficult or uncomfortable, while others find great pleasure in such experience. Ethnic tourist needs the product to be "real." It must originate from the proper source, it must be authentic, not packaged (Shopping For Culture & Bringing It Home, n.d). The travelers of ethnic tourism are divided in to four groups. The first group includes people that are mostly interested in having personal contact with ethnic people and are likely to participate in tourism programs that offer such opportunity to experience the primitive, simple and unique way of life. The second group is the passive culture learning group, they are interested in ethnic tourism but prefer experiences that focus on cultural learning rather than personal contact. The third group is more interested in participating in traditional activities; it is called the Ethnic product and activities group. The fourth group is called the low ethnic tourism group, they are most likely to visit the tourism attraction as part of a tour or because someone else in their social gathering wanted to visit. They are interested in ethnic tourism experiences (Anderson, 1994).

Ethnic tourism in Egypt

Egypt's population is fairly homogeneous, with around 98% being Arabic speakers Other ethnic groups include Berbers, Nubians, Bedouins, and Beja (1%), and a small number of Europeans such as Greek, Armenian, French, and Italian (Defence language institute foreign language centre, 2007). In considering the case of the Egyptian Nubian, it is important to first explain who are they as a people and where do they live. In general the Nubians are a group of Egyptian people that are unique and different in their cultures and beliefs. They are an indigenous group who adopted their lives and culture with the natural environment that surrounds them. Nubia is located in southern Egypt and northern Sudan. It was divided into two main regions: Lower Nubia and Upper Nubia. Lower Nubia was the northern region extending nearly 400 km from the First Nile Cataract to the area around Semna and the Second Cataract (southern Egypt). Upper Nubia extended upriver along the Nile to the Sixth Cataract and Khartoum (central Sudan) (Redford, 2001, Ancient Nubia Press Kit, 2006).

The modern inhabitants of southern Egypt and Sudan still refer to themselves as Nubians. They speak the Nubian language as well as Arabic.Their native villages extended along the Nile River from the first cataract at Aswan south into the Sudan through the region known as Dongola (Fernea, 1973).The Nubian people are a major ethnic group that has resettled along the Nile in Upper (southern) Egypt after being dislocated by the construction of the Aswan High Dam. Linguistically, they can be divided into two groups, which are the Kenuz, who speak a dialect of Matoki , and the Fadicca, who speak a dialect called Fadicca .(Poole, n.d) .In the 1960's, a dam was constructed at Aswan, to provide electricity for all of Egypt and push the country into the 21st century. It created the largest ever man-made lake which permanently flooded ancient temples and tombs as well as hundreds of modern villages in Nubia In doing so; forty-six villages were moved to Kom Ombo. One hundred thousand people were moved to a new location, no longer on the Nile River. It was the end of Nubia (Rizk, 2005). Today, few struggling villages, with just a few hundred residents, remain, while the others have been changed. These villages sit just below the High Dam. Its people live in their traditional, brightly colored domed concrete and rock houses. They have kept their language alive after and support their families by selling Nubian handmade products to the tourists who arrive each day to capture a shot or a picture of a civilization which is diminishing.

Lifestyle and traditions

Nubians have distinct traditions, architecture, and languages. Nubia contains dozens of sites of archaeological interest, including temples, as well as fortresses and tombs. In old Nubia, men migrated to the big cities to find work, while the women farmed the land, cared for the animals, and did household tasks Today, since the land is located far from their homes, men do most of the fieldwork while the women work at the home. Some women have also found employment as schoolteachers, public service workers, and seamstresses (Pik, n.d).

The typical Nubian house is very spacious, with several large rooms. In the center of each home is an open courtyard. The Nubian house begins with guest's sitting room which has a door that opens directly to the street. The house is furnished with number of wooden benches and decorated with palm leaves plates and mats hung on the wall. Also baskets made of palm leaves are hung from the ceiling for keeping food away from animals and insects. Most of the Nubian houses are painted white with lime from outside and decorated by drawings of elements from the nature like fish and, palm trees (Higazy, n.d).The front of the house is painted with colorful geometric patterns. Most of the paintings and decorations on the homes have religious implication they also hang mummified fish and crocodiles and other animals on their doors so as to drive away evil spirit or protect them against the evil eye. The colorful designs are a distinctive and admired feature of Nubian culture.

A Nubian wedding ceremony often lasts for 40 days, with a long series of ceremonies According to traditions; the groom has to present several gifts, particularly garments for the bride, her mother and sisters. During the wedding ceremony the groom is well-dressed, holding a sword and a belt. The social status of a Nubian is judged by the wealth of land and waterwheels he owns, as well as his noble descent. Performance of prayers, for a Nubian, is evidence to his vividness and an object of pride to his tribe. A Nubian woman normally bears lots of jewelry, all over her body and adorns herself also with tattoos. The Nubian woman is known for her remarkable use of henna and perfumes (Nubian Traditions, n.d.).

Tourism as a tool of preservation of ethnic cultures

Ethnic tourism brings a lot of positive results to local people; it also has a negative side as well (Wu, 2000) .Tourism has proven to be one of the main industries in building the economy in many developing countries. Tourism has traditionally influenced the economic activity of ethnic groups in a wide variety of ways (Willett, 2007).Therefore tourism with its preserved, conserved and sustainable concept can help preserve the Nubian culture as well as develop the economy of these indigenous tribes that live in south of Egypt.

Modernization can be the cause of diminishing the art, handicrafts, housing, clothes, festivals, ceremonies and lifestyles. But with planned sustainable tourism we can implement measures for the conservation of indigenous Nubian culture through their appropriate utilization as tourist resources. Restricting the number of tourists entering the Nubian area to safeguard the identity of the people and prevent cultural conflict can be achieved through the small scale projects of tourism. Sustainable heritage conservation depends upon the commitment and involvement of local communities. It also needs to promote local community stewardship of the heritage as well as providing socio-economic benefits for local communities (Engelhardt and Lane, 2007). From an environmental and economic perspective, if local people are not involved, the resources on which tourism depends will be destroyed and the investment will be lost over time (Brandon, 1996).

Ethnic tourism planning approach

Planning is a decision making process aimed to guide future actions and solve afterward problems. It is a dynamic process that determines goals, set systematic considerations, and alternative actions to achieve prospective goals. And since tourism is an industry with constant and rapid changes, tourism planning has moved from the narrow-minded and rigid concerns to more comprehensive, flexible, responsive, systematic and participatory approaches (Blowers, 1993). Tourism can serve as an agent for socio-cultural development through creating better opportunities for local people, to gain and become a part in the tourism development in their localities. In this case the planning process should be shifted in the direction of preserving the cultural heritage. This plan should be incorporated within the overall development plan for Aswan governorate. Significantly, this part of the land is well gifted with natural resources. It possesses the natural beauty of unique landscape, archaeological sites, and distinctive historic and cultural background. It has been noted by the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) that communities located near major attraction sites, such as natural parks, reserves, archaeological and historic sites, should have the opportunity to participate in tourism. Since these communities can provide hotels, restaurants, shops for souvenirs, transportation and guide services as well as other tourist facilities and services.

One of the successful projects that were established during the last century for preserving the Nubian culture is the Nubian museum. The Museum was built on vertical cliff land and surrounded by Natural Botanical Garden that enables it to make a full scale design for the Nile River from its origins in Ethiopia and Sudan to Egypt. According to the Wikipedia (n.d) the total area of the museum is 50,000 square meters: 7,000 owed for the building, and 43,000 for the grounds. The architecture and design of the Museum and the enclosure walls are intended to induce traditional Nubian village architecture, as it was along the Nubian Nile before the region was flooded by Lake Nasser. The Nubian Museum is part of a wider policy of the Supreme Council of Antiquities. The museum contains three thousand items that was found in the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) missions representing the history of the area from the prehistoric, Pharaonic, Roman, Coptic and Islamic ages, and also examples of the daily life and traditions of the Nubian people, who lost their homes for the continued progress and welfare of the Egyptian nation. The museum also plays the role of the ‘community museum’ through its education section, which organizes school trips around the museum itself and also to neighboring temples (Alamuddin, 2001). The educational department provides various activities for school children such as Pottery workshops, basketry, costume making of different periods represented in the museum, theatres performances in which the children can act small plays and Journal writing workshop that enables children to create a magazine relating their visit to the museum or on any other particular theme they are studying. More over Small exhibitions of the children's achievements are organized annually in the education department (Nubia museum, n.d).

The museum also hosts cultural events that are organized by the Ministry of Culture and recently organized by the Egyptian Opera House for the Nubian artists in the outdoor amphitheatre (Alamuddin, 2001).

METHODOLOGY

A mixed methodology was used which incorporates both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. Mixing these methods enabled us to collect more data and to reach specific conclusions through data analysis.

The methodology depended on:

- In-depth interviews with local people who live in some of Nubian villages.
- Questionnaires were formed and distributed for tourists to gather the data needed with regard reasons for visiting Nubian villages within our cultural tourists' programs and their satisfaction and assessment of the visit.

Field research was done through visiting a number of Nubian villages which still exist north of the Dam, interviewing some of the local people and observing their lifestyle. A survey of visitors to Nubian villages was conducted. Researcher was seeking the following information from the survey.

Socio-demographic information, plus general information about their visit, sources of information, reasons for visit, previous experience with ethnic tourism products in other countries and overall satisfaction with the Nubian experience.

RESULTS

The sample of visitors was surveyed 600 tourists only 560 questionnaires were valid to analysis. The survey showed that most of the tourists visiting Nubian villages are in the age interval 25-34.

Table 1. Respondent profile (Age & sex)

	16-24	25-34	35-45	45+	Total
Male, n	21	126	49	77	273
Female, n	105	105	63	14	287
Total, n	126	231	112	91	560
Percentage	22.5	41.25	20	16.25	100

48.75% are males while 51.25% are females. 448(80%) of visitors are in groups, and 112 (20 %) are individuals. Domestic visitors are very few compared to the international ones. Large number of the sample 495 (88.4%) was international visitors mostly from North America and Europe while 65 (11.6%) was domestic tourists, 258 (46.07%) of the sample had passed through this experience before, while this experience was the first experience for 302 (53.93%) of the sample. While 213(38.03%) of the sample knew about the experience from friends, 235(41.9%) of them knew about it from their own previous visit and 112(20%) from their tourist guide while none of them knew about it from the tour operators in their countries. The survey results were used to group tourists into four main groups as follows:

- Ethnic tourism connection group represents 213 tourists (38.03%)
- Passive cultural learning 145 tourists (25.89%)
- Ethnic products and activities 106 tourists (18.9%)
- Low ethnic interest 96 tourists (17.1%)

Factors which were used to determine different groups of ethnic tourists are the points of interest or reasons for visiting Nubian villages and participating in ethnic tourism attractions were:

- Interest in contact with ethnic people
- Interest in learning about ethnic cultures
- Participation in activities
- Interest in visiting Aboriginal communities in region

The largest group, the Ethnic Tourism Group (38.03%), is most interested in having personal contact with ethnic people and are likely participants in tourism tours which offer such opportunities. The Passive Cultural Learning Group (25.89%) is interested in ethnic tourism but prefers experiences that focus on cultural learning rather than personal contact. The Ethnic Products and Activities group (18.9%) are more interested in participating in traditional activities than in learning about ethnic cultures or having a personal contact with them. The Low Ethnic Tourism group (17.1%) are most likely to visit an indigenous tourism attraction as part of a tour or because someone else in their party wanted to visit.

