Volume 1 Number 2 2003
ISSN : 0972-7787

JOURNAL OF Hospitality & Tourism

Culture & Environment
Conservation Society

JOURNAL OF H&T
www.johat.com

JOURNAL OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM

EDITOR

Mukesh Ranga
Bundelkhand University
Jhansi, India

ASSOCIATE EDITOR

Ashish Chandra
Bundelkhand University
Jhansi, India

Rachel JC Chen
University of Tennessee, USA

Christine Lim
Griffith University, Australia

PUBLISHER

Mukesh Ranga
Culture & Environment Conservation Society
TH-2, Bundelkhand University Campus
Jhansi, India
Ph + 91 0517 2321082
www. johat.com
Email m_ranga@johat.com

COPYRIGHT

Journal of Hospitality & Tourism
& Mukesh Ranga

EDITORIAL BOARD

Allan A Lew
Northern Arizona University, USA

Amitabh Upadhya
Skyline Business School, Sarzah

Bill Bramwell
Sheffield Hallam University, UK

Brian King
Victoria University, Australia

C Michael Hall
University of Otago, New Zealand

CR Geoldner
University of Colorado, USA

David A Fennell
Brock University, Canada

Derek Hall
Leisure & Tourism Management
Department, UK

Dimitris Bohalis
University of Surrey
England, UK

DS Bharadwaj
Kurukshetra University
Kurukshetra, India

Gregory Ashworth
University of Gronigen
The Netherlands

Hong Bumm Kim
Sajong University
Seoul, Korea

John C Crotts
College of Charleston, USA

Joseph Kurtzman
Sports Tourism International
Council, Canada

JR Brent Ritchie
University of Calgary, Canada

Kapil Kumar
Indira Gandhi National Open University
Delhi, India

Malcolm Cooper
Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan

ML Maurya
Bundelkhand University, Jhansi, India

OP Kandari
Bundelkhand University, Jhansi, India

Pascal Tremblay
Northern Territory University, Australia

Richard Teare
University of Action Learning, USA

Robert Davies
University of Wisconsin Stout, USA

SP Bansal
Himachal Pradesh University
Shimla, India

Walter Jamieson
University of Calgary, Canada

Printed: **abcenterprises**@vsnl.com +91 9810121172 on behalf of the Editor, Mukesh Ranga

Editor's Dais

Tourism is a major force in global trade and plays a vital role in social, cultural and economic development of the Nations and has the potential to preserve Heritage. I am pleased to present the second issue of JOHAT. It provides me immense pleasure that with the cooperation of my friends and colleagues from tourism and hospitality industry, I was able to launch first issue of Journal of Hospitality and Tourism. In this present issue I have tried to improve and rectify problems, which were noticed earlier and readers will notice that present issue of the JOHAT marks important changes in its evolution. As always, I welcome critical comments and positive suggestions for constant improvement in the Journal.

Mukesh Ranga

JOURNAL OF H&T www.johat.com

JOURNAL OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM

Volume 1 No.2, 2003 ISSN No.: 0972-7787

Binta Abubakar, *Australia* **Malcolm Cooper** *Japan*	The Role of Tourism Bureaux in the Development of Tourist Attractions in Australia: A Case Study of Hervey Bay, Queensland	1-10
Misuk Byeon **C. Michael Hall** *New Zealand*	The Korean Hotel Sector's Perspectives on the Potential Impact of Co-hosting the 2002 Football World Cup	11-34
Gemma Canoves **Gerda K. Priestley** *Spain*	The evolution of rural tourism in Spain	35-48
Leonidas A. Papakonstantinidis *Greece*	Rural Tourism: Win-Win-Win, Case Study: Women Cooperative Gargaliani	49-70
Mervyn S. Jackson **Robert Inbakaran** *Australia* **T. Srinivasan** *India*	A Cross Cultural Study of Tourist Attributions: A Comparative Study of Australian and Indian Tourists	71-90
James J. Murdy *USA* **Dong-Woo Ko** *S. Korea*	Tourists' Beliefs About Destination Sustainability	91-110
Alan K. Styles **Stephen W. Litvin** **John C. Crotts** **Calvin Blackwell** *USA*	Local Government Use of State Accommodation Tax Revenues	111-118

BOOK REVIEW

Malcolm Cooper *Japan*	Tourism and Hospitality in 21st Century	119-123
Mervyn Jackson *Australia*	New Approaches in Tourism Management	124-125
B. George *India*	Legal Perspectives in Indian Tourism	126-128

NOTES AND REPORTS

Saifuddin F. Ismailji	Bangkok's Incentive – IT&CMA	129-131
Wolfgang H. Thome	A Sanctuary in the Making	132-134

ERRATUM SECTION

JOURNAL OF H&T
www.johat.com

The Role of Tourism Bureaux in the Development of Tourist Attractions in Australia: A Case Study of Hervey Bay, Queensland

Binta Abubakar
Swinburne University Melbourne
Australia

Malcolm Cooper
Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University Beppu, Japan

Abstract: Tourism in Australia is now a $50 billion a year growth industry, which already exceeds the combined value of the agriculture, forest and fisheries industries. It is estimated that over 5 million people from all over the world visit Australia each year, to eat, play, and of course enjoy the lifestyle there. The setting chosen for this study is a quite distinctive tourism environment, Hervey Bay – Fraser Island, Queensland, Australia. According to Garrod et al (2002), the visitor information service sector has tended to receive relatively little attention in the tourism literature (with some exceptions, Swarbrooke, 1995; Sarina, 1999, Jenkins, 2001), and while some studies exist on Visitor Information Centres and their impact on business and economic development (Tierney, 1993; Sarina, 1999), little research has been carried out on their relationship with the actual tourism provider (Jenkins, 2001). This study looks at the issues that influence tourist visitor information centres from Hervey Bay local operator's perspectives.

Keywords: Visitor Information Centres, Tourism Operators, Hervey Bay, Australia

Introduction and Background

Bitner (1992, p68) emphasises the latitude still available to tourism researchers for theory building, empirical testing, measure and method development, and application studies. This study looks at the issues that influence tourist attraction from an operator's perspective and at their managerial implications. Tourism information centres and operators need to understand that the consumers of the 21st Century purchase *convenience* that will free up more time for leisure. That convenience may be in the form of a self-charter holiday or a group holiday, but can also be in the form of relevant, courteous and up-to-date information obtained from a visitor information centre (Sarina, 1999): "It matters not whether a company creates something you can touch or something you can only experience, what counts most is the service built into that something" (Baker & Fesenmaier, 1997; Neat, et al, 1999).

The City of Hervey Bay, Queensland, attracts some 1.2 million visitors every year (Tourism Queensland, 2002). The main purpose of visits to the region is for holidays (61%). The most common travel parties among the sample of visitors to the region are adult couples (37%), family groups with children (22%) and people travelling alone (17%). The most common size of travel party into the region is two people (46%) with minorities travelling alone (17%) or in a group

of three people (15%). The majority are domestic visitors (75%), but an increasingly significant proportion of international visitors are being attracted. The key activities of visitors to the Hervey Bay Region include visiting the beaches (63%), visiting Fraser Island (a World Heritage Environment (45%)), visiting licensed clubs (32%), self -drive touring (30%), visiting the Hervey Bay Boat Harbour Marina (27%), visiting the City of Maryborough (27%), going on a non-charter fishing trip (25%), and for 26% visiting local markets (Fraser Coast and South Burnett Visitor Survey, July, 2001).

Visiting Fraser Island is a particularly important reason for international visitors (55%), while Australian visitors are more likely to be visiting people in the area. An increasing trend also is for international backpackers to seek employment while in the region, thus offering assistance in areas of labour shortage such as in the local agriculture industries. The most common source markets for tourists to the region include southeastern Queensland outside the Brisbane Metropolitan Area (21%), metropolitan Brisbane (20%), the British Isles (11%) and New South Wales outside Sydney (11 %). All age ranges under 65 years are represented and the most common household types are families with school age children (41%) and young singles (22%). The full range of income groups up to $100,000 per annum is also represented.

The most common accommodation types sought by visitors are staying with friends or relatives (20%), caravans in a caravan park (18%), camping in parks (14%), motels (14%) and youth/backpacker hostels (12%). International visitors are highly reliant on youth or backpacker hostels (47%), and Australians on friends and relatives (25%), caravans in parks (22%), and motels. Over 70 percent of all visitors either travelled alone to Hervey Bay or were with friends in groups of 2-5 people. Over 40 percent of international visitors came by bus, with 29 % in private cars (up from 13 percent in 2000), 23% by train, and the remainder (7%) by plane. This is in contrast to the domestic visitor pattern, which involves private cars (64%), bus (13%), or train (8%).

The key sources of visitor information about the Fraser Coast accessed *before leaving home* include the advice of friends or relatives (40%), previous experience of the area (30%), maps (27%), travel guides or books (22%), travel brochures (21%), the Internet (17%) and travel agents (11%). Overseas visitors rely more heavily on travel guides and books (50%), the Internet (41%), brochures (39%), and travel agents (31 %), while Australian visitors rely more heavily on previous experience of the area (37%). The key sources of information for visitors *once in the area* include the advice of friends or relatives (34%), maps (28%), previous experience (26%), brochures (25%), **Visitor Information Centres (19%),** and travel guidebooks (16%). It is the role of the Visitor Information Centre (VIC) in this provision of information, especially with respect to attractions, that forms the core of this paper.

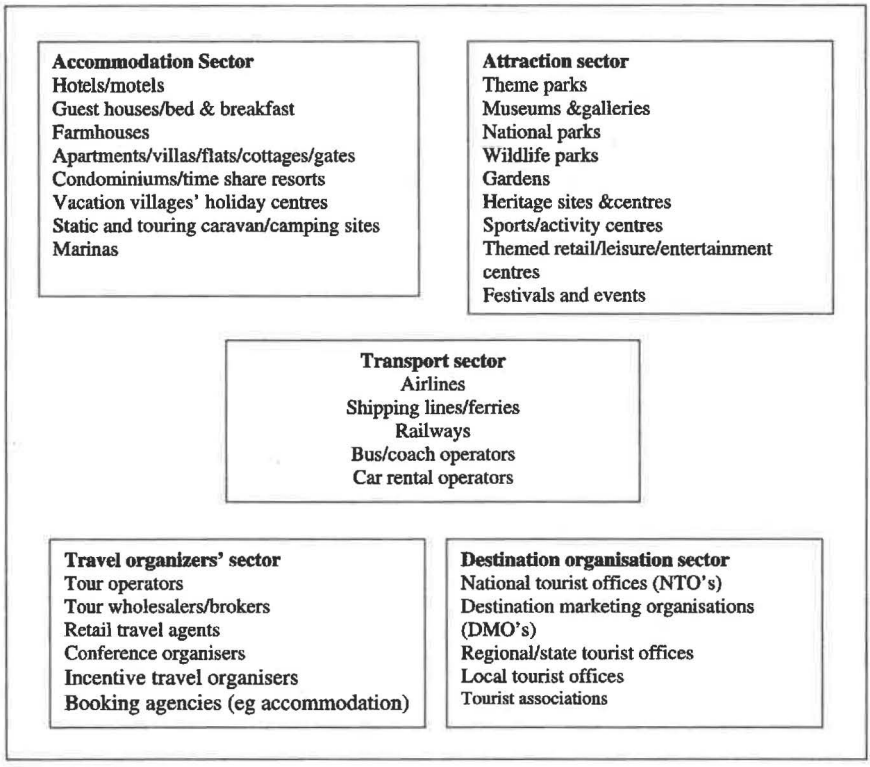
The Role of Visitor Information Centres in Visitation to Tourism Attractions

This study describes a type of organisation that is important to the development of local tourism service sectors in general, and particularly in Australia (Tierney, 1993; Sarina, 1999). It also goes some way towards meeting an urgent need for better statistics about the tourism industry's performance at the local and regional level. Local tourism operators on the Fraser Coast were contacted, during 2001, in two waves of surveys, seeking a reliable indication of the attractions visited in Queensland, and the numbers and revenues for a wide range of accommodation from hotels and motels, to farm stays and houseboats. A more comprehensive survey than the ABS accommodation surveys at a local level, the study particularly concentrated on the standard of services provided by the local Tourism Bureau, and the economic benefits for the community resulting from its operation. It also evaluated the value of visits to the industry and the local community. A total of 241 surveys where distributed across tourism businesses in Hervey Bay, Queensland in October 2002, and 58 surveys were returned (24%). This paper reports on the results.

Visitor Information Centres

Visitor Information Centres are part of the Destination Organisation Sector of tourism, as defined by Middleton & Clarke (2001, see Figure 1). The main characteristic of Australia's attraction and activity sectors are the large diversity of businesses. Such diversity stems from the attraction - or activity type, business size, management style, attitude towards the environment, location, and operating time (Becken & Simmons, 2002). The role of the VIC over the years has increasingly changed from that of providing information, to that of a business bureau and research organisation. This change has not come easily because of the actions of stakeholders, customers' expectations and the changing environment (Jenkins, 2001). Queensland for example currently has in place a network of approximately 116 Visitor Information Centres (VIC's) and information providers, organised into regions under the government department, Tourism Queensland. Each of these VIC's interacts with local attractions in unique, though usually predictable ways.

Figure 1: The five main sectors of the travel and tourism industry, adapted from Middleton & Clarke (2001)



Source: Swarbrooke, John (2002).

Visitor Information Centres lead tourists to a mixture of history, colour and controversy in a much more direct way than say, travel agents. They provide localised information to help tourists make more of their visits. They ensure that there is somewhere for visitors to go to when they need information and direction during their visitation or around a region. Visitor centres make it possible for motel and tourist operators to disseminate information about their services, this is often the case with countryside attractions, and they can also help in revamping dying towns. The importance of tourism to the Australian economy and the number of visitors both international and domestic that travel each year around the country makes the VIC's necessary. The VIC's are brokers also, in the same way as travel agents, but do not generally charge for their services. They also have an 'impressing the visitor' and an advertising function for a specific locality that a travel agent does not (Jenkins, 2001).

Methodology

This research was undertaken to explore the role that visitor information centre's play in regional tourism development by reference to a case study of Hervey Bay, Queensland. A total of 241 questionnaire surveys were distributed to tourism businesses (operators) in Hervey Bay in October 2001. Fifty-eight surveys were returned (24%). This section outlines the questions asked and the overall responses received from respondents.

The findings of this study support the view that visitor information centres are an important part of the information and decision making system for visitors to a local area. The overwhelming majority of respondents (81%) saw benefit in attending regular Tourism Bureau organised social functions with other tourism operators, 68 percent had visited the Visitor Information Centre recently, and 60 percent were happy with assistance they had received from the Bureau in the past (Table 1).

Table 1: Questions Asked and Overall Responses

Question	Yes %	No %	N/A %
Do you see a benefit in attending regular Bureau organised social functions with other tourism operators	81	19	-
Have you been into the Visitor Information Centre recently	68	32	-
If so, were you happy with the experience (If not, please comment below)	60	6	34
Are you in favour of meeting with the Bureau and other operators with similar businesses to plan some joint marketing strategies	80	12	8
Would you be interested in workshops or seminars focusing on the tourism industry	54	40	6
Would you support the idea of the Information Centre at Urraween Road selling accommodation to walk in visitors	67	24	9
Would you support the idea of the Information Centre selling tours to walk in visitors	59	36	5
Are you happy with assistance you have received from the Bureau in the past	79	12	9
Do you think the Bureau can be of assistance to your business now our energies will be focused on promotions within Hervey Bay	87	3	10

When asked whether or not a local tourism bureau can be of assistance to business if its energies are focused on promotions *within* a particular city or region, again the overwhelming majority said yes. This has a lot to do with the existence in Queensland of another tier of tourism marketing for interstate and international visitors, that of the Regional Tourism Board (in this case the Fraser Coast and South Burnett Regional Tourism Board), but also indicates that one of the pressures local operators feel most strongly is the problem of informing visitors to their area. Given that most visitors to Hervey Bay come by private vehicle, the existence of the Hervey Bay Tourism Bureau's office on the major entry route to the city is of critical importance to such information flows.

When asked if they were in favour of meeting with the Bureau and other operators with similar businesses to plan some joint marketing strategies (80%), and whether or not they were interested in workshops or seminars focusing on the tourism industry (54%), respondents from Hervey Bay again supported the emerging coordination role of local VIC's. Respondents were less enthusiastic about the concept of a local information centre selling accommodation (67%) and tours to walk in visitors (59%). This mainly reflects concern over 'unfair' competition with other outlets on the basis of assumed lower costs, and is common throughout Australia until it actually happens and the operators recognise that it was an unfounded fear. Table 2 shows that all respondents by no means hold this concern.

Table 2: Selling Accommodation and Tours, Response by Individual Categories of Operator

Category of Respondent	Book Accommodation Bookings?		Book Tours?	
	YES %	NO %	YES %	NO %
Apartment Complex	60	40	40	60
Bed & Breakfast	67	33	33	67
Backpacker	67	33	67	33
Caravan Park	20	80	20	80
Hotel	-	100	-	100
Motel	60	40	20	80
Resort	67	33	50	50
4WD Vehicles	60	40	60	40
Attractions	75	25	80	20
Fishing	67	33	67	33
Flights	100	-	100	-
Hire/Charter	100	-	100	-
Whale Tour	50	50	50	50
General Booking Office	-	100	-	100
Other Booking Office	78	22	78	22
Professional Service	100	-	100	-
Restaurant	50	50	50	50
Retail	50	50	50	50

The majority of accommodation houses, except Caravan Parks and Hotels, do not seem to have a particular problem with the Hervey Bay Visitor Information Centre (Hervey Bay Tourism Bureau) taking bookings for them. This is probably because a very wide range of establishments already perform this service, including travel agents. However, when it comes to booking *tours*, which can be a significant part of their business for some accommodation houses, the reverse is generally true. For all other respondents except for those who work in existing Booking Offices, there appears to be no real concern about VIC's providing a booking service for either accommodation or tours. Attractions, flight operators and hire places appear to be particularly supportive of this practice.

The comments provided by *Caravan Park Operators* encapsulate the *no* position very well. Of particular interest were the following:

"In relation to tour bookings, a very definite NO. This is a large part of our business. The Bureau would be competing unfairly for this business with private enterprise. The Bureau is subsidised by council and therefore the ratepayers. This private business is not subsidised by anybody".

"The information centre is just that. The selling of accommodation or tours would not benefit the Hervey Bay community at all, in fact it would be detrimental to our industry. Your role is to expose the tourist to a broad cross section of accurate information as possible with the objective to maximise their stay and having them leave with the view to return".

"I guess you will be doing this to derive income (i.e. commission). This may have an affect on me as I obviously book tours for people and provide accommodation. If my income were to drop as a result of you doing this, then I would have to question the value of our firm being a member of the Bureau".

On the other hand, *Attractions and Hire Operators* had this to say on the *yes* side:

"Flyers given out by the Bureau of day trips, things to do and see to keep tourists in the Bay a day longer are important. Tourists don't like to think, they like things organised. Day 1, Day 2, Day 3 etc. with suggestions of what they could do to fill in each day, incorporating attractions etc".

"The Hervey Bay Historical Museum, which is the only one of its kind in the Bay is mainly patronised by holiday visitors who have got brochures from the tourism bureau, other information centres, caravan parks, motels etc. or hear about it by word of mouth or the free write ups inserted in the local paper. We are appreciative and happy with that".

"I think it would be a great idea for the tourism bureau to sell tours as you have the first contact with the tourists".

"Often during the whale watch period other agents take our brochure from its position on their racks and place it where it can't be seen and I'm hoping our involvement with the Bureau in the whale watch season will help that situation. The package should appeal to people with young children and those who've already been to Fraser Island. Some of my better agents won't support it because of the 10% only commission but if we make it more the price won't be attractive. If you have any new volunteers we would love to see them on board any time".

"Being a very small operator and very limited budget it's hard for me to get my product out and known, also split season 9 months at Kingfisher and 3 months whale watching. I guess I am looking for very cost effective ways of marketing and building direct bookings (I try to limit commission paid to 15% only; I'm not going to compete with operators who give 20-25% and agents who want the same)".

"My personal opinion is that one of the first things we noticed about Hervey Bay (when we moved here four years ago) was that there was a wide range of shopfronts displaying the (i) information sign, but no central tourist office. In other words, it appeared that tourism information was de-centralised. This was not efficient or convenient for us, the new visitor, because during our travels throughout NSW, Victoria, SA etc, we had come to expect that every town had a signature central tourist information centre. So the more this becomes the case in Hervey Bay, the more the average tourist's expectations are met, I believe. Also, when travelling in the UK, we always used the tourist information centre to arrange our accommodation every afternoon. It was great and painless. If this was available at the Hervey Bay office, that would also contribute to perhaps many overseas tourists' expectations being met. I am not the owner of a local accommodation business, so I don't know how this would impact on the motel/resort manager".

"Selling tours and accommodation should perhaps see the creation of a paid position to ensure optimum results".

Discussion

Government interest in tourism in Australia is of course high as a result of it being one of the country's fastest growing industries. Federal and State interest is expressed though the Australian Tourist Commission and its State counterparts. At the State level government involvement is organised through regional tourist organisations, for example in Queensland there are 11 regions. Each of these regional organisations receives centralised support and finance, and functions primarily as a regional marketing body. This enables significantly enhanced purchasing power for each of the regions with respect to Australia's markets, according to their desire for exposure.

However, this direct financial and organisational support does not extend to local tourism organisations, such as Visitor Information Centres. Consequently, they

have little or no role in marketing their area. This has been the most difficult problem for VIC's to solve in their long history. Generally set up, if they are public entities, by local government in a quasi-governmental manner (administrative and some budgetary support), it is often assumed that a VIC can and should market its area by the local tourist operators, the public, and the sponsoring local government, but that somehow that marketing should be paid for by the organisation itself. Any attempt to supplement income in order to do this is strongly resisted if it is likely to involve selling tourism product in direct competition with the operators themselves, or if membership fees are set 'too high'. Since marketing is a very expensive process, these restrictions can mean the demise of the local organisation unless it has a very understanding and wealthy sponsor, or delegated power to take commission from sales of local product, or support from local operators for increased fees. As we have seen from the data revealed by this study, those attitudes and outcomes are also to be found in the Hervey Bay context.

Nevertheless the local operators were in favour of meeting with the Bureau and other operators with similar businesses to plan some joint marketing strategies. In other words, there is a shortfall in what the operators thought that the regional tourism board and the State Government could achieve, and that therefore the Bureau could be of assistance to their businesses. However, most saw a benefit in attending regular Bureau organised social functions with other tourism operators, which indicates that a socialising function is also most important. This points up the essential problem that VIC's face, they are controlled by ad hoc organisations, sponsored by local government, and expected to make a real impact on the tourism performance of an area without the organisation or means to do so. In the end perhaps the only uncontested function they have other than the distribution of operator brochures to actual visitors is to provide a forum for socialising between operators.

Conclusions

Tourism in Australia is now a $50 billion a year growth industry, which already exceeds the combined value of the agriculture, forest and fisheries industries. It is estimated that over 5 million people from all over the world visit Australia each year, to eat, play, and of course enjoy the lifestyle there. At the local government level the visitor information centre has a vital role to play as an intermediator between the visitor and the local tourism industry. This research has shown that the expectations of performance are high but the outcomes are constrained. The formal marketing system does not include VIC's, and neither does the formal financing of tourism organisation networks by State or Federal governments. However, the study shows that local tourism operators are interested in the VIC and recognise its importance to local tourism.

References

Baker, D., & Fesenmaier, D. (1997) Effects of Service Climate on Manager's and Employee's Rating of Visitor Quality Expectations, *Journal of Travel Research*, XXXVI, Summer, 1.

Becken, S, & Simmons, D. G. (2002) Understanding energy consumption patterns of tourist attractions -and activities in New Zealand, *Tourism Management*, 23(4), August, 343-354.

Bitner, M. 1. (1992) Servicescape: The Impact of Physical Surroundings on Customer and Employees, *Journal of Marketing*, 56(21), 57 -72.

Fraser Coast and South Burnett Regional Tourism Board. (2001) *Fraser Coast and South Burnett Visitor Survey*, July.

Garrod, B., Fyall, A., & Leask, A. (2002) Scottish Visitor Attractions: Managing Visitor Impacts. *Tourism Management*, 23(3), 265-279.

Jenkins, J. (2001) Distribution strategies for regional and national tourism organisations: an Australian Case study, in D. Buhalis & E. Laws (eds) *Tourism Distribution Channels*, London: Continuum.

Middleton, V. T. C., & Clarke, J. (2001) *Marketing in Travel and Tourism*, 3rd edn, London: Butterworth Heinemann Publishing.

Neat, J. D., Sirgy, J., & Uysat, M. (1999) The Role of Satisfaction with Leisure Travel/Tourism Services and Experiences in Satisfaction with Leisure Life and Overall Life, *Journal of Business Research*, 44(3), 153-164.

Sarina, H. (1999) *Queensland Visitor Information Centre (VIC) Study: Queensland Tourist and Travel Corporation (QTTC) and Tourism Potential*, presented to the Australian University Tourism and Hospitality Education (CAUTHE) Conference, 10-13 February.

Swarbrooke, J. (2002) *The Development of Management of Visitor Attractions*, 2nd edn, London: Butterworth Heinemann Publishing.

Tierney, P. T. (1993) The Influence of State Traveller Information Centres on Tourist Length of Stay and Expenditure, *Journal of Travel Research*, 31 (3), 28-32.

About the Authors

Binta Abubakar is Lecturer in Tourism at Swinburne University, Melbourne, Australia, where she currently completing her PhD research into customer satisfaction in tourism. A native of Africa, she been lecturing in Australian Universities in tourism for a number of years, and has undertaken significant research into customer satisfaction in that Country's Great Barrier Reef environment. Her research interests also include the activities of tourism bureaux and similar organisations in terms of their contribution to visitor satisfaction with a destination.

Malcolm Cooper PhD LLM FPIA is Professor of Tourism Management at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Beppu, Japan. He has studied, taught and researched at the Universities of Birmingham and Glasgow (United Kingdom), New England, South Australia and Adelaide (Australia), and the Waiariki Institute of Technology (New Zealand). He has been Visiting Professor at Indonesian and Chinese Universities, and most recently was Dean of the Wide Bay Campus of the University of Southern Queensland. In addition to these academic positions he has held senior positions in State, Federal and Local Government in Australia, and has been a consultant to the Governments of China and Vietnam in the development of tourism. His publications include more than 95 publications on a variety of topics, but specialising in environmental planning and tourism management.

JOURNAL OF H&T www.johat.com

The Korean Hotel Sector's Perspectives on the Potential Impact of Co-hosting the 2002 Football World Cup

Misuk Byeon
Department of Tourism,
University of Otago School of Business,
University of Otago, New Zealand

C. Michael Hall
Department of Tourism,
University of Otago School of Business,
University of Otago. New Zealand

Abstracts: The 2002 Soccer World Cup jointly hosted by Korea and Japan was an important mega-event for both countries. However, despite the economic, political and tourist significance of the event relatively little research has been undertaken on its potential impact. This paper discusses the Korean hotel sector's perceived impact of hosting the World Cup in Korea. The goals of the research were to identify the Korean hotel sector's perspectives on the impact of the event on individual hotels, cities, and the nation as a whole; the different perspectives that may exist between hotels in host cities and non-host cities; and the extent to which the ten host cities may benefit from hosting the 2002 World Cup.

To achieve the above goals the 461 member hotels of the Korea Hotel Association were approached to participate in the study. Of the 461 hotels contacted, 431 hotels were open or willing to participate in the research, and were provided with a mail out survey. Two hundred seventy-seven (64.3%) replies were received.

This result showed that there were very significant differences between the perspectives of host cities and non-host cities. The Korean hotel sector believed that Seoul would get the most benefit from co-hosting the Football World Cup 2002. The research findings suggest that there are perceived benefits to hosting the Football World Cup 2002. However, the perceived benefits vary amongst the different on the impact to the individual hotel to the city/town and to the nation.

Keywords: Football World Cup, Korean hotel sector, positive, negative impacts, host cities, non-host cities.

Even though the Republic of Korea was a late starter in tourism compared with many other Asian nations (Chon and Shin 1990), the tourism sector in South Korea has become the biggest export industry surpassing the car industry in terms of contributions toward the balance of payments and is a major foreign exchange contributor (Kim and Song 1998). Between 1981 and 2000 receipts from tourism grew from US$448 million to almost US$ 6.8 billion. Total visitor arrivals in Korea, increased from 2,340,462 visitors in 1988 to 5,321,792 visitors in 2000 - an increase of 127 per cent (Ministry of Culture and Tourism (MCT) and Korea National Tourism Organisation (KNTO) 2001) (Table 1).

Table 1Visitor statistics for South Korea

Year	Visitor Arrivals		Tourism Receipts (US$ 1,000)	
		G. R (%)		G. R (%)
1961	11,109	28.1	1,353	210.3
1971	232795	1995.6	52,383	3771.6
1981	1093214	369.6	447,640	754.6
1982	1145044	4.7	502318	12.2
1983	1194551	4.3	596245	18.7
1984	1297318	8.6	673355	12.9
1985	1426045	9.9	784312	16.5
1986	1659972	16.4	1547502	97.3
1987	1874501	12.9	2299156	48.6
1988	2340462	24.9	3265232	42.0
1989	2728054	16.6	3556279	8.9
1990	2958839	8.5	3558666	0.1
1991	3196340	8.0	3426416	-3.7
1992	3231081	1.1	3271524	-4.5
1993	3331226	3.1	3474640	6.2
1994	3580024	7.5	3806051	9.5
1995	3753197	4.8	5586536	46.8
1996	3683779	-1.8	5430210	-21.8
1997	3908140	6.1	5115963	-5.8
1998	4250216	8.8	*6865,400	34.2
1999	4659785	9.6	*6,801,900	-0.9
2000	5321792	14.2	6,811,300	0.1

(Source: MCT and KNTO 2001)

Mega-events, such as the 1986 Asian Games and 1988 Seoul Olympics (Kwon 1990; Chon and Shin 1990; Kang and Perdue 1994; Ahn and Ahmed 1994; Lee and Kwon 1995; Lee, Var and Blaine 1996; Hall 1997a; Ahn and McGahey 1997; Kim and Song 1998) and the Daejon Exposition (Expo) (Lee and Kwon 1995; Kim and Uydal 1998) have been a critical component in Korea's tourism expansion, contributing not only to increased international market awareness and visitor numbers but also to the development of tourist infrastructure. For example, in 1965 Korea had only 37 hotels with 1,837 rooms (Ministry of Transportation (MOT) and Korea National Tourism Corporation (KNTC) (=former KNTO) 1980; Hall 1997a) compared to 127 hotels with 19,296 rooms in 1981. At the time of the 1988 Olympics 265 hotels accounted for a total of 33,189 rooms (Chon and Shin 1990). By 2000, this figure increased to 474 hotels with a total of

Table 2 Tourist hotels and rooms

Year	Hotels	Changes (%)	Rooms	Changes (%)
1961	18	-	578	-
1965	37	105.6	1,837	217.8
1971	76	105.4	5,673	208.8
1981	123	61.8	19,296	240.1
1982	137	11.4	20,942	8.5
1983	147	7.3	22,233	6.2
1984	149	1.4	22,415	0.8
1985	155	4.0	23,089	3.0
1986	172	11.0	24,560	6.4
1987	209	21.5	27,180	10.7
1988	**265**	**26.8**	**33,189**	**22.1**
1989	321	21.1	36,211	9.1
1990	395	23.1	40,386	11.5
1991	424	7.3	42,489	5.2
1992	435	2.6	43,739	2.9
1993	436	0.2	44,285	1.2
1994	435	-0.2	44,043	-0.5
1995	436	0.2	44,479	1.0
1996	441	1.1	45,108	1.4
1997	446	1.1	46,984	4.2
1998	452	1.3	46,998	0.03
1999	457	1.1	47,536	1.1
2000	474	3.7	51,189	7.7

(Source: MOT and KNTC 1978, KHA 2001 in MCT and KNTO 2001)
(Note: Hotel numbers are exclusive of Youth hostels, Family hotels and Traditional Korean hotels.)

51,189 rooms (Korea Hotel Association (KHA) 2001 in MCT and KNTO 2001) (Table 2). The increased interest in Korea from foreign tourists, and greater leisure time and disposable income for Koreans has also corresponded with this growth in accommodation (Chon and Shin 1990; Hall 1997a).

The Significance of Mega-events

Mega-events, otherwise referred to as hallmark or special events, are major fairs, festivals, expos, cultural and sporting events which are held on either a regular or a one-off basis (Ritchie 1984; Hall 1992, 1997b; Roche 1992). Such events are some of the most important image builders of modern-day tourism (Roche 1992). Mega-events are extremely significant not just for their immediate tourism component and media profile but also because they may have long lasting benefits and costs based on economic, tourism/commercial, physical, socio-cultural, psychological and political impacts on the host community and country (Ritchie 1984; Hall 1992; Kang and Perdue 1994; Deccio and Balcoglu 2002).

The most commonly catalogued physical impacts of mega-events are the new facilities constructed as a result of the event, as well as the improvement of local infrastructures which might not have been politically or financially feasible

without the event (Ritchie 1984). Mega-events also have been recognized for their role in highlighting the international profile of the host country or region (Jeong and Faulkner 1996; Deccio and Balcoglu 2002), and improving the host community's quality of life (Goeldner and Long 1987; Deccio and Balcoglu 2002). Hall (1989) indicated that a mega-event has the power to strengthen regional values and traditions and even lead to cultural understanding among visitors and residents. Mega-events have unique qualities of their own that pose special problems and opportunities because not only the host community but also peripheral communities will be affected by hallmark events given size and scope of the phenomena (Deccio and Balcoglu 2002). Increased long-and short-term employment opportunities are one of the perceived benefits of holding a mega-event (Hall 1989; Jeong and Faulkner 1996; Ritchie and Lyons 1990; Deccio and Balcoglu 2002). Negative impacts created by a major event may include price inflation, increased tax burdens, and mismanagement of public funds by organizers (Ritchie and Aitken 1984). Traffic congestion, law enforcement strain, increased crime, overcrowding and environmental damage (Ritchie 1984; Hall 1992; Mihalik and Cummings 1995; Deccio and Balcoglu 2002) are also potential negative impacts. However, despite the undoubted significance of mega-events, it is only since the 1980s that substantial attention has been paid to their management, marketing, planning, and impacts on host cities (e.g., Ritchie and Aitken 1984, 1985; Ritchie and Lyons 1990; Ritchie and Smith 1991; Hall 1992, 1996, 2001; Getz 1998; Hiller 1998; Page and Hall 2003).

The Federation Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup is the largest single sporting event in the world (FIFA 1999a). On May 31, 1996, the Korean government proudly announced that another major international sports event, the 2002 FIFA World Cup, was to be held in Korea. Hosted jointly by Korea and Japan, this was the first Football World Cup to take place in Asia and the first Football World Cup of the new millennium (FIFA 1999b). Hosting the World Cup stemmed from Koreans' desire to once again hold international centre stage and therefore increase their international profile (Kim 1996).

However, unlike the Olympic Games there has been relatively little attention paid to research on the impacts of the Football World Cup (Dauncey and Hare 1999). Nevertheless, the need for such research has been long recognised. As Ritchie (1984: 11) noted in his seminal work on the impact of hallmark events, there is a need for 'more definitive and more comprehensive' approaches 'to the assessment of the impact of hallmark events' that are employed in most situations.

This article reports on the conduct of the first phase of a longitudinal survey of the Korean hotel industry's pre-event perspectives of the 2002 Football World Cup. The hotel sector was chosen as the sample population for this study for four reasons. Firstly, the hotel sector is one of the largest sectors of the Korean tourism and hospitality industry in terms of capital investment and tourist

expenditure (Kim and Uysal 1998). Secondly, hotels provide the largest number of jobs, generate the greatest multiplier effect outside the industry, and are major foreign currency earners (Kim and Uysal 1998). Thirdly, satisfactory accommodation was one of FIFA's requirements of the host country to have complied with under FIFA's stipulation of minimum terms and conditions in order to bid for the 2002 FIFA World Cup (World Cup Organising Invite Association 1995). Finally, little research has been specifically undertaken on the perspectives of the hotel sector on the hosting of mega-events. Although focussed on the perceptions of the hotel industry, such research may also help provide a greater understanding of the potential longer-term impacts of hosting mega-events (Jeong and Faulkner 1996). The performance of the hotel industry might also be used as an indicator of general trends in tourism demand for a particular area. Projected events in an area would be a valuable indicator for hotel management in forecasting accommodation demand for the area in the future (Kim and Uysal 1998). Given that previous research had noted the potential for impacts to be perceived as occurring at different scales (Hall 1992), the objectives of this study were therefore to identify the Korean hotel sector's perceptions:

- of the impact of the event on individual hotels, cities/towns, and the nation as a whole;
- of the different impacts that may exist between hotels in host-cities (HCs) and non-host cities (NHCs);
- of the extent to which the ten HCs may benefit from hosting the 2002 Football World Cup.

Methodology

The sample population

The sample population was identified from the 1999 and 2000 Korea Hotel Directory (KHD) and Korea Hotel Association (KHA). Initially address list was identified with a population of 452 hotels from the 1999 KHD. However, during the survey period (between February 16th and May 18th 2000), an updated 2000 KHD was published in mid April 2000, declaring a population of 458 hotels. However, two first class hotels which were in the 1999 KHD and who confirmed that they were still running as a business, were not listed in the 2000 KHD. Additionally, the newly opened (31 March 2000) Lotte Hotel Jeju was not included in the 2000 KHD. Including the above three hotels, the total defined hotel population for this study was 461. All member hotels of the KHA were contacted initially to confirm hotel details (hotel address and name of the general manager (GM) and/or managing director (MD)) with information given by 1999 KHD before distribution the questionnaire to all hotels for the actual survey. After confirming hotel details and comparing the 1999 KHD with the 2000 KHD, it was found that

5 hotels were managed by the same MD and GM, 16 hotels had disconnected telephones, 2 hotels were closed, 4 hotels were temporarily closed and 3 hotels did not want to answer the questionnaire. Therefore, from the entire Korean hotel population of 461, a total of 431 hotels were approached for survey. The GMs and MDs were chosen as the sample population because of their executive position and the likely degree of knowledge they would have about the potential impacts of the event (see Ladkin 1999).

Survey instrument

The data for this research was obtained through a questionnaire using closed question techniques. The questionnaire was designed to identify the Korean hotel industry's perspectives on the positive and negative aspects of the Football World Cup 2002 on their hotel, and at the city/town and national level. These included not only economic impacts but also tourism/commercial, environmental/physical, socio-cultural, psychological and political impacts derived from a review of previous international and Korean mega-event research (Ritchie 1984; Ritchie and Aitken 1984, 1985; Jeong 1988, 1992, Ritchie and Lyons 1990; Hall 1992; Jeong and Faulkner 1996). A five-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree (1) to 'strongly agree (5) was used to rate 117 impact variables of the 2002 Football World Cup on their own hotel (24 variables), their city/town (40 variables) and nation (53 variables). Reports describe the distribution of respondents along the scale or in the categories when scales are used. Scales are used to obtain responses which will be comparable to one another and may be regarded as both efficient and practical (Alreck and Settle 1995). Jeong's (1987, 1988) study also used a five-point Likert scale, providing a basis for further comparisons of results. The questionnaire also sought to identify the extent to which the ten HCs may benefit from the 2002 Football World Cup and a five-point Likert scale was utilised ranging from number 1 (no benefit) to number 5 (great benefit).

