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## Editor's Dias

The present issue of journal provides conceptually sound, rich in imperial cases that highlights the current challenges in tourism. Prof. Magi in "To Recreate Or Conserve That Is The Question: The Case Of Lake St Lucia" discusses that Lake St Lucia is one of the South Africa's World Heritage sites, which is facing ecological imbalance. Here a balance has to be strike between recreation and conservation. The study advocates for a middle of the ground approach to natural resources utilization, which would achieve sustainability and high levels of recreation experience. Hanna A. Fayed, Hoda Lotoif and Ghada Abdala insights into "Tourism Liberalization: Challenges For Tourism Development In Egypt" tried to evaluate new opportunities for trade in general services and international trade in tourism by globalization, liberalization and new information technology with special reference to Egypt for building domestic service capacity and improving competitiveness of tourism services. The study by Sanj-MI Jeon, Alastair Morrison Ismail, Sheryl F. Kline, Alastair M., Ismail, Sherl F. Kline So Young kang, is about "Us Citizen Images Of South Korea As A Travel Destination" that was performed on US citizens interested in travel and more specifically in South Korea. Here Internet is analyzed as a very effective tool which can establish more effective marketing strategies aimed at potential US visitors required. Research Paper by Kannapa Pongponrat, Dr Soparth Pngquan, Dr Shiv Ganesh Shivakoti is "Initiation Of Participatory Tourism Planning By Local Government : Case Study Of Community Cleaning Day, Koh Samui, Surat Thani Proviance Courthern Thiland" that provide information of community participation and cycle, which is analyzed through factors associated with intensity of people participation i.e. degree of satisfaction on environment conservation, benefit gained by resources management and on increasing productivity, level of education, occupation and ethnicity of respondents.

Dr Razaq Raj by his research "Identifying Econimic Imapcts Of Events On Host Communities: Creating Expression Of Local Heritage Through

Outdoor Events" aimed to evaluate economic, social and tourism impact of Bradford Festival Carnival to it's local community. The paper of Ahmad Azmi M.Ariffin,Nor Khomar Ishak "Corporate Meetings Destination Choice: The Effect Of Organizational Structure" proposes that incentive travel is actually a reward participants receive for achieving or exceeding a goal ,the selection criteria for destination is expected to differ substantially with those general corporate meeting destination. In his research Lawal Mohammad Marafa "The Role of Tourism in achieving the millennium Developments Goals Marketing Of Eco Tourism "recommended that where investment is encouraged and facilitated, the private sector can be deployed as a driver of sustainable development as a contributor to the quality of life of the people and culture that touches. On the suggestion of esteemed editorial board, I am delighted to inform that we are starting first online issue in 2007, which will be available shortly at <http://www.johat.com>. The feedbacks, suggestions, opinions for up gradation are openly invited for the beneficiation of its readers.

(Mukesh Ranga)



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Editor

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# To Recreate or Conserve that is the Question: The Case of Lake St Lucia, South Africa.

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**Abstract:** Lake St Lucia and surroundings parks, constitute the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park, one of South Africa's World Heritage Sites. This recreation and tourism destination is presently facing increasing ecological attention, as well as the ever-increasing numbers of visitors. These greater numbers of people participating in outdoor recreation activities, result in greater pressure and various impacts on the natural environment. The challenge to the authorities is whether to encourage more recreation participation or conservation of the environment. This paper explores the perceptions of local communities and recreationists visiting the park, about what form recreation activities should be promoted between recreation and conservation. The sub-focus of the paper is also on the awareness of local communities and recreationists of the impacts of recreation usage and engagement in outdoor recreation activities. The main findings of the study are that there are significant levels of unawareness of the impact of recreation activities on the natural environment in the study area.

**Keywords:** Recreationist, Outdoor Recreation, Conservation, Tourism, Perception, Awareness.

## Introduction

The idea of maintaining a sustainable balance between the utilisation of recreation facilities or their commercial exploitation and the conservation of natural resources and environments, has been a site of struggle and unending debate. This kind of debate, in the study area, is pursued and involves levels of awareness that vary from individual to individual, in local communities, tourists and recreationists, and recreation authorities. Pertaining to the inestimable value of the Lake St Lucia and Parks, it has been argued that natural and wetland environments in South Africa as a whole, can be conserved more effectively by preserving the way they are perceived culturally and socially by local communities (Mangqalaza, 2005).

Fundamentally, this paper seeks to shed more light on the preservation-commercialization debate of natural resources, in the context of perceived recreation impacts on the natural environment at the Lake St Lucia. It aims at revealing how stakeholders: the community, tourists and authorities, in the study area perceive the effects of various types of recreation activities on the natural environment.

## **The Study Setting**

The Lake St Lucia and Park environment is one of the most popular tourists holiday destinations in South Africa on the North Coast of KwaZulu-Natal. The Greater St Lucia Wetland Park is receiving in excess of approximately 12 000 visitors per month on average. Characteristically, it is receiving more domestic tourists than internationals, both of which are increasing by an average of 8% annually (TKZN 2004). The popularity of Lake St Lucia and Parks began to climb when its four sites: wetland system, coastal-lake system, estuary and river system, were inscribed on the Ramsar list of protected areas of international importance ([www.environment.gov.za](http://www.environment.gov.za) 2006). With the Ramsar inscriptions achieved, the Greater St Lucia Wetland was then declared in July, 1999 as the first World Heritage Site in South Africa.

The Lake St Lucia environment has two fundamental natural features which attract tourist and recreationists to the area. These are: (a) the Lake St Lucia which is an 38 682 hectares of natural water with a surface area of 387 sq. km, and (b) the ocean which has an open beach and the highly vegetated dunes. Lake St Lucia is the central feature and is regarded as the largest estuary in Africa that is linked by 20 kilometres of tidal channel to the India Ocean. In the context of the Lake St Lucia environment and its increased tourist attraction capacities, this study seeks to pay attention to the impacts that are perceived to have emerged with participation of tourists and recreationists in recreation activities.

## **Conceptual Framework**

For better understanding of the discussion in this paper, some of the concepts are clarified or defined so as to remove notions of ambiguity and doubt. Some concepts which form the hub of this study are explained in the next section as follows:

### **Recreator / Recreationist**

These concepts are synonymously and interchangeably used, and refer to individuals that participate in leisure and recreation activities during their unobligated time (Torlkildsen 2004). The term favoured in this study is 'recreationist' which refers to a person pursuing, seeking or engaged in recreation activities, as well as visiting recreation areas (Magi 1992).

### **Leisure and Recreation**

In the context of this discussion these terms are closely interrelated, and are used interchangeably though not synonymously. The terms at times mean

different things to different people, and do generate some confusion if used indiscriminately. The simplest distinction is to identify leisure with time, (specifically with unobligated time) and recreation with activities undertaken voluntarily for pleasure and satisfaction during that time (Pigram 1983). This explanation is not always true, at times recreation is associated with free time in the Western societies and obligated time in African societies. It is important to note that a relationship between leisure, recreation and tourism, fundamentally hinges on leisure, which significantly covers both recreation and tourism. On the other hand, both recreation and tourism are related to one another, with a section of their focus operating outside the realm of leisure. Outdoor recreation relates to activities pursued within and around a body of water ([www.kznwildlife.com](http://www.kznwildlife.com), 2006). It should be recognised that there has been a variety of perception and awareness studies (Magi 1986; Gumede 1998) that have attempted to reveal how local communities, recreationists, tourists, conservationists and wildlife offers respond to the recreation impacts on the natural environment (Magi 1992; Duffus and Dearden 1990; Berjak 1998; Mkhabela 2000).

## **Impact on conservation**

Objectively the concept "impact" can either represent a positive or negative change. Impacts can also be acceptable or unacceptable. In this study the concept is used to mean the negative impacts of recreation activities. Impacts do not occur in isolation and there is no single, predictable environmental response to recreation use. Single activities may cause multiple impacts and each impact tends to exacerbate or compensate for other impacts. An interrelated set of impacts that may follow can potentially affect soil, flora, fauna, and the air. The impacts caused by recreation use can be direct, indirect, or cumulative. Some of the impacts are obvious while others are different to identify (Hammitt and Cole 1887; Kuse et al. 1990a). Direct impacts are observable and obvious changes in the environmental components and processes that result from certain recreation activities (Erickson 1994). It is anticipated that these impacts are environmental changes playing a role in the study area and should be linked to certain recreation activities pursued at the Lake St Lucia.

With regard to the incremental impacts of recreation activities on the environment, these can be translated to cumulative impacts. These kinds of impacts result from the incremental impacts of recreation activities. These impacts can result from individually minor but significant actions taking place over a period of time (Prestine and Bedford 1988). They may also initially seem to be essentially insignificant but may accumulate and become additive

in a habitat over a period of time (Erickson 1994). These environmental influences are of concern because they can easily lead to a piecemeal degradation or loss of key environmental components and attributes. This study seeks to establish whether overuse of the environment in the Lake St Lucia area may lead to the need to enhance conservation in the study area. If left unattended, the negative impacts on the environment may lead to the degradation of the resource, harassment or disturbance of aquatic wildlife, reduction of the aesthetic quality of the resources, deterioration of water quality due to pollution, sedimentation, turbidity, and contamination (Kuss et al. 1989; McGwynne et al. 1996). In addition, the impacts may stem from an ever-increasing participation of recreationists in outdoor recreation activities.

## **Objectives of The Study**

Greater frequencies in recreation participation combine with significantly large numbers of people engaging in recreation activities, result in greater pressure and more impacts on the natural environment (Nzama 2000). Environmental impacts such as degradation of the resource, disturbance of wildlife, destruction of plants, pollution, reduced water quality and deterioration of the natural conditions of water bodies, are largely associated with increased participation in recreation activities. This situation has been recorded in some localities, and this paper seeks to report what obtains at Lake St Lucia. Understandably, the degradation of such resources would reduce both present and future benefits that the local community can derive from the Lake St Lucia and Parks environment and resource.

Accordingly, this study reports on the impacts of outdoor recreation activities on the natural environment and related resources. The focus of this study is therefore four-fold, that is to:

- (a) Explore existing relationships between visitation and participation patterns at St Lucia Lake.
- (b) Reveal levels of awareness of how outdoor recreation participation at Lake St Lucia, impacts on the natural environment.
- (c) Establish whether recreationists are mindful of the effects of ever-increasing numbers of visitors to the study area.
- (d) Indicate the perceived role of conservation, during participation in outdoor recreation activities in the study area.

In the context of the utilisation of recreation facilities for commercial

purposes versus the conservation of natural resources and environments, this paper will highlight the importance of perceptions of different users of recreation activities, such as domestic tourists, international visitors, boaters, swimmers and picnickers, and eco-recreationists, towards generating impacts on the environment. These impacts could either enhance the degradation or conservation of the natural environment.

## **Methodology**

This paper reports on the findings of ongoing research that is conducted at the Lake St Lucia in KwaZulu-Natal. In establishing the empirical basis of this study, data were collected at Lake St Lucia covering the estuary, the lake, the beach, wetlands and the town (See Figure 1). The categories of individuals interviewed include the local community, business people, domestic and international tourists, recreationists such as boaters, swimmers, picnickers, and eco-tourists and eco-recreationists, as well as administrators and workers of the KZN Ezemvelo Wildlife. A stratified random sample size of 600 respondents was targeted, surveyed using a person-to-person interview schedule. Finally 520 respondents covering the categories given above, responded to the questionnaires.

The sample-size of respondents was as follows: 109 local community of potential recreationists; 254 domestic tourists or recreationists, 141 international tourists or recreationists, 18 of which were eco-tourists; and 16 Lake St Lucia administrators (4) and maintenance workers (12). The data was collected mainly during the summer and winter seasons of the year, and the questionnaire was composed mainly of structured or close-ended questions. The collected data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences [SPSS] computer programme. The analysed data was presented through usage of frequency tables and columnar graphs. These data representation measures facilitated the analysis and interpretation of data, which sought to justify the extent to which recreation impacts affect the natural environment at Lake St Lucia.

## **Findings of the Study**

The findings of this study are based, not only on the objectives that were put forward earlier, but also on important recreation processes that would assist elucidate the views and actions of recreationists, regarding the impact of their recreation activities on the natural environment. In addition, the findings are based on the perceptions of recreationists towards the impacts resulting from participating in outdoor recreation activities. The findings of the

study are therefore discussed under the following headings: participation in recreation activities; awareness of recreation activities and related impacts on the environment; the effects of ever-increasing visitors, and the role of conservation in outdoor recreation participation.

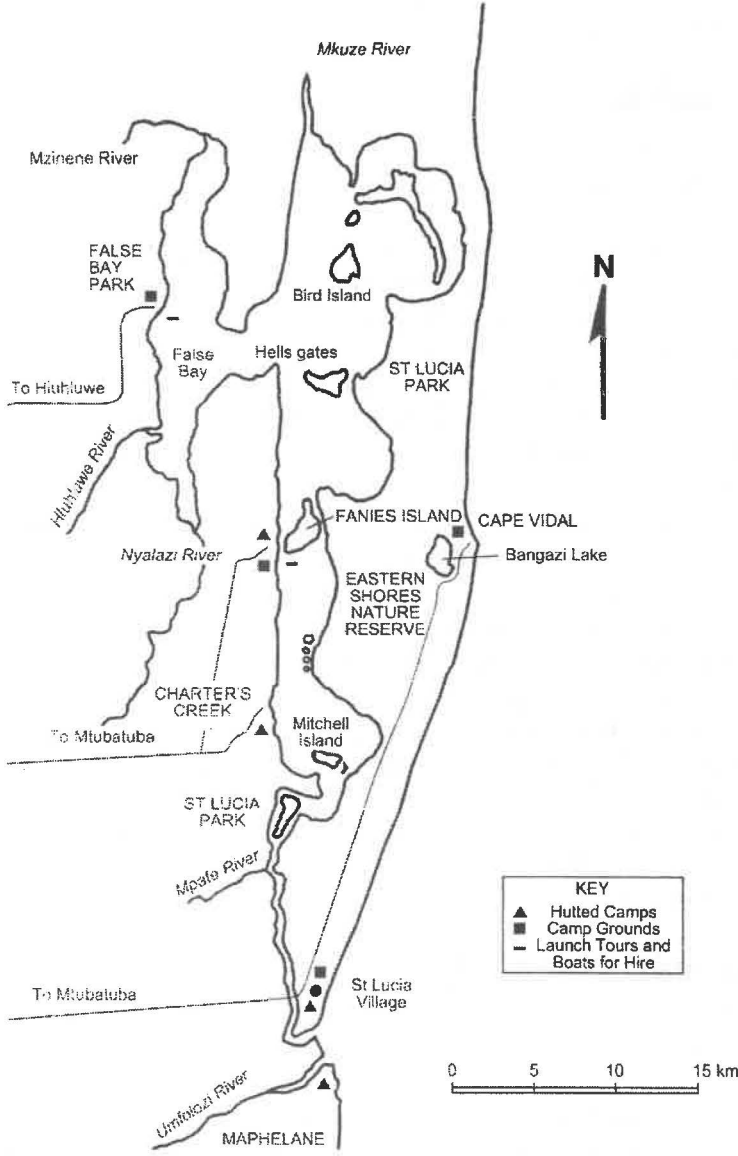


Figure 1 : Location Map of Lake St. Lucia



## Participation in Recreation Activities

One of the main objectives of the paper was to determine the recreation visitation and participation patterns of recreationists in the study area. To that end, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they visited and participated in recreation activities at Lake St Lucia. As shown in Figure 1 the respondents, on the whole, indicated that they participated, visited and are somehow aware of outdoor recreation activities at Lake St Lucia.

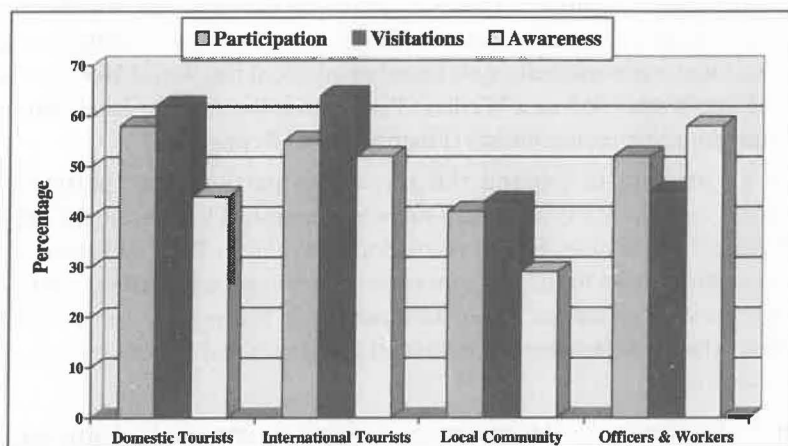


Figure2 : Outdoor Recreation Participation Pattern At Lake St Lucia

More specifically, the domestic [58%] and international [55%] tourists or recreationists indicated that they participated in outdoor recreation. Whereas, only 41 percent of the local community and 48 percent of the Lake St Lucia officers and workers indicated that they participated in outdoor recreation activities in their own rights during their leisure or free time. The justification for these outcomes is that tourists or recreationists actually responded to this question when they were participating in outdoor recreation activities. The local community members and workers that were at the recreation facility responded moderately because their participation arrangements were neither leisure-time based, or self-induced. It seems employment requirements were the motivating factor.

Pertaining to visitation to outdoor recreation facilities, the responses of subjects were somewhat similar to the participation responses. Relatively 62 percent of domestic tourists, 64 percent of international tourists, as well as 43 percent of the local community and 45 percent of the officers and workers of KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife, revealed that they visited the outdoor recreation facilities. On the one hand, it is evident that both domestic and international

recreationists perceive visitations to be relatively more intense than participation. On the other hand, the local community members and employees of KZN Wildlife perceived very little variation in responses between participation and visitation to water-related recreation facilities.

With regard to awareness of outdoor recreation facilities and activities, it became apparent that, surprisingly so, the international visiting recreationists [52%] and the employees of KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife [58%], were more relatively more aware of outdoor outdoor recreation facilities than the domestic tourists [44%] and local communities [29%]. This outcome may be justified by the fact that more internationals know more about the World Heritage Site status of the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park than is the case for local communities and domestic recreationists (Financial Mail Report 2005 ).

In an attempt to expand the recreation participation patterns of recreationists in the study area, respondents were asked to indicate the notion of enjoyment of participation in recreation activities at Lake St Lucia. The latter was an addition to the recreation views relating participation, visitation and awareness expressed in this section earlier. In this regard, Table 1 shows the cross-tabulation between recreationist categories and the enjoyment general statement.

**Table 1: Perception Of Recreationists Towards Enjoyment Of Participation In Recreation Activities Of Their Choice**

Recreationist Categories	Responses					Total
	SA	A	N	D	SD	
Domestic	2%	17%	9%	4%	1%	33%
International	2%	20%	4%	8%	2%	36%
Potential	1%	1%	16%	4%	3%	25%
Employee	1%	1%	3%	1%	0%	6%
Total	6%	39%	32%	17%	6%	100%

[N = 520] SA =Strongly Agreed, A =Agreed, N =Neutral, D =Disagree, SD =Strongly Disagree

The statement with a caption: "I thoroughly enjoyed participating in any recreation activity of my choice", revealed that most international recreationists [22%] out of 36 percent revealed that they enjoyed their recreation activities at Lake St Lucia. Similarly, most domestic recreationists [19%] also agreed with the statement. It seems obvious the recreationists that were interviewed enjoyed participation in outdoor recreation activities at Lake St Lucia because of its natural endowment with resources and its World Heritage Site status. Interestingly the potential recreationists or local community members [16%]

and the Lake St Lucia employees [3%] were neutral or not sure about the notion of enjoyment of participation in recreation activities at Lake St Lucia.

Following on the revelation of participation related to visitation, awareness and enjoyment of respondents, it becomes imperative to investigate further the awareness of participation impacts of recreation activities on the environment as well as how the introduction of foreign bodies into water systems affects the environment.

### **Awareness of Recreation Participation Impacts on the Environment.**

The study also attempted to find out if recreationists were aware of the impacts of their participation on the natural environment. Essentially, it was their participation in outdoor recreation activities, which had an effect on the natural environment. To achieve this, respondents were provided with pre-selected statements describing impacts resulting from participating in recreation activities. The findings of the responses are shown in Table 1. In fact the respondents were given a list of impacts which could result from participation in outdoor recreation activities. The findings indicated that generally, recreationists were aware of impacts which result from participating in recreation activities. It is worth noting that more than half (54 percent) of the recreationists agreed that recreation activities change the characteristics of the water body. It is however also important to point out that while respondents were aware that impacts change the character of the water, most of them did not agree that impacts also result from the recreation activities which originate from the shore and from the watershed. Respondents were equally divided on the issue of the use of the shoreline causing it to be unstable. At Lake St Lucia, there are many recreation activities which take place on the shore, for example, shoreline fishing, picnicking, and so on.

The majority of these recreation activities could result in both direct and indirect impacts. These impacts are discussed in some detail later in this paper. As shown in Table 2, it is evident that on the whole the respondents were not sure about the awareness of impacts associated with recreation participation. It is therefore of concern that more recreationists [41%] do not agree and strongly disagree that impacts also originate from some recreation activities occurring on the shore. Only 37 percent agree and strongly agree about the origins of impacts. Also of concern is the number of recreationists [46%] who agree and strongly agree that impacts also originate from recreation activities occurring in the watershed.

Notwithstanding the fact that 34 percent of the respondents disagreed

and 32 percent were not sure that the use of the shoreline recreation can make the shore to be unstable, some studies (Cole and Landres 1995) have, indicated that shoreline recreation activities such as shore-based fishing and other forms of recreation activities can alter the flow regimes and eliminate the protective cover afforded by overhanging banks. Trampling affects both above-ground and below-ground plant structures. These impacts directly injure or destroy plants in various stages of their life circle and can seriously impair growth, development and reproduction processes. Shore-based recreation activities can also contribute nutrient influxes (Dickman and Dorais 1977).

**Table 2 : Awareness of Impacts Resulting from Participating in Recreation Activities (%)**

STATEMENTS OF IMPACT	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. Recreation activities change the characteristics of the water-body	22%	32%	14%	20%	12%
2. Impacts also originate from some recreation activities occurring on the shore	13%	24%	22%	24%	17%
3. Impacts in the water body also originate from recreation activities occurring in the watershed	16%	14%	24%	28%	18%
4. Recreation activities can alter the reproductive patterns of certain animal species	23%	32%	22%	13%	10%
5. Recreation activities can harm or lead to death of wildlife	22%	17%	28%	18%	15%
6. Recreation activities can lead to the extinction of certain plant and animals life	18%	14%	20%	22%	26%
7. Recreation activities, involving boat rides can increase nitrogen and phosphorus	16%	10%	38%	23%	13%
8. The use of the shoreline can make the shore to be unstable.	9%	25%	32%	19%	15%
9. Recreationists produce pollutants in the water bodies such as oil, solid waste and sediments.	22%	26%	23%	13%	16%
10. Layers of boat oil reduce light penetration and this restrict activity of plants and animals	14%	18%	38%	17%	13%

[N=520] SA-[Strongly Agree] A-[Agree] N-[Neutral] D-[Disagree] SD-[Strongly Disagree]

Despite that the majority of respondents [66%] were uncertain and disagreed that the use of the shoreline can make the shore to be unstable, it has been reported that heavy shoreline use of the lake not only accelerates soil erosion leading to an influx of nitrates into the water, but they also influence water clarity, an important indicator of water quality for recreation purposes. Furthermore, it was gratifying to note that a significant number of respondents [48%] were fully aware of the fact that recreationists produce pollutants in the water bodies such as oil, solid waste and sediments. Only 29 percents of the respondents were not aware of this process. Literature also indicated that direct ecological impacts on water resources are sometimes caused by

the intentional or careless discarding of toxic and solid wastes into the water by boaters, fishermen or who use water resources as a dumping ground (Kuss et al. 1990a, 1990b).

Studies on recreation that relate to impacts have also focused on nutrient enrichment of the water. The findings of this study indicate that only 26 percent of the recreationists are aware that boats can increase the amount of nutrients in the water, whereas 36 percent disagreed and 38 percent were not sure that boats could increase nutrients in the water. The lack of awareness about these outcomes may be associated with the lack of technical knowledge of many of the respondents about these matters.

Also worth reiterating is that 48 percent of recreationists agreed that major sources of pollutants in water bodies such as oil products, solid wastes and sediments are produced by recreationists, and only 29 percent disagreed with the statements. These figures indicate that about 29 percent of the respondents do not agree that they, through their participation can increase pollutants in the environment. Studies have indicated that pollutants may enter the water as a direct result of recreation use, as when surface films of oil and gasoline pollute the lake with heavy motorboat use (Liddle and Scorgie 1980; Hammitt and Cole 1987). Water pollution depletes oxygen and alters aquatic plant and animal growth and survival. When recreationists are using the water for recreation purposes they sometimes pollute water by throwing food waste, beverage cans, and so on, all of which have a negative impact on the aquatic ecosystem. Interestingly, as reflected in Table 2, this study does not show outright awareness of impacts resulting from these pollutants.

## **Awareness of the Effects of Everincreasing Visitors at Lake St. Lucia**

One of the objectives of this paper sought to establish the extent to which recreationists are mindful of the effects of ever-increasing visitors that can adversely affect the outdoor recreation environment. In other words, it sought to find out if outdoor recreation activities are perceived to have the capacity to attract more visitors that in turn adversely affect the natural environment. To establish these matters, the respondents had to express their opinions whether they felt the introduction and presence of more visitors in the study area, negatively affect the environment. In this regard the subjects had to say whether they strongly agreed or strongly disagreed, on the basis of seven pre-selected statement or environmental descriptors relating to visitors to the study area, as shown in Table 3. Most of these statements reflect some varying impacts on the environment.

The findings in Table 3 indicate that on average, most recreationists agreed

[48%] and strongly agreed [22%] that over increased visitors affect the natural resources negatively. This is a clear suggestion that most recreationists are aware that the increased numbers at resources will affect the environment negatively. In addition, 46 percent of the respondents agreed and 21 percent strongly agreed that a congested Lake St Lucia will negatives impact on the natural environment. Interestingly, the majority of respondents [60%] disagreed that pollution of the natural environment is encouraged by too many visitors to the resource. A significant number of respondents were uncertain about the following statements: 'good resource management will always save the natural resource from degradation' [32%]; 'conservation of the Lake is far better than open recreation for all visitors' [37%]; 'it is better to have more visitors to the Lake because they bring more money' [29%]; 'the Lake St Lucia authorities must make laws that discourage overcrowding at the resource' [28%]. In all four preceding statements, none of the subjects responded either positive or negatively to the statement. This suggests that there was uncertainty about how to react. The respondents have tended to balance out between those who advocate for more recreation as a source of money and those favour conservation for purposes sustainably utilising the natural environment.

**Table 3 : Responses on whether increased visitor-numbers affect the Natural Environment.**

STATEMENTS ON THE NATURAL ENVIRONMENT	SA	A	N	D	SD	%
1. Over increased visitors affect the natural resources negatively	22%	48%	5%	16%	9%	100
2. A congested Lake St Lucia will negatives impact on the natural environment	21%	46%	12%	11%	10%	100
3. Pollution of the natural environment is encouraged by too many visitors	4%	16%	20%	22%	38%	100
4. Good resource management will always save the natural resource from degradation	6%	28%	32%	27%	7%	100
5. It is better to have more visitors to the Lake because they bring more money	7%	22%	29%	15%	27%	100
6. Conservation of the Lake is far better than open recreation for all visitors.	11%	22%	37%	26%	4%	100
7. The Lake St Lucia authorities must make laws that discourage overcrowding at the resource	8%	26%	28%	22%	16%	100

[N=520] SA =Strongly Agree, A =Agree; N =Neutral; D =Disagree; SD =Strongly Disagree.

It is further important to note that respondents were in agreement that increased visitor-numbers in the study area would negatively affect the natural environment. To many of the statements the respondents were influenced by extra-conservation considerations. The respondents who benefited from



selling the natural environment in the name of 'eco-tourism' tended to agree with the statements. On the other hand, those driven by extra-recreation consideration tended to disagree with the statements, and appeared to be champions of environmental protection. This state of affairs poses a challenge to the KZN Wildlife authorities responsible for the maintenance of the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park. The authority had to try and achieve a balance between recreation usage and conservation.

Finally, it must be inferred that recreationists who did not feel that the change in the natural environment brought about by overcrowding was important are a cause for concern because previous studies (Greer 1992; Erickson 1994; Manfredo and Driver 1995) on recreationists' perception of impacts show that many recreationists who do not regard change of the recreation habitat as 'damage' or as undesirable change do not recognize impacts and also do not immediately notice ecological changes underway.

In rounding off this section on the role of overcrowding as it affects the natural recreation environment, it is necessary to reaffirm that perception influences behaviour, therefore, recreationists who do not perceive change as 'damage on the environment' are not likely to change their behaviour towards the resource. They may also not have less satisfactory experiences even when confronted by impacts that could be considered undesirable (Hendee, et al. 1990; Fishbein, and Manfredo 1992). In support, Ewert (1996) mentions that attitudes have a significant effect on how recreationists experience the recreation environment. Not only do attitudes affect the relationship between recreationists and the environment but also their reactions towards the resource.

## **Perceived Role of Conservation In Outdoor Recreation Participation**

The last objective of this paper was to highlight some of the perceived attributes of conservation in outdoor recreation at the study area. This section places emphasis on whether the recreationists are aware of the impacts of outdoor recreation activities on the natural environment in terms of some demographic variables such as recreationist categories and groups. To find out if respondents were aware of impacts of conservation based recreation activities on the natural environmental, respondents were asked to respond to statements that could be associated with related impacts (refer to Table 4). What is interesting to note is that the responses on these impacts are not clearly evident as they occur. This is so because impacts are observable and obvious changes in the environmental components and processes that result from certain recreation activities (Erickson 1994).