However, all four groups showed a high to very high level of satisfaction in their visit to Nubian villages and were also interested in further ethnic tourism experiences. Even those with little interest in ethnic tourism products and personal contact with indigenous people reported having an authentic and pleasant experience. One reason for most visitors reporting a high level of satisfaction was due to the very authentic nature of the Nubian village.

Mann-whitney test

This test was used to identify the if there is a difference in answers of the sample that depends on the sex of the individual or if the answers are affected by the individuals sex.

Table 2. Significant difference between the answers of males or females.

Mean Rank		Z	Sig. (P.Value)
Male	Female		
7.5	5.1	0.457	0.648

The above table (2) shows that P.value equales0.648 which is greater than level of significance 5%, this means that there is no significant difference between the answers of males or females.

The same test was used to determine if there is a significant difference in the answers of the domestic and international tourists.

Table 3. Significant difference between the answers of domestic visitors and international visitors

Mean Rank		Z	Sig. (P.Value)
Domestic visitors	International visitors		
8.84	1.16	0.464-	0.048

As shown in table 3 P.Value equals (0.048) which is less than 5%. This means that there is a significant difference between the answers of the domestic and international tourists.

Spearmans rho

This test was used to determine if there is a correlation between the Factors which were used to determine different groups of ethnic tourists which are the points of interest or reasons for visiting Nubian villages and tourist experience.

Table 4. Correlation between the factors which were used to determine different groups of ethnic tourists and visitor experience

Pearson Correlation Factor	P.Value
+ 0.821	0.021

As shown in the above table pearson correlation factor equals (+0.821) which means that there is a strong positive correlation between the factors which were used to determine different groups of ethnic tourists and visitor experience (as one increases, the other also increases).

We can observe also that P.value equals (0.021) which is less than 5%, this means that there is a strong correlation between the above variables.

Chi Square

This test was used to determine if there is a correlation between visitors in groups and different groups of ethnic tourists

Table 5. Correlation between visitors in groups and different groups of ethnic tourist**s**

Pearson Chi Square	Sig. (P.Value)
.089	0.765

As shown in table 5 P.Valus equals (0.765) which is more than 5%, this means that the two variables are independent and there is no correlation between them.

By interviewing some of the local people, they said that they mostly welcome the tourists to visit their villages and enter their houses. All family members participate in welcoming the guests in their houses in several ways. They prepare food and drinks for the tourists and sell traditional handcrafts for them. Some of the house owners have small crocodiles in their house kept in basins. These crocodiles get the attention and interest of the visitors. Tourist represents Dollars for them, as their income depends mainly on tourism. International tourists spend more per visit in the Nubian village than domestic tourists who are mainly students. One negative impact was detected during the visit which is the diminished role of the new, well educated generation in these traditional activities the matter that may threaten the sustainability of this type of tourism.

CONCLUSION

Ethnic tourism is a tool of authenticity. Here the tourist departs from the traditional tourism type that sells programs away from experience, feelings and interaction. It enables the tourist to practice interpersonal and environmental relations immerse and taste the local culture and traditions of the local community. The Nubian community is one of these cultures that attract the tourists very much due to its unique and distinct traditions and architecture. The study finds out that most of the tourists were interested in seeing the culture, traditions and way of life of such people in their local area. Although a large number of the tourists knew nothing about the Nubian Culture before coming to Egypt, they have different reasons for getting in contact which such people. All tourists showed a high level of satisfaction in their visit to Nubian villages and were also interested in further ethnic tourism experiences. Tourism brings a lot of positive results to local people; it also has a negative side as well. Modernization can be the cause of diminishing of art, handicrafts, housing, clothes, festivals, ceremonies and lifestyles. But with planned sustainable tourism we can succeed in the conservation of indigenous Nubian culture, through applying and increasing the role of the local people. Also we can stimulate the values, traditions and arts of the past to sustain them through time. From the field study we can conclude that there is no significant difference between the answers of males or females while there is a significant difference between the answers of the domestic and international tourists. We can conclude also that there is a strong centrifugal correlation between the factors which were used to determine different groups of ethnic tourists and visitor experience which means that the previous experience of the tourist plays a very important role in his commitment to ethnic tourism

RECOMMENDATIONS

Corporation should be maintained between the governorate and the Egyptian Tourism Authority. Sustainability of ethnic communities can be achieved through the small scale projects of tourism. Through ethnic tourism we can increase the role of the local community residents especially the well educated new generations, by involving them in the tourism industry and the sustainable development of the area. They should also be provided socio-economic benefits to ensure their commitment. By time this will preserve the authenticity of traditions and lifestyle as well as enrich and enhance the feel of loyalty and nationalism. Also tourists from different nationalities will integrate through this culture to widen their knowledge and ability to interact with other nations.

Recommendations for the governorate

- Ensure the involvement of the communities and their benefit out of tourism.

- Minority-made products and community-based businesses should be facilitated in order to give tourists an authentic experience and improve the economic gains for local communities
- Plane and develop the Nubian villages in a sustainable manner.
- Cultural resources in Nubian villages should be managed, protected and maintained for the benefit of all interested parties within the community.
- Limiting the number of tourists entering the Nubian villages to safeguard the identity of the people and prevent cultural conflict.
- Land use planning and development projects for tourism should include effective protection and sustainable utilization of cultural resources.
- Minimize negative and socio cultural interference of host communities.

Recommendations for the Egyptian Tourism Authority

- Perform Press coverage and special campaigns to promote and high light the Nubian traditions and events worldwide.
- Spread knowledge about local environment and cultural heritage through guides.
- Promote heritage conservation and environmental sustainability.

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TOURISM VERSUS THE VISITOR ECONOMY AND THE SHIFTING LANDSCAPE OF DESTINATION MANAGEMENT

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This paper attempts to explore the emerging concept of the visitor economy, by linking it to recent changes in tourism governance on a destination level, influenced by complex global and regional politico-economic factors. A regional outlook reflecting on England as an exemplar of a shifting destination management is introduced and provides the basis of investigation. Particular attention is given to the new model of destination management in England and its prospective role in realising the benefits of the emerging visitor economy. Secondary data sources in the form of destination management strategies and industry reports have been explored and informed the discussion of the two evolving concepts – destination management on a local level and the multifaceted visitor economy. Outcomes of the analysis suggest that further enquiry into the blurred visitor economy concept is imperative, particularly in times of organisational restructuring, changing destination management priorities and increased competition..

Keywords: *Visitor economy; Destination Management Organisations; Economic impacts, England*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

In its 2009 Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report, the World Economic Forum held in Geneva, Switzerland recognised tourism as being a critical economic sector worldwide, despite the current difficulties of political and economic nature driving change in the industry (World Economic Forum, 2009). In the United Kingdom, tourism has been an important for the economy of England, which is the single largest nation within the UK and major recipient of tourism and visitor-related activities (Penrose, 2011). In this sense, a 2009 study completed by Deloitte, revealed that UK tourism delivers a significant direct contribution to the economy - £52bn or 3.7 per cent of the GDP, with a total direct and indirect contribution to the visitor economy of £114bn or 8.2 per cent (Kyriakidis *et al.,* 2009). The latter implied that contemporary tourism aims to capture direct, indirect, as well as induced contribution and bring attention to the raising importance of visitors within a destination. Thus, start making use of a new approach to understanding the wider benefits of the industry, namely the visitor economy.

A few years later, during the 2012 and 2013 Visitor Economy Forums held in London, this new approach was seen as a fundamental to England - the most successful tourism destination in the United Kingdom with direct and indirect contribution of £97bn, employing over 2m people and supporting thousands of businesses (VisitEngland, 2013). In addition to that, the visitor economy in England had a strong, interdependent relationship with a range of economic sectors, including transport, retail, sports, museums and arts (VisitEngland, 2013). Indeed, the visitor economy was seen as one of the fastest growing sectors of England's economy (McEvoy *et al.,* 2006) yet, being relatively unexplored.

Recent cuts in government funding for tourism and the introduction of the new 2011 UK Government's Tourism Policy, however, led to restructuring of the landscape of the sector's governance in England (Coles, Dinan and Hutchison, 2012). A consequence of that was a transformation of regional tourism bodies and their supporting governmental structures. The introduction of refocused, local as opposed to regional, tourism bodies was seen as an indication of adopting a more inclusive approach to destinations, taking into consideration local communities, businesses, and organisations, which are not directly involved in the delivery of solely tourism products and services. They, however, have been having an important tourism-supporting role for England (Penrose, 2011). Clearly these indirect, supportive determinants can be linked to the emerging visitor economy concept.

As the United Kingdom has a strong domestic supply chain, opportunities for absorbing indirect economic benefits are genuinely higher (Kyriakidis *et al.,* 2009). It is then vital for new destination management structures to capture this opportunity and realise the broader impacts of tourism. Often, tourism and the visitor economy have been used interchangeably. They, however, reflect on two different concepts.

Consequently, the objectives of this paper are:

A) To shed light on the two contrasting concepts being at the centre of discourse, namely tourism and the visitor economy;

B) To examine the evolving relationship between the emerging visitor economy and the changing landscape of destination management in regional frameworks.

THE CHANGING TOURISM AND ITS PLACE IN THE VISITOR ECONOMY

Tourism is a contemporary phenomenon (Buhalis, 2000; Urry, 2002; Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Cooper and Hall, 2008), which has been attracting great attention by both scholars and practitioners. Traditionally, tourism can be linked to those sectors, which directly service and engage with tourists, such as attractions, airlines, hotels (Balding *et al.*, 2012). A plethora of definitions reflecting upon the concept of tourism is available and probably the most accepted one is that of the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO). In a classic definition of the concept of tourism, the then World Tourism Organisation (WTO) argued, that:

"Tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited" (WTO, 1995: 1).

The latest definition of tourism by the now United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), however, reflected a more holistic, inclusive approach to the way tourism should be seen, thus being:

"... social, cultural and economic phenomenon which entails the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal or business/professional purposes. These people are called visitors (which may be either tourists or excursionists; residents or non-residents) and tourism has to do with their activities, some of which imply tourism expenditure ... as such, tourism has implications on the economy ... wide spectrum of stakeholders are involved or affected by tourism" (UNWTO, 2010: 1).

The former definition reflects a generic interpretation of tourism emphasising on the traveller, residing outside his/her usual working and living environment. Whereas the latter definition provided by the UNWTO encompasses a much more integrated approach to the industry and its scope, taking into consideration impacts of socio-cultural, environmental and economic dimensions as a consequence of the movement of people.

In other words, if the classic statement drew attention to the activity of being a tourist, the latest one emphasised on and aimed to capture the impacts of this activity. Thus tourism industry was presented as a driver of economic development. Attention was importantly given to the emerging view that all tourists are now labelled as visitors (although significant part of them captured tourists). Issues of stakeholder inclusion and collaboration were also identified as important. This is so as nowadays, the industry comprises of a large number of predominantly Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (SMEs).

The blurred concept of the visitor economy, in contrast, lacks general definition. A few scholars, practitioners and industry organisations have attempted to define the term (Reddy, 2006; Kyriakidis *et al*., 2009; McEvoy *et al.,* 2006; Balding *et al.*, 2012; VisitEngland, 2013). At the core of the visitor economy lays the economic activity of visitors (Reddy, 2006). This should capture all visitors within a destination – whether tourists or not (Cheshire East Council, 2011). It takes into account all the elements that make for a successful visitor destination, namely the broad range of factors attracting tourists (natural and built attractions; culture and heritage), the tourism-supporting infrastructure that helps shape the sense of place and improves accessibility, as well as the services that cater for the needs of visitors (and residents) - all being vital for the broader visitor economy (Reddy, 2006). Arguably, the new concept is much broader than 'tourism and events' (Balding *et al.*, 2012), and encapsulates an extensive portfolio of businesses – predominantly SMEs (OECD, 2012) that benefit from direct and indirect economic activity.