The questionnaire was first drafted in English and then translated into Korean. A self-translated Korean version of the questionnaire was given to the MD of an inbound travel agency in Seoul and a person who works in the Korea Tourism Research Institute for proof reading. They were both fluent in Korean and good in English. The Korean word expression of the questionnaire was modified using comments from the proofreaders.

Survey administration

The survey population was provided with a mail-out and mail-back questionnaire (an initial covering letter providing an introduction to the research and a copy of the survey instrument with a stamped reply envelope attached) between 25 January and 18 May 2000 (pilot test period included). Even though personal interviewing provides the most complete contact with respondents (Alreck and Settle 1995), personal interview surveys were not employed for the purposes of

this study because of the travel costs and time that would otherwise be incurred in visiting hotels throughout the country. Therefore, a mail data collection method was selected. Questionnaires were sent to a specific MD and/or GM by name in an attempt to increase the response rate because they are considered the most responsible person within the hotel. By sending it to specified personnel it was also hoped that all surveys would be answered by an equivalent person in all hotels. If a hotel did not have a GM position, questionnaires were addressed to the MD.

Non-respondents were identified from the initial questionnaire distribution list and telephone follow-up calls were made in order to increase the response rate. During the telephone follow-ups, it was found that some hotels had misplaced or did not receive the questionnaire. Therefore, the questionnaire was sent again to those who still wanted to participate in the survey. Fax and email were also used both for the second distribution of questionnaires and their return to save delivering time. In total 277 replies were received representing a response rate of 64.3%. From these results, even if this sample population approximates the overall distribution of hotel population in Korea, it is clear that hotel samples are skewed toward the Seoul area because of the distribution of hotels in Korea and may therefore be biased. In the discussion below the statements that the respondents evaluated are placed in inverted commas.

Results and Discussion

Profile of respondents

Of the respondents 69.5% were GMs and 24.2% had between 16 to 20 years length of work in the hotel industry. 98.1% of respondents were Korean and 97.5% were male. In terms of the characteristics of the respondents' hotels, 42.2% were rated as first class hotels and 22.4% were located in Seoul. 55.2% of respondents were located in cities hosting World Cup games. Of the sample population 41.2% were hotels holding between 51-100 rooms which reflects a high response rate from first class hotels (Pearson Chi-Square Value (PCSV): 240.000, Significant Level (SL): 0.000). Host cities (HCs) have a greater number of deluxe 1st class (7.8%), deluxe 2nd class (18.3%) and third class (13.7%) hotels than non-host cities (NHCs) (4.8%, 8.3% and 8.1% respectively). The majority of the deluxe (deluxe 1st and deluxe 2nd class) hotels have over 151 rooms. Deluxe (deluxe 1st and deluxe 2nd class) hotels have more rooms than first, second and third class hotels.

The surprising predominance of males (97.5%) result when compared to the gender balance of the Korean accommodation and restaurant workers (32.1% male) (National Statistics 1998) supports Peacock's (1995) notion that there is an extremely low proportion of senior female hospitality managers in the hotel industry.

Even though the entire population was sampled, the results are predominantly those of first class hotels because factors other than equal probability of being chosen in each sample may be present. Moreover, 79.8% (n=221) were found to be non-deluxe (first, second and third class) and 20.2% (n=56) were deluxe (deluxe 1st and deluxe 2nd class) hotels. Therefore, this study's results would more likely reflect the non-deluxe hotels and HC's perspectives of the 2002 Football World Cup.

70.9% of deluxe (deluxe 1st and deluxe 2nd class) hotels perceived that the World Cup would increase revenue in relation to their hotel. While 55.9% and 45.1% of first and second class hotels showed agreement with 'increases revenue' in relation to their hotel respectively, only 35.5% of third class hotels showed positive agreement (PCSV: 39.461, SL: 0.000). Moreover, deluxe (deluxe 1st and deluxe 2nd class) hotels showed higher agreement (50.0%) on 'increases international guests after the event' than first (35.9%), second (32.9%) and third (22.6%) class hotels (PCSV: 25.258, SL: 0.014). In other words deluxe hotels perceived that they will get benefits from the Football World Cup even after the event is finished. These results reflect Chon and Shin's (1990) note that deluxe class hotels that cater mostly to international visitors experience the highest occupancy rates in general (Table 3). Deluxe (deluxe 1st and deluxe 2nd class) hotels showed higher agreement (51.9%) with 'increases hotel room prices' than first (30.7%), second (17.2%) and third (19.4%) class (PCSV: 32.395, SL: 0.001). The deluxe (deluxe 1st and deluxe 2nd class) hotels perceived they have a greater opportunity to increase their hotel room numbers.

Table 3 Hotel room occupancy rates by classification (unit: %)

Classification	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	Average	2000
Super Deluxe (=Deluxe 1st class)	74.2	73.1	70.4	69.0	75.5	76.2	71.2	71.9	70.1	72.8	**72.5**	72.0
Deluxe (=Deluxe 2nd class)	70.1	69.5	66.3	69.0	73.7	77.5	73.9	71.3	67.8	72.8	**71.2**	72.8
First class	59.3	61.9	59.9	62.3	68.3	68.8	63.5	60.1	52.8	58.4	61.5	64.0
Second class	60.4	61.8	61.2	61.5	65.1	63.8	59.6	56.5	47.6	48.6	58.6	53.6
Third class	50.5	54.1	52.0	50.1	51.6	50.4	50.2	45.6	41.8	39.8	48.6	46.1
Public hotels	42.7	46.6	50.9	42.2	57.0	59.5	57.0	42.2	41.5	39.2	47.9	*
Family hotels	-	-	-	-	-	39.3	31.8	38.9	35.9	37.3	36.6	39.1
Traditional Korean hotels	-	-	-	-	-	58.1	57.3	60.9	60.0	63.9	60.0	63.8
Total	63.6	64.3	62.6	63.2	68.7	67.4	65.8	62.7	58.1	61.8	63.8	65.1

(Source: KHA in MCT and KNTO 2000, MCT and KNTO 2001)
(Note: *=Public Hotels are included in Family Hotels by the revision of related laws, Average=Accumulated year between 1990-1999)

Results of private sector, city/town and national level

From the perspective of individual hotels, the highest ranking benefit was in terms of tourism and commercial impacts, namely that the mega-event would increase international guests during the hosting of the event (mean=3.79). Economic impact such as 'increases revenues' was the second highest expected benefit which is a surprising result when compared with city/town and national level results. 'Overcrowding in your hotel facilities' (mean=2.68) was perceived as the highest cost followed by 'lack of parking lots' (mean=2.67) (Table 4).

Table 4 The perspectives of the Korean hotel sector on the potential impacts of co-hosting the 2002 Soccer World Cup

R	Variables	Mean	1		2		3		4		5		Total		Missing	
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	Tourism/commercial benefits															
1	Increases international guests during the event	3.79	14	5.1	31	11.2	44	15.9	97	35.0	91	32.9	277	100	0	0
4	Increases international guests before the event	3.33	19	6.9	54	19.5	55	19.9	109	39.4	37	13.4	274	98.9	3	1.1
5	Increases domestic guests during the event	3.25	21	7.6	60	21.7	69	24.9	82	29.6	45	16.2	277	100	0	0
8	Stimulates conferences before, during, and after event	3.21	31	11.2	40	14.4	74	26.7	96	34.7	31	11.2	272	98.2	5	1.8
	Physical/environmental benefits															
6	Improves/creates congress, conference and exhibition facilities	3.24	38	13.7	28	10.1	74	26.7	103	37.2	34	12.3	277	100	0	0
11	Creates/develops recreation facilities	3.03	41	14.8	47	17.0	72	26.0	88	31.8	24	8.7	272	98.2	5	1.8
16	Increases room numbers	2.82	71	25.6	45	16.2	53	19.1	75	27.1	31	11.2	275	99.3	2	0.7
	Physical/environmental costs															
18	Overcrowding in your hotel facilities	2.68	45	16.2	68	24.5	100	36.1	53	19.1	8	2.9	274	98.9	3	1.1
19	Lack of parking lots	2.67	63	22.7	58	20.9	76	27.4	60	21.7	17	6.1	274	98.9	3	1.1
20	Underutilized hotel facilities after the event has ended	2.50	61	22.0	74	26.7	89	32.1	33	11.9	14	5.1	271	97.8	6	2.2
	Economic benefits															
2	Increases revenue	3.53	13	4.7	29	10.5	83	30.0	91	32.9	54	19.5	270	97.5	7	2.5
7	Creates/increases additional employment	3.22	26	9.4	49	17.7	68	24.5	97	35.0	32	11.6	272	98.2	5	1.8
15	Increases your hotel room prices	2.83	48	17.3	48	17.3	94	33.9	67	24.2	15	5.4	272	98.2	5	1.8
21	Reduces hotel tax	2.46	69	24.9	69	24.9	82	29.6	38	13.7	12	4.3	270	97.5	7	2.5
	Socio-cultural costs															
22	Increases crime around your hotel	1.89	111	40.1	85	30.7	54	19.5	11	4.0	2	0.7	263	94.9	14	5.1
24	Increases prostitution around your hotel	1.78	135	48.7	86	31.0	37	13.4	16	5.8	2	0.7	276	99.6	1	0.4
	Psychological benefits															
3	Increases in your hotel staff's pride	3.38	15	5.4	37	13.4	95	34.3	89	32.1	41	14.8	277	100	0	0

(Note: Scale indicates 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly agree, R= Ranking among overall 24 variables in individual F= Frequency, %=Percent)

In terms of impacts on the city or town, the highest ranked benefit was 'improves sports facilities' (mean=3.79). The second highest benefit to a city/town was perceived as 'increases hotel occupancy' (mean=3.75) and 'improves road conditions, transportation facilities' (mean=3.75). The economic impact of 'increases revenue' (mean=3.37) was ranked sixteenth. The greatest perceived cost to the city/town was 'increases in traffic congestion' (mean=3.41). The hotel sector also perceived that the event would increase inflation to the city/town (mean=3.38), that there would be a lack of rooms (mean=3.13) and parking lots (mean=3.11) (Table 5).

Table5 The perspectives of the Korean hotel sector on the potential impacts of co-hosting the World Cup at the city/town level

R	Variables	Mean	1		2		3		4		5		Total		Missing	
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	Physical/environmental benefits															
1	Improves sports facilities	3.79	12	4.3	24	8.7	45	16.2	122	44.0	72	26.0	275	99.3	2	0.7
2	Improves road conditions, transportation facilities	3.75	9	3.2	22	7.9	53	19.1	56	20.2	135	48.7	275	99.3	2	0.7
4	Increases/improves development of the airport infrastructure	3.68	12	4.3	15	5.4	66	23.8	131	47.3	46	16.6	270	97.5	7	2.5
5	Improves congress, conference and exhibition facilities	3.60	15	5.4	22	7.9	58	20.9	142	51.3	37	13.4	274	98.9	3	1.1
12	Increases number of hotels and hotel rooms	3.41	23	8.3	29	10.5	72	26.0	112	40.4	37	13.4	273	98.6	4	1.4
	Physical/environmental costs															
12	Increases in traffic congestion	3.41	26	9.4	34	12.3	72	26.0	86	31.0	56	20.2	274	98.9	3	1.1
28	Lack of parking lots	3.11	35	12.6	49	17.7	73	26.4	84	30.3	32	11.6	273	98.6	4	1.4
30	Underutilized event facilities after the event has ended in relation to city/town	3.02	28	10.1	58	20.9	96	34.7	62	22.4	29	10.5	273	98.6	4	1.4
	Tourism/commercial benefits															
2	Increases hotel occupancy rates	3.75	10	3.6	18	6.5	64	23.1	123	44.4	60	21.7	275	99.3	2	0.7
6	Increases international visitors to your city/town during the event	3.58	14	5.1	34	12.3	65	23.5	102	36.8	59	21.3	274	98.9	3	1.1
7	Improves the quality of restaurants	3.55	10	3.6	17	6.1	88	31.8	132	47.7	28	10.1	275	99.3	2	0.7
8	Increases the interest of local residents in tourism	3.48	10	3.6	31	11.2	84	30.3	113	40.8	35	12.6	273	98.6	4	1.4
	Tourism/commercial costs															
26	Lack of hotel rooms	3.13	30	10.8	65	23.5	60	21.7	68	24.5	46	16.6	269	97.1	8	2.9
	Economic benefits															
16	Increases revenue	3.37	20	7.2	46	16.6	69	24.9	90	32.5	49	17.7	274	98.9	3	1.1
20	Creates/increases additional employment	3.27	21	7.6	52	18.8	67	24.2	103	37.2	32	11.6	275	99.3	2	0.7
	Economic costs															
15	Increases inflation	3.38	16	5.8	29	10.5	94	33.9	104	37.5	31	11.2	274	98.9	3	1.1
31	Increases real estate prices	2.99	29	10.5	43	15.5	120	43.3	64	23.1	17	6.1	273	98.6	4	1.4
32	Increases hotel room prices	2.95	43	15.5	45	16.2	86	31.0	72	26.0	23	8.3	269	97.1	8	2.9
36	Creates city/town economic deficit	2.58	44	15.9	79	28.5	108	39.0	28	10.1	13	4.7	272	98.2	5	1.8
	Socio-cultural benefits															
12	Increases cultural understanding and different lifestyles	3.41	11	4.0	32	11.6	94	33.9	107	38.6	29	10.5	273	98.6	4	1.4
21	Increases personal interaction between the visitors and the host	3.25	16	5.8	37	13.4	100	36.1	103	37.2	17	6.1	273	98.6	4	1.4
	Socio-cultural costs															
37	Increases crime	2.38	59	21.3	100	36.1	74	26.7	33	11.9	8	2.9	274	98.9	3	1.1
39	Increases prostitution	2.32	72	26.0	88	31.8	73	26.4	34	12.3	6	2.2	273	98.6	4	1.4
40	Forces eviction and relocation of tenants	2.12	83	30.0	99	35.7	73	26.4	11	4.0	7	2.5	273	98.6	4	1.4
	Psychological benefits															
11	Increases in city/town pride	3.42	16	5.8	31	11.2	86	31.0	104	37.5	37	13.4	274	98.9	3	1.1

(Note: Scale indicates 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly agree, R= Ranking among 40 variables in city/town, F= Frequency, %=Percent)

The perceived highest ranking benefit at the national level was 'increases international visitors to Korea during the event' (mean=4.22) which is a tourism/ commercial impact. The second highest perceived benefit at the national level was 'improves/creates sports facilities' (mean=4.18), followed by 'increases hotel occupancy rates' (mean=4.16), and 'increases in inbound and outbound tourism between Korea and Japan during the event' (mean=4.13). However, at the national level more intangible benefits were also regarded as significant. The fifth highest ranked benefit was that the event would 'increase Korean national pride' (mean=4.03), followed by 'enhances Korea's image tarnished by its recent economic crisis' (mean=4.00), and contribution to 'promotion of Korean products' (mean=3.99) (Table 6). The hotel sector perceived that the highest negative cost to the nation would be 'lack of rooms' (mean=3.76) (rank 21). The impact of 'increases traffic congestion' (mean=3.68) and 'lack of parking lots in tourist areas' (mean=3.53) were also perceived as significant issues (Table 6).

In contrast to some previous research on the negative impacts of hallmark events (Hall and Hodges 1996; Olds 1998) the likelihood that the World Cup 'increases crime' and 'increases prostitution' received a high level of disagreement at the hotel level (mean=1.89 and mean=1.78). There was a more ambivalent response at the city/town (mean=2.38 and mean=2.32) and at the national (mean=2.50 and mean=2.47) level. Similarly, the variable that the event 'forces eviction and relocation of tenants', a situation that occurred prior to the Seoul Olympic Games (Hall 1992), received the highest disagreement at the city/town and at the national level with mean responses of 2.12 and 2.26 respectively.

Table 6 Perspectives of the hotel sector on the potential impacts of co-hosting the World Cup at a national level

R	Variables	Mean	1		2		3		4		5		Total		Missing	
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	Tourism/commercial benefits															
1	Increases international visitors to Korea during the event	4.22	0	0	4	1.4	33	11.9	136	49.1	101	36.5	274	98.9	3	1.1
3	Increases hotel occupancy rates	4.16	2	0.7	3	1.1	35	12.6	144	52.0	91	32.9	275	99.3	2	0.7
4	Increases in inbound and outbound tourism between Korea and Japan during the event	4.13	0	0	3	1.1	37	13.4	155	56.0	79	28.5	274	98.9	3	1.1
6	Enhances Korea's image tarnished by its recent economic crisis	4.00	1	0.4	6	2.2	41	14.8	172	62.1	55	19.9	275	99.3	2	0.7
7	Promotions of Korean products	3.99	1	0.4	5	1.8	45	16.2	169	61.0	54	19.5	274	98.9	3	1.1
11	Opening of new routes and additional flights from and to other countries	3.93	3	1.1	9	3.2	53	19.1	149	53.8	61	22.0	275	99.3	2	0.7
13	Stimulates conferences, congress and exhibitions before, during, and after event	3.90	5	1.8	4	1.4	51	18.4	168	60.6	47	17.0	275	99.3	2	0.7
45	Decreases the high dependency of Korean tourism industry on the Japanese market	3.20	9	3.2	43	15.5	125	45.1	79	28.5	18	6.5	274	98.9	3	1.1
	Tourism/commercial costs															
21	Lack of hotel rooms	3.76	11	4.0	23	8.3	54	19.5	117	42.2	68	24.5	273	98.6	4	1.4
	Physical/environmental benefits															
2	Improves/creates sports facilities	4.18	0	0	2	0.7	33	11.9	154	55.6	86	31.0	275	99.3	2	0.7
9	Improves road conditions, transportation facilities and systems	3.98	1	0.4	7	2.5	47	17.0	162	58.5	58	20.9	275	99.3	2	0.7
10	Increases/improves development of the airport infrastructure	3.96	2	0.7	3	1.1	52	18.8	164	59.2	54	19.5	275	99.3	2	0.7
12	Improves/creates congress, conference and exhibition facilities	3.91	0	0	10	3.6	54	19.5	163	58.8	48	17.3	275	99.3	2	0.7
15	Increases number of hotels and hotel rooms	3.87	4	1.4	11	4.0	54	19.5	151	54.5	53	19.1	273	98.6	4	1.4
	Physical/environmental costs															
29	Increases traffic congestion	3.68	10	3.6	21	7.6	74	26.7	110	39.7	58	20.9	273	98.6	4	1.4
36	Lacking of parking lots in tourist area	3.53	6	2.2	31	11.2	90	32.5	106	38.3	41	14.8	274	98.9	3	1.1
38	Creates unequal distribution of hotel development	3.44	14	5.1	26	9.4	101	36.5	89	32.1	42	15.2	272	98.2	5	1.8
40	Underutilized event facilities after the event has ended	3.35	4	1.4	47	17.0	108	39.0	77	27.8	37	13.4	273	98.6	4	1.4
	Economic benefits															
25	Increases government revenue	3.72	2	0.7	14	5.1	86	31.0	127	45.8	44	15.9	273	98.6	4	1.4
29	Creates/increases additional employment	3.68	3	1.1	16	5.8	83	30.0	136	49.1	37	13.4	275	99.3	2	0.7
33	Boost the current economic downturn	3.62	1	0.4	26	9.4	84	30.3	130	46.9	34	12.3	275	99.3	2	0.7
	Economic costs															
37	Increases inflation	3.49	4	1.4	25	9.0	103	37.2	114	41.2	27	9.7	273	98.6	4	1.4
39	Increases hotel room prices	3.36	16	5.8	37	13.4	82	29.6	109	39.4	30	10.8	274	98.9	3	1.1
42	Increases real estate prices	3.27	10	3.6	40	14.4	111	40.1	91	32.9	22	7.9	274	98.9	3	1.1
48	Creates government deficit	2.85	29	10.5	64	23.1	118	42.6	46	16.6	17	6.1	274	98.9	3	1.1
	Socio-cultural impacts benefits															
16	Strengthening of Korean cultural values	3.83	3	1.1	8	2.9	63	22.7	161	58.1	40	14.4	275	99.3	2	0.7
28	Increases cultural understanding and different lifestyles	3.69	1	0.4	11	4.0	92	33.2	139	50.2	31	11.2	274	98.9	3	1.1
	Socio-cultural impacts costs															
51	Increases crime	2.50	58	20.9	78	28.2	89	32.1	40	14.4	9	3.2	274	98.9	3	1.1
52	Increases prostitution	2.47	65	23.5	78	28.2	79	28.5	42	15.2	10	3.6	274	98.9	3	1.1
53	Forces eviction and relocation of tenants	2.26	63	22.7	97	35.0	90	32.5	17	6.1	3	1.1	270	97.5	7	2.5
	Psychological benefits															
5	Increases Korean national pride	4.03	1	0.4	9	3.2	36	13.0	163	58.8	65	23.5	274	98.9	3	1.1
	Political benefits															
14	Improvement of diplomatic relations with other countries	3.88	3	1.1	5	1.8	58	20.9	163	58.8	45	16.2	274	98.9	3	1.1
17	Enhances positive tourism image among Koreans	3.80	2	0.7	13	4.7	66	23.8	152	54.9	42	15.2	275	99.3	2	0.7

(Note: Scale indicates 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly agree, R= Ranking among 53 variables in Korea, f= Frequency, %=Percent)

The capital Seoul was perceived as the city receiving the most benefit among HCs from the 2002 Football World Cup (mean=4.57). The city next likely to gain benefits from the event was perceived to be Busan (mean=3.90), followed by Seogwipo (mean=3.82) (Table 7). Cross-tabulation tests conducted on HCs and NHCs and individual city/town and national variables indicated that there were very significant differences between perspectives on HCs and NHCs. HCs registered higher agreement for both positive and negative impact variables than NHCs on the individual, city/town and nation levels. Surprisingly, only one variable, 'forces eviction and relocation of tenants', was not perceived as significantly different between HCs and NHCs among the 43 city/town variables surveyed. Whereas only two out of 53 variables were found to be significantly different between HCs and NHCs at the national level, namely 'creates unequal distribution of hotel development and 'increases traffic congestion'. Eight variables are perceived as significantly different between HCs and NHCs on the individual hotel level.

Perspective impacts of private sector, city/town and national level

The research findings indicate that there are perceived benefits by the Korean hotel sector to co-hosting the 2002 Football World Cup, although these benefits vary at different levels i.e., to the individual hotel, to the city/town and to the nation. HCs are perceived as receiving more benefits than NHCs whilst also incurring more costs than NHCs. The Korean hotel sector believed that Seoul would gain the most benefit from the co-hosting of the

Table 7: Ranking of hotel managers perceptions of the extent to which host cities would benefit from hosting the Football World Cup

R	City	Mean	1		2		3		4		5		Missing	
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	Seoul	4.57	0	0	3	1.1	15	5.4	66	23.8	**161**	**58.1**	32	11.6
2	Busan	3.90	2	0.7	3	1.1	63	22.7	**130**	**46.9**	50	18.1	29	10.5
3	Seogwipo	3.82	3	1.1	14	5.1	72	26.0	**93**	**33.6**	64	23.1	31	11.2
4	Incheon	3.61	0	0	15	5.4	92	33.2	**107**	**38.6**	28	10.1	35	12.6
5	Suwon	3.59	1	0.4	14	5.1	91	32.9	**109**	**39.4**	24	8.7	38	13.7
6	Daejon	3.44	1	0.4	12	4.3	**127**	**45.8**	79	28.5	20	7.2	38	13.7
7	Gwangju	3.35	3	1.1	25	9.0	**123**	**44.4**	67	27.2	25	9.0	34	12.3
7	Daegue	3.35	1	0.4	17	6.1	**137**	**49.5**	78	28.2	14	5.1	30	10.8
9	Ulsan	3.25	3	1.1	26	9.4	**135**	**48.7**	60	21.7	16	5.8	37	13.4
10	Jeonju	3.18	4	1.4	44	15.9	**118**	**42.6**	59	21.3	18	6.5	34	12.3

(Note: Scale indicates 1=No benefit, 2=Little benefit, 3=Moderate benefit, 4=Good benefit, 5=Great benefit, f= Frequency)

Football World Cup 2002. In addition, deluxe hotels perceived that they would get more benefits than non-deluxe hotels.

The hotel sector perceived that by co-hosting the 2002 Football World Cup, Korea as a nation would gain the greater benefit than would their city/town or their own hotel. Thus this result confirms Sparrow's (1989) observation that hosting a hallmark event is regarded mainly a national challenge while having significant impact on the HCs and their hotels. Whilst Korea would get more benefits, the nation would also incur more costs than their city/town and their hotel.

However, at the national level, this study produced lower agreement on positive impacts and higher agreement on negative impacts than Jeong's (1988) pre-event study of impact perspectives of the 1988 Seoul Olympics. This result may be because the benefits of the event were considered as less significant while the costs were given more emphasis as a result of the respondents' experience of the 1988 Seoul Olympics. Jeong's (1987, 1988) study's positive results may be influenced by the prospects that his respondents could have had high expectations and were highly optimistic about the positive impact from the 1988 Seoul Olympics, which was the first sporting mega-event held in Korea, whereas the Soccer World Cup which this research examines was seen in light of prior experience.

In addition, this study's results showed that negative impact variables received lower mean agreement and some positive impact variables received higher mean agreement than Jeong's (1992) post-Olympic impacts study and Jeong and Faulkner's (1996) post-Expo impacts study. This outcome may be because a post-event impact study is based on real experiences rather than the possibly optimistic perspectives of future impacts of a pre-event survey such as those found in this study.

Tourism/commercial impacts

The majority of high mean perspectives on the positive impacts of a co-hosted Football World Cup 2002 at the national level were in relation to tourism/commercial impact benefits. This result is consistent with the findings of Jeong (1988) and also reconfirms Ritchie's (1984) notion that tourism/commercial impacts are primarily positive in nature. Similarly, this result supports Hall (1992) and Getz's (1998) observations that governments generally host events because they regard them as inherently 'good'.

Even though the 2002 Football World Cup was co-hosted in two countries, so visitors would be divided between Korea and Japan, the respondents showed the most positive level of expectation that hosting the 2002 World Cup would increase international visitors to Korea during the event. This result supports the notion of Ritchie (1984), Getz (1991, 1998) and Hall (1992) that the key role of hallmark events is the tourism impact which attract large numbers of foreign tourists

during the event. This implies that the co-hosted 2002 World Cup event would increase visitors to Korea during the event similar to the increase in visitor numbers that the 1988 Seoul Olympic brought to Korea. The total number of tourists and participants to the 1988 Olympics was 241,000 and the total number of international visitors to Korea for 1988 was 2,340,000 (Chon and Shin 1990). The first ranking result supports and may make possible Kim's (1996) prediction that the expected number of tourists to Korea in the year 2002 will reach around seven million, making Korea one of the top-ranking tourist countries in the world. Moreover, the respondents showed the highest positive agreement that hosting the World Cup 2002 would bring benefits of 'increase international guests during the event' to individual hotels in relation to tourism/commercial impact benefits. This might reflect the national level's highest positive agreement result.

High positive agreement of 'increases hotel occupancy rates' at a national level (ranked 3rd, mean=4.16) and at a city/town level (ranked 2nd, mean=3.75) may confirm the school of thought that the event brings benefits to the accommodation sector. These results are consistent with Jeong's 1987) study result of low agreement on 'possibility of low occupancy rate' (2.9). However, since the present study surveyed the hotel industry's perspectives on the impacts of the Football World Cup its perspectives are undoubtedly more directly concerned with its immediate benefits from the event and thus result in a positive agreement.

Due to the co-hosting arrangements between Korea and Japan, it is perhaps not surprising that respondents strongly agreed that the World Cup would increase inbound and outbound tourism between the two countries during the event (mean=4.13). However, respondents perceived a lower agreement for 'decreases the high dependency of the Korean tourism industry on the Japanese market' (mean=3.2) than Jeong's (1988) study (mean=3.9). With this study's finding supporting the traditional dependence on Japan for Korean tourism the highly agreed result that the World Cup would increase the inbound and outbound tourism between Korea and Japan is not expected.

The consistency between of the results of this study and Jeong's (1988) findings on the role of the Olympics in modifying Korea's image also supports Getz's (1991, 1998) and Hall's (1992, 1996) observation that one of the key roles of mega-events is to a 'create a positive image' of the host country. This finding may be of substantial importance for the likelihood of increased sales of Korean products as a result of the event's international profile. For example, Korea was seeking to market the Prospecs sports brand, Samsung and LG electrical goods and electronics, Hyundai, Daewoo and Kia car brand names to the world through the 2002 Football World Cup (Park and Yoon 1996).

Undoubtedly, the greatest concerns of the respondents were in relation to the lack of rooms available in Korea and increases in room prices as a result of

increased demand. This result is consistent with Lee's (2000) and Kim's (1996) prediction that there would be a lack of hotel rooms during the Football World Cup 2002 tournament. Interestingly, these problems tended to be more readily identified by hotels in Seoul than outside Seoul (lack of rooms: PCSV: 12.349, SL: 0.015, increases room prices: PCSV: 29.096, SL: 0.000). This finding also confirms this study's result that hotel location in Seoul would equate with higher room occupancy rates (PCSV: 26.012, SL: 0.000) than other HCs and NHCs. This result supports traditional high occupancy rates of hotel location in Seoul (Table 8). In addition, while the World Cup was perceived as increasing the accommodation stock, the relative increase was less than when compared to growth prior to the 1988 Summer Olympics (Lee 1999).

Table 8 Hotel room occupancy rates by city/province (unit: %)

City/Province	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	Average	2000
Seoul	72	71	70	73	78	79.0	74.4	76.9	78.0	81.4	**75.4**	80.8
Busan	60	64	60	60	67	69.7	67.8	61.4	55.8	59.7	62.5	62.0
Daegu	62	67	67	68	74	70.3	66.8	61.6	47.2	48.5	63.2	49.7
Incheon	64	65	60	63	73	72.6	70.6	66.3	48.2	58.1	64.1	66.2
Gwangju	70	68	68	66	72	63.9	57.8	53.9	43.3	50.8	61.4	51.9
Daejon	54	53	48	54	49	51.4	53.8	51.1	44.3	49.0	50.8	55.1
Ulsan	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	72.5	57.3	63.1	64.3	61.5
Gyeonggi Province	59	60	61	64	70	64.7	64.3	57.3	47.5	54.5	60.2	62.5
Gangwon Province	43	44	46	45	48	49.5	46.4	44.5	33.1	39.1	43.9	39.8
Chungbuk Province	58	57	57	54	59	55.3	50.6	46.2	35.3	41.3	51.4	49.6
Chungnam Province	44	49	47	46	50	49.3	46.6	43.8	36.7	39.9	45.2	56.2
Jeonbuk Province	50	50	49	51	56	39.8	54.3	31.1	28.5	34.3	44.4	37.0
Jeonnam Province	56	56	54	53	56	55.1	50.2	41.0	45.6	41.0	50.8	47.3
Gyeongbuk Province	53	54	53	49	56	54.2	55.1	48.1	41.4	43.2	50.7	48.5
Gyeongnam Province	53	55	53	51	59	60.0	57.2	49.3	45.9	50.3	53.4	51.1
Jeju Province	64	69	68	66	70	71.7	68.4	69.1	62.4	67.1	**67.6**	72.0
Average	64	64	63	63	69	67.4	65.8	62.7	58.1	61.8	63.9	65.1

(Source: KHA in MCT and KNTO 2000, MCT and KNTO 2001)
(Note: *=Public Hotels are included in Family Hotels by the revision of related laws, Average=Accumulated year between 1990-1999)
Suwon city located in Gyeonggi Province, Jeonju city located in Jeonbuk Province, Seogwipo city located in Jeju Province

Physical/environmental impacts

In contrast to national and individual level, the majority and the highest positive perceived benefits were physical/environmental impacts at the city/town level. The respondents perceived that the improvement or building of sports facilities as a result of the 2002 World Cup would be a major environmental/physical impact at the city/town and at the national level. This result was perhaps likely because in order to successfully bid to host the 2002 Football World Cup Korea had to have sufficient quality football stadiums which met FIFA's requirements including a new stadium for each HC (WCOIA 1995). Other FIFA requirements included accommodation and transport in the host country (WCOIA 1995). Because of Football World Cup 2002 bid requirements, it is not surprising that the statement 'improve/creates sports facilities' received a high perception ranking as developing such sporting facilities was a prerequisite for hosting the tournament. Undoubtedly, such facilities may provide a lasting legacy to HCs and the nation as a whole that could contribute substantially to future social and economic well-being.

The higher rank result of 'improves/creates sports facilities' at the city/town rather than at the national level might be explained by the fact that unlike other hallmark events where the venue is in one city, a character of Football World Cups is to share the event around 8-10 host venues. This ranking perspective is probably due to the fact that the World Cup 2002 event will be staged in 20 HCs, shared equally between Korea and Japan. This notion is also supported in this study's results in that HCs perceived a higher agreement than NHCs for this variable. 86.8% of HCs agreed that the World Cup would improve/create sports city/town facilities (PCSV: 52.437, SL: 0.000). This is the highest agreement of all the significant relationship results between HCs/NHCs not only at the city/town, but also at national and individual hotel level.

These results as to the benefit to the city and the nation do not support Getz's (1998) argument, in the Korean context at least, that in many cases there is no clear evidence that a facility or infrastructure development would not have been provided without the event or has not just been accelerated because of an event. This study's majority of high mean variables in the physical impact category result at the city level and the results of previous studies (e.g. Jeong 1992; Jeong and Faulkner 1996) also conflict with Getz's statement. On the other hand, respondents' concern about underutilized event facilities after the event featured both at national and city/town levels. This finding supports Getz's (1998) argument that special-purpose facilities created for specific sports in fact only have limited economic potential depending on the extent of use and crowd-pulling capacity once the event is over. Significantly, Cho (1999) noted that the Korean government loses money every year on the Olympic stadium and the Daejon Expo facilities through poor management in relation to their long-term use.

The highly positive perception of 'improves road conditions, transportation facilities' and 'increases/improves development of airport infrastructure' at a national and city/town level reconfirms Kim (1996) and Hall's (1997b) observations that the hosting of hallmark events is often deliberately exploited in an attempt to redevelop urban areas. This result can be confirmed with the actual redevelopment in each HC (Korean Organising Committee for the 2002 FIFA World Cup Korea/Japan (KOWOC) 2000) and Korea as a whole in order to meet FIFA's successful bid requirements with respect to stadia, accommodation and transport infrastructure.

Consistent findings at a national level (a high agreement as a negative impact) and at city/town (the most negative impact) between this and Jeong's (1992) study indicate that the World Cup would also increase traffic congestion and create lack of parking lots. The significant relationship between 'increases traffic congestion' and both HC/NHC (PCSV: 29.877, SL: 0.000) and Seoul/non-Seoul (PCSV: 21.789, SL: 0.000) variables found that Seoul would experience the greatest increase in traffic congestion.

The consistent results of this study on the majority of high mean variables being in the physical impact category at the city/town level support the idea that event legacies are mostly associated with tangible urban development impacts (Jeong 1992; Jeong and Faulkner 1996). These also reflect Hall's (1992, 1997) belief that most city level benefits are physical benefits as a result of hallmark events being used as a catalyst for both tourism development and urban renewal.

Economic impacts

'Increases government revenue' (3.72) receiving less agreement than other tourism/commercial impact variables is also consistent with the low agreement result of 'boost the current economic downturn' (3.62). Overall the rankings imply that there is a lower expectation of economic benefits than tourism/commercial benefits from the co-hosting of the Football World Cup. A lower expectation of economic impacts as compared to tourism/commercial impacts was consistent with Jeong's (1987) study. This may be explained by the fact that no recent Olympic Games has shown a short term economic profit (Jeong 1987; Ahmed et.al. 1996), nor has anyone expected them to and the same could be said about the 2002 Football World Cup with the predicted sharing of World Cup profits (as against receiving the total profits in a one-country-one-tournament bid). Given the halo effects from the 1988 Olympics, 1988 tourism receipts for Korea reached US$ 6,865 million which ranked it 16th in the world in terms of tourism earnings (WTO 2001 in MCT and KNTO 2001). Thus, while there was undoubted growth while the World Cup was being conducted, a longer-term study of economic benefits is desirable (Ritchie 1984; Hall 1992; French and Disher 1997; Cashman 1999).

In contrast to the national and city/town level, the hotel sector highly agreed that individual hotels would benefit economically during the World Cup (2nd highest ranking). This perception is probably due to a direct correlation between 'increase guest numbers' (1st ranked) and their accommodation expenditure. In addition, individual hotels do not have to contribute to the costs of staging such a national event so therefore their income from the World Cup would be expected to be greater.

The respondents were more concerned that the World Cup would increase inflation at the city/town level. Increase inflation result might reflect the high agreement that the World Cup would improve or build sports facilities that would be of benefit to the city. Each HC spent massive amounts of money (nearly US$ 1,513 million overall South Korea) to build a new soccer stadia for the event (Haruo and Toshio 2002). These results showed HCs should both experience the merits and demerits of staging the 2002 World Cup. 'Improvement or building of new soccer stadiums' were major benefits for HCs. On the other hand a major concern was the burden of long term inflation.

The 'reduce hotel tax' (mean=2,46) result at the hotel level indicates that respondents disagreed with this variable despite the government having implemented a series of measures since 1997, including financial and tax incentives, to stimulate the development of tourist hotels in order to expand accommodation for foreign visitors (MCT 1999). This study's finding might be explained by the probability that the availability of tax incentives from the government is limited to just a few hotels and that such incentives benefit hotels less than other industries who receive a greater level of tax incentive.

Socio-cultural impacts

Despite preparing the rehabilitation and beautification of numerous areas of Seoul for the 1988 Olympic Games, many communities were evicted from sites with about 750,000 people being forcibly relocated (Asian Coalition for Housing Rights 1989 in Olds 1998; Shapcott 1998). Similarly, Hall (1994) and Hodges and Hall's (1996)) identification such issues in the case of other events. Given this history it was surprising that the statement regarding 'forced eviction and relocation of tenants' received little agreement from respondents. This result may imply that this issue is possibly more unique to western countries such as Canada, where Toronto rejected a proposal to bid for the 1996 Summer Olympics in part because of protests against displacing community groups at proposed venue sites (Olds 1998). Unlike Toronto, Korea may be viewed as having gained benefits from the host event in terms of the gentrification and redevelopment of their residential areas. For example, Sang-Am area in Seoul (where Seoul World Cup Football stadium is located) is the only place left that needs redevelopment done because it was a landfill area for a long time (Min 1998).