On the whole, the findings in Table 4 can be categorised into two for-

mats: the administration-based conservation statements and the science-and-technology based statements. On average, the respondents strongly supported the administrative manipulation of the natural environment by introducing legislation and regulations to foster conservation. Respondents [39% and 19%] agreed and strongly agreed that 'it is the responsibility of each recreationist to protect the natural environment'. Administratively, the majority of the respondents [32% and 18%] agreed and strongly agreed that 'it is necessary to introduce conservation by-laws so as to make the area sustainable' and furthermore that administratively, 'most impacts originate from recreation actions occurring on the shore' [Agreed 47% and Disagreed 11%]. It may be concluded that respondents were not averse to introducing administrative measures to 'protect' the integrity of the natural environment. The World Heritage Site status of the Lake St Lucia environment could have contributed to the perception that the area needs a more conservation-focused approach, than would have been otherwise necessary.

**Table 4 : Responses of Recreationists to Conservation Related Impact Statements (%)**

CONSERVATION IMPACT STATEMENTS	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. It is the responsibility of each recreationist to protect the natural environment	19%	39%	19%	13%	10%
2. Aquatic ecosystems are less susceptible to impacts than terrestrial ecosystems	13%	39%	18%	19%	11%
3. Most impacts originate from recreation actions occurring on the shore	11%	47%	12%	16%	14%
4. Heavy shoreline use may lead to the introduction of many pollutants in the area.	17%	33%	22%	16%	12%
5. It is necessary to introduce conservation by-laws so as to make the area sustainable	18%	32%	29%	14%	7%
6. Excessive vegetation leads to the depletion of dissolved oxygen supply	9%	24%	30%	16%	21%
7. Heavy used of resource by recreationists can lead to the displacement of wildlife	12%	13%	22%	35%	18%
8. Activities such as boating can result in harassment or death of aquatic animals	9%	25%	29%	23%	14%
9. Forces from the propulsion of motored water craft uproot submerged vegetation	4%	31%	21%	25%	19%
10. Propulsion of motored water craft disturb bottom-sediment fauna and spawning fish	6%	19%	32%	12%	31%

[N=520] SA= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N= Neutral, D= Disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree

With regard to the scientific-technological attributes of the conservation statements, the respondents indicated that, save for the second and forth statements on aquatic ecosystems [Agreed 39% and Strongly Agreed 13%]

and shore recreation, [Agreed 33% and Strongly Agreed 17%] most respondents showed an inclination to disagree with the statements. In addition, 'most impacts' do not necessarily 'originate from recreation actions occurring on the shore,' some may be occurring in the water body or lake itself. More than half of the respondents [52%] agreed that aquatic ecosystems are less susceptible to impacts than terrestrial ecosystem. Another possible reason could be that the aquatic impacts caused by recreation activities in aquatic ecosystems are not striking or immediately obvious as those in terrestrial ecosystems. The respondents were either uncertain or did not support the scientific-technological attributes such as the depletion of dissolved oxygen supply [Neutral 30% and Disagreed 37%], boating resulting in death of aquatic animals [Neutral 29% and Disagreed 37%], motored water craft uprooting vegetation [Neutral 21% and Disagreed 44%], and water craft disturbing bottom-sediment fauna and spawning fish [Neutral 32% and Disagreed 43%]. The justification for this outcome is that perhaps the statements were too scientific and complex, and could not be comprehended by the respondents. Alternatively, that the ecosystem processes reflected in the statements were too complex for most of the respondents to grasp.

Furthermore respondents were neutral and disagreed on conservation impact statements such as 'heavy used of resource by recreationists' [22% and 53%]; and 'propulsion of motored water craft' [32% and 43%] which negatively affects the flora and fauna in the lake. This indirect conservation impact should specifically be of concern to the Lake St Lucia management, because it is actually occurring and studies (Kuss et al. 1989; Gutzwiller and Knight 1995) have indicated that boats can lead to disturbance, harassment and displacement of aquatic wildlife which may lead to direct and or cumulative impacts such as change in habitat, reproductive failure, emigration, and redistribution of species. In essence, all these outcomes reflect that respondents do not appreciate the effects of conservation-based impacts on the natural environment. It would be interesting to further analyse the role played by some demographic variables of respondents in the perception and awareness of the impacts of outdoor recreation activities. Demographic variables such as recreationist categories and race groups are explored.

## **Outdoor Recreation Impacts by Recreationist Categories**

The understanding and awareness of the indirect impacts of outdoor recrea-

tion on the environment are influenced by a variety of variables. Given a basic level of exposure and understanding of recreationists, the outcome of recreation participation and impact avoidance may depend on the type of recreationist. As shown in Table 5 recreationist categories revealed varying responses to the conservation impacts on the environment.

From the outcomes in Table 5, it can be concluded that awareness of outdoor recreation impacts resulting from participation of respondents is dependent on whether the recreationists were international, domestic, potential or employees. A global response to the various impact statements showed that international recreationists [31%] of the 46 percent who agreed to the statements. The majority of international recreationists were aware of the impacts associated with outdoor recreation. Only 7 percent remained neutral and 9 percent of them disagreed. Regarding the domestic recreationists, 12 percent were agreed, 10 percent neutral and 11 percent disagreed. The majority of potential recreationists or local community [11%] disagreed with the statements, thus reflecting a sense of being unaware of the impacts. It may, therefore, be deduced that more international tourists are more aware of the impacts of outdoor recreation activities than domestic and potential recreationists and employees.

**Table 5 : Perceived Outdoor Recreation Impacts By Recreationist Categories**

Recreationist Categories	Responses			Total
	A	N	D	
Whites	20%	1%	4%	25%
Blacks	7%	8%	16%	31%
Coloureds	8%	4%	9%	21%
Indians	11%	7%	5%	23%
Total	46%	20%	34%	100%

## Outdoor Recreation Impacts by Race

Race in South Africa plays an important role in the understanding and awareness of the impacts of outdoor recreation on the environment. This is so because of the legacy of apartheid, which influenced some population groups to perceive recreation resources differently from others (Magi 1986). The objective in Table 6 was to find out if race is a factor on the responses of recreationists towards the impacts of outdoor resources, the impact statements as they appear in Table 4 were crossed with the race of recreationists.

As shown in Table 6, race categories revealed varying responses to the impacts on the environment. The general pattern of the results for combined statements indicated that most Whites [20% of 46%] agreed with the statements leading to the conclusion that Whites are more aware of the recreation impacts of

participating in outdoor recreation activities that the three other race groups [7%, 8% and 11%]. This is to be expected because in the South African context Whites have been participating in outdoor recreation activities for a long time compared to other racial groups who were by law barred from using the recreation facilities. On the basis of these analyses, it can therefore be concluded that the general pattern of the results indicated that most Whites agreed with the statements.

**Table 6 : Perceived Outdoor Recreation Impacts By Race [%]**

Recreationist Categories	Responses			Total
	A	N	D	
Domestic	12%	10%	11%	33%
International	31%	7%	9%	47%
Potential	1%	2%	11%	14%
Employee	2%	1%	3%	6%
[N = 520] Total	A = Agreed, 46%	N = Neutral, 20%	D = Disagree 34%	100%

## Conclusion

Although there is a growing concern about recreation impacts on the natural environment, it has also become apparent that there is no agreement about what constitutes acceptable and unacceptable impacts (Clark 1979; Kuss et al. 1989). Furthermore, it stands out as a tough challenge whether people must be allowed to participate in outdoor recreation without restrictions or to embrace conservation principles on a continuous basis. Determining the acceptable level of outdoor recreation impacts is difficult since there are no absolute standards of acceptability. Furthermore, the conceptual framework associated with the study of outdoor recreation effects on the natural environment can be regarded as terra incognita. It is therefore, anticipated that the literary contribution made in this study would go a long way towards drawing attention to the need for further research in understanding and awareness of factors playing a role in outdoor recreation impact studies. Also compounding the problem of acceptability of levels of impacts is the fact that outdoor recreation influences are not static, they change over time (Hammitt and Cole 1987). The rates of change differ with the types of recreation activities, the environment of occurrence and the principles put in place to curb over-indulgence, such as may be experienced at Lake St Lucia, the study area.

It may further be pointed out that this study could possibly form a basis for the KZN Wildlife authorities to debate its findings, particularly as it relates to the international, domestic and potential recreationists visiting Lake St Lucia, and take steps towards implementing some of its outcomes. The Wildlife authorities have to decide between the conflict of increasing access to resources, which tends to increase levels of impact, and the protection of natural resources,

which is basically a problem of resource allocation (Vogt 1979). The solution to problem does not require an all-or-nothing approach, but one which either allows or prohibits free access or strives to strike a balance between use and the maintenance of biophysical integrity of the resource. In short, the question is not about to recreate or conserve, but to strike a balance between the two procedures.

Finally, considering that the main focus of this paper was to assist elucidate the views and actions of recreationists, regarding the impact of their recreation activities on the natural environment, it is important to transmit some of the findings to the local wildlife, recreation and tourism authorities. Some of these findings relate to the perceptions recreationists have towards the over-utilisation, which result from participating in outdoor recreation activities, the levels of recreation awareness pertaining to influences on the environment; the effects of ever-increasing numbers of visitors to the study area, and the role of conservation when participating in outdoor recreation activities in the study area. Critical decisions as to where to place the emphasis in dealing with these areas of investigation, is the prerogative of the local wildlife and recreation authorities. However, this study advocates for a middle-of-the-ground approach to natural resources utilisation, would achieve sustainability and high-levels of recreation experience.

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## **About The Author**

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# Tourism Liberalisation: Challenges for Tourism Development in Egypt

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**Abstract :** Trade in services is becoming a driving force of many economies. Tourism plays a leading role in this growth. Since the mid-1990s, an interest has arisen in service liberalisation. This liberalisation which include tourism sector has not manifested itself so much at the multilateral level, as at the regional and sub-regional levels. This paper examines the various approaches to the liberalisation of trade in services and its implication for the tourism industry and how the process of liberalisation open up new prospects for the tourism in Egypt. The results revel that the expected Egyptian tourism development will need an effective tourism policy adopted by the government at both the macro and micro levels.

**Key words:** Liberalisation, Service Industry, Tourism, Regional Arrangements, GATS, Developing Countries, Tourism Suppliers (Tour Operator, Travel Agencies, Hotels, etc)

## Introduction

Economic activity is becoming more globalised. Globalisation is always regarded as the product of the liberalisation that has been the hallmark of economic policy throughout the world during the past two decades. It has also set in motion forces working to accelerate liberalisation (peter, 1992).

One of the distinguishing features of trade at the end of the 20th century and the emergence of the new millennium is the expansion of regional trade agreements and multilateral agreements. The internationalisation of services is at the very core of today's economic globalisation. Tourism is not only the dominant service in world trade, it has also become one of the most important industries in the world and its economic impacts are vital for many countries. According to Fayed and Fletcher (2002) the tourism industry has long supported the idea of services agreements and has become a major force of the globalisation of international trade, particularly in services.

However, the expansion of globalisation and the tendency toward

regionalism and multilateralism that have dominated the world trading environment in recent years causes great concern and difficulties to developing countries like Egypt whose economic growth largely depends on a favourable international trading environment. The authorities in Egypt strongly favour trade liberalisation through the multilateral framework. Moreover, Egypt has begun to open its market on a preferential basis, through regional and bilateral free-trade agreements.

The purpose of this research is, through analysis, to gain insight into the impacts of liberalisation brought about by the regional, sub-regional and multilateral agreements on tourism development in Egypt and to explore stakeholders' perceptions of tourism liberalisation. This is done through analysis of the terms, codes and practice of the regional, sub-regional and multilateral agreements and their implications for the tourism sector. This examination is going to enhance understanding of how these agreements are to work and how it may help the Egyptian government exploit the system to their own advantage.

Meanwhile, the research aims to evaluate the potential impacts of the different agreements on tourism development in Egypt, and to develop policy options that embrace and reflect all the major relevant concepts of tourism liberalisation.

## **Methodological Approach**

Given the nature of this study, the methodology used will be based largely on quantitative data and complemented by some qualitative analysis. The quantitative data is statistical in nature, which includes designing a comprehensive questionnaire. Qualitative approaches include semi-structured interviews, observations and policy review with key players from the public and private sector. A sample of 250 members has been selected randomly from the tourism authority, tourism private enterprises and tourism experts in Egypt.

Three independent variables are used in this study as factors that influence the perceptions of respondents towards tourism liberalisation. These are the government, private enterprises and tourism experts. The results from the qualitative methods and the pilot study helped design the questionnaire. The questionnaire was implemented in a face-to-face manner in order to ensure a higher response rate and give the chance to the researcher to prompt when required. The returned valid questionnaires were analysed by descriptive statistics (frequency, mean, standard deviation, t-test and ANOVA) and factor analysis.

## **Contribution of Services to Economic Development**

Service industries provide links between geographically dispersed economic activities and, in so doing, play a fundamental role in the growing interdependence of markets and production activities across and between nations. Moreover, many services that were considered to be non-tradable only a few years ago are now seen as traded activity because advances in information technology has expanded the boundaries of tradability. Information technology has transformed service industries to the point where the development of services is regarded not as a consequence of, but as a precondition for economic growth (Braga, 1999).

The World Bank (1999) suggests that services have been the most dynamic component of the world economy over the past two decades. It is a core economic activity in virtually all countries, developing and developed alike. In the 1970s such trade grew more slowly than manufacturing trade but during the 1990s and the new millennium commercial services trade increased more rapidly. The WTO (2003) has confirmed this growth trend by stating that international trade in services grew significantly faster than merchandise trade. While trade in merchandise increased by 6 per cent per annum, services trade expanded at an annual rate of 8.5 per cent between 1980 and 1995. Furthermore, the IMF (2004), have pointed to the overall significance of world trade in commercial services which, measured on a balance of payments basis, accounted for around one-fifth of world exports of goods and services.

The transportation and travel business accounted for more than 50 per cent of exports of commercial services in 1997. The share of transportation and travel business in world trade in services in 2003 was about 28.9 and 36.2 per cent respectively, which indicates the increasing importance of tourism in international trade (WTO, 2003a).

## **Importance of International Tourism in International Trade**

It is important to realise that international tourism is a major force for the globalisation of international trade-particularly in services (Fletcher et al., 1999). The significance of tourism as a source of income and employment and as a major factor in the balance of payments for many countries has been attracting increasing attention. Governments, private sector entities, regional and local authorities, and others with an interest in international trade and economic development have recognised the role to be played by tourism. If the barriers to worldwide travel were eliminated or reduced substantially,

international trade in tourism services is likely to increase dramatically.

Tourism has become one of the most important industries in the world and its economic impacts are vital for many countries. It ranks in the top five export categories for 83 % of countries. This acclaim extends over a wide range of economies throughout Europe, the Middle East and the Americas. Tourism is also the leading source of foreign exchange for at least one in three developing countries (UNCTAD, 2003).

In order to outline the significance of the tourism industry, the World Bank (2003) noted that in 2002, tourism receipts accounted for 8.4 % of worldwide exports and international tourism expenditures accounted for 8.3 % of worldwide imports. In 2003, tourism's share in world trade increased still further with international tourism receipts accounting for 9.4 % of world exports, indicating that tourism is growing faster than other activities.

International trade in tourism services provides employment for over one hundred million people world-wide, and WTO predicts that by the year 2006, the growth of tourism related jobs will outstrip the growth of employment in traditional industries by as much as 59 %. The dynamism of tourism is expected to continue outpacing other industries in terms of economic growth and the effect is cumulative as it is being driven by and driving globalisation. The effects of economic expansion in developing countries and countries in transition, structural and demographic change in developed countries and, more recently, liberalisation brought about by GATS have only served to underline this trend (WTO, 1997b).

## **Tourism Industry In Egypt**

Egypt is a storehouse of history, as it possesses unique cultural and archaeological patrimony and remnants of the oldest civilisation known in history, dating back more than 6000 years. Since 1986, when the economic liberalisation policy of the Egyptian government manifested itself in private enterprise encouragement, tourism has started to achieve steady progress ratios, with tourist development projects becoming highly valued by various segments of the population. The government's recognition of the role of tourism in the national economy became a vital force in the enhancement of tourism. For example, since the 1980s the government started to change investment laws (replacement of law no.34 of 1974 with law no.230 of 1989 on investments) to encourage tourism investment, both foreign and local. The new investment measures represented a longer tax holiday for projects in remote areas (10 years) as well as allowing full foreign investments in the tourism sector instead of restricting such foreign investment to 49 % of invested capital (WTO, 2004).

Egypt was set to continue this phenomenal growth and it looked likely that the number of arrivals would reach 9 million in 2006. Tourism numbers registered the best performance in 1999 with 4.4 million tourists. With respect to receipts, it also increased to reach US\$ 3.8 billion. More recently, in 2000, tourist arrivals jumped to 5.5 million tourists (25% over year 1999), spent 33 million nights with an average length of stay 7 nights. Tourism receipts also increased by 38% over 1999. In 2003, tourism arrivals reached 6.4 millions (16.5% over year 2002), spent 42 million nights. Tourism receipts have also increased by 22% over 2002 (WTO, 2003b).

## **Liberalising Trade in Services**

Braga (1999) argues that liberalising the import regime for services is central to achieving increased efficiency and competitiveness in the provision of services. It allows businesses to import services that are not produced domestically or that are not available at a price and quality required for competitiveness. Liberalisation also fosters efficiency by increasing competitive pressure on domestic producers of services.

UNCTAD (1998a) suggests that liberalisation of international service transactions poses considerable challenges which are quite different from those in the area of goods. The fact that barriers to trade in services are present in national economies in the form of legislation and administrative practices and not found at the border, make them less transparent than tariffs and quotas, and more difficult to assess their restrictive impact. Moreover, there is not always a clear line between a measure affecting trade in services and a barrier affecting trade in services. What one government may feel is a necessary regulatory measure, applied in a non-discriminatory manner, may in fact constitute a *de facto* trade barrier to a foreign service supplier. It is clear, however, that all-regulatory measures that are applied to foreign service providers in a discriminatory manner constitute barriers to trade.

However, since the mid-1990s an interest has arisen in service liberalisation on both of developing and developed countries. This liberalisation has not manifested itself so much at the multilateral level, as at the national and sub-regional levels. Several countries, particularly in Latin America, have moved to privatise their service sectors and to open up the market for the foreign competition.

The tourism sector has been covered by almost the sub-regional, regional and multilateral agreements. In fact the rapid growth of tourism is, to some extent, the product of liberalisation that has been the hallmark of economic policy through out the world. The process of liberalisation of international trade in services at the regional and multilateral levels opens up



new prospects for the tourism sector. The new set of international regulations, together with the elimination of trade barriers, should allow the tourism sector to expand and be developed (Callaghan, 1994).

## **Services in Regional Trade Agreements**

### **European Union**

Hoekman and Sauve (1997) suggest that the European Community is unique among the other regional agreements in that it goes way beyond inter-governmental co-operation. The EC has its own prerogatives and resources and that binding decisions on certain issues are taken on the basis of a majority vote. A major objective of the Treaty of Rome, which established the European Economic Community, was the realisation of the four freedoms of free internal movement of goods, services, labour, and capital, including the right of establishment. In principle, the freedom to provide services applies to all services, with the exception of transport services.

Although EC Members States succeeded in cutting tariffs and removing restrictions affecting trade in goods, little progress had been made in effectively liberalising intra-EC trade and investment in services. The principles of the Treaty of Rome proved to be insufficient to lead to a significant increase in the openness of many EC service markets.

The EC-1992 programme clearly has far-reaching potential in terms of liberalising intra-EC service markets. At the same time, the EC experience illustrates how difficult it can be for countries to liberalise access to service markets in a co-operative manner. The EU represents the most far-reaching agreement on tourism sector; it goes much beyond GATS in that its goal is economic union. Thus, not only are there in principle no restrictions on intra-European Community movements of tourists, but tourism suppliers of member states (tour operators, hotels, etc) have the right to establish themselves in any community country. It is worth noting here that the EU (15 countries) signed the GATS agreement as one signatory (Hoekman, 1999).

### **The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)**

Snape and Bosworth (1996) point out that the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) was completed on August 12, 1992 and entered into force on January 1, 1994. The Member States of NAFTA are U.S.A, Canada and Mexico. Marking a significant departure in economic relation between developed and developing countries.

NAFTA is the most comprehensive package of services trade liberalisa-



tion achieved in an inter-governmental trade agreement to date. Negotiators in NAFTA opted to treat services in as generic and integrated a way as possible. The service sector in the Agreement covers all services, a negative list was adopted: all services are covered unless specifically exempted. Most air and maritime services are so exempted.

The basic principles of NAFTA are transparency, Most Favoured Nation (MFN), and National treatment, they are general obligations applied to all services. NAFTA provides exemptions of existing measures from MFN as well as from national treatment for both cross-border trade and investment. Tourism is a good example of a sector whose treatment was both significantly broadened and deepened by the NAFTA. In addition to the right of establishment and the movement of tourists, NAFTA aimed to fully liberalise the cross-border provision of air services within the three countries over a six-year period. This without doubt would benefit the travel and tourism industry in the region (Ferndez, 1997).

### **The Australia-New Zealand Closer Economic Relations Trade Agreement (CER)**

Australia and New Zealand negotiated a trade agreement during the mid-1960s which entered into force on January 1966. The structure of the Agreement was similar to that of other trade agreements negotiated during this period. The bilateral pact of the agreement was superseded by the Closer Economic Relation Trade Agreement (CER) 1983. In contrast to the earlier agreement, the main objective of the CER was substantial trade liberalisation.

The EU (1998) states that the CER agreement was re-negotiated in 1988, at which time it was agreed to include a Protocol on services. The goal of the Protocol on services was establish a framework of transparent rules, liberalise barriers to trade in services and facilitate competition in the provision of services. As in NAFTA a negative list approach was followed to determine the coverage of the agreement. The Agreement excluded basic telecommunications, broadcasting, air transport, maritime transport and postal services.

The CER agreement did not achieve much for tourism sector. The Agreement does not cover investment nor does it encompass the right of establishment, as such providing a practical illustration of a regional arrangement that does not cover all possible modes of supply. However, it is worth noting that, in contrast to the NAFTA, the CER form a common labour market. Nationals from one country are free to seek employment in the other. This will benefit the tourism sector, as tourism is a labour intensive industry.

## **Asia Pacific Economic Co-operation (APEC)**

Although the Asia Pacific Economic Co-operation (APEC) was established in 1989 and has been working on issues of trade liberalisation since 1990, the APEC economies did not turn their attention to the area of service liberalisation for several years. APEC's membership presently includes a total of 20 very diverse economies, 15 of which are developing countries, and among the latter, seven of the nine ASEAN members.

In 1994, the APEC economies agreed in the Bogor Declaration to achieve free trade in the region, including for goods, services, and capital, by no later than 2020 (2010 for developed countries). All services are covered by the commitments to reduce restrictions progressively on market access and to provide progressively for MFN and national treatment. Moreover, members are to contribute positively to the GATS negotiations by expanding their sectoral commitments on market access and national treatment and by eliminating MFN exemptions. The agenda of the Agreement singles out four service sectors where negotiations on trade facilitation measures have existed for some time: telecommunications, energy, transportation, and tourism. These sectoral negotiations are looking mainly at harmonising regulations and administrative procedures and at improving transparency (UNCTAD, 1999).

The APEC approach towards liberalisation of tourism is quite distinct from that of a traditional trade negotiation. The viability of APEC's approach to liberalisation through the dual action plans depends upon the good faith of countries to voluntarily open their markets, in the absence of reciprocally negotiated concessions or commitments.

In the absence of a structure and an agenda for negotiations, tourism industry remains a closed one among the APEC members. On the other hand the APEC members achieved remarkable progress in liberalising the movement of tourists among the member states and also between the member countries and other parts of the world.

## **Services and Sub-regional Agreement**

### **ASEAN and ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA)**

Stephenson (1999) states that the ASEAN Declaration of 1967 did not commit member countries to regional economic integration. However, this aspect of ASEAN was added at the Fourth ASEAN Summit of 1992 in Singapore, when member governments decided to liberalise intra-regional trade through the establishment of an ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA). The process was accelerated by governments in 1994, and again at the Bangkok Summit of December 1995.

A decision was made by ASEAN Economic Ministers in 1994 to include services in the grouping's liberalisation effort. The approach of ASEAN to service liberalisation in the Framework Agreement has been patterned on that of the GATS, with liberalisation to be undertaken on a gradual basis through rounds of commitments negotiated bilaterally or trilaterally, and extended to other members within ASEAN on an MFN basis. The Framework agreement on Services covers four sectors, namely maritime transport, telecommunication, tourism, and business services. Most of ASEAN members made commitments in all four sectors, though the nature of these commitments is not yet known since the schedules have not been officially approved by governments and made public.

### **MERCOSU Protocol on Services**

Hoekman (1999) states that MERCOSUR members proceeded to further deepen their regional integration efforts through including trade in services within their scope of liberalisation. For this purpose an Ad Hoc group on Services was established in August 1995 and was given the mandate to carry out work for the drafting of a protocol on Trade in Services. This Protocol was signed by the MERCOSUR Common Market Council on 15 December 1997 as the Protocol Montevideo on Trade in Services for MERCOSUR.

The MERCOSUR Protocol contains many articles which are very similar to those of the GATS, including those on MFN treatment, market access and national treatment. Detailed articles on transparency, confidential information, domestic regulation, recognition and exceptions. Members of MERCOSUR have agreed in principle to go far beyond the scope of liberalisation of tourism sector at the multilateral level, much along the lines of the EU in terms of the right of establishment, the movement of tourists freely among the members, and the employment.

## **Services in Multilateral Agreements**

### **General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)**

One of the major results of the Uruguay Round was the creation of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). According to the GATT (1994), the GATS is the first multilateral legally enforceable agreement to cover international trade and investment in services, it establishes rules and disciplines on policies affecting access to service markets. GATS obligations arise from negotiations, rather than flowing directly and automatically from adherence to the framework Agreement itself. The end result of these negotiations appears in the schedule of specific commitments of each member. A country cannot become a member of GATS without having

accepted at least some specific commitments that, once undertaken, are conditioned by the basic principles to assure effective market access. There are disciplines on market access, national treatment, and various regulatory matters that have to be respected by members.

## **Scope of GATS**

According to the EU (1996), GATS has an extremely wide scope of application. It applies to measures imposed by a member to the agreement that affect the consumption of services originating in other members. The WTO (1995) states that no sector has been excluded from the coverage of GATS, the disciplines of which apply to all services, both present and future, with the exception of the air transport sector, most of which is excluded from the coverage. Apart from this, the only services excluded from the coverage of the Agreement are those supplied "in the exercise of governmental authority".

Sauve (1995) states that paragraph 2 of Article I defines trade in services by listing four ways in which a service can be supplied. The four modes of supply are defined on the basis of the origin of the service supplier and consumer, and the degree and type of territorial presence that they have at the moment the service is delivered. These modes are:

Cross-border: where the trade takes place from the territory of one member into that of another. Only the service itself crosses the border, without the movement of persons, such as information and advice passing by means of fax or electronic mail, or cargo transportation.

Consumption abroad: this relates to services consumed by nationals of a member, in the territory of another member where the service is supplied. Essentially, the service is supplied to the consumer outside the territory of the member where the consumer resides. This is typical of tourism, and also where the property of the consumer crosses the border to be serviced abroad, such as when ships go for repairs in another country.

Commercial Presence: where the service supplier crosses the border to have a 'commercial presence' abroad through which the service is provided. This presence can take the form of any type of business or professional establishment, including incorporation, branches, representative offices, joint venture, and so on.

Presence of natural person: this mode applies to natural persons only, when they stay temporarily in the market, for the purpose of supplying services, for example the self-employed, and employees of service suppliers.

## **GATS and Tourism**

Instead of "tourism services" the GATS classification introduces the term "Tourism and Travel Related Services". The WTO (1998) argues that Tourism and Travel Related Services (TTRS), category 9 of the Services Sectoral Classification List of GATS, is distinctly limited in scope. The category is divided into four sub-sectors as follows:

- Hotels and restaurants (including catering);
- Travel agencies and tour operators services;
- Tourist guides services; and
- Other.

## **Findings and Discussions**

### **Perceptions and Potential Impacts of Tourism Liberalisation in Egypt**

Globalisation, liberalisation and new information technology are providing new opportunities for trade in services in general and international trade in tourism in particular. However, these opportunities will only materialise if the constraints facing Egypt in building domestic service capacity and improving the competitiveness of tourism services are dealt with effectively. Therefore, to gain an overall indication of community perceptions of tourism liberalisation, attitudes were examined through a series of statements divided into three sections:

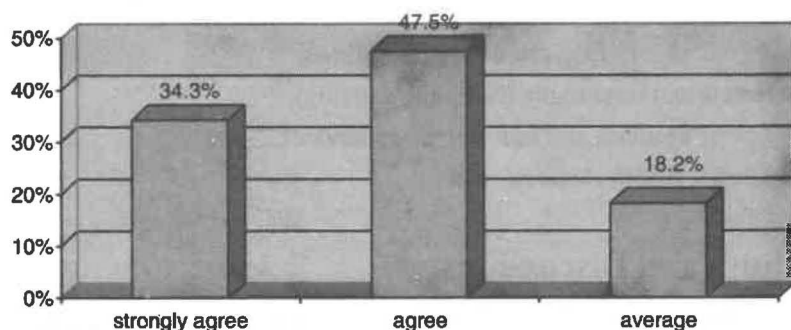
- The concept of tourism liberalisation;
- The benefits and cost of liberalisation; and
- Constraints facing tourism liberalisation.