Kyriakidis *et al.* (2009) asserted that the visitor economy captures two key components. The core component reflects the direct contribution of tourism, thus being the value generated by the provision of tourism-related services and products (Kyriakidis *et al.,* 2009). This element can be linked to the well-established concept of Tourism Satellite Accounts (TSA), provided by the UNWTO and recognised as the international standard to measure direct economic effects of tourism within an economy (Kemp and Nijhowne, 2004) and subsequently, put it against other industries, and even economies (EUROSTAT, 2002). The second broader element, in contrast, takes into account indirect contribution from other sectors of the economy – reliant on, or supporting tourism activity (Kyriakidis *et al.,* 2009). In addition to that, the impact of capital investment and collective government expenditure, which is linked to the visitor economy, is also being incorporated in this wider concept (Balding *et al.*, 2012). Balding *et al.* (2012) have attempted to provide a definition of the visitor economy, which:

"... takes into account broader economic activity than has been historically defined as tourism and events. It encompasses the direct and indirect contributions to the economy resulting from a visitor travelling outside their usual environment for holiday, leisure and events and festivals, business, conventions and exhibitions, education, to visit friends and relatives and for employment ... in other words, the full value chain of the visitor economy is being accounted for " (Balding *et al.*, 2012: 6).

The latter implied that the visitor economy goes well beyond impacting solely tourism-related organisations. It is accountable for regeneration through enhancing the image of a destination, turning a location into a commodity and subsequently, attracting commercial investment from outside the tourism industry (Bull, 2013; Cheshire East Council, 2011). The latter being one of many examples of how the visitor economy can impact the wider business environment.

In a regional perspective, the visitor economy is of paramount importance to some of England's nine regions. An example here is England's Northwest, where day visits make up 90 per cent of the regional visitor economy (McEvoy *et al.,* 2006), and Cheshire East, where day visitors account for 84 per cent (Cheshire East Council, 2011) of all tourism and visitor receipts. Hence a more inclusive approach to the underpinned concept and its various components is needed, particularly in destinations where day visitors dominate as opposed to tourists staying overnight. As outlined above, the term visitor economy does not have an accepted, universal definition, despite the fact that it has been widely used by business, governmental and third sector organisations in recent years (Reddy, 2006).

Having explored key interpretations of tourism and the visitor economy, it can be concluded that they are two different, but complementary concepts. If tourism takes into account planned journeys involving overnight stay (McEvoy *et al.,* 2006), the visitor economy adds to it by capturing the impact of visitors (including tourists staying overnight) over the local economy. Visitor contribution outreach direct, tourism-specific products and services as factoring in indirect, tourism-supportive determinants and agents, such as other sectors of the economy and the multiple parties through the tourism supply chain.

It can be argued, in addition, that the visitor economy reflects the recent transition in the way destinations are managed, particularly in the case of England where the new model of destination management (Penrose, 2011) was intended to bring together local communities, businesses and authorities to realise the benefits of visitor and tourism activity. Shifting destination management practices were intended to deliver wider impacts being not just a result of tourists and tourism activity, but taking onboard visitors and indirect, supporting products and services. The changing landscape of tourism management in England thus reflects the broader concept of the visitor economy – subject to discussion in the following sections.

CURRENT SHIFTS IN DESTINATION MANAGEMENT

As in the case of the visitor economy, there is a considerable debate of what constitutes destination management (Harrill, 2009; Laesser and Beritelli, 2013) and what the functions of respective organisations, namely Destination Management Organisations (DMOs) are nowadays. It has been a common practice that the concept of DMO is more related to destination marketing, as opposed to management (Laesser and Beritelli, 2013). At times, destination marketing bodies may, however, undertake management duties under their remit. The latter creates a confusion of what the concept of destination management actually implies.

Destination management, as defined by UNWTO (2007) aimed to capture all the elements that make up a destination, such as attractions, amenities, transport and accessibility, marketing and pricing in a co-ordinated manner. A key responsibility of destination management then is to take strategic approach to connect these often very separate and different entities for a more efficient and effective management of the destination (Harrill, 2009). Duplication of resources and efforts, with respect to promotion, services, training, business support and others can be avoided through joined up destination management (UNWTO, 2007). Management and planning gaps that have not been addressed before could also be identified (Pike, 2004).

In other words, destination management seeks to balance interests among stakeholders in a defined physical area of tourism activity (Laesser and Beritelli, 2013), representing public, private and non-for-profit organisations (Polese and Minguzzi, 2009). The *2013 St Gallen Consensus on Destination Management* provided a contemporary, more process-based interpretation of what the concept of destination management should incorporate:

"Tourism destination management essentially equates to management processes that aim to attract visitors (tourists and same day travellers; 'wallets' and thus revenues), and allocate time and money in a specific geographic space (as defined by the visitors)" (Laesser and Beritelli, 2013: 47).

Two important notes should be made here drawing on the above interpretation of destination management. At first, St Gallen's definition reflects the shift in understanding and perceiving destination management, that is, management within an area of tourism activity, which importantly takes into account tourists, as well as day visitors – encompassing the broader visitor economy, as opposed to limiting it to the tourism industry solely.

Here, an emphasis is placed upon tourists, as well as same day travellers (or visitors). Tourists, defined as visitors who spend at least one night in a destination, but no more than one consecutive year (WTO, 1995) can be closely related to the notion of tourism. It can be argued that they directly contribute to the tourism industry. Same day travellers, in contrast, may be appropriately said to be aligned to the wider visitor economy. In this sense, all tourists are visitors, but not all visitors are tourists (Reddy, 2006; UNWTO, 2010). As previously outlined, the visitor economy also takes into account indirect contribution to tourism through supportive services and products, along with direct impacts over the tourism sector.

Secondly, Laesser and Beritelli (2013) brought attention to geographic spaces reflecting tourism areas defined by visitors. This is a key important, prevailing issue when considering today's management of destinations in England. Area of tourism activity is an idea that highlights the shift in the definition of tourism spaces, neglecting bureaucratic and administrative boundaries in favour of functional tourism territories. This statement is very much aligned to what the latest tourism policy in the UK advocates. Thus destination management should take into consideration functional tourism localities as defined by visitors and visitor activity (Penrose, 2011). Such definition of a tourism space can also be attached to the visitor economy concept as it takes into consideration wider set of individuals and organisations having an impact and being impacted by the industry, both directly and indirectly (Reddy, 2006), as opposed to abiding by existing arbitrary boundaries (Penrose, 2011).

Destination management has, in most cases been administered on either regional or local level (OECD, 2012). This certainly is the case of England where Regional Tourist Boards (RTBs) focused on regional scale tourism management and planning, are currently undergoing a transformation towards becoming DMOs (Hristov, 2013). The reshaped tourism management bodies are expected to carry out destination management and planning duties on a local level – in areas, where tourism and visitor activity occurs (Kennell and Chaperon, 2013).

The limited in many aspects concept of tourism and the emerging widespread visitor economy raises important questions. What will happen with the concept of tourism and, particularly now, when emerging destination management practices aim to adopt a more holistic, inclusive approach to English destinations. Will other English destinations follow the steps of Northwest in admitting the rapidly increasing importance of the visitor economy, and overlook the tourism as an industry? Are traditional models of destination management able to persuade the interests of all stakeholders within a destination? These are some of the questions deserving further attention.

ENGLISH TOURIST BOARDS

English Regional Tourist Boards (RTBs) reflected a popular and widely used structure of a public tourism body, which had a regional scope of operation. RTBs were concerned primarily with the selling of places – England's destinations. These bodies were closely linked to the regionalisation of tourism in England, which was among the key objectives of the previous Labour Government (1997-2010) and reflected traditional DMO functions.

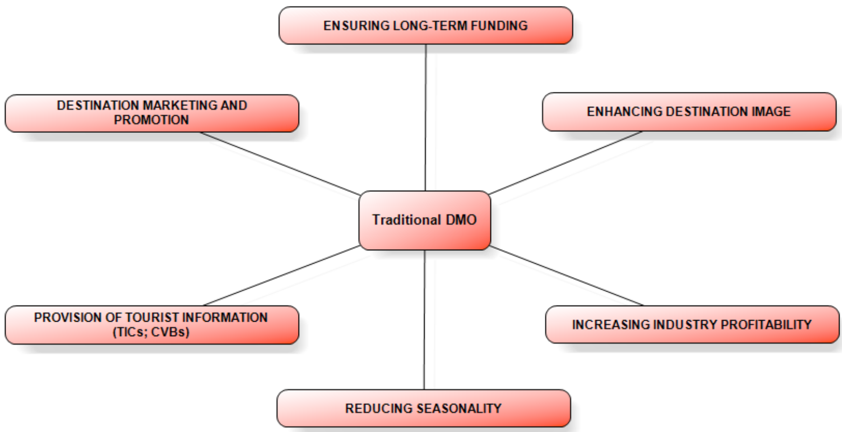

Figure 1. Traditional DMO Priorities and Objectives (Source: Pike, 2004; Harrill, 2009).

RTBs played an important role in the delivery of national government policy aspirations for tourism in England (Coles, Dinan and

Hutchison, 2012). These tourism bodies had existed since the Development of Tourism Act of 1969 and in early stages they were expected to lead on regional tourism strategy and its implementation (Coles, Dinan and Hutchison, 2012). RTBs had to work with Local Authorities (LAs), not just because they covered arbitrary boundaries with authorities (Coles, Dinan and Hutchison, 2012), but because they provided advice and expertise, shaped and delivered the destination brand, and targeted the right groups of visitors through appropriate promotional activity (Reddy, 2006). In addition, Tourist Boards had a role as a key interface with tourism industry businesses, particularly with those in the hospitality provision sub-sector (Reddy, 2006).

Due to their limited scope of operation, mainly focusing on marketing, promotion and information provision, former RTBs could be closely linked to tourism, as opposed to the visitor economy (see *Figure 1*), as the visitor economy takes into consideration the wider business environment, along with the multifaceted impact areas of tourism and visitor activity. Thus change in the way tourism in England was governed was called for.

CHANGING OPERATIONAL ENVIRONMENT AND PRIORITIES

Today's rapidly changing operational context requires change on an organisational level and various scholars and organisations have indicated that the landscape of tourism administration is altering and this process of transformation is a consequence of large to small scale influences taking place in local, regional, national, and even international contexts (Morgan, 2012; Cooper and Hall, 2008; Harrill, 2009; Laesser and Beritelli, 2013; Fyall, Fletcher and Spyriadis, 2009; Coles, Dinan and Hutchison, 2012; Bramwell, 2011; Kozak and Baloglu, 2011; UNWTO, 2010; Longjit and Pearce, 2013; OECD, 2013).

The recent changes in the English model of tourism governance can be well explained with the Global-Local Nexus (Milne and Ateljevic, 2001), which is a concept that attempts to formulate and theorise the complex links between the tourism and processes of economic development and failure. Spatially, the framework captures the way geo-political and global forces of economic change influence sub-national levels, such as regions and localities (Milne and Ateljevic, 2001). Applied in the context of England (Figure 2), it can be noted that on top is positioned the global economic downturn of 2008 having a direct impact on the UK Government cuts in funding, which subsequently affected public spending for tourism in England.