Not unsurprisingly, the hotel sector highly disagreed that the World Cup would increases crime and prostitution around hotel areas, in the city/town and in Korea during the event. This is consistent with Jeong's (1987, 1992) findings and indicate that unlike other countries or destinations, event related crime and prostitution is perceived as being less likely to happen in Korea because of the fact that Korea has strict anti-prostitution laws (Jeong 1992).

Psychological impacts

Highly ranked (5th) in Cho's (1999) findings and in this study (mean=4.03, ranked 5th) was 'increase Korean national pride' as a psychological impact. This result supports Kim's notion (1996) that co-hosting the World Cup will be a distinguishing honour for both nations. Like the Seoul Olympics (Larson and Park 1993), the World Cup undoubtedly contributed to an outburst of national pride.

Political impacts

The respondents expected that the Football World Cup 2002 event would improve diplomatic relations with other countries (mean=3.88). Korea holding the World

Cup event would be at an advantage to improve closer diplomatic relations with European nations because the Korean tourism market still lacks European visitors (MCT and KNTO 2000). However, despite Korea and Japan co-hosting the World Cup 2002, respondents perceived that the mega-event is less likely to improve diplomatic relations with Japan (mean=3.71) than any other countries, which is surprising. This is probably because of the long historical differences between the two nations. However, some say that the Football World Cup 2002 may provide the two countries with a new stage for cooperation and friendship. Both have to make a greater effort to sweep away past negative feelings while honourably and successfully co-hosting an international mega-event and approach each other for mutual prosperity (Kim 1996).

Different perspectives between Host Cities and Non-Host Cities

The Korean hotel sector perceived that HCs would get more benefits than NHCs whilst also incurring more costs than would NHCs. This result indicates that benefits and costs generated from hosting the sports event could be differentiated by the degree of direct (e.g., HCs) or indirect (e.g., NHCs) involvement in the event. The 'direct involvement group' has significantly more agreement perceptions towards positive and negative impacts than the 'non-involvement group and the findings of Jeong's 1992 study support this notion.

It is interesting to note that the analysis of significant relationships between Seoul/non-Seoul and the study variables showed higher agreement for both positive and negative impacts than the analysis of significant relationships between HCs/NHCs and variables. This result indicates that respondents' believed that Seoul would receive more benefits and incur more costs than other HCs.

Moreover, two cross-tabulation tests between Seoul and Busan/non-Seoul and Busan and variables, and between Seoul, Gyeonggi and Incheon (Seoul metropolitan area)/non-Seoul, Gyeonggi and Incheon (non-Seoul metropolitan area) and variables also found that there were significant relationships. Surprisingly, most of the above significant relationship results again received a higher level of agreement for positive and negative impacts than the result of significant relationships between HCs/NHCs and variables. This implies that respondents perceived that Seoul and Busan, would get more benefits and costs than the other HCs. Additionally, Seoul, Gyeonggi and Incheon would get more benefits and costs than the other HCs. However, each HCs' actual benefit from the World Cup may differ from this study's results because it depends on actual tournament outcome in terms of teams bringing fans and spectators to the HCs. Therefore, long-term post World Cup 2002 impacts need to be measured.

Conclusions

This study has examined the views of the hotel sector on the potential impacts of co-hosting the 2002 Football World Cup as part of a long-term study of pre and

post event impacts. Because the survey was conducted solely within the Korean hotel industry, the results are valid only in this context, that is, a different sample population may have different perspectives on the impacts of co-hosting the Football World Cup 2002. Further research in the area of different sample population perspectives on the co-hosting of the Football World Cup 2002 is needed. Nevertheless, the study provides perspectives on both hotel industry attitudes towards the impacts of hosting a mega-event as well as the perceived impact of a World Cup in soccer. Both of these areas are under researched in the event literature.

Despite the perceptions of some negative impacts, in general, the present study found that the Korea hotel sector was overall highly positive towards the co-hosting of the 2002 Football World Cup which was perceived by the Korean hotel sector as bringing significant benefits to both individual hotels in host cities as well as host cities overall. Therefore, this result may confirm the belief that the accommodation sector gains benefits from the such a mega-event. In addition, all respondents noted significant benefits at the national level, although also of importance is the extent to which there are differences between perceptions as to the impacts of hosting such an event between HCs and NHCs.

Overall at the individual hotel, city/town and national levels, the hotel sector's perceived costs ('overcrowding hotel facilities', 'lack of rooms', 'lack of parking lots', 'increased traffic congestion', 'inflation', and 'underutilised event facilities after the event has ended') were related to the construction cost and physical capacity of accommodation, roading and parking. The generally higher means for variables at a national level and individual level provide support for Hall's (1992) observation that events are generally seen in a positive light by government and private industry because of the perceived tourism/commercial, economic and promotional benefits in the hosting of such events. Surprisingly, however, the highest rank and the majority of high mean variables in the physical impact category at a city/town level indicated that the legacy of sports facilities was considered the greatest benefit from the hosting of the Football World Cup at the city level. In general the Korean hotel sector perceived some potential impacts of the Football World Cup as similar to the impacts of an Olympic Games and Expo. However, some results are significantly different from previous hallmark study impacts. From the study, therefore, it may be said that impacts generated from hallmark events differ from host country to host country.

To conclude this study's findings, the significant benefit and cost impacts of hallmark events differ for each particular hallmark event, over time, for each host community (country or region), each level of host community (private sector, city/town and nation), each sample population (private sector, government or residents) and for the involvement groups (direct or indirect). Thus, from the largest of mega-events through to the smallest not for profit event, the perspective of many stakeholders must be considered. Different planning and policies are

thus required to suit different hallmark events in order to maximise benefits and minimise or ameliorate costs and negative impacts. Therefore, on-going monitoring is also required to better manage impacts generated from hallmark events (Hall 1992). The next stage of the study to be conducted in 2004 will examine the post event perceptions of the Korean hotel industry with respect to the benefits of hosting the Football World Cup.

References

Ahn, J-Y., and Ahmed, Z. U., (1994). 'South Korea's emerging tourism industry', ***Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly,*** Vol. 35 (2), 84-89

Ahn, J-Y. and McGahey, S. (1997). 'South Korea: Interaction between Inbound and Outbound Markets. ***Tourism and Economic Development in Asia and Australia,*** pp. 255-272. In Go, F. and Jenkins, C. (Ed), London: Cassell.

Alreck, P.L. and Settle, R.B. (1995). ***The Survey Research Handbook***, 2nd ed. Chicago: Irwin.

Angelo, R. M. and Vladimir, A. N. (1998). ***Hospitality Today an introduction***, 3rd Edition, Education Institute of the American Hotel and Motel Association, Florida.

Cho, B-H. (1999). ***Best Practices in a Sporting Event for Tourism Development in Korea: the 1988 Seoul Olympics***. Seoul: Linepia Ltd.

Chon, K. and Shin, H. (1990) Korea's Hotel and Tourism Industry, ***Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly***, 31(1): 69-73.

Dauncey, H. and Hare, G. (Ed.) (1999). ***France and the 1998 World Cup: The National Impact of a World Sporting Event***. London: Frank Cass.

Deccio, C. and Balcoglu, S. (2002). Nonhost community Resident reactions to the 2002 Winter Olympics: The Spillover impacts. Journal of Travel Research, Vol. 41( ): 46-56.

Federation Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) (1999a). ***Federation Internationale de Football Association: The World Cup***. http://www.fifa.com/fifa/handbook/fifa.html, (Accessed 18 August 1999).

Federation Internationale De Football Association (FIFA) (1999b). *Handbook: Media Information.* 07698+E" http://www.fifa2.com/scripts/runisa.dll?M2.65816:gp::67173+mrel/Display+07698+E, (Accessed 17 August 1999).

French, S.P. and Disher, M.E. (1997). Atlanta and the Olympics: A one-year retrospective, ***Journal of the American Planning Association***, Vol. 63 (3), 379-392.

Getz, D. (1991). ***Festivals, Special Events, and Tourism***. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Getz, D. (1998). The Impacts of Mega Events on Tourism: Strategies and Research Issues for Destinations. ***1998 Australian Tourism and Hospitality Research Conference***, pp.417-439. Canberra: Bureau of Tourism Research.

Goeldner, C.R. and Long, P.T. (1987). The Role and Impact of Mega Events and Attractions on Tourism Development in ***North America. Proceedings*** of the 37th Congress of AIEST, 28: 119-31.

Hall, C.M. (1989). Hallmark Tourist Events: Analysis, Definition, Methodology and Review. ***The Planning and Evaluation of Hallmark Events,*** pp3-19 In Syme,G.J. Shaw, B.J. Fenton, D.M. Mueller, W.S. (Ed), Sydney: Avebury,

Hall, C.M. (1992). ***Hallmark Tourist Events: Impacts, Management and Planning***. London: Belhaven Press.

Hall, C.M. (1994). ***Hallmark tourist events: Impacts, management and planning,*** London: Belhaven Press.

Hall, C.M. (1996). Hallmark Events and Urban Re-imaging Strategies: Coercion, Community and the Sydney 2000 Olympics. ***Practicing Responsible Tourism: International Case Studies in Tourism Planning, Policy and Development***, pp.366-379. In Harrison, L. and Husbands, W. (Ed), New York: John Wiley.

Hall, C.M. (1997a). ***The Pacific Rim: developments, impacts and markets,*** 2nd Edition, Longman, Melbourne.

Hall, C.M. (1997b). Mega-events and Their Legacies. ***Quality Management in Urban Tourism***. pp.75-87. In Murphy, P. (Ed.). Chichester: John Wiley and Sons.

Hall, C.M. (2001). Imaging, Tourism and Sports Event Fever: The Sydney Olympics and the Need for a Social Charter for Mega-events. ***Sport in the City: The Role of Sport in Economic and Social Regeneration***, pp.166-183. In Gratton, C. and Henry, I. (Ed). Routledge, London.

Haruo, N. and Toshio, M (2002). Building mega-events: critical reflections on the 2002 World Cup infrastructure, ***Japan, Korea and the 2002 World Cup,*** pp177-194. In Horne, J. and Manzenreiter, W. (Ed), London. Routledge.

Hiller, H. (1998). Assessing the Impact of Mega-events: A Linkage Model. ***Current Issues in Tourism***, 1(1): 47-57.

Hodges, J. and Hall, C.M. (1996). The housing and social impacts of mega-events: Lessons for the Sydney 2000 Olympics, In ***Tourism Down Under II conference***, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand, December 3-6, pp.152-164.

Jeong, G-H. (1997). ***Tourism Expectation on the Seoul Olympics: A Korean Perspective,*** unpublished Master Thesis, University of Wisconsin-Stout, Menomonie, WI

Jeong, G-H. (1988). Tourism Expectations on the 1988 Seoul Olympics: a Korean Perspective. ***Proceedings from Tourism Research: Expanding Boundaries***, pp.175-182. Montreal: Travel and Tourism Research Association.

Jeong, G-H. (1992). Perceived Post-Olympic Socio-cultural Impacts by Residents from a Tourism Perspective: A Case Study in Chamsil, Seoul, Korea Unpublished Doctor of Philosophy Thesis, University of Minnesota.

Jeong, G-H. and Faulkner, B. (1996). Resident Perceptions of Mega-event Impacts: The Taejon International Exposition Case. ***Festival Management & Event Tourism***, 4: 3-11.

Kang, Y-S. and Perdue, R. (1994). Long-term impact of a mega-event on international tourism to the host country: A conceptual model and the case of the 1988 Seoul Olympics. ***Global Tourist Behaviour,*** pp.205-225. In Uysal, M. (Ed). New York: Haworth.

Kim, S-C. (1996). World Cup: Sports Politics and Economics, Challenges, but Another Chance. ***Business Korea***, July: 48-51.

Kim, S. and Song, H. (1998). Analysis of Inbound Tourism Demand in South Korea: A Cointegration and Error Correction Approach. ***Tourism Analysis***, 3: 25-41.

Kim, Y. and Uysal, M. (1998). Time-dependent Analysis for International Hotel Demand in Seoul. ***Tourism Economics***, 4(3): 253-63.

Korean Organising Committee for the 2002 FIFA World Cup Korea/Japan (KOWOC) 2000, ***Preparation status for 2002 Football World Cup***, Seoul, KOWOC

Kwon, H-J. (1990). The Impact of 1988 Seoul International Olympics on inbound Tourism in Korea, ***Study on Tourism,*** Vol. 14, 235-245

Ladkin, A. (1999). Hotel GMs: A Review of Prominent Research Themes. ***International Journal of Tourism Research,*** 1(3): 167-193.

Larson, J.F. and Park, H-S. (1993). ***Global Television and the Politics of the Seoul Olympics***. San Francisco: Westview Press.

Lee, C-K. and Kown, K-S. (1995). Importance of Secondary impact of foreign tourism receipts on South Korean economy, ***Journal of Travel Research*** Vol. 34 (2), 50-54.

Lee, C-K. and Var, T. and Blaine, T. w. (1996). Determinants of inbound tourist expenditure, ***Annals of Tourism Research,*** Vol. 23 (3), 527-542.

Lee, S-Y. (1999). Culture and Tourism: Seoul Polishes its Cultural Assets. ***Business Korea***, 16(2): 55.

Lee, K-W. (2000). ***An Estimation of Accommodation Demand For 2002 World Cup Games in Korea and Efficient Management Strategies of Medium And Low Priced Accommodation.*** Seoul: Linepia Ltd.

Mihalik, B.J. and Cummings, P. (1995). Host Perceptions of the 1996 Atlanta Olympics: Support, Attendance, Benefits and Liabilities, ***Travel and Tourism Research Association 26th Annual Proceedings***, pp.397-400.

Min, H-S. (1998). Preparing for the 2002 World Cup. ***Chosun Daily Newspaper,*** April 17: 13

Ministry of Transportation (MOT) and Korea National Tourism Corporation (KNTC), 1978, ***Korea Tourism Statistics 1977,*** Seoul: MOT and KNTC

Ministry of Transportation (MOT) and Korea National Tourism Corporation (KNTC), 1980, ***Korea Tourism Statistics 1979,*** Seoul: MOT and KNTC.

Ministry of Culture and Tourism (MCT) and Korea National Tourism Organisation (KNTO) (2000). ***Korea Annual Statistical Report on Tourism 1999***. Seoul: MCT and KNTO.

Ministry of Culture and Tourism (MCT) and Korea National Tourism Organisation (KNTO) (2001). ***Korea Annual Statistical Report on Tourism 2000***. Seoul: MCT and KNTO.

National Statistics Office (1998). Employment by occupation and gender, ***Korea Statistical Yearbook,*** National Statistic Office Republic of Korea

Olds, K. (1998). Urban Mega-events, Evictions and Housing Rights: The Canadian Case. ***Current Issues in Tourism***, 1(11): 2-45.

Page, S.J. and Hall, C.M. (2003). ***Managing Urban Tourism***. Harlow: Prentice-Hall.

Park, S-H. and Yoon, Y-S. (1996). Our Benefits (co-hosted World Cup): Opportunity for Improving the Image of Korean Product Brands. ***Chosun Daily Newspaper***, June 4: 6.

Peacock, M. (1995). A job well done hospitality managers and success, ***International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,*** Vol.7, 2/3, 48-51.

Ritchie, J.R.B. (1984). Assessing the Impacts of Hallmark Events: Conceptual and Research Issues. ***Journal of Travel Research***, 23(1): 2-11.

Ritchie, J.R.B. and Aiken, C. (1984). Assessing the Impacts of the 1988 Olympic Winter Games: The Research Program and Initial Results. ***Journal of Travel Research***, 22(3): 17-25.

Ritchie, J.R.B. and Aiken, C. (1985). Olympulse II – Evolving Resident Attitudes Toward the 1988 Olympic Winter Games. ***Journal of Travel Research***, 24(3): 28-33.

Ritchie, J.R.B. and Lyons, M. (1990). Olympulse VI: A Post-event Assessment of Resident Reaction to the XV Olympic Winter Games. ***Journal of Travel Research***, 28(3): 14-23.

Ritchie, J.R.B., and Smith, B. (1991). The Impact of a Mega-event on Host Region Awareness: A Longitudinal Study. ***Journal of Travel Research***, 30(3): 3-10.

Roche, M. (1992). Mega-events and Micro-modernization: On the Sociology of the New Urban Tourism. ***British Journal of Sociology,*** 43(4): 563-600.

Shapcott, M. (1998). Commentary on 'Urban mega-events, evictions and housing rights: The Canadian case' by Kris Olds, ***Current Issues in Tourism***, Vol. 1 (2), 195-196.

Sparrow, M. (1989). A tourism planning model for hallmark events, ***The Planning and Evaluation of Hallmark Events,*** pp250-262. In Syme,G.J. Shaw, B.J. Fenton, D.M. Mueller, W.S. (Ed), Sydney: Avebury,

World Cup Organising Invite Association (WCOIA) (1995). ***2002 FIFA World Cup: List of Requirements for the Organising National Association.*** Seoul: WCOIA.

About the Authors

Misuk Byeon is a Phd student at the University of Otago. Misuk's research interests include: Hospitality; Business marketing; Sports and city marketing; The management, planning of mega-events; Urban redevelopment and re-imaging strategies; Tourism behaviour and tourism-migration relationships; and Tourists Images

Michael Hall is Professor and Head of the Department of Tourism, University of Otago, New Zealand and Honorary Professor, Department of Marketing, University of Stirling, Scotland. He has published widely in the tourism field with special attention to events, policy and regional development issues. He is currently undertaking research on second homes and cool climate wine and foods.

JOURNAL OF H&T www.johat.com

The Evolution of Rural Tourism in Spain

Gemma Canoves
Department of Geography,
Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Spain

Gerda K. Priestley
Department of Geography,
Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Spain

Abstract: The aim of this article is to analyse the evolution of Rural Tourism (RT) in Spain within a European context. The first step is to examine the development of different types of RT and trace the evolution of RT in Europe. This is followed by a study of the development of tourist products and services in rural Spain since the 1980s, as diversification of the traditional 3S tourist economy is sought. The analysis stresses the consequences of the activity for the economy of rural areas. The purpose is to identify differences in the pattern of evolution between Spain and more northern European countries, understand their causes and briefly outline the problems that ensue as a result of the late development of rural tourism in Spain and the difficulties that RT is currently facing in the country.

Keywords: Spain, Rural Tourism, European context, supply, demand.

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to analyse the main characteristics of Rural Tourism (RT) in Spain, and compare its development with the trend of the activity in the European Union. In order to set the analysis in context, the evolution of RT in Europe is traced and stages in its development are established. It is in this framework that RT in Spain is examined, in order to identify differences in the pattern of its evolution when compared with more northern European countries and explain the origin of these differences. Present supply and demand is also analysed and the paper concludes by identifying some of the problems facing RT in Spain and by formulating recommendations for future development. This analysis of Spanish RT is based on the results of an on-going research project on rural tourism (http://seneca.uab.es/ter).

Rural Tourism in a European context

Rural Tourism in Europe has a long tradition, although its widespread popularity dates from the nineteen-sixties. The hosting of tourists in farm houses originated in the Tyrol and in rural England at the beginning of the twentieth century. It gradually spread throughout Europe, first gaining ground in mountain zones in response to increasing interest in climbing and trekking, especially in the Alps. Since the sixties, rural tourism has expanded rapidly, especially in the Benelux countries, France and Italy, as both the number of farmers participating and

demand rose. At government and municipal levels, it was encouraged as a good solution and, in some cases, a universal remedy for the crisis in family agriculture in Europe during the 1980s, as a means of developing and diversifying economic activities in rural areas. However, enthusiasm soon gave way to disappointment, as rural tourism experienced difficulties intrinsic to a growing sector, when the pioneers found that the benefits did not live up to expectations. Demand also fell, as tourists were tempted to more exotic destinations in natural surroundings, the market became more competitive and consumers more demanding in terms of infrastructures and services. The re-launching of RT and the recovery of demand in recent years may be attributed to changing patterns of leisure time, the segmentation of holidays and the development of "long weekends. Therefore, with new parameters, ranging from higher quality premises and services, and the maintenance of competitive prices to simultaneous provision of attractive and imaginative complementary leisure activities, it could be said that a new tourist product was created in the 1990s, similar to traditional ones, but which encompasses the entire extent of Europe. These new demands have implied the selection of farmers who are committed to rural tourism, others who continue to provide only lodgings, and others who specialize in quality food or complementary activities, in harmony with their specific areas. As a result, rural tourism today has become a major complement to the farming industry, accentuated by the reduction in incomes derived from both crop and pastoral farming. It does, however, remain a heterogeneous activity, differentiated by the characteristics of the rural areas and the people involved, and the aims of each local, regional and national administration.

Within the European Union, strategic documents related to the implementation of the European Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) have highly recommended the integration of alternative and/or complementary activities on the agricultural scene (Commission of the European Communities, 1985; 1988). Objective 5b and Leader programmes show that rural tourism is considered crucial to agricultural policy, as they aim to restructure and to create or maintain jobs in rural areas. Innovation is encouraged in two ways: by widening the scale and scope of tourist products based on rural resources; and at community level by shifting the accent towards leisure-orientated production. Nevertheless recent studies have shown that marketing of RT products is still highly fragmented, uncoordinated and inefficient (Hjalager, A.M., 1996).

In spite of the growth of RT, statistics show that RT is still a minor activity in comparison with agriculture in Europe (Martin-Cruz,1991; Béteille,1996b). About 20% of Swedish farms receive paying guests, Austria only 10%, the UK 7% (Butler et al., 1998), Belgium and Germany 5% and less than 2% in France (Béteille, 1996a; Moinet, 1996). Even so, in absolute terms, the European countries of the United Kingdom, France, Germany and Austria currently dominate the global vacation farm industry with 20,000-30,000 enterprises in each (Weaver and

Fennel, 1997a). However, in recent years, rural tourism has been expanding in most countries and, in many cases, has changed from being a supplementary commercial activity to developing into a sector in its own right (Busby & Rendle, 2000: 640).

An evolutionary typology of RT

From the outset, RT has been based on offering more or less permanent accommodation in rural houses, although the formula in Europe is not homogeneous. At an early stage RT was based almost exclusively on lodgings: rooms rented in the owner's private home, independent lodgings, or rural campsites, although under different labels, such as "Bed & Breakfast", or "Cottage" in the UK, "*Zimmer Frei*" in Germany, *Gîtes* in France. The purpose of these activities was to complement incomes from agriculture which does not represent a threat to the main agricultural activity.

Diversification is the key-note of a second stage. The product evolved from simple accommodation to more specialized structures, following a strategy to capture a more diverse and demanding clientele and encourage repeat visits. Hence many proprietors provide a number of activities related to nature and rural activities (horse-riding, fishing, hunting, trekking excursions, rafting, educational courses, therapy treatment, fruit-picking, etc.); more sophisticated local products (gourmet food, sale of country products) all with unmistakably commercial objectives, without forgetting that guests wish to maintain contact with the farming family. Innumerable formulae exist in Europe and each country or region places emphasis on one or more specialities. However, they can be classified in accordance with the stage of RT development reached.

It is now quite common for this group to abandon agricultural activities, because they are less profitable, and also because it is difficult to manage both businesses. In France 36% of the farms and 45% in UK (Ardillier-Carras,1999; Dehoorne,1999) **are substituting agricultural activities for tourism in rural houses.** This is therefore a growing phenomenon, especially in areas where agriculture is not economically competitive. Another form of diversification is the substitution of animal husbandry by a "leisure farm". These alternatives are quite well developed in France, the UK, Germany and the Netherlands; where agricultural lands are now permanent campsites, riding schools or leisure parks (like pet zoos, agricultural mazes, tractor rides). In some cases, the new activities compete directly with identical ones which are not, however, of an agricultural nature, as is the case of theme parks. Another form of specialization associated with rural houses is to offer attractions related to specialized agricultural products. Examples include the vineyards of the Douro valley in Portugal for the production of Port wine, agriculture in the Périgord region of France, producing gastronomic delicacies, such as "*foie gras*" and "*confits*", or the more recent development of cheese, shellfish and wine in Galicia (NW Spain).

The trend towards specialization is already consolidated in the UK and the Netherlands, but has emerged more recently in France and Italy. It marks a clear path towards a higher degree of "tourist professionalism" which farmers claim as an image of quality in the eyes of their clients. This case could be said to denote a third phase, the maturity of RT. This gives rise to the question of category. Is it a new, specific activity, a form of agricultural diversification or a commercial activity? In France, conflicts have occurred between agro-tourism owners and hoteliers who rent out rooms in Rural Tourist Homes, Hotels and "*fermes auberges*" as well as restaurants. In Germany and Belgium, RT is regulated by a special fiscal enactment, which recognises its peculiarities and its limited accommodation capacity.

Nevertheless, not all areas within any country are at the same stage of development. The increasing mobility of tourists together with the trend towards the fractioning of holiday periods has encouraged the establishment of RT accommodation on site in the proximity of major, fast communication networks. An adequate balance of access and accessibility is therefore an important factor influencing demand. Finally, in countries with sharp climatic differences between regions some destinations can be favoured over others.

The combination of these factors introduces an initial disparity in demand among specific destinations, rural areas and regions, as they lead to sharp seasonal contrasts on the one hand and variations in the frequency of visits on the other. In fact, occupancy in the majority of rural areas is concentrated over a period of 8 to 10 weeks (principally July and August). In areas around the Mediterranean, such as Greece, Spain and Portugal the season extends for up to 12 to 14 weeks (from mid June to the end of September). Some farmers and areas increase their occupancy up to about 30 weeks where a winter season also exists. The different potential of each area is paralleled by corresponding differences in the economic results for individual enterprises, farmers and obviously the impact on the development of each rural area. As a result, RT can be considered "sporadic" in distant rural areas, isolated from large urban nuclei, able only to attract short and irregular tourist stays and where the implantation of farmhouse accommodation is incipient. These areas include the UK periphery, the centre of France and the central south of Spain and Portugal (Ramos & Marengo, 1999). At the opposite end of the spectrum are the "intensive" RT destinations, where occupancy is spread throughout the year, and clients come regularly for weekends or short vacations, thanks to the proximity of large urban agglomerations and rapid access, as occurs, for example, in rural areas close to London (the Cotswolds and Chilterns) and Lisbon (the Douro valley).

Rural Tourism in Spain

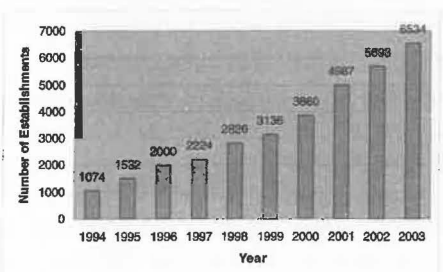
The late development of RT in Spain is understandable, as mass migration from rural to urban areas, focusing on Madrid and Barcelona, came much later than

in most industrialised European countries, covering the period from the mid-fifties to the eighties. Hence, until recently, rural areas were associated with poverty and backwardness rather than idyllic, peaceful landscapes, and, apart from industrial farms, by and large other agricultural enterprises were considered residual. Moreover, the rural exodus more or less coincided with the upsurge of the "sun cult" and consequent mass occupation of the coastal areas for hotel and second home development. It is only over the last two decades that new generations of urbanites, born and bred in the large cities, have come to appreciate the positive imagery of the countryside and a return to the values of nature – Naturophilia. As Urry (1990) argues, a "new consumer" has emerged, that has lost his/her roots.

Farmhouse holidays did exist in the 1960s, and some grants to adapt and renovate premises in order to improve the quality for the guests were awarded (Villarino & Cánoves, 2000). However, RT in Spain has only experienced considerable growth over the last 20 years (see Figure 1) and more especially over the last ten –much later than in most of Europe- although the dearth of documentation makes it difficult to trace this process.[1]

A variety of factors have contributed to this growth. Once introduced, the activity was rapidly accepted in Spain, because of the need to sustain population levels in rural areas in the face of rapid depopulation. The new rural economy was based on family businesses and, as in the rest of Europe, constituted a strategy for the diversification of farm activities and rural economies. A second reason, perhaps more unique to Spain, was the increasing ecological and environmental awareness prompted by a consciousness of the negative effects of mass tourism and its consequences on the landscape and land use, on the part of the expanding urban middle class population recently separated from its rural roots. There is documented evidence that over the last two decades and more so in the 90s, RT has achieved its objectives of mitigating emigration from rural areas, (Paniagua, 2002), and of generating benefits by diversifying the economy, through the cultural exchange which developed between urban and rural areas, and by adding new value to rural life (Yagüe, 2002; Beteille, 1996a; Dernoi, 1991). This new

Figure 1: Rural Tourism Establishments in Spain, 1994 - 2003



Source: INE, 2001-2003 & *Guía de Alojamiento en Casas Rurales de España*, El País Aguilar, 1994-2000.

tourism, totally different from the traditional 3S forms, has encouraged a better-balanced economy in the marginal, underdeveloped and even neglected and depopulated areas, that are not as well known as the coastal areas and that have not been affected by mass tourism. It could therefore be said that the earliest stage of RT, based almost exclusively on lodgings, developed at the beginning of the 1980s in Spain, related to the strategy for the survival of small family farms, by specializing in new products, or adding complementary activities such as RT. At this stage it was the female members of the family who welcomed the guests into rural homes, promoted the values of the local culture and organized food and accommodation. (Cánoves, 1997; Cánoves & Villarino, 2000a; 2000 b; Caballé,1999).

The second stage identified, involving diversification by providing a variety of activities is still incipient in Spain, due to the late development of RT, and began only in the 1990s. Although variations are encountered within regions, it can be asserted that the most developed regions are those where RT started earliest, namely Navarra, Asturias, Catalonia and Galicia, where more sophisticated products can be found as well as more attempts to enhance the product offered. Examples include: "Art and Nature" in the Catalan Pyrenees; "The Romanic Route" in the Vall de Boí (Catalonia) which was recently declared a World Heritage Area; planned routes through the vineyard regions of Galicia where natural landscapes combine with visits to important architectural sites, wine cellars, the sampling and purchase of products, and in some cases excursions into Portugal, by crossing the Miño river (the border between the two countries). Various Autonomous Communities along the Cantabrian coast -Galicia, Asturias, and the Basque country- have joined forces to promote a product that extends beyond each individual region. This is the case of the "Green Spain" product, which includes a classification of the rural houses by quality levels. The difference in the level of development of these new activities between much of Europe and Spain lies in the fact that, whilst in the UK or France, many farmers have trained as horse-riding monitors, hikers or mountain guides, experts in salmon fishing or going down gorges, cross-country skiing or cycle-tourism, in Spain, activities other than those directly linked to board and lodging, are not undertaken by the farmer, thus causing problems of coordination. This situation is related to the recentness of RT in Spain, and for the moment farmers are more inclined to simply host tourists at home.

The third stage identified –that of maturity- has not been reached in Spain. Nevertheless, the question of classification has arisen, for the autonomous governments have just become aware of the problem, and as each is responsible for its own legislation, there is no uniform policy. In some regions RT is regulated as an agricultural activity, in others as a tourist activity. No definitive solutions have been found and, in most cases, they are still classified as agricultural activities. Taxes, policy regulations related to capacity and marketing are also

different in each case, due to the functional independence of each region and because RT is still in its early stages. The low level of penetration of RT in Spanish rural society is therefore understandable and it is quite insignificant in statistical terms: only 1.6% of farms are involved (INE, 2001).

Analysis of RT supply and demand in Spain

There are 6007 RT establishments in Spain, providing 51,072 beds and giving employment to 9653 persons (see Figure 2 and Table 1). This supply is concentrated in certain regions, especially Castilla-León, Catalonia, Aragón and Galicia, which together account for 45% of all accommodation. However, the unequal size of the various Autonomous Communities must be borne in mind when identifying the density of supply, which is shown to be highest in northern Spain -Cantabria, Asturias, Navarra and the Basque Country- and in the island archipelagos –Balearic and Canary Islands- with Catalonia at a somewhat lower level. It is significant that the principal destination regions for coastal tourism are also among those that are developing RT products, together with the picturesque northern communities. The average size of establishments is 8.5 beds, but considerable variations are encountered: the largest units are concentrated in the Balearic Islands, Madrid and Cantabria.

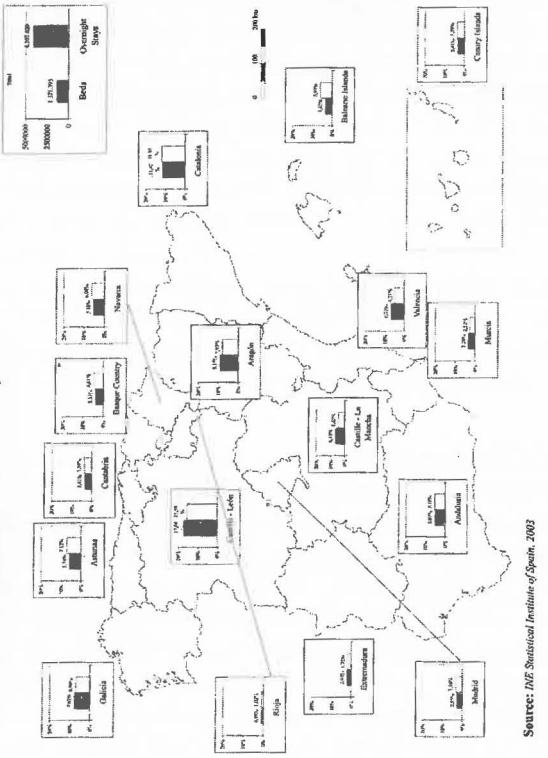


Figure 2: Rural tourism accommodation in Spain, 2002

Source: *INE Statistical Institute of Spain, 2003*

Table 1: Rural Tourism supply in Spain by Autonomous Communities, 2002

Autonomous Community	Establishments (estimated)		Beds (estimated)		Number of establishments / 100 km2	Number of beds / 100 km2	Average number of beds / establishment
	Total number	%	Total number	%			
TOTAL	6,007	100.00%	51,072	100.00%	1.19	10.09	8.50
Andalusia	329	5.48%	2,568	5.03%	0.38	2.93	7.80
Aragón	621	10.33%	4,674	9.15%	1.30	9.79	7.53
Asturias	500	8.33%	2,934	5.74%	4.72	27.67	5.87
Balearic Islands	104	1.74%	1,745	3.42%	2.09	34.95	16.71
Basque Country	187	3.11%	1,802	3.53%	2.58	24.90	9.65
Canary Islands	383	6.38%	1,742	3.41%	5.14	23.39	4.55
Cantabria	209	3.47%	3,305	6.47%	3.92	62.12	15.84
Castille - León	1,006	16.75%	8,715	17.06%	1.07	9.25	8.66
Castille - La Mancha	442	7.35%	3,285	6.43%	0.56	4.13	7.44
Catalonia	679	11.31%	5,832	11.42%	2.11	18.16	8.59
Extremadura	105	1.75%	1,035	2.03%	0.25	2.49	9.84
Galicia	341	5.67%	3,917	7.67%	1.15	13.24	11.49
Madrid	79	1.31%	1,303	2.55%	0.98	16.23	16.51
Murcia	244	4.06%	1,673	3.28%	2.15	14.79	6.87
Navarra	398	6.63%	2,606	5.10%	3.83	25.08	6.54
Rioja	59	0.98%	499	0.98%	1.17	9.89	8.47
Valencia	321	5.35%	3,437	6.73%	1.38	14.78	10.69

Source: INE, 2003

In 2002, there were over 1.37 million guests, generating over 4.1 million overnight stays (see Figure 2 and Table 2). Castille-León accounts for almost 20% of all demand, Catalonia for 12%, while the northern Communities of Galicia, Cantabria, Aragón, Basque Country, Navarra and Asturias (in descending order) together account for 40% of the demand. The predominance of Castille-León and Catalonia are due to the proximity of Madrid and Barcelona respectively and the existence of two high seasons, especially in the mountainous regions (Sierra in the former and the Pyrenees in the latter). In fact, demand is maintained throughout the year. In spite of the proximity of the "meseta" areas of Castille-La Mancha and Extremadura to Madrid, they could be considered "peripheral", as access and activities are less well developed and they have a low RT profile. In Catalonia, in addition to the Pyrenees, distinctive attractive regions such as Alt Empordà, Garrotxa and the River Ebro delta are within less than three hours' reach of Barcelona.

The predominance of the domestic market is overwhelming, as almost 90% of the visitors in 2002 were Spanish residents, a figure that is indicative of the low level of international market penetration of the product. Nevertheless foreign visitors accounted for 16% of total overnight stays, which is understandable, as a large proportion of Spanish residents use rural accommodation at weekends throughout the year, whilst foreign visitors stay for longer holidays. The close correlation between traditional international tourist destinations and foreign demand is further proof that, for foreigners, rural tourism often constitutes an alternative form of accommodation within well-known destination regions. This trend is particularly significant in the Balearic Islands (26.09% of visitors and

30.73% of overnight stays), but also in the Canary Islands (8.48% and 16.34% respectively) and to a lesser extent in Catalonia and Andalusia.

The average length of stay is 2.99 nights, corresponding to a long weekend, a typical source of demand. Many of the communities with easy access from Madrid, especially those that are less well developed, together with some other inland regions, register below average lengths of stay. By way of contrast, the longest stays are made in the Canary Islands, where distance makes it logical to stay for a full week; the Balearic Islands, where foreigners predominate; and Asturias, where RT –including complementary activities- is well developed. Nevertheless, average occupation rates reach only 21.74%. It is only in the Balearic Islands that significantly higher rates are achieved (38.31%), while rates in the upper twenties are registered in the Basque Country, the region of Madrid (with potentially large urban markets nearby) and the regions of Asturias, Navarra and Cantabria, where the product is relatively well developed.

Problems facing rural tourism in Spain

Many of the difficulties facing RT in Spain can be attributed to the recentness of its development, although, on the other hand, this should provide the opportunity to correct possible errors that have arisen in other countries where the activity has long been established, such as France and the UK. Perhaps the greatest problem for marketing RT at present is the lack of uniformity in the denominations, as a consequence of the fact that the various Autonomous Communities are responsible for tourism legislation which means that there is no regulation of the different categories of rural accommodation at a nationwide scale (see Table 3). It is absolutely essential for the regional administrations in collaboration with the national tourist authority to adopt a unified category system to denote quality, be it ears of corn, stars, shells, different colored apples (or whatever!) and also to adopt easily understood terminology to identify the different products offered under the generic label of RT. Otherwise, RT will run the risk of falling into a state of confusion and find itself competing with other types of hotel establishments, as appears to be the case in the Balearic Islands, where tourist enterprises in rural areas are mostly small, professionally run, luxurious hotels with little or no connection to the farming community. This lack of uniformity makes it impossible to list RT products in clearly defined categories and clients' "word of mouth" is probably a more widespread system for communicating opinion and image (on aspects such as quality, attractiveness, complementary activities) than the existing guide books, which often only reproduce a picture of the site.