### **Liberalisation of Tourism Policy in Egypt**

An examination of the data revealed generally positive views towards liberalisation. The three groups (government, tourism experts, and tourism private enterprises) favoured tourism liberalisation (Mean = 1.84). Respondents were asked to indicate if they agree that tourism trade to Egypt needs to be liberalised and all trade barriers need to be removed. The results revealed that 47.5% of the respondents agreed followed by 34.3% strongly agreed. On the other hand, none of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed (see figure 1).

As a result, this very high percentage of respondents who agreed and strongly agreed (81.8%) suggests that tourism trade to Egypt is not fully liberalised yet and needs to be more liberalised and trade barriers need to be removed in order to enhance tourism development in Egypt. Cross-tabulation

across the three main groups did not show any significant differences (Anova analyses showed no significant differences among the three groups).



**Figure 1: Liberalisation of Tourism Policy**

## Benefits and cost of liberalisation

To identify the benefits and costs of tourism liberalisation, respondents were given a prompt list and asked to arrange them in order of importance. The results showed generally positive views about the impacts of liberalisation.

Factor	1*	2	3	4	5*	Mean
	%	%	%	%	%	
Tourism liberalisation is source of competitive strength	32	52	16	-	-	1.48
Tourism liberalisation increase foreign investment	18	56	19	5	-	1.69
Tourism liberalisation brings higher wages	22	54	15	9	-	1.86
Tourism liberalisation enhance quality	43	28	29	-	-	1.89
Tourism liberalisation is a source of technology transfer	38	44	18	-	-	1.51
Tourism liberalisation is a stimulus to efficiency	34	52	14	-	-	1.42
Tourism liberalisation affect negatively national sovereignty	12	56	8	10	12	2.4
Tourism liberalisation affect negatively local investment		36	4	35	15	3.4
Tourism liberalisation affect negatively the environment	6	32	4	34	24	3.5
Tourism liberalisation cause leakage	23	37	15	20	5	2.82
Tourism liberalisation affect negatively customer health and safety	-	24	26	32	18	3.61

1\*= strongly agree, 5\*= strongly disagree

Moreover, the results showed that liberalisation could benefit the tourism sector in Egypt in two different ways:

- first, it is a major source of technology transfer and managerial skills in the sector (82% agreed and strongly agreed). This contributes to rising prosperity in the country as well as enhancing demand for higher value-added exports.
- second, foreign investment brings higher wages (76%)

74% of the respondents also indicated that liberalisation will reduce restrictions on foreign investment and the transfer of funds, which will bring new investors into the market and fuel new projects and that, in turn, will contribute to the development of tourism.

Quality was also mentioned by respondents as being one of the important results of tourism liberalisation (71%), competition will enhance quality, which is increasingly demanded by international tourists. Interviews with respondents indicated that enhancing the quality of the tourism product is also a way to improve its quality/price ratio. Moreover, improving the quality of tourism services in Egypt was identified as a source of further growth in the sector in the country, enhancing its chances of achieving economic and environmental sustainability.

On the other hand, respondents indicated that there are concerns about the way in which market openness may affect national sovereignty (68% agreed that liberalisation might affect national sovereignty). More particularly, there are concerns that increasing trade and investment flows, and multilateral rules for trade and investment, may erode the capacity of governments to exercise national "regulatory" sovereignty. That is, to decide the appropriate policies and regulatory approaches for their own country or region, on issues such as environmental protection or consumer health and safety, as well as on trade and investment matters. There is also a perception that multilateral agreements encourage or even require such regulatory standards to be reduced, eliminated or harmonised.

Anova analysis showed that there are significant differences among the three groups' concerns. The attitude of the government group towards the national sovereignty and liberalisation were significantly different from other two groups. Almost 82% of government group agreed and strongly agreed that there are concerns about the way in which market openness may affect national sovereignty, while only 27% and 29% of the private enterprises group and expert group respectively agreed.

Although liberalising foreign investment is identified as one of the

important ways to liberalise tourism trade and to open up the market for competition, many respondents (44.9%) stated that foreign investment should be liberalised with a carefully structured policy. Respondents were concerned about the following:

- Local investment: foreign investment could easily destroy local investment, which is mostly small and medium size.

- Environment: they are also concerned about the impacts of the liberalisation of foreign investment on the environment. They argued more frequently that the liberalisation of foreign investment could destroy the environment. One respondents from the tourism experts group stated that "The fear is that developed nations will be pressured to relax, or precluded from improving, their environmental standards in the face of competitive pressure from developing countries with lower environmental standards and that firms will relocate to take advantage of lower environmental standards in developing countries".

- Leakage: respondents stated that leakages of foreign exchange earnings could be a major obstacle to the positive contribution of foreign investment to tourism development. Leakage is the process whereby part of the foreign exchange earnings generated by tourism, rather than being retained by tourist-receiving countries, is either retained by tourist-generating countries or remitted back to them. It takes the forms of profit, income and royalty remittances; payments for the import of equipment, materials, and capital and consumer goods to cater for the needs of international tourists; the payment of foreign loans; various mechanisms for tax evasion; and overseas promotional expenditures.

The data also showed that there was a positive correlation between tourism liberalisation and the statement dealing with the benefits of liberalisation (Spearman's correlation is significant at the 0.01 level), in that the higher the level of liberalisation, the more benefits to gain.

To summarise, there was general consensus about the move towards liberalisation and opening up the market for foreign investment, with more than 80% of respondents agreeing that the overall benefits of tourism liberalisation are greater than the costs for the industry and the country. Furthermore, respondents agreed strongly that authorities should encourage the open door policy and the move towards privatisation and liberalisation. They also expressed favourable opinions on the need to liberalise trade in tourism and adopt a new set of policies and regulations, which would allow the tourism industry to expand faster.



## **Factors Affecting Tourism Liberalisation**

In order to investigate what factors affect tourism liberalisation, the survey asked respondents to indicate what they mean by liberalising the tourism industry and which area needs to be liberalised. The results revealed that liberalisation of tourism industry means:

- Liberalising visa regulations ;
- A free pricing system;
- Liberalising foreign management;
- Liberalising foreign investment;
- Transparency of information,
- Other (Tariff Policy, State Monopoly, Air Transport, etc) (See Table 2).

**Table 2: Factors Affecting Tourism Liberalisation in Egypt by Group**

Factor	Government		Private enterprises		Tourism experts		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Visa regulation	32	72.3%	114	81.4%	12	85.7%	158	79.8%
Pricing system	13	29.5%	86	61.4%	11	78.6%	110	55.6%
Foreign management	18	40.9%	75	53.5%	11	78.6%	104	52.5%
Foreign investment	19	43.2%	65	46.4	5	35.7%	89	44.9%
Transparency	13	29.5%	88	62.8%	11	78.6%	112	56.6%
Other	19	43.2%	47	33.5%	4	28.6%	70	35.4%

Table 2 showed that almost 80% of respondents stated that liberalising visa regulations is one of the main factors affecting tourism liberalisation, followed by transparency of information (56.6%), liberalising pricing system (55.6%) and foreign management (52.5%).

Regarding the measures that can affect tourism liberalisation, the most important ones which have been identified by respondents are:

- Restrictions on the movement of tourists;
- Difficulties associated with the delivery of visas;
- Restrictions on the work of professionals in the tourism sector;
- Restrictions on the right to manage tourism companies;
- Restrictions on private investment;
- Restrictions on foreign investment;
- Restrictions on pricing tourism product;
- Sectoral regulatory restrictions;
- Restrictions on transparency of information;

- Limitations in access to and the use of Global Distribution System (GDS);
- Restriction on air transport services.

The analysis has also shown that there is a negative correlation between tourism liberalisation and the constraints that affect the industry. In that the more constraints the less liberalisation (Spearman's correlation is significant at the 0.01 level). Given that, the literature review demonstrated that trade in tourism is a distorted myriad of governmentally imposed quantitative and non-quantitative barriers, which affect the competitive structure of the international tourism market. Such impediments to travel impact on both travellers and travel businesses. Furthermore, government economic policy goals often operate to the disadvantage of foreign-owned travel and tourism businesses. Exchange controls, local equity requirements, labour laws protecting domestic workers, limitations on market access by foreign companies, discriminatory treatment of subsidies and restrictions on remittance of earnings, all tend to discourage the establishment of businesses by foreigners. Whilst these barriers may have an impact on tourism development when viewed separately, because of their inter-relatedness, they can have a major impact when viewed holistically (UNCTAD, 1999).

### **Type of Agreements most Favourable by Egypt**

The survey asked respondents to identify the type of agreements which could be applied in Egypt (regional, sub-regional or multilateral). The analysis revealed that the regional and sub-regional agreements are identified as the most appropriate ways for tourism liberalisation (79% agreed). Anova analysis revealed no significance differences among the three groups.

Respondents were also asked to list the benefits of such agreements. The results revealed that regional trade agreements related to services are likely to influence future multilateral efforts to improve market access in services. Respondents argued that the effective inclusion of services within sub-regional agreements among developing countries will be the key to their success (74% agreed).

The results also showed that such agreements among developing countries are also supporting growth in services exports through liberalisation of market access and national treatment within the region and by creating economies of scale and scope, building competitiveness, upgrading skills and encouraging alliance among developing country service firms. In order to deal with the fierce competition after the full implementation of the GATS in Egypt, governments and private sector in Egypt have the choice between several strategic options, including tackling some of the problems at the multilateral

level. Respondents agreed that there are several forms of co-operation with foreign suppliers in tourism sector, such as:

- Regional alliances
- Intra-regional tourism
- Extra-regional tourism
- Entry into global alliances

## **Factor analysis**

To examine the relationships between the variables, further analysis of community perceptions of tourism liberalisation was undertaken using exploratory factor analysis. Factor analysis is a technique or more accurately a family of techniques, which aim to simplify complex sets of data by analysing the correlation between them (Foster, 2001, and Bryman and Cramer, 1999). The results of factor analysis are shown in table 3. The principal axis factoring analysis used extracted 5 factors indicating that the 5 factors underlie the scores on the 26 variables.

Column 1 reports the allocation of the 25 variables. The next six columns report the six factors and the loading for each variable. The six factors accounted for 62.8% of the variance in the data. The factor solution used (Direct oblmin) has extracted the factors in the order of their importance, with the largest and best combinations first, and then proceeding to smaller.

Factor 1 accounts for the most of the variance (27.6%), whereas the second accounts for 19.07%; and the third for 6.2%. The remaining two factors account in total for 9.9% of variance.

The last column presents the communalities ( $H^2$ ). The variable dealing with foreign investment, followed by the variable dealing with regional alliances had the highest loading (.960 and .928 respectively), indicating that these variables explain a higher proportion of the variance than is accounted for, by all the factors taken together.

### **Factor 1: Policy Options Dimension**

Factor 1 is the most important factor. It accounts for the greatest amount of variance (27.6%). Eight factors allocated in this factor, they are:

1. Transparency of information
2. Private investment
3. Foreign investment
4. Air transport
5. Environment
6. Regional and sub-regional policy
7. Regional alliances policy
8. Intra-regional tourism policy

**Table 3: Factor Analysis Results**

	1	2	3	4	5	H <sup>2</sup>
Restrictions on the movements of tourists		.730				.705
Restrictions on transparency of information	.880					.764
Restrictions on foreign management		.883				.535
Restrictions on private investment	.873					.459
Restrictions on foreign investment	.891					.627
Restrictions on the personal mobility		.845				.816
Difficulties associated with the delivery of visas		.899				.862
Sectoral regulatory restrictions		.825				.839
Limitations in access to and the use of GDS				.723		.831
Restrictions on air transport	.902					.747
Restrictions on pricing tourist product		.817				.764
Tourism liberalisation is a source of competitive strength			.848			.704
Tourism liberalisation increase foreign investment			.960			.875
Tourism liberalisation enhance quality			.859			.801
Tourism liberalisation is a source of technology transfer			.649			.993
Tourism liberalisation is a stimulus to efficiency			.649			.473
Tourism liberalisation affect negatively national sovereignty					.513	.862
Tourism liberalisation affect negatively local investment					.462	.722
Tourism liberalisation affect negatively the environment	.827					.840
Tourism liberalisation cause leakage					.572	.694
Regional and sub-regional are the best policy options	.841					.875
Multilateral agreements is the best policy options				.755		.863
Regional alliances are the best policy options	.928					.801
Intra-regional tourism are the best policy options	.851					.993
Extra-regional tourism are the best policy options				.463		.473
Global alliances are the best policy options				.542		.532
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>7.68</b>	<b>5.42</b>	<b>2.01</b>	<b>1.69</b>	<b>1.50</b>	
<b>Percentage of variance explained</b>	<b>27.6</b>	<b>19.0</b>	<b>7.2</b>	<b>5.3</b>	<b>3.6</b>	

Notes: 1. Extraction Method: Principal Axis factoring. Rotation Method: oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. 2. H<sup>2</sup> = Communalities 3. Only loadings greater than .30 are reported 4. Total percentage of explained variance, 62.8%

They have very high loadings compared to all other factors, ranging from .928 to .827, indicating a high interrelationship of the variables. Variable 23 (regional alliances policy) is the most important variable; it has the second highest loading in any factor (.928), and therefore influences dramatically the name and how the factor is interpreted. Since this factor incorporates statements dealing with tourism policy, it was labelled policy options dimension.

Looking at this factor, we see that all variables are positively related to each

other, suggesting that the right institutional framework is a key component of a successful liberalisation policy and successful tourism sector.

## **Factor 2: Constraints Facing Tourism liberalisation**

Although the policy options factor accounts for the largest amount of variance it does not mean that the other factors are not important. As mentioned before, the process of rotation redistributes the variance from earlier factors to later ones to achieve a more meaningful solution. Factor 2 accounts for 19.0% of the variance and 6 variables allocated in this factor, they are:

1. Restrictions on movement of tourists (visa regulation)
2. Restrictions on foreign management
3. Restrictions on personal mobility
4. Difficulties associated with the delivery of visas
5. Sectoral regulatory restrictions
6. Restrictions on pricing tourist product

For the reason that this factor reflects the constraints to tourism liberalisation, it was labelled constraints dimension. Looking at this factor, we see that all variables are positively related to each other, suggesting that there is a consensus on the constraints for tourism liberalisation derived from the 6 variables. This was not unexpected since the literature shows in some studies (Fawzy, 1998, and Fawzy and Galal, 1997) that institutional constraints are major obstacles to tourism liberalisation, something that has made private enterprises and tourism experts view the institutional constraints as obstacles for tourism development and tourism liberalisation. There is also increasing support for the view that removing trade barriers is critical for encouraging investment and economic growth.

## **Factor 3: Liberalisation benefits Dimension**

Factor 3 incorporates 5 statements dealing with tourism liberalisation benefits; therefore, it was labelled liberalisation benefits dimension. The five variables are:

1. tourism liberalisation is a source of competitive strength
2. tourism liberalisation increase foreign investment
3. tourism liberalisation enhance quality
4. tourism liberalisation is a source of technology transfer
5. tourism liberalisation is a stimulus to efficiency

The five variables are highly correlated to each other suggesting that liberalisation is likely to affect positively tourism sector in Egypt. Tourism liberalisation increase foreign investment (variable 13) is the most important variable. It has the highest loading in any factor (.960), indicating that tourism liberalisation encourage foreign direct investment. Therefore, the case for opening markets to foreign direct investment is as compelling as it is for trade. More open economies enjoy higher rates of private investment, which is major determinant of economic growth and job creation. Foreign direct investment in tourism is actively courted by countries; not least it generates spillover such as improved management and better technology. Firms and sectors when FDI is intense have

higher average of labour productivity and pay higher wages.

#### **Factor 4: Multilateral level Dimension**

Four variables are allocated in this factor:

1. access to and the use of GDS
2. multilateral agreements is the best policy options
3. extra-regional tourism are the best policy options
4. global alliances are the best policy options

The central issue in this factor is the multilateral policy; therefore it was labelled multilateral level dimension. In this factor we see that the four variables are positively related to each other, suggesting the importance of the policy options for Egypt at the multilateral level.

#### **Factor 5: Liberalisation Cost Dimension**

Factor 5 is the last factor to be considered. It accounts for 3.6% of the variance. The central issue in this factor reflects a very important fact in tourism liberalisation, which is the cost of such liberalisation. This factor contains three variables:

1. tourism liberalisation effect negatively national sovereignty
2. tourism liberalisation affect negatively local investment
3. tourism liberalisation cause leakage

### **Recommendations**

The analysis showed that it is evident that tourism development is often driven by an effective tourism policy adopted by the government at both the macro and micro levels. Given that, the success of tourism policy has to satisfy two primary parameters: competitiveness and sustainability. They are both essential and mutually supportive, and either alone is not sufficient. The competitiveness of a destination refers to its ability to compete effectively and profitably in the tourism marketplace. Sustainability refers to the ability of a destination to maintain the quality of its physical, social, cultural and environmental resources while it competes in the marketplace. Therefore, it is important to realise that tourism policy affects all the tourism operational activities such as, marketing, attraction operations, and act. If adequate tourism development policies and strategies are to be designed and implemented, access to information on the international tourism market and developments in it is essential. This also includes access to information technology.

Egypt should therefore make a common effort to set up a policy which could help reinstate fair rules in the distribution market and preserve the interests of weaker partners. The analysis in this paper give rise to the policy recommendations set out below for the consideration of Egypt. The recommendations cover the following area:

**1. Formulation of an Effective Tourism development Policies and strategies.** A series of measures and policies can be adopted by the governments and private-sector in Egypt acting in collaboration, with the aim of:

- diversifying the supply of tourism services,

- encouraging power,
- improving their quality/cost ratio by investing in human resource development,
- upgrading suppliers' negotiating skills. The pursuit of initiatives at the regional and sub-regional levels can be effective in improving the bargaining power of service suppliers from Egypt.

**2. Strategies to Expand Tourism Exports.** To do so, Egypt should adopt a combination of policies to increase the efficiency of airlines and lower the prices of domestic and international flights, and ensure that their national air transport policy is consistent with their tourism objective.

## Conclusion

This paper explored some of the implications of existing agreements that pertain to measures affecting international trade in services. The GATS is undoubtedly the most significant of these arrangements. While there are differences between the regional arrangements and the GATS, there are essentially "architectural" in nature. The broad similarity of the specific rules and disciplines found in the various agreements suggests that regional agreements are generally quite complementary to the multilateral process.

The approach of liberalisation of trade in services will contribute to the world-wide development of tourism. The tourism sector will benefit not only by allowing major tour operators and hotel chains to expand their reach world-wide, but also by opening up competition to small and medium size suppliers.

While it is too early to measure the impacts of liberalisation of tourism industry on developing countries, it is obvious that the developing countries will face tough competition from large service suppliers with massive financial strength, access to the latest technology, world-wide networks, and sophisticated information technology infrastructure. The effective inclusion of tourism within sub-regional agreements among developing countries will be the key of their success. In conclusion, the ability of developing countries to integrate successfully into the global trading system will depend, as regard tourism upon their ability to strengthen their capacity to produce internationally competitive services.

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# U.S. Citizen's Images of South Korea as A Travel Destination

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**Abstract :** The U.S. is the third largest inbound travel market for South Korea and has enjoyed good growth in recent years. Despite this market's strategic importance, there has been little research on how U.S. residents perceive South Korea as a travel destination. This paper analyzed the images of U.S. residents using an online survey. The image statements with the highest levels of agreement were on Korea's long history, the opportunities to increase knowledge of the Korean culture, the degree of crowding in South Korean cities, and the martial arts of Korea. Several negative images of South Korea were also found. Additionally, the respondents were not clearly able to differentiate South Korea from China and Japan. The study outlines several marketing needs and recommendations for South Korea's tourism.

**Key Words:** Destination Branding, Destination Image, Online Survey, Positioning, North Korea, South Korea

## Introduction

In the past 15 years, South Korea has gained the attention of people around the world due to its dramatic economic growth, the Summer Olympics in Seoul in 1988, the 2002 Pusan Asian Games, and the 2002 World Cup. More recently, the tense political situation in the Korean peninsula has focused greater attention on both North Korea and South Korea. During the past 30 years, tourism in South Korea has experienced significant growth. According to the Korea National Tourism Organization (KNTO, 2003), the number of foreign visitors to South Korea has gone from a mere 11,109 with \$1.4 million in total earnings in 1961 to 5.35 million visitors and \$7,641.5 million in earnings in 2002.

## Importance of the U.S. Market to South Korea

U.S. citizens are the largest spenders in the world with total expenditures of around \$64.5 billion in 2000 (World Tourism Organization, 2003), and the U.S. represents a very important target market for most countries. In 2002, the U.S. accounted for the third largest number of visitors to South Korea,

after Japan and China (KNTA, 2003). U.S. visitors grew by 45.2% between 1991 and 2000. During the last six years, the growth rate of U.S. visitors has averaged 3.5% per year. U.S. residents stayed longer than South Korea's other major inbound markets (12.1 days in 2002) and spent more money. For these reasons, the U.S. is a critical for the well being of South Korean tourism when compared to visitors for other countries.

## **Images of South Korea in the U.S.**

Recently, the image of South Korea has improved among other Asian countries due to the exporting of Korean products, music, soap dramas, and other items. However, while Korean products have also gained in popularity, it seems that South Korea's images among U.S. residents have been more influenced by television programming (e.g., M\*A\*S\*H, Seoul Olympics, World Cup), recollections of the Korean War, and the recent political tension due to North Korea's stance on nuclear weapons. Moreover, it is believed that most U.S. residents have little knowledge of South Korea as a travel destination despite the country's many attractions.

Chon (1991) examined changes in pre- and post-trip perceptions of South Korea as a travel destination among U.S. visitors, using the traveler behavior model originally suggested by Gunn (1972). This research was based on a survey conducted in 1985 and since then South Korea has significantly changed in terms of its economic situation (dramatic growth and IMF), worldwide sports events (1998 Seoul Olympics, 2002 Asian Games, 2002 World Cup), and the uncertainty of the political situation in the Korean peninsula. However, apart from Chon's (1991) study, little other research has been conducted on U.S. visitors to South Korea and what they think of South Korea as a travel destination.

Given the gap in image research on South Korean tourism, this study was designed to determine U.S. residents' current images of South Korea as a travel destination, and whether they were able to distinguish South Korea from the neighboring countries of Japan and China. The specific objectives of the study were to: 1) determine U.S. citizens' images of South Korea as a travel destination; 2) investigate whether they distinguish South Korea from China and Japan; and 3) identify groups of U.S. citizens who share similar images of South Korea as a travel destination.

## **Destination Positioning, Branding and Image**

Tourism scholars believe that the images of destinations play a significant role in travelers' destination choices (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Gartner,

1989; Reilly, 1990). According to Baloglu and Brinberg (1997), "Image differentiates tourist destinations from each other and is an integral and influential part of the traveler's decision process."

## **Destination Marketing Strategies and Branding**

Generally the steps taken by places to create destination images are considered to be part of the destination marketing effort and more specifically represent an element of a

marketing strategy (Morrison, 2002). As suggested by Kotler, Bowen, and Makens (2003), market segmentation and market targeting should be the first two steps in marketing strategy development. Once the target markets are chosen, the positioning approaches are selected. In this respect, Kotler, Bowen, and Makens suggest that organizations must establish images that differentiate them from competitors.

Destination branding is a relatively new development in practice and as a field of academic investigation. Marketing experts feel that destination branding can be effective in differentiating competitive destinations, but the concept is still in an infancy stage. For example, Cai (2002) stated, "while brands are found in many categories of tourism goods and services, and permeate almost all facets of tourism activities, the concept is not studied and practiced as vigorously in destination marketing as in the general field." The challenge of branding a destination is complicated by the variety of decision processes used by travelers, and by the diversity of the product and the target markets. For the traveler, the destination selection decision involves greater risk since the purchase often involves buying a bundle of goods and services that have never been experienced before and that may be relatively expensive. As such, the decision-making process may be exhaustive and require an extensive information search. Decisions tend to be made based upon people's perceptions of how a potential destination will meet their needs. Therefore, the destination brand incorporating the brand image and identity can be instrumental in forming sharper images and perceptions among potential travelers (Morgan, Pritchard, and Pride, 2002). In Cai's (2002) model of destination branding, the three most important building blocks are the brand element mix, brand identity, and brand image building. Cai explains that the brand element mix incorporates such things as logos or slogans. These elements communicate a strong and consistent set of brand associations that are relevant to the target markets.

## **Destination Positioning**

In the contemporary notion of destination branding, positioning can be

thought of as a tool of brand image building and brand communication. The positioning concept predates the discussion of destination branding in the tourism literature, and is attributed to writing of Al Ries and Jack Trout, two advertising agency executives. According to Ries and Trout (1981), marketers first must look inside the minds of their customers to determine the images they have of the destination. Next, they must decide how to confirm, strengthen, or change that image in customers' minds. When customers have all destinations well organized (positioned) in their minds, they choose the most appealing ones from their decision sets. If a destination has a poor or unclear image, it does not have a chance of being considered. People will not only have greater difficulty in remembering that destination, but will also drop it faster from the consideration set during destination selection. Therefore, positioning the destination is a highly important tool of destination branding in attracting potential visitors.

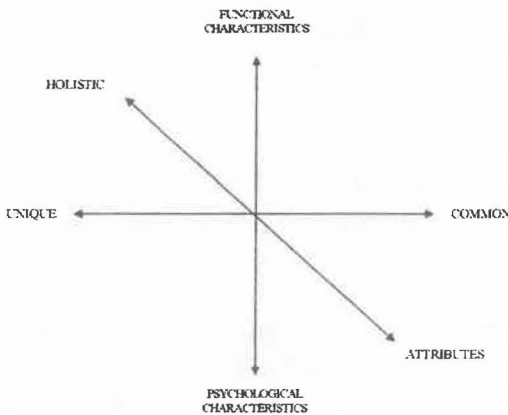
Nickerson and Moisey (1999) argued in favor of simplifying branding and positioning by concentrating upon the features that attracted visitors in the first place to the destination. Their research indicated that as a result of visiting a destination, travelers' images tend to be more realistic, complex, and differentiated. Thus, it is crucial to understand what attracts visitors since this can provide one of the bases for image building and positioning. It is also important to know how visitors' images of a destination are different from those of people who have never visited that destination.

## **Destination Image**

The measurement of destination image has been of great interest to tourism researchers. Moreover, the accurate assessment of image is a key to designing an effective marketing and positioning strategy (Reilly, 1990). Much of the previous research on destination image has employed structured methodologies. Gartner (1989) used structured methodologies to measure the image of four states (Utah, Montana, Colorado, and Wyoming) with multidimensional scaling techniques. Crompton (1979) measured the image of Mexico in different states in the U.S. using a structured methodology (30 attributes on a seven-point Likert scale). Gartner and Hunt (1987) measured the change in Utah's image over a 12-year period using structured methodologies with a five-point Likert scale. Few previous destination image studies have incorporated unstructured methodologies. One such study was by Reilly (1990), who used unstructured methodologies (incorporating open-ended questions) to measure the image of Montana.

Since previous studies using only structured methodologies did not examine the full range of the unique characteristics and complex nature of

destination images, Ecthner and Ritchie (1991,1993) suggested that a combination of structured and unstructured methodologies should be used, and presented a three-dimensional model, with image separated into two components (attribute-based and holistic). Each component (Figure 1) has items with functional or psychological characteristics, and each characteristic can reflect common or unique features of the destination. Thus, a three-dimensional diagram is the best way to illustrate the components of destination image. As Figure 1 shows, the model has three scales. The first scale, attribute-holistic, is based on the idea that image is composed of specific attributes (such as good restaurants, relative cost, receptiveness of the people) and mental pictures (holistic) such as people visiting a historic temple or families playing on a beach. Each of these components has functional and psychological characteristics. Functional characteristics are more tangible destination features, such as historic sites, mountains, ski hills, and shopping centers, and psychological (abstract) characteristics, which include items such as friendly people, safety, and a general feeling or atmosphere. The third scale, common-unique, is based on the idea that images range from "common" functional and psychological traits to unique or more distinctive features, events, feelings, or atmosphere.



**Figure 1: The Components of Destination Image**  
Ecthner and Ritchie, 1993

## **Destination Image of South Korea**

Chon (1991) examined visitors' perceptions before and after their trips to South Korea using Gunn's (1972) traveler behavior model in an empirical analysis of U.S. residents traveling overseas. The study showed that there were significant differences especially with respect to the scenic beauty of South Korea, shopping opportunities and related attractions, and general

attitudes towards traveling to South Korea. Chon and Shin (1990) suggested that South Korea was a late starter in tourism compared with many other Asian nations. The Korean government has organized efforts to sell tourism abroad and this has been quite successful. However, Chon and Shin argued that the Korean War and the negative images associated with South Korea's political instability have made it difficult to promote the country as a desirable travel destination.

According to Ahn and Ahmed (1994), despite the challenges, South Korea is an increasingly popular international travel destination. They stated that the first problem with South Korea's image is what one might call the "M\*A\*S\*H syndrome." Other negative perceptions were thought to include harsh winters, inferior consumer goods, high prices, and rampant prostitution. The success of the 1988 Olympics created a favorable image of South Korea, but this must be maintained in the minds of travelers. According to Ahn and Ahmed, the way to correct negative impressions is to make certain that travelers know the facts.

In summary, there have been several studies regarding the images of South Korea as a travel destination. However, most of this work was completed more than a decade ago. Additionally, South Korea has significantly changed during the past 15 years, and it is necessary to develop a more contemporary understanding of the images of South Korea as a travel destination.

## **Method**

### **Population, Sample and Data Collection**

The population for this study was U.S. citizens interested in travel and to sample this population, online discussion groups on travel and tourism were used.

Most image research has been conducted through mail or by personal interviews. To date, not much destination image research has been done online. Although online surveys have some recognized disadvantages (e.g., incompatibility, Internet accessibility, and security concerns), they have distinct advantages over traditional survey methods in terms of lower costs, added convenience, and quicker execution and responses (Mills, Morrison, and Ismail, 2002). Moreover, the online survey method is beneficial when dealing with a national sample of respondents.