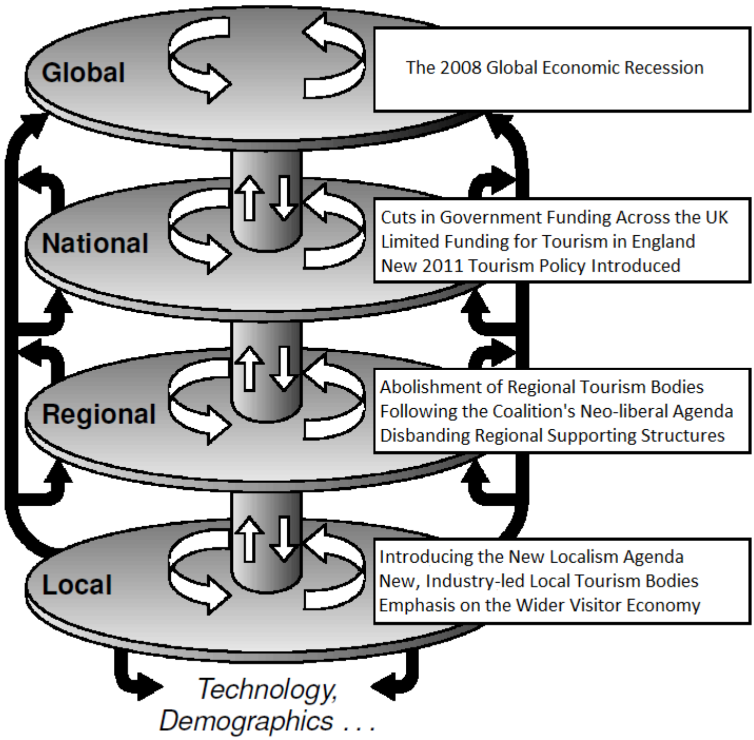

Figure 2. Global-Local Nexus in the Context of England (Adapted from Milne and Ateljevic, 2001)

The 2010 Coalition Government's neo-liberal agenda *(as shown on Figure 2),* which aimed to minimise the role and influence of the state in order to make the tourism industry more competitive is another key driver of change on regional and local level in England. Both events that took place on global and national levels influenced the restructuring of tourism governance in England implying a shift away from regions and emphasising on the less-visible localities (destinations).

Along with external, generic political and economic drivers of change, recent factors influencing shifts in the way tourism is managed and planned, lay within the industry itself. In its *Practical Guide to Tourism Destination Management,* UNWTO (2007) highlighted that tourism governance is undergoing a transformation from traditional public sector model, historically delivering government policy, to one of a more corporate nature emphasising efficiency, return on investments, and the role of the market and partnerships between public, private and third sector entities.

Undoubtedly, one of the key catalysts of change is the increased international competition among destinations. Reddy (2006) indicated that the intensification of international competition challenged all countries when it comes to sustaining and enhancing their status as tourism destinations. The increased demand for active destination management is thus being emphasised. Drivers of change suggest that a more holistic approach to destination management is vital. An approach, that is not limited to capturing solely the voice of sectoral businesses and non-for-profit organisations. Instead, demanding increased responsibility and involvement of the wider set of advocates and beneficiaries of tourism. Forming a destination management consortium involving public sector, private sector, non-profit organisations and local residents is imperative (Kozak and Baloglu, 2012). In this sense, Morgan (2012) concluded that:

"Tomorrow's successful tourism destinations ... will be places which engage issues of social responsibility, ethical practice and sustainable ways of living and build strong partnerships between civil society, government and business" (Morgan, 2012: 9).

Clearly, elements of the visitor economy are to take important role in destination management and planning, and this is to happen in the not-too-distant future. Destination management and respective organisations started to play a critical role in managing economic, environmental and social resources of a destination (Kozak and Baloglu, 2012), and they are to be responsible for implementing sustainable development strategies. Such strategies aim to capture not only tourists and related services and attractions but local community regeneration and well-being by improving transport infrastructure and accessibility, creating employment opportunities and attracting inward investment (following the integration of a wider set of tourism-chain businesses).

FROM TOP DOWN TO BOTTOM UP: MARKETING TOURISM VERSUS MANAGING THE VISITOR ECONOMY

In the context of England, the transformation of destination management arrangements was seen as a transformation of Tourist Boards (Dinan, Coles and Hutchison, 2012). Whereas RTBs were mainly involved in the provision of tourist information and had marketing and promotion functions, contemporary DMOs were expected to achieve more than simply enhance destination image and increase industry profitability. Nowadays, the notion of DMOs reflects a much more versatile approach to destinations (Laesser and Beritelli, 2013). Traditional scope of DMO operations, such as national and international destination marketing and promotion is now moving towards the locality – focusing on local planning and decision-making, impact on communities and local economic regeneration, greater voice and responsibilities of businesses. Increasingly, the role of newly-established DMOs then is to assist in the development and maintenance of industry partnerships and facilitate the planning and delivery of destination management (Morgan, 2012). And what is more, the notion of DMO implies strong emphasis on management of a destination and hence seeking to fulfil wider economic and community objectives. Bringing inward investment, creating employment opportunities and contributing to community regeneration projects are just a few to name *(see Figure 3),* which go along with traditional DMO objectives, such as enhancing destination image, marketing the portfolio of products and increasing industry revenue.

Local Authorities are to remain an essential player in developing tourism on a local level, regardless of the structure of new destination management models (Fyall, Fletcher and Spyriadis, 2009). In this sense, the synergy between newly-formed DMOs and LAs is crucial. Providing an input into shaping the visitor economy should become a core interest for LAs (Fyall, Fletcher and Spyriadis, 2009). Local Authorities may then be represented on the board of every destination management body. The far more common approach projecting tourism as peripheral activity, which focuses on attracting tourists through marketing activities and information provision is gradually moving out of focus, in favour of the visitor economy (Reddy, 2006).

It is therefore clear that the role of contemporary DMOs expands towards assuming greater leadership and having a strong voice in issues that go well beyond meeting traditional marketing and promotional goals. Goals, which have previously been associated solely with the tourism sector. Newly-reconstituted DMOs in England are intended to work towards developing a comprehensive agenda for tourism – capturing the wider set of organisations and hence considering the impact of the visitor economy within a destination. The emerging notion of the visitor economy advocates that visitor service sectors cannot be viewed in isolation (Balding et al., 2012). Visitors are to offer many far-flowing, multi-scale benefits and contribute to the broader economy (Balding et al., 2012), in this case employment, inward investment, infrastructure development, community regeneration and wellbeing, urban renewal alike. The more inclusive visitor economy (Reddy, 2006) inevitably implies wider participation from both public and private entities. The role of today's destination management then is to link stakeholders in the loose, chaotic environment they operate in and help them realise and take advantage of the broader impacts of the visitor economy.

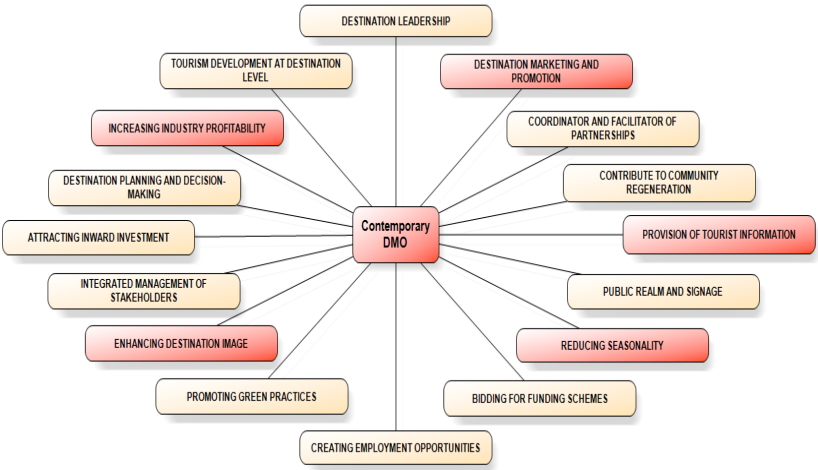

Figure 3. Contemporary DMO Priorities and Objectives (Source: Pike, 2004; Harrill, 2009; Fyall, Fletcher and Spyriadis, 2010; Laesser and Beritelli, 2013).

Notwithstanding, a broader enquiry into the extent and impact of the visitor economy is required. The visitor economy can be used to define the space, in which public, private and third sector organisations operate – the destination (Reddy, 2006). There is a need for an in-depth, further enquiry into the underpinned concept - its scope, elements, impacts on different levels of the value chain, particularly in the context of changing destination management. The latter is valid for England, where the new destination management model is to a high degree intended to capture elements of the visitor economy (Hristov, 2013). If visitor economy is to prove its wider contribution to local economies and other sectors, it has to be measured – as with the TSA framework estimating direct impacts of tourism. Hence, further research should be pointed towards developing such framework - still challenging for today's destination managers, scholars and industry practitioners.

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SECOND HOME TOURISM AND SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT

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Second home tourism is one of the patterns of tourism development especially in rural and mountainous areas that is obtained through ownership of second homes (bungalows or holiday homes). World's economic, social and cultural developments after the Second World War, with improving communication and transportation, increased leisure time. The possibility of allocating some part of revenue for unnecessary affaires caused the spread of rural tourism and consequently the popularity of second homes in the western world and many other countries. This paper introduced the second homes, their emergence and spread in all around the world, their geographical and spatial analysis and the importance of rural development, and then it investigated the role of second home tourism in rural development and their tourism development implications in all the environmental, economic, and social aspects. At last Sustainable development of rural tourism strategies was examined.

Keywords: *Second Homes, Second Home Tourism, Sustainable Rural Development*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Economical, social and culture changes over the past century, especially in the context of increasing population, urbanization, development of communication and transportation, increased leisure time and social welfare which led to the development of tourism in rural areas or rural tourism. However, rural tourism as a social activity emerged in the mid-18th century in England and Europe. Moreover, prior to that, the rural areas were used for leisure activities, but was limited to nobles, courtiers and special classes (Sharpley, 1997: 47), some rural tourism activities are along with accommodation and lodge in rural areas, mostly these presence in the rural areas are in the shape of camping, caravaning, second homes, rental private homes, guest house and hotels. Staying at the second homes is the most common form of rural tourism activities and therefore today the formation and expansion of second homes is the most important outcome of tourism development in rural areas (Rezvani, 2006). Rural tourism development in an organized manner began from Europe in the late nineteenth century. It seems that rural tourism has originated from mountainous areas of Germany or the coastal areas of France (Yutaka, 1998: 42).

Second home tourism is one of the patterns of tourism development, particularly in rural and mountainous areas that through the development of second home ownership (country houses or holiday homes) will be achieved. Despite the relatively high background of the formation of second homes in rural areas, recently second home tourism is experiencing a resurgence, which is mostly due to the new patterns of economic production and consumption (Williams and Hall, 2000: 23). In addition, this process is a reaction against the rural crisis, which is the result of expanding agricultural, restructuring (Dieter, 2002: 243). In some countries the ownership of second homes is considered as inevitable part of a new life and that's why the majority of rural tourism destinations are comprised by internal tourism (Aleskogius, 1993).

Since tourism has an interaction with natural environment and socio-economic activities, it can have positive or negative effects and consequences in these areas. Therefore, understanding the effects and consequences of tourism in the first stage and management of these effects in the second stage can enhance the positive consequences of tourism on rural areas to the possible maximum extent and to minimize its negative consequences. In this paper, it has tried to investigate the role of second homes and the effects and consequences of expanding their tourism in the ecological, economical and social dimensions and examine the sustainable development strategies for rural tourism.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

Second home

There is no single definition of second home; in the dictionary of human geography in this case second homes are the houses that are purchased by households living elsewhere or are rented for a long time. Such homes are usually located in rural areas and are used for entertainment purposes and have names such as weekend homes or holiday homes (Johnston, 1988: 423). Institute for Social Innovation in America is defined second homes as homes that will be occupied less than 91 days in any calendar year. However, second homes or holiday, are houses that are built or purchased by urban dwellers in different areas, including rural areas and on certain days, such as holidays and summer are used mainly with the aim of leisure and entertainment (Rezvani, 2002).