As a result, no clear image of the product has really been created so far. The common denominator is not even that of "accommodation on farms", as town houses in small rural settlements are also authorized to provide accommodation in some Autonomous Communities. However, in general, RT maintains the

Table 3 Legislation & denomination of RT in Spain's Autonomous Communities

Autonomous Community	Legislation	Denomination
Andalusia	Decree 94 of 1995	Casa rural (*Rural House*) Hotel rural (*Rural Hotel*)
Aragon	Decree of 1986 Decree 69/1997	Vivienda de turismo rural (*Rural tourism residence*)
Asturias	Decree 26/91. 20th February. 1991 Resolution of 1993 Decree 69 of 1994	Casa de aldea (*Village house*) Casona asturiana (*Asturian country house*)
Balearic Islands	Decree 13/10 of 1995	Hotel rural (*Rural Hotel*) Allotgament de turisme d'interior (*Inland tourism house*)
Basque Country	Decree of 1988	Alojamiento turístico agrícola (*Agritourism*)
Canary Islands	Law of 1995	Establecimiento de turismo rural (*Rural tourism establishment*)
Cantabria	Decree of 1989 Decree 31/1997. 23th April	Posada en casa de labranza (*Farmhouse inn*) Posada (*Inn*) Vivienda vacacional (*Recreational house*) Palacio y casona cántabra (*Cantabrian mansion and country house*) Posada de Cantabria (*Cantabrian inn*) Casa de labranza (*Farmhouse*) Vivienda rural (*Rural dwelling*)
Castille - León	Decree of 1993 Decree 84/1995. 11th May	Casa rural (*Rural house*) Posada (*Inn*) Centro de Turismo Rural (*Rural tourism centre*)
Castille – La Mancha	Decree 43/1994	Casa rural de alojamiento compartido (*Rural house with on-farm lodging*) Casa rural de alquiler (*Rural house to Rent*) Casa de labranza (*Farmhouse*)
Catalonia	Decree of 1983 Decree 214 of 1995	Residència casa de pagès (*Farmer's residence*) Gîte de Catalunya (*Catalonian Gîte*)
Extremadura	Decree 120/1998. 6th October Decree 4/200. 25th January	Casa rural (*Rural house*) Agroturismo (*Agritourism*) Apartamento turístico Rural (*Rural tourism apartment*) Hotel rural (*Rural hotel*)
Galicia	Regulation of 1995 1997 Law of tourist promotion	Pazo (*Mansion*) Casa de aldea (*Village house*) Casa de labranza (*Farmhouse*)
Madrid	There is no specific legislation	Apartamento turístico (*Tourist apartment*)
Murcia	Decree 79.10th September.1992	Alojamiento turístico especial en zona de interior (*Special tourist accommodation in inland area*)
Navarra	"Foral" decree of 1991 "Foral" decree of 1993 "Foral" decree of 1995	Casa rural (*Rural house*)
La Rioja	Decree 8 of 1995 Decree 26/2000. 19th May	Casa rural (*Rural house*)
Valencian Community	Decree 253 of 1994 Modified Decree 207/1999. 9th November Decree 4/2000. 25th January	Casa rural (*Rural house*) Albergue turístico (*Tourist hostal*) Apartamento de Turismo Rural (*Rural tourism apartment*) Hotel rural (*Rural hotel*)

Source: Authors, based on current legislation

symbiosis between agricultural production and the conservation of a more humanized rural environment. Strong support from RT administrative authorities for the provision of a high quality product appears necessary, and more so, when competition in this market tends towards higher quality and less massification. This is understandable in a country where the power of attraction of leisure and vacation resorts on the coast is omnipresent.

Certainly some initiatives already exist. For example, in Catalonia a product known as "*Gîtes de Catalunya*" has been created, consisting of elegant country houses in harmony with their surroundings, with a variety of accommodation options, marketed in different categories by different numbers of ears of corn (as in France). The aim is to offer a higher quality product, focused potentially on foreign clients. The initiative dates from 1995 and a total of 45 *Gîtes* had been established by 1999. Advantage has been taken of an image already existing just over the border in France, even though the product is not identical.[2] Another initiative already mentioned is that of "Green Spain", which embraces the Autonomous Communities along the northern coast of Spain. This is a conscious and significant attempt to counteract the fragmentation of the product as a result of the administrative fragmentation of the country, by developing a territorial unit called "Green Spain", to promote a wide range of tourism units in rural areas. The programme guaranties a quality mark for the associated houses, in which the category of each establishment is denoted by apples (instead of ears of corn as in the case of "*Gîtes*"). The image which is transmitted is one of a continuum of attractive green landscapes, a total contrast from the better known images of Spain.

Another problem observed in this type of tourism is that of seasonality and the consequently low occupation rates, as demand is concentrated at weekends and traditional holiday periods. To counteract this, imaginative initiatives are essential. Encouraging special offers for different types of clients is a successful formula to compensate the variations created by gaps between peaks. Elderly people are possible clients for this type of tourism, which is restful and relaxed, while groups of schoolchildren, company meetings and scientific gatherings can also be potential clients. However, commercialization by individual enterprises would not be satisfactory. Central reservation systems or even smaller organizations must be developed to facilitate access by consumers to the product according to the targeted area. Thus, it is logical to think that, while amateur enthusiasm provided the initial impetus to the project, the time has come to develop the activity in a much more professional manner. Nevertheless, the specific structure and dynamics of rural areas should be taken into account; it is necessary to count on local people able to coordinate activities and local administrations (town halls, cooperatives and associations), for they are possibly those best prepared to do so, as they know the people and the land. However, as previously mentioned, the atomization of the various local protagonists makes coordination more difficult.

The uneven spread of RT constitutes an additional problem, as development and demand is greatest in areas adjacent to established coastal tourist destinations. In these cases, it can be interpreted as an alternative or even a complementary product within the general tourism structure. It is only in northern Spain that RT has developed as a clearly identified, independent sub-sector, whilst in the more depressed rural areas of central Spain, where economically viable alternatives to agriculture are most needed, as a general rule both development and demand are sadly more limited.

Final Reflections

Tourism in rural areas has been actively promoted as a panacea for the economic problems of the rural population. However, research in various European countries has shown that RT is not the solution for the problems facing the agricultural community, although it certainly can contribute to diversify farm incomes in family farms, inject additional benefits into the rural economy, counteract emigration from rural areas, encourage an increase in cultural exchange between urban and rural areas, and enhance the values inherent to rural life, as well as contribute to the general diversification of the economy.

The success of RT depends upon establishing a balance between the maintenance of economic activities and safeguarding the attractiveness of the rural environment. In order to achieve this balance management by the local community and constraints on visitor numbers are implied, for tourism development must guarantee not to detract from landscape quality and reduce the attractiveness of the resource upon which it depends. The development of endogenous rural initiatives is beneficial, for it has been shown that the provision of leisure activities on site or locally enhance the characteristics of the landscape and/or culture, and this generates greater demand and satisfaction. The objective should be to promote improvement and diversification, thus reducing uniformity in the use of the environment. From this perspective, space consumption implies the appreciation of the idiosyncrasies of each space and RT areas are especially rich in culture, landscape variation, gastronomy and traditions. It is evident that RT offers increasingly varied options for advanced societies looking for enjoyment from a wide range of leisure pursuits.

This article has revealed certain differences in the development of RT in Spain and other advanced economies in Europe. The underlying cause is the later introduction of the activity in Spain, which means that it is at an earlier stage of development, and the product is therefore less evenly spread and less well structured. This situation is accentuated, moreover, by the fact that major development occurred after the transfer of responsibility for tourism from the central government to the regional legislative bodies. As a result, there is considerable disparity in legislation, while commercialization and marketing are highly fragmented, leading to considerable confusion among potential consumers.

Nevertheless, important challenges still confront Spanish RT. In addition to the need for consensus on legislation, in order to introduce greater clarity and more uniformity, professionalization of this relatively new activity is urgent, to improve, above all, management and marketing. Notwithstanding the contribution of farming women, young people in particular must become the driving force of these initiatives by promoting ideas from within. They consider RT a more attractive and socially a more highly valued activity than agriculture and will be willing to invest in it. Creating job opportunities in the rural world is not easy, but what could be better than offering people the possibility of remaining in their place of origin, if they wish to? If those involved in RT in Spain do not find solutions for these challenges, RT may regretfully fall into oblivion and become little more than a mirage.

References

ARDILLIER-CARRAS. F. (1999) Espace rural et tourisme: mirage ou opportunité? Reflexion autour d'un ensemble regional entre Poitou et Limousin. In: Violier. P. L´espace local et les acteurs du tourisme. Presses Universitaires de Rennes, Rennes.

BÉTEILLE. R. (1996a) L'agrotourisme dans les espaces ruraux européens. Annales de Geography 592, 584-602.

BÉTEILLE. R. (1996b) Le tourisme vert. PUF, Paris.

BUSBY. G.. RENDLE. S. (2000) The transition from tourism on farms to farm tourism. Tourism Management 21, 635-642.

BUTLER. R., HALL. C. M., JENKINS. J. (1998) Tourism and recreation in rural areas. Wiley, London.

CABALLÉ. A. (1999) L´agroturisme a l'Estat espanyol: Anàlisi de l´oferta des d´una perspectiva de gènere. UAB, Barcelona.

CÁNOVES. G. (1997) The multiadaptative rural woman: Is tourism the solution? Paper presented at the Gender. Tourism. Fun Conference. University of Davis. CA-USA.

CÁNOVES. G., VILLARINO. M. (2000ª) Turismo rural en Portugal. Las mujeres piezas clave para "recibir y servir". In: Garcia Ramon. M. D., Baylina. M. (Eds). El nuevo papel de las mujeres en el desarrollo rural. Oikos-Tau, Vilassar de Mar, Barcelona.

CANOVES. G., VILLARINO. M. (2000b) Turismo en espacio rural en España: actrices e imaginario colectivo. Documents d'Anàlisis Geogràfica (UAB). Barcelona. 37, 51-77.

COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES (1985) Tourism In The European Community. European file 11/85. Commission of the European Communities, Brussels.

COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES (1988) The Future Of Rural Society. Document COM 7957788. Commission of the European Communities, Brussels.

DERNOI. L. A. (1991) About rural & farm tourism. Tourism Recreation Research 16 (1), 3-6.

HJALAGER. A.M. (1996) Agricultural diversification into tourism. Evidence of a European Community development programme. Tourism Management 17, 103-111.

INE - INSTITUTO NACIONAL DE ESTADISTICA (2001/02/03) Encuesta de Ocupación hotelera en acampamentos turísticos. en apartamentos turísticos y en alojamientos de turismo rural. INE, Madrid.

MARTÍN-CRUZ. J. A. (1991) L´agroturisme dans la CEE: utopie et realité. Bureau Européen du Tourisme, Brussels.

MOINET. F. (1996) Le tourisme rural en France. France Agricole, Paris.

PANIAGUA. A. (2002) Urban-rural migration. tourism entrepreneurs and rural restructuring in Spain. Tourism Geographies 4 (4), 349-371.

RAMOS. A., MARENGO. R. (1999) Le rôle des acteurs locaux dans le développement touristique: Une approche du tourisme intérieur au Portugal. In: Violier. P. L´espace local et les acteurs du tourisme. Presses Universitaires de Rennes. Rennnes.

URRY. J. (1990) The tourist gaze: Leisure and travel in contemporary societies. Sage Publications, London.

VILLARINO. M., CÁNOVES. G. (2000) Turismo rural en Galicia: Sin mujeres imposible. In: Garcia Ramon. M. D., Baylina, M. (Eds) El nuevo papel de las mujeres en el desarrollo rural. Oikos-Tau, Vilassar de Mar, Barcelona.

WEAVER. D.B., FENNEL. D.A. (1997) The vacation farm sector in Saskatchewan: a profile of operations. Tourism Management 18 (6), 357-365.

YAGÜE. R.M. (2002) Rural Tourism in Spain. Annals of Tourism Research 29 (4), 1101-1110.

[1] Detailed statistical information has been obtained from the INE (National Statistical Institute) monthly survey of RT occupation (*Encuesta de Ocupación en Alojamientos de Turismo Rural*) since 2001. Prior to this date some Autonomous Communities had been keeping records (though only since 1994) and information limited basically to the number of establishments can also be gleaned from RT guide books.

[2] In fact, the use of the same terminology could lead to confusion, as the product in Catalonia is intended as an elite label, unlike its French counterpart.

About the Author

Gemma Canoves is Assistant Professor of Geography at the Autonomus University of Barcelona, Spain. She has wide experience researching rural development, gender studies and recently rural tourism in Spain and Portugal. Has published in Sociologia Ruralis, Geoforum, Annals of Tourism Research, and academic journals in Spanish.

Gerda K. Priestley is Assistant Professor of Geograpy at the Autonomus University of Barcelona, Spain. She teaches tourism geography in The Autonomous School of Tourism.

JOURNAL OF H&T
www.johat.com

Rural Tourism: Win-Win-Win Case study: Women Cooperative Gargaliani

Leonidas A. Papakonstantinidis
Deputy Head of Department of Local Government,
Technological Educational Institute, Kalamata-Greece

Abstract: In this paper public involvement concerned with Rural Tourism-Rural Development is conducted. Involving local people in the development procedure round a local "Flag Theme", is therefore necessary. In particular the paper focuses on sensitisation process as the reaction to given information, which influences the socio-economic behaviour in the bargain.

The main hypothesis is that development may be sighted as the output of the bargaining trends. Paper goals are three: Firstly, it aims to map past research on regional development, related with knowledge creation and individual strategies. Secondly, it offers a theoretical critique of the Nash "win-win" Model. Thirdly, it provides a behaviour approach for rural development (win-win-win).

Key words: Sensitisation, public involvement, flag theme, bargaining strategies-behaviour information.

Introduction

1.1 The stage of the main discussion

Rural Tourism-Public Involvement: Sensitisation as a form of knowledge creation

The paper deals with the Rural Tourism- Rural Development procedure, as a part of the Development procedure, in which "public participation" is the key-point.

Public participation presupposes that a methodological approach could be applied in the rural area, by easy steps towards motivating local people and involving the Community.

This methodological approach includes 5 steps, i.e. information, sensitisation, participation, involvement and partnership, in its main version

The paper focuses on "sensitisation" as the main step of the methodological procedure, based on the "bottom-up" approach and the local people motivation, towards developing their place

From this point of view, a definition of "Sensitisation " is given. Flag-Theme is the focus point for motivating local people, thus creating a local "team-psychology"

In particular, the paper deals with "sensitization", as a form of integrated information (knowledge creation and knowledge transfer), based on a 3-person

pure individual strategies' interaction (decision making). It could be concerned as an extension to Nash "non-cooperative game" theory.

It concerns the field of social sciences, especially, social behavior and socialization process, introducing a new methodological tool in planning regional and local development: Based on "links" between "tacit" knowledge and "codified" knowledge, in the framework of neural, regional (and local) networks, it could be proved to be a useful methodological tool for policy and decision makers, in planning and achieving the development process. It has been applied by the author more than 39 times –at empirical level- in promoting a "team psychology" for establishing rural tourism women cooperatives, in Greek rural areas (a case-study is referred).

The concept introduced by the paper may be concerned as a triple synthesis:

1. "Sensitisation" is a form of Integrated Information".
2. Integrated Information leads to knowledge creation which influences pure "instant reaction" individual strategies *in* the bargain, through the changes in socio-economic behaviour, locally, due to sensitisation.
3. Instant reaction individual strategies in the bargain influence the rural development and rural tourism feed-back effect, due to the changes in socio-economic behaviour, at local level.

A case study *"Women Co-operative Gargaliani, South -West Peloponnesos-Greece"* from the very recent past (2002) is referred, as an applied form of this "synthesis" which may be concerned as the contribution of the paper.

There is no running scientific discussion on this very specific field (the triple synthesis) I looked for it in "every stone", but I did not find anything.

Scientific knowledge (even the most recent, 2002) in each of the three fields has been used by the author in a synthesis, on which , personal contribution has been based.

The three fields are mainly covered, recently, by the following scientific approaches from different directions:

1. Fischer M. M, (2002) "Learning in neural spatial interaction models: A statistical Perspective"
2. Kuhn W.H and Nasar S., (2001) "The essential John Nash"
3. Guillaumaud J, trnsl, (1963) "Cybernetique et Materialisme Dialectique"
4. Papakonstantinidis, trnsl, (2002) "The Sensitized Community"
5. Swarbrooke J (1999) "Sustainable Tourism Develoment" GABBI Publishing Ed, London

6. Torreta Gullietta (1997) "Sociological Aspects in the Human Resources Management inside the Public Administration" International Sociological Asssociation (I.S.A) R.C 26 , special issue, Toronto Canada

7. Thirion Samuell: "Flag Theme and Local Development", LEADER Magazine, iss 8 Aug 2000 (p.p 31-34)

8. Wilkinson Kenneth (1991) "Social Stabilization: The Role of Rural Society"- International Center for Development Studies –U.C.G –IRL, special issue,

1.2 Reference to literature connecting to the suggested idea

Rural tourism is a profitable local activity, in rural areas. So it is necessary, costs and benefits be measured (Gannon, 1990, M'.O.Cinneide, 1991). At the same time, it may be concerned as a methodological tool for an integrated rural development, at local level (Wilkinson, 1992, Swarbrooke, 1999 et alle). In this paper, the "development side" is conducted. Rural tourism may be concerned as an important local initiative, in planning the integrated rural development program, which influences the socio-economic behavior, at local level (Torreta 1997). It is, therefore, necessary, local people be involved in the development procedure, round a local "flag theme" (Thirion, 2000) . From this point of view, public involvement at local level, through a ladder of "easy steps" is the key point (Arnestein, 2000). This paper focuses on the "sensitization", as the main step of ladder, as it influences both the direction and the communication of the development procedure. (Papakonstantinidis, 2002). During the first post-war period, N. Wienner (1948) highlighted the art of *"cybernetic"* suggested by Platonas (427-347 B.C). (Guillaumaud, 1963, p. 17), according to which any system incorporates direction and communication. Wienner (1948) had also suggested that information -as a form of energy- should to be the crucial "link" between direction and communication (Guillaumaud, 1963) Changes in direction may be concern as the feed-back effect coming up from communication (see "reroaction"- Brillouin L, 1955).Alternately, "information" facilitates "tacit" knowledge's externalization: It transfers "tacit" knowledge to "codified" knowledge and then, to the "systemic" knowledge (Fischer M. M, 2002, p 10) through neural networks. Neural spatial interaction modeling (Fischer M.M, 2002, pp 12-14) introduces the organizational knowledge, as a complex interactive process. It is characterized by a continuous and dynamic interaction between the two forms of knowledge: tacit and codified. Human relations are based on the above knowledge division (Fischer M.M, 2002)

From the other hand, socioeconomic relations –as a part of human relations- include the bargaining problem (Kuhn-Nasar, 2001) Despite the rise of the marketplace with millions of buyers and sellers, who never interact directly, one-one deal between individuals, corporations, governments or unions, economists assumed (Kuhn-Nasar S, 2001) that the outcome of a two-way bargaining was determined by psychology and was therefore outside the realm

of economics [zero-sum, two players game- *win-lose*]. They had no formal framework, for thinking about how parties to a bargain would interact. Each participant in a negotiation was expected to benefit more by cooperation, than acting alone. Nash J.F (1951-introduction) visualized a deal as the outcome of either a process of negotiations, *or else independent strategizing by individuals, each pursuing his own interest (win-win).*

From a different point of view, "sensitization" is a continuous process, *through which a community becomes aware of the capacities and talents of its members as well as the potential of the resources that are available to it and sets a target for local development, and it is the key-point of public involvement. That could be achieved through a "team psychology" local population's spirit round a "flag theme" at local level, providing it with the collective choice and a new value system at local level, or, a step towards public participation* (Papakonstantinidis L.A, 2002)

As a methodological tool, sensitization may be concerned as a form of knowledge creation leading to "integrated information", It facilitates tacit knowledge from one person to be transferred to another person, as a "codified message", thus to be incorporated, as a conceptual knowledge, in a cross-road neural, regional, or local network procedure(Fischer M.M, 2002) Conceptual knowledge influences –through the sensitization procedure- individual behavior towards socialization, thus, leading pure individual strategies and the community (as the third "invisible" part in the bargain) towards converging and therefore, developing sensitized strategies, so each of the three parts to win (win-win-win). That is the paper contribution.

1.3 Outlining the purpose of the paper: The "Win-Win-Win Model"

The paper based on Nash "win-win" Model, focuses on the sensitisation process, as an instant reaction to given information which influence the socio-economic behaviour, through knowledge creation and knowledge transfer. It aims to converge local people pure individual strategies in the bargain.

Taking part in such a negotiation each member of the community should ask him/her self three questions: what is the best for me? What is the best for me and for the others? and what is the best for me, for the others and for the community? Thus, "converging individual strategies" may be created, forming a solid basis for co-operation between community members and the Community itself (as the third-invisible part of negotiations) thus maximising the socio-economic profit for all the involved parts in a negotiation [pure co-operation, in its limit-point]

In particular, following the previous approach, the suggested form of "integrated information" lets people plan pure individual strategies in the bargain, each of them taking into account:

- *what is the best for me, personally*
- *what is the best for me and for the others (as it maximizes my personal profit)*
- *what is the best for me, for the others and for the community as the third-invisible part of negotiations*

The last one, suggested in this paper –based on *"sensitization"* - may be proved to be more important than the previous ones, as it incorporates *pure individual sensitized strategies, based on the "integrated information"* (market, real personal needs, social needs, community needs, environmental priorities etc) . It is the result of a soft compromise between individual pursuit and social welfare , as the outcome of a better conceptual knowledge. The three forms of individual pure strategies are corresponded [1-1], to the following forms of the bargaining problem:

- *zero sum, two players game (von Neuman and Morgenstern, 1947)- win-lose*
- *non-cooperative game/pure individual strategies (J.F.Nash, 1951) – win-win*
- *non-cooperative game/pure individual strategies + sensitization:* ***win-win-win***

(which is the concept of the proposed **"Win-Win-Win Model"** as a Nash' "Non-Cooperative Game-N.C.G" extension , based on the critical review of the Nash' **"Win-Win Model"** (trust theory)

The proposed "Win-Win-Win Model" by the paper, based on a *"3-person integrated information"* may lead the community members, as well as the community itself to a pure cooperation, towards local development. The suggested "idea" could be applied by the experts, in planning the development procedure in rural areas, especially, in planning the rural tourism development.

(It has been already applied by the author in creating a team psychology, towards establishing women rural tourism cooperatives in Greece, during 1983-2001)

The conclusions of the paper are based on the suggested "integrated information", including "sensitization", through knowledge creation and knowledge transfer, leading to successive coalitions, until the "pure cooperation" situation, as the limit-point of the process, through converging the "pure individual strategies" due to "sensitization".

Main Body

2.1 How to involve the local people through tourism

The purpose of Rural Development (including the Rural Tourism development) is to improve the quality of life of the local population, of a rural region.

Rural Development should be based on the interest and the involvement of the community living area for the reasons, that:

- they know best what are their problems and needs
- they control many of the resources (land, buildings, local products upon which development is based
- their skills, tradition, knowledge and energy are the main resource for development
- their commitment is vital (if they do not support an initiative, it will die)
- they have their own Value System (customs, etc)
- they have their own communication code
- they have relative links (in most of the cases)

It is easy to understand, that these ideas emphatically apply to the development of rural tourism:

- Tourism can bring real economic and social benefits, to a rural area, but it can also bring real problems. So it is vital to sure, that the benefits are gained and the problems are avoided.
- This is best done by enabling the local people to understand what is proposed by way of tourist development.
- Local people (residents) have a moral right to be involved in the development of an industry, which can bring both benefits and costs to their community.
- Moreover, the involvement of local people may encourage them to take a positive role in the tourism initiative.

Instead of the question:

- What can tourism do for me?

then more difficult but necessary is the question:

- What can I do for Tourism?

How, then, may the local people be involved in the process of tourism development?

In many European countries there is no strong tradition of what has been called "participated democracy" People in many villages and small towns are not used to taking part in public discussion of proposals, even where these proposals direct affect them. But the trend, toward participation, decision-making or bottom-up development can be observed, not only through Europe, but also all over the world.

Where local people are unusual to public discussion, of such matters, it may be necessary to move towards public involvement by easy steps. This idea was expressed (Arnstein G. 2000) by a ladder which people could climb (diagram 1):

Diagram 1

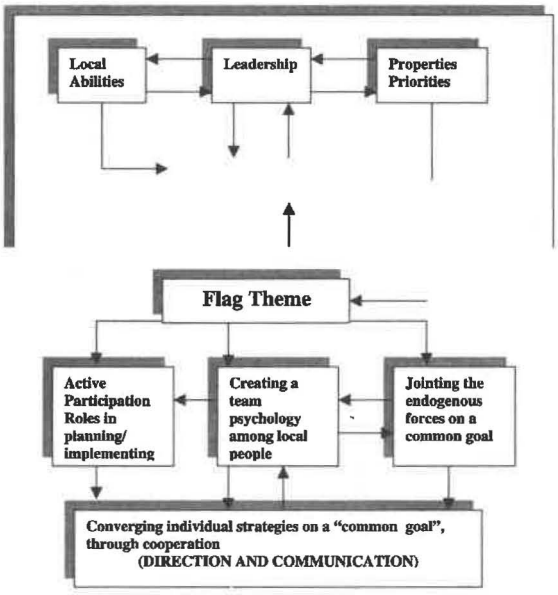
partnership
involvement
participation
sensitisation
information

To explain the diagram, in a little:

- A first step may be information (in its integrated form-see the "win-win-win model", below), which people are told about possibilities of their area.
- The next step may be sensitisation, by which local are encouraged to reflect on the character of their area, the natural, cultural and human resources of the area, the ways in which these resources might be used for tourism, the kinds of visitors who might come, and the impact that tourism might have upon the local economy and environment.
- This may then lead to active participation in the debate upon the development of tourism and in the decisions are made
- This, in turn provoke the direct involvement of people in pursuing and contributing to the tourism development program
- This direct involvement may then form the basis for the creation local partnerships or associations which may undertake aspects of the tourism development or on the protection and enrichment the resources which are associated with it
- Europe is rich in examples of local groups who care for nature reserves, small museums, historic buildings and other parts of the natural and cultural heritage: very often, part of their work is the reception of visitors. An initial interest in developing tourism can lead to an enchase pride among the local people for the heritage of their place, including wildlife, local history, historic and archaeological places, traditional arts, and crafts, ethnic and spiritual riches etc.
- Raising the local sensitivity in this way, can be a major factor in community development and in encouraging a sustainable approach in local life.
- The process of public involvement can be much assisted by training -education

- Where people become interested in their local heritage, in possible entrepreneurial activity, by themselves, or in communal initiates to promote tourism, they may become open to learning more.
- Training may then, be offered by local authorities, local development agencies, on N.G.Os , in topics, as leadership, management, problem-solving, group dynamics, and building partnerships, and links with other organisations.
- There may be opportunities for public education on tourism with a focus on the benefits and costs of tourism, the way of which enterprises can be developed and how to cope with tourists from different cultural and language background
- Having in our mind the ladder of public involvement one might say that the top step would be cooperative action. But, tourism, with its small enterprises, and the need to link together the many different services, which a visitor may need, offer a natural ground for such cooperation
- The idea for such cooperation tends to evolve naturally out of a common need or interest among potential members of a group; it may be expressed in a share vision or a **flag theme** (see below, the "flow diagram" 2) which motivates the group and sustains their active participation in the developing process, around an "open-discussion theme", at local level, which has the ability to make people to converge their own interests and expectation on this "theme", which is provoked as a "central theme"- See the "Flow-diagram" 2:

Flow-Diagram 2
"The Flag Theme"



"Flag Theme" is a "central theme" which concentrates local resources, skills, abilities, talents, leadership (which is a "talent"), as well as "priorities" and properties at local level and, in its turn, operating as an incentive, mobilises local people to actively participate in planning and implementing the integrated endogenous, local business plan, as well as to create a team psychology among people and joint local population forces under the "umbrella" of the "flag theme".

Sensitisation may be regarded as the main step of the ladder.

"Sensitisation is a process, through which a community becomes aware of the capacities and talents of its members as well as the potential of the resources that are available to it and sets a target for local development, including tourism development. Thus, sensitisation can be seen as a means of enhancing human communication within a community, leading to community activation and development and hence promoting the principle of sustainable rural tourism development at local level"

2.2 The problem

Rural Communities are experienced by underdevelopment, due to the lack of information flow, low level of labor specification, low productivity of labor, low level of invested capital, low population income etc People suffer of a low level of income and living quality. The result may be isolation, coming from the accumulated disappointment of those people, whose choices are exclusively depended on the metropolitan decision making center.(Cinneide M.O', 1991) "Who holds the center, governs with the benefits of occupying the information flow" (Wilkinson K. 1991)

In that case, rural community has to try to succeed the suitable "economic size" for those free market competitiveness reasons, making valuable, its own (natural, environmental, architectural and historical) resources and advantages, therefore, promoting its "local identity"(Gannon A, 1990). The key-point in the development procedure is, therefore, *the* "community decision" as the first step towards social capital accumulation and "social stabilization" (Wilkinson K., 1991) But how?

How Less Developed Area's economies, could be able to break the "poor cycle" in which they should had been trapped?

The answer should be:

Improving the information flow, through regional and local networks, *promoting the* spatial diversification (Wilkinson K, 1991) through local innovative applications. Modern Innovation Theory introduces the "knowledge creation and dissemination" at the very center of focus.

This theory emphasizes the interactive and the dynamic nature of innovation and knowledge creation system (Fischer M.M 2002).

Intellectually, "bargaining theory" emphasizes "the interactive and the dynamic nature of human relations in an organized community" (The bargaining theory -Nash J.F, 1951)

Therefore, the analysis of this concept is mainly based on these parallel and concrete "systems" , "innovations", with knowledge-creation and "human relations" These "systems" are valuable in explaining the new trends in regional development

It is therefore, necessary, to start with the new trends in regional development policy.

2.3 New trends in Regional Policy: Knowledge-creation

Regional Science is a rich discipline at the cross-roads of economics and geography that deals with:

- urban and regional economics problems
- transportation and spatial interaction problems
- natural resources problems

The progress made in these three major fields could be summarized in :

- spatial analysis
- regional economic modeling, in particular, spatial interaction modeling and
- regional development and policy analysis

Research on Regional Development and Regional Development Policy has been developed by two major "Schools of thought" that have participated in the debate on innovation, knowledge/information and regional development (Fischer M.M, 2001) :

- those, which concentrate on institutions and industrial organizations and
- those concerned with technological change and learning

The first one has been already surpassed by the evolution and the technological change: "Industrial organizations theory " had been a useful methodological "tool" in explaining the development procedure, during the industrial period and the industrialization / urbanization procedure (Poles Theory, Stages of Growth, Balanced and Unbalanced Development etc)

It is estimated, that during the post-industrial period, research on regional development, should be better expressed by the second "School of Thought" concerned with technological change and learning, introduced by the Modern Innovation Theory, in terms of:

- Knowledge creation and dissemination at the very center of focus. This Modern Innovation Theory emphasizes (as the above referred) the interactive and dynamic nature of innovation (Fischer M.M, 2002)
- Innovation is viewed as an institutional and localized –not placeless- social process (Fischer M.M, 2002)
- Following the previous approaches, based on literature, it is concluded that considerable advance over the network school of innovation has been made by a decisive shift in focus from firm to territory, from knowledge – creating firm to knowledge- creating territory, (on which the win-win-win suggested approach has mainly been based).

2.3.1 Innovation and knowledge-creating, as an Interactive Process- Information

A system of "innovation" is "a set of actors or entities such as firms, other organizations and institutions that interact in the generation use and diffusion of new –and economically useful- knowledge in the production process" (Fischer M.M, 2002) There is no general agreement about the specification of the sets of actors and specifications

Following the above mentioned, let us see, now, the "innovation" as an interactive process:

Research is interacted with the general scientific and technological knowledge "pool", based on the "logic" of the firm-specific knowledge.

This "knowledge pool" is interacted with a number of firm-specific knowledge base interactive systems, i.e potential market, invent and analytic design, redesign and produce, distribute and market (Fischer M.M, 2001)

From the other hand, "knowledge" is the most strategic resource and knowledge creation becomes the key for firms to stay abreast of product and process innovation.

At this point, it is necessary to introduce the term of the "organizational knowledge" as a complex interactive process characterized by a continuous and dynamic interaction between two forms of knowledge: "tacit" and "codified". From this point of view, "knowledge conversion" –through "information" channels- are both valuable, for innovation diffusion and human relation progress (Papakonstantinidis L. A, 2003)

Literature (Reinsmann , Fischer, Nonaka, Takeuchi and others) introduced various processes of "knowledge conversion" based on the proved and "build" information systems incorporated in an organization (see bellow, 2.2.3).

Possible cases/orders, between "tacit" and "codified" knowledge produce the four (4) major processes of knowledge conversion :

- Tacit knowledge to tacit knowledge produces the sympathized knowledge (socialization)
- Tacit knowledge to codified knowledge produces the conceptual knowledge (externalization)
- Codified knowledge to tacit knowledge produces the procedural knowledge (internalization)
- Codified knowledge to codified knowledge produces the systemic knowledge (combination)

Each of these processes of "knowledge conversion" corresponds [1-1] to a specific type of information (as a form of human energy) (Papakonstantinidis L. A, 2003), particularly:

- Social Information-Sensitization
- External Information- Participation
- Internal Information-Involvement
- Combined Information-Networking

In the case of a mathematical problem, able to accept more than one possible solutions, we need more information, so that the number of possible solutions be decreased, until the limit of the "only one solution"(full information).

Concluding, "information"- as a math term- is a function (probability "P") of possible solutions before-Po and after-P the information has been taken. (Guillaumaud, 1963) In the case of a "full information system", we have $Po*P^{-1}=1$ [as the number of possible solutions before (Po) the information has been taken is equal to that, after the information taken (P)] A set (sum) of more than one information, corresponds to a unique multiplication of relations, and therefore is illustrated in a logarithm function, as it transfers a sum to multiplication.

2.3.2 Socio-economic Relations, as an Interactive Process: Bargaining Problem

By its turn, each of the specific types of information- corresponded 1-1 to knowledge conversion processes- may lead individuals in four different types (1-1) of human (social and economic) behavior, according to "direction" and "communication":

- Socialization
- Participation

- Public Involvement
- Creating coalitions, or networks

Particularly, information as the tool of knowledge conversion process influences the economic behavior of individuals leading them in planning their own pure individual strategies, in the bargain.

Bargaining is an old problem in socioeconomic theory based on "Utility Theory" A two-person bargaining situation involves two individuals who have the opportunity, either to be competitors each-other (win-lose) [see "games theory", below], or to collaborate for mutual benefit in more than one way. In the simple case, no action taken by one of the individuals without the consent of the other can affect the well-being of the other one. In fact we there is only one decision Economists (particularly, von Neuman and Morgentern, 1947) assumed that the outcome of a two-way bargaining was determined by psychology and was therefore outside the realm of economics [zero-sum, two players game. Each participant in a negotiation had expected –according to the bargain theory, before 1951- to benefit more by cooperation, than acting alone Equally, according that dogma, the terms of deal had depended on the bargaining power of each. No one had discovered principles, by which to winnow unique predictions from a large number of potential outcomes, under the dogma "contract without competition is indeterminate"

2.3.3 A critical review on the Games Theory, in particular on the Nash N.C.G

That is illustrated in the "Games Theory",(von Neuman and Morgenstern, 1947), explaining the strategies which are developed by individuals who have different needs, interests and expectations in a "bargain" and try to maximize individual profits (and, corresponding, to minimize individual costs)

Games Theory may be concerned as the base of strategic plans (good strategies) between two players in its pure version. It is a theory of explaining "reactions" in terms of strategies If the result for the one player is "good", then it should be "not good" for the other. If one player is the winner, then the other should be the looser.(Filinis C, 1973) .Von Neumann and Morgenstern have developed a very fruitful theory of two-person zero-sum games. "...Their book also contains a theory of n-person games of a type which would call "cooperative". This theory is based on an analysis of the interrelationships of the various coalitions which can be formed by the players of the game...Our theory on contradistinction is based on the absence of coalitions In that it is assumed that each participant acts independently, without collaboration of communication with any of the others...The notion of an equilibrium point is the basic ingredient for the N.C games theory. This notion yields a generalization of the concept of the solution of a two-person zero-sum game.....

It turns out that the set of equilibrium points of a two-person zero-sum game is simply the set of all pairs of opposing "good strategies"....." (Nash, 1951)

From this point of view, the resulting sum should be zero, (zero-sum, two players game), but community as an entity derives a zero sum outcome. In other words, the fundamental problem in nowadays is "what is the bargaining social vision, from a zero-sum game?"

Nowadays, it is estimated (new-marxian theories) that the bargaining process, in its social vision has not been finished

Bargaining process has been promoted by the N.C.G Theory: Indeed, the N.C.G Theory introduced a concept of "coalitions" or "trusts" in the bargaining problem: Nash J.F (Nobel Prize, 1994) visualized a deal as the outcome of either a process of negotiations, or else independent strategizing by individuals, each pursuing his own interest.

Following the literature (Kuhn W.H –Nasar S,2001) the n-persons games should have values .A two-person anticipation should be defined as a combination of two one –person anticipations The one-person utility functions may be regarded as applicable to the two persons anticipations, each giving the result it would give if applied to the corresponding one-person anticipation which is a component of the two- person anticipation. A probability combination of two two-person anticipations is defined by making the corresponding combinations for their components. Instead of define a solution directly, Nash asked what reasonable conditions any division of gains from a bargain would then to satisfy. He then using, under conditions, an ingenious mathematical argument ["An n-person game is a set of n players or positions each with an associate finite set of pure strategies and corresponding to each player i a payoff function pi which maps the set of all n-tuples of pure strategies into the real numbers" (Nash J.F, 1951)] showed that, a unique solution exists that maximises the product of the participants utilities .

Conclusions

- "Nature" is a field of conflicts and cooperation
- "Nature" incorporates "direction" and "communication" (feed-back effect)
- *Nature* as the complete system incorporates an objective (direction) and an integrated information system (communication), as well as the "bargain"
- Information - as a form of energy- facilitates knowledge (tacit and codified) diffusion, leading to innovation, technological change, human relations change.
- Human relations, as a part of natural relations follow them

- In particular, the socio-economic relations –as a part of human relations- produce –according to the four types of knowledge transferred procedure- special forms of the socio-economic behavior, i. e socialization, externalization, internalization, networking, under the constraints defined bellow:
- Self-love and power are survival conditions
- Information is a form of energy, equivalent to "power"
- Information –as a form of power- is used by owners, for dominating.