Travel and tourism related discussion groups were identified through search engines and directories including Yahoo and Google, and also based on previous work conducted by Rezende (2002). A total of 29 online discussion

groups were contacted and messages were posted to their subscribers. The online survey received 334 hits with 201 respondents completing the survey, and, therefore, the sample size for this study was 201 U.S. citizens with an interest in travel.

### **Content Analysis, Focus Group, and Survey Questionnaire**

This study adopted the combination of structured and unstructured methodologies suggested by Echtner and Ritchie (1993) in developing the survey questionnaire. At first three open-ended (unstructured) questions were borrowed from Echtner and Ritchie's (1993) study on destination image. These questions are thought to be effective in capturing the unique and holistic components of image and they were as follows:

- What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of South Korea as a travel destination?
- How would you describe the atmosphere or mood that you would expect to experience while visiting South Korea?
- Please list any distinctive or unique tourist attractions that you can think of in South Korea?

The next section was comprised of a set of 50 statements or attributes of South Korea. These were developed over several stages including a content analysis, a focus group session, and a literature review. After the content analysis of materials published in the U.S. about Korea, a focus group was conducted to assess U.S. citizens' images of South Korea as a travel destination, and to pilot-test and refine the survey questionnaire. The participants in the focus group were U.S. citizens with an interest in international travel. In completing the pilot questionnaire, the participants were asked to rate the 50 attribute statements about South Korea on five-point Likert scale from one, for strongly agree, to five, for strongly disagree. Six of the statements were about Korean culture, costumes, food, architectural styles, and addressed the second major objective of this study (whether respondents could differentiate South Korea from China and Japan). The last survey section sought demographic information (gender, age, education, household income, and marital status) and also included questions regarding the respondent's interest in visiting South Korea in the future.

Following the focus group, some revisions were made to the draft questionnaire. Then, two experts with academic and professional backgrounds in tourism reviewed the final set of attribute statements to ensure content validity. Finally, a pretest was conducted in November 2002, involving 38 students in a tourism marketing class at a major U.S. university. The Cronbach's alphas measuring the internal consistency of the statements in this pretest

were quite acceptable. Most of the alphas were more than 0.70. However, tourist facilitation, resort atmosphere/climate, and inexpensiveness were lower at 0.62 to 0.67. The decision was made to retain the scale items as is for the online survey.

### Data Analysis

Two different kinds of software were employed to analyze the qualitative and quantitative data. The three open-ended questions produced the qualitative data, which was analyzed by the CATegory PACKage (CATPAC) II Windows 2.0 program. CATPAC is a self-organizing artificial neural network that has been optimized for reading text. CATPAC identifies the most important words and determines patterns of similarity based on the way the words are used in the text. CATPAC allows more than one description/word per person (Woelfel, 1998; Woelfel and Stoyanoff, 1998). The most frequently used words were combined with the answers to the attribute-based questions in constructing diagrams of the components of destination image as suggested by Echtner and Ritchie (1993), and these are shown in Figures 2, 3, and 4.

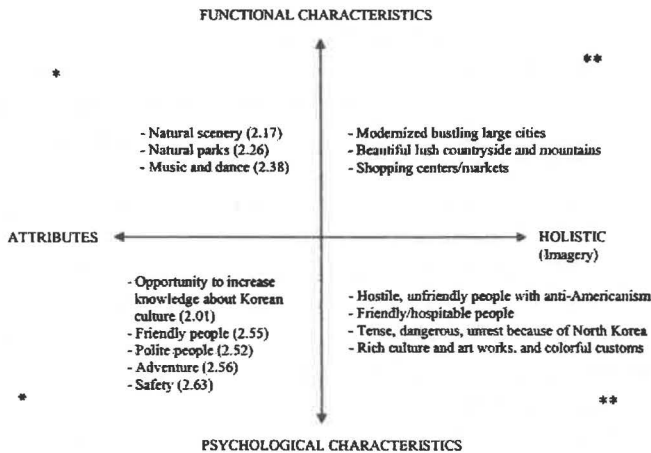


Figure 2: The Attribute/Holistic and Functional/Psychological Components of South Korea's Image

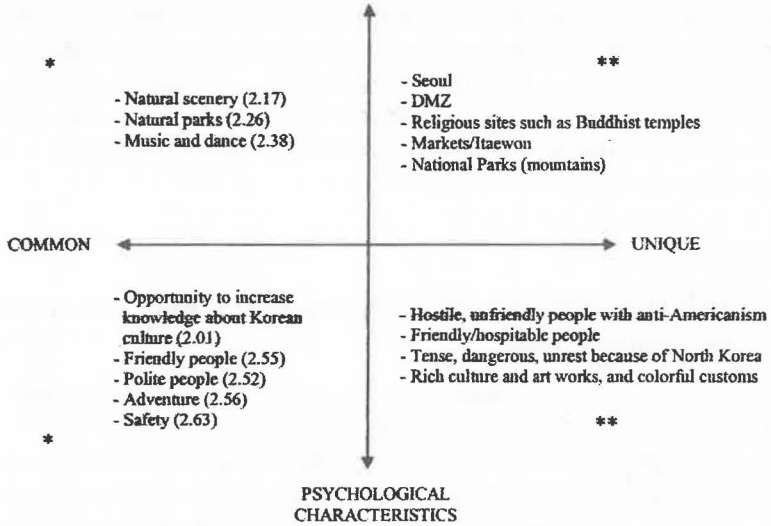
\* Information in this quadrant developed from the attribute statements

\*\* Information in this quadrant developed from responses to open-ended questions

To analyze the quantitative data, simple descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, and mean scores for the 50 attribute statements were used. The next step was a factor analysis on the 50 attributes to condense the information for the original items into a smaller set of new dimensions or

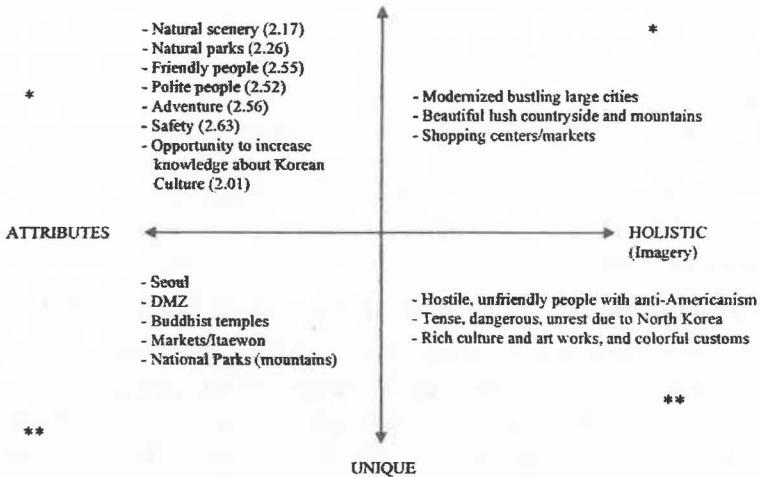


constructs. A principal components analysis with a Varimax rotation was used with a predetermined cut-off Eigenvalue of one. The statements with factor loadings of less than 0.4 were removed from the analysis.



**Figure 3: The Common-unique and Psychological Components of South Korea's Image**

- \* Information in this quadrant developed from the attribute statements
- \*\* Information in this quadrant developed from responses to open-ended questions



**Figure 4: The Attribute/Holistic and Common/Unique Components of South Korea's Image**

- \* Information in this quadrant developed from the attribute statements
- \*\* Information in this quadrant developed from responses to open-ended questions

Cluster analysis was performed on the resulting factors to determine groups of U.S. citizens holding similar images of South Korea. Ward's hierarchical clustering method with squared Euclidean distance as the similarity measure was used to determine the number of clusters. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Sheffé post-hoc tests was performed to verify if statistically significant differences existed among the clusters. In addition, to better understand the clusters, chi-square analyses were conducted to determine if there were any statistically significant differences among the groups in demographic characteristics.

## **Results**

### **General Description of Respondents and Interest in Visiting South Korea**

More than half of respondents were male (57.7%), and the majority was aged from 35 to over 65 (80.1%). Married persons represented more than half of the respondents (59.2%), while 29.9% were single. Most of respondents (97%) had a college education experience. Some 68.7% of them had earned Bachelor's degrees, and 31.9% had postgraduate degrees. Overall, it appeared that well-educated U.S. citizens were the most interested in completing the survey. The proportion of high-income (\$80,000 plus) respondents was 42.8%, while 28.9% were in the medium-income (\$40,000-\$79,999) range.

Overall, more than half of the respondents (56.2%) were very interested or interested in visiting South Korea, while 37.3% were not interested. These positive responses should not be assumed to mean that a high percentage of all U.S. citizens are interested in visiting South Korea. The sample was composed of U.S. citizens with a known interest in travel and tourism and, therefore, they were predisposed to knowing more about foreign cultures and destinations than the general population.

### **Overall Images of South Korea (Research Objective 1)**

Overall, neutral to agree images (means of less than three) were found for 35 statements, while there were 15 neutral to disagree images (means above three) of South Korea as a travel destination. Only one item (Korea has a long history) had a mean score in the strongly agree (less than two) or strongly disagree (more than four) range (Table 1). The items with the highest level of agreement were:

- Korea has a long history (1.69)
- There are several opportunities within South Korea to increase my

- knowledge about Korean culture (2.01)
- South Korean cities are crowded (2.02)
- Korea has its own martial arts (2.08)
- South Korea has natural beauty (2.17)
- Most people visit South Korea because of business (2.19)
- South Korea is a good place for shopping (2.25)
- Korean food is spicy (2.28)
- South Korea offers much in terms of natural scenic beauty (2.28)

**Table 1: Images of South Korea as a Travel Destination: Attribute Statements**

Attribute Statements	Mean
1) In general, South Korea is a safe place to visit	2.63
2) There are many attractions to visit in South Korea	2.66
3) South Korea is an exciting place to visit	2.70
4) People in South Korea are friendly	2.55
5) Traveling to South Korea is convenient and easy	2.92
6) Good quality hotels are easy to find in South Korea	2.38
7) The standard of living in South Korea is high	2.62
8) South Korean cities are crowded	2.02
9) A vacation in South Korea is a real adventure	2.56
10) South Korea is restful and relaxing place to visit	3.16
11) South Korea offers much in terms of natural scenic beauty	2.28
12) South Korea offers a variety of music and dance	2.38
13) Most people visit South Korea because of business	2.19
14) The environment within South Korea's large cities is much different than in large U.S. cities	2.66
15) South Korea has natural beauty	2.17
16) There are several opportunities within South Korea to increase my knowledge about Korean culture	2.01
17) South Korea is a good place to go for the beaches	3.18
18) Tours with guides are not available in South Korea	3.69
19) Vacations in South Korea are inexpensive	3.25
20) Local architecture styles in South Korea are similar to those of Japan	3.01
21) South Korea has good nightlife	2.56
22) Good tourist information is readily available for South Korea	2.57
23) Korea has a long history	1.65
24) Not many people speak English in South Korea	3.14
25) The culture, art, and customs of Korea are very similar to that of Japan	3.18
26) South Korea is an exotic destination	2.48
27) There are many packaged vacations available to South Korea	2.89
28) There are many mountains and natural parks to visit in South Korea	2.26
29) South Korea has its own martial arts	2.08
30) There are many sports and recreational opportunities in South Korea	2.48
31) There are many exhibitions in South Korea	2.52
32) South Korea has pleasant weather for traveling	2.89
33) There are many festivals in South Korea	2.33
34) Korean food is spicy	2.28
35) South Korea is a good place for shopping	2.25
36) People in South Korea are very polite	2.52
37) Korean food is similar to Japanese food	3.50
38) Transportation in South Korea is inexpensive	2.80
39) South Korea is only worth visiting while touring neighboring Asian countries	3.06

40) The political situation in the Korean peninsula has little to do with my image of South Korea as a travel destination	3.49
41) Korean food is similar to Chinese food	3.42
42) South Korea is a good place to take children	3.21
43) Local standards of cleanliness and hygiene are high within South Korea	2.74
44) Quality restaurants are easy to find in South Korea	2.46
45) Transportation within South Korea is convenient	2.58
46) Local architecture styles in South Korea are similar to those in China	3.07
47) South Korea is not a safe place to visit because of North Korea	2.99
48) Public transportation is safe in South Korea	2.55
49) South Korea is a destination that people dream of visiting	3.85
50) The culture, art, and customs of Korea are very similar to that of China	3.29

The attribute statements were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree)

The items that respondents tended to disagree most with were: Tours with guides are not available in South Korea (3.69); the political situation in the Korean peninsula has little to do with my image of South Korea as a travel destination (3.49); and South Korea is a destination that people dream of visiting (3.85).

In order to capture the unique and holistic components of images, three open-ended questions were borrowed from Echtner and Ritchie's (1993) study on destination image. For the first open-ended question, respondents were asked to provide the images that came to their minds when they thought of South Korea as a travel destination. The most frequent answers were: friendly/nice/hospitable people (35.3%), shopping, goods, markets (26.9%), wonderful, nice, beautiful nature or scenery (mountains, countryside, hills, lush, beaches) (21.4%), rich culture, arts, colorful customs (16.9%), modernized, industrialized, large cities, buildings (15.9%), and food (Kimchi, rice, Oriental) (15.4%). The negative characteristics mentioned were DMZ, military, unrest, dangerous place (21.4%), anti-American/demonstrations (16.9%), and the Korean War (5.5%). Recent television programming in the U.S. perhaps influenced these negative images. For example, this survey was conducted during the time of demonstrations to mourn the deaths of two Korean school-girls killed by U.S. soldiers during a military exercise in South Korea. The respondents might have been affected by a 60 Minutes report that covered these demonstrations and that definitely communicated an anti-American theme.

The second open-ended question asked the respondents to describe the mood or atmosphere that they would expect to experience in South Korea. Anti-Americanism, hostile, and unfriendly was the most popular set of answers (37.8%). Again, there was a concern for the political situation in the Korean peninsula, reflected by 18.4% of the respondents who expected an atmosphere that was tense, somber, fearful, dangerous, uncomfortable, and

having some unrest. In contrast, views were expressed about friendly or nice people (34.3%), a welcoming, helpful, warm, favorable, hospitable people and environment (12.4%), and the polite and gracious people (5.5%). Images were also prevalent about the modern and busy environments in South Korean cities, e.g., busy, bustling, crowded, congested, hectic (14.4%), and modernized (4.0%).

The last open-ended question was "Please list any distinctive or unique tourist attractions that you can think of in South Korea." Of those who answered this question, 31.8% mentioned Seoul as a unique attraction in South Korea. The reason for this might be because Seoul has been publicized many times in the media as the capital city of South Korea, the site of the 1988 Summer Olympics, and the co-host of the 2002 World Cup. The next most cited items were the DMZ (19.4%), Buddhist temples (13.4%), and shopping areas such as Itaewon (12.4%). Only 9.5% of respondents mentioned Cheju Island, one of major tourism attractions in South Korea. Some 19.9% of the respondents were not aware of any unique tourist attractions, indicating that South Korea's attractions are not well known among U.S. citizens.

Factor analysis using principal components with a Varimax rotation was performed to group the 50 attribute statements to determine the underlying dimensions of South Korea's image. Twelve factors with Eigenvalues greater than one emerged from the first analysis and the total variance explained was 67.2%. However, the Cronbach alpha coefficients of the last five factors were low (0.45, 0.47, 0.49, 0.25, and 0). To improve the results, an analysis of the correlations between each item and the total score from the scale was conducted to find statements that did not correlate well with the overall score from the scale. Four items were removed due to their greater influence in lowering the reliability coefficient; "There are many packaged vacations available to South Korea;" "South Korea has its own martial arts;" "Korean food is spicy;" and "South Korea is a destination that people dream of visiting." The factor analysis was repeated and ten factors emerged in a new solution. A cut-off point of 0.4 for factor loadings was used instead of 0.3.

Cronbach's alpha, the most commonly used reliability measure, was applied to test the reliability of the factors. The factors with alphas of more than 0.6 were retained for further analysis. An alpha of 0.6 and higher indicates that there is a reasonable level of internal consistency among the items making up the factor (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black, 1998). Three of these factors were dropped due to lower Cronbach alphas (0.44, -0.57, and 0). Again, factor analysis was conducted and the final solution had seven factors and 39 statements, which explained 55.1% of the total variance.

The first factor extracted was composed of ten attribute statements and was named "natural attractions and interests" (Table 2). Five statements were about attractions, natural scenic beauty, beaches, mountains, and natural parks. The other five statements were related to the overall character of South Korean vacations and interests such as places to see and things to do. This factor had the largest Eigenvalue (6.85) and explained 14.9% of the total variance.

**Table 2: Factor Analysis of Attribute Statements about South Korea**

Factors (alpha values)	Loadings	Variance Explained (%)	Eigenvalue
<b>Factor 1: Natural Attractions and Interests (0.91)</b>		14.895	6.852
South Korea offers much in terms of natural scenic beauty	.817		
South Korea has natural beauty	.760		
There are many attractions to visit in South Korea	.705		
South Korea is an exciting place to visit	.696		
A vacation in South Korea is a real adventure	.685		
South Korea offers a variety of music and dance	.680		
There are many mountains and natural parks to visit in South Korea	.665		
There are several opportunities within South Korea to increase my knowledge about Korean culture	.665		
South Korea is an exotic destination	.664		
South Korea is a good place to go for the beaches	.530		
<b>Factor 2: Tourist Facilities, Transportation, and Information (0.90)</b>		13.012	5.985
Good quality hotels are easy to find in South Korea	.759		
Quality restaurants are easy to find in South Korea	.731		
Transportation within South Korea is convenient	.698		
The standard of living in South Korea is high	.659		
South Korea is a good place for shopping	.634		
Traveling to South Korea is convenient and easy	.623		
Local standards of cleanliness and hygiene are high within South Korea	.596		
Public transportation is safe in South Korea	.588		
Good tourist information is readily available for South Korea	.512		
Transportation in South Korea is inexpensive	.504		
South Korea has good nightlife	.431		
<b>Factor 3: Safety and Comfort (0.85)</b>		7.279	3.348
South Korea is not a safe place to visit because of North Korea	.747		
In general, South Korea is safe place to visit	.729		
The political situation in the Korean peninsula has little to do with my image of South Korea as a travel destination	.702		
South Korea is a good place to take children	.632		
South Korea is restful and relaxing place to visit	.519		

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<b>Factor 4: Cultural Comparisons: China (0.79)</b>		5.280	2.429
Local architectural styles in South Korea are similar to those in China	.829		
The cultural, art, and custom of Korean are very similar to that of China	.821		
Korean food is similar to Chinese food	.745		
<b>Factor 5: Cultural Comparisons: Japan (0.80)</b>		5.241	2.411
The culture, art and custom of Koreans are very similar to that of Japan	.856		
Local architectural styles in South Korea similar to those of Japan	.808		
Korean food is similar to Japanese food	.758		
<b>Factor 6: Recreational Opportunities and Events (0.79)</b>		4.948	2.276
South Korea has pleasant weather for traveling	.701		
There are many exhibitions in South Korea	.542		
There are many sports and recreational opportunities in South Korea	.525		
There are many festivals in South Korea	.426		
<b>Factor 7: Images of Korean People (0.69)</b>		4.438	2.041
People in South Korea are very polite	.726		
People in South Korea are friendly	.686		
Not many people speak English in South Korea	.474		
<b>Total Variance Explained</b>		55.1%	

"Tourism facilities, transportation, and information" was the second factor. This factor had an Eigenvalue of 5.99 and explained 13% of the total variance. Most statements were related to tourism facilities such as the quality and variety of hotels, restaurants, shopping, and nightlife. Others were related to the transportation in South Korea, specifically its safety, relative costs, and convenience. Also included were statements about the living standards, levels of cleanliness and hygiene, and quality of tourist information.

Factor three ("safety and comfort") grouped five statements about the safety, political situation, and comfort level in visiting South Korea. It had an Eigenvalue of 3.35 and explained 7.3% of the total variance. The fourth and fifth factors included the cultural comparison statements being used to determine whether respondents could differentiate South Korea from Japan and China. The fourth factor, cultural comparisons with China, had an Eigenvalue of 2.43, while the fifth factor of cultural comparisons with Japan had an Eigenvalue 2.41. These two factors together explained 7.7% of the total variance.

Factor six was named "recreational opportunities and events." It included four statements about exhibitions, festivals, sport and recreational opportunities, and pleasant weather for traveling. Factor six had an Eigenvalue

of 2.3 and explained 5.0% of the total variance. Factor seven was labeled "images of Korean people" and included three statements about whether Koreans were very polite, friendly, and spoke English. The last two factors had Eigenvalues of 2.3 and 2.0 respectively and together explained together 9.4% of the total variance.

## **Perceptions of South Korea vs. China and Japan (Research Objective 2)**

The comparisons of perceptions were used to determine whether U.S. citizens could distinguish South Korea from China and Japan. For the three statements comparing South Korea and Japan, the overall means scores were generally around the neutral value of 3.0; "Local architectural styles in South Korea are similar to those of Japan" (3.01), "The culture, art, and customs of Koreans are very similar to that of Japan" (3.18), and "Korean food is similar to Japanese food" (3.5) (Table 1). Therefore, while U.S. citizens seemed to be able to slightly differentiate South Korea from Japan in terms of food, they were unsure about differences in the architecture styles, culture, art, and customs of South Korea and Japan.

The results showed that respondents also seemed to know the difference between Korean and Chinese food; "Korean food is similar to Chinese food" (3.42). For local architecture styles, culture, art, and customs, respondents did not know the differences between Korea and China; "Local architectural styles in South Korea are similar to those of China" (3.07) and "The culture, art, and customs of Koreans are very similar to that of China" (3.29).

## **Cluster Analysis of Groups of Respondents (Research Objective 3)**

Cluster analysis was performed on the resulting factors to achieve the last objective of grouping respondents with similar images of South Korea. Two different types of cluster analysis techniques were employed to identify groups of U.S. citizens who shared similar images of South Korea. First, a Ward's hierarchical clustering method with squared Euclidean distances as the similarity measure was used to determine the number of clusters. The cluster dendrogram and the agglomeration coefficients suggested four clusters. This number of clusters was then used in a follow-up, non-hierarchical (K-means) cluster analysis to confirm and define cluster membership.

ANOVA tests with Scheffé post-hoc comparisons were used to determine if there were statistically significant differences among the four clusters for the seven image factors. Table 3 shows there were statistically significant differences for all seven factors at  $p = 0.01$ . Also, to better understand the



clusters, chi-square analyses were performed to determine if there were significant differences among the groups in demographic characteristics. Table 4 indicates there were no significant differences in the five demographic factors among the four groups.

**Table 3: Means of Image Factors for the Four Clusters**

Factors (Dimensions)	Cluster I n = 36	Cluster II n = 86	Cluster III n = 26	Cluster IV n = 53	F- Ratio	Sig. Level (p)
Natural attractions and interests	2.88c	2.24a	2.61b	2.62b	14.275	.000
Tourism facilities, transportation, and information	2.52a	2.42a	2.51a	2.62b	18.274	.000
Safety and comfort	3.52b	2.78a	3.09a	3.34a	5.116	.002
Cultural comparisons: China	2.79a	3.18b	3.32b	3.67b	16.272	.000
Cultural comparisons: Japan	3.17b	2.92a	4.05c	3.38b	41.652	.000
Recreational opportunities and events	2.90c	2.40b	2.27a	2.71b	10.800	.000
Images of Korean people	2.51a	2.73b	3.00b	2.42a	21.273	.000

Note: Values are means based on a 5-point Likert scale. Means with a different superscript are significantly different from each other based on Scheffé tests at  $p = 0.05$ . For example cluster I (a), II (a) and III (a) did not significantly differ from each other with regard to the tourism facilities, transportation, and information factor, but Cluster I, II, III differed from Cluster IV (b).

The first cluster had more positive images (lower mean scores) than the overall average for "tourism facilities, transportation, and information" (2.5) and "images of Korean people" (2.5). However, this cluster had a somewhat more negative image of

"safety and comfort" (3.52) and the most neutral images of "natural attractions and interests" and "recreational opportunities and events" (2.9). They were the only group that considered the features of South Korea to be like China (2.8). A majority was male (61.1%), over 55 years old (52.8%), and married (61.1%). Some 83.3% of this group had a Bachelor's degree or higher and it had the highest proportion with high incomes at 52.8%.

The second cluster had the most positive images (lowest means) of South Korea for three of the seven factors: "natural attractions and interests" (2.2), "tourist facilities, transportation, and information" (2.4), and "safety and comfort" (2.8). This cluster was the only one that saw similarities between South Korea and Japan (2.9), but overall they were close to being neutral. Some 60% were male, 59.3% were over 45, 52.3% were married, and 57% of had Bachelor's degrees or higher. The second cluster had the highest proportion with medium and low incomes (52.3%).

**Table 4: Demographic Characteristics of Clusters**

Characteristics	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ )	Sig. Level (p)
	n = 36	n = 86	n = 26	n = 53		
<b>Gender</b>					$\chi^2 = 1.11$	0.777
Male	61.11%	60.05%	53.85%	52.83%		
Female	38.89%	39.95%	46.15%	47.17%		
<b>Age</b>					$\chi^2 = 21.026$	0.457
18-19	0.0%	2.33%	3.84%	3.38%		
20-24	6.72%	6.98%	0%	5.57%		
25-34	8.33%	16.28%	11.54%	9.43%		
35-44	11.11%	15.12%	26.92%	16.98%		
45-49	11.11%	13.95%	15.38%	11.32%		
50-54	1.39%	24.42%	15.38%	15.09%		
55-64	30.56%	13.95%	15.38%	26.42%		
65 +	22.22%	6.98%	11.54%	11.32%		
<b>Marital Status</b>					$\chi^2 = 13.638$	0.553
Single	25.00%	33.72%	15.38%	24.52%		
Married	61.11%	52.32%	80.77%	58.49%		
Separated	2.78%	1.16%	0%	1.89%		
Widowed	2.78%	1.16%	3.84%	3.78%		
Divorced	2.78%	9.30%	0%	9.43%		
Others	5.56%	2.30%	0%	1.89%		
<b>Education</b>					$\chi^2 = 23.604$	0.168
Left high school	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%		
High school	0%	4.65%	0.0%	0.0%		
Some college	8.33%	27.91%	19.23%	13.21%		
Associate's degree	8.33%	8.14%	11.54%	9.43%		
Bachelor's degree	36.11%	31.40%	38.46%	45.28%		
Master's degree	36.11%	18.60%	26.92%	30.19%		
Doctoral degree	11.11%	7.00%	3.85%	1.89%		
Others	0.0%	2.32%	0.0%	0.0%		
<b>Income</b>					$\chi^2 = 12.983$	0.163
Low (< \$39,999)	11.11%	22.09%	0.0%	11.32%		
Medium (\$40,000-79,999)	25.00%	30.23%	34.62%	26.42%		
High (\$80,000 +)	52.78%	34.89%	42.31%	49.06%		
Unwilling to answer	11.11%	12.79%	23.08%	13.21%		

The third cluster had the most positive image of South Korea for one of the statements: "recreational opportunities and events" (2.27). By contrast, they had the highest mean score for "images of Korean people" (3.0), which was a neutral opinion. This group was the clearest in being able to differentiate South Korea from Japan (4.1). Some 53.9% were male, 57.7% were over 45 years, 80.8% were married (the highest married percentage), 69.2% had Bachelor's degrees or higher, and 42.3% had high incomes.

The fourth cluster most clearly differentiated South Korea from China (3.7). They had the most positive "images of Korean people" (2.4) among the four groups, and the highest proportion of females (47.2%). Some 64.2% were over 45, 77.4% had Bachelor's degrees or higher, and they had the second highest percentage

with high incomes (49.1%).

## **Conclusion :**

In conclusion, this study's results indicated that there were a variety of images of South Korea as a travel destination among U.S. citizens. Some of these images were positive, but some were negative. Another major conclusion was that these U.S. citizens were unaware of most of what South Korea has to offer as a destination, both in terms of its major attractions and the specific activities that are available for visitors. It was also concluded that U.S. citizens generally are not clearly able to distinguish South Korea from China and Japan. In addition, it was found that not all U.S. have the same images of South Korea as a travel destination, and four distinct image clusters of respondents were identified.

The results for both the unstructured and structured questions used in this study showed that U.S. citizens have a mixture of positive and negative images of South Korea as a travel destination. On the positive side, South Korea is perceived to be a country with a long history and a rich culture. It is considered to have great natural beauty, and friendly and hospitable people. The uniqueness of Korean food and its martial arts also appear to be well recognized among U.S. citizens. Finally, there is an image that South Korea has modern cities, and that the country offers good opportunities for shopping.

It was obvious from the results of this study that South Korea tourism must counter some prevalent negative images within the U.S. The country appears to be a victim of past history (the Korean War of 1950-1953), the difficult current political situation in the Korean peninsula caused by North Korea's nuclear arms threat and the U.S. military presence in South Korea, and the perception of anti-American sentiments in South Korea that have been widely publicized in the U.S. media. Together, these historical and present conditions may be the root cause of some U.S. citizens feeling that it is unsafe to visit and that South Korea residents are anti-American and unfriendly. The geographical proximity to its poorer neighbor, North Korea, perhaps when added to some remaining memories of the M\*A\*S\*H movie and television series, may be contributing to some people's images that South Korea is somewhat of an impoverished nation. By contrast, some people have images of South Korea as being modern with busy and highly congested cities.

The answers to the open-ended questions and focus group results suggested that there is a distinct lack of awareness among U.S. citizens about what specifically South Korea offers in terms of attractions and activities. For example, one of its major attractions, Cheju Island, is not well known despite the efforts of the KNTA and tour operators' efforts to promote that destination. This lack of awareness may be compounding the problems caused by the just mentioned negative images of South Korea. In addition, South Korea seems to lack the types of major "iconic" attractions that most destinations have, including for example the Great Wall and Xi'an in China, and Mount Fuji in Japan.