Rural development

Common understanding about the concept of development suggests that the basic purpose of development is growth and excellence in all aspects of human societies and hence understanding the circumstances of human societies and knowing their needs and requirements in the physical and spiritual dimensions is considered as one of the key steps in the path of progress and development. Since villages and people, living there has their own conditions, facilities and problems, thus, necessity and justification of rural development will become revealed. In the definition of rural development, it has come that; it is a comprehensive and sustainable process that in it's framework ability of rural communities in the material and spiritual needs, and effective control over the forces shaping the local settlement system (ecological, social, economic and institutional) will grow (Shahbazi, 1997: 11).

Sustainable development

An endogenous, systematic and balanced development will propound a systematic insight in all fields. On the other side, sustainable development is an evolutionary state of developmental programs that with a holistic view and emphasizes to a systematic insight tries to follow a balancing approach (Latifi, 2001: 139).

Rural tourism

Rural tourism has many forms, so it is difficult to provide an accurate and comprehensive definition for it. In fact, rural tourism is one of the concepts and forms of sustainable development in which existing resources of rural areas are used. This kind of development has the least damaging effect or even lack of such effects. It makes growing interests in rural areas through enhancing productivity in rural areas, creating jobs, reforming the income distribution, rural-only environment and indigenous culture, attracting the participation of local people and providing convenient ways of reconciling traditional values and beliefs with modern day (Khayati, 2003: 28).

THE EMERGENCE AND SPREAD OF SECOND HOMES IN THE WORLD

Second home tourism is one of the patterns of tourism development especially in rural and mountainous areas that is obtained through ownership of second homes (Williams & Hall, 2000: 23). In addition, this process is expanding as a reaction against the rural crisis which is the result of agricultural restructuring (Dieter, 2002: 243). In some countries, the ownership of second homes is considered as inevitable part of life and therefore, the majority of rural tourism destinations are domestic tourism (Aleskogius, 1993). The history of second homes is dated back to the ancient Egypt and the Roman Empire (Rezvani, 2003). The occupation of these houses was limited to small and prosperous part of society. Aristocracy and bourgeoisie in England, France, Sweden and other European countries from the seventeenth century onwards led to a retreat from the city to the countryside on weekends. After World War II, the nature of limited life of second homes has dramatically changed because these houses have been purchased by a growing number of middle-income households and they have a growing community of more affluent groups (Fesharaki, 1996: 161). Various factors influence on the development of second homes but the possibility to allocate a portion of peoples' income to the not necessary works, adequate time and ease of mobility due to improved public and private transport, have played a decisive role. In general, the same factors that have contributed to the development of rural tourism have also contributed to the development of second homes (Pacion, 1985: 184). In this regard, the migration of rural people to the cities and their temporary return to their villages to meet relatives and friends for leisure or vacation at homes that were given to them by inheritance or they have attempted to build, have played an important role in the development of second homes.

Table 1. Urban Repulsive and Attractive Factors of Second Homes

Urban Repulsive Factors	Rural Attractive Factors	Incentives of Providing Second Homes in Village
Physical and mental fatigue	Healthy environment	Physical and mental rest and refresh
Urban cold and built environment	Pristine and natural space and architectural harmony with the environment	Refuge to the lap of nature
Types of pollution (air, noise, heat, etc.)	Clean Air	Achieving health and wellness
Superficial and formal social relationships	intimate and profound connections and face to face encounters	Experience the rustic sincerity
Crowding and congestion	Solitude and Silence	Relaxation
Life with pressure and stress	Lack of Stress	Enjoying scenic landscape
Monotony and boredom	Diversity	Escape from the monotony
Luxurious life	Simple and insignificant life	Search for simplicity
search for seeking diversity and different experiences	Environment and different patterns of life	Opportunity to identify, Achieving new knowledge and experiences
Superficial, materialistic and secular values	Supply of land and second homes	Response to the need of boast and follow the behavioral mode of the rich

Source: Sharpley and Gee, 1996

In addition, the phenomenon of reverse migration to rural areas that was started in the world from early 1800s has been an underlying factor to increase these homes in rural areas (Rezvani, 2003). The main motivations for urban residents to own second homes is mainly for recreation in rural areas, tend to invest personal savings for housing, provide a place to relax and recreation, and finally ease of housing ownership in rural areas.

Second home tourists mostly want to satisfy several requirements simultaneously and this action usually has not just one incentive. Due to that, individuals and communities can change over time; this fact should also be noted that their motives can change over time (Gee, 1996: 220). One of the ways to detect the tourism incentives is paying attention to the hierarchical model of motivation. Pierce describes this model in this way that the behavior of tourists in trip follows a motivational hierarchy. Hierarchy of travel motivations such as Maslow's needs hierarchy resembles a ladder with steps or several levels. If the specific needs of each step or level were removed, a broad category of psychological needs and motivations will be achieved. When the time passes and every step of needs is achieved, peoples' motivation for tourism can change (Ibid: 223). In general, the major purposes of the provision of second homes in rural areas can be seen in Table1.

RURAL TOURISM AND SECOND HOMES

In general, phenomenon of second homes can be affected by factors that promote rural tourism development. The growth of this phenomenon in rural areas started mainly after World War II and was affected by the rise of income and financial ability, necessity to enjoy leisure time and facilitate in relocation due to the improvement of the transport network. The formation of this phenomenon in Iran has older history and more specifically dating back to the Qajar period (1785 to 1925). Even some villages in the north of the country are familiar with this phenomenon from long time ago (Amar, 2006. On the other hand, "the technology to establish and build a second residence in rural areas can be used as incentives for investment, an agent to satisfy the needs, gaining social dignity and prestige and a location for the provision of retirement days" (Sharieh, 1993: 235). In this regard, the temporary migration of rural people to the cities and their return to the villages for leisure and visiting relatives and friends or spending holidays in homes that belongs to them through inheritance, have had an effective role in the spread of second homes. Moreover, the phenomenon of counter- urbanization and reverse migration to rural areas which in the world started in the early 1800s is the underlying cause of increasing these homes in the villages (Rezvani, 2002).In this regard the convenience of home ownership in rural areas is effective.

Table2. Potential impacts of second homes expansion in rural areas

Description	Positive Consequences	Negative Consequences
Economical Impacts	-Increase investment - Create Jobs associated with the construction and legal professions	- Reduction of the productive capacity, particularly in the agricultural sector - Real estate speculation and undesirable effects on housing and land prices (Increasing of false price) - Failure to invest because of the imbalance between supply and demand
Social Impacts	- Social revitalization and recovery of rural life - Entrance of social positive flows from cities	- Promoting foreign norms and behaviors to the rural community - Polarization of biological pattern (native or Non-native)
Physical impacts	- Renovation of construction and improvement of the body of village - Improvement of communication networks and increase the spatial communications - Institutionalization of suitable biological pattern especially in the field of hygienic disposal of Garbage	- Changes in the rural landscape and urbanization of residence - Disruption of traditional structure and homogenization of the construction

Source: (Amar, 2006)

Formation and development of second homes in rural areas is done in different ways including the conversion of rural houses to second homes, construction of second homes on private land acquisition, and development of this phenomenon by construction companies (Rezvani, 2003: 183). In addition to the above methods, participatory manner (buying a house jointly and rotating use of it during the year), which is common in North America, is one of the new methods of second homes development. In Iran, the use of rustic houses as second homes and the provision of land for houses construction are more seasonal. Nevertheless, almost all touristic areas of the country are witnessing the formation and development of this phenomenon in rural lands (Amar, 2006). The growing demand of second home tourists and boom in land villas speculation activities besides the weakness of the agricultural sector in the process of production, income and employment is caused the rapid and extensive supply of agricultural lands and orchards from the local community to the seductive million demands of second home tourists (Ghadami et al, 2010).

On the other hand, the geographical diversity has caused that studying effects of this phenomenon in terms of a common model become difficult. Changing in form, role and function of villages is the most obvious effect of this phenomenon; besides, it should be said that the environmental impacts caused by loading out of the capacity of the atmosphere as a result of this phenomenon is significant. From the other aspect the problem of land ownership, formal rules and governing customary structures on land use change, the reduced production capacity particularly in the agricultural sector, disruption of traditional structure and heterogeneity of construction in rural areas are among the most important concerns and challenges of this phenomenon in rural areas. The potential impacts of second homes expansion in rural areas are shown in Table 2.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION AND SPATIAL ANALYSIS OF SECOND HOMES

Expansion of secondary residences continuously and in all countries is ongoing. The world's countries with various degrees of development and having a good touristic condition have experienced an increase in this observable fact. The luxurious residences in Florida and California in North America, and residential space called the *‘Dacha’* around the periphery of Moscow and the Black Sea, the rustic cottage in sub-Saharan Africa are all clear evidence of the generality of this phenomenon (Sharieh, 1994: 235). In 1970, there were about 1.32 million second homes in France that in 1982, this amount reached 2.3 million units. From the current amount, about 1,300,000 of second homes are in rural areas. Kapok (1977) had estimated the number of second homes in Western Europe about 3 million units. Regatz estimated the same amount for

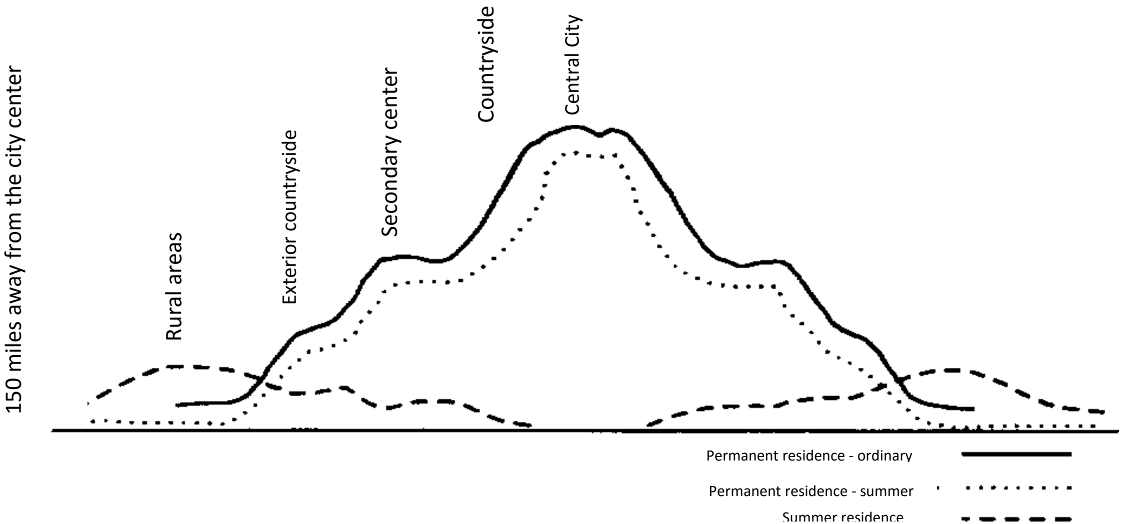
America and Baker (1973) estimated 500 thousand units for Canada (Pacion, 1985: 184).