By its turn:

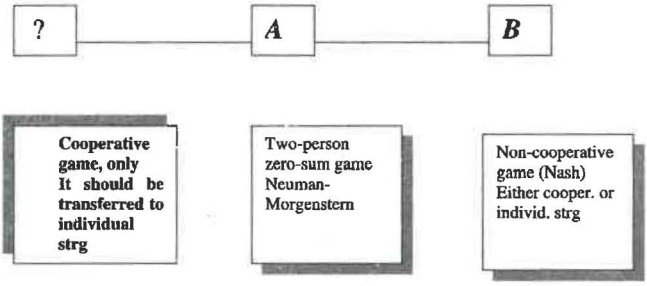
- Individuals, are rationally thinking-at any moment- for personal profit
- Any person makes –at any moment- the best choices, for him/herself.
- Individuals try -at any moment- to maximize personal profit
- Bargaining may be concerned as the base of the free market "game"
- This game seems to illustrate the world "deficiencies" in a "new economy" framework: Development in one place, based on the "extension procedure", produces under-development in another place and the question is:

"How the world resources could be managed, by the "new economy" so that to succeed a mutual profit for all the members of the "planet community"?

In particular, the bargaining problem has been explained by the "Games Theory", as:

1. Games theory introduced the concept of a "definite game"
2. Games Theory is a theory of "conflicts" and "cooperation" *-two-person zero-sum*
3. According to (1) and (2) "game" has an "end" (Rule of definition)
4. According to (1), (2), (3) a game has at the end *a winner and a loser*

- Nash proved in his "Non Cooperative Games", (1951) that all the players could get to win if they had pure good personal strategies even non-cooperative, emphasizing individual strategies, or the side of individuals.
- Nash has also proved the axioms that "in any play of game, one player or the other must win, but never both" and "since the game is finite with only two possible outcomes and since the players move alternately, with complete information, one of the two players must have a winning strategy"
- Neuman-Morgenstern have defined the Economic Behavior in Bargaining, through the "Game Theory" (two-person zero-sum game): Any form of cooperation is transferred to "two-person zero-sum" game, (A) strategy



- Nash, introduced that a deal is the outcome of either a process of negotiations, or else independent strategizing by individuals, each pursuing his own interest (B) strategy
- There is an open question coming from the above mentioned theories:

If "Nature" is symmetric then, Nash did finish the process ?

Let's see this question in a "linear graphic scheme":

Nash "game" has been defined a priori, by strict rules of an "end", **as a "competitive game"** based on players instant reaction (individual strategies, formulated through given information)

Following the same "idea", a competitive game should be concerned as a "team win-win-win strategies" based on instant players reaction, after the given integrated information, let them create the BEST codified knowledge –each for him/her self

In such a situation, "pure personal strategies" should be the exemption in the bargain, as each of the "parts" –concluding the community, as the third "invisible part" in negotiations- should formulate the best knowledge, through the given integrated information(equal to bargaining power for each of them). But "integrated information" is given through "Sensitization" From this point of view, pure cooperation should be proved to be the result of the "competitive game", in its limit

Life, itself is a marvelous cooperation of about two million "competitive" micro-elements "chromosomes"

In that situation we have the "only ONE" equilibrium point, which is the "cooperation point", in a non-cooperative bargaining game

Proposals

1. A 3-person non cooperative bargaining game in its limit may be a form of COOPERATION among the involved parts, in its super-dynamic version, as integrated information let them create a 3-band codified knowledge, at the same time i.e

- What is best for me, in a specific moment
- What is the best for me in relation with the best for the others, at that moment
- What is the best for me, in relation with the best for the others, as well as, in relation with the best for the community, as an entity, at that moment.

2. If it should be acceptable , then : Each person should make the best choices –at any time- in relation with the other persons' best choices, from the one hand, and the "community" from the other hand, as the third, invisible part of the negotiations-" The win-win-win game"
3. Rural community is the "weak partner" in the bargaining game, in terms of the «collective choice» . In the opposite, rural community may be concerned as a good partner in producing and consummating products. This operation is necessary for the system's survival and its extension From this point of view, each "person"-included the Community - may be "a possible consumer" thus depended on choices = power in their own possession, in a "reaction system"
4. "Rural Community position", in the bargain must , then be strengthened and , also, encouraged by the people's "collective choice", at local level as the result of the Sensitization procedure (at local level)
5. "Sensitization" may be concerned as a form of "transferred knowledge" - a kind of information flow- let people transform their own "tacit knowledge" to "codified knowledge" thus to complete their "socialization" procedure, at local level, so each of them to incorporate (the mainstreaming Principle) that his "winning strategy" at any moment, passes through the "Community profit", in terms of environmental protection, social cohesion, community identity, cultural identity, mutual supporting, solidarity.
6. Thus, "Sensitization" –in the form of knowledge creation and knowledge transferred- may be proved to be a useful (rural and local) planning tool, as in most of rural areas, people are going to get an "urban behavior in a rural bias"(Papakonstantinidis, 2002).
7. That presupposes a mutual respect and recognition, among the members of the rural, community In that case, what is need is a "local people sensitization" in order to create a "team psychology", at local level, as well as an integrated local development plan, coming from the base (bottom-up approach)
8. The only one "solution" (the equilibrium point, as above mentioned) should be the "pure cooperation, among the parties, at local level" in order to create a strong bargaining "pole", as the result of an "instant reaction" due to given information (transferred knowledge).

9. From the other hand, an "a priori" cooperation, between the negotiators under a legal form, should be concerned a non realistic situation, under the "new economy conditions" A form of a non-cooperative operation, is a more realistic version, under the condition of a non-formal , innate agreement, at local level.

The limit of a non-cooperative bargaining game is a pure cooperation among all the involved parts.

- But local people have the common sense to understand –according to their information- that each of them, acting alone has a little power in planning and achieving successfully individual "winning strategies" in dealing with tour operators or clients in an open competitive market.
- If individuals, living in a rural community, have an **equal information**, then, it could be possible to understand that, trying to maximize their own profits, during a time period there is a unique moment in which, the "objective function" of each of these individuals, is going to be maximum, if and only if , they decide to transfer the bargaining problem, from a non-cooperative form, to another form, which is the absolute cooperation (in real terms)
- The "Sensitized Harmonic Integrated Endogenous Local Development-SHIELD" is a realistic rural development approach, combining **"direction"** (integrated local development) with **"communication"**(sensitized, harmonic, endogenous), according to the S.H.I.E.L.D Model (Papakonstantinidis, 1997)
- Rural Development is a much more complicated development procedure in the framework of the new economy system, as it is necessary to reverse the poor cycle economic situation, due to rural community's small sizes. "Production diversification" and "actively participation" by sensitized local people, is the paper proposal
- Bargaining problem is the main problem under the new economy conditions. Especially, this problem is impeded the rural development procedure, due to rural community's small sizes and, in its extension, to "little bargaining power" What is needed may be proved to be the "information flow" or ,"information diffusion", as information could be concerned as a "form of energy" equivalent to "power", which is useful in the bargaining "game".
- "Information" should be concerned as a complicated term which means, at the same time, "know-how" and "action", making the know-how valuable. In a non-cooperative world, under the new economy conditions, a full information version should be –according to the above analysis- a "3-person" (manifolds) thinking: "what is the best for me, for the others and for the community in a special moment, under special moment circumstances" The only ONE full

answer to that question, should be the integrated "3-person" information (Po = 1) at the same person.

- Rural development is fully depended on this information: Individuals in rural areas make their own pure strategies, based on a percentage of information, under the non-cooperative "Nash" conditions, with the result of fail and disappointment, as the rules of the new economy are very strict. Indeed, "who holds the information flow, has the power" In a competitive open market, who has the "power" is able to make the "winning strategies". So "power accumulation" leads to "winning strategies" in the bargaining, succeeding more and more "power". Rural community has the only possibility to succeed through local people cooperation "in the limit", in real terms (not in legal). That means "if someone could decide, in a moment, a personal pure strategy, only answering to the question "what is best for me", he should make, perhaps, a winning strategy, but only for one moment, as the next one, under circumstances, he could not make winning strategies, while cut the communication feed-back effect" Thus, Rural Development is based on rural community people, participating in a non-cooperative bargaining, through given information, at a special moment. If they had an integrated information, then it could be proved that the information sum, probably could lead them to the absolute cooperation, even if each of them had its own pure strategy (the non-cooperative game-Nash)
- Integrated Endogenous Local Development in Rural Areas must be based – according to our proposals- on Local People "Integrated Information", under its double mean ("tacit" and "codified" knowledge and action, motivating the knowledge, thus, leading to "socialization") It must have a "direction" (local population welfare) and "communication" (feed-back information)
- Integrated information must be given to local people living in rural areas, through the "sensitization" methodological procedure, at local level. "Sensitization" is the first and crucial "step" , towards integrated endogenous local development, based on local people's "innate inclinations" which lead to " given roles" in the community development procedure (active "members" of the community, or "active citizens" , instead of "individuals", lived in this rural community).
- Rural Community, as an entity -with the characteristic of "small economic sizes"- is experienced by "bargaining problems" in an open market. So, it is necessary for a Rural Community to formulate its "social capital at local level", through a cohesive bargaining policy, as the outcome of a "minimum convergence" of more than one individual pure strategies, in a non-cooperative world environment (Papakonstantinidis, 2000).

- Sensitization as a methodological tool, should be able to create a "team psychology" among local people, thus succeeding, a base of individuals pure strategies' convergence

Sensitized local people, having accepted and adopted a "3-person" integrated information, have, now, more possibilities to lead the rural development procedure to the only ONE winning "sustainable development" strategy, converging individual pure strategies of a non-cooperative "game" (bargaining), to a common development objective. Under the above conditions, convergence procedure of non-cooperative pure winning strategies has in its limit the "absolute cooperation".

Case study: Rural Tourism Women Cooperative –Gargaliani

Gargaliani is a small town (typical case of a Greek traditional place) in the South-West Peloponnesos, It is the "capital" of Trifilia District (Nomos Messinias) of about 5.500 (2001) habitants [5.953, 1971, 5.430, 1981]

It is located in a plain, near Marathos, a popular destination for both Greek and foreign tourists, but, until 2002 local people were employed , basically in the agricultural sector (oil olives, raisin, vegetables etc), fishing and tourism activities, during the summer, with a very low average annual income, between 1,500 and 1,800 euro

In November of 2002 the E.U Commission "Local Integrated Program" project organized a 3-months training course for local women related to the challenges and opportunities of rural tourism development

Fifty (50) women took part and this led to the formation of the "Gargaliani Women's Rural Tourism Cooperative, which started with 35 members. The aim of the cooperative was to support the local economy; to provide a supplementary income to women in the area; and to improve the social status and cultural level of women villagers

During the 3-months training course, the "tacit" knowledge was transferred by the EU experts, to these women, in the form of conceptual and then to "codified" knowledge, through the "collective choice game". Coming from different places (sea coast, plain, mountain places) the 50 women had different interests, as well as, different thoughts about the "form" and the kind of cooperative creation. During the course little by little, some kind of training women's coalitions, were being formed, as a "team psychology" between them, was being created . E.U experts encouraged them to develop their converging efforts in this "team", by sensitizing and involving them to the "community" procedure.

One and half month after starting the training course, women had already decided on what they had to do through the collective choice psychological approach:

To create a cooperative mainly engaged in the production of traditional sweets, food and drinks with traditional recipes and pure material to provide authentic and unique tastes.

The cooperative started in the very early of 2003, supported by the new mayor

Among the delicacies they produce, are sweets, "pate" jams and conserves made of seasonal fruit; pastries and other traditional food, cheese pies The cooperative also promotes traditional local customs through organizing weddings, christenings and other public celebrations, planned in a way that marks the area's cultural identity They provide catering services to conferences in and outside the area of municipality (with its local departments) Over the time, the women succeeded in building a team spirit encouraged by a small group of younger inhabitants, who acted as an "animator team" under the supervision of an outside expert (in particular, the author)

Through the game of "collective choice" they found their "flag theme" (Papakonstantinidis, 2002, p. 322-"the magic way" & 2003, p.359) namely, the home-made sweets to promote the local identity and "family games" in preparing meals and sweets which are offered during the first days of August as a cultural activity for tourists. Awareness of local problems needs and resources was raised among the local community. People got involved in the decision making process regarding future development of their area through a "business plan" composed in the context of the "Urban Development" E.U Program/Initiative, formed a Local Action Group and started to ask for financial resources.

Now the women cooperative has 35 women and the average annual income per family gas increased by 2.200 Euro Moreover, young people have begun to return to Gargaliani and the only primary school in the small town which was planned to close, due to lack of children has stayed open.

References

Arnstein G. (1991) "Public Participation" , The Edge Publishing, N.Y

Cinneide M.O' (1991) "Points on what Rural Areas are" Center for Development Studies, University College Galway (U.C.G) IRL

F.A.O (1990)"A Global Management Approach" F.A.O Report (Rome)

Filinis Kostas (1973) "Games Theory", KEIMENA Ed, Athens Gr

Fischer M.M (2002) "Learning in neural spatial interavtion models: A statistical perspective" Journal of Geographical Systems, issue 4 (3) p.p 30-38

Gannon Agnes (1990) "Rural Development-Strategic Objectives"F.A.O Ed, Vienna,

Guillaumaud J (1963)"Cybernetique et Materialism Dialectique", trnsl HRIDANOS Ed Athens Gr

Harms Hans (1997) "Citizen Participation-A Response to the Crisis of the Representative Democracy" International Sociological Association (I.S.A) –special issue, Toronto Canada.

Kokossis Ch. -Tsartas P. (2002) "Sustainable Rural Tourism" Papazissis Ed, Greece trnsl, p.p 322-325

Kuhn H.W and Nasar S.(2001) "The essential John Nash" Princeton University Press. Princeton

Nash John Forbs (1951)"Non Co-operative Game" [The prototype] Princeton University Ed, Princeton

Neuman and Morgenstern (1947) "Game Theory and Economic Behavior" Princeton University Press, Princeton

Papakonstantinidis L.A , (1996) "The Strategy of Development", MAREL-NIKAS Ed, Vol II, trnsl. Athens Gr.

Papakonstantinidis L.A(2002) "The Sensitized Community" Typothito- Dardanos Edition, trnsl Athens, Gr

Papakonstantinidis L.A (2003 March)"The Strategy of Economic and Regional Development" , Typothito-Dardanos Edition, trnsl, Athens Gr

Papakonstantinidis L.A (1997) The S.H.I.E.L.D Model, International Sociological Association (I.S.A) Special Issue (R.C 26) Toronto Canada

Schor Julliete(2000) "The Over-worked American" Le Monde Diplomatique (trnsl)

Swarbrooke J (1999) "Sustainable Tourism Development" GABBI Publishing Ed, London

Torreta Gullietta (1997) "Sociological Aspects in the Human Resources Management inside the Public Administration" International Sociological Asssociation (I.S.A) R.C 26 , special issue, Toronto Canada

Thirion Samuell: "Flag Theme and Local Development", LEADER Magazine, iss 8 Aug 2000 (p.p 31-34)

Wilkinson Kenneth(1991) "Social Stabilization: The Role of Rural Society"- International Center for Development Studies –U.C.G –IRL, special issue,

Yitzak Samuel (1997) "The Changing Realm of Organisations: New Challenges for Sociological Practice" International Sociological Association (I.S.A0 –R.C 26, special issue, Toronto Canada

About the Authors

Professor Dr. Leonidas A.Papakonstantinidis, Deputy Head-Department of Local Government, Technological Educational Institute, Antikalamos, 24.100 Kalamata, Greece. Lawyer, Economist, Mathematician, M.Sc Regional Development, M.Sc Rural Development, Ph.D Local Development, (41) monographies-(25) papers published, in the field of local development and rural tourism. Head of the "Local Development Office"- Agricultural Bank of Greece (1991-2001), Member of the Research and Planning Division A.B.G (1978-1990), General Reporter of the E.U C.E.E.P (Social Fund) "Regional Affairs Committee"(1990-1995), member of the E.U Commission task force for the L.E.A.D.E.R E.U Initiative- DG VI(AGRI) (1991-1992), member of the E.U Commission "Green Team" (DG X).

JOURNAL OF H&T www.johat.com

A Cross Cultural Study of Tourist Attributions: A Comparative Study of Australian and Indian Tourists

Mervyn S. Jackson
Department of Psychology and Disability Studies
RMIT University, Australia

Robert Inbakaran
School of Marketing, RMIT University
Australia

T. Srinivasan
Department of Psychology
Government Arts College (Autonomous)
Tamil Nadu-India

Abstract: Tourism is a global phenomenon. Around the world, the vast majority of nations are involved (to varying degrees) in providing resources for both in-bound international visitors and domestic tourist opportunities for their own citizens. However, researchers from Western Cultures have largely dominated understanding this phenomenon, generating knowledge and developing theories. Further, the dominant methodology used by these researchers has been the quantitative paradigm. As a consequence, tourism has been conceptualised as universal and has been defined from a (mainly) western perspective. Thus, cross-nation studies have mainly focused on replicating Western-conceptualised research (Berry, 1989) and have assumed tests developed and validated within one culture will have the same meaning to new participants in a second or different culture (Smith and Bond, 1993). However, a critical analysis of many cross-cultural studies indicates that the responses from the same measures / instruments across different cultures is rarely equivalent (Smith and Bond, 1993). Berry (1989) indicated that researchers should not make the assumption of equivalence, and that the first step in cross-cultural research should be to evaluate the generality of (Western conceptualized) theories and their associated tests / assessments. The research reported in this paper evaluates the applicability of the attribution theory to explain the social cognitions of tourists from Australia and India.

Keywords: Causal Attribution, cross culture, cultural influence, attribution bias, collectivism, individualism

Introduction:

Most social science research is completed in Western societies (North America, Western Europe and Australia), with most cross-cultural studies attempting to validate Western derived theories in non-Western cultures (Smith and Bond, 1993). Two biases limit such research: the strong "individualism" of Western social research (with the consistent failure to include socio-cultural contexts); and, a continued focus on describing and analysing the status quo (Misra, 1981;

Sinha, 1986). Such an orientation makes such research less plausible to non-Western groups which have a strong focus on "collectivism" and a research agenda for social action / change (Moghaddam, 1990). Indeed, as number of researchers (including Indian social scientists) indicate a growing trend toward indigenization of social research in India (Sinha, 1992) and that valid research concepts need not develop in isolation, but should be validated within the context of each culture (Sinha, 1989). This research has taken the Western-based concept of (tourist) attribution and developed a methodology that will attempt to validate the concept in one part of the Indian culture. This methodology includes the use of indigenous researchers to analyse and interpret the raw (outcome) data.

While many studies have found systematic cross-cultural differences when evaluating social science theories, there have been no conceptual cross-cultural studies in tourism, nor has there been comment / caution that Western research in the tourism area may not be applicable to all non-Western countries. The current study is based on research originating in Australia. Jackson, White and Schmierer (1993) used qualitative methodology to develop an understanding of the tourist experience from an Australian perspective and Jackson, White and Schmierer (1996) completed quantitative analysis of the same data to evaluate attribution theory and the implications associated with attribution bias in the tourism industry.

Heider's (1958) attribution theory was originally developed to explain how non-scientific or niave people explain everyday events and how these explanations (or attributions) influence their emotional reactions and future behaviors (Frieze, Bar-Tal and Carroll, 1979). In Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest and Rosenbaum (1972) the proposed formulations and assignment of attributions were conceptualised into four categories (ability, effort, task factors, and luck) across two dimensions (locus of control and degree of stability). Although the major goal is to render the world understandable, predictable and controllable, Western research has shown that some attributions made by niave (Western) persons are not accurate (Weary, Stanely and Harvey, 1979). For people from Western cultures, these attribution "errors" include overestimation of the importance of internal factors relative to external factors (Ross, 1977); individuals emphasizing internal attributions for their success and external attributions for their failures (Miller and Ross, 1975); and, individuals attributing external factors to their own negative experiences, but internal factors to other people with similar negative experiences (Jones & Nisbett, 1972). The only study to conceptualize tourist experiences within the framework of attribution theory has been Jackson et al (1996). They studied a large sample of Australian tourists and confirmed the fundamental attribution bias. That is, these Western tourists used internal (dispositional) attributions to explain positive tourist experiences and external situation attributes for their negative tourist experiences. Thus, Australian tourists are more likely to attribute the cause of positive experiences to themselves (self-

enhancement) and more likely to use external attributions to explain negative tourist experiences (a self-protective strategy). These external factors include: other tourists, host, and various parts of the tourist industry. This research will determine the similarities and differences in attributions between Australian and Indian tourists.

In terms of methodology, Weary et al (1989) indicated three major methods of assessing causal attributions: independent ratings, percentage of causality, and open-ended measures. While independent ratings are considered the most reliable and valid (Elig & Frieze, 1979), the method limits subjects to researcher-defined causal choices. Such a strategy forces subjects to make specific attributions when they, in fact, feel that the cause is unclear or ambiguous (Snyder & Wicklund, 1991). Open-ended responses, however, allow respondents the freedom to generate causes in their own words (high validity), but then make researchers responsible for developing highly reliable coding schemes (Jackson et al, 1996). Social science research reviewed by Smith and Bond (1993) indicated that in free response situations, Heider's four categories are readily identifiable (Kashima & Triandis, 1986; Munro, 1979; Boski, 1983; Fry & Ghosh, 1980). Smith and Bond (1993) concluded that there were no cross-cultural differences in the frequency with which ability, effort and luck constructs were used to explain performance, but they were clearly used in a different way. Fry and Ghosh (1980) found Canadian children demonstrated the usual pattern of self-serving bias (ability and effort for success; task difficulty and bad luck for failures) whereas same age children originating from India saw luck / fate as more important in success and lack of ability as more important in their attributions for failure. Finally, the use of indigenous researchers appears to be critical. Wetherall (1982) found cultural differences depending upon the cultural background of the social researcher. Western researchers are more likely to achieve cultural differences compared to research, which employs indigenous researchers. The current study will use indigenous researchers to explore the travel experiences and conceptions from tourists originating in India and Australia. The data will be collected using the qualitative paradigm and will be analysed using researchers from the cultures of the tourists.

India and Australia: Social political influences

Indian and Australian tourism policy has much in common. Both nations have long-established and fully developed tourist programmes (Richter & Richter, 1985). Both nations have central / federal as well as state level government tourist organisations. In India, the federal tourist authority concentrates on the promotion and facilities for foreign tourists, federal and state tourist organisations encourage domestic tourism, and the states also have programmes focusing on local recreation. In Australia, the three tiers of government are all involved in tourism but have overlapping roles. Both federal and state levels are involved in

encouraging international visitors and state and local authorities focus on domestic tourism and recreation. The national aim of domestic tourism in India involves important political and cultural goals, such as national integration and the creation of national pride (by encouraging visitation to ancient temples and shrines. Traditionally domestic tourism in India has developed along two lines: religious pilgrimages to numerous Hindu, Buddhist, Muslim and Sikh holy places; and, the retreat to the hills during the hot season. In Australia, the industrial labour history of compulsory annual leave (from work) with extra holiday pay has lead to a tradition of (summer) holidays for rest, recreation and entertainment. Government policies have built on this tradition and developed infrastructure that maintains a high rate of domestic tourism and attracts large numbers of international tourists. As government policy should be reflected in the lived experiences of their citizens, this study would predict Australian tourists should focus on rest, relaxation and entertainment, while tourists from India should have a religious, educational and nationalistic focus.

India and Australia: Cultural comparisons

Using Hofstede's (1980, 1991) classifications of 50 cultures, Australia and India markedly vary on two of the four culture value dimensions: Individualism - collectivism and power-distance. Australia ranks second highest (behind USA) on individualism. Such a second ranking indicates Australians value individual initiative and achievement and perceive an independent relationship between family / friends / society and themselves. In contrast, cultures that score low on individualism (and thus high on collectivism) perceive an interdependent relationship (with family / friends) role and value in-group harmony. As a cultural group, people from India score midway on the individual – collectivism dimension (Smith & Bond, 1993; Hofstede, 1981; 1990). Smith and Bond (1993) and Sinha (1992) provide differing explanations for this finding. Smith and Bond (1993) note that cultural measures are created using the average scores of a sample of the total population. Thus, cultures such as India, that are multi-ethnic, have 17 different official languages, have five different major religions and have marked urban versus rural differences, may have such heterogeneity on the dimension that the concept applied to this culture becomes meaningless. If this is so, then research should focus not on the broad Indian population, but specific ethnic groups (eg, Tamils) within India. Research within the India sub-continent has shown that people vary across ethnic groups, rural versus urban regions, upper versus lower castes, religious groups, and across historical / political time (Annat, 1977; Saraswathi & Dutta, 1990). On the other hand, Sinha (1992) indicated that people from India will behave collectively or individualistically depending upon context. Sinha (1992) reported that people from India are more tolerant of contradictions. Therefore, expression of cultural values representing points on the individualism – collectivism dimension will depend upon context and not on dispositional characteristics. Therefore, context free measures of cultural values

such as Hofstede's (1980) assessment may not be cultural relevant. To be culturally relevant, future research needs to be context dependent. In the current study, tourists are asked to describe their best and worst tourist experiences (and thus provide their own context). Any attributions (of causation) made under these circumstances should be culturally relevant. In terms of power-distance, Australians score relatively low and Indians score high. Hypothetically, this can be explained in terms of degree of social mobility in each culture. Australians typically perceive that they have high social mobility and believe that individual ability and effort (internal attributions) will allow them to achieve a higher social status. Further, Australians demonstrate minimal acceptance of the unequal distribution of power in their society (eg, socialise with bosses, etc). In contrast, Indian society is far more rigid with lower social and geographical mobility. Members of Indian society are born into a caste system that prescribes certain responsibilities and privileges (Silverberg, 1968; Smith & Bond, 1993). Indians accept this as natural, embrace the prescribed role, accept the unequal distribution of power within the caste system and believe that fate (as determined by family of birth) controls much of their lives (external attribution). Following on from this analysis, Australians should use more internal attributions when explaining their lives and people from India should use more external attributions when explaining life event outcomes. Miller (1984, 1987) confirmed this. Miller's research provided people from India with the opportunity to give free qualitative-type responses to real-life scenarios. The research found people from India make more contextualised attributions (emphasizing a person's role and responsibilities) compared to people from Western cultures that tend to focus on dispositional person factors (Miller, 1984; 1986; 1987; Miller, Bersoff, & Harwood, 1990; Miller & Bersoff, 1992).

To maximise the expression of cultural meaning, this research provides opportunities for respondents of both cultures to provide qualitative-based open-ended responses about their most positive and negative tourist experiences. This allows all three groups to respond within their own cultural perspective and allow both Western and non-Western indigenous researchers to conceptualise their attributions in terms of locus of control and stability. This methodology can be demonstrated to be superior when exploring attribution bias. When using research that is context-free, both Western respondents and people from India showed attribution bias (compared to success, respondents are more likely to use external attributions to explain failures) (Smith & Bond, 1993). However, when a specific task / situation was identified, this context allowed Indian respondents to attribute luck / fate (external attributions) to their successes and lack of ability (an internal attribution) as the most attributed factor in their failures (Fry & Ghosh, 1980). Therefore, attribution bias was not present in people from India in research that was contextualized (Shweder & Bourne, 1984; Smith & Bond, 1993). The research reported here will allow all respondents to make

attributions within a contextualized framework and will evaluate the presence of attribution bias.

The role of language in tourist conceptualisations

The relationship between language and culture has become a major issue since Sapir (1970) and Whorf (1956) addressed their hypothesis that language determines, or at least influences, the way people look at their world. Kashima and Kashima (1998) examined the relationship between culture and language by directly testing the correlation between global characteristics of cultures (see Hofstede's culture value dimensions) and rules of language use in these cultures. Hofstede (1980, 1991) identified four dimensions: individualism-collectivism, power-distance, uncertainty-avoidance, and, masculinity-femininity. These cultural dimensions provide an opportunity to test the relationship between cultural dimensions and language use, yet few studies have tried to do so. Semin and Rabini (1990) investigated the relationship between individualism-collectivism and verbal abuse. They hypothesised and found that verbal abuses in individualistic cultures were likely to be directed to the individual (eg, you are stupid), whereas insults in collective cultures were more likely to be directed at significant others (eg, I wish cancer on you and all your relatives). Kashima and Kashima (1998) focused on pronoun use and found that choice of which pronoun has immense implications for the relationship between speaker (self) and addressee (other person) because the choice defines the relationship. In English there is only one-second person pronoun (ie, "you") and thus the relationship between speaker and addressee remains unstated. However, in many European and Asian languages (including the Tamil language in India), there is more than one second person pronoun (for example, singular-intimate and plural-formal), which clearly indicates the social relationship between the speaker and the addressee. As predicted, pronoun use was correlated with two of Hofstede's cultural dimensions (individualism and uncertainty avoidance). This research will allow people from India to response either in English or their native language of Tamil. The indigenous researchers will make their judgement using the language used by the respondents. In this way, this research will also seek to determine the role of language in the way tourists perceive their experiences. Interestingly, no research has been reported comparing bilingual with monolingual people from the same ethnic group or their (possible) differing perceptions of tourism and tourist experiences.

Method

Australian sample

The data collected from the Australian sample has been reported on in two previous studies (see Jackson et al, 1993; Jackson et al, 1996). Using a limited snowball sampling technique, students from an Australian University collected

456 completed surveys. The survey form asked for basic demographic details (age, sex, occupation and travel experience) and provided respondents with the opportunity to complete up to a half page description of their most positive tourist experience and up to another half page on their most negative tourist experience. The only restriction was that respondents were to clearly indicate why this experience fitted their criteria. This critical incident methodology has been widely used in organisational research since being introduced by Flanagan (1954).

A quantitative data analysis applied the attribution dimensions (see Heider, 1958) to the data. First the researchers indicated whether the respondent attributed the experience to internal (person, dispositional) factors or to external (other person, situation / context) factors. Then the researcher indicated whether the causal attribution was stable (ability or task specific) or unstable (effort or luck). Inter-rater reliability for these tasks were .91 (for internal versus external) and .81 (for stable versus unstable).

Indian sample

The sample was drawn from Coimbatore and the third author collected the data. The survey form used to collect the data was the same form (used to collect the Australian data) with slight modifications (eg, an urban / rural demographic was added). Respondents were given the opportunity to complete the survey either in English or Tamil (the indigenous language in the region). The English – written responses were treated as a separate group in the data analysis. A summary of the demographics for all three nominal "groups" is provided in table 1. The same two forms of data analysis (qualitative and quantitative) were completed (by the first two authors). All inter-rater reliability checks were completed on the data from the English – speaking Tamil Indian group

Table 1. Demographics of the comparative samples

Factor	Australians	English-speaking Tamil Indians	Tamil-speaking Tamil Indians
Sample size	456	358	223
Male: Female ratio	38: 62	59: 41	52: 48
Mean age (years)	32.6	24.7	23.6
Age (standard deviation)	9.39	8.27	7.13
Age (range)	18 - 72	18 - 57	18 - 71
Urban: rural ratio	100: 00	79: 21	70: 30
Travel experience			
Interstate			
No (% of total)	2	11	52
Yes (% of total)	98	89	48
For yes, mean states visited	2.52	1.74	1.40
Travel experience			
Overseas			
No (% of total)	27	90	98
Yes (% of total)	73	10	2
For yes, mean continents visited	1.69	1.49	1.00
Occupation			
Prof: non-prof: non-employed	59.6: 36.5: 3.9	73.7: 10.9: 15.3	71.7: 17.5: 10.8

The researchers on both Indian samples completed a quantitative data analysis. Positive and negative summary stories were first coded on the locus of control attribution dimension (ie, internal versus external) and then on the stability dimension (ie, stable versus unstable). Inter-rater reliability measures were moderate to high (r = 0.82)

A visual analysis of table 1 indicates some potential threats to the validity of the study (Mason & Bramble, 1978). The Australian sample has a greater proportion of female tourists; the sample is on average, approximately eight years older and is drawn exclusively from an urban environment. The Australian sample has traveled much more extensively. The overwhelming majority (98%) have travelled interstate, have traveled much more frequently, three quarters of the sample have traveled overseas and made significantly more trips. While the two samples from within India have similar male: female ratios and are of similar age, the sample of English-speaking Tamil Indians are more urbanised, are more likely to have traveled interstate, traveled to more states and have traveled overseas more often to more destinations. Such sampling differences may confound the results of this research.

Results

Attributions associated with positive tourist experiences

The most positive tourist experiences for Australian tourists, English-speaking Tamil Indians and Tamil-speaking Indians are tabulated within the attributional framework (see table 2). An overall statistical analysis was carried out to determine if there were statistical differences in the collected data and to set the alpha level for all subsequent comparisons (Reynolds, 1977). An overall factor analysis using a Chi-square test for association indicated a significant difference between observed and expected frequencies ($?^2 = 44.9$, df = 6, $p < 0.05$). Specific tests to determine where these significant departures were located were completed with all alpha levels set at $p < 0.05$ (Reynolds, 1977). A summary of planned comparisons for positive tourist experiences (see table 3) illustrates there are significant differences between Australian tourists' positive attributions and the attributions of both groups of tourists from India. There were no significant differences between the two groups from India.

Table 2. Percentage responses of attributions for positive tourist experiences

	Australian	English-speaking Tamil Indians	Tamil-speaking Tamil Indians
	N = 456	N = 358	N = 223
Ability	21	24	25
Effort	31	14	8
Total internal attributions	52	38	33
Task ease	42	26	27
Luck / fate	6	36	40
Total external attributions	48	62	67

Table 3. Planned comparison for positive tourist experiences

Comparison	Chi statistic	Explanation
Australian tourists versus English-speaking Tamil Indians	$\square^2 = 55.8$, df = 1, $p < 0.05$	Australian tourists attributed positive outcomes to effort and task ease, while English-speaking Tamil Indians focused more on good luck / fate
Australian tourists versus Tamil-speaking Indians	$\square^2 = 103.9$, df = 1, $p < 0.05$	Australian tourists attributed positive outcomes to effort and task ease, while Tamil - speaking Indians focused more on good luck / fate
English-speaking Tamil Indians versus Tamil-speaking Indians	$\square^2 = 4.9$, df = 1, not significant	There was no significant difference between these two groups

Attributions associated with negative tourist experiences

The major cultural difference was that Australian tourists were more likely to use internal attributions (more specifically – own effort). For external attributions, Australian tourists were less likely to focus on luck / fate compared to tourists from India. The most significant cross-cultural finding was on the locus of control dimension. Fifty-two percent of Australian tourists used internal attributions to explain positive outcomes, significantly higher than both English-speaking Tamil Indians (38%) and Tamil-speaking Indians (33%).

Attributions associated with negative tourist experiences

Table 4 summarises the attributions associated with the negative tourist experiences of Australian, English-speaking Tamil Indians and Tamil-speaking Indians tourists. An overall statistical analysis ($?^2 = 12.9$, df = 6, $p < 0.05$) indicated there were statistically significantly differences between the three groups of tourists. A summary table of planned comparisons (see table 5) illustrates small, but significant differences between all three-tourist groups. Australian and English-speaking tourists are more likely to focus on task difficulty (attribute cause to others) compared to Tamil-speaking Indian tourists who focused more on bad luck / fate (external, unstable factors). More Australian and Tamil-speaking Indian tourists attributed negative outcomes to lack of effort compared to Indian tourists with an English-speaking background.

Table 4. Percentage responses of attributions for negative tourist experiences

	Australian	English-speaking Tamil Indians	Tamil-speaking Tamil Indians
	N = 434	N = 348	N = 205
Lack of ability	8	9	13
Lack of effort	4	1	8
Total internal attributions	12	10	21
Task difficulty	43	39	23
Bad luck / fate	45	51	56
Total external attributions	88	90	79

Table 5. Planned comparison for negative tourist experiences

Comparison	Chi statistic	Explanation
Australian tourists versus English-speaking Tamil Indians	□² = 10.2, df = 1, p < 0.05	Australian tourists are more likely to attribute negative outcomes to lack of effort
Australian tourists versus Tamil-speaking Indians	□² = 23.1, df = 1, p < 0.05	Australian tourists are more likely to attribute negative outcome to task difficulty whereas the Tamil-speaking Indian tourists are more likely to focus on bad luck / fate
English-speaking Tamil Indians versus Tamil-speaking Indians	□² = 18.7, df = 1, p < 0.05	English-speaking Tamil Indians are less likely to focus on effort and more likely to focus on task difficulty compared to Tamil-speaking Indian tourists

Attribution bias

A Chi square goodness of fit was calculated to determine the self-serving attribution bias. Australian tourists showed a statistically significant self-serving bias ($?^2 = 234$, df = 1, $p < 0.05$) with 52% of tourists using internal attributions to explain positive tourist experiences but 88% of tourists using external attributions (mainly task difficulty) to explain negative tourist outcomes. Statistically, 40% of Australian tourists demonstrated attribution bias. Both groups of Indian tourists also showed a self-serving attribution bias, but the size of the effect was much less. For both groups of Indian tourists, the attribution for both positive and negative tourist experiences was luck / fate. English-speaking Tamil Indians showed an attribution bias ($?^2 = 34.2$, df = 1, $p < 0.05$) with a statistical shift of 28%. Tamil-speaking Indian tourists demonstrated the self-serving attribution bias ($?^2 = 12.7$, df = 1, $p < 0.05$) with a statistical shift of 12%.

Discussion

Methodological issues

The first conclusion from this research is that imposing Western-based theories and their findings onto different cultures is not necessarily viable and that the first stage in such inter-cultural research should be an evaluation of the generality of such theories. The statistically significant differences in social attributions from one culture to another indicate that attribution theory has limited generality. Further, the research should follow the methodology used as a model to evaluate all Western theories across diverse cultures (see Jackson & Niblo, 2003).

The use of open-ended responses has allowed tourist-respondents in each country the freedom to express their conceptions of tourism and the causation of tourist-related outcomes in their own words (high validity). The current researchers required minimum training to achieve moderate to high inter-rater reliability and found that Heider's four attribution categories were readily identifiable. It is strongly recommended that this methodology be adopted in future cross-cultural studies regarding the "tourist experience". The major limitation (and thus major revisions) of the research methodology of the current study was sampling. While sampling issues were not adequately addressed in the planning stages of this research, future cross-cultural tourism research needs to consider possible (culture-bound) issues such as: age; gender; socio-economic class; religion; urban/rural living and language. The use of either a random (or representative) sampling technique or a non-random (matching) sampling technique needs to be considered. Another post-hoc strategy would be to use a within (culture) statistical analysis to determine which factors (eg, age, gender, class, religion, urbanity, language) interacted with culture to significantly influence the findings. The current methodology allowed indigenous researchers to explore the fundamental connections between culture and the tourist experience. It also supplied the "rich" database upon which the quantitative analysis was completed. The indigenous researchers could readily classify open-ended responses within the attribution framework.