The overall responses to the questions on cultural comparisons between South Korea, China, and Japan, suggested that U.S. citizens cannot clearly and

consistently differentiate among the three nations. While the respondents tended to be better able to differentiate South Korea in terms of food, they were not as able to distinguish the architecture styles, culture, art works, and customs. The increased popularity of "Oriental food" could be one of factor contributing to the greater recognition of differences between Korean, Japanese, and Chinese food.

In summary, South Korea at this time seems to be faced with a major set of challenges in its image as a tourism destination. These challenges are three-fold in nature with respect to potential visitors from the U.S.: 1) negative images; 2) lack of awareness; and 3) inability to differentiate from neighboring countries and competitive destinations.

The study found that the images of South Korea varied among sub-groups of respondents in perceived safety and comfort, and cultural comparisons among South Korea, Japan, and China. Some of the four groups had concerns about the level of safety in Korea, while others considered South Korea to be safe. Some groups were able to distinguish South Korea from Japan, but the others were better able to distinguish South Korea from China. These results indicate that it would be very unwise for South Korean marketers to assume that all potential visitors from the U.S. are alike, since this research showed that images vary considerably in the U.S. market.

## **Marketing Implications**

South Korea must determine U.S. citizens' current perceptions of the country, and acknowledge both the negative and positive images. Moreover, the marketers of South Korean tourism must recognize that there is a lack of awareness in the U.S. of the country's major attractions and vacation activities. One of the most fundamental implications of this study is that South Korea lacks a clear image in the U.S. market as a pleasure travel destination. A comprehensive new marketing strategy is required to address this gap in awareness, as well as to counter the negative images of South Korea that seemingly gained momentum in 2002 and 2003.

The more specific marketing needs resulting from this research are as follows:

- The need to address the perceptions of a lack of safety, comfort, and welcome for U.S. residents in South Korea.
- The need to more clearly differentiate South Korea from two of its closest neighbors, China and Japan.
- The need to disassociate South Korea's image as a tourism destination from the general images of North Korea.
- The need to more firmly establish one or more "icon" attractions, such as Cheju Island, in the minds of potential U.S. travelers.
- The need to more fully capitalize on the most recognized assets of South Korea among U.S. citizens, including its history, natural beauty, culture, food, and martial arts.

In meeting these needs, it is believed that the Internet can be a very effective tool, especially in reaching a market so distant from South Korea. Establishing more effective Internet marketing strategies aimed at potential U.S. visitors is required.

## **Limitations of the Study**

The results of this study should be considered with caution because of

sampling limitations. First, the population for this study was defined as U.S. citizens interested in travel. These respondents should have had more knowledge of differences among tourism destinations around the world than other U.S. citizens. Therefore, the study's findings cannot be generalized to the U.S. population as a whole.

Next, those respondents who already had an interest in South Korea were perhaps more willing to participate in the survey. Due to data collection method, it was impossible to determine the response rate or to evaluate if there was a non-response bias. Additionally, there was no way to know from which online discussion group participants came.

Gartner and Shen (1992) stated there is autonomous image formation agent that can dramatically affect an area's image in a short period of time through second-party sources such as media channels. The survey for this study was conducted during the peak of the media reporting about demonstrations in South Korea regarding the two schoolgirls killed in a U.S. military accident, and on the nuclear issue with North Korea. Thus, it is possible that the respondents were affected by the adverse media stories at the time on both South and North Korea, and that this represented the influence of an autonomous image formation agent, as envisaged by Gartner and Shen.

## **Recommendations for Future Studies**

Further research should be conducted to identify the main sources of information about South Korea that have influenced the current images that U.S. citizens have of the country. Perhaps, such a study could help explain why differences in the culture and customs of South Korea and neighboring Asian countries are not very clear.

A larger and more representative survey of the general U.S. population should be conducted to supplement the findings of this research. More research should be conducted on U.S. travelers to South Korea to identify their motivations, levels satisfaction levels, and changes in images after their trips.

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# **Initiation of Participatory Tourism Planning by Local Government : A Case Study of Community Cleaning Day, Koh Samui, Surat Thani Province, Southern Thailand**

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**Abstract:** This paper explores and discusses community participation approach in local tourism development planning initiated by Tambon Municipality, a local government of Koh Samui, southern Thailand, in order to understand the pattern of participatory planning process in local tourism development. The results document the innovative approach of adapting the community participation concept into a local condition by examining benefits gained and satisfaction from people's participation. Factors associated with people's participation were also analyzed. The paper concludes that along with implementation of decentralization, there is a significant role of local government in local tourism planning in its adapted participatory approach.

**Keywords:** Thailand, Koh Samui, Local Government, Participatory Planning Process, Local Tourism Planning

## **Introduction**

In most of the islands around the world, tourism has been one of the important sectors. Tourism not only means infrastructure development and providing services, in fact it is a complex phenomenon which includes socio-ecological interaction. The sustainability of tourism industry depends on maintaining balance in ecological and environmental aspects along with its social dimensions. Further, active participation of stakeholders in the process is crucial for achieving sustainability along with ecological conservation. World Tourism Organization (WTO) has been putting much effort in promoting a more sustainable development of tourism in coastal areas, especially in small islands. This focus of WTO's work recognizes the very specific situation of these complex ecosystems, which are faced with strong natural and human pressures as well as a great presence of tourism activities. In this junction, the



case of community participatory activity designed for maintaining clean environment for tourism development can provide an insight on how local people are participating to maintain local environment as well as maintained the sustainability of tourism which is the most important income generating sector for that kind of areas. Not only this, the understanding of this kind of socio-ecological system provides the basis for transforming tourism from a threat to opportunity for local environment and people.

Tourism has become major generator of national income through creation of employment opportunities across all tourism and travel-related sectors. Tourism offers significant opportunities for employment creation, local economic development, and integration into the international market. Nevertheless, at present, much of the debate on tourism especially in developing countries has been focused on whether its effect is beneficial or negative, and whether they are developmental or anti-developmental. Tourism has often had negative impacts on local communities and environment (Singh 1989 and ICLEI 1999). It has also been held responsible for transformation of societies by introducing uncalled for and undesirable changes in their values, systems, tradition and mores, collective lifestyle, creative expression, language and individual behavior. However, Singh (1989) notes that tourism by all means, is people's industry. People are at the core as being guests or hosts. It is their well being and enrichment which should be the primary goal of tourism development. Unfortunately this is not happening in conventional or mass tourism system.

Tourism can be considered as one component in development strategies to pursue the community development. To reach the goals, tourism development needs to have cooperation among several sectors including central, regional, local government, and other related organizations. Community participation is one of a key element to pursue the development duties especially through the management of local government along the concept of decentralization. The trend towards decentralization reflects worldwide changes in governance over recent decades (Yuksel et al. 2005). In many countries, the concentration of authority and decision-making within the central state and its bureaucracies has been identified as a major obstacle to more effective governance. Decentralization, then, is believed to offer improvements in the efficiency of service delivery, and to bring decision-making closer to the population (Oliveira 2002; Rondinelli, McCullough and Johnson 1989) and therefore, local government, are well placed to provide what people demand (Yukssel et al. 2005).

Local tourism development with community participation can only be



possible through the promotion and implementation of community participatory planning. It denotes the process of which authority is passed on from the national government to local administration units. The local units are assigned with autonomous responsibility and duty to perform public services regardless of the national government's line of command. In other words, the assignment of central government's provincial representatives is shifted to the local government personnel (Chayabutra 1997). Many scholars have mentioned that decentralization will work because local communities and politicians have the specific time and place information needed to construct better policies than central governments (Oates 1999; and World Bank 1988). However, Anderson and Gibson (2006) posited that one of the fundamental conditions for decentralization policies to be effective is that the local government officials, to whom governance responsibilities have been handed over, are interested in carrying out their new mandate.

In this paper we make an argument that it is utmost important to document nuts and bolts of implementation process of local development planning by citing an example of decentralized participatory tourism planning and implementation process through community cleaning day. By documenting detailed structure and establishment process of community municipality including different phases and the activities being undertaken through stakeholders, we can easily identify key factors associated with people's participation which in turn can be applied in similar situation. There has very little study being conducted detailing the process and satisfaction gained from participatory planning process, and thus, this paper tries to bridge the knowledge gap by documentary the finding from such process. But before we discuss the participatory planning process in detail we briefly review the decentralized development planning process in Thailand, study methodology including criteria for selection of study area and respondents.

The National Economic and Social Development Plan provide guidelines and directions for development in Thailand. Since the Eight Plan (1997-2001), people-centered development has been introduced and the main strategy of the Plan is decentralization of the administrative system allowing for popular governance. Local administration and responsibility are viewed essential for increasing the potential of economic and social development as well as sustainable management of natural resources. It is supposed that if the communities find solutions to their problems, this will ensure more timely and evenly distribute development. The Ninth Plan (2002-2006) adopts the philosophy of sufficiency economy bestowed by His Majesty the King. The major emphasis is to balance development of human, social economic and environmental resources and to achieve real sustainable people-centered development. It aims

to create good governance. As the importance of tourism has increased considerably in recent past, the Ninth Plan (2002-2006) has included a plan to promote tourism through community participation approach with potential to create jobs, spread income benefits, and increase foreign exchange earnings along with the sustainable tourism development. Local government is widely perceived to have responsibility to support and ensure local tourism development.

As decentralization is common both for local tourism and community development approach, one of the reorientation experienced in Thailand in the context of local tourism destination is called Koh Samui. Due to the increase in population and tourism boom in Koh Samui, Surat Thani province, southern Thailand, waste disposal have become a problem. Community planning is another serious problem resulting from mismanagement of zoning for market, tourism spots, and living area. To reorganize and manage these matters, Tambon Municipality (TM) of Koh Samui has set up a project to organize local people especially "street vender". The project created cleaning activity by which local people get involved in improving tourism spots and other community areas to have a clean and nice environment. The significance of the project is a participatory planning process in community development. The main sector responsible for this plan is the Public Health Care Sector under TM.

In general, project aims to follow the policy of central government which emphasize on tourism promotion at local area. Central government expects that local community which includes local government, private sector, entrepreneurs, and local groups should get involved in carrying out development tasks since they need to show their sense of belonging and responsibility on their local tourism development following people's participation concept mentioned in development plan. Therefore, TM set up a participatory activity for people's participation called "Community Cleaning Day". The activity was pursued intensely in Chaweng Yai village of Bo Phut sub-district. Mostly, local street vendors, who sell their products around tourism spots especially around beach area, participated in this activity. These local street vendors are registered to TM of Koh Samui to get work permission for selling and providing service to tourists. It is mandatory for them to participate in community participatory cleaning activity. Thus, main target group in this activity are street vendors and also include people who show concern on community environment.

Although several projects have been implemented, there is no systematic evaluation of participatory activities. There are important issues to be showed

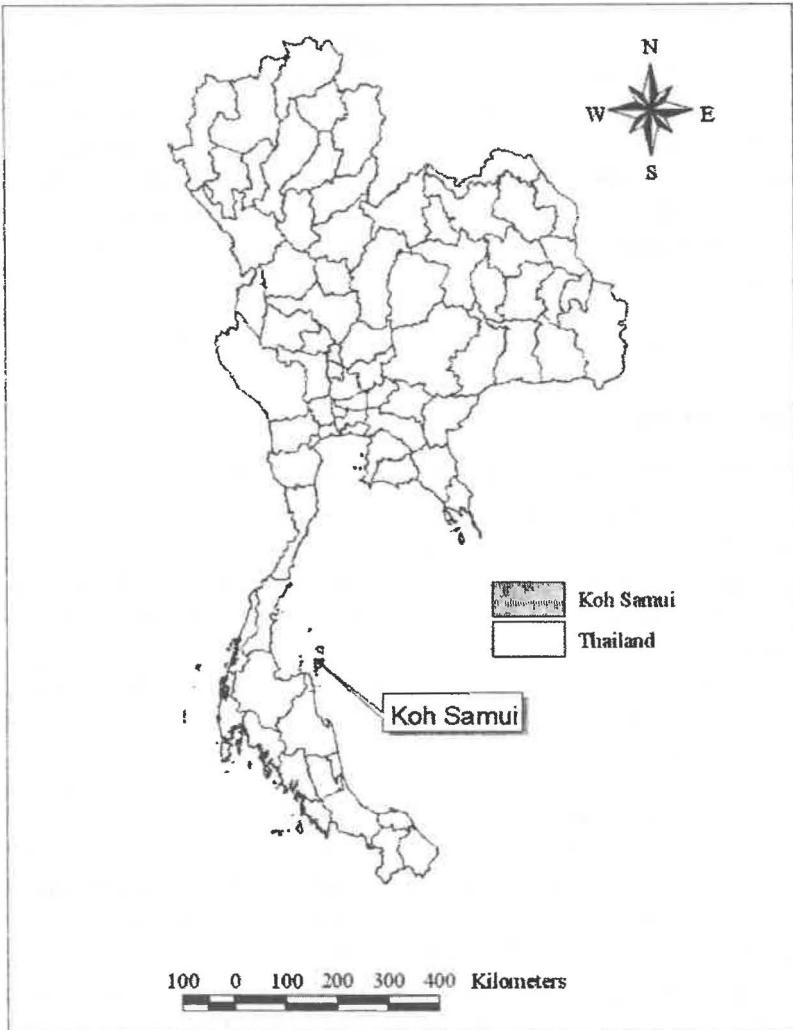
and incorporative in ongoing projects implementation effectively and also to provide an experience based on the outcome for future governance management of local resources through effective participatory process. Thus, this paper focuses on participatory planning process of Tambon Municipality (TM) in Koh Samui. The objectives include; to study community participation approach and techniques applied in local tourism planning with reference on type, form and degree of involvement; to examine magnitude and intensity of people's participation in the local tourism planning; to assess benefits gained and satisfaction of local people from their participation in the local tourism planning; and also to analyze factors affecting community participation in the local tourism planning and identify problems encountered.

## **Methodology**

### **Selection of Study Area and Respondents**

We selected Samui Island (Koh Samui) because of its popularity among tourist. It is located in southern part of Thailand is the third-largest island occupying an area of 252 sq. km, and is surrounded by 52 smaller islands. At present, Koh Samui has a total of 42,047 registered residents. But the local government officials estimate that there might be 50,000 or more people living without registration. There are a total of 18,368 households within 39 villages from 7 tambons (sub-districts). Until last decade, Koh Samui was a small community, with its major economic focus on coconut production. Beside, the island was also famous for fishing and agriculture. After tourism boom, since year 1990, it became a main income generating activity for Koh Samui. Unexpected changes occurred from tourism due to lack of a good planning. Samui has been changing rapidly both culturally and through various infrastructural improvements such as road, sewage projects, and hotels. During 2003, 837,500 people visited Koh Samui.

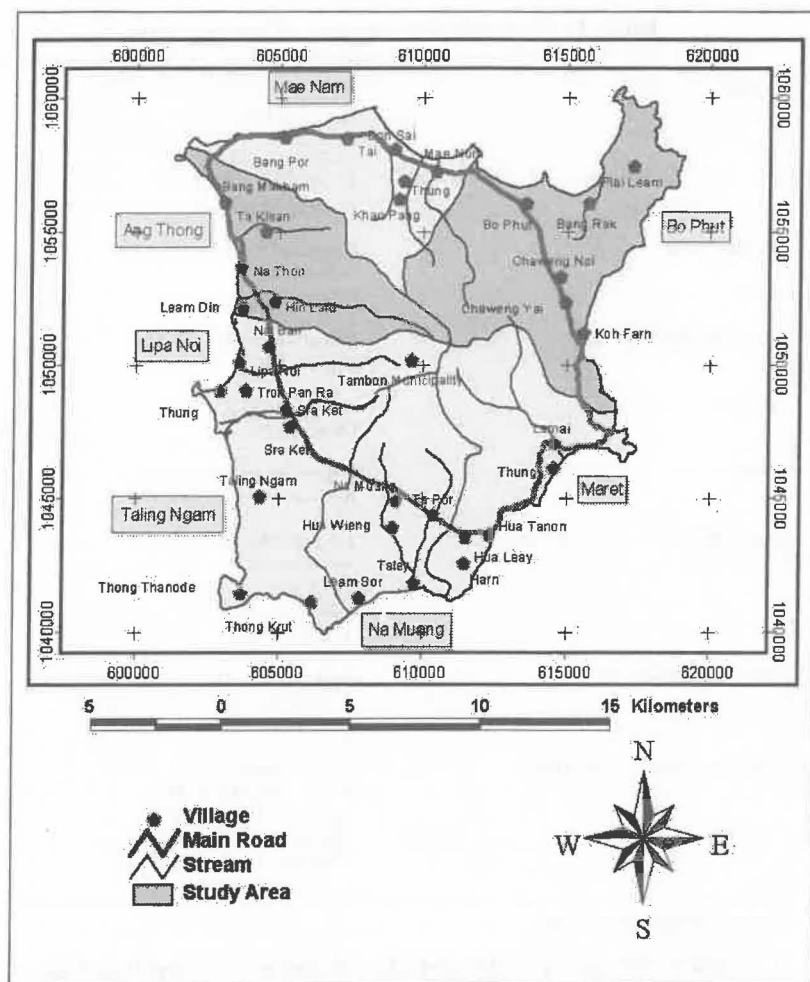
We selected Chaweng Yai village of Bo Phut sub-district for household survey where participatory planning was initiated by Tambon Municipality of Koh Samui (See Figure 1 and 2 for the locations of Koh Samui and the study area.). Chaweng Yai village consists of total of 780 households. The simple random sampling was applied to select 30 households as respondents for the questionnaire survey to understand local people's perception and to examine factors those associated with their participation. Case study analysis, key informant interview, field observation, and group discussion were also conducted for deeper understanding and different stakeholders' perceptions on the issues.



**Figure 1 : Map of Thailand Showing Location of Koh Samui**

In order to perform the statistical analysis, selected variables were transformed into Weighted Average Index (WAI) by constructing five point social scales. The WAI was used to analyze the extent and the intensity of participation including decision-making, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. The degree of benefits gained and satisfaction from people's participation were also analyzed. Correlation Coefficients were calculated in order to assess the factors associated with the intensity of people's participation during different participation phases.

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Source: Department of Provincial Administration, Ministry of Interior

**Figure 2 : Map of Koh Samui**

## Characteristic of Respondents

More than half of the respondents were male because men were head of a family and they controlled the household resources. More than two-third of respondents were between the ages of 31-50 with an average of 34 years indicating their participation more than younger ones. The finding shows that almost all of the respondents had obtained primary and secondary level of education. Most of the respondents were Buddhists (Table 1).

**Table 1: Demographic Aspects of Respondents**

Issue	Proportion of Sample (n=30)
Gender	Male: 56.7% Female: 43.3%
Age	18-30 years: 30.0% 31-50 years: 70.0% Average 34 years old
Marital Status	Single: 6.7% Married: 90.0% Others: 3.3%
Level of Education	Primary/secondary: 96.6% Higher: 3.3%
Religion	Buddhism: 93.3% Others: 6.7%
Ethnic	Native Samui: 0 % Non-native Samui: 100.0%
Years of Residence in Koh Samui	1-8 years: 83.3% 9-16 years: 6.7% 17-24 years: 6.7% > 24 years: 3.3% Average 6 years
Main Occupation	Agriculture: 3.3% Trading: 86.7% Wage labor: 10.0%
Level of Annual Income (Baht)	24,000-90,000: 33.3% 90,001-180,000: 36.7% 180,001-270,000: 10.0% 270,001-360,000: 6.7% >360,000: 13.3% Average 219,387 Baht

Source: Field Survey, 2004

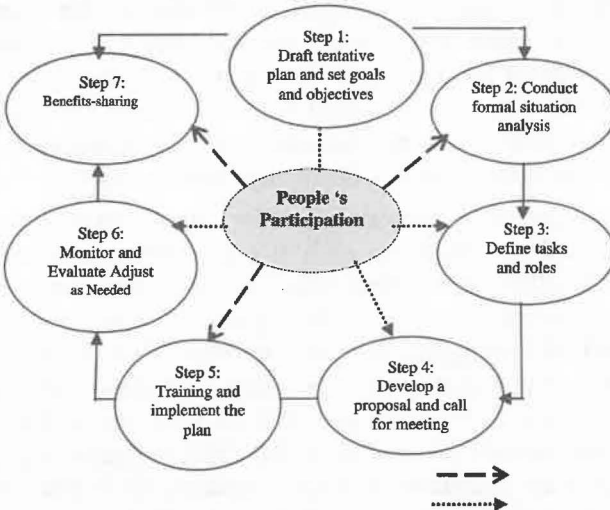
A review of historical settlement of Koh Samui revealed that there was diversity of ethnics groups settled in this island such as Malay or Chinese. However, people who originally were born in Koh Samui preferred themselves to be called as "chao Samui" (Samui folk). With development of the tourist destination, there was a high rate of in-migration to Koh Samui searching for opportunity of occupation in this island. The participation of exclusively non-native Samui in local tourism planning also indicated the intensity of in-migration. Result showed that many outsiders migrated to live in Koh Samui since there were many income generating opportunities from tourism related activities. All respondents were non-native Samui who came from the north-eastern part of Thailand to work in Koh Samui. Due to the high rate of migration in Koh Samui, most respondents stayed in Koh Samui in between 1-

8 years with an average of 6 years of living. Most of them engaged in trading with an average income of 219,387 Baht annually (1 US \$ is equivalent to 39 Baht during period in year 2004).

## Community Participation in Tourism Planning Process

### Community Participatory Cycle

This section provides background information on community participation cycle and process. Several definitions of participation have been identified. Most of them are similar in principle but difference in terms of stages of participation. A World Bank Document (1975) emphasized the importance of participation of local people in planning, decision-making and implementation of development activities. People have to be involved in every step of the development process, from the stage of goal and objective formulation, priority setting choices of planning and implementation strategy and access to knowledge on the proceedings of development efforts (Meow 1978). Participation involves organized efforts to increase control over resources and regulative institutions in given social situations, on the part of groups and movements of those hitherto excluded from such control. The nature of participation in the development process gives rise to much controversy regarding the definition and the modalities since there is not a single universally accepted definition. Participation of the rural poor through their own local organizations, benefits not only them but also the government administration and



**Figure 3: Steps of Participatory Planning Process of TM**

this dual benefit facilities rural development for several reasons (FAO 1986). There are four main phases of participatory planning process of TM which can be divided into seven steps as shown in Figure 3.

The first phase is decision-making process in which TM is the main stakeholder to carry on the process. The TM staff compiles the initial information and a meeting is organized by directly involving the local people. In addition, there is indirect participation via representative of the local people in the process of discussion on problems and needs and writing up a proposal. During the implementation phase, there is direct participation from local people. However, there is no people's participation in the monitoring and evaluation process but they are the benefit-sharing group through participatory process.

These main four phases of participatory planning process of TM has been described hereunder;

#### **Phase 1: Decision-making Phase**

The first phase is to set up goals and objectives of the activity, define tasks and roles, information gathering, and develop a strategy to reach the goals. With the aim of promoting tourism via a clean environment in Koh Samui, the Public Health Care sector under TM created a project to pursue a cleanness community for tourism. The Public Health Care sector drafted a plan to promote community participatory activities in cleaning public area especially around tourism spots. Target participants are the street vendors who mostly are engaged with tourist. The plan was drafted tentatively to propose to the mayor for approval. After approval of the draft, the Public Health Care sector wrote up a proposal of the activity. In this case, there are two specific activities continuing which are "Training for Managing the Street Vendors Practices Project." and "Community Participatory Cleaning Day".

Information gathering was carried out for current and potential status of street vendors and their practices such as registration of residency in Koh Samui and also selling areas. Those who had not yet registered to be a resident would be asked to proceed with the registration. Then they receive work permission in Koh Samui. Also they need to follow the rules and regulation. The regulations state that street vendors cannot sell their products on every Wednesday and around the beach after 4:00 pm everyday; and they must be involved in participatory activities set up by TM. After gathering basic information and making agreement with street vendors, the Public Health Care sector write a full proposal setting up objectives, determining a timeline, budget arrangement, and also coordinating with related sectors for support such as cash, cleaning material, and also support staffs. The proposal would be ap-



proved by the mayor and TM's committee. TM call for a meeting to announce the information and process of activities. The meeting is set up for two times a month. This is to update all concerns and discussion on any matters and current situation of the area. The meeting focuses on especially the directions on how to follow TM's rules and regulations.

Within the first phase of participatory planning process, street venders participated by giving basic information and getting involve in the meeting. However, it seems to be a passive participation which tends to be a type of forced participation due to the mandate of TM. If there is no participation in activity setting up by TM, there is no permission for working in Koh Samui. There are two types of participation in this stage. Direct participation occurred since street venders giving basic information directly to TM and a must to get involved in TM meeting. Indirect participation appeared when there is a process of discussing the problems and needs and analyzing current situations in the meeting of TM with the representative of street venders and other local people.

### **Phase 2: Implementation Phase**

After the proposal was approved, the participatory activities are ready for implementation. The activity has two periods which are a training period and an implementation period.

#### **First period (Training Period)**

TM sets up a training workshop called "Training for Managing the Street Venders Practices Project." The target group is street venders and workshop was set for 1,000 street venders. The workshop provided knowledge about rules and regulations to increase understanding of the participants. This was also to reorganize their practices in public area. The workshop had five sessions and each workshop was carried out one day per a session (Table 2).

**Table 2: Training Schedule**

Session	Training Time	Number of Participants
1	December 2003	100
2	February 2004	250
3	June 2004	250
4	June 2004	250
5	August 2004	150
	Total	1,000

Source: Tambon Municipality of Koh Samui, 2004

#### **Second period (Implementation Period)**

This is an implementation period for participatory cleaning activity. TM

calls for participation for a meeting every second Wednesday during the month for "Community Participatory Cleaning Day". Street vendors get together at the appointment place such as temple, specific beach, or another tourism spots. The target area is rotated based on TM's work schedule. TM set additional rules of participatory activity as follows;

- If participant is absent from participation for over two times consecutively, their permission to work in Koh Samui will be dismissed.
- TM will call for additional meeting two times per month to discuss all concerns and announce more information for all matters.

Street vendors need to be name-checked by TM officers before start the activity. They are divided into three groups according as their selling characteristic including goods consumption group, food consumption group, and services group. There is supervision for each group. It takes almost a half day to finish the cleaning activity.

### **Phase 3: Monitoring and Evaluation Phase**

The participatory activity was monitored and evaluated by TM officers. They use evaluation form and only TM officers are involved in this step. During the implementation period, participants can identify problems and needs, which can be discussed in a meeting two times per month. Unfortunately, street vendors have no channel to take part in this monitoring and evaluation process.

### **Phase 4: Benefit-Sharing Phase**

Street vendors receive benefit-sharing from their participation such as receiving permission to work in Koh Samui or even receiving a nice and clean environment to live in. Moreover, the benefit-sharing appear as the satisfaction of their live as a reward when they participate for the social matters in their community.

Different activities planned and performed during the four phases of participatory planning process, the charactersitics of participation, stakeholders involved in the process and the time frame has been summarized in Table 3.

## **Institutional Framework of Participatory Planning Process**

The three dimensions of participation in relation to rural development includes "what", "who", and "how" as the basic framework (Uphoff 1979). Participation also has been described in different levels of involvement, ranging from information sharing and gathering, to consultation, negotiation, share decision-making and transfer of decision-making. Result showed that almost

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all respondents involved in implementing of community activity which was mainly due to mandatory provision of TM as discussed earlier. Similarly, majority of the respondents expressed that they received benefit sharing (Table 4).

**Table 3: The Participatory Planning Process of TM**

Phase	Activities	Characteristic of People's Participation	Stakeholders	Time Period
Decision-making Phase	- Draft a tentative plan to get first approval	None	TM	October
	- Set a specific, realistic, and achievable goals and objectives	None	TM	October
	- Determine timeline and budget	None	TM	October
	- Gathering the information	Direct	TM Street Venders	October November
	- Discussion on problems and needs	Indirect	TM Representative of Street Venders	November
	- Define task and roles	None	TM	November
	- Writing up a proposal of an activity	Indirect	TM Representative of Street Venders	November
	- Coordinate with related sector for receive supporting	None	TM	November
	- Call for meeting to announce the plan and discussing	Direct	TM Street Venders	December
Implementation Phase	- Setting up training workshop for participants (4 sessions and one session per one day)	Direct	TM Street Venders	December February June August
	- TM calls for meeting at target area to carry on the cleaning activities.	Direct	TM Street Venders	Second Wednesday of the every month
	- Three different groups carry on the cleaning activity			
Monitoring and Evaluate Phase	- Establish measures to evaluate quantity and quality of outputs, time lines, and the effectiveness	None	TM	After the activity is completed each month
	- Carry out Monitoring and evaluation			
Benefit-sharing Phase	- Receive benefit from the participatory activity	Direct	TM Street Venders Local people	Through the year

Source: Field Survey, 2004

**Table 4: Aspects of People's Participation**

(Multiple Response)

Issues	Percentage of Respondents (n=30)
Receive information	10.0
Sharing information	6.6
Being as a consultant	0.0
Involving in decision-making process	0.0
Giving support by provide materials, cash, or services	0.0
Involving in implementation	100.0
Involving in monitoring and evaluation process	0.0
Receive benefits sharing	73.3
Set up an independent group	0.0

Source: Field Survey, 2004

**Benefits Gained and Satisfaction of Local People on Community Participation**

Researchers find that locals are likely to participate if they believe that they are likely to gain benefits without incurring unacceptable costs. If locals perceive that the benefits are greater than the costs, they are inclined to be involved in the exchange and, thus endorse future development in their community (Allen et al. 1993 and Gursoy et al. 2004).