Initial attempts to spatial analysis and explain of the second homes is performed with more emphasis on natural factors. Jacobs (1972) in his studies concluded that the distribution of second homes in North Wales is affect by property prices, the degree of urbanization, attracting migrates, quality of agricultural land and easy access to urban centers. Quality of the environment, local climate, and scenic landscape from second homes and access to water sights (lake, ocean, and river) is also important. In addition, the existing settlement pattern, access to land and planning policies play a decisive role in the development of effective distribution of second homes.

Another determining factor in the location of second homes is the distance between the main residence and second homes. The descriptive model of second homes developmental pattern in the city of Lyon in France shows that the ultimate limit of second homes development around the city is in a radius of up to one hour. In this regard, in the period of horse and carriage this radius was of 15km that in the 1950s, it became 65 km and in the current situation with regard to the development of transportation facilities, this radius has reached to more than 90 kilometers. The frictional effect of distance is the basis of the model proposed by Regatz (1977: 181) about the distribution of second homes (Figure 1); Thus with strengthening suburban living in summer, the population density in the central city will be decreased and second homes will be added. The situation gets reversed in the winter.

Besides these factors, suitable geographical conditions for optimal site selection and establishment of second homes are very effective; because tourists pay attention to special geographical conditions for the establishment of their second homes (Fesharaki, 1996: 167). In this regard Sharieh believes that the location of secondary residences have special and distinctive geographic conditions. The three special scopes of secondary residences are sunny villages, coastal villages and mountainous villages (Sharieh, 1994: 237). In this regard, balsent believes that there is a close relationship between climate and site selection of touristic homes. Accordingly, the areas can be separated based on the "Bioclimatic" conditions such as amplifier, retractor, sunny days, the amount and distribution of rainfall etc. (Deru, 1995: 409). Thus, the pattern of second homes distribution is in a close relationship with access networks, special geographical conditions, and population displacement system between urban and rural areas and even the differences in the planning policies, particularly in relation to land use, land ownership and rural development strategies (Fesharaki, 1996).

Figure 1. Hypothetical model for the distribution of population by the seasons of the year



Source: Regatz (1977, 182)

TOURISM IMPACTS ON RURAL AREAS

Due to the nature of tourism activities and its close relationship and interaction with the various economic, social and cultural activities, its effects can be very broad, especially on the local environment and the host communities will have profound effects.

As mentiond beore, socio-cultural impacts of tourism can be positive or negative. Once tourism is growing, the positive and important socio-cultural impacts of tourism in local communities are consists of self-sufficiency and strengthening local economy, greater respect for the local community and their culture, reinvestment of tourism revenue in cultural resources, strengthening and continuation of cultural traditions, increasing levels of understanding and tolerance between cultures, especially through music, art and craft supplies, domestic life, housing and other experiences of rural life (Rezvani & Safaii, 2005).

Negative impacts of tourism on local communities could include the deprivation of welfare benefits for host community, demand for scarce resources such as water, and too much dependence of host community to tourism, tourist inappropriate behavior and lack of cultural sensitivity (WTO, 2002: 126).

Planning for sustainable tourism is one of the topics discussed among researchers and tourism operators. In general, the goal of planning and management of rural tourism is making balance between demand and its functionality in order to reduce tension and without the reduction of the resources of the village, be used in the best way (Pigram, 1993: 171). Now this question arises that how this balance will be achieved. Fagnes (1991) stated that the development of rural tourism has some common roles and features that can be used for planning and management, thus it can be stated that:

- All local jobs which are related to tourism are not directly useful for local communities, especially when some people outside of the village are interested in developing tourism and do some activities and compete with each other;
- Visitors expectations in rural areas is not lower than tourists of urban or coastal areas, and therefore they demand different kinds of attractions and facilities of good quality;
- Tourism can be an effective way to reform and revitalize the rural areas;

- Each of tourism policies in this area should be coordinated with broader policies;
- Tourism can be used as an instrument or a justification for the improvement of public, infrastructural, and transportation services in rural areas; and from the regional aspect the most important form of tourism development, is the model which is based on the regional and inter-regional cooperation.

Second homes tourism as well as other rural tourism patterns can have numerous effects on rural areas. In some cases, these effects are beneficial. For example, the old houses in rural areas may be restored or converted into new housing that in addition to beautify of the countryside, it will provide temporary or permanent employment for rural people, raise revenue for local stores and provide other facilities. However, the development of second homes can have a negative impact on rural areas. In this respect, Wall and Smith (1982: 136) argue that the spread of second homes can damage the rural environment by disrupting the visual beauty of the countryside and the destruction of vegetation. In their opinion, in the way of development of second homes in rural areas, there has been little attention to the beauty and balance of them (Mathieson & Wall, 1982: 29). In addition, the social impacts of second home ownership should also be noted; in particular they are:

- Spread of second homes will reduce the possibility of building accommodation for local people. This matter is more common in places where planning policies will limit the construction of new housing;
- Increasing demand to buy second homes in rural areas will highly increase the price of these homes that local people can not afford to buy;
- Youth due to settlement problems in local communities will migrate to cities and thus the social structure of rural communities will be disrupted and the influx of non-rural rich people to the rural areas can lead to anger local people and fade their culture; although many studies have shown that second home owners are trying to adapt themselves with the local communities.

Thus, one of the problems that rural tourism planners are faced is making balance between the demands of wealthy urban residents to buy or build second homes in rural areas and the needs of local communities in the field of house providing (Rezvani & Safaii, 2005).

TOURISM AND RURAL SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Rural tourism significantly expanded since1950s. Initially, in the 1960s and 1970s, the economic aspects of rural tourism for local communities were considered. After that, the development of rural tourism was raised as a tool for the development of rural communities. Nowadays various economical, socio-cultural and environmental aspects of rural tourism are considered. Three perspectives in the field of the relationship between tourism and rural development are discussed. In table 3, these three perspectives and goals, as well as the effects and consequences associated with them are discussed.

Since the rural areas are vulnerable and susceptible sources to environmental, social and economic changes, in particular, experience has shown that wherever tourism extended spontaneously, accidentally and without planning and effective management, caused adverse consequences and in long-term its problems is more than benefits (Sharpley, 1997: 73). Some consequences like environmental pollution, degradation of water resources, flooding, soil erosion and degradation of forests and pastures are the effects, which were seen during the past two decades. That is why over the past few years the concept of sustainable tourism has progressed to the extent to be able to respond to threats of the fragile tourism.

Sustainable tourism development is a development in which balance and equilibrium, maintaining values quality of morals and economic principles and economic benefits have been seen all together and a supreme effort will done that a balanced and comprehensive development be replaced to purely economic development. In this view, the development of tourism, using available resources in a way that while respond to the economic, social, cultural needs and legal norms and expectations of tourists, can provide unity, cultural identity, environmental health, economical balance and well-being of local people (Alvani, 1993: 10).

Therefore, the development of tourism in rural areas on one hand can play an important role in the diversification of the rural economy and provide the underlying context for rural sustainable development. On the other hand, it can be considered as a means to stimulate national economic growth (through the idea of overcoming under development and improve the living standards of the local population) (Sharifzadeh & Moradnezhad, 2002: 53). However, if rural tourism and second home ownership be planned and managed in an appropriate way, it can be a stimuli or creator of a developed process for achieving sustainable development in rural areas and sustainability of local communities in all subdirectories of economic, social, cultural and tourism industry (Rezvani & Safaii, 2005).

Due to the different perspectives and ideas in the field of rural tourism, it can be stated that rural tourism by providing new opportunities for many rural areas as a means will revitalize rural communities and lead to the development of these areas and can keep these settlements stable. Nevertheless, from the other hand its unplanned development can cause social and environmental damages in rural settlements. Of course, this matter that which patterns of rural tourism such as second home ownership, renting second homes, staying in residential centers etc. has greater role in the sustainable development of rural areas, depends on local conditions and facilities, as well as how to plan and manage tourism in each area (ibid).

Table 3. Three perspectives in the field of the relationship between tourism and rural development

Approach to the development of rural tourism	**Goals**	**Effects and Consequences**
Rural tourism as a strategy for rural development	- Solving rural underdevelopment - Reducing migration - Final Solution to Rural Development - Reduce the negative effects and exploit the positive effects - Contribute to the development of other sectors of the rural economy	- Stable population - Solve the unemployment problem - Increasing the proliferation coefficient of revenue - Utilization of worthless documentary resources

Rural tourism as a policy to reform rural habitations	- Creating alternative economy for farming in villages which have no agricultural land - Diversification of rural economical activities - To encourage investment in the non-agricultural sector - Increasing demand for local products - The demand for improving quality of life - Equitable distribution of incomes - Creating alternative employment for settlements whose activity has been closed	- Creating non-agricultural employment - Reducing migration - Diversification of the rural economy - Importance to indigenous production - Increasing quality of life - Changing social attitudes of rural community - Creating alternative employment
Rural tourism as a tool for sustainable development	- Minimizing cultural and environmental damage - Preparation of rural economic development in the long term - Satisfying visitors - Creating moneymaking opportunities for local residents - Increasing the Increase quality of life - Increasing the level of people's participation	- Increasing the community participation in tourism and rural development - Protecting of natural and cultural resources - Converting the development cycle from local to international

Source: Roknoddin Eftekhari and Ghaderi, 2002

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Second home tourism is one of the patterns of tourism development especially in rural and mountainous areas that is obtained through ownership of second homes (bungalows or holiday homes). In this paper, after introducing second homes and their emergence and spread in the world, as well as their geographical and spatial analysis and the importance of rural development, it investigated the role of second home tourism in rural development. It also explores the effects and consequences of their tourism expansion in all economical, socio-cultural and environmental aspects and strategies for the sustainable development of rural tourism. Rural tourism as an economic activity, while has a favorable impact on income and employment in a region, has other implications and consequences. Second homes are one of the effects and consequences of tourism in the context of the physical system and the structure of those residences that receive tourists and their temporary stay for enjoyment of the rural landscapes and favorable conditions of villages. However, in Iran and in its mountainous areas in the north, the effect and influence of second homes expansion is very old, but in recent decades under the influence of communication networks improvement and obtaining general recognition about capabilities of these areas beside the saturation of plains and coastal zones, its growth rate is more. As mentioned, if rural tourism and second home ownership be plan and manage in an appropriate way, it can be considered as a stimuli or creator of a developed process for achieving sustainable development in rural areas and sustainability of local communities in all subdirectories of economic, social, cultural and tourism industry. Rural tourism is as a part of the tourism market and a source of employment and income, and it can be considered as an important tool for socio-economic and ecological development for the local communities. In order to eliminate the negative effects of second homes tourism in rural areas, it is also needed that, rural tourism planners try to make balance between the demands of wealthy urban residents to buy or build second homes in rural areas and needs of local communities in the provision of housing. They also need to try to avoid the destruction of old structure and body of villages and their beautiful and pristine environment and provide fields of employment in rural areas through entrepreneurship for local residents to contribute to the economy of the local people.

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THE IMPACT OF SANCTIONS ON DESTINATION IMAGE TOURISM OF IRAN

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In current situation where Iran is struggling to get through consecutive sanctions, developing tourism industry and attracting foreign tourist and also the use of the exchange rate and low values of Rial can be a viable solution strategy. Iran can be a cheap destination for countries with high currency value which can be a successful factor in attracting tourism from other countries. Placed among the first ten countries with cultural and natural attractions, distinct hospitality and delivering cheaper services compared to other destinations are the main factors which can be used in creating a destination brand for Iran. On this basis, relying on real advantage of its unique attractions is much better than creating artificial spaces and short-term booms. The present study investigated the brand image of tourism in Iran, before and after the sanctions. Data are gathered using 5-point Likert scale in a questionnaire and results in the analysis and conclusions are presented.