Cultural influences on Australian and Indian tourists

Australian tourists show a self-enhancing attribution bias whereby they are more likely to attribute successful tourist experiences to internal factors (mainly their own activity / effort), but blame others (including the tourist industry) for their worst tourist experience. The ultimate consequences regarding this bias is that tourists will credit their own ability and effort and ignore the hard work of the tourism industry and host community in providing quality tourist experiences. However, when some aspect of the trip goes wrong, the Australian tourist will not attribute any blame on themselves, but focus on the tourism industry and others (either hosts or other tourists). This bias (or error) is best illustrated by exploring the major (stated) causes of their worst tourist experiences. Australian

tourists minimized their own role in experiences such as health (and their role in avoiding common illnesses such as traveler's diarrhea); crime (and their role in safety); poor weather (and their role in camping / hiking in winter-time); cultural misunderstanding (and their role in learning basic language phrases and customs before traveling); and, travel disruptions (and their role in preplanning and booking). This attribution bias will prevent behaviour change in Australian tourists. That is, the use of external attributions (blame others) for their negative tourist experiences will mean that when confronted with similar future experiences, these tourists will continue to expect the tourist industry, hosts, or whomever else they deem responsible, to change their actions. For example, if they become a victim of crime, in the future they will not be more careful (prevent crime) but will expect more vigilance by the host community's police force.

From the Indian tourists' perspective, the majority of causal explanations for both positive and negative tourist experiences were external factors. The major causal attribution provided by both groups of Indian tourists focused on luck or fate. The frequent use of fate / luck for both positive and negative tourist experiences distances the Indian tourist from radical changes of any (tourist) behaviour. The role of religion and the associated beliefs strongly influences the Indian tourist's interpretation of tourist events. However, the relative / cultural meaning of these two terms need to be investigated. While both indigenous researchers allocated responses into the category (external, unstable), was the meaning of the attribution the same for both cultures? The Australian tourist seem to use the term "luck" as indicating an uncontrollable (thus totally external), random (thus totally unstable) event. The Indian tourists used the term "fate" as indicating lack of personal control (part external) but an event that is planned at a higher level (non-random) and that is part of a person (part internal). Thus, while the external, unstable category best fits both concepts from an attribution viewpoint, the terms are not synonymous. Much more (cross-cultural) research is required to understand the full meaning of tourist events that are external and unstable. Thus, another limitation of this research study would seem to be the equivalence of some attribution concepts.

Differences between English-speaking Tamil Indians and Tamil-speaking Indians

There are several possible explanations for the finding that English-speaking Tamil Indians differed significantly from Tamil-speaking Indians in terms of attribution explanations of positive and negative outcomes of tourist experiences. The possible explanatory factors include language and socio-economic explanations.

Language factors

The first possible explanation focuses on the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis that language influences cognitions which in turn influences tourist behaviours. Kashima and Kashima (1999) studied the relationship between language and culture-value dimensions and found different language characteristics (especially the type and use of pronouns) are related to the cultural dimension of individualism. More specifically, the English language with no pronoun drop (focus on the person) and only one-second-person pronoun (ignoring the relationship between people) is associated with individualistic cultures. In contrast, the Tamil language has multiple second person pronouns which forces the speaker and listener to focus on the relationships between people (a sign of collectivism) (Kashima & Kashima, 1999). This finding creates two possible explanations for the findings of this research.

The reported differences in the tourist experiences may be due to speaking / writing of their tourist experiences in English or it may be due to being educated and thinking within the framework of the English language. These competing explanations could be easily evaluated by requesting the bilingual English-speaking Tamil Indians to recount their stories in both languages. If the differences in conceptualization and attributions disappear, then, the structure of the language is influencing the results, not the manner in which this sub-group of Tamil Indians are conceptualizing the world. If the differences do not disappear, then language is influencing conceptualization.

This may arise directly from the structure and functional consequences of the language or indirectly because of different opportunities / experiences arising from speaking a second language. The direct mechanism may arise because English-speaking Tamil Indians are constantly exposed to Western ways of thinking and receive information directly from the highly individualistic source. Thus, tourism concepts for English-speaking Tamil Indians have developed within a Western context through the availability of the written and spoken English language. Tamil-speaking Indians are primarily exposed to traditional Eastern (collective) concepts associated with tourism. Tamil-speaking Indians are exposed to only a few Western ideas regarding tourism and only those ideas that have been translated and conceptualized within a collectivist linguistic framework. Thus, if language influences the way people think, English-speaking Tamil Indians will have a more Western (individualistic) perspective of life compared to Tamil-speaking Indians whose thinking remains more traditional (Eastern) and collective. The attribution results indicate that on average, English-speaking Tamil Indians are partway between the extremes of Western (Australian) cognitions and the Eastern (Traditional Tamil-speaking Indians). Thus, the two ethnic groups within India have different conceptions of tourism and tourist behaviours because of the differential exposure to Western ideas.

Socio-economic explanations

Indirect ways in which language may influence the attributions associated with tourist behaviour include socio-economic level and family traditions. These cultural differences may arise from the advantages of learning to read and write the English language. Knowledge of the English language is considered advantageous socially and leads to greater opportunities for work and thus achieve better socio-economic living conditions. This socio-economic factor may explain the differences or may lead to more complex explanations. Not all Tamil Indians speak English. Speaking English is associated with higher socio-economic status, urban living, modern "Western" life-style, more travel and more travel not involving some form of pilgrimage. There may be a difference in those who choose (or who are given an opportunity) to speak English. Given that learning a second language requires effort, and that this individual effort is rewarded, English-speaking Tamils may be more likely to attribute all successes to an increase in personal effort (an internal attribution). Further, learning English gives these Tamil Indians the lived experience of social mobility due to their effort (with the possibility of causing a shift toward internal focused attributions). Further research needs to be undertaken to determine if the rewarded effort and its signs of success (eg, social mobility) influence the type of attributions made in life and in tourism settings within the Indian sub-continent.

The second implication for learning the English language and having better economic living conditions is the increased opportunity to travel and work interstate and overseas (see table 1). Such exposure creates greater variation in travel experiences and would certainly alter the fundamental concepts these people hold about tourism. For example, English-speaking Tamil Indians are more likely to embrace the Western style nuclear family (which focuses on individualism) whereas the Tamil-speaking Indians continue to embrace the extended family that emphasizes collectivism and mutuality. The third implication is this economic advantage that allows travel / education overseas, also provides a world-view. For less affluent Indians, meeting and talking with foreign travelers allows them the only opportunity to gain such a view.

Economic status is also reflected in differences in the most negative tourist experiences. Tamil-speaking Indians are more likely to mention unmet expectations thanks to their real world conditions. Their relatively poor economic status typically limits them to one major tourist experience (in their lifetime) and causes them to mix piety (religious pilgrimage) with pleasure. The economics of travel causes them to have unrealistically high expectations on what they can do and see at so little cost in such a short period of time. However, while they will allude to their disappointments, they will not generally highlight them and will not blame others for their misfortunes (minimal external, stable attributions). By blaming themselves (internal attributions) or attributing the outcome to fate (external, unstable attributions), they develop a sense of forebearance, feeling

that servicing others may bring them better life conditions in their next birth. This is represented by a decrease in task difficulty and an increase in ability and luck/fate attributions for their negative tourist experiences. On the other hand, English-speaking Tamil Indians have more resources, organize more travel opportunities and find it more exasperating when confronted with mediocre tourist facilities and more management. Hence, a shift in attribution to external stable factors including inadequate transportation, travel delays, too expensive and poor facilities). Thus, these tourists are more likely to be critical of the tourist industry.

Implications

There are some valuable lessons to be learnt from this study for the benefit of the tourism industry researchers who would like to fathom the impact of the cultural upbringing on tourist attitudes and preferences to set of tourist experiences (products). As mentioned earlier under the sub-heading of cultural influences on Australian and Indian tourists, the researchers have unmistakably found basic social attributional differences between the culturally heterogeneous groups of tourists. Hence, one can be confident about the tourists' expectations whenever or wherever tourists belonging to these cultural groups visit destinations of their choice. As we have seen, there are cultural groups with very strong external social attributions who could normally be fastidious and expect the host or the industry operator to be exceptionally punctual and serve with quality and care. On the contrary, tourists from collective cultures with very little western or foreign language exposure and training would be more adjustable even in severest of the negative travel experiences. This does not mean they are a push over and they will accept any sort of poor service or product experience. The researchers did not attempt to research their tourism product or service preferences nor even their tourist expectations. Had this been included, with some confidence, the researchers could come out with plausible statements with regard to these tourists' inherent qualities. The maximum one could infer from the low outward social attribution i.e. not blaming any one for a bad experience is this particular group may need more guidance from the tour operators while on tour especially when they travel overseas destinations. These tourists need adequate protection and care more than quality tourism service or products.

Tour operators from westernized destinations, who would like to penetrate and promote their tourism products in collective cultural markets, need to pay attention to this particular characteristic. In the same token, tour operators who promote their collective cultural destinations to the individualistic tourist markets need to pay more attention to the quality of the tourism product and services they offer to their clientele rather than any other aspect of international tourism. Failing to do this may result in losing the profitable international tourism market altogether. There is so much for the Australian tour operators and tourism promoting public agencies to learn from this sort of investigation when Australia

is aggressively marketing its tourism destinations and products to various Asian and Indian subcontinent countries. Despite being a transformed multicultural nation on account of economic and industrial compulsions, Australia and for that matter any other industrialized western country needs to focus more on the collective cultural nature of their tourism export markets. Promoting tourism products and experiences is totally different from promoting educational opportunities to these countries as there is a strong compulsion to educate one self in these collective societies. However, influencing tourists with very low external social attributions is yet another matter altogether as there is no readymade compulsion to travel in the first place even if there is a financial capability. Most of the collective cultural destinations by themselves are exotic international tourist destinations bestowed with exotic flora, fauna, historic and cultural attractions as such these potential tourists could be satisfied with domestic tourism experience unless otherwise they are assured of attention and care in unknown overseas destinations.

Very little attention is paid to these sort of issues in many Australian tourism promotional campaigns and overseas endeavors although few instructional videos were made while developing and nurturing the Japanese market. However, a keen and experienced market researcher would easily pick up the major differences that exist between the collective cultures of the world today and hence; a stereotyped tourism marketing style may not be applicable to every single destination though they may be straight jacketed as collective societies.

Limitations

As mentioned earlier under the sub-heading of 'methodological issues, the researchers are aware of the shortcomings of the generalized sample adopted for this research endeavor. Had a very stringent stratified sampling frame been adopted with due importance given to variables such as age, gender, lifestyle, literacy level, occupation etc, the results could have been a bit different from what they are now. As admitted earlier, the methodology has only allowed the researchers to explore the connections between culture and the tourist experience. Perhaps, for a future study a well-stratified unaligned sampling could be better option and thereby more tangible comparisons may be made and stronger inferences could be made for tourism marketing research. As many developing countries of today are predominantly collective social cultures despite being industrially advanced for over a half a century and slowly adopting to nucleated family lifestyles, hence, a stratified sample on the basis of the above mentioned demographic and social variables might yield an interesting research results that would be advantageous to many overseas tourism promotional agencies located in postmodern industrial societies.

Further, although the researchers could not conclusively discriminate the quality of the external social attribution between the Tamil Indian tourists and the English

knowing Tamil Indian tourists, there were certain distinct traits were identified. A well-stratified purposive sample would certainly have thrown more light to this aspect. The researchers are able to fathom the importance of knowing a foreign language and the resultant tourist experience among the Indian tourists and this is yet another aspect the Australian tourism marketers need to focus on. It has been observed the English speaking Tamil Indians are part-away between the extremes of Western (Australian) cognitions and the Eastern (Traditional Tamil speaking Indians) as such a singular market strategy to popularize Australian destinations among the homogenous (same linguistic identity) may not have much impact. The researchers are aware that multicultural societies such as India, a multi –ethnic sample would be more advantageous than a one that adopted in this research. However, the intention was only to understand the broad basic tourist attributions that exist between collective and individualistic groups of cultures. Perhaps, a deeper study based on multicultural aspects of the modern collective and individual tourist backgrounds would be more beneficial in developing micro tourism marketing strategies.

Conclusion

This study has fundamentally attempted to explore the hypothesis of Sapir-Whorf and highlight the influence of language in cognitions and tourist behaviours on one side and fathom the external and internal social attributions of tourists who hail from opposite cultural groups on the other. Interestingly, this study has raised opportunities to study and explore cross-cultural tourism experiences and given confidence to stress for more micro strategies while developing tourism destination marketing strategies and develop tourism products that should be appeal to exotic but culturally heterogeneous markets. This study has also identified the possible gaps that presently exist in tourist marketing as well as psychology of tourism literature.

References

Anant, S. (1977) The changing intercaste attitudes in India: A follow-up after four years. European Journal of Social Psychology 5: 49 – 59.

Berry, J. (1989) Imposed *ETICs – EMICs* – derived *ETICs*: The operationalization of a compelling idea. International Journal of Psychology 24: 721 – 35.

Elig, T., & Frieze, I. (1979). Measuring causal attributions for success and failure. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37, 621 - 634.

Flanagan, J. (1954) The critical incident technique. Psychological Bulletin 51: 327 – 358.

Frieze, I., Bar-Tal, D., & Carroll, J. (1979). New approaches to social problems. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Heider, F. (1958). The psychology of interpersonal relations. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Hofstede, G. (1980) Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Hofstede, G. (1991) Culture and organizations: Software of the mind. London: McGraw-Hill.

Jackson, M., and Niblo, D. (2003). The role of qualitative methodology in cross-cultural research. Qualitative Research Journal, 3, 18 – 28.

Jackson, M., White, G., and Schmierer, C. (1993) The return from Xanadu: A qualitative analysis of tourist experiences generated from a large Melbourne sample. In A. Veal and B. Weiler (Eds.). First steps: Leisure and tourism research in Australia and New Zealand. Anzals Leisure Research Series 1: 81 – 93.

Jackson, M., White, G., & Schmierer, C. (1996) Tourism experiences within an attributional framework. Annals of Tourism Research. 23, 798 - 810.

Jones, E., & Nisbett, R (1972). The actor and the observer: Divergent perceptions of the causes of behaviour. In E Jones, D. Kanouse, H. Kelley, R. Nisbett, S. Vallins, & B. Weiner (Eds). Attribution: Perceiving the causes of behavior. Morristown, NJ: General Learning.

Kashima, E., and Kashima, Y. (1998) Culture and language: The case of cultural dimensions and personal pronoun use. Journal of Cross Cultural Psychology 29: 461 – 486.

Mason, E., and Bramble, W. (1978) Understanding and conducting research: Applications in education and behavioral sciences. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Miller, D., & Ross, M. (1975). Self-serving biases in the attribution of causality: Fact or fiction? Psychological Bulletin. 82. 213 - 225.

Miller, J., & Bersoff, D. (1992) Culture and moral judgement: How are conflicts between justice and friendship resolved? Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 62, 541 – 554.

Miller, J., Bersoff, D., & Harwood, R. (1990). Perceptions of social responsibility in India and the United States: Moral imperatives or personal decisions? Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 58, 33 – 47.

Misra, S. (1991) Excursion from the pure to the applied in experimental social psychology. In J. Pandey (Ed.). Perspectives in experimental social psychology in India. New Delhi: Concept.

Moghaddam, F. (1998) Social psychology: Exploring universals across cultures. New York: Freeman.

Pike, K. (1967) Language in relation to a unified theory of the structure of human behaviour. The Hague: Mouton.

Reynolds, H. (1977). Analysis of nominal data. Beverly Hills, Ca.: Sage.

Richter, L., and Richter, W. (1985) Policy choices in South Asian tourist development. Annals of Tourism Research 12: 201 – 217.

Ross, L. (1977). The intuitive psychologist and his shortcomings: Distortions in the attribution process. In L Berkowitz (Ed.). Advances in experimental social psychology. (Vol. 10). New York: Academic Press.

Sapir, E. (1970) Language: In D. Mandelbaum (Ed.). Culture, language and personality: Selected essays. (pp. 1 – 44). Berkeley: University of California Press.

Saraswathi, T., and Dutta, R. (1990) Poverty and human development: Socialization of girls among urban and rural poor. In G. Misra (Ed.). Applied social psychology in India. (pp. 141 – 169). New Delhi: Sage.

Semin, G., and Rabini, M. (1990) Unfolding the concept of person by verbal abuse. European Journal of Social Psychology 20: 463 – 474.

Shweder, R., & Bourne, E. (1984). Does the concept of person vary cross-culturally? In R Shweder and R. LeVine (Eds.). Culture theory: Essays on mind, self and emotion. Cambridge: Cambridge University. (pp. 158 – 199).

Silverberg, J. (1968) (Ed.). Social mobility in the caste system in India. The Hague: Mouton.

Sinha, D. (1986) Psychology in a third world country: The Indian experience. New Delhi: Sage.

Sinha, D. (1989) Cross-cultural psychology and the process of indigenisation: A second view from the third world. In D. Keats, D. Munro, and L. Mann (Eds.). Heterogeneity in cross cultural psychology. Amsterdam: Swets and Zeitlinger.

Sinha, D. (1992) Appropriate indigenous psychology: The Indian trend. In S. Iwawaki, Y. Kashima, and K. Leung (Eds.). Innovations in cross cultural psychology. Amsterdam: Swets and Zeitlinger.

Smith, P., and Bond, M. (1993) Social psychology across cultures: Analysis and perspectives. Sydney: Harvester Wheatsheaf

Snyder, M., & Wicklund, R. (1981). Attribute ambiguity. In J. Harvey, W. Ickes, & R. Kidd (Eds.). New directions of attribution research (Vol. 3). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Erlbaum Publishers.

Weary, G., Stanley, M., & Harvey, J. (1989). Attribution. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Weiner, B., Frieze, I., Kukla, A., Reed, l., Rest, S., & Rosenbaum, R. (1972).Perceiving the causes of success and failure. In E Jones, D. Kanouse, H. Kelley, R. Nisbett, S. Vallins, & B. Weiner (Eds). Attribution: Perceiving the causes of behavior. Morristown, NJ: General Learning.

Wetherall, M. (1992) Cross-cultural studies of minimal groups: Implications for the social identity theory of intergroup relations. In H. Tajfel (Ed.). Social identity and intergroup relations. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Whorf, B. (1956) Language, thought and reality. Cambridge: MIT Press.

About the Authors

Mervyn Jackson is a registered psychologist and holds a senior lecturer position at RMIT University in Melbourne, Australia. His main research interests include applying psychological principles to tourism. Previous research has involved attribution theory and tourism, health problems associated with travel, the problem of tourist crime victimization and the impact of tourism on host communities.

R.J. Inbakaran is a lecturer in the School of Marketing, Faculty of Business at Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (RMIT University), Melbourne, Australia. He has been in the tertiary education for the past three decades teaching disciplines such as geography, planning, land management and tourism to undergraduate and postgraduate students in India and Australia. He is interested in researching aspects of regional and urban tourism with a focus on tourism and community development; cross cultural differences and authenticity of tourism experiences; application of socio-geographic principles to study tourism resource management and development; researching service attributes in hospitality and their impact on return patronage; and, analysing the impact of Information Technology in small and intermediate travel industries.

Dr. T. Srinivasan, Reader in psychology, Government Arts College, Coimbatore has been researching the attribution theory since the late seventies and has written a doctoral dissertation on it. He has been a psychology lecturer since 1975 and has been teaching and supervising the undergraduate and postgraduate students in psychology and business management. His research interest lies in applied psychology and cross-cultural psychology.

JOURNAL OF H&T www.johat.com

Tourists' Beliefs About Destination Sustainability

James J. Murdy
Tagliatela School of Hospitality and Tourism
University of New Haven, USA

Dong-Woo Ko
Faculty of Daegu Univesity, S. Korea

Abstract: As the tourism industry expands, more destinations are developed to meet the increased demand. The literature suggests that successful tourism areas will be developed following a model that ensures the long-term viability of all destination resources. However, the extant literature has largely ignored tourists' beliefs concerning the sustainability of destination resources, including natural, man-made, and cultural assets. The purpose of the research was to study tourists' beliefs concerning the natural environment, the artificial physical (man made) environment, the host culture, the historical attributes, and the economic environment at a tourist destination. By using focus groups and the Critical Incident Technique, the beliefs underlying tourists' behaviors are explored and presented. The study provides a methodology that may serve as a template future research. Further, our findings indicate that tourist beliefs may be articulated into a two dimensional temporal framework that classify tourism impacts into six distinct categories reflective of the tourist's beliefs.

Keywords: sustainability, tourist, beliefs, behaviors

Introduction

The environmental issues concerning tourism destinations have been discussed mostly through the concepts and definitions of sustainable tourism or sustainable development. Often included in this debate is the concept of ecotourism (Khamouna 1998). Two key concepts to defining all of these terms are environmentally and socially responsible tourism. Ecotourism, sustainable tourism, and sustainable development include concern not only for the natural environment but also concern for the local populations inhabiting the area. The studies that focused on the environmental impacts of tourism development, however, have been conducted without concern for the tourist's environmental behaviors. However, with the assumption that the tourist (consumer) may take on a significant role at the environmental level and influence tourism management and development strategies, it becomes necessary to analyze and understand the behaviors or perspectives of tourists toward the environmental changes at destinations. Studies into these issues may provide a new perspective for environmental conservation as well as research directions for sustainable tourism.

Because a specific behavior is determined directly from values, beliefs, or attitudes, tourists' environmental behaviors may be predicted by some beliefs or general attitudes that the tourist has concerning the environmental attributes of

destination. However few studies address tourists' environment attitudes or beliefs. Therefore, these characteristics of vacationers need to be explored in order to diagnose the demand for environmental development or the occurrence of environmental behaviors. For this purpose, this study was designed to analyze the contents of the tourist's environmental beliefs or attitudes using qualitative research methodologies.

Impacts of Tourism and Tourism Development

While tourism might not significantly harm the natural environment beyond its carrying capacity, it might cause a change in the culture of the people living at or near the destination. The change in the host culture may cause the destination's appeal to tourists to decline, possibly to the point of destroying or severely damaging the environment or cultural heritage they came to explore (Gamper 1981; Keating 1992; MacCannell 1973; MacNaught 1982; Sheldon & Var 1984). The environmental issues of tourism impacts or sustainable tourism have been studied in two major categories. One is whether it is possible to develop the destination in state of preservation, thereby ensuring the long-term viability all physical and social environmental attributes from the supplier's perspective. The other is how tourism impacts or tourism developments are perceived by the host population. In both cases, the views and concerns of the tourists are neglected.

First of all, the environmental issues from the developer's perspective are considered. In defining sustainability, the World Commission on the Environment and Development (in Khamouna 1998) identified two components to their definition. Development that is sustainable meets the demands of the current generation without harming the ability of successive generations to meet their demands. Missing from this definition is any reference to the type of demands made. This lack of specificity makes the definition suitably universal, allowing for the inclusion of both natural and cultural resource protection. Carter (1993) extended the definition to sustainable tourism development by including the needs of the tourists and the need to protect the natural environment in order to meet the needs of current and future generations of indigenous populations and tourists. The underlying concept in Carter's definition is economic development, and his definition is useful for the less developed, Third World countries that attempt to increase foreign exchange through the export of tourism. Inskeep (1991) also expressed similar concerns for the people and culture of tourist areas, stating that these resources, along with the natural environment, are necessary for the development of tourism. The management of destinations in ways that promote the viability of human, cultural, and natural resources is also necessary to successful tourism development.

Hunter (1997) found the gap between the traditionally "exploitative," economically beneficial development, and the "extreme preservationist," socially

and environmentally beneficial development of tourism problematic to the concept of short and long term sustainability. Each of these polar visions precluded the other, allowing for a dichotomous but lacking perspective toward an acceptable definition of sustainable tourism development. The middle ground of this debate centers on the interchangeability of natural and man-made resources. One faction argues that the natural assets must be kept at a predetermined level or increased, while the other contends that there is an acceptable degree of substitution between natural and man-made resources.

On the other hand, for several years, scholars have debated the benefits of tourism. Forster (1964), Butler (1974), and Jafari (1974) identified several impacts of tourism, including economic effects, changes in the standard of living, commercialization of destination attributes, changes in traditions and rituals, prostitution, resident-tourist conflict, changes in political power, and the immigration/emigration of persons to the host community. Many of these changes often lead to the modernization of the community, meaning the community lost some of its environmental and social characteristics in order to provide the infrastructure, services, and cultural displays tourists expect. Some of the positive effects of tourism identified by Butler included the preservation of local customs, better medical care, improved transportation and public services, and more recreational facilities.

Other researchers examined the impacts of tourism by focusing on the perceptions of the hosts (Sethna 1980; Belisle & Hoy 1980; Davis, Allen, & Cosenza 1988; Ap 1992). Particularly, these studies focused on the social and cultural influences of tourism. This perspective may be compared with the research concerning sustainable tourism that addresses the natural or physical environment of destinations. Typically, empirical studies on impacts of tourism rate the perception level of the hosts with respect to the social and/or cultural change of the destination (Husbands 1989; King, Pizam, & Milman 1993; Pizam & Milman 1986; Ross 1992). For example, Rothman (1978) studied the impacts of tourism on the residents of two Delaware resort communities. In both of the communities, residents felt tourists contributed to noise pollution, litter, traffic congestion, increased crime, overcrowding of beaches and other natural resources, decreased time with family members, increased tension in the community, and inflation. Positive benefits derived from tourism were the revenues generated by tourism, seasonal employment, expanded commercial and public services (e.g. shops and recreational resources), and making and/or seeing friends. The residents even attributed changes in local architecture to tourists. The impact of tourism on the environment, public services, and the economy has also been studied (Allen et al. 1988). However, most studies of tourism impacts relied on exploratory methods and did not report the psychometric properties of the instruments used (Ap 1992). Aside from any issues concerning validity and reliability, tourism impacts generally may be divided into three factors: economic environment,

social/cultural environment, and natural. In addition, most of the reviewed studies focus on tourism as an influence on the indigenous population and physical environment at the destination on one of two levels. The first perspective is from the development/managerial level, which often adopts a macro-environmental perspective and is the level most often cited in the literature. The second basis is the tourists' perceptions or micro-level perspective, on which there have been few studies.

In the above descriptions of the impacts of tourism and sustainable development/ tourism, the ecology of the region and the viability of the local society are of paramount concern. An underlying critical component to all of these arguments and concepts is the tourists. Yet, with the exception of Hunter and Carter, the tourist's perspective is deemed irrelevant or assumed to be handled by market forces. However, if the tourist is not considered in the sustainability of tourism developments, then the destination will most likely fail. If left to the market, destinations will most likely follow a product life cycle (Cooper & Jackson 1989), either to decline and eventually disappear from the tourist's potential choice set or to be recycled (Hunter 1997). These alternatives fail to support the notions of sustainable development or sustainable tourism. Further, when considering the fact that the core element of the tourism phenomenon is the tourists, it should be explored how tourist's behavior and views relate to the environmental development and tourism impacts.

Tourists' Environmental Behaviors and Beliefs

The demands or behaviors of tourists affect the environmental attributes of destination through in a variety of ways. First, some demands of tourists to the environmental conditions could be reflected on the strategies of marketers or developers (Hunter 1997). Second, tourist's behaviors may directly impact the physical and social environment of the destination, directly and indirectly. Therefore, the tourist's environmental behaviors should be considered a critical component in the study of destination sustainability. If this is the case, the question becomes what are the antecedents to tourist's environmental behaviors? Social psychologists contend that an attitude determines a specific behavior, even though they debate the nature and effects of attitudes (Eagly & Chaiken 1993; McGuire 1985; Olson & Zanna 1993). Even if there is no universally agreed-upon definition, influential theorists variously define attitudes primarily in terms of evaluation, affect, cognition, and behavioral predisposition (Olson & Zanna 1993). For example, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) defined an attitude as a learned predisposition to response in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object. Based on this perspective, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Fishbein (1980) proposed "the reasoned action theory" that describes the causal relationship among cognition, affect (i.e., attitude), behavioral intention, and behavior [Beliefs > Attitudes > Intentions > Behaviors]. The concept of belief is regarded as one of the basic elements of this theory and

defined as a cognition or information about the linkage between the object and some of its attributes (Fishbein & Ajzen 1975). With respect to ecological or environmental attitudes, some environmental psychologists have supported Fishbein and Ajzen's view (Weigel, 1983; Weigel & Newman, 1976), while others have used it as a basis for measurement of environmental attitudes (Maloney & Ward, 1973; Maloney, Ward, & Braucht, 1975).

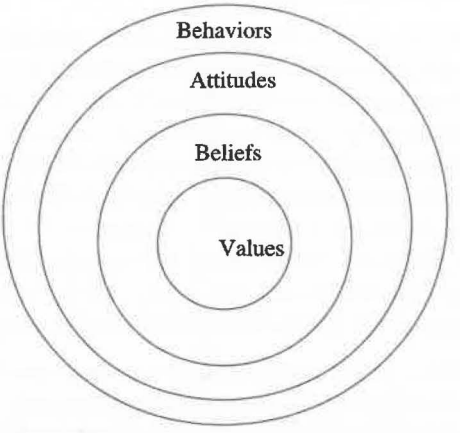


Figure 1: The relationship among beliefs, values, attitudes and behaviors

In contrast to the reasoned action theory, authors of value theories disagree the argument that attitude should be defined at a specific level (Kelman 1974; Rokeach 1973, 1979a,b). If the concept of attitude should be measured at the object level and in a given context, while the possibility of the covariate of attitude with the predicted behaviors may be increased, the measured attitude cannot be a stable construct. Therefore, for researchers emphasizing values, the concept of attitude is regarded as a general attitude, a composition of beliefs, that may be unchanged over time and across contexts. Rokeach (1968, 1979a) studied behaviors using this paradigm, and defined attitude as an organization of all kinds of beliefs, compared to Fishbein and Ajzen who proposed a specific belief as an antecedent of a specific attitude. Rokeach formulated four kinds of beliefs: (1) existential beliefs that provide descriptions of world as perceived by the individual; (2) evaluative beliefs that are used to pass judgments about the world in which a person lives; (3) prescriptive-proscriptive beliefs that encourage laudable ideas or actions that correspond to personal values; and (4) causal beliefs that are assertions accounting for the why and how of an object (i.e., causal attribute). These four types of beliefs are often interwoven into one belief about the object currently confronted by the individual (1979a, p. 263-264). On the other hand, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) defined a belief simply as the information a person

has about the object. A more important difference between the above two perspectives is in the different level of analysis. While Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) and Fishbein (1980) considered attitude and belief at a very specific level, that is, with a specific object and specific situation, Rokeach (1979a) argued that there is a general attitude (an organization of beliefs) developed from global values beyond a specific object and situation. Therefore, Rokeach's concept of beliefs or attitudes should stem from one's values. He called this the principle of belief congruence.

Because the present study concerns the relatively stable and general belief system of tourists' view toward and behaviors affecting destination sustainability, the Rokeachian view concerning the concept of beliefs and attitudes is used (Figure 1). In order to avoid conceptual confusion, beliefs will be used in lieu of attitudes. Therefore, this study has assumptions congruent with Rokeach (1968, 1979a,b): (1) tourists have general belief systems that determine their overall behaviors; (2) belief systems are relatively stable and continuous; (3) belief systems are rooted in values that are global beliefs which transcendently guide actions and judgements across specific objects and situations; and (4) belief systems toward an object can be measured and compared over individuals, times, situations, etc.

Based on the limitations to the previous work on the impacts of tourism and assessments of tourism sustainability, the purpose of this study was to determine the behaviors of tourists that might affect the sustainability of a tourism destination. In order to achieve this goal, the attitudes of tourists concerning the attributes desirable in destinations must be uncovered. Once exposed, developers and advocates of sustainable tourism will have more scientific information on which to base their long-term destination development decisions.

Methods and Procedures

Because of the exploratory nature of this research, two methods of data collection were used. The first method utilized was focus group interviews (FGIs). By using a qualitative method such as FGIs, the research process may be continually revised and many iterations may be used, allowing each new interview to build from the knowledge gained from previous iterations (Spiggle, 1994). For this study, two focus groups were interviewed. The first group consisted of six students recruited from undergraduate classes. Residents of Connecticut, USA, with varying occupations (e.g., lawyers, claims representatives, and managers) comprised the second group.

The second method of data collection utilized a modified form of the Critical Incident Technique (CIT). This technique allows researchers to examine specific instances of behavior to determine the underlying causes (beliefs) for that behavior. Smith (1976) found the CIT useful when many incidents of the behavior under study could be observed. The goal of the CIT is to observe multiple instances of the most acceptable (desirable) and least acceptable (undesirable) behavior

and then use those behaviors to develop criteria for measuring performance-based behavior. For the current study, the method of recording tourists' behaviors was an open-ended structured interview developed as a modified form of the CIT. Interview items were developed from the two FGIs and reviewed by a panel of experts for clarity, wording, and content. The tourists interviewed were encouraged to report on their past behaviors and/or those of their traveling companions. By using the CIT in this fashion, it is possible to find common, underlying beliefs that the tourists hold toward the destination's potential for sustainable tourism. For this segment of the data collection, interviews with 44 informants were conducted using 16 questions in the described CIT format. In order to facilitate participation, the informants responded to a maximum of six questions. The questions were grouped by topic (e.g., impacts on culture, the natural environment, and historic sites). The respondents included both university students and residents of Connecticut. In order to analyze the data collected from the CIT interviews, content analysis was completed using the coding scheme developed for the FGIs.

In order to facilitate the categorization of the data gathered using the focus groups, a temporal two-dimensional coding scheme was developed (see Table 1). As a grounded model (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), this analysis frame was set through the authors' skimming of the collected data in a naturalistic paradigm perspective, and was improved with successive iterations of data interpretation. The rows represent destination attributes that might influence the tourists' perceptions of the destination, and the columns represent the type of impact tourists' behaviors have on the destination. Most cells in the figure contain reported behaviors of tourists as related to destination attributes.

Table 1
Coding Scheme for Interview Results and Examples of Results

Destination Attribute	*Positive Sustainability Behavior*	*Negative Sustainability Behavior*	*Other Sustainability Behavior*
Natural environment	Tourist doesn't litter	Tourists allow pets to defecate on the beach	Tourists are ambivalent to the natural environment
Artificial (but physical) environment	Tourists appreciate the planning that went into the destination	Other guests abuse the hotel facilities	
Host cultural climate	Tourists frequent destinations to interact with locals	Tourists seeking out the services of prostitutes	Tourists interact only with hotel staff
Historical attributes	Tourists visit historic sites to better understand the local heritage	Some tourists become immersed in history and miss the current culture	
Economic environment	Tourists spend dollars in local shops	Apparent poverty of locals makes tourist want to stay at resort complex	
Miscellaneous	Travel partners make trip enjoyable	Overcrowding of the destination is disgusting	Tourists bend morals while on vacation

The rows include the natural environment, the artificial physical (man made) environment, the host culture, the historical attributes, and the economic environment of the destination. Natural environment refers to the destination attributes that are not man made. These include the local flora and fauna, climatic, and geographic attributes found at the destination. The artificial environment is the man-made attributes at the destination. The cultural norms, laws, and preferences of the destination are included in the host cultural environment. The historical attributes of the destination include all historic sites, relics, and structures at or near the destination. The economic environment corresponds to the prices, inflation, taxes, and other economic factors related to the tourist destination. A final category, miscellaneous, was included for behaviors not conceptually or practically included in one of the other five categories.

Results and Analysis

The informants provided some valuable insights into tourists' beliefs about sustainability of vacation destinations. Focus group 1 primarily reported information concerning the destination environment and the culture of the locals. Both the natural and the man-made environments contributed to the appeal of a destination. For example, Hilton Head Island, North Carolina, USA, was mentioned as an example of a destination at which the natural environments blended well together. One woman said:

"...everything is so planned...Everything is...made so it still looks like an island even though there's malls...or golf clubs, country clubs, everything out there but it still looks like an island...it's kinda like a jungle."

This use of integrated development enhanced the destination's appeal, making it a favorite for two of the focus group's members. Furthermore, informants cited the Island's development plan as a desirable destination trait. Because of the planning and integration of man-made structures with natural scenery (palm trees, Spanish moss, and plants), the developers created a *"non-city U.S.A."* appearance found attractive by tourists. These comments indicated the tourist belief that it is possible to develop a destination integrated with the natural environment if there is well-planned development.

Another environmental factor influencing the sustainability of the destination is the attractiveness of the environment. Commenting on Puerto Rico, one participant claimed the island's *"mountains, deserts, rainforest, beaches...everything that you can imagine is all on this tiny island and it's gorgeous."* The two group members who visited Hilton Head Island also described it as beautiful. When asked what made the Caribbean Island of St. Martin so beautiful, an informant replied *"the scenery."* Tourists believe that the aesthetic beauty of the naturally occurring scenery increases the destination's appeal. The native flora and fauna made apparent the relationship between the natural environment attributes and the sustainability of the destination: the more

beautiful the natural environment of the destination, the more likely the tourist will want sustain that destination's environment. This relationship should result in tourist sustainability behaviors that benefit the environment, if the natural environment appears unspoiled.

Other informants felt, for example, that resort developments *"...add more beauty to the environment... Without hotels and resorts we are...seeing different people and seeing different cultures. [They] are a big plus to adding to the natural environment."* The belief that development may add to the natural environment extends the above findings by indicating that tourists believe development may improve the sustainability of the destination and also encourage tourists to behave in ways that positively effect the sustainability of the destination.

Living in a popular tourist destination affected one participant's behavior during her own vacations:

"...my back yard is everybody's tourist spot...People come here and they just figure "Oh, I'm on vacation, I own this place...this is my vacation, so I'm going to do whatever I want..." I make sure that when I go on vacation, I don't act like that. Because it irks me...So when I go on vacation, that's why we do the sandbag [for her mother's cigarette butts] and... we make sure we don't disrupt anything wherever we go...it's not fair to the people that live there."

Having others pollute her home environment influenced her behavior at vacation destinations. The sustainability behavior of tourists at destinations may be affected by the pollution of the tourist's home environment. In this citation, there is also an escapist perspective toward the tourists' treatment of the destination environment. When some tourists are away from home, they feel as though they "own" the destination and behave in ways that reflect total disregard for the natural environment. Furthermore, because other tourists believe the natural environment of a destination should not be polluted, they believe other tourists visiting a destination should also avoid polluting the natural environment. Based on this content, another tourist belief may be extracted: it is unfair to the residents of a destination to pollute the natural and man-made environments of a destination.

In talking about Hilton Head Island, informants made other comments concerning the treatment of the destination environment. The woman who visited the island many times related a story about dogs on the beach:

"I remember some people had their dogs on the beach, and I remember seeing the dog go to the bathroom and I was like eewww! Why'd the dog go to the bathroom on the beach ya know if everything's so clean."

The context of this comment showed the informant's awareness of the destination's cleanliness. One man claimed that if the destination is clean and well maintained, *"...you felt guilty if you trashed it."* Two beliefs become evident

here. Tourists' are less likely to pollute an environment that looks clean. The second is that some polluting behaviors repulse tourists and should therefore be avoided by residents and tourists of the destination or banned by destination managers and policy makers. A third belief, that residents are not responsible for cleaning up tourists' messes, is obvious from one man's comment that he *"didn't feel like making [the locals] clean up the mess that we made...So we cleaned up...ourselves everyday."* Clearly, not all tourists are like those who visited Cape Cod; they do have some respect for the destination environment and the persons living there.