We used five point scale Weighted Average Index (WAI) to assess the degree of benefits gained and the satisfaction level of local people in community participation for local tourism planning. These five point scales consist of "very low" (0.01 to 0.20), "low"(0.21 to 0.40), "moderate" (0.41 to 0.60), "high"(0.61 to 0.80), and "very high" (0.81 to 1.00) degree of benefits gained from community participation. Similarly, to assess the satisfaction level of respondents, five point social scales were assigned comprised of "very dissatisfied" (-2.00 to -1.01), "dissatisfied" (-1.00 to -0.01), "moderate" (0.00), "satisfied" (0.01 to 1.00), and "very satisfied" (1.01 to 2.00) as presented in Table 5.

The findings showed that respondents received "high" benefits on increasing awareness of community rights and roles and also increasing sense of belonging and responsibility to preserve local culture and tradition. Respondents were "dissatisfied" on their benefits gained from preservation of local traditional and culture. They received "medium" benefits on all aspects except "high" benefits gained on income generation. They were "satisfied" only on income generation and creating investment input. However, they were "dissatisfied" on creating group strength and increasing productivity.

They received the "high" benefits on creating consensus building among community and creating cooperation among local government and community. However, they received only "medium" benefits on improving planning

and management skills. Along with benefits gained, they were "very satisfied" on creating consensus building among community and also on creating cooperation between local government and community. The finding showed that respondents received "very high" benefits on environmental aspects. They were "very satisfied" on both increasing conservation for local environment and increasing resource utilized management.

**Table 5: Degree of Benefits Gained and Satisfaction Level in Social, Economic, Institutional and Environmental Aspects from Community Participation in Local Tourism Planning**

Aspects	Benefit Gained		Satisfaction Level	
	WAI Value	Assessment Level	WAI Value	Assessment Level
<b>1. Social Aspects</b>				
Awareness of changing way of life	0.62	H	0.20	S
Awareness of impacts of tourism on local life	0.68	H	0.16	S
Awareness of community rights and roles	0.78	H	0.66	S
Promotion of local tradition and culture	0.59	M	0.00	M
Preservation of local tradition and culture	0.77	H	-0.20	D
Increase in the sense of belonging and responsibility toward preservation of culture and tradition	0.78	H	0.93	S
Reduction of conflicts in community	0.46	M	0.00	M
<b>2. Economic Aspects</b>				
Income generating	0.64	H	0.13	S
Creating employment opportunities	0.45	M	0.00	M
Creating group strengthening	0.47	M	-0.13	D
Creating investment input	0.42	M	0.10	S
Increasing productivity	0.43	M	-0.06	D
<b>3. Institutional Aspects</b>				
Improving planning and management skills	0.46	M	0.06	S
Increasing training program and capacity building	0.64	H	0.10	S
Creating plans and strategies for local tourism development	0.70	H	0.20	S
Creating clear roles and responsibilities of local committee	0.73	H	0.93	S
Creating cooperation between local government and community	0.76	H	1.06	VS
Distribution of power among community	0.62	H	0.26	S
Creating consensus building in community	0.77	H	1.20	VS
<b>4. Environmental Aspects</b>				
Increasing conservation of local environment	0.81	VH	1.30	VS
Increasing management skills in resource utilization	0.81	VH	1.23	VS

Source: Field Survey, 2004

Notes: VS= Very Satisfied, S=Satisfied, M= Medium, D= Dissatisfied, VDS= Very Dissatisfied  
VH= Very High, H= High, M= Medium, L= Low, VL= Very Low

## Factors Associated with the Intensity of People's Participation

### Intensity of People's Participation

The intensity of people's participation was assessed according to five point social scales consisting of never, rarely, often, occasionally and always. Overall assessment of four phases showed that respondents often participate in participatory planning process. Similarly, they occasionally participate in decision-making phase while they always participate in implementing phase. However, they never participate in monitoring and evaluation phase (Table 6).

**Table 6: Intensity of People's Participation in Four Phases**

Phase	Percentage of Respondents (n=30)						WAI	OA
	Always	Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never			
All Phases	-	26.7	73.3	-	-	0.61		Often
Decision-making	-	26.7	36.7	36.7	-	0.58		Occasionally
Implementing	50.0	50.0	-	-	-	0.90		Always
Monitoring and Evaluation	-	-	-	-	100.0	0.20		Never

Source: Field Survey, 2004

Note: WAI= Weighed Average Index, OA= Overall Assessment

Note: "never" (0.00 to 0.20), "rarely" (0.21 to 0.40), "occasionally" (0.41 to 0.60), "often" (0.61 to 0.80), and "always" (0.81 to 1.00).

As many scholars identified factors that have potential to relate with the study can be, for instance, self-interest, encouragement provided by local leaders, knowledge and skills, availability of time, money, and materials, interest in welfare of community, the costs-benefits of participation, quick results, sex and age, pattern of local internal communication, and also influence of culture and religion as factors associated with people's participation (Oakley 1991; Setty 1994; and Karl 2000). Correlation analysis was also conducted in order to provide supported factors associated with intensity of people's participation. Intensity of people's participation are assessed by using the WAI values of intensity of people's participation on four stages of participatory planning process (Table 7).

Two factors showed relationship with intensity of people's participation in all phases, which were degree of satisfaction on environmental conversation and degree of benefits gained on increase resource utilized management. These two factors were also significant in decision-making phase. But, in implementing phase, six different factors showed significant relationship with intensity of people's participation. Finally, none of the factors showed relationship with intensity of people's participation in monitoring and evalua-

tion phase. This indicates that during this phase there was no people's participation and TM only performed this.

**Table 7: Factors Associated with the Intensity of People's Participation**

Factors	Correlation Coefficient (CC)			
	Overall Phases	Decision-making Phase	Implementing Phase	Monitoring and Evaluating Phase
Degree of Satisfaction on Environmental Conservation	0.328**	0.313**	0.392**	-
Degree of Benefits gained on Increase Resource Utilized Management	0.232*	0.174*	0.302**	-
Level of Education	0.040	0.116	0.425**	-
Occupation of Respondents	0.026	0.118	0.255**	-
Ethnic of Respondents	0.042	0.104	0.244**	-
Degree of Benefits Gained on Increase Productivity	0.036	0.097	0.222*	-

Source: Field Survey, 2004

Note: \* = Significant at the 0.05 level confidence, \*\* = Significant at the 0.01 level confidence.

Criteria for Calculation: Correlation Coefficient (CC) less than 0.00-0.29 is a low-level correlation, 0.30-0.59 is a moderate level correlation, and more than 0.60-1.00 is a high level correlation.

Based on finding, the key factors associated with the intensity of people's participation are explained as follows:

### **Degree of Satisfaction on Environmental Conservation**

People actively participate if they receive satisfaction on environmental conservation from the participatory activity. This factor has positive relationship with people's participation in all phases, decision-making phase, and also implementation phase. This could be explained that people satisfied on their participation through community participatory cleaning which provides environmental conservation for their community.

### **Degree of Benefits Gained on Increasing Resource Utilized Management**

Degree of benefits gained on increasing resource utilized management has a relationship with people's participation in all phases, decision-making phase, and also implementation phase. People actively participate if they gain benefit on this issue. Participatory planning process increase resource utilized management through bringing local people as a group and organizing them to pursue participatory cleaning activity to provide a clean environment for tourism. This is to organize and manage local resource both human and natural to serve for local tourism development from which local people gained benefits since tourism is a main income of the area.

## **Level of Education of Respondents**

This is one factor associated with the high intensity of people's participation especially in implementation process. Since this factor was used in a dummy variable and primary level was assigned value "1", secondary and higher level were given value "0", it could be explained that respondents who had completed primary level participated in implementation phase more frequently than those that were secondary and higher level. This is due to the fact that low level of education of respondents led to less choice of occupation. They were mostly engaged in trading as "street vender" which does not require complex skill but need work permission from TM. As they need permission from TM, their participation is mandatory.

## **Occupation of Respondents**

The occupation related with the intensity of people's participation especially in implementation phase since most respondents were engaged in trading. Since this factor was used in a dummy variable and trading was assigned value "1", and other occupations were assigned value "0", it could be explained that respondents who engage in trading more frequently participate than those engaged in other occupations. This was also due to the same reason as participation is mandatory for getting work permission.

## **Ethnicity of Respondents**

This factor was found to have an association with the intensity of people's participation especially in implementation phase. Since this factor was used in a dummy variable and non-native Samui was assigned value "1", and native Samui was assigned value "0", it could be explained that respondents who were non-native Samui participate more frequently than those who were native Samui. This related to the matter of migration that migrated people need work permission and to receive work permission, they need to participate in TM's activity.

## **Degree of Benefits Gained on Increasing Productivity**

This factor has a relationship with people's participation in implementation phase. People actively participate if they gain benefit on this issue. Participatory planning process provides benefits on increasing productivity since those who participate will be provide work permission for their occupation.

TM has a concrete functions, identified clear roles and responsibilities along with its formal style as well as follows central government's policies to pursue development tasks. It has an authority to command or to require local people to carry out any kind of participatory activities due on its law enforce-



ment. Based on finding, TM has mandatory provision for street vendors to participate in "Community Cleaning Day" as a condition of work permission. This affect to the high intensity of people's participation especially in implementation phase since there is law enforcement for people's participation.

### **Problems and Constraints of People's Participation**

Different problems were perceived and identified by respondents who participated in participatory planning process in TM. Table 8 shows that there were mainly five problems related to people's participation including low level of education, knowledge, and skills, less awareness of local tourism development, low perception on people's participation, lack of time, and people have low interest on participation.

Lack of time was the most serious problem which was notified by majority of the respondents. This is due to the requirement of TM that participants who are street vendors must participate in a workshop and meeting which is set up two times per month. Moreover, they must participate in participatory activity every second Wednesday of each moth. And if participant is absent from participation for over two consecutive times, the permission to work in Koh Samui will be dismissed. Due to these requirements, respondents addressed it as a time consuming. The problem of people having low interest on participation also was notified by majority of the respondents since they are engaged with their occupation due to their living condition more than interest in social concerns which is related to the problem of less awareness of local tourism development identified by one-third of the respondents.

Low perception on people's participation is another problem in this group. This is also linked to the problem of low interest of people on participation. Since people have less understanding of the meaning and perception of the usefulness of participation, then, they may have low interest in participation. However, the low level of education identified by few respondents can influence on respondents' understanding and perception of concept of participation which can create problem on participatory planning process.

People have low level of education which is related to the problem of unawareness. There is always having complained from participants that participatory activity both for meeting and for implementing is time consuming for them since they need to work for living. There is a lack of sense of belonging to the local community leading to less awareness of community concerns. This may be due to the reason that, mostly, they are migrated people who came from outside. They may not care for the area since it is not their hometown and they want to stay here for a short period. There is a weak

linkage between native Samui and people who forced to join TM since there is unfair situation occurred among people who are forced to participate and those who are not. TM lacks of raising public awareness or campaign to promote participatory activity for calling other people joining the group. This is due to the lack of efficient TM staff and also the lack of appropriate channel to mobilize local people.

**Table 8: Problems and Constraints of People's Participation**

(Multiple Answers)

Problems and Constraints	Percentage of Respondents (n=30)
Low education, knowledge, and skills	3.3
Less awareness of local tourism development	23.3
Low perception on people's participation	20.0
Lack of time	90.0
People have low interest on participation	73.3

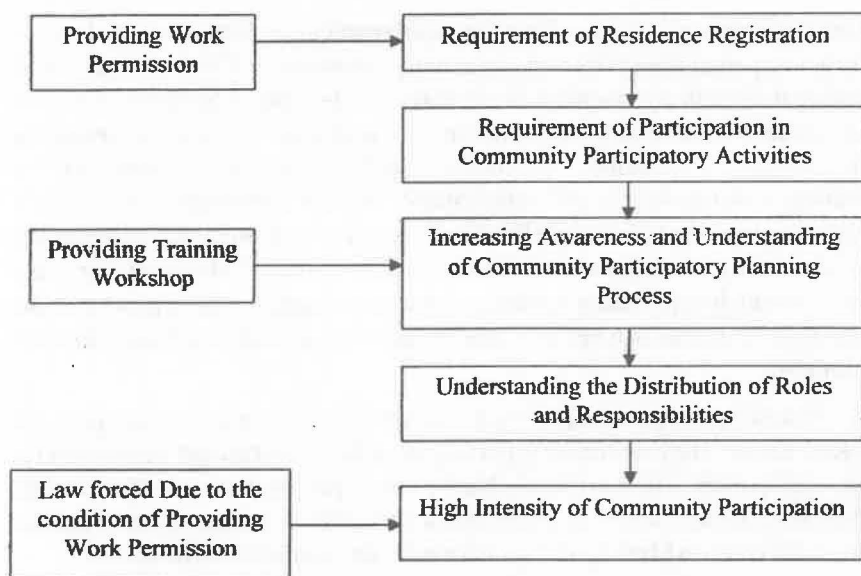
Source: Field Survey, 2004

## Discussion

Considering the incentive of participatory planning process, Figure 4 shows that TM used laws to force to create the requirement of people's participation. The condition of providing work permission in Koh Samui led to the requirement of registration of residence. This lead to the requirement of participation in the local tourism development planning process. TM provided training workshop, which aim to increase people's awareness and understanding of their roles and responsibility in the community participatory activity. This implied that the more people need to get work permission, the more they need to participate in TM's activity through the process of community participation in cleaning. This kind of input produced an output of high intensity of community participation especially in the implementation process.

TM reached only the participation in information giving and implementing level. Participation by consultation, functional, interactive, and self mobilization are far beyond reaching in this group. TM had part of a "top-down approach" when decision-making as they are mostly made by its function as a formal process. Garrod (2003) also stated that local community participation in the decision-making process of tourism development has often been lacking. Local communities have tended to be viewed as the beneficiaries of tourism development, rather than as essential partners in the process of achieving such development. However, "bottom-up approach" was initiated to provide a chance for local people to participate in local tourism development in the context of implementing and benefit-sharing in TM.

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**Figure 4: Inputs and Outputs of Participatory Planning Process**

"Top-down approach" led to the requirement of local people to follow the rules and regulations. Therefore, there was high intensity of people's participation in TM's activities. Regarding TM, the sense of "community spirit" that translates into the concept practices of people (Macbeth, Carson, and Northcote 2004), unfortunately, could not be raised under the law enforced by the local government. Considering empowering the local community (Pettersen and Solbakken 1998), empowering might be a significant concern for the full participation of local people in decision-making. Unfortunately, TM seems to have a long way to go before reaching this goal.

The study found that the participatory planning process of TM was a rigid process which needs to follow the regular pattern of local planning process created by central government and be launched over the country. This takes a time consuming procedure since they are hierarchy work as happens in the government sector. There was a high intensity of people's participation especially in the implementation process. This was influenced by a law enforced from TM that people need to receive work permission in Koh Samui. However, within this process, there were individual to supervise people to implement the project. Therefore, they seem to follow the advice of the supervisors with any initiative idea of carrying out the project. Considering decision-making process and monitoring and evaluation process, there was less people's participation. Mostly, TM carried out these two processes itself. The finding implies there was less empowerment

to local people, since they are forced by law to participate. If there was no law, no one would participate in this cleaning activity. Moreover, if TM stops this kind of participatory activity, people will not carry out the project by themselves and also would not create any other participatory activities. This may be caused by the low level of education of respondents so that they may not know what the meaning is and usefulness of "participation" They are mostly concerned about a way to earn income to feed their family more than paying attention to community development context. Moreover, due to their low level of education, they may not have much opportunity to choose a better occupation which gives a better condition for living than being a "street vender" who needs permission to work from TM.

Normally, people who join the activity are outsiders who move to get a job in Koh Samui. They are forced to participate in this activity to get permission for their occupation. There are rarely Native Samui people involve in this activity. Therefore, it may leads to a conflict that it was unfair for those forced to participate with Tambon Municipality which mostly are not native of Samui.

The study point out that if TM stops launching this law enforced characteristic, participatory planning process within this group and its activity may not last long or be sustained. To consider the effective participation of TM, the study shows a significant sign in quantitative measurement as there were high numbers of people's participation especially in the implementation process as they were forced by law.

## **Conclusion**

As we discussed in the earlier section, this paper made an effort to understand how people are maintaining their local environment and maintained the sustainability of their important income generating sector, tourism, through participatory process. However, previous national plans of Thailand did not have much coverage on local tourism development, it perhaps now a time to consider more a bottom-up approach. There are some evidences showing that local community did not really have alternatives to choose how they should be involved since the participation process was introduced by government in many countries. The local community rarely has an important effect and contribution on planning and decision-making process, even the government tried to promote the decentralization strategy, according to the National Economic and Social Development Plan. The accessibility of community to participate in tourism development should also be reformulated in response to the implementation of decentralization strategy. There should have an analysis of what tourism contributes to

quality of life of rural people and why they want or do not want to participate in the local tourism development. It is necessary to rethink about the arrangement of the local tourism development to fit with the concept of community participation in tourism development.

Based on the common problems, local government, TM of Koh Samui tried to initiate community participation on local tourism development planning. Conserving the environment is an issue of concern within the participatory planning process to promote a nice and clean environment for tourism promotion in the local community. There is a positive sign that TM was aware of the usefulness of participation approach as it is a tool for local development. TM has capability to carry out participatory planning process since it has a concrete plan and process with sufficient budget distributed from the central government for local development. TM appeared as the main actor with power to command or to distribute roles and responsibility. This is to ensure that all tasks were distributed and carried out in appropriate way. Acceptance of local people on requirement without refusing or arguing could support participatory planning process. However, people needs work permission, unavoding, they must accept the condition of TM. Thus, this paper has successfully described the process of socio-ecological interaction on tourism development. But, the sustainability of the tourism sector and ecological integrity depends on how these kinds of participatory process are formulated and implemented in the future.

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# Identifying Economic Impacts of Events on Host Communities : Creating Expression of Local Heritage Through Outdoor Events.

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**Abstract :** This paper aims to investigate the economic impact of outdoor events on host cities concerning the potential benefits that events may bring to the hosting community. The literature research focuses on an area of study related to economic growth and the role of festivals in the creation of opportunities and wealth for community orientated events and festivals.

The findings of this research show that outdoor events have major economic impacts on host cities. It was found in the case studies of Bradford Mela and Leeds West Indian Carnival that in the last decade as the events developed then in unison so have the benefits to the local economy. This article reflects on the economic evolution of these festivals and how these have impacted upon the local small and large businesses, during the period leading up to the event. This research explores how Bradford Mela and Leeds West Indian Carnival festivals have now become centre piece events for the local economy each year.

**Key Words:** Economic, Impact, Host Cities and Community Festivals.

## Introduction

In the events industry economic impact studies are undertaken for a variety of purposes, frequently they consider elements of cost-benefit analysis concerning the event in comparison to income generation and visitor expenditure. Festivals and events give greater economic life to the host city and raise the profile by developing employment, additional trade and business development.

It could be argued that a catalytic effect ensues whereby an increase in investment additional monies are made available for local infrastructure and long term promotional benefits are created. Further to this other tangible benefits are; improved tax revenues and increased property prices, with subsequent connections to the community. Significant economic benefits provided by outdoor events to the host city can create the potential of high-status profiles and increased tourism potential and awareness for the future.

Outdoor events such as the Bradford Mela and the Leeds West Indian Carnival not only bring economic benefits to the host city, they also provide

the city with opportunities to market themselves nationally and internationally. The festival or event brings people from a wide range of backgrounds to the city for the duration of the event.

This paper aims to explore the link between economic growth and events and will examine the potential benefits that events may bring to the hosting community. In order to demonstrate this, Ryan (1991) claims that an impact assessment should seek to address the issues of how important tourism is to the area and who the economic benefits affect. This paper thus examines such benefits as employment, additional trade and business development, investment in infrastructure, long term promotional benefits, tax revenues and increased property prices, in relationship to the local community. Moreover, the paper is also briefly going to look at the other impacts caused by the outdoor events to the host cities.

This paper therefore offers discussion points on the hosting of outdoor events and economic impact it brings to the city. It will also contest how host cities benefit from the outdoor events and increase the tourism in to the area. The paper will compare the economic impact assessment of the more successful festivals such as Leeds Caribbean Carnival and Bradford Festival Mela.

There is much documentation of general tourism impacts, with specific event-related literature written by 'experts' in the field, such as Getz (1991 and 1997), Hall (1992), UK Sport (1997) Dwyer et al (2000), and Emery (2002) which will be reviewed in this paper.

## **Impact of Outdoor Events on Host Cities Assessment**

The events have a several type of impacts on the host city, ranging from cultural, economic, social and environmental. Events have both positive and negative impacts on their host cities, but emphasis is often focused on the economic analysis. It is the role of event organisers to focus on other impacts other than the purely economic ones that may be created by the event.

By balancing the overall influences of the event this will also develop better understanding within the host communities and stakeholders. There are several different 'impacts stages' of an event but in this paper the main focus of assessment will be on the post-event phase analysing the economic impacts.

The impact of events on host cities is changing in accordance with significant developments in the events market developing during the past ten years. Consequently, the post-event evaluation is extremely important not only

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to review the situation but also to identify and manage the impacts to assist in maximising future benefits. Additionally, events have an important role to play within both the national and local community in context of destination planning, enhancing and linking tourism and commerce. Some aspects of this role include: events as image makers, economic impact generators, and tourist attractions, overcoming seasonality, contributing to the development of local communities and businesses, and supporting key industrial sectors. Hall (1992) suggests that the ability of major events perceived to attract economic benefits of events often provide the official justification for the hosting events. Other further effects could also be included within the wider picture in that the local community can gain a sense of pride and the easing of racial tensions and other problems within the area.

Economic analysis of events provides one aspect of why events are held and the effects that they have on a region. However, while many of the economics impacts of events are quite tangible many of the social are not.

(Hall, 1992 p.10)

Most impact studies have been written regarding the measurement of economic impacts, such as Adelaide Grand Prix (Burns and Mules, 1989) and UK Sport: Measuring Success (1997). Erkkila (2000) notes demand for such economic information increased in the 1990's at the same pace as the events industry expanded.

This is perhaps because impact assessment information is consumed by both public and private sectors. Hall (1992) believes that such attention is paid as economic assessments are seen as a measure of the immediate success of the event and associated tourism development.

Events are generally seen in a positive light by government and private industry because of the perceived economic, commercial and promotional benefits in the hosting of such events.

(Hall, 1992 p.44)

The decision to host most large-scale events is generally considered on the impacts to the local economy (Hall 1992; Dwyer et al, 2000). It is also considered particularly important for local authorities to justify the spending of public money (Ryan, 1991; Getz, 1997). The economic benefits of events are one of the major aspects of holding mega outdoor events in the city to boost the financial assets for the local community. Events have the potential to generate a vast amount of tourism when they cater to out-of-region visitors, grants, or sponsorships, (getz, 1997) of direct or indirect intent. although definitive data, regarding the impact of event-tourism are not available, due to the complexity and diversity of the industry, Key Leisure Markets

(2001) claim that day trips in England are now worth more than domestic and inbound tourism combined.

However, the event manager pays a great emphasis on the financial impacts of the events and invariably becomes myopic concerning other possible impacts occurring during the event. It is important for the event manager to realise this potential situation and be aware and identify and manage both positive and negative impacts, which has resulted from the event.

Table 1 below: an analysis can be shown describing the range of potentially positive impacts of events, all of which can be measured.

## The Impacts of Events

<b>Economic</b>  Destination promotion Increased-visitor numbers Improvement of destination image or profile Extended length of visitor stay Higher yield sector than VFR Increased tax revenue and foreign exchange National & International linkages Investment attraction Job creation and small business opportunities Positive economic impact related to visitation Increased business opportunities for local businesses Reduction of seasonal fluctuations or extension of the tourism season.	<b>Social and Cultural</b>  Shared experience Showcases community skills Fosters creativity and innovation Revitalising traditions Validation of community groups Increased community participation Expanding cultural perspectives Enhanced cultural exchange Enhanced cultural exchange
<b>Political</b>  International prestige Political linkages Improved profile of host destination Promotion of investment Social cohesion & nation-building Development of administrative skills	<b>Physical and environmental</b>  Showcasing the environment Increasing environmental awareness Infrastructure legacy, e.g. facilities, transport Improved transport and communications Urban transformation and renewal

Source: Adapted from McDonnell, Allen & O'Toole, (1999). Festivals and Special Events Management

It is useful at this point to restate the purpose of Events as far as the city and region is concerned. One such purpose is the potential for increased media attention the destinations can focus on improving their image to potential tourists (Emery, 2002). Events also provide the host city with great economic resources, which can leave a lasting legacy to the local community. In

addition, local businesses rely on the major outdoor events and festivals to boost their income for the year for many it may well be "The icing on the cake".

### **Economic Impact**

The community festivals now play a significant role in income generation for the local businesses and create tourism for the local area. The festivals cited have become more and more a specific tourist attraction over the last 10 years, which have great economic impact on the host communities. This tradition has changed over the last decade, due to the fame and the size of the event. The event industry has developed over the years, due to the expansion of information technology and media network. The festival organisers now utilise these new communication tools to advertise their event to a wider audience. According to McDonnell, Allen and O' Toole (1999),

The process is speeded up by the technology and the media, which have the power to bring significant local events to a worldwide audience, overcoming the barriers of national and cultural differences

(1999 p. 54).

Festivals now attract visitors from all over the country and even further a field. The festival organisers are now able to target wider audiences through the use of technology and media, this has a considerable economic impact on the host community, which in turn creates tourist to visit the area and invites them to stay longer.

### **Goldblatt believes that**

Some communities use these events to boost tourism during the low or off-season and others focus primarily on weekends to appeal to leisure travellers.

(1997 p.7).

Economic values are often placed on the benefit of publicity obtained for the event, which may occur before, during and after its occurrence. Column inches and advertising costs are used to quantify such impacts.

### **Social and Environmental Impact**

The festival organisers are now using historical and cultural themes to develop the annual events in attracting visitors and creating cultural image in the host cities by holding festivals within community settings. Many event organisers do not take into account the social and environmental impact into consideration. It is argued that there is a clear need to adopt a holistic approach:

In any location, harmony must be sought between the needs of the visitor, the place and the host community (English Heritage, 2000 p.29).

The impacts of events can greatly affect the quality of life of the local residents. It has been argued that strategies need to be adopted to take control of the social and environmental impacts of festivals and analysis is required when carrying out economic impact of the each individual event. Event organisers may only take into consideration the economic implications and ignore the resident perceptions, which provide important non-economic dimension for gauging how events benefit or impinge on the host community (Jeong and Faulkner, 1996; Hall, 1992).

Therefore, it is important for event managers to address the concerns of the local people and reduce the negative impact. Event managers should also deliberate on the perceptions of the local residents and show willingness to discuss the initial proposal of the festival with the local community. Many leading authors have suggested that it is important for event organiser to have clear awareness and understanding of resident concerns and attitudes. (Delemere, 2001; Williams and Lawson, 2001). This, Delemere (2001) believes, will encourage a balance between social and economic development forces within the community. The view of the host community may also help to refine the analytical framework used by planners and policy makers helping the industry to be sustainable in the long term (Jeong and Faulkner, 1996; Williams and Lawson, 2001).

Without the support of the local community the success of any event cannot be ensured so it is a matter of urgency and even common sense to get the local community "on board" from the outset. Event organiser who does not take into account local feeling will only store up feelings of animosity and a sense by the local community that they do not belong, "it is no longer their event". This is only one of a number of potential problems, significant problems with the measurement of event-impacts rest in the fact that the costs and benefits are unevenly distributed, and may occur in the short or long term. Those who endure the costs may not always receive the benefits (ETB, 1991), therefore the impact felt by the residents may differ,

"Depending upon whether they gain benefit or experience some loss" (Boud-Bovy and Lawson, 1998 p.7).

This is an extremely important point, which is likely to assert an influence upon the results of this study. Thus it is clearly important to establish both how and who are affected by the costs and the benefits.

Williams and Lawson (2001) claim that 'excessive negative resident sentiment' can hamper or even terminate commercial tourism. Community

support can subsequently affect the experience of the event-tourist. However, it has been suggested that communities may be prepared to put up with temporary inconvenience and disruption because of the long-term expectation of improved facilities, recreational activities and profile (McDonnell, Allen and O'Toole, 1999; Gursoy, Jurowski and Uysal, 2001). Certainly as stated previously this problem can be negated if the community are involved in the event from the inception.

If the host community is perceived as hostile or exploitative, then visitors leave feeling dissatisfied, perhaps never to return (ETB, 1991), which will have serious consequences for the future of the event. The event organisers should adopt clear strategies addressing the social and environmental impacts of events on the host community. By addressing the social and environmental impact, it reduces the hostile reaction of local residents, which helps to develop successful festivals for the future and also festivals should include some element of cultural themes. In the context of these considerations this paper now considers the following case studies to analyse the impacts of outdoor events on the cities of Leeds and Bradford.

### **The Bradford Festival Mela**

The Bradford Festival Mela has been held annually at Peel Park since 1988. An intoxicating Festival in its own right, the Bradford Festival Mela is the largest outside Asia and a rare blend of party and pleasure trip. The Bradford Festival Mela has created a unique image in the city, over the last 15 years. The Bradford Festival Mela perfectly illustrating its unique role, where it brings people from different cultures together demonstrating various forms of expression. This also brings with it pride and traditional Asian arts to the city of Bradford. The Yorkshire Post newspaper stated that:

THOUSANDS of people of all ages, creeds and colours turned out to celebrate the Bradford Mela this weekend, the biggest Asian-orientated festival in Europe. Peel Park was awash with colour, comedy, music and dance for the free two-day festival, finale to the Bradford International Festival.

(Yorkshire Post Newspaper, 2002).

The Bradford Festival Mela attracts over 100,000 people over two days. This has a great economic impact on the city of Bradford, local small businesses gain vital revenue from the festival. Visitors spend great amounts of money during the duration of the festival, it out weighs the social and physical problems that are encountered by the locals.