Keywords: *destination image, sanctions, tourism image of Iran, impact of sanction*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

With a new wave of increasing political, military and oil sanctions against Iran by the Western countries; fundamental need is increasingly felt to deal with this anti Iranian's campaign. One of the fundamental approaches and basic methods to deal with these sanctions in improving economic situation in a conflict between Iran and the West is using the great potential of Iranian Tourism in the world. Sanctions and limitations have created a prosperous opportunity for Iranian tourism. Volatility in exchange rates is one of the effects of sanctions and the international tourism demand is also directly affected by changes in exchange rate;(Mason, 2012) hence, the real exchange rate in Iran could result in an increase in incoming tourists and tourism revenue for Iran (Feshari, Taghipour, Valadbeigi, & Ghamari, 2012). Note that Iran has potential elements like architecture, myths, language, mythological history, politics, culture, values and religion in the area of tourism which can be used is creating brand and brand design. The increase in exchange rate in Iran consequently resulted in the less demand for foreign trips which have changed Iran into a cheap destination. With regard to this issue it can be planned to attract more foreign tourist to Iran.

DEFINITION

Destination image

Nowadays, due to the strong competition among destinations, creating a positive image of the destination to achieve a competitive advantage is important (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Destination image is defined as the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a tourist holds about a destination (Crompton, 1979), and it is viewed as a multidimensional construct composed of three primary dimensions, i.e. cognitive, affective, and conative (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Prayag, 2007). The cognitive component involves beliefs and knowledge about the physical attributes of a destination, while the affective one refers to the appraisal of the affective quality of feelings toward the attributes and the surrounding environment (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). The conative component is considered analogous to behavior, and evolves from cognitive and affective images (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Prayag, 2007). In other words, destination image involves subjective knowledge of a destination (i.e., whether it is expensive, exotic, urban, cold, or developed) (Ekinci, 2003). Moreover, most researchers agree with the importance of destination image as a decisive factor in a visitor' destination choice (Mayo, 1975).

Tourism marketing experts (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Berger & Mitchell, 1989) consider that destination image is a concept made up of two components, tangible and intangible. Nevertheless, the last dimension, affectivity, is not a correct measurement for certain studies (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991), since many only contemplate the cognitive component, as it is summarized in (Pike, 2002) study, where just six of the 142 researches which has been analyzed include the affective element.

Elements of Country Image

In order to understand country image, we revisit the definitions of the country image and its components. "Country image is a set of beliefs and perceptions that people have about a given country. Further, country image is constituted of history, geography, art, music, citizens, and attributes." Arguably, media and entertainment industry are cited to be significant vehicles in constructing cues of a country image (Kotler, 2009). In instance, entertainment industry (Hollywood) in the US has significantly assisted in painting US image with the nation's image as being perceived today. Noteworthy, most of movies or media messages, assisted by well-organized campaigns substantially enhance American brand. The image builders attach, wealth, power and prestige "American dream" in promotion activity. In practice some of these "messages" are reflection of the reality that suffices in the US, orchestrated by media. All these messages are significant aspects in showcasing a country internationally. Mismanaging image branding can hamper this process (Kim & Richardson, 2003).

Notably, image is confused with stereotype, according to (Kotler & Gertner, 2002) stereotype is broad image that is held by group of people that is considerably distorted with simplicity and that interpreted with either positive or negative attitude toward the place. Moreover, it is argued that image process is more on individual point of view and not from a group of people (Kotler & Gertner, 2002).

Elements Influencing Country Brand Image

To improve a country's image, creating new positive brand association is easier than trying to refute an old image (Kotler & Gertner, 2002). If a country doesn't have a specific image or needs to change its negative image, it is better to make a new country brand association with the positive image. According to the Kotler and Gertner, the brand image of a country results from its history, geography, art, music, celebrities, proclamations, and other features. Specifically, the media and entertainment industry are important elements that shape people's perceptions of a specific place. Product categories such as perfumes, electronics, automobiles, wines, and software are also considered as strong influences on a country brand. Hosting sports events such as the Olympics and the FIFA World Cup is important in building a strong country brand, also countries participating in international sports event also can build country brands (Jun & Lee, 2007). In addition, societal ills such as AIDS, political riots, civil rights violations, environmental problems, racial conflicts, economic dilemmas, poverty, and crime rates can all be elements that influence country brand (Kotler & Gertner, 2002). A specific place such as country can be strongly or relatively associated with some of these elements and its brand image can be built on them.

Sanctions

Sanctions and embargoes are political trade restrictions put in place against target countries with the aim of maintaining or restoring international peace and security. Sanctions may include various forms of trade barriers and restrictions, some of its kind are economic, financial and political transactions.

Sanctions against Iran

The employment of economic sanctions against Iran dates back to the post-1979 Revolution (Mueller & Mueller, 1999). Starting as bans on the import of Iranian crude oil into the United States (US), sanctions later developed into the banning of all imports of Iranian refined and non-oil products, followed by an embargo of US exports in the 1980s.

The United States imposed sanctions against Iran and expanded them in 1995 to include firms dealing with the Iranian government (Zirulnick, 2011). In 2006, the UN Security Council passed Resolution 1696 and imposed sanctions after Iran refused to suspend its enrichment program. U.S. sanctions initially targeted investments in oil, gas and petrochemicals, exports of refined petroleum products, and business dealings with the Iranian Republican Guard Corps. This encompasses banking and insurance transactions (including with the Central Bank of Iran), shipping, web-hosting services for commercial endeavors, and domain name registration services (Nations, 2006).

METHODOLOGY

This research is of practical type and according to the purpose of the research it is of case descriptive. It is descriptive because part of this current research deals with describing tourism condition and economic situation of Iran and it is a case study because in case studies the investigation is aimed at studying the features and complexity of a case (Yin, 2009). The method in the current research is in experimental survey. Statistical data of this research is formed according to the 62 foreign tourists who traveled Iran before and after sanctions. The use of multiple tools and resources in research particularly in case studies increases the power of research (Yin, 2009), therefore in this survey the necessary data are gathered by 1) documents and evidence 2) questionnaire. The questionnaire study was conducted internet based which was published in a domain and asked to be filled out and it is composed of two parts, the first part measures the variables dealing with before sanctions and the second part measure after the sanctions. 5-point Likert scale is used in questionnaire which 1 is strongly disagree and 5 is strongly agree. To analyze the reliability Cronbach's alpha is used which is shown is Table 1 (before sanctions) and Table 2 (after the sanctions) respectively.

Table 1. Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the questionnaire items in the survey, the first part, Before Sanctions

Part	Factors	Cronbach's alpha	Index	Cronbach's alpha
Part 1 Before sanctions	1 - My perception of Iran is that Iran offered	**0.786**	Attractive natural attractions	0.778
			Distinctive history and heritage	0.789
			Vintage building	0.785
			Interesting museums/exhibits	0.789
			Tempting/colorful culture	0.786
			Adequate publicizing	0.782
			A good cultural experience	0.775
			Colorful nightlife	0.792
			activities for children	0.788
			Safe and secure environment	0.785
			Pleasant weather	0.787
			Friendly and helpful local people	0.783
			price for food and accommodation	0.780
			price for attractions	0.792

			and activities	
			Good bargain shopping	0.781
			Wide selection of restaurants	0.797
			Quality infrastructure	0.789
			Attractive natural attractions	0.784
			Good network of tourist information	0.776
	2- We would like you to rate how you feel about Iran as a vacation destination	**0.785**	Pleasant	0.780
			Exciting	0.785
			Arousing	0.789
			Relaxing	0.784
			Favorable	0.786
			Enjoyable	0.775
			Fun	0.786
	3- Please describe your overall image of Iran as a tourist destination	**0.778**	Iran offers nothing	0.775
			favorable overall image	0.779
			positive opinion about Iran	0.777
			local people in Iran are friendly	0.780
			Iran has a unique image	0.778
			Iran is popular	0.772

Table 2. Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the questionnaire items in the survey, the second part, After the Sanctions

part	factors	Cronbach's alpha	index	Cronbach's alpha
Part 2 after sanctions	1 - My perception of Iran is that Iran offered	**0.779**	Attractive natural attractions	0.773
			Distinctive history and heritage	0.780
			Vintage building	0.778
			Interesting museums/exhibits	0.776
			Tempting/colorful culture	0.771
			Adequate publicizing	0.774
			A good cultural experience	0.760
			Colorful nightlife	0.773

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			activities for children	0.781
			Safe and secure environment	0.792
			Pleasant weather	0.780
			Friendly and helpful local people	0.783
			price for food and accommodation	0.787
			price for attractions and activities	0.785
			Good bargain shopping	0.780
			Wide selection of restaurants	0.779
			Quality infrastructure	0.775
			Attractive natural attractions	0.786
			Good network of tourist information	0.787
	2- We would like you to rate how you feel about Iran as a vacation destination	**0.777**	Pleasant	0.784
			Exciting	0.789
			Arousing	0.773
			Relaxing	0.760
			Favorable	0.774
			Enjoyable	0.771
			Fun	0.784
	3- Please describe your overall image of Iran as a tourist destination	**0.785**	Iran offers nothing	0.792
			favorable overall image	0.787
			positive opinion about Iran	0.789
			local people in Iran are friendly	0.782
			Iran has a unique image	0.775
			Iran is popular	0.783

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Descriptive analysis of the respondents based on demographic characteristics is shown in table 3.

Considering that the questionnaire was designed in two parts: before and after the sanctions; therefore the analysis of the findings must also be done in two parts which is presented in Table 4 (Before sanctions) and Table 5 (After the sanctions) respectively.

Table 3. Respondent's demographic descriptive analysis according to demographic characteristics

Demographic characteristic	Description based on	frequently	Frequently percent
Sex	Male	24	39
	Female	38	61
Age	18-24	8	13
	25-34	23	37
	35-44	14	23
	45-54	15	24
	55 or more	2	3
Education	High school	3	5
	B.A or B.S	13	21
	M.A or M.S	26	42
	Ph.d	20	32

Table 4. Results of the part in Before Sanctions

Part	Factors	Index	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neutral	agree	Strongly agree
Part 1 before sanctions	1 - My perception of Iran is that Iran offered	Attractive natural attractions	0(0%) **	0(0)	0(0)	47(76)	15(24)
		Distinctive history and heritage	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	10(16)	52(84)
		Vintage building	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	12(19)	50(81)
		Interesting museums/exhibits	0(0)	0(0)	14(23)	36(58)	12(19)
		Tempting/colorful culture	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	13(21)	49(79)
		Adequate publicizing	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	53(85)	9(15)
		A good cultural experience	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	11(18)	51(82)
		Colorful nightlife	58(94)	0(0)	4(6)	0(0)	0(0)
		activities for children	0(0)	0(0)	2(3)	49(79)	11(18)
		Safe and secure environment	0(0)	0(0)	49(79)	6(10)	7(11)
		Pleasant weather	0(0)	0(0)	4(6)	55(89)	3(5)
		Friendly and helpful local people	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	8(13)	54(87)
		price for food and accommodation	0(0)	0(0)	45(74)	11(18)	6(10)
		price for attractions and activities	0(0)	0(0)	49(79)	7(11)	6(10)