Despite the importance of cleanliness of the destination, other informants commented on the squalor of the local residents' homes. *"Locals [of St. Martin] aren't too clean. Like their houses and stuff like that aren't clean but the hotels are kept very well."* Tourists believe the entire destination, not just the resort or hotel, should be kept clean. In addition, the locals' role in keeping the destination clean is expanded from keeping destination attractions clean to keeping their home environments clean. An informant summarized this belief: a destination is *"perfect [if] it's clean, and the people are nice."*

As the preceding quote indicates, the hosts also play an important role in the sustainability of the destination. Of particular importance are the rules, norms, laws, traditions, and rituals of the host culture. All informants indicated that friendly, helpful residents made a destination more attractive. Again commenting on what made St. Martin so beautiful, one informant found *"...their way of living is totally different from here. All the people...were very friendly...more laid back."* Having residents behave in a friendly, relaxed manner toward tourists affects the sustainability of the destination. According to social psychologists (e.g., Eagly and Chaiken 1993), psychological evaluation of an object makes a person form an attitude toward the object. For example, if a resident is relaxed and friendly with tourists, tourists form positive attitudes (and potentially positive beliefs) toward the resident and possibly the destination. A destination with hospitable, easy-going residents therefore appeals to, and is frequented by tourists, ensuring the long-term viability of the destination through the positive affect between the tourists and the locals.

Two informants commented on the "freedom" that the hosts inspired: *"...they knew how to laugh and how to live free. They did not take life for granted."* The belief that residents knew how to enjoy themselves and life again produced positive affect in the tourists. Therefore, tourists who believe that residents "know how to live" are more likely to behave in ways that positively effect the destination's sustainability. The positive affect inspired by the lifestyles of the host presented above directly conflicts with other experiences, to be discussed later in the paper, that produced negative affect in tourists.

Other group members commented on the attitudes of the locals toward the tourists. When asked if the locals behaved amiably, one group member qualified her answer to depend on the type of attraction being visited:

"If we went to an antique shop, they'd be a little bit more snotty, 'cause we came in from the woods, so we weren't...the best dressed or the most clean, but...if we went to the farmers market, we just blended right in and the farmers, they were great...They were open about everything."

This again shows the relationship between resident behavior, tourist attitude, and belief formation as it relates to sustainability behavior. The results for this person, however, are both negative and positive.

Informants found the celebration of and rituals associated with holidays different and interesting at a foreign destination. One woman, visiting St. Martin, stated:

"It's just weird how they celebrate [Christmas]. Like they celebrate Christmas, but it's like in your briefs. When we were there...Santa Claus came on a jet ski for all the little kids. So it was cool."

The difference in lifestyles and climatic conditions, combined with the difference in ritual celebrations, to create a unique and memorable experience, which contributes to tourism sustainability as tourists may find these differences "cool."

Other informants presented several interesting experiences related to laws and law enforcement at the destination. For example, one informant experienced difficulty with Israeli customs officials because he found some of the surprises left by his girlfriend. The customs official became *"...very disturbed. "What's that?" he said. He realized that there was something in this suitcase that [the informant] did not immediately recognize. He grilled him for a + hour."* Another group member took a friend from Ireland to a N.Y. Yankee baseball game on bat day. This resulted in the friend having a bat in her luggage that resulted in *"...being...with [airport] security for almost 12 hours. The British police kept her there all night. This was a little girl."* However, not all informants experienced rigorous customs procedures. One group member said:

"What's funny is that if you are travelling to Europe on New Year's Eve, customs is dead. I didn't even have to go through customs because there was nobody there. It's like nobody cared. I could have had all sorts of bombs."

While customs seemed problematic for those tourists detained or searched, this last comment about New Year's Eve demonstrates that although officials may be an inconvenience, when the security they provide is missing, it is very noticeable. Therefore, customs could affect the sustainability behavior of the tourists positively, by providing a destination that is perceived as safe, or negatively, by harassing tourists as they enter the destination. Tourists believe that customs provides a screening mechanism that helps to ensure the safety of the area. If

this safety is missing, tourists may engage in behaviors that negatively impact the destination's sustainability. However, because negative experiences may result in negative psychological processes which lead to negative behaviors, the tourist belief that customs is an unpleasant experience may lead to behaviors that detract the sustainability of the destination (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975).

Economically, two informants reported interesting experiences. The first related to salespersons at the destination selling "packages" to bars. While the salespersons were attractive and offered apparently good deals, many of the bars and clubs included in the package only honored the coupons during off hours or for patrons 21 years of age and older. This resulted in the tourists being leery of *"people tryin' to sell you a lot of stuff."* Similar to the formation of beliefs as a result of cultural interaction mentioned above, over-aggressive salespersons may also lead to tourists forming negative attitudes toward the local retailers because of economic issues. These beliefs may negatively affect tourists' sustainability behaviors, particularly their buying behaviors. Therefore, the actions of the salespersons may both the cause and result in negative buying behaviors and beliefs held by tourists.

Another example of economic issues influencing tourists' sustainability behaviors relates to the apparent poverty of the destination. One informant related a story about the beggars of Ecuador who would entertain tourists by singing to them. There was a catch, however: they wanted money.

"...they just get up and come to your car and they're all disgusting like unbathed and all that...they'd start singing to you in Spanish...Every time we'd laugh hysterically at them while we're giving them the money."

The abundance of beggars and homeless families supply an entertainment service that may detract from the appeal of the destination by presenting unkempt persons who need money from tourists. The presence of beggars in tourist areas and along routes to attractions may lead to the development of a belief that the residents of the destination live in poverty. This negatively affects the destination's sustainability by creating tourist beliefs that the destination is poor and in disrepair, which, as mentioned above, could lead to behaviors that negatively affect the sustainability of the destination. These behaviors could be tourists harming the natural and/or manmade environment or disregarding the residents' culture.

The economy of the destination area also may inhibit cross-cultural interaction among local people and tourists. This is especially true if the lifestyle of the residents is economically poor relative to that of the tourists. As one group member stated:

"...when it comes to how they live, I tend to back away...When we were in Mexico, we were on a bus for 3 hours and we got to see these poor people who

live in shacks that were literally half the size of this kitchen and it broke my heart to see them like this...I thought that I really did not need to see what I saw today ...I'm pretty content to be on vacation and enjoy the ethnic food and dress and then go back to my normal life...It breaks my heart to know that people live this way."

The economic poverty of the Mexican people who lived on the countryside strongly affected this informant. After seeing their living conditions, she wanted to remain in the resort or areas similar to it and enjoy the aesthetically pleasing sights, sounds, and foods of the culture she was visiting. Some informants "hated" the apparent poverty at less economically developed destinations. Tourists believe that the developer and/or the policy makers should improve economically poor conditions so tourists do not have to view these conditions during their visit to the destination.

Other tourists, or their traveling companions, knowingly broke the laws of the destination they visited. Most of these infractions were of a minor nature: the illegal purchase of and bargaining for alcoholic beverages and speeding while driving a car. One incident, which happened with a friend of one of the informants, involved a more serious crime:

"It was Christmas day and the guy I was living with was bored. So we decided to go on a road trip to Montreal. He brings $200. Halfway up, he announces to me that he wants to find a hooker. First start with the strip joints and then find a hooker...So we're walking down the street and these ladies were coming up to me asking me if I would like to partake. And [my roommate] is waving $20's in Montreal."

While the informant never stated if a prostitute was found, it was clear that an illegal act was foremost in his friend's mind. From this search for sex, three tourist beliefs become apparent. The first is that tourists may behave in any way they want, regardless of the laws and cultural norms of the local people. Another belief is that the climate of the destination contributes to tourist behaviors, and these could affect the sustainability of the destination. Depending on the destination, they may negatively or positively impact the destination by promoting tourist beliefs that result in behaviors that either appreciate or depreciate the local residents. A final belief arose from the boredom of the two men: they sought a destination providing enjoyable, and possibly illegal, activities. Believing that the destination alleviates boredom may aid in the sustainability of the destination.

Other informants found the culture of the residents at the destination very interesting, but they also thought that tourists observe the culture while not absorbing it. Because of this, cultural barriers are often erected around tourists. For example, informants, when visiting a destination at which a language other than English was spoken, expected the locals to speak English. Another

informant, using food as an analogy, claimed that *"a lot of people go to a foreign country and want to look for an American restaurant to have a good American meal with a side of something foreign."* The prevalent belief found in this case is that tourists want limited exposure to the culture. If tourists are too immersed in the host culture, they might not enjoy their stay and not return or recommend the destination to their friends, thereby negatively affecting the sustainability of the destination. Another belief is evident from these findings: the host culture should have some of the tourist's home conveniences or attributes. That the tourist should find attributes similar to his or her home culture reflects another belief: destination development should include these attributes.

The interviewees identified a barrier to cultural interaction other than the need to maintain cultural relativism. This barrier was that tourism is a business. *"There's also that sense of having business to transact, which is very American. Time is precious and some people haven't time to socialize."* This aspect of tourism, according to the informants, discourages interaction among the hosts and guests. Therefore, if the tourist wishes to avoid cross-cultural contact with the hosts, they may use the business aspect of tourism to do so. The majority of the informants, however, sought cultural contact and found the "tourism as a business" attitude a barrier to meaningful cultural contact with the host population. This lack of meaningful interaction with the residents of the destination could result in the decline of destinations promoting cross-cultural interaction as an attraction.

Informants identified the history of the destination as a vital resource for the sustainability of the destination. Informants enjoyed visiting historical sites as a vacation activity. The informants appreciated another aspect of the destination: the people who lived through historic events. One informant, who frequently visited Germany, thought *"It was cool to hear stories from [a] grandmother about WWII."* This comment reflects the relationship between culture and history. Historic sites provide tourists with a sustainable resource as an attraction, and the local people contribute to tourists' understanding and appreciation of these sites. Appreciation of such monuments, and of the persons who have lived during historic events, reflects another tourist belief: the historic attributes of the destination should be preserved for future generations.

The relationship between history and culture may not always provide the tourist with a more profound understanding of the culture(s) associated with the destination. While a tourist may *"learn more about...Italian heritage"* by visiting ancient sites and talking with local residents of the destination, other informants felt

"You can insulate yourself from the current culture by being attracted to the history. You can go and be totally immersed in the history of the town but you're not learning about the current culture. You keep yourself separate from the life that's going on now."

Exclusively learning about the history of the destination indicates a tourist belief that the history of the destination is more valuable than the current culture of the destination. Because of the tourist belief that the historic sites are separated from the current culture of the destination, tourists may not behave in ways that promote the sustainability of the destination, excepting the historic sites.

The real value from this part of the group discussion was the realization of the dynamic aspect of culture that history lacks:

Marge- There is a big difference between absorbing the culture and absorbing the history. In culture, there is that element of danger.

Jen- Right, but history is safe.

From these comments, it should be clear to the reader that tourists believe there is safety from cultural contact by the tourist's focusing of attention on historic attributes. Tourists believe there is an element of danger in culture, which may lead to negative attitudes about the residents of the destination. As previously stated, negative attitudes may lead to negative behaviors, and thereby detracting from the sustainability of the destination.

Informants also offered information that did not fit into any of the five identified sustainability categories. For this reason, the miscellaneous category was created to capture this information. The bulk of this data focuses on the role of travel partners in an enjoyable vacation experience, the bending of morals or self-imposed rules while on vacation, and the crowding of the destination. For example, one informant said that she would go to bars without the company of a man while on vacation, which is something she had never done at home. Other personal rules are also forgotten. One informant claimed *"I'll do things that I normally don't do when I'm on vacation...kinda push the envelope a little bit."* The morals of tourists also change, but to a very limited degree. *"On the periphery, it [morals] should change,"* but core morals don't change when on vacation. One informant best summarized this view: *"When someone goes on vacation, they're taking themselves out of their normal life. What you choose to keep the same depends a lot on who you are."* Therefore, some change is acceptable, but core value changes are not likely. These three comments are indicative of the tourist belief that it is acceptable for tourists behave differently while on vacation, thereby affecting the sustainability behaviors of the tourists while at a destination.

One informant indicated that tourists *"...will do things to preserve the [natural] environment if they are properly reminded to do so."* Therefore, it is possible to infer that cues must be present in a destination environment that prompts the tourists to behave in a sustainable manner. The general consensus of many of the informants, however, was that *"...tourists don't give a rip about the environment, in general, while on vacation."* The belief inherent in this statement is that the destination environment is unimportant. This may result in

unsustainable behaviors by the tourists who visit the destination. Some informants even reported that *"tourists cannot resist touching or taking a piece of the environment with them as a momento."* These comments indicate that the informants feel tourists often do not make an effort to support the sustainability of the destination's environment.

Discussion and Conclusion

If the sustainability of the destination includes such factors as the natural, cultural, social, and historical attributes of the destination (Khamouna, 1998), then these data suggest that tourists are aware of their potential role in sustaining the tourism destination. The impact of tourists on the environment is made clear again by comments from informants, supporting the results of studies by Allen et al. (1988), Butler (1993), Carter (1988), Rothman (1978) and others. The information given by the participants of this study, however, suggests that tourists may also be aware of their role, as groups and individuals, in ensuring the long-term viability of the destination. As many informants clearly indicated, the destination environment is important to them. This includes both the natural and man-made environments. Unfortunately, the informants also felt that tourists feel no responsibility toward behaving in a manner that promotes environmental sustainability. Destination developers may help in promoting environmentally friendly behavior by designing man-made structures that are well integrated with the natural environment. The residents of the destination may help too by keeping the area clean and free of visible pollution, possibly making the tourists feel "guilty" should they pollute the destination environment. Finally, the tourists should be reminded to use environmentally friendly behaviors. The resort staff and management and those promoting the destination could facilitate these behaviors through reminders that are both verbal and written (Moscardo, Verbeek, and Woods 1998).

The cultural heritage should also be tourist friendly if the destination is to remain sustainable in the long term (Bramwell and Fearn, 1996; Rudd and Davis, 1998). Having friendly, easy-going people at the destination make it more appealing to tourists. Furthermore, law enforcement should also be somewhat "laid back" to facilitate the tourists' relaxation of personal rules and peripheral morals while still providing enough structure to ensure tourists that their way of life is not completely without order. The use of familiar languages, especially English, would also increase the appeal of the destination to the informants interviewed for this study. The exclusive use of English, however, would result in the depreciation of the local population's culture by the tourists, thereby endangering the sustainability of the destination. There needs to be a mixed use of both the tourists' language(s) and the language of the indigenous population.

There is also a clear need to maintain historic sites. Most informants felt that historic sites should be preserved at the cost of developing those sites for touristic

activities. This view was not universal among the informants, but the vast majority of those informants addressing this issue indicated that they would not support a resort or hotel that was built on a site that was the location of an historic structure. The historic value of the destination may also be appreciated through cross-cultural interaction. Tourists may actually seek out local residents of the area who either have learned the history of the area or who have lived through what are now considered to be interesting historic times. If an effort is made to keep and maintain the history of the destination, including sites, structures, and people, the sustainability of the destination should be increased to the benefit of both tourists and local residents, and the progeny of these two groups (Carter 1993; Hunter 1997; Inskeep 1991).

Economic conditions may also affect the sustainability of the destination from the tourists' perspectives. Several informants stated an aversion for seeing poverty stricken locals during ventures out of the resort area. Because of this aversion, many informants stayed within the resort compound, thereby limiting the economic exchange to the owners and employees of the resort. If the destination and the surrounding attractions are to remain economically viable, the appearance of the local homes and streets should be improved. Achieving this goal, however, may not be realistic or desirable. However, if the goal of tourism development is to increase the wealth and standard of living for the local population, the economic benefits must be distributed so that the local population has better housing, clothing, and food. This should eliminate the apparent poverty in which the residents of many destinations live.

Finally, there are other factors that affect the sustainability of the destination from the tourist's viewpoint. The most prominent of these are the overcrowding of the destination and the rampant commercialization of the tourist destination. The tourism developers and local policy makers may address both of these issues. If the destination is poorly planned, the number of tourists at the destination could seem very high, making it less attractive to some tourists. Therefore, planners should adequately distance not only resort compounds from each other, but also various facilities and amenities within the compound. Policy makers play a role in limiting the commercialization of tourist attractions, hotels, and resorts. By creating local ordinances that limit or prohibit the development and the type, size and number of signs and displays, policy makers can greatly influence the appearance of the destination, potentially influencing the long-term sustainability of the destination from the tourist's perspective.

References

Ajzen, I, & Fishbein, M. (1977). Attitude-behavior relations : A theoretical analysis and review of empirical research. Psychological Bulletin, 88, 888-918.

Allen, L.; Long, P.; Perdue, R.; & Keiselbach, S. (1988). The impact of tourism development on residents' perceptions of community life. Journal of Travel Research, 27(1), 16-21.

Ap, J. (1992). Residents' Perceptions Research on Tourism Impacts. Annals of Tourism Research, 19(4), 665-690.

Belisle, F. J. & Hoy, D. R. (1980). The Perceived Impacts of Tourism by Residents: A Case Study in Marta Colombia. Annals of Tourism Research, 7(1), 83-101.

Bramwell, B. & Fearn, A. (1996). Visitor attitudes to a policy instrument for visitor funding of conservation in a tourist area. Journal of Travel Research, 35(2), 29-55.

Butler, R. (1993). Tourism development in small islands: Past influences and future directions. In D. Lockhart, D. Drakakis-S,mith, & J. Schembrie (Eds.), The Development process in Small Island States (pp. 71-91). New York, NY: Routledge.

Butler, R. (1974). The social implications of tourist developments. Annals of Tourism Research, 2(2), 100-112.

Carter, E. (1993). Ecotourism in the Third World: Problems for sustainable tourism development. Tourism Management, 14(2), 85-90.

Carter, E. (1988), The development of tourism in the least developed countries. In B. Goodall and G. Ashworth (Eds.), Marketing in the Tourism Industry : The Promotion of Destination Regions (pp. 39-132). New York, NY: Croom Helm.

Cooper, C. & Jackson, S. (1989). Destination life cycle : The Isle of Man case study. Annals of Tourism Research, 16(2), 377-398.

Davis, D., Allen J., & Cosenza, R. M. (1988). Segmenting Local Residents by their Attitudes, Interests, and Opinions toward Tourism. Journal of Travel Research, 27(2), 2-8.

Eagly, A. & Chaiken, S. (1993). The Psychology of Attitudes. Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

Fishbein, M. (1980). Theory of reasoned action : Some implications and applications. In H. Howe and M. Page (Eds.), Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, 27 (pp. 65-116). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

Fishbein, M., and I. Ajzen (1975). Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behavior. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing.

Foster, J. (1964). The sociological consequences of tourism. International Journal of Comparative Sociology, 5, 217-227.

Gamper, J. (1981). Tourism in Austria : A case study of the influence of tourism on ethnic relations. Annals of Tourism Research, 8(3), 432-446.

Hunter, C. (1997). Sustainable tourism as an adaptive paradigm. Annals of Tourism Research, 24(4), 850-867.

Husbands, W. (1989). Social status and perceptions of tourism in Zambia. Annals of Tourism Research, 16(2), 237-253.

Inskeep, E. (1991). Tourism planning : An Integrated and sustainable development approach. New York: Van Reinhold.

Jafari, J. (1974) The socio-economic costs of tourism to developing countries. Annals of Tourism Research, 1(7), 227-262.

Keating, B. (1992). Pack your parka for an ecotour: But is ecotourism always good for the environment? Travel & Leisure, 22, 53-55.

Kelman, H. C. (1974). Attitudes are alive and well and gainfully employed in the Sphere of Action. American Psychologist, 29, 310-324.

Khamouna, M. (1998). Sustainable ecotourism and indigenous cultures. 4th Asian Pacific Tourism Association Conference Proceedings, August 18-21, 1998.

King, B., Pizam, A., & Milman, A. (1993). Social Impacts of Tourism: Host Perceptions. Annals of Tourism Research, 20(4), 650-665.

Lincoln, Y. S. & Guba, E. (1985). Naturalistic Inquiry. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

MacCannell, D. (1973). Staged authenticity: Arrangements of social space in tourist settings. American Journal of Sociology, 79, 589-603.

MacNaught, T. J. (1982). Mass tourism and the dilemmas of modernization in pacific island communities. Annals of Tourism Research, 9(3), 359-381.

Maloney, M. & Ward, M. (1973). Ecology: Lets' hear from the people. American Psychologist, 28, 583-586.

Maloney, M., Ward, M., & Braucht, G. N. (1975). A revised scale for the measurement of ecological attitudes and knowledge. American Psychologist, July, 787-790.

McGuire,W.J. (1985). Attitude and Attitude Change. In G. Lindzey and E. Aronson (Eds.), Handbook of Social Psychology (3rd ed., Vol.2) (pp. 233-346). New York: Random House.

Moscardo, G.; Verbeek, M., & Woods, Barbara. (1998). Effective Interpretation and Sustainable Tourism. The 4th Asia Pacific Tourism Association Conference Proceedings, Series B, 148-155.

Olson, J. M., & Zanna, M. P. (1993). "Attitudes and Attitude Change." Annual Review of Psychology 44: 117-154.

Pizam, A. & Milman, A. (1986). The Social Impacts of Tourism. Tourism Recreation Research, 11(1), 29-34.

Rokeach M. (1968). Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values: A Theory of Organization and Change. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc.

Rokeach M. (1979a). Some unresolved issues in theories of beliefs, attitudes, and values. Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, 27, 261-304.

Rokeach, M. (1979b). Understanding Human Values. The Free Press.

Ross, G. (1992). Resident Perceptions of the Impact of Tourism on an Australian City. Journal of Travel Research, 30(3), 13-17.

Rothman, R. (1978). Residents and Transients: Community reaction to seasonal visitors. Journal of Travel Research, 16(3), 8-13.

Rudd, M., & Davis, J. (1998). Industrial heritage tourism at the Bingham Canyon Copper Mine. Journal of Travel Research, 36(3), 85-89.

Sethna, R. J. (1980). Social Impact of Tourism in Selected Caribbean Countries. In D. Hawkins, E. Shafer, & J. Rovelstad (Eds.), Tourism Planning and Development Issues (pp. 239-249). Washington D. C.: George Washington University Press.

Sheldon, P. & Var T. (1984). Resident attitudes to tourism in North Wales. Tourism Management, 5(1), 40-47.

Smith, P. (1976). Behaviors, results, and organizational effectiveness: The problem of criteria. In Marvin Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Co.

Spiggle, S. (1994). Analysis and interpretation of qualitative data in consumer research. Journal of Consumer Research, 21, 491-503.

Weigel R. & Newman L. (1976). Increasing attitude-behavior correspondence by broadening the scope of the behavioral measure. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 33(6), 793-802.

Weigel, R. (1983). Environmental attitudes and the prediction of behavior. In Nickolaus Feimer and E. Scott Geller (Eds.), Environmental Psychology: Directions and Perspectives. New York: Praeger Publishers.

About the Authors

James J. Murdy is an assistant professor in the Tagliatela School of Hospitality and Tourism at the University of New Haven. He holds a Ph.D. from the University of Connecticut (2001), and his research interests include nature-based tourism, tourist behavior, and the impacts of tourism.

Dong-Woo Ko is on the faculty of Daegu Univesity, Jinryang, Gyeongsan, Gyeongbuk, S. Korea. His research interests include tourism psychology, festival and event tourism, and tourist behavior.

JOURNAL OF H&T www.johat.com

ALAN K. STYLES, STEPHEN W. LITVIN, JOHN C. CROTTS & CALVIN BLACKWELL

Local Government Use of State Accommodation Tax Revenues

Alan K. Styles
Dept. of Accounting & Legal Studies
College of Charleston, U.S.A.

Stephen W. Litvin
School of Business and Economics, College of Charleston

John C. Crotts
Hospitality and Tourism Management Program
Department of Management and Marketing
College of Charleston, U.S.A.

Calvin Blackwell
Department of Economics and Finance
College of Charleston, U.S.A.

Abstract: A significant but controversial source of tourism tax revenues is the hotel occupancy tax. This study investigates the use of occupancy taxes in the state of South Carolina, with the purpose of exploring whether local governments use these revenues for tourism related purposes. Results yielded from a classification instrument for accommodations tax expenditures involving two teams of researchers independently classifying 385 expenditures for 34 county and municipal governments, revealed that 13 per cent of expenditures were not complying with state rules on spending of local occupancy taxes. Recommendations for policy makers are discussed as well as the need for further research.

Keywords: Accommodation tax, tax compliance.

Introduction

Many state and local governments promote tourism with funds generated by taxing travelers. Most states and local governments have removed destination marketing organizations from their budgets and instead fund those organizations directly through tourism tax receipts. Local occupancy taxes – or bed taxes – are supplementary sales taxes added to the base price of a hotel room that properties must charge to their guests. Such taxes are controversial (Spengler and Uysal 1989).

Some critics claim that state and local governments often see these taxes as a "free" source of revenue, because the local government believes the burden of these taxes falls on tourists rather than local citizens Hiemstra and Ismail (1993). Lodging owners and operators who are responsible for collecting and remitting these taxes often point out that imposing the tax has adverse impact on lodging demand and is therefore not a free benefit to the community. Hiemstra and Ismail (1992), for example, have reported a price elasticity in the range of -.44.

In their analysis, the adverse impacts of room taxes on lodging sales, measured in terms of number of rooms sold, were considerable for all major segments of the lodging industry. State and local governments as well as the destination marketing organizations that they support often counter that there are offsetting positive benefits for the lodging industry from the use made of the tax receipts, but the magnitude of these benefits has not been analyzed (Mak 1988).

Lodging and tourism interests have often had a role in the formulation of tax policies at the state level where such taxes have been imposed. One result of this influence has been to limit the use of such revenues by local governments. Often the law requires a proportion of occupancy tax revenues to be used solely for tourism related expenditures. A rationale for such forced expenditure is that the money spent promoting tourism helps to grow future tourism demand and therefore helps to offset the negative impacts of the lodging tax. The question then becomes: Are tax revenues collected at the local level being used to promote tourism?

The purpose of this study is to analyze local government use of local occupancy taxes in the state of South Carolina, USA. More specifically, the questions to be explored are (1) to what extent do county and municipal governments attempt to game the rules associated with how such sales tax revenues are expected to be used; and (2) what are the most frequently used tactics being employed by those government entities that appear not to be in compliance with the rules.

The South Carolina Accommodations Tax

South Carolina has a statewide accommodations tax, which is similar to other US states. Local governments (municipal or county) collect and remit the tax to the South Carolina Department of Revenue (SCDOR). Those funds are returned to the local government, which then spends the money according to the following rules:

- The first twenty-five thousand dollars is allocated to the general fund of the municipality or county government. This money may be spent in any manner the local government sees fit.
- Five percent of the balance is allocated to the general fund of the municipality or county government. This money also may be spent however the local government desires.
- Thirty percent of the balance must be allocated to a special fund and used for advertising and promotion of tourism.
- The remaining balance must be allocated to a special fund and used for tourism-related expenditures.

According to the South Carolina statute, tourism-related expenditures include:

- Advertising and promotion of tourism
- Promotion of the arts and cultural events
- Construction, maintenance, and operation of facilities for civic and cultural activities
- The criminal justice system, law enforcement, fire protection, solid waste collection, and health facilities when required to serve tourists and tourist facilities
- Public facilities such as restrooms, dressing rooms, parks and parking lots
- Tourist shuttle transportation
- Control and repair of waterfront erosion
- Operating visitor information centers

Municipalities and counties are required to submit annually to the South Carolina Department of Revenue (SCDOR) and the South Carolina Accommodations Tax Oversight Committee (SCATOC) an Accommodations Tax Reporting Form that details how their funds from the accommodation tax have been spent. The SCATOC is charged with monitoring local governments' use of the accommodations tax. The committee has the power to judge expenditures non-compliant, and in such cases may request that the SCDOR withhold equivalent funds from subsequent disbursements of the accommodations tax to the local government. The committee does not have the power to impose any punitive actions against local governments for non-compliant uses of the accommodations tax, other than such future withholding of funds.

Research Methods

In accordance with State law, each local government receiving funds from the accommodations tax must file an Accommodations Tax Reporting Form with the SCDOR that is reviewed by the SCATOC. This form shows the disbursement of the tourism tax revenue, with each local government indicating all the activities funded by State accommodation tax revenues, the organization to whom the money was dispersed, and the nature of the expenditure. We gained access to the forms submitted to the SCATOC for fiscal year 2001/02 through a written request invoking the Freedom of Information Act.

In addition, we had the South Carolina Council of Municipalities and County Governments survey local governments' disbursement of the local option tourism tax. These local option tax revenues must be spent according to the same rules as above, but fall outside the purview of the SCATOC. However, no completed questionnaires were returned to the researchers forcing the researchers to abandon this aspect of the research project. Initially two of the researchers- Team 1- examined all the forms provided by SCATOC. The forms were reviewed

Table 1

Instrument for Describing Items on the

South Carolina Accommodations Tax Reporting Form

Compliance	1 = Compliant, in the spirit of law (if 1, proceed to next expenditure item) 2 = Questionable compliance; Questionable in the spirit or not enough information making it worthy of an audit (if 2, proceed to tactics section)
Tactics	1 = Under documentation (if 1, proceed to next expenditure item) 2 = Mis-appropriation of funds to local resident use (if 2, classify reason for misuse)
Misuses	LS - Local Services, normally provided by local government for residents LI - Local Infrastructure (not a building), primarily for use by local residents LF - Local Facilities (buildings), primarily for use by local residents LE - Local Event, primarily serves local residents with either a low absolute number of tourists or a low percentage of tourists AD - Advertising (non-tourism) MT - Mis-appropriated travel, not related to tourism LED - Local Educational Programs, primarily for benefits of residents BUS - Business Recruitment/Direct Business Support, of non-tourism entities

by the researchers to gain a sense of the types of expenditures made and the level of reporting detail. After an initial review, these two researchers then created the following measurement instrument:

Using this review instrument, these two researchers then re-evaluated the thirty-four forms containing 385 expenditure items that had been received from SCATOC. The two other researchers involved with this project – Team 2- subsequently used the instrument to evaluate the same thirty-four forms. This process resulted in two sets of independent evaluations, which allows for a check of the reliability of the non-compliance measures.

Results

Team 1 deemed that 63.4% of the 385 items reported by local governments as compliant as compared to 70.4% for Team 2 (See Table 2). When the two sets of evaluations were matched, it was found that the two sets of reviewers agreed on 70.1% of the items. As discussed in the conclusion, a major cause of the lack of consistency is attributed to the Accommodation Tax Reporting Form, which requires little detail from the local government, thus leaving many items open for a wide range of interpretation.

Of the 385 items reviewed, 43.4% were classified as non-compliant (or questionable) by at least one of the two rating teams. On the other hand, the rating teams agreed that 13.6% of the items were potentially non-compliant.

Further analysis summed the total amount of accommodation tax revenues being appropriately (and inappropriately) used as deemed by both groups. Of the $12,896,436, between $4,703,042 and $4,787,104 were deemed non-compliant (or questionable) use of funds, or 36.4% and 37.1% of the total allocated funds respectively. In the 13.6% of the cases where both review teams concluded non-compliant use of funds, these funds summed to $2,439,000 or 18.9% of total accommodation tax revenues.

Table 2

Levels of Compliance and Non-Compliance

	Team	Team 2
Compliant?		
Yes	63.4%	70.4%
No/Uncertain	36.6%	29.6%
Total Tax Revenue	$12,896,434	$12,896,434
Amount Compliant	$8,193,392	$8,109,330
Amount Non-Compliant	$4,703,042 (36.4%)	$4,787,104 (37.1%)

Asked what tactics were seemingly being used to game the rules associated with the tax uses, Team 1 reported that 53.3% of the deemed questionable uses of the tax revenues were employing an under-reporting strategy while 46.7% were using the funds for resident purposes. Conversely, Team 2 reported that local governments were employing under-reporting tactics in 26.6% of the cases of questionable usages; 73.4% using funds for resident purposes. **Obviously, the lack of inter-judge reliability in tactics being employed was due to differences in which expenditures were deemed compliant in the first stage of the analysis.**

Table 3 summarizes the categories of the misuses of the accommodation tax revenues for both research teams. Significant differences do exist between the teams of evaluators. Tax revenues used to support events serving primarily local residents was the most frequently deemed misuse, followed by local government services to residents and infrastructure serving primarily residents.

Table 3

Most Frequently Deemed Misuses

of Tax Revenues (Percentages)

	Team 1	Team 2
Support for events serving residents not tourists	40.6%	59.7%
Infrastructure serving residents not tourists	18.7	16.8
Services to residents not tourists	25.0	15.6
Support of an individual business	3.2	1.3
Not enough Information	12.5	6.6
TOTAL	100%	100.0%
	64 cases	77 cases

Conclusions And Recommendations

For academics, the study makes two contributions. First, it may guide the research agenda for researchers attempting to assess the degree of non-compliance in local government use of local occupancy taxes. Second, it adds to a growing body of literature on the adverse impacts of room taxes on the lodging industry. State and local governments often justify the creation or increases in such taxes in terms of their offsetting positive benefits to the lodging properties that must collect them. However, seldom is there an assessment of governments' compliance to the rules in which the tax revenues can be used.

Before summarizing this study's findings, it is important to re-iterate its limitations. First, though all four members are trained as researchers and employed a considerable amount of due diligence, none of the researchers are professional accommodation tax auditors. Second, the law's vagueness allows for multiple and conflicting judgments regarding the appropriateness of any particular item. Third, local governments are required to provide very little information to the Oversight Board, meaning that the researchers (and auditors) have very little information on which to base their judgments. Therefore, the results should be treated as approximate indicators of the amount and degree of non-compliance for the year in question.

We estimate that between $2.4 million and $4.7 million of the $12.9 million state accommodation taxes that were returned to local governments in fiscal year 2001/02 for tourism development purposes were potentially misused and/or merit an audit by the SCDOR. Stated another way, between one-fifth to one-

third of these tax revenues potentially may have been misappropriated. The tactics being employed by local governments to seemingly skirt the rules varied between the research teams but centered on under documentation of tax usages to oversight authorities, and using the funds for resident – as opposed to tourism purposes. The most frequently deemed misuses of the tax revenues went to support events serving primarily local residents - not tourists- followed by support for local government services to residents, and infrastructure serving primarily residents.

Also of note was the lack of oversight in local option accommodation tax usages even though they are governed by the same legislation as to their appropriate uses. The fact that no local government elected to complete and return our survey raises questions as to how these funds are used. This issue should be investigated further.

Given that prior research has shown that lodging firms are harmed by accommodation taxes and that the State has attempted to compensate these businesses by insuring that a portion of the revenue is used to grow future tourism demand, we recommend the following:

- The simplest solutions to help avoid controversy would be to provide more space on the annual documentation form and require local governments to more fully document, explain, and justify their use of these funds.
- Provide local governments with a document that more clearly interprets the current legislation and which provides detailed examples of appropriate and inappropriate usage of the tax revenues.
- Create a more objective definition of a tourist so that the spirit of the law can be clearly discerned in cases where appropriate uses are in question.
- Create stronger oversight of tax usage by SCDOR with stronger sanctions for those entities found noncompliant.

Future Research

Tax compliance research is an important but nevertheless neglected area of research in the hospitality and tourism field (Crotts and McGill 1994). Most of the research has focused on the impact such taxes has on lodging demand. It is our hope that this research will stimulate discussion and additional research in new and equally useful directions. An area of research that begs for analysis is to explain why some local governments attempt to *game* the rules associated with how accommodation tax are used while others remain in compliance. The research methods employed in this study are a means to generate dependent variables useful in such analysis (e.g., percentage of accommodation taxes deemed non compliant, use of tactics in non compliance, etc.). Potential explanatory variables available in most communities could include measures of local

government financial flexibility, dependence of the local economy on tourism, as well as financial penalties for non compliance.

References

Crotts, John C and McGill, Gary A. (1994). Compliance with local option lodging taxes: Theory and measurement. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, Vol. 3* (4).

Hiemstra, Stephen J. and Ismail, Joseph A. (1992). Analysis of room taxes levied on the lodging industry. *Journal of Travel Research, Vol 31* (1), 42-50.

Hiemstra, Stephen J. and Ismail, Joseph A. (1993). Incidence of the impact of room taxes on the lodging industry. *Journal of Travel Research, Vol 31* (4), 22-26.

Mak, James (1988). Taxing hotel room rentals in the U.S. *Journal of Travel Research, Vol. 27*(1), 10-15.

Spengler, John and Uysal, Muzaffer (1989). Considerations in the hotel taxation process. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, Vol. 8* (4), 309-316.

Successful Meetings (2001). *Lodging taxes, high and low. Successful Meetings, Vol 50* (10), p.38.

About the Authors

Alan K. Styles graduated with a Ph.D. in Accounting from the University of North Texas in 1998 and he is currently an Assistant Professor of Accounting at the College of Charleston. His publications and research addresses issues of public interest accounting, accounting ethics, international accounting regulation and accounting history.

Steve Litvin earned doctorate is from the International Graduate School of Management of the University of South Australia and is currently an Associate Professor of the School of Business and Economics at the College of Charleston. He has taught hospitality and tourism subjects for the past eight years most recently in Singapore. Prior to joining academia, he had fifteen years travel management industry experience, having worked in senior positions with two major USA travel management companies. Steve a CPA, has also practiced with two of the Big Five CPA firms.

John C. Crotts graduated with a Ph.D. in Leisure Studies and Services from the University of Oregon in 1989 and is currently a Professor and Director of the Hospitality and Tourism Management Program of the School of Business and Economics at the College of Charleston. Prior to this position, he lectured in the Advanced Business Programme on tourism subjects at Otago University, Dunedin, New Zealand and was Director of the Center for Tourism Research and Development at the University of Florida. His research encompasses the areas of economic psychology, tourism marketing strategy, and management of cooperative alliances.

Calvin Blackwell earned his Ph.D. in Economics from the University of New Mexico in 2000. He is currently an Assistant Professor in the Department of Economics and Finance at the College of Charleston. His research interests include experimental economics, public economics and tax compliance.

JOURNAL OF H&T
www.johat.com

MALCOLM COOPER

Tourism and Hospitality in 21st Century (Ed)

Mukesh Ranga & Ashish Chandra
2003, Discovery Publishing House
New Delhi, pp1-420, Hardcover

This book is a collection of relatively recent studies of socio-economic aspects of tourism, tourist motivation, ecotourism and hospitality related tourism in a variety of settings. The 18 contributions range from a review of hotel management and tourism policy in Greece (a major task in itself!) by Tsartas and Lagos, to a review of the World Wide Web as a strategic marketing tool for independent tourism and hospitality businesses by Nassar, *et al.* The Editors, from Bundelkhand University, Jhansi, are to be congratulated in bringing together such a wide-ranging compendium of work in a logical sequence, with some very interesting papers amongst it.