The social dimension of events is a very important part of many of the proceedings, since key features are directly linked to the community

celebrations and festival. The social and physical factors, however, are less tangible than economic impacts and therefore more difficult to understand and reconcile. The Review of Bradford Festival Mela suggested that the social dimension and economic impact of events is a key element of any festival.

Bradford's cultural mix will be a catalyst for economic and dynamism.

(The Review of Bradford Festival Mela, 2000.)

### **Rajan Singh, Sony Entertainment Television Asia claim:**

The Bradford Mela is not only an amazing showcase of traditional and contemporary Asian arts but is also a celebration of the diverse cultures of modern Britain.

(The Review of Bradford Festival Mela, 2000.)

Moreover, Bradford Festival Mela brings the local community together to celebrate the diverse cultures within the community. Over the last decade Bradford Festival Mela has become a major multicultural event for the city of Bradford and has demonstrated the advantages of cultural diversity to the rest of British society. In addition, the festival has created great economic impacts for the local community and enhanced local businesses that benefit from the actual event.

### **Economic Impact on the Local Economy**

The Bradford Festival Mela leaves a great cultural impact on the city of Bradford each year, by celebrating cultural diversity with local people. In addition, the festival brings great economic impacts to the city of the Bradford by attracting over 100,000 visitors from all parts of the country.

The visitors to the festival provide great financial support for the local economy by over night stays in the city, which generates direct income from the festival for the local businesses. The festival also has a major impact on the host city by creating extra employment for the period leading up to the event and even after the event has taken place. The following data highlights the actual benefits the event brings to the city.

#### **Mela Key Facts**

Total Audience 100,000

Professional Bands and Companies 18

Performances 52

Electrical Supply 1 Megawatt

Marquees 49

Fencing 2 Kilometres

Source: The Review of Bradford Festival Mela (2000).



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The above data analysis shows that the Bradford Festival Mela has a major economic impact on the large and small businesses in the area.

Businesses from all different sectors benefit from the festival. It has great implications for the local community since the financial resources used to set up the event are modest compared to the economic impact it creates for the city of Bradford. In 2002 the report produced by the Bradford Festival suggested that the Bradford Festival Meal had significant economic impact on the host city by attracting 42% visitors from outside city. The table below illustrates some key economic data relating to the Bradford Festival Mela 2002.

### **Economic Data Analysis**

Latest figures show, that during the Mela weekend 58% of the audience was from Bradford and the remaining 42% were from other surrounding areas.

The Bradford Mela is officially Europe's largest.

Total amount spent at the Mela was 3.4 million pounds.

230 separate businesses supplied products or services

Source: Bradford Festival Mela, (2002).

The analysis above demonstrates very clearly the benefits the Bradford Festival Mela brings to the host city. Therefore, the Mela is a very important event for the city Bradford, because it generates great financial rewards for the local economy. The Bradford Festival Mela is very successful in attracting tourists to the area. It helps the local community as a whole and affects the local hotels, shops, restaurants, buses, taxis and also encompasses an even wider audience. Overall the event has a significant economic impact on the host city.

### **Tourism to the Local Area**

The Bradford Festival Mela over the years has developed into an international event that attracts audiences from across the UK and indeed from throughout the world. Due to the large South Asian Community in Bradford, it attracts family and friends from abroad. They often pick festival time to come back and visit the close family and friends, which increases the tourist to the area.

**Councillor Margaret Eaton, leader of Bradford council, stated:**

"The Mela really is the jewel in the crown of the International Festival and a high point in Bradford's tourist calendar. It is also a fine example of why

Bradford deserves to have its Capital of Culture bid taken seriously and a great chance for Bradfordians of all cultural backgrounds to get together."

(Yorkshire Post Newspaper, 2002).

The Bradford Festival Mela has developed into one of the centrepieces of the Bradford International Festival programme. The Mela has demonstrated cultural display over the last 10 years to attract tourists and build the image of the city of Bradford. The event it self has changed from community event into commercial commodity over the last 5 years, because Bradford city council have given the contract to Scottish firm UZ/ZAP Productions. The UZ/ZAP Productions was chosen over local company Bradford Festival Ltd to take on the event to attract more visitors to city.

The Bradford Festival Mela has developed into a multicultural festival over the years, now it attracts tourists from different community groups and creates cultural experiences for the visitors in general context. Traditionally, the Bradford Festival Mela has depended on local visitors, in early years the Mela attract over 95 percent of local people to the festival. This image have changed over the last decade know 42 percent of visitors attend the event from out side the City of Bradford, some of the visitors come from as far as countries like Pakistan, India and Bangladesh. The event also attracts visitors from other parts of the country to share the value and cultural themes over the two days of the festival. The Bradford Festival Mela has created the image among the South Asian Communities of Bradford a City with cultural events. Other cities in England have adopted a similar approach to the City of Bradford to develop cultural festivals like the Bradford Festival Mela to create an enhanced image, reputation and status among South Asian community to attract visitors to the area.

The Bradford Festival Mela has developed into a major annual festival for the residents and international South Asian Communities plus local small businesses. The festival has become without original intent a PR event for the Asian community and added an educational focus for other cultures to understand the different aspects of South Asian Communities. Finally, Bradford Festival Mela has created an image to enhance tourism for the City of Bradford.

## **Leeds West Indian Carnival**

The Caribbean carnival is an annual event celebrated in the city since the 1960s. The carnival is one of the oldest Caribbean carnivals in Europe.

The carnival has created multi-cultural spirits for people of all races and nationalities to attend the event during the August bank holiday each year

since 1967. Carnival founder Arthur France said:

"This continues to be one of this city's most important and enjoyable family attractions."

"Our events in the run up to Carnival Day provide something for everyone as well as giving the whole city the chance to come together in one big party."

(Yorkshire Evening Post, 2002).

Originally the Leeds West Indian Carnival used to go into the city centre, that tradition changed during the 1980's. The carnival has out grown the original concept, now it takes place around Chapletown and Harehills.

Behind the colour and music of the carnival there is a deeper meaning rooted in the experiences of Caribbean people arriving in England around a time of great change in late 1950s and early 1960s. So it was a search for identity, for community and belonging that led to the carnival being developed early 1960s in the area of Notting Hill in London.

As stated by the William Stewart the founder of initial Caribbean carnival in this country.

"This great festival began initially from the energies of black immigrants from the Caribbean, in particular, Trinidad, where the Carnival tradition is very strong, and from people living locally, who dreamed of creating a festival to bring together the people of Notting Hill, most of whom were facing racism, lack of working opportunities and poor housing conditions resulting in a general suppression of good self-esteem."

Source: <http://www.mynottinghill.co.uk/nottinghilltv/carnival-countdown.htm>

The carnival has created that platform for the Caribbean people to come together and share their social and cultural differences with the local community from differing backgrounds. It is about people coming together and people having fun.

This year (2004) over 80,000 people enjoyed the mixture of local and international talent. This magic music was mixed with the wonderful smells of Caribbean cooking. In the afternoon over 100,000 people watched the carnival procession. This year's carnival was led by the Lord Mayor of Leeds and, dressed in a traditional costume, the MP for Leeds North East Fabian Hamilton.

The Carnival day starts early with the J'Ouvert procession at 6.00 am. In the afternoon the procession left the Poternewton Park for three and half-hours of non-stop dancing around the streets of Chapletown and Harehills.

This year 800 revellers joined the procession and two sound systems lighting up Chapeltown and Harehills demonstrating colourful mixture of people from all background of different culture.

### **Kevin Grady claimed:**

"It was a beautiful hot sunny August day and I admired the stamina of the Lord Mayor and Lady Mayoress who walked for some three hours with the procession, shaking hands and chatting animatedly with the large crowds of people that thronged the route. It was a real delight to see Chapeltown and Harehills en fete. What a contrast to the image of the area so often portrayed! To see the groups of beautifully dressed children sat out with their parents on their front garden walls and steps having great fun watching the parade go by was real pleasure. "

Source: <http://www.leedscivictrust.org.uk/news1002Carnival.htm>.

Moreover, the carnival creates different cultural variety for the local community and enhances party-goers to enjoy the sights and sounds of the spectacular costumed troupes the parade and traditional Caribbean music. It also, brings together the people of races and nationalities to enjoy the great day of fun with people of all ages.

### **Economic Impact on the Local Economy**

One of the most essential developments within the Leeds West Indian Carnival is the economic impact of the carnival on the host community of Leeds. The carnival has a great economic impact on the local community, the revellers come from all parts of the country and as far as the Caribbean. Local businesses can gain substantial financial rewards during the carnival weekends. It is great income generator for the local businesses and the local community benefits from the carnival festival well before the carnival weekend itself.

### **Ms Pitter Carnival Committee Member Noted:**

We have had record numbers of inquiries from stall holders and businesses. This goes to show that not only is carnival good for the spirit - it good for the city's economy too

(Yorkshire Evening Post, 2002).

The carnival is successful in attracting tourists, the expenditure spent on the event and in the community as a whole helps the local businesses to develop the local economy. The carnival goers spent money at the carnival site, local hotels, shops, restaurants and local transport benefits from the event, which has significant economic impact on Leeds. Measuring the im-

pact of Leeds West Indian Carnival is not straightforward, to analyse the economic and community regeneration impacts. The carnival has generated significant economic impact on the local area over the last 20 years. It is difficult to analyse the economic benefits the carnival brings to the host community, no detail financial analysis have been carried out after the carnival in previous years.

The Leeds West Indian Carnival has major economic impact on the host city compare to Leeds Carling Festival. The analysis summarised below of Leeds Carling Festival shows the scale of benefits the local community gains from hosting the Leeds Carling Festival. The economic impact of this event is key resource for the local businesses and to enhance the tourist image to have successful event in the future:-

### **Analysis of Leeds Carling Festival**

58%	Economic
25%	Employment
33%	Promotion of area
6%	A good party/fun event
14%	The youth benefit/children attended

Source: Adapted from Railton (2002). An Impact Study of Leeds Carling Festival.

### **The Increase in Trade Affected the Sectors as Follows:**

#### **Mean Increase of Trade**

Newsagent	180%
Takeaway/Restaurant	85%
Retail outlet	52%
Public House	55%
Petrol	45%
Post Office	50%
Retail - clothing	0
Florist	0%

Source: Source: Adapted from Railton (2002). An Impact Study of Leeds Carling Festival.

Thus it is clear that food, drink and other such products represent the sector of the local industry most likely to benefit from the event. Beside, that implying the analysis from the Leeds Carling Festival to the West Indian Carnival then it could be said that the financial gain is vital for local community retail sector. At the same time creating a cultural image for the local area and

enhancing and enticing tourism to the locale. The carnival organisers believe that the festival has major impact on the area both for those businesses employed in the retail industry and for local residents. Moreover, the carnival organisers believe the publicity and promotion of the event generates benefits for Leeds in the form of improved image and repeat visitation. There is no doubt the Leeds West Indian Carnival plays an important part in developing the economic benefits for the local community and local businesses. It is vital for event organisers and other agencies to develop a practical and co-operative approach to take this event to the next level of cultural, social and economic growth.

### **Tourism to the Local Area**

The attendance at the event varies from 10,000 to 100,000. The attendance at the actual carnival site is 80,000, as the procession leaves the Potternewton Park the numbers of carnival spectators grows significantly. Over the last ten years tourism to the area has grown also because the event itself attracts those interested in the culture and spectacle created. Another element is the image of the carnival expressing an invisible side of local and international culture being developed by the event over the years to attract more and more visitors to the area.

The carnival has created a very special image for the city of Leeds, because it has brought the local community together and enhanced the local image which has attract tourism from all over the country and people come to the carnival as far as Caribbean Islands. Carnival founder Arthur France said:

This continues to be one of this city's most important and enjoyable family attractions. Our events in the run up to Carnival Day provide something for everyone as well as giving the whole city the chance to come together in one big party.

(Yorkshire Evening Post, 2002).

The carnival organisers suggested that the event is becoming more and more a tourist attraction, compared to before. This is due to the better press coverage by the local and national press, previously the carnival relied on local people, yet recently the growth and size of the carnival has produced a major tourism attraction. In return it has created considerable economic and social impacts on the local community of Leeds. It is now strongly viewed by the local community and small businesses that the carnival plays a significant part in attracting tourism to the area and they value the tourist market as a vital tool for the development of the local economy. Therefore, the carnival can be seen as a key development event for a true tourist attraction bringing local, national and international tourists to this unique event.

The Leeds West Indian Carnival is one of the oldest carnivals in the country, which has created an image and reputation for the local area to enjoy cultural and economic benefits from this unique event. The carnival has also developed significant audiences and visitors to attend the carnival weekend from all over the country to celebrate the West Indian culture.

## **Conclusion**

The findings of this research show that outdoor events have a major economic impact on host cities. The outdoor events bring potential benefits to the host cities, these benefits have not been analysed in great depth. The research suggests that the spending by visitors on local goods and services by event-tourist have a direct economic impact on local businesses and also pass the benefits more widely across the economy and the community.

Moreover, there is major debate amongst leading authors of the validity of economic assessments and disagreement regarding the most accurate method, which can be used to assess the performance of the event. Substantial attention, however, is still paid by governments and the events industry to the economic dimensions of impacts, as it is often regarded as a measure of the immediate success of the event and associated developments. The study also found that some leading authors, Jeong and Faulkner, 1996; Hall, 1992 argues that the event organiser and local government only take into account the economic impacts and ignores the implications of social impacts of the events. They argue that greater attention should be paid to the social impacts of event.

The findings show that the Bradford Mela and Leeds West Indian Carnival in the last decade have developed as a natural outgrowth and benefited the local economy. However, the economic development of these festivals has impacted upon the local small and large businesses, during the period leading up to the event. This research has highlight that the Bradford Mela and Leeds West Indian Carnival festivals have become a centre piece events for the local economy each year. The local hotels, restaurants, taxis, public transports and small stall traders have planned their business activities around these events.

This research has also suggested that the tourism to the local area has increased over the last decade, visitors are attracted to these festivals as far as Asia and Caribbean Islands. The event-tourism has been increased, which has developed greater economic and cultural benefits to the local areas. It was found that social and economic factors contributed to culture tourism growth in these festivals. The Bradford Mela and Leeds West Indian Carnival festivals have become a major tourist attraction for the local, regional and international

visitors. A further point raised is the sense of pride that can be instilled amongst the local community, as sense of belonging, look we are different we are proud to be so, come and join our party!

This study highlighted in particular those areas the Bradford Mela and Leeds West Indian Carnival festivals have economic impacts on the local economy and the community. Nevertheless, only an in-depth study can help us to understand the level of economic and social impacts these two festivals bring to the local businesses and community in wider.

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# **Corporate Meeting Destination Choice : The Effects of Organization Structure**

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**Abstract :** This study attempted to determine the influence of organizational structure on the novelty preference for corporate meeting destination choice. The three dimensions of structure incorporated were formalization, centralization and complexity. A total of 75 corporate meeting planners drawn from public listed services organizations were involved. The main method of data collection was questionnaire survey and multiple regression analysis was employed as the main statistical technique. The results revealed that both formalization and centralization were negatively correlated with novelty preference while complexity was positively correlated. However, only complexity contributed significantly to the prediction of novelty preference for corporate meeting destination choice. The main implication of this study is pertaining to the segmentation and targeting of the corporate meeting market. The results suggested that the market is best segmented and targeted based on the extent of the organizational complexity. Originality/value - This study helped in bridging the gap between tourism marketing and organizational research. It also contributed by developing the measurement for novelty preference from the context of experiential marketing.

**Keywords :** Corporate Meeting Destination, Novelty Preference, Organizational Structure Paper Type Research Paper

## **Introduction**

Tourism industry has played a significant role in contributing to the Malaysian development in terms of its economic and social aspects (Ahmad et. al, 2001). The meetings sector of the tourism industry today is one of the most competitive and lucrative of market segments (Crouch and Louviere, 2004; Weber and Chon, 2002). Despite this fact, relatively very little academic research has been conducted concerning the behavior and decision process of the various components of this substantial market. This was partly due to a lack of quantifiable information on the meeting and conference market (Rockett and Smillie, 1994; White, 1993), geographical and market fragmentation, inconsistency in terminology and measurements, and the sensitivity and unwillingness of organizations to share information on certain

activities (Crouch and Ritchie, 1998; Rockett and Smillie, 1994).

This lucrative meeting market that consists of two main sub-sectors: association meetings and corporate meetings, acts as a major revenue generator in the tourism and hospitality industry. The corporate market represents the majority of the events held while the associations market accounts for the highest delegate numbers (Leask and Hood, 2001). Comparing the two sub-sectors, the association meeting is gaining far more attention from the researchers (Choi and Boger, 1998; Go and Zhang, 1997; Oppermann, 1996; Weber, 2001). The reason is because as opposed to the corporate meeting, associations are claimed to be relatively flexible with respect to choosing their meeting destination while in the corporate sector, business locations and headquarters are claimed to be commonly determined the selected meeting destination (Oppermann, 1996; Weber, 2001).

Recent development has indicated that there is a growing interest among corporate organizations to hold their meetings in a less conventional or novel setting (Callan and Hoyes, 2000; Leask and Hood, 2001) either in unusual venues (facility-bound) or rural, second-tier or regional areas (destination-bound). The development of rural, second-tier or regional tourism can help to increase employment opportunities, to generate economics activities as well as to provide a better environment in the rural areas (Lapping et. al, 1989; Luloff and Swanson, 1990; Middleton, 1982; Oppermann, 1996; World Tourism Organization, 1998).

## **Issue and Purposes**

As mentioned in the beginning part of this chapter, the destination of corporate meeting is claimed to be commonly determined by the business location or headquarters (Oppermann, 1996; Weber, 2001). Besides headquarters or branch offices, corporate organizations also do not stray far from areas that are home to their clients, customers or have at least some relevance to their business. Interestingly, recent development indicates that there is a growing interest among corporate organizations to hold their meetings in a less conventional or novel setting (Callan and Hoyes, 2000; Leask and Hood, 2001), far away from the area of their business locations.

According to Zelinsky (1994), as the industry has expanded, the location and shape of the activity have changed considerably. Crouch and Louviere (2004) argued that the traditional locations of a few large cities with substantial convention infrastructures have been losing market share to new locations. The researchers further added that other smaller cities and towns have entered the market in more exotic locations and by building modern, hi-tech meeting facilities typically targeting the small to midsize convention sectors.

A novel destination would provide the feelings that the meeting experiences are exciting, different and motivating to employees. Compared to "common-place meeting", conducting meetings in novel destinations will produce significant spillover benefits to other tourism sub-sectors such as lodging, transportation, shopping and tourist destinations.

This observation has lead to the major issue that this research mainly attempts to address - "what are the factors that drive the choice of corporate meeting planners on meeting destination with respects to its novelty setting?" Although several researchers (Callan and Hoyes, 2000; Leask and Hood, 2001) have recently investigated the characteristics and the nature of novel meeting destination offerings, they did not explicitly explain the underlying behavioral reasons behind such decisions. Ariffin and Ishak (2006) argued that the novelty preference for corporate meeting could be explained by the orientation consumption of the meeting itself, personality of the meeting planner as well as the organization structure. However, this article is only focussing on the influence of organization structure.

## **Organizational Structure and Novelty Preference for Corporate Meeting Destination**

It is posited in this study that the novelty preference for meeting destination choice is influenced by the structural pattern of the corporate organization in which the meeting planner works. Organization structure defines how task are to be allocated, who reports to whom and the formal coordinating mechanisms and interaction patterns that will be followed (Robbins, 1990).

The three structural dimensions incorporated in this study were formalization, centralization and complexity. The three dimensions were recognized as the major components of an organizational structure in most of the organizational behavior studies (Hall, 1977; Robbins, 1990). Formalization refers to the degree to which tasks within the organization are prescribed by standardized procedures, rules and regulations. This dimension of organizational structure attempts to measure the flexibility that a manager enjoys when handling a particular task (Deshpande, 1982). The second dimension, centralization refers to the degree to which the formal authority to make discretionary choices is concentrated in an individual, unit or level (usually high in the organization), thus permitting employees (usually low in the organization) minimum input into their work. This construct is concerned only with formal structure, formal authority and looks at decision discretion.

Finally, complexity looks at the amount of differentiation that exists within different elements constituting the organization (Dooley, 2002; Robbins, 1990).

This present study incorporated the three major components of complexity as suggested by Robbins (1992) and Hall (1977) - horizontal and vertical differentiation, and spatial differentiation. Horizontal differentiation considers the degree of horizontal separation between units based on the orientation of members, the nature of the tasks, and their training. Vertical differentiation refers to the depth of the organizational hierarchy. Spatial differentiation encompasses the degree to which the location of an organization's facilities and personnel are dispersed geographically. An increase in any one of these three sources will increase an organization's complexity (Robbins, 1990).

### Framework, Questions and Hypotheses

The following Figure 1 shows that this study posited that novelty preference for corporate meetings are influenced by formalization, centralization and complexity.

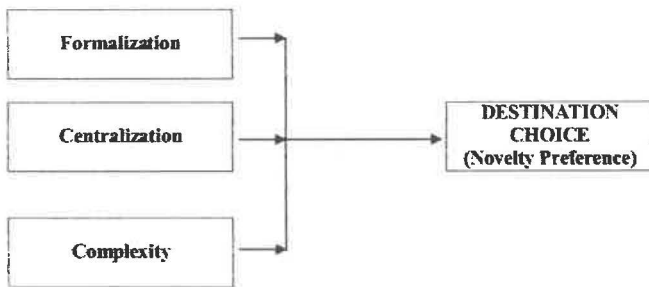


Figure 1 : Research Framework

**Formalization.** Formalization has significant consequences for organizational members because it specifies how tasks are to be performed and a high level of formalization limits members' decision-making discretion (Frederickson, 1986). According to Robbins (1990), the greater the number of rules and procedures, the greater the rigidity and inflexibility within the organization. Pierce and Delbecq (1977) argued that high formalization discourages new ways of doing things while lower degree of formalization would permits openness, which encourages new ideas and behaviors. Lenz and Lyles (1983) also agreed that formal systems can become so ritualistic that they drive out all creative behavior in the organization. Based on the above, it is logical to anticipate that:

Hypothesis 1(a): Formalization is negatively correlated with novelty preference for meeting destination choice.

Hypothesis 1(b): Formalization contributes negatively to the prediction of novelty preference for meeting destination choice.

**Centralization.** Review of literature indicated that organizations with flexible structure tend to be better at innovating than those with rigidly structures as centralized organization (Hage and Aiken, 1970; Pierce and Delbecq, 1977; Pondy, 1970; Utterback and Abernathy, 1975; Zaltman et. al, 1973). According to Damanpour (1991), centralization was negatively related to innovation where participatory work environments facilitate innovation by increasing organizational members' awareness, commitment and involvement. A decentralized, participatory structure help open up channels of communication and facilitate awareness of potential innovations (Hage and Aiken, 1970). Hage and Aiken (1970) also found centralization to be inversely related to propensity to change. Therefore, it is hypothesized in this study that:

Hypothesis 2(a): Centralization is negatively correlated with novelty preference for meeting destination choice.

Hypothesis 2(b): Centralization contributes negatively to the prediction of novelty preference for meeting destination choice.

**Complexity.** Organizational complexity such as division of labor and differentiation are likely to have positive effects on human resource innovation because diversity in organizations results in diverse of ideas and broader knowledge based (Beyer and Trice, 1978; Kimberly and Evanisko, 1981; Marshall and Vredenburg, 1992; Pierce and Delbecq, 1977). Greater complexity also may result in a higher cognitive diversity, which refers to the differences in beliefs about cause-effect relationships (Navarro and Martin, 2003) which leads to greater adaptiveness (Ruekert et. al, 1985). Fay and Frese (2001) also suggested that complexity of work as one of the main factor that influence employee's proactive adaptive performance. Based on the above, it is clear that the higher the degree of structural openness, which is negatively related to formalization and centralization, but positively related to complexity, the more likely a novel setting will be selected.

Therefore, it is hypothesized in this study that:

Hypothesis 3(a): Complexity is positively correlated with novelty preference for meeting destination choice.

Hypothesis 3(b): Complexity contributes positively to the prediction of novelty preference for meeting destination choice.

## **Methodology**

**Sampling.** The population of this study is defined as internal corporate meeting planners employed by services corporations listed on the main board of Bursa Malaysia. Public listed corporations are chosen because of their relatively higher number of professional expertise, larger material and human

resources and good financial standing compared to smaller corporations (McAdam, 2000; Thong and Yap, 1995), which enable them to undertake innovative programs (Gray et al., 2003) including human resource practices.

Due to the difficulty in obtaining good responses from the organizational or managerial level respondents, only a total of 100 corporate meeting planners (from 20 corporations) or 62.5 percent of the total population were targeted for this study. The size of the sample was relatively higher than those of past research on corporate meeting planners in the similar field. Concentrating on a small and more specific population such as the large service corporations would increase the managerial value of a research for targeted marketing decisions rather than a wide population but with a very low anticipated response rate.

The sampling process in this study consists of two stages. The first stage was pertaining to the selection of the 20 participating corporations followed by the identification of the five meeting planners from each corporation in the second stage. A simple random probability sampling using SPSS procedure was employed to select the 20 corporations from the sampling frame of 32 corporations listed under the services/trading counter in the Bursa Malaysia. Then, the five meeting planners representing each corporation were selected based on their substantial involvement in the decision-making process of meeting destinations within the year of 2002 and 2003.

**Data Collection Method.** The data for this study was collected using mail questionnaires that were distributed to a cross section of organizations. In order to obtain the required sample size of 100 corporate meeting planners from 20 corporations, a larger amount of questionnaires were distributed. A total of 125 questionnaires were distributed to 25 randomly selected corporations from the sampling frame. The completed questionnaires were then collected and returned to the researcher by the appointed liaison officer at each corporation.

**Data Analysis.** The Pearson correlation analysis was performed to test the hypotheses 1(a) through 3(a). The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient indicates both the degree and the direction of the associations. A multiple regressions analysis was performed to gauge the independent relations of the three dimensions of organizational structure to novelty preference. Specifically, the regression model was computed to test the hypotheses 1(b) through 3(b).

## **Measurements**

**Novelty Preference.** An initial pool of items for the measurement of novelty preference was generated from available measures, extensive literature



search, construct domains, and the context in which the measures were to be used. In addition, protocol analysis was employed to generate items that are more specific to the context of corporate meeting market. The protocol analysis technique involves placing a person in a decision-making situation and asking the person to verbalize everything he or she considers when making a decision. The technique is also a practical method considering the hectic schedule of corporate meeting planners to be pooled together such as in a focus group session.

A total of 25 items were generated after taking into account identical or equivalent items. The initial items were refined and edited for content validity by a group of three expert judges who are academicians with research interest in services and tourism. Under this procedure, three of these items were discarded from further analysis. The samples of the finalized 22 items used to measure novelty preference are presented in the appendix. In this study, an even-numbered six-point scale was used in order to avoid the clustering of responses at the neutral point, which will turn out to make the result unreliable (Ling, 1998). The scale recorded an excellent Cronbach's reliability coefficients of 0.91.

**Organizational Structure.** Because the decision unit involved was not expected to be highly structured due to its small size (Crouch and Ritchie, 1998), describing the structure at the overall organizational level was much more relevant than describing it at a decision unit level. In this study, a survey approach which is based on perceptual measure was employed to measure organizational structure. This approach follows other behavioral science research suggesting that perceptual measure can adequately and accurately reflect the degree of structure experienced by a particular individual (Duncan, 1972) and influence pattern within a group (March, 1955).

Based on Robbins (1990), this study viewed organizational structure as having three major dimensions namely formalization, centralization and complexity. A group of three expert judges consists of academicians in the area of organizational behavior were asked to refine the initial measurement items for formalization, centralization and complexity constructs. The construct of formalization was measured by using five items fully adopted from the highly referred measurement ( $\alpha = 0.74$ ) developed by Hage and Aiken (1969). The measurement for centralization was also adopted from the scale ( $\alpha = 0.79$ ) developed by Hage and Aiken (1969). Three-item measurement was employed to measure complexity in this study. With a Cronbach's alpha of 0.84, the first two items were modified from John and Martin (1984) while the final item

was adapted from the vertical differentiation scale developed by Aiken et. al (1980). The samples of the items used to measure organizational structure are presented in the appendix.

## Findings

A total of 76 meeting planners from 17 corporations returned the surveys, representing a response rate of 60.8. One of the returned questionnaires was eliminated as the respondent had systematically marked the scale's extreme points of the novelty preference. After eliminating the unusable response, 75 responses were coded and used for data analysis. Missing data were reduced as much as possible by checking all the questionnaires at time of collection. When any questions were found unanswered, it was immediately brought to the attention of the related respondents.

**Profile of the Respondents.** The respondent's profiles are summarized in Table 1. The sample shows a balance combination between the males and females. The female respondents represented a slightly higher percentage of the whole sample (53.3%) compared to the male respondents (46.7%). The majority of the respondents were middle-aged (i.e., 31-45 years) followed by those in the age group of 46 and above (30.7%). Approximately half the respondents (50.7%) were Malay followed by Chinese and Indian with 37.3 percent and 12 percent respectively.

The completed sample was composed of well-educated individuals. Large majority (72%) of them are holding a bachelor's degree while the other 20 percent had completed postgraduate studies. For the position in the corporations, the largest percentage (46.7%) was those in the top level of management as the respondents were those who have the final authority to make the decision on the meeting destinations. 38.7 percent or 29 of the respondents were in the middle management while only 14.6 percent or eleven respondents were in the lower management level.

**Results of Hypotheses Testing:** Hypotheses 1(a) - 3(a). Table 2 showed that all three dimensions were highly significantly correlated with novelty preference for meeting destination choice at 0.05 level. Formalization ( $r = -0.42$ ) and centralization ( $r = -0.40$ ) were found to be negatively correlated with novelty preference while complexity ( $r = 0.43$ ) was positively correlated with novelty preference. With Pearson coefficients in the range of 0.40 to 0.43, the associations between organizational structure and novelty preference was considered to be at moderate levels. With Pearson coefficient of 0.43, the result also revealed that the highest correlation was between complexity and novelty preference.

**Table I : Profiles of the Respondents**

<b>Demographic Information</b>		<b>N</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Gender	Male	35	46.7
	Female	40	53.3
Age	30 and less	15	20.0
	31- 45	37	49.3
	46 and above	23	30.7
Ethnic	Malay	38	50.7
	Chinese	28	37.3
	Indian	09	12.0
Educational Level	Diploma	06	08.0
	Bachelor	54	72.0
	Postgraduate	15	20.0
Position	Top Management	35	46.7
	Middle Management	29	38.7
	Lower Management	11	14.6

**Table II : Result of Pearson Correlations**

<b>Structural Dimensions</b>		<b>Novelty Preference</b>
Formalization	<b>Pearson Correlation (r)</b>	<b>-0.423</b>
	<b>Sig. (2-tailed)</b>	<b>0.037</b>
Centralization	<b>Pearson Correlation (r)</b>	<b>-0.401</b>
	<b>Sig. (2-tailed)</b>	<b>0.041</b>
Complexity	<b>Pearson Correlation (r)</b>	<b>0.426</b>
	<b>Sig. (2-tailed)</b>	<b>0.034</b>

Results of Hypothesis Testing: Hypotheses 1(b) through 3(b). Overall, the regression equation was significant at 0.01 level ( $F = 13.97$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ,  $R^2 = 0.37$ ). The resulting multicollinearity diagnostics also revealed that the VIF scores were all below 10, indicating that multicollinearity was also not a problem in this regression model. Out of the three structural dimensions, only complexity was found to contribute significantly to the prediction of novelty preference. With  $\beta = 0.37$  and  $p = 0.000$ , complexity was strongly and positively related to novelty preference for meeting destination choice.

## **Discussions and Implications**

The overall findings reveal that complexity is the most highly correlated structural dimension with novelty preference followed in order by formaliza-

tion and centralization. However, with correlation coefficients in the range of 0.41 to 0.43, the strengths of all the associations are considered as at moderate level.

**Table III : Result of Multiple Regression**

<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Beta Coeff.</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>VIF</b>
<b>Formalization</b>	<b>-.328</b>	<b>-3.133</b>	<b>.103</b>	<b>1.244</b>
<b>Centralization</b>	<b>-.182</b>	<b>-1.709</b>	<b>.624</b>	<b>1.286</b>
<b>Complexity</b>	<b>.374*</b>	<b>3.890</b>	<b>.000</b>	<b>1.046</b>
R: .609				
R Square: .371				

Dependent Variable: Novelty Preference.

\* Significant at 0.01 level

The results of multiple regression also indicated that only complexity ( $\beta=0.37$ ,  $p=0.000$ ) contributes significantly to the prediction of novelty preference. Thus, it is clear that the result of multiple regressions supports the research hypothesis that complexity is the most influential structural dimension in explaining novelty preference for meeting destination choice. Organizational complexity refers to the amount of differentiation that exists within different elements constituting the organization (Dooley, 2002; Robbins, 1990) and this diversity would result in diverse ideas and perspectives. This result seems to be in supports of Fay and Frese (2001) that suggests complexity as one of the factors that influence employee's proactive adaptive performance. Complexity is also cited as one of the sources of innovation and creativity in organization setting (Kimberly and Evanisko, 1981; Watson et. al, 1993).

Corporate meeting planners working in organizations with high degree of structural complexity are exposed to a lot of information, suggestions and perspectives on how to conduct successful meetings. This situation may result in a higher cognitive diversity, which in turn leads to greater adaptiveness among the meeting planners. Bantel and Jackson (1989) contended that cognitive heterogeneity drives to a deeper design of alternatives and analyzing a bigger number of possible courses of action. Based on the above, it is explainable why complexity exerts a significant effect on novelty preference for meeting destination choice. Spatial differentiation is one of the sources of structural complexity which encompasses the degree to which the location of an organization's facilities and when personnel are dispersed geographically. Meetings that would involve employees from multiple locations are expected to be conducted at different location at different time.

On the other hand, the nonsignificant effects of formalization and centralization on novelty preference for destination choice suggest that formal rules and procedures as well as formal authority are not important in the decision making process of a corporate meeting destination setting. This is perhaps because there are almost no formal guidelines developed with regards to the selection procedures for corporate meeting destination in most of the organizations.

### **Suggestions for Future Research and Conclusion**

It would also be fascinating to conduct a nationwide survey on meeting destination choice to understand the meeting industry in great details. In this present study, the respondents were drawn only from those organizations located in the Klang Valley area. A comparative study between internal and independent corporate meeting planners or between services and manufacturing organizations could also be another interesting study to be carried out in the future. This kind of study could also be extended by including respondents taken from the meeting participants group themselves. These are the people who actually attended the meeting at the selected destination. This study will help to answer the question of whether there are any differences between the preferences of the meeting planners and the participants. Extending this kind of research to a larger population would help ascertain the significant influences of the consumption value and personality as well as the non-significant effect of structural dimensions on meeting destination choice.

Finally, the destination preference for incentive travel, a unique subset of corporate group business, is another interesting topic to be explored in the future. Since incentive travel is actually a reward participants receive for achieving or exceeding a goal, the selection criteria for the destination is expected to differ substantially with those of the general corporate meeting destination.

This study seeks to contribute to the body of knowledge in the tourism and hospitality marketing area in both theory development and management strategies. In terms of theoretical significance, this study intends to make significant contribution to the corporate meeting destination choice literature by proposing a framework for the novelty preference for destination choice, which suggests its determinants that encompasses the consumption, organizational as well as individual decision maker factors. From the meeting services management perspective, the findings should provide managers and administrators with information such as what contributes to novelty preference of corporate meeting destination choice.

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## **Appendix**

### **Sample: Scale of Novelty Preference**

The destination (includes the geographical location as well as the meeting venue or facilities) "....."

- i. offers new things to the participants.
- ii. offers a standard form of meeting experience to the participants.
- iii. provides some new forms of stimulation.
- iv. creates enthusiasm among the participants.

### **Sample: Scale for Formalization**

- i. Employees in this organization have to follow strict operating procedures at all times.
- ii. Going through the proper channels is constantly stressed in this organization.
- iii. People in this organization are allowed to do almost as they please.

### **Sample: Scale for Centralization**

- i. A person who wants to make his own decision would be quickly discouraged in this organization.
- ii. Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer in this organization.
- iii. Any decision employees make in this organization must have their supervisors' approval.

### **Sample: Scale for Complexity**

- i. This organization is highly departmentalized.
- ii. Employees of this organization tend to be widely dispersed geographically.
- iii. This organization is highly hierarchical as depicted in its organization chart



# Role of Tourism Sector in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals

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**Abstract :** When the millennium development goals (MDGs) were articulated and presented on the eve of the millennium, tourism as an industry was not explicitly mentioned. But over the years it became clear that tourism, a multifaceted industry and one that is now used by many countries for poverty alleviation and economic development and can contribute immensely in pursuing the goals set at the millennium summit. This paper therefore discusses and highlights the role of tourism in achieving the MDGs. Examples of African and Asian context are drawn especially China to underline the fact that MDGs 1 and 7 can be directly supported by specific tourism policies while MDGs 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 can be indirectly supported by tourism. MDG 8 can constitute a bridge that can bring about success in any framework of implementation. But these framework however, vary in priority from place to place.

**Keywords:** Tourism; Millennium Development Goals; Poverty; Sustainable Development; New Wave Tourism.

## Introduction

When the millennium development goals (MDGs) were proposed on the eve of the new millennium, tourism as an industry was not explicitly mentioned. Over the years, it became clear that it has a role to play in helping to achieve some or all of the MDGs identified. Increasingly, it is being recognized that the potential impact of tourism in reducing poverty is significant (Brohman, 1996; Ashley et al., 2000). Therefore it is now widely acknowledged that if tourism development is planned and implemented properly, it could be used as an effective tool for poverty reduction (Torres and Momse 2004) and thus achieving other MDGs.

In contemporary development discussion, poverty has assumed center stage. Dating back to 1970s, the international community has identified poverty as one of the most important aspect of third world development (Britton, 1982; Carter, 1987, Joppe, 1996). Consequently, when world leaders gathered on the eve of the millennium to debate the plight of the world poor, they made a moral declaration that resulted into the MDGs. The MDGs are eight in number but are made up of many indicators and targets. Success in achieving the goals is hinged on the fact that many sectors are incorporated and interrelated. In order to underscore the importance of poverty in the process of third world development it is listed as number one in the priority order of the MDGs.

When carefully studied and analyzed, there is enormous potential for the

application of the tourism industry into the campaigns and processes in achieving the MDGs. This was made clear at the review summit of the MDGs in 2005 at the UN. At that meeting, tourism was called upon to take its place in national development plans to help achieve the targets set (World Bank, 2002). In overall national economic development, tourism cannot be ignored as it already constitutes over 5% of GDP and over 10% of exports in about 41 of the 50 poorest countries according to the UNWTO. Tourism indeed plays a major part in the economy of poor countries. In 2001, international tourism receipts accruing to developing countries amounted to US\$142,306 million. Indeed, tourism is the principal export in a third of all developing countries and, amongst the 49 Least Developed Countries (LDCs), it is the primary source of foreign exchange earnings (Yunis, 2004).

In fact, the role of tourism in development in many countries has aroused considerably in the last three decades. Considering the fact that tourism is now playing an important role in a number of developing countries, international development agencies are getting more involved and increasing their commitments with aids and grants for tourism development purposes.

Consequently, the tourism industry makes important contributions to the economies of developing countries, particularly to foreign exchange earnings, employment, and overall GDP. Since tourism is seen as partly a panacea for poverty alleviation and eradication, the question is: how can tourism help the rural and the poor people? How can policies for tourism development benefit the poor? Given that tourism is already a fact of life for many of the world's poor, the challenge is to enhance the many positive impacts and reduce costs to the poor and their environment. This will help achieve the MDG 1 and set the stage for the realization of the other millennium goals.

Understanding the logical currency of this notion, this paper discusses and highlights the role of tourism in achieving the MDGs. To this end, examples of programmes and themes will be drawn from Africa and Asia where is the home to most of the world's poorest people. Although Africa was the only continent identified by name when the MDGs were created, discussions on the role of tourism in national economies and rural areas can be universally relevant. Critical analysis of the MDGs will be made to identify those goals that can fit into tourism in both planning and development framework. This is finally intended to generate academic discussion that will put tourism and the MDGs in context.

## **Tourism and Development**

Tourism is one of the world's largest industries generating an estimated 11% of global GDP, employing over 200 million people and transporting nearly

700 million travelers per year - a figure that is expected to double by 2020. The question is how can we use this to the benefit of the third world economies? How can we manage and utilize its potential?

Although tourism is not new to development discourse (Jenkins, 1982; Hosni, 2000), revamped tourism or alternative tourism like ecotourism, cultural tourism or any niche tourism are gradually becoming the core of tourism development for many Third World nation's economic development strategies (Tosun, 2005). Where such tourism is incorporated into development policies, it is known to promote economic growth and generate employment (Inskeep, 1991), encourage community participation and help in biodiversity conservation (Kiss, 2004), enhance rural development, environmental restoration, coastal protection, cultural heritage preservation, etc. (Elliot and Mann, 2005). Given the importance and relevance of this trend, nearly every developing country is now promoting some brand of tourism, tied to its development (See Table 1).

Underlining the importance of tourism in development, the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and other international development agencies like World Bank, Regional Banks, IDB, UNEP etc. are identifying tourism related projects and funding them appropriately. For example, international lending and aid agencies are using tourism projects to promote sustainable rural development, increase local income generation, conserve biodiversity and improve indigenous knowledge, build infrastructure and institute capacity building (Elliot and Mann, 2005).

## **Discussions and Implications**

The overall findings reveal that complexity is the most highly correlated struc-

**Table 1: Notable choice of countries offering ecotourism products**

<b><i>Africa</i></b>
Senegal
Namibia
Madagascar
Uganda
Zimbabwe
Kenya
South Africa, etc.
<b><i>Asia</i></b>
Vietnam
Cambodia
Bhutan
Malaysia
Thailand
China, etc.
<b><i>Latin America</i></b>
Costa Rica
Dominica
Bolivia
Belize
Ecuador
Brazil, etc.

tural dimension with novelty preference followed in order by formalization and centralization. However, with correlation coefficients in the range of 0.41 to 0.43, the strengths of all the associations are considered as at moderate level. Coming from the dissatisfaction with the trend of mass tourism and growing environmental concern, coupled with increasing third world debt in the 1970s, international lending institutes like UNEP, IDB, DAS, USAID re-kindled their commitments and took a stride and further identified tourism as a development tool and conservation strategy.

Regarding the perils of third world countries, in international development discussions, most of the agencies that show concern for development have all addressed poverty eradication as one of the most compelling challenges of the 21st century. This also means concern for income disparity, healthcare, etc. As discussions on the role of tourism in addressing poverty became prevalent in various international fora, its potential use became imminent. This recognition came to the fore when the UNWTO introduced the "Sustainable Tourism for the Elimination of Poverty" (STEP) framework which clearly links tourism development with poverty eradication making it a step towards achieving the MDG1. In this context, at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in Johannesburg, the UNWTO took a global lead in the field of poverty reduction through tourism, launching the concept of "sustainable tourism as an effective tool for eliminating poverty" (STEP). This initiative links the longstanding UNWTO pursuit of sustainable tourism with the United Nations leadership on poverty alleviation. Consequently, STEP may be seen as a response by the global tourism industry under the leadership of UNWTO to the United Nations goal to halve extreme poverty by 2015.

Significantly though, it was earlier at the 1999 meeting of the UN Commission on Sustainable Development that urged governments to: "maximize the potential of tourism for eradicating poverty by developing appropriate strategies in cooperation with all major groups, indigenous and local communities." Tourism indeed flourishes where there is an abundance of natural and cultural resources. In the real sense, resources (both natural and cultural) upon which tourism products appear and flourish belong to the poor. It is therefore clear, that if tourism development is planned and implemented properly, it could be used as an effective tool for poverty alleviation and eradication. Already, tourism is a fact of life for many of the World's poor.

Accepting the notion that tourism resource, both cultural and natural are mostly located where the poor are, it became imperative that tourism projects and investments should be in such a way that will benefit the local community. Projects can be created that will uplift the livelihood of the local community and generate additional income thus partially achieving MDG1. A reduc-

tion in world poverty is an internationally agreed priority and targets have been set to halve poverty by the year 2015. Achieving poverty reduction requires actions on a variety of complimentary fronts and scales and tourism, an industry that is multifaceted and comparatively labour intensive can make adequate contribution in achieving this goal.

While increase in income and economic well being can be directly attributable to tourism policies, the quality of life and the intangible environmental ambience highlighted by tourism can result in the overall community empowerment. This is because the product that tourism packages and sells ultimately relies on clean seas, pristine mountain slopes, unpolluted water, litter-free streets, well-preserved buildings and archaeological sites, and diverse cultural traditions all of which the community can have a controlling stake (Honey, 1999).

Depending on the location and focus of tourism industry, different segments and types of tourism can have substantially different impacts on the local community. Limited evidence suggests that domestic/regional tourism and independent travel can create proportionately more local economic opportunities (Wang and Wall, 2007) than international packaged tourism. Although most tourism ventures can be geared towards benefiting the local economy, recent trends and examples have singled out ecotourism, community-based tourism, etc as those that have the potential for maximizing benefits to the poor (Kiss, 2004). These collectively are what I term "new wave" tourism. Where new wave tourism is articulated and set for implementation, it has the capacity to do one or all of the following:

Proceeds from such tourism activities can be used to fund conservation, environmental protection, research and various forms of capacity building for which the local community can benefit.

New wave tourism has the capacity to provide direct financial benefits (sales) and empowerment for local people.

The local community when involved tends to benefit not only financially but in other tangible facets (like portable water, roads, health clinics, etc) as well as intangible aspects like preservation of culture, etc.

### **Analyzing the specific role of tourism in achieving the MDGs**

Conceptually, the eight MDGs (see Box 1) can be divided into categories that can be supported by the tourism industry. While MDGs 1 and 7 can be directly supported by specific tourism policies, MDGs 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 can be indirectly supported by tourism and MDG 8 can constitute a bridge that can bring about success in any framework of implementation. But as these goals, targets and indicators are many and can vary in priority from place to place,

an understanding of generic format by which tourism can be utilized is necessary.

**Box 1 : The MDGs**

- MDG 1 Eradicate poverty
- MDG 2 Achieve universal primary education
- MDG 3 Promote gender equality
- MDG 4 Reduce child mortality
- MDG 5 Improve maternal health
- MDG 6 Combat HIV/AIDS and other diseases
- MDG 7 Ensure environmental sustainability
- MDG 8 Develop global partnership for development

Many people attest to the need of the MDGs to poverty eradication and general development issues confronting the third world countries in Africa, Asia and South America. Although the framework for articulation and need for achieving the MDGs by 2015 has gained currency all over the world, it is significantly more important to Africa and Asian countries where about 70% of the population is rural and underdeveloped (World Bank, 2002). While progress is being recorded in some Asian countries (like China and Thailand), such progress in Africa is far from being satisfactory given that it was the only continent that was explicitly mentioned at the millennium declaration and subsequently where poverty is discussed. Comparatively, China has recorded successes in poverty alleviation that can be emulated. The percentage of people living on \$1/day fell from 53% in 1980 to 8% in 2002. As a result of this, an estimated 300 million people have been lifted out of poverty giving great impetus to the global effort in poverty reduction (Malik, 2005).

Although tourism as an industry cannot be said to be the major sector for this achievement, the contribution it has made are laudable. For instance, domestic tourism, domestic consumption and the like have been enhanced through rural tourism development which has become a new growth sector in China. This tourism theme together with agricultural tourism has the capacity to create over 350,000 new jobs every year, according to officials of the China National Tourism Administration.

The case of Africa is unique and deserves specific mention. While Africa has been disadvantaged by global trade, particularly in manufacturing, exports and imports and services, etc., tourism accounted for over 11% of total Africa exports by 2003 (Ashley and Mitchell 2005). With many governments realizing the positive nature of tourism to the economy, commitment to

tourism is increasing and tourism itself is growing. Tourism indeed is labour intensive as compared to other non-agricultural sectors that are likely to take a population out of poverty. In addition, tourism is generally an additional diversification for the poor and not a substitute for their core activities particularly in rural Africa (Ashley et al. 2000). Given that this is the case, successful tourism policies can therefore add value and improve the quality of life of the local poor community. The notion of quality of life will tend to amalgamate all the positive aspects that achieving the MDGs will portend.

When the advantages of tourism in relation to MDGs are considered, it is an industry that is multifaceted and capable of bringing together many stakeholders. For instance whether or not tourism is specifically designed to help the poor or not, a number of products could be sourced locally, making the local community part of the production and retail process (Wisansing, 2005). The range of such products can include: local textiles; hand-made crafts of paper, wood, clay, etc.; Others include food and agricultural products like fruits, vegetables, flowers, beverages, food additives, snack foods, sweet/deserts, cosmetics, etc. (Torres and Momsen, 2004). Indeed, local products can be both tangible and intangible leaving the tourists with positive experiences to linger when it is well done.

Wherever tourism flourishes and become successful, it can generate partnerships (MDG 8) in establishing positive development framework for a given destination. As a source of employment, entry into the industry can be at any level making it a sector with low barriers. In many sectors of tourism, it has a high female employment ratio (MDG 3) varying from 2% to over 80% in different countries. Worldwide, women make up to 46% of the tourism labour, a fact first alluded to by Grown and Sebstad in 1989, making it a sector that can strategically be used in the direct pursuit of MDG3.

Added to this, creating partnerships (MDG8) with different interests and the role of gender in most economies can indirectly impact on education (MDG 2), while success in policies aimed at women can have a positive effect on MDGs 4, 5 and 6. As most primary tourism attractions are generically referred to as natural, cultural, including built and modified environments, policies promoting tourism can balance economy with people, culture and environment. To do this effectively depends on government's commitment and leadership that is responsible to the development and quality of life of the local population.

Already in the tourism industry, there is a general interest in sustainable tourism, ecotourism, responsible tourism, and the like that are collectively referred to as alternative tourism and here suggesting to categorize further as



'new wave tourism'. Where such trends and development frameworks become exploratory attracting huge investments, it indeed creates a 'new wave' of tourism sector. Thus, this 'new wave' can be promoted with the understanding that tourism activities should not deplete the environmental and cultural base upon which it depends, a theme that resonates well with MDG 7. This theme is already attracting the interest of major international agencies like IUCN, WWF, etc. effectively implementing the target of MDG8.

## **Conclusion**

This paper has shown that tourism has important potential to contribute to the economic growth and development of third world countries. If this assertion is to be agreed upon, then it also has the potential to contribute to the MDGs. For this to be the case there has to be more commitment by governments, proponents of tourism sector, major stakeholders, academics etc., to study and unravel the benefits that tourism can bring to the local community for application. Such concerted efforts are needed to create tourism data that will be used to identify, quantify and analyze costs and benefits of tourism ventures accruing to the local community.

Enhancing tourism's legitimacy in poverty reduction strategies is dependent on host countries policies and development agencies placing a greater emphasis on the monitoring and analysis of its true costs and benefits. The challenge is to enhance the many positive impacts it can have and reduce the costs it can place on the poor community.

In discussing poverty, sustainable development and attempting to meet the MDGs by the year 2015, each government can make the choice to encourage investment, facilitate innovation, create job opportunities, and guarantee respect for local environments, cultures and social well-being of its people. Tourism as a holistic and multifaceted industry can be used to facilitate these especially where knowledge of best practices and successes are shared and managed for the benefit of a destination. Where investment is encouraged and facilitated, the private sector can be deployed as a driver of sustainable development and as a contributor to quality of life of the people and cultures that it touches. These can be measured in quantifying the achievements of tourism in pursuit of the MDGs.

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## Book Review

# Innovation in Hospitality and Tourism

**Mike Peters and Birgit Pikkemaat**

2006, The Haworth Hospitality Press

New York, pp 1-206

Innovation In Tourism consists of ten classic research papers. The Editor here has compiled different areas of innovation in one book .The first research paper The "Marriage Between Welfare Service and Tourism -A Driving Force For Innovation " evaluates that welfare-era in later 1960's market based enterprise have complained about unfair competition from organizations which receives state support e.g. the sport and youth movements, which have established their own facilities instead of using commercial ones. And criticism increased when the publicly co funded facilities started offering their services and facilities to non-members as well. Notwithstanding, many private enterprises benefit quite substantially from the welfare related tourism and leisure provision. Those who can join cluster are likely to be exposed not only internally, but also larger market aboard. The Second Research Paper "Leadership And Innovation Process-Development and Products "is about the innovation process presented as an inter organizational network process where the exchange of knowledge and experience could be identified as a form of cooperation correlated with innovative behavior in destinations. Other essential forms of cooperation such as co-determination of the development of regional competences, the exchange of technologies and common use if resources for innovation process do not have an impact on innovative behavior at the moment .In future they have to place the emphasis on a more resource oriented management .The decentralization of leadership condition enables cooperation of high value for the provider of innovative destination products. In "Prospects For Innovation In Tourism "authors have referred Is the third paper where multinational companies are referred as a source of competitiveness in international tourism markets e.g. economies of scale scope innovation and learning the most important tool of competitive rivalry which is today global zing through merger activity and market concentration on other hand forces SME in Europe fragmented tourism market to mobilize their resources in order to be able to compete increasingly in terms of quality. "A Consumer Based Measurement Of Tourism Innovation " highlights the innovativeness in lodging and accommodations, It is about predominance of technologies over non technological innovation and the positive effect of innovation on firms image, profitability and customer satisfaction whose ex-

perience varies along an active to passive continuum and the affect varies from absorption to immersion. "Towards The Measurement Of Innovation "paper study is based on hotel enterprise presuming the innovativeness of hotel i.e. CRS Computer Reservation System, DIS Destination Reservation System on the basics of entrepreneurial/owner higher qualification, youth ness, satisfaction in terms revenue profit, customer loyalty and target segment. The nutshell in "An Investigation If factors Affecting Of Innovation Performance In Chain and Independent Hotels" four factors are first highlighted: Market attractiveness, NSD Process management, market responsiveness and empowerment. In market attractiveness further five factors are defined as key factors: training of employees, behavior based evaluation, effective marketing communication ,marketing synergies and employee commitments. In NSD process skill and experience of employee is also deemed to be crucial. "Innovative Product Development In Hotel Operation" , describes A new wellness concept is defined with seven central pillars Beauty-Face body and skin treatment, Life balance-yoga,tai chi and meditation,Aqua-Sauna,passive water use ,Vitality-Fitness,Harmony -Message, Nature activities,Nutrition-balanced cuisine. "Challenges In Mobile Business Solutions",the clearly drives to a differentiation from compttitor, creating loyalty ,giving high prices with new guest attractiveness towards hotel as a more effective communication measure.The "Evaluating Internet Portals"-An Imperial Study leads to seven areas of qualitative and quantities research final conclusions 1-technical aspects 2- cost and reventur model 3-involvement of local tourism enterprise 4-involvement of guests 5-content quality 6- communication 7-volume and potential Finally the last research paper "AQ New Tune from an Old Instrument-The Application Of SERVQUAL" is of tourism service business has five general attributes reliability, tangibility ,responsiveness ,assurance and empathy is derived Through SERVQUAL which is able to applied with a minimal commitment of resources and is therefore likely to be an attractive diagnostic tool for management of small business typically found in tourism sector.

**(Mukesh Ranga)**

## Book Review

# Tourism Crises Management Responses And Theoretical Insight

**Eric Laws. Bruce Prideaux,**

2006, The Haworth Hospitality Press

New York, pp 1-158

The book provides an insight and a strong emphasis on the practical implications of crises on destinations. The Strength of the book is that it provides insight into the role of public relations in assisting destinations to recover from crises situations. Crises Management : A suggested typology by editors is basically a exordium towards the Book with an overview of eleven research papers discussed .First Research Paper "Crises Management In Alpine Winter Sports Resort-The B1999 Avalanche Disaster In Tyrol " suggests that media plays a central role in emergency and recovery phase of crisis management. Un- Coordinated interviews ,and fragmented information supported rumors about inefficient warning systems or missing contingency plans and as a result o general discussion about tourist's safety and security in Alpine ; winter sports resort in Austria was stirred up. In the case of Galuter,The Alpinarium is a successful example of how to design safety and security measures with an additional value for tourist such as visible security guides in skiing and hiking areas, published crisis management and contingency plans including guide books were implemented , but the major pitfall is natural disaster .Time political life cycles and /or stakeholder conflicts have significant impact on the development of crisis management pitfall. Second Research Paper "Quantifying The Effects Of Tourism Crises: An Application To Scotland " considered there responses of tourists to Scotland from USA, France and Germany to two different types of crises foot and mouth disease and September 11.The result from the model showed that tourists from different countries do indeed, respond differently to different types of events. However in the case of September 11, both arrivals and receipts from Germany were more adversely affected, Followed By USA and then France, in the case of arrivals and by France and then the USA in the case of receipts. The Third Research Paper "Tourism And The Impact Of The Foot And Mouth Epidemic In The U.K. Reaction, Response, Realities And Particular References To Scotland "The lesson that was learned through FMD (Foot And Mouth Disease) was that government preliminary failed to recognize the aspects a long term or short term. Secondly the degree of confusion with too many agencies, ad hoc responses, different level of government and players further complicated by devolution resulting in a vacuum. Lack of effective communication and in effectiveness of the DCMS in representing tourism interest in the government (Sloyan 2002) made a situation even weaker in Scotland.

"The Impact Of Foot And Mouth Disease On A Peripheral Tourism Area: The Role And Effect Of Crises Management "Fourth research paper is analyzed by comparing large and small firms management of crises: Small firms anticipated a mush worst effect than actually experienced .In prodromal stage of crises were quickest to recognize the impending crises and best reacting .Supply and distribution channels were markedly effected in both

small and large business. "Canadian Seasonality And Domestic Travel Patterns: Regularities And Dislocations" The fifth Research Paper overviews that shortly after the 9/11 disaster, Canada had a number of crisis events to deal with of its own. In 2003 the tourist image of Canada became tarnished by SARS in Toronto, Mad Cow disease in Alberta and forest Fire in BC. All required response strategies from the tourism industry that followed many of the marketing strategies adopted after 9/11 and focused on domestic travel. Key Indicator in the form of altered behavior need to be investigated for e.g. how consistent is the switch to domestic travel, VFR, Shorter trips, automobile travel in the event of aircraft related disaster. "The Significance And Crises Communication In The Aftermath Of 9/11: A National Investigation" is about how a tourism manager have retooled their promotional campaign. In this sixth paper the researchers anticipated disseminating the survey five years from now to determine how communication programs have since been further adjusted. If post crises program continues to stay at forefront or it has gone by way side thereby supporting the out of sight of out mind. Finally in an Industry where the fall out and residual effects are still evident, marketing and public relation crisis management strategies continue to contribute to an ongoing efforts to revitalize the travel and tourism industry.

The seventh research paper "A Study On Crises Management Strategies Of Hotel Manager In Washington, D.C. Metro Area", study demonstrated that the hotel management in Washington, D.C. suburban Maryland and northern Virginia shared many similar strategies in dealing the unexpected and disruptive crises of 9/11 terrorist attack. Washington D.C Hotels were more active in reducing specified quality level of guest products, food products and other routine purchases. The study though has a limitation in a small sample size. The paper "Privation As A Stimulus To Travel Demand" studied