		Good bargain shopping	2(3)	60(97)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)
		Wide selection of restaurants	4(6)	9(15)	36(58)	7(11)	6(10)
		Quality infrastructure	0(0)	4(6)	44(71)	11(18)	3(5)
		Good network of tourist information	0(0)	2(3)	40(65)	15(24)	5(8)
	2- We would like you to rate how you feel about Iran as a vacation destination	Pleasant	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	9(15)	53(85)
		Exciting	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	6(10)	56(90)
		Arousing	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	49(79)	13(21)
		Relaxing	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	11(18)	51(82)
		Favorable	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	46(74)	16(26)
		Enjoyable	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	5(8)	57(92)
		Fun	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	55(89)	7(11)
	3- Please describe your overall image of Iran as a tourist destination	Iran offers nothing	62(100)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)
		favorable overall image	0(0)	3(5)	45(74)	11(18)	3(5)
		positive opinion about Iran	0(0)	0(0)	15(24)	44(71)	3(5)
		local people in Iran are friendly	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	4(6)	58(94)
		Iran has a unique image	0(0)	0(0)	12(19)	39(63)	11(18)
		I think Iran is popular	0(0)	2(4)	9(15)	50(81)	0(0)

*** Attention: The earlier number refers to the number of respondents and the one in parenthesis refers to the percent.*

Table 5. Results of the part in After Sanctions

Part	Factors	Index	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neutral	agree	Strongly agree
Part 1 before sanctions	1 - My perception of Iran is that Iran offered	Attractive natural attractions	0(0%) **	0(0)	0(0)	47(44)	35(56)
		Distinctive history and heritage	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	6(10)	56(90)
		Vintage building	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	10(16)	52(84)
		Interesting museums/exhibits	0(0)	0(0)	14(23)	36(58)	12(19)
		Tempting/colorful culture	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	12(19)	50(81)
		Adequate publicizing	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	15(24)	45(74)
		A good cultural experience	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	6(10)	56(90)
		Colorful nightlife	58(94)	2(3)	2(3)	0(0)	0(0)
		activities for children	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	49(79)	13(21)

		Safe and secure environment	0(0)	0(0)	12(19)	10(16)	40(65)
		Pleasant weather	0(0)	0(0)	3(5)	57(92)	2(3)
		Friendly and helpful local people	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	8(13)	54(87)
		price for food and accommodation	0(0)	0(0)	36(58)	8(13)	18(29)
		price for attractions and activities	0(0)	0(0)	49(79)	7(11)	6(10)
		Good bargain shopping	2(3)	60(97)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)
		Wide selection of restaurants	4(6)	9(15)	36(58)	7(11)	6(10)
		Quality infrastructure	0(0)	4(6)	44(71)	11(18)	3(5)
		Good network of tourist information	0(0)	0(0)	40(65)	17(27)	5(8)
	2- We would like you to rate how you feel about Iran as a vacation destination	Pleasant	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	9(15)	53(85)
		Exciting	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	6(10)	56(90)
		Arousing	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	49(79)	13(21)
		Relaxing	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	11(18)	51(82)
		Favorable	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	46(74)	16(26)
		Enjoyable	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	5(8)	57(92)
		Fun	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	18(29)	44(71)
	3- Please describe your overall image of Iran as a tourist destination	Iran offers nothing	62(100)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)
		favorable overall image	0(0)	0(0)	34(55)	19(31)	9(14)
		positive opinion about Iran	0(0)	0(0)	10(16)	44(71)	8(13)
		local people in Iran are friendly	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	2(3)	60(97)
		Iran has a unique image	0(0)	0(0)	10(16)	35(56)	17(27)
		I think Iran is popular	0(0)	3(5)	4(6)	55(89)	0(0)

*** Attention: The earlier number refers to the number of respondents and the one in parenthesis refers to the percent.*

RESULT & CONCLUSION

Though a variety of options are proposed by Iranian policy makers, politicians and scholars to get through these sanctions imposed on Iran but tourism industry is the only part which enjoys great potential and a good domestic and also foreign demand. Without government intervention to inject capital by itself tourism industry leads to income distribution in local communities. Survey findings indicate that increased volatility in the exchange rate has caused the Iranian currency to be lower compared to world currencies for other countries which make Iran an affordable destination for foreign tourists. On the other hand, domestic tourism who intended to travel to other countries is diverted to domestic flights due to exchange rate changes and definitely this will result in cash flow. According to the foreign tourist, being hospitable with cheap service prices can be influencing factors in formation of valid national identity and brand during sanctions. Given that, Iran has enjoyed a remarkable tourism growth rate which was 12.7 in attracting tourism in recent years according to the UNWTO (WTO, 2010); while the world could not get further than 3.2. It can be deduced that sanctions and limitations brought prosperous opportunities for Iran and according to the survey analysis sanctions didn't affected tourism destination brand of Iran.

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NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

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Manuscripts should be written as understandably and concisely as possible with clarity and meaningfulness. Submission of a manuscript to *TOURISMOS* represents a certification on the part of the author(s) that it is an original work and has not been copyrighted elsewhere; manuscripts that are eventually published may not be reproduced in any other publication (print or electronic), as their copyright has been transferred to *TOURISMOS*. Submissions are accepted only in electronic form; authors are requested to submit one copy of each manuscript by email attachment. All manuscripts should be emailed to the Editor-in-Chief (Prof. Paris Tsartas, at ptsar@aegean.gr) and to the Editor (Prof. Evangelos Christou, at e.christou@aegean,gr), and depending on the nature of the manuscript submissions should also be emailed as follows:

- Conference reports should be emailed directly to the Conference Reports Editor (Dr. Vasiliki Galani-Moutafi), at v.moutafi@sa.aegean.gr.
- Book reviews should be emailed directly to the Book Reviews Editor (Dr. Marianna Sigala), at m.sigala@aegean.gr.
- Full papers and all other types of manuscripts should be emailed directly to the Editor (Prof. Evangelos Christou), at e.christou@aegean.gr.

Feedback regarding the submission of a manuscript (including the reviewers' comments) will be provided to the author(s) within six weeks of the receipt of the manuscript. Submission of a manuscript will be held to imply that it contains original unpublished work not being considered for publication elsewhere at the same time. Each author of a manuscript accepted for publication will receive three complimentary copies of the issue, and will also have to sign a "transfer of copyright" form. If appropriate, author(s) can correct first proofs. Manuscripts submitted to *TOURISMOS,* accepted for publication or not, cannot be returned to the author(s).

Manuscript Length

Research Papers should be not longer than 6000 words and not shorter than 4000. Research Notes should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000. Case Studies should be not longer than 3500 words and not shorter than 2500. Book Reviews should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 1000. Conference Reports should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000. Industry Viewpoints should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 500. Forthcoming Events should be not longer than 500 words. Manuscripts that do not fully conform to the above word limits (according to the type of the article) will be automatically rejected and should not be entered into the reviewing process.

Manuscript Style & Preparation

- All submissions (research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events) must have a title of no more than 12 words.
- Manuscripts should be double-line spaced, and have at least 2,5 cm (one-inch) margin on all four sides. Pages should be numbered consecutively.
- The use of footnotes within the text is discouraged – use endnotes instead. Endnotes should be kept to a minimum, be used to provide additional comments and discussion, and should be numbered consecutively in the text and typed on a separate page at the end of the article.
- Quotations must be taken accurately from the original source. Alterations to the quotations must be noted. Quotation marks (“ ”) are to be used to denote direct quotes. Inverted commas (‘ ‘) should denote a quote within a quotation. If the quotation is less than 3 lines, then it should be included in the main text enclosed in quotation marks. If the quotation is more than 3 lines, then it should be separated from the main text and indented.
- The name(s) of any sponsor(s) of the research contained in the manuscript, or any other acknowledgements, should appear at the very end of the manuscript.
- Tables, figures and illustrations are to be included in the text and to be numbered consecutively (in Arabic numbers). Each table, figure or illustration must have a title.

- The text should be organized under appropriate section headings, which, ideally, should not be more than 500-700 words apart.
- The main body of the text should be written in Times New Roman letters, font size 12.
- Section headings should be written in Arial letters, font size 12, and should be marked as follows: primary headings should be centred and typed in bold capitals and underlined; secondary headings should be typed with italic bold capital letters; other headings should be typed in capital letters. Authors are urged to write as concisely as possible, but not at the expense of clarity.
- The preferred software for submission is Microsoft Word.
- Authors submitting papers for publication should specify which section of the journal they wish their paper to be considered for: research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events.
- Author(s) are responsible for preparing manuscripts which are clearly written in acceptable, scholarly English, and which contain no errors of spelling, grammar, or punctuation. Neither the Editorial Board nor the Publisher is responsible for correcting errors of spelling or grammar.
- Where acronyms are used, their full expression should be given initially.
- Authors are asked to ensure that there are no libellous implications in their work.

Manuscript Presentation

For submission, manuscripts of research papers, research notes and case studies should be arranged in the following order of presentation:

- *First page*: title, subtitle (if required), author's name and surname, affiliation, full postal address, telephone and fax numbers, and e-mail address. Respective names, affiliations and addresses of co-author(s) should be clearly indicated. Also, include an abstract of not more than 150 words and up to 6 keywords that identify article content. Also include a short biography of the author (about 50 words); in the case of co-author(s), the same details should also be included. All correspondence will be sent to the first named author, unless otherwise indicated.

- *Second page*: title, an abstract of not more than 150 words and up to 6 keywords that identify article content. Do *not* include the author(s) details, affiliation(s), and biographies in this page.
- *Subsequent pages*: the paper should begin on the third page and should not subsequently reveal the title or authors. In these pages should be included the main body of text (including tables, figures and illustrations); list of references; appendixes; and endnotes (numbered consecutively).
- The author(s) should ensure that their names cannot be identified anywhere in the text.

Referencing Style

In the text, references should be cited with parentheses using the "author, date" style - for example for single citations (Ford, 2004), or for multiple citations (Isaac, 1998; Jackson, 2003). Page numbers for specific points or direct quotations must be given (i.e., Ford, 2004: 312-313). The Reference list, placed at the end of the manuscript, must be typed in alphabetical order of authors. The specific format is:

- *For journal papers:* Tribe, J. (2002). The philosophic practitioner. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.29, No.2, pp.338-357.
- *For books and monographs:* Teare, R. & Ingram, H. (1993). *Strategic Management: A Resource-Based Approach for the Hospitality and Tourism Industries*. London, Cassell.
- *For chapters in edited books:* Sigala, M. and Christou, E. (2002). Use of Internet for enhancing tourism and hospitality education: lessons from Europe. In K.W. Wober, A.J. Frew and M. Hitz (Eds.) *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism*, Wien: Springer-Verlag.
- *For papers presented in conferences:* Ford, B. (2004). Adoption of innovations on hospitality. *Paper presented at the 22nd EuroCHRIE Conference.* Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey: 3-7 November 2004.
- *For unpublished works:* Gregoriades, M. (2004). The impact of trust in brand loyalty, *Unpublished PhD Tourismos.* Chios, Greece: University of the Aegean.
- *For Internet sources (if you know the author)*: Johns, D. (2003) The power of branding in tourism. Http://www.tourismabstracts.org/marketing/papers-authors/id3456.

Accessed the 12th of January 2005, at 14:55. (note: always state clearly the full URL of your source).

- *For Internet sources (if you do not know the author)*: Tourism supply and demand. Http://www.tourismabstracts.org/marketing/papers-authors/id3456. Accessed the 30th of January 2004, at 12:35. (note: always state clearly the full URL of your source).
- *For reports:* Edelstein, L. G. & Benini, C. (1994). *Meetings and Conventions*. Meetings market report (August), 60-82.