One of the difficulties of reviewing a publication is to decide on its intrinsic merit vs the other possible forms of dissemination of the ideas and discussion contained within it. In this regard the stated objective of the book, to reflect the different ideas of researchers and academicians related to tourism and hospitality providing a truly global perspective is achieved by focussing on a range of general management, marketing and economic perspectives, with examples from particular places. As a result this collection, while not a definitive review of any of the subject areas (that would take many books!), will be a welcome addition to any tourism library.

Although the editors have resisted the temptation to group the chapters into overriding themes, for the purposes of this review I will do so. Ecotourism forms a major theme within the book, and the individual contributions cover most of the current research focus and debate on this important theme. Malcolm Cooper and Patricia Erfurt (Chapter 1, 1-19) begin both the book and the treatment of this theme with a discussion of a number of behavioural standards and regulatory regimes that have been developed in an effort to assist tourism operators in implementing practical environmental impact monitoring measures, or to regulate their activities. This chapter discusses a range of these techniques, but concentrates on the Nature and Ecotourism Accreditation Program (NEAP) developed in Australia. A world leader, this program has been developed by industry for industry, addressing the need to identify genuine ecotourism and nature tourism product in Australia, and is a joint initiative of the Ecotourism Association of Australia (EAA) and the Australian Tourism Operators Network (ATON). The authors note that using such tools would allow tourism and planning

managers in all countries to more easily control and regulate that part of their tourism industry that is based on the natural environment.

Ecotourism is nature-based tourism that involves education and interpretation of the natural environment and is managed to be ecologically sustainable. Chapters by Mike Stone and Geoff Wall (Chapter 2, 20-53; Sanjay Nepal, Chapter 6, 134-153; and Zhang Mu (Chapter 14, 285-297) provide assessments of the importance of ecotourism to community development in China, and in mountainous regions in general. These are a welcome addition to the literature on the actual impact of ecotourism. As ecotourism has the potential to be a very important environmental conservation tool for tourism and land-use planners throughout the World, it is important to understand its impact at the local level. Key elements include dependence on the natural environment, the need for ecologically sustainable developments, ecotourism's contribution to conservation, the constraints and opportunities for ecotourism, the involvement of education and interpretation, the need for trained managerial and technical staff, how local communities may be sustained, and the opportunities for adventure, leisure and fun for both visitors and their hosts. All chapters acknowledge that if local areas are to take advantage of ecotourism, then effort must be focussed on developing the long-term plans and policies necessary for successful implementation.

Pascal Tremblay (Chapter 5, 111-133) takes a wider view of the importance of sustainable tourism, while David Silbergh (Chapter 17, 354-376) looks at whether or not a particular tourism attraction, the Cairngorm Funicular Railway can be considered a sustainable development. Tremblay provides a theoretical argument that suggests that the key to many types of tourism sustainability lies in maintaining a sufficient amount of diversity in uses and in market segmentation. In doing this he suggests that when the complexity of dealing with both financial and ecosystem impact questions is fully appreciated, arguments that the sustainability of resources actually lies in the effective management of *diversity* rather than in promoting resource-use substitution (wildlife tourism for forestry, for example). This theme is taken up in the Silbergh chapter, when he points out that the case of the Cairngorm railway is immensely complex – with some points of view condemning it on environmental damage grounds (railway cuttings, etc), but yet others praising the process of negotiation that went before that resulted in less environmental damage than would have occurred with the first proposals. While the railway may fail on environmental impact grounds, visitor flows and hence their impact on the environment can be managed, and within the National Park, this is a positive result.

A second theme of the book lies in tourist motivations. Chapter 4 (James Murdy, 90-110) and Chapter 8 (Tara Rowe & C. Michael Hall, 170-190) discuss motivation in general and volunteer tourism in particular. Rowe and Hall note that the volunteer market is once again becoming an important aspect of youth development (as it was in earlier times), and that this incorporates significant

tourism aspects. Holidays are being taken by professionals and others, which have a prime focus on aiding or alleviating poverty, restoring environments and the like, but which also incorporate tourism for the participant. They also point out that the demand for these holidays in increasing, as is the organisations set up to provide them. Murdy on the other hand provides a more theoretical overview of tourist motivation, much if not all of which has been extensively covered in the literature already. Nevertheless, this review is a wide-ranging and up-to-date analysis and therefore adds considerably to our knowledge of current work in the filed. His call for a more complete model of tourist behaviour will resonate with researchers.

The third major theme covers hotel and other management questions. The chapters by Dimitrios Buhalis (7, 154-169), Ray Leggo (9, 191-201), Paris Tsartas & Dimitris Lagos (10, 202-224), Ian Bickerstaff & Peter Bolan (11, 225-249), and Mohammed Nassar, Eleri Jones & Nigel Morgan (18, 377-399) all contribute to this theme. Buhalis covers the impact of information technologies on tourism industry management, in a review of the changes that have occurred over past decades. He notes that technology continues to present major opportunities and challenges for the industry, and describes how the recent changes in information technology in particular should be used to enhance its performance. Individual suppliers and destinations that are left behind will suffer major competitive disadvantage, and may ultimately be forced out of the marketplace.

Leggo discusses the importance of strategic decision making in yield management. This chapter discusses contemporary issues that are important for tourism and hospitality decision makers to consider in order achieving their revenue and profitability objectives. As such it is a well-presented overview of yield management, with examples that could provide industry operators with some very useful information. Tsartas and Lagos take a wider view, discussing the impact of Greek tourism policy on the management of hotel businesses in that country. Again, the emphasis in terms of policy outcomes is on yield management, discussing the impact of Greek tourism policy on the management of hotel businesses in that country. Structural problems in the Greek hotel industry are identified, and their impact on present and future policy outlined.

Bickerstaff and Bolan advocate 'business process re-engineering' (BPR); a methodology prominent in the early 1990's, as a tailor made solution for those countries that are having trouble in achieving the full GDP contribution that tourism could potentially give them. BPR involves radically redesigning key processes in order to improve organisational performance. This can equally apply to private as well as public organisations, and the authors provide a 10-step methodology that could be appropriate for tourism. The final chapter returns to the theme of business improvement. In this case, Nassar, Jones and Morgan are looking though at the influence of the Internet on business processes within the tourism industry. While their main interest lies in branding of destinations

(marketing), website design, and the 'battle of the Search Engines', their comments are an important contribution to our knowledge of the impact of the Internet. They note that the real opportunity of the Web is not to do things faster and cheaper, but to rethink the business models that are employed, both in terms of delivering value to the customer and in building relationships with customers, suppliers and other business partners. They suggest that 'virtual communities for tourists' will be a powerful marketing tool that will have considerable economic potential in the future.

The fourth major focus of the book is on culture, intellectual property rights, and the dissemination of information to tourists. All these chapters have links with the third theme, but stand out from it in terms of their particular focus on the involvement of local groups in tourism. Robert Inbakaran and Prem Chetri (3, 53-89) outline the operation of regional tourism information centres as both marketing devices and vehicles for community involvement in tourism in Australia. They note that community participation in regional/rural tourism development has become an established norm in that country, and that the voluntary involvement of local people in government funded (partially!) information centres has contributed much to this trend. This system is then assessed for its applicability to the Indian situation. To achieve this, they quite correctly point out that local conditions *must* be kept in mind, otherwise the constraints to such actions will outweigh the likely benefits and little will be achieved.

Mukesh Ranga, (15, 298-315) looks at the situation of tourism marketing in India. This chapter provides an analysis of the current structure of Indian tourism, identifying the actors and programs involved in the development of destinations and their marketing programs. He notes the difficulties faced in terms of infrastructure, training and information for tourists, but also advocates private sector involvement in much of the infrastructure of tourism marketing, including using professional agencies abroad to promote the country rather than having separate government offices in each market. This is an approach that is being implemented by a number of States of Australia also, and is one that should be supported.

Chapters 12 (Alicia Boyle, 248-272), and 13 (Malcolm Cooper & Maggie Asplet, 273-284) take a close look at the marketing, cultural, social, economic, and environmental sustainability of indigenous tourism. While the examples drawn are from Australasia, the comments made are pertinent to all destinations and markets. Boyle describes a scoping study of Australian indigenous tourism that would be used to identify, prioritise and develop broad research proposals that would have the potential to enhance its cultural, social, economic, and environmental sustainability. Boyle also notes that Australia's tourism industry and its indigenous peoples have to date not realised all of the opportunities to capitalise on Australia's unique past and contemporary cultures. For this to be

achieved appropriate mentoring and *empowerment* is critical. Cooper and Asplet carry this last point forward by discussing the importance of explicitly recognising indigenous intellectual property. It will not be possible to go further under existing intellectual property rights protection regimes until rights of cultural autonomy for indigenous peoples are recognised in international law. While noting that the cultural icons presented to tourists in the late 20th and early 21st centuries are often the inventive product of what is by now a long-standing dialogue between indigenous groups and tourism, the increasing ownership of tourism enterprise by indigenous peoples requires not only rights in land and infrastructure but also intellectual property rights in the expression of their cultural heritage. Only in this way will the full economic benefits of cultural tourism accrue to the originators of the cultures being visited.

The final chapter to be discussed, Urban Tourism Destination Management by Walter Jamieson (16, 316-353) also has links with all the major themes, but stands out as a discrete topic on its own. Jamieson provides a well-written overview of the complex web of issues to be addressed in order to manage a destination sustainably. He notes that, along with sound planning, policymaking and the development of realisable marketing strategies, it is essential to treat the ongoing operation of the entire destination and of specific sites within it as crucial elements in the overall destination management process.

In summary, the material in the book as a whole is well presented, with appropriate use of statistics and survey data. Students will find it very useful supplementary reading to set texts in a number of study areas. Its main use however could well be by local and regional tourism development organisations and the tourism industry, as a reference book on where the tourism industry in the 21st century has come from and where it may be going. There is a wealth of data on motivation and acceptable experiences that would materially assist such organisations should they be wishing to further tap into this major economic activity.

In this regard, the one drawback of the book is the lack of a simple executive summary of the major findings linked to relevant chapters, and a list of 'lessons' for the tourism industry from these. Nevertheless, it is a comprehensive and timely review of the phenomenon of tourism for the 21st Century.

by Prof. Malcolm Cooper
Graduate School of Asia Pacific Studies
Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University
Japan

JOURNAL OF H&T www.johat.com

B. GEORGE

Legal Perspectives in Indian Tourism

Mukesh Ranga, Pallavi Gupta & Ashish Chandra
2004, Abhijeet Publications, Delhi,
pp 1-462, Hardcover

Law is a mechanism of regulating human conduct in society. Modern science and technology have unfolded vast prospects and have aroused new ambitions in men. Materialism and individualism are prevailing all spheres of life. These developments and changes have tended to transform the law patently and latently. Law has undergone a vast transformation, conceptual and structural Law must change with the society. In beginning authors attempt to introduce the Tourism and law. In first chapter they have discussed tourism and India's performance in International and Domestic tourism in terms of tourist traffic and receipts. They have also mentioned the Law, its genesis, importance and relationship with tourism.

There are certain laws, which regulate the tourists' immigration, their accommodation, their travel, stay and behaviour etc. Most often there are also certain restrictions on movement of tourists in certain areas of the country. There are also certain laws, which prohibit tourists from doing certain things. This chapter discusses various laws regarding Indian tourists who wish to go abroad or foreigner tourists who wish to come to India. Moreover there are several Persons of Indian Origin (PIO) residing in various parts of the world invariably known as NRIs. The Government of India also gives some benefits to these Persons of Indian Origin in India. A good knowledge of various laws regarding tourists, travel agencies, immigration, passport, visa, customs etc. are essential for everyone. Second chapter discusses the following topics for the benefit of Indian Tourists, Foreign Tourists, NRIs and Tour Operators, Passport, The Passports Act, 1967, Passport Application Registration Form (for Fresh P a s s p o r t) , Passport Application Registration Form (for Damaged Passport), Passport Application Form for Miscellaneous Services on Indian Passports (for Use in India), Affidavits Needed while Applying for Fresh Passports, Replacement of Lost/Damaged Passports or Passports for Miscellaneous Services, PIO Card, Application Form for the Grant/Renewal of PIO Card, Visa, Visa Application Form, Guidelines for Tourists Visiting India, Some More Rules and Regulations Applicable to Foreigners who wish to Stay in India as a Tourist . The Registration of Foreigners Act, 1939, Rules for Recognition as Approved Tour Operator by Department of Tourism, Government of India, Foreign Exchange Management Act, 1999, Foreign Contribution (Regulation) Act, 1976,The Conservation of Foreign Exchange and Prevention of Smuggling Activities Act, 1974, The Customs Act, 1962, The Customs Tariff Act, 1975.

Tourism is also an ever-growing industry. Millions of people are employed in it and are eking out their living. Tour operators, travel agencies, airlines, railroad systems, cruise ships, hotels, motels, shopping malls, arcades, restaurants, food joints, dhabas, inns, serais and many other establishments run for tourists and employ millions of persons. So it is pertinent here to discuss some industrial laws, which are applicable also to tourism industry apart from being applicable to regular industries. Third chapter discusses: The Indian Contract Act, 1872, The Partnership Act, 1932, The Sale of Goods Act, 1930, The Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881, Industrial Dispute Act, 1947, Minimum Wages Act, 1948, Payment of Wages Act, 1936, Payment of Bonus Act, 1965, Payment of Gratuity Act, Maternity Benefit Act, 1961, Workman Compensation Act, Consumer Protection Act, 1986 and related Case Studies.

India is rich in its heritage. Protection and preservation of Indian heritage is must, if anyone has in mind of making tourism a sustainable industry in India. Keeping this thing in mind the Government of India has enacted various laws and taken several measures to protect and preserve this country's rich heritage. In fourth chapter following topics regarding the preservation and protection of heritage is discussed: Archaeological Survey of India, Ancient Monuments Preservation Act, 1904, The Ancient Monuments and Archaeological Sites and Remains Act, 1958, Antiquities and Art Treasures Act, 1972 and related Case Studies.

With the spate of tourist activities near monuments, wildlife sanctuaries and natural sites there develops some long-term ecological concerns. To preserve and protect the ecological wealth of the country and make it sustainable for a long time, the government has initiated several measures and enacted several laws. Last chapter discusses following topics on ecological concerns and sustainable tourism i.e. The Wild Birds and Animals Protection Act, 1912. The Wildlife (Protection) Act, 1972. The Forest Conservation Act, 1980, The Environment (Protection) Act, 1986.

Though there are some shortcomings but the authors have discussed laws related to tourism in a well-presented manner.

by B. George
Senior Lecturer
Madurai Kamraj University,
Tamilnadu (INDIA)

JOURNAL OF H&T www.johat.com

New Approaches in Tourism Management

Mukesh Ranga & Devesh Nigam
(Ed)2003 Abhijeet Publications,
Delhi, pp 1-317, Hardcover

New Approaches in Tourism Management is a well edited and cohesively prepared volume containing several interesting postmodern tourism topics that are very relevant to tourism students and researchers of India. The superfluity of case studies range from adventure tourism, coastal tourism, urban tourism, community based ecotourism, human resource management in tourism industry, environmental protection and tourism education and training. The topics for the chapters have been chosen tastefully for a reader who has focussed on learning about the emergent profile of the modern tourism developments inside India. The major focus of the chapters are towards tourism resources management in India and hence the title of the volume aptly christened new approaches in tourism management.

The editors have taken pains to select very pertinent case studies that are relevant to overseas tourists, tertiary students, university academics and the Indian tourism industry. There are titles such as 'The Challenge of Urban Tourism and Poverty Reduction' by Walter Jamieson and 'Developing a Plan to Protect the Local Culture of a Tourist –based Economy while Promoting Tourism' by Bruce Poster are pertinent to prevailing tourism development in India. Out of the 21 chapters, nine chapters have directly focussed on the sustainable management of tourism resources with in India. Chapters, 'Tourism and the Indian Urban Regeneration'; 'Tourism in Garhwal Himalaya;' 'Community Based Ecotourism and Rural Poverty Reduction'; 'Planning for Adventure Tourism in India'. All of these chapters add valuable tourism resource management dimensions to Indian tourism.

The volume contains some interesting contributions on human resource development, education and training that are important to tourism industry. The inclusion of these chapters has strengthened the look by giving an equal treatment to these areas. The chapter 'The Tourism and Hospitality Industry-The Human Resource Needs for the New Millennium' treats the issue from both global and regional perspectives. However, the observations about the Indian tourism in the chapter could have been more direct. This chapter, 'Tourism Education and Training' attempts to highlight the present status of the tourism and hospitality education. The author has taken great pains to point out the inadequacies in the make up and delivery of the current programs. While the

overall treatment of the issue is satisfactory, a comparative analysis of different regions of India would have given the reader a better perspective. In contrast, the chapter titled 'Providing Quality Professional Acumen for Scientific Management of Tourism Industry: Role of Teachers and Institutions as Pivot of the Process of Education' tackles a very uncommon issue rarely discussed in tourism educational circles. This chapter highlights the need for providing necessary training skills to those who teach in the tertiary system. . Although, it sounds more pertinent to the disciplines such as tourism and hospitality, not many may welcome such recommendations. Many academics would argue that the purpose of tertiary education is to explore and learn the 'Unknown'. The author decries the pursuit of higher learning and research as they have relegated the committed teaching to a second place thanks to the enormous pressure put on the academics to research and publish. While the author has a valid point; this chapter does not seem to fit well with the themes of the volume. The chapter 'Tourism in Garhwal Himalaya: Need for An Aggressive Management' is a good case study assessment. The authors have extensively researched the environmental issues pertaining to tourism and other related industries in the region in question. This chapter offers valuable insights into the various tourism developmental issues in a highly developed tourism destination and goes well with the theme of the volume in all aspects. Instead of attempting to highlight almost all the environmental and cultural issues, the authors could have singled out a few topics of interest and given a more in-depth treatment. The chapter 'Community –based Ecotourism and Rural Poverty Reduction: A Perspective on Indian Tourism Potential and Possibilities' has researched the issues in detail. The treatment of the topic needs special mention, as it is very relevant to the evolving Indian tourism industry of the twenty first century. The issues discussed inside the chapter are aptly pertinent to several tourism resource regions of India. The author has taken pains to show how several overseas community based tourism development models could be relevant to the Indian situation, however, the author does not attempt to provide a model that best suits the Indian conditions.

The chapter' The Challenge of Urban Tourism and Poverty Reduction' is an important contribution and has special reference to India as by 2010 nearly 60 - 70 % of the Indian population will be residing in the over crowded cities. The author has extensively discussed the issues pertaining to urban poverty alleviation through tourism development. The urban tourism stakeholder model discussion is very apt to the evolving tourism scenarios in many developing economies. The chapter blends very well with the theme of the volume.

There are a few short chapters inside the volume with less relevance to the theme of volume. Although their presence does not diminish the reading quality of the edited volume, they fail to click with the rest of the contributions. Despite this shortcoming, this volume will certainly add to the existing tourism literature of

the new millennium concerning developing methodologies of tourism management.

To conclude, this volume gives a snapshot of concerns with regard to the tourism resource management in the beginning of the 21st century. The main strength of the volume comes from its major theme and the support it derives from the chapters. The editors have done well. This volume should become a good reference resource for the postgraduate research and honours students who have ideas to pursue the study of various aspects Indian tourism management. The simple style adopted in most of the chapters would encourage any one to make use of the volume as a reference resource.

by Mervyn Jackson
Department of Psychology & Disability Studies
Faculty of Applied Science, RMIT University
Melbourne, Australia

JOURNAL OF H&T www.johat.com

SAIFUDDIN F. ISMAILJI

BANGKOK'S INCENTIVE – IT & CMA

Saifuddin F. Ismailji

City on the move, Bangkok is the venue of the 11th Incentive Travel and Conference, Meetings Asia (IT&CMA), held from 04 - 06 November, 2003 at the Impact Convention Center, Bangkok. The Event showcasing destinations and companies offering MICE (Meetings, Incentive Conference and Exhibition) products, facilities and services has been organized by TTG Asia Media, the regions leading travel and tourism business information and access provider. This growing niche market event supported by Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), Thai Airways International, Thailand Incentive and Convention Association (TICA), Convention Exhibition Bureau - the main sponsors along with official hotels including the Intercontinental Bangkok (recently shifted in the area of Gaysorn Plaza, near opposite the World Trade Center), Sofitel Central Plaza Hotel, Hotel Plaza Athenee, the Grand Hyatt Erawan, Imperial Queen's Park, Bangkok Marriott Hotel and Spa.

The hub of S.E.Asia, Bangkok has become one of the busiest MICE destinations of the Asia Pacific. Once upon a time, slow paced with proprietary trading shops and homes all around the city with gardens, pools and schools of mosquitoes, Bangkok today is a boomtown, which expanded from formerly paddy fields, between the late 1980's till to date, into an unprecedented skyline. Other than its tourist's attractions, the City has a complete infrastructure to facilitate MICE industry. According to the survey of Thai MICE industry, in 2002 Thailand hosted 1,551 international conventions and meetings, an increase of 45.5 percent over 2002 registering the number of accompanying delegates 59,365, up 23.12 percent over 2001.

Well attended by 271 Exhibiting companies and 277 buyers from 39 countries – a good one-on-one ratio along with a team of fifty six international working media to disseminate information vitale.

On one of the pre-IT&CMA city tours, delegates are transferred

to the impressive site of the Grand Palace. Its vastness spans over an area of 218,400 sq. metres surrounded by fortified walls built in 1783. The complex consists of government offices, Chapel Royal of the Emerald Buddha, monasteries and the Royal residence.

The opening night of 03rd November at Bec Tero Hall at the Bangkok's latest Suanlum Night Bazaar, kicked off the event with thumping drum beats and a taste of some of the unseen treasures of Thailand. Through the Event, delegates experienced a taste of Thai classical cultural evenings.

The opening of the Seminars and the workshops (and the mart site) on 04 November started with the "ice breakers" an entertaining early morning stirrer by Nury Vittachi followed with the key note address "Event Management in Changing Times" by David M. Rich, MPI speaker and Executive Director, program Strategy/ Worldwide (The George P. Johnson Company). A thought provoking and educative speech narrated the changes in market places and the needs of suppliers and speedy delivery in the industry. Mysticism and business – together defines Asia and its service industry, the best possible return on investment (ROI) on marketing budget through comparison of advertising, promotions, sponsored activities and events (trade shows).

Appointment session between buyers and sellers organized the mart activities for the three-day exhibition.

At the end of the day, TTG Honours leading personalities and companies dedicated in fostering the travel and tourism industry: Tourism Authority of Thailand, Thai Airways International, Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA), Richard Gordon, the Secretary of the Philippine Tourism, Cathay Pacific Airways, Air Paradise, Association of Asia Pacific Airlines, Singapore Tourism Board, Hong Kong Tourism Board, IATA, Amadeus Asia, Abacus International, Nuri Vittachi (Author and Satirist) and Tourism Malaysia.

The Grand Hyatt Erawan hosted the late night poolside party to give a taste of Thailand.

On day two absorbing seminar on "Crisis Management for Event Planners and Suppliers" revolved around the ancient Chinese entrepreneur concept of creating opportunity out of a crisis, which is seen in practice through a decade in the S.E. Asian region since the financial crisis to the recent SARS. Preparedness and readiness to address a crisis is the way out to a quick recovery. The next door, interactive workshop on "The Truth Triangle in Life and Business" by Brenda Anderson (CEO, Society of Incentive Travel Executives) remedy the impact of an individual's trustfulness (or otherwise "white lies") on the effective operation (and existence of) of an organization.

Next, the interactive Power Lunch, organized by TAT and TICA "We Say, You Say" involved a panel of high profile leaders in the industry and the audience on the questions relating to the recent and future developments in the Industry. A few interesting questions ad its response as follows:

1. Terrorism, tourism advisories, TV reporting. Can it get any worse for our industry?

Majority response: Can get worse.

2. If SARS reappears, will the impact on our industry as bad (as the first time)?

Unanimous response: Not as bad.

3. Do hotels offer fair rates for MICE business or merely bump up prices?

Mixed Response!

4. What is the biggest challenge you see the industry facing over the next 12 months?

Advised by the panel to educate that majority of the region (Asia Pacific) is safe.

Response: Agree

5. Where do you see your business coming from in the next 12 months?

Unanimous response: Regional (and some from Europe)

6. Are security arrangements an important factor when deciding on a destination?

Unanimous response: Yes – As long as it is hassle-free.

The 2nd day of the Event winds up with a couple of late night functions at the Royal Orchid Sheraton Hotel and Towers and Shangri-La, Bangkok.

The Final day – concluding panel session emphasized the significance of "Creative Marketing for MICE Destinations and Venues." Essentially talking to relevant associations in the local market with an approach to correct, develop and project. Association market is a momentous place to get the destination on the map. It is important that the convention centers, hotels and the NTO's maintain a regular flow of information to keep the world aware MICE services. Soon after Singapore announced SARS free country in the end of May this year, corporate sellers of commodities filled the hotel rooms by 07 June. However, it is cause for concern that USA is still not returning to Asian markets though beginning of things coming in.

In the changing market places, there is a need to sell differently, uniquely. An impressive three word message on the internet sale would incite a potential buyer to open the mail. The key point is to tell a story (of a destination) in a broader sense. As a case study the recent Hong Kong's tourism slogan "Live It, Love IT" is rather old fashioned targeting the youth and shopping class of travelers. A better campaign could initiate to send the message as Hong Kong the gateway to China. Selling Hong Kong alone is tougher.

Marketing executives need awareness that the expectations of purchasers in China and Asian countries are dramatically different than the west.

The hosted lunch "Indonesia Just a Mile Away" ended the successful MICE industry gathering with an announcement for the next year's IT&CMA to be held in Bangkok from 12-14 October, 2004.

The managing director of TTG Asia Media also announced that the CTW (Corporate Travel World) will be held alongside the IT&CMA in 2004 as a "win-win-formula" so that the corporate travel and MICE industry professional earn a maximum benefit from the co-located events.

After the Conference and Mart, delegates spend a few days following into the footsteps of the tourist, exploring some of the many splendors of the megalopolis; the beaches in the south and the hills in the northern parts of the country.

JOURNAL OF H&T
www.johat.com

A SANCTUARY IN THE MAKING

Prof. Wolfgang H. Thome
Chairman, Rhino Fund Uganda
October 2003

The last rhino in the wild were seen in Uganda in the early 80's and then poached out of existence during the lawless years of the Obote II dictatorship, having already suffered decimation during the 70's, when Amin's soldiers made it a sport to shoot such animals on sight.

In the late 90's a group of conservation minded and foresighted people got together to form the Rhino Fund Uganda, and when current Executive Director Yvonne Verkaik came on board, things really started happening.

The funds main objective is of course to return rhino to the wild, but the project is spread over 3 main phases: The first phase was to construct a rhino enclosure and holding boma at the Uganda Wildlife Education Centre in Entebbe, which was achieved some two years ago, when following the creation of the infrastructure two Southern White Rhino were received on very preferential terms from the privately owned and managed Solio Game Reserve, near the Aberdare National Park in the Central Highlands of Kenya.

The second phase would involve securing the funding for the establishment of a main sanctuary and the introduction of initially more Southern White Rhino, before then bringing the Northern White and the Eastern Black into the reserve, the latter two having been indigenous species in Uganda in the past.

The third phase would commence once the carrying capacity of the sanctuary is reached, maybe some 10 – 15 years down the line, with rhino then being released back into a closely supervised situation within protected areas (National Parks and Game Reserves) where they were found before the poaching sprees of the 70's and 80's.

With phase one successfully completed, the Fund obtained use rights to some 18.000 acres of woodlands and savannah in the Luwero region of central Uganda, some 100 miles north of Kampala en route towards the Murchison's Falls National Park. Captain Joe Roy and his wife Daisy, owners of DAS Air and here more important owners of the Ziwa Ranch, granted the Rhino Fund Uganda use rights over initially 30 years free of charge, with a more or less automatic renewals for further such periods of time. The ranch is a model of ranching for the country with excellent vet services and well over 2000 head of prime cattle, after some of the stock were recently moved to a newly acquired second large ranch, also owned by the Roy family. Negotiations are also underway with neighbouring land owners,

who appear willing to either lease or sell outright as much as another 5 – 6 square miles of land to the Rhino Fund, which would make the boundaries and fencing easier, without the current nooks and crannies, where expensive fencing would be required for relatively small enclosed extremities of the current ranch.

With major funding committed to the Rhino Fund by the European Union, work has started in earnest with fencing being a high priority, and the electric fence of course being a major capital expense in the Fund's budget for the year. Buildings offered by Ziwa Ranch for the use by the Rhino Fund have been rehabilitated to accommodate offices, prepare for the arrival of staff, vets and the rangers, and sites have been earmarked recently during a meeting of the Fund's Board of Trustees for a visitors centre, a reception centre, a main entrance gate to the sanctuary and also for a proposed upmarket lodge / tented camp. The next step will be the construction of holding bomas, to receive relocated rhinos by maybe April 2004, before they can, after intense monitoring of their behaviour, be released into the greater sanctuary. Uganda Wildlife Authority will be providing trained armed rangers, who will be equipped by the Fund, to provide 24/7 monitoring of the precious animals, once they reach the sanctuary.

Additional funding from other donors such as the UNDP and Dutch agencies, have already made provisions for at least 5 rhinos to be purchased, and pledges from the US for bringing rhinos back to Africa will add at least 2 more to the count. More money is promised in the future by the Fund's donors and will bring the rhino count well above the recommended minimum number to start a breeding programme. There is confidence amongst Rhino Fund supporters in Uganda, that within a year of opening at least 15 – 18 rhino will roam the sanctuary.

An airstrip has also been prepared, covering about 1100 meters in length, accommodating with ease the commonly used Cessna's, Pipers and LET 410's, which the domestic carriers operate for scheduled and non scheduled flights around the country, and optional stops enroute to Murchison's main field are projected for clients wishing to fly in rather than drive the 2+ hours from Kampala on generally well maintained tarmac roads, before turning into the sanctuary on good murram.

Having witnessed the success of such programmes in Kenya, where Solio and Lewa Downs took the lead in the 70's and 80's to have rhino on their ranches, which later on led to the official creation of Lake Nakuru National Park as the Kenya's first rhino sanctuary, before constructing another special sanctuary below the Ngulia escarpment in Tsavo West National Park and affording special protective attention to the rhinos found in other national parks, I was always a great believer that we in Uganda could achieve that too, learning from the solutions developed by our friends across the border and making use of their experiences in the early years of the Kenyan sanctuaries, to quickly move towards

the opening of our own. Cooperation across the border has been excellent, with free advice and preferential prices for the first two rhinos acquired from Solio, and it is hoped that this trend is to continue in the common quest towards bringing the rhino back to the East African wilderness areas.

All it took as a start was a few committed individuals with the vision and the iron will, to move their agenda forward and bring development partners and government agencies on board for official sanction and support. Once the momentum was gathered, the Rhino Fund Uganda became a focal point for other such initiatives as well as for the Rhino re-introduction, and the arrival of Yvonne as the woman in charge was a stroke of luck for the Fund and the country, as she is devoting her professional life to the objectives of the Fund, just as Jane Goodall did all these years with the chimps. She has become the Rhino Lady of Uganda after leaving the comforts of Holland behind to make an impact for the good of the rhinos in her adopted home Uganda.

For more details on the Fund and how to become a member or donor visit www.rhinofund.org or write to yverkaik@rhinofund.org.

JOURNAL OF H&T
www.johat.com

Erratum

We apologize for printing mistake in our last issue of Journal; details of some authors could not be published.

The Travel Balance Approach and Contributing factors to Tourism Rejuvenation in Australia and New Zealand was a combined contribution of **Christine Lim**, Senior Lecturer at Griffith University, Australia, **Dr Juergen Gnoth** is a Senior Lecturer at Otago University New Zealand, **Prof. Rex S. Toh** is a Professor at Seattle University, U.S.A.

Dr Juergen Gnoth is faculty member in Department of Marketing University of Otago, New Zealand. Juergen Gnoth's research interest lie in tourism behaviour, Services marketing and Societal Issues in Marketing. His behavioural studies center around emotions, intention formation and satisfaction measurement. In Services Marketing he concentrates on destination Branding and network theory. He is also, Associate Editor - Research Notes in ANNALS OF TOURISM RESEARCH.

Prof. Rex S. Toh is the Director of the Marketing Program at Seattle University. He has published nearly 60 journal articles in the areas of research methodology, transportation/logistics, and the travel/hospitality industry. Among other things, he serves on the editorial boards of the ANNALS OF TOURISM RESEARCH and TOURISM ANALYSIS.

JOURNAL OF H&T www.johat.com

Instructions For Contributors

Manuscripts Reviews Submissions will be reviewed by a double-blind review process and will be published based on the recommendations of reviewers and discretion of the editors. Submissions to JOHAT can be processed efficiently only if they are prepared according to these guidelines.

Send Manuscripts To Mukesh Ranga Editor, **Journal of Hospitality and Tourism,** TH-2, Bundelkhand University Campus, Jhansi, Uttar-Pradesh (INDIA). E-mail-m_ranga@johat.com

Copyright: All articles published in **Journal of Hospitality and Tourism** become the Journal's copyright with future rights reserved. However, this does not affect the author's/authoress' rights to use the material.

Manuscripts Submission Manuscripts must be submitted in triplicate and be prepared to include the following sections: title page, abstract/keywords, manuscript text, references, tables/figures, acknowledgements (if applicable). Only one copy of the manuscript should include a title page with manuscript title, author's name, I academic degree, present position, complete address (including telephone/fax/ e-mail) as well as a brief biography (at the bottom of page) indicating academic field, degree (including year and institution), title and affiliation, and research interests. The cover page for the other two copies should only show article title. Manuscripts should be typewritten on one side of the paper in 12 fonts New Times Roman; double spaced (including references), and should be checked carefully. Article should not be more than 30 pages in length. Submitted manuscripts should not have been published elsewhere. However, if a longer/shorter version or translation of a previously published article is being submitted, a photocopy of the original publication must be included. Text preparation on disk The electronic version on disk should be sent with the paper to the editor.

The hard copy and electronic files must match exactly.

Abstracts, Keywords and Summaries: Authors should include an abstract of 150-200 words and up to 6 key words. Abstracts should contain an abbreviated representation of the content of the manuscript. Major results, conclusions, and/ or recommendations should be given, followed by supporting details of method, scope, or purpose as appropriate.

References Within Text: Citations in the text should include the author's last name, and year of publication enclosed in parentheses without punctuation. For example, (Sonmez 1994) or (Crompton 1979, 1982) or (Yucelt and Marcella 1996) or (Fesenmaieretal.1994) or (Dener 1995: 14-21) (for quoted material). No footnotes or endnotes should be included.

References: All cited references must be given in full, including the volume, issues, and page numbers. The list of all references should be placed at the end of the paper, arranged in alphabetical order by authors' last names, as shown in examples below.

Periodicals / Journals: Palmer, A., & Bejou, D. (1995). Tourism Destination marketing alliances. Annals of Tourism Research, 22(3), 616-629.

Books: Porter, M. (1980). Competitive strategy: Techniques for analysing industries and competitors. New York: Free Press.

Chapters in edited book: Walton, M. and Wilcox, L.A.R. (1996). Role of Women in Travel and Tourism. In R. Shah, M. Polen, and G. Mars (Eds.), *VPR* '5 Encyclopedia of Hospitality and Tourism (pp. 798-810). New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Internet: Jacobson,J. W, Mulick, J.A., & Schwartz, A.A. (1995). A history of facilitated communication: Science, pseudoscience, and antiscience: Science working group on facilitated communication. American Psychologist, 50,750-765. Retrieved January 25,1996 from the World Wide Web: http:/ /www.apa.org/journals/jacobson.htmi

Tables, Illustrations / Diagrams and Photographs: All supplements to the manuscript text should be professionally done, should be enclosed on separate pages, and the place where they are to be printed must be clearly marked in the text (i.e., 'figure 1 here'). Tables should be intelligible without reference to the text and should include a title caption and headings for columns. Very wide or very long tables should be avoided.

Illustrations/ diagrams must be clear, suitable for direct reproduction (camera ready) and should include a title caption. Lettering should be large enough to be legible after reduction to printing size. The first author's name and figure number should be lightly pencilled on the reverse side of the sheet. Captions for illustrations/ diagrams should be included on separate pages at the end of the manuscript. Photographs should be submitted unmounted on white glossy paper (slides are not acceptable). These pages should not be numbered.

Shorter items: Responses to the articles should be 500-1000 words, book reviews and new pieces 250-500 words. Notices of forthcoming meetings for listing in the calendar section are welcomed. Entries must be received at least six months before the date of event.

Proofs: Proofs may not be sent to authors. Authors are therefore advised to prepare the manuscripts with utmost care.

SUBSCRIPTION ORDER FORM

Subscription rates are as

Intuitional	Individuals/Academicians and Professionals	Students
70 US$	50 US$	40 US$
1000 INR	800 INR	600 INR

I would like to subscribe to the **"Journal of Hospitality and Tourism"**

Volume _____ Year _____

Enclosed cheque/DD number _____ dated _____ for

Rs./US$ _____

Drawn on _____ in favour of **Cultural and Environment Conservation Society,** Payable at Jhansi, Uttar Pradesh (INDIA)

Subscriber's Details

Name and Designation _____

Organisation _____

Postal Address _____

Phone (with STD/ISD Code) _____ Fax _____

E-mail _____

Date Place

Signature and Seal

JOURNAL OF H&T
www.johat.com

Contents (Last issue)

VOLUME 1 NUMBER 1 2003 ISSN : 0972-7787

Walter Jamieson
Pawinee Sunalai
Canada
Village-based Tourism as a Form of Community Development

Rachel JC Chen
Gene L Brothers
Larry D Gustke
USA
A Comprehensive Travel and Tourism Study of the Blue Ridge Parkway, USA

Adriana Galvani
Italy
Sustainable Tourism from Rio to Johannesburg

Dimitris Lagos
Leonidas A Papakonstantinidis
Greece
Integrated Total Quality Tourism Management and Sustainable Development

Juergen Gnoth
Rex S. Toh
Christine Lim
Australia
The Travel Balance Approach and Contributing Factors to Tourism Rejuvenation in Australia and New Zealand

ZHANG Mu
LU Li-ming
China
Research on the Tourist Exploitation of Tourist Destination

Sompong Amnuay-Ngerntra
Thailand
Interpretation and Heritage Tourism: A Case of Wat Arun in Thailand

Dr Lawal M. Marafa
Hong Kong
Sustainable tourism and Ecotourism: Searching for a niche in the Hong Kong tourism industry

Hu Wei-ping
Zhang Zheng-sheng
Guangzhou
Tourist Market and Urban Park Development: A Case Study Of Guangzhou

NOTES & REPORTS

Marco Agustoni
Switzerland
Travels in the time of warfare

Tayyab Mir
Pakistan
Polo – The Game of Kings

SEMINARS

India
BR Ambedkar University, Agra

Culture & Environment Conservation Society
TH-2, Bundelkhand University Campus, Jhansi, India
Ph + 91 0517 2321082 • Email m_ranga@johat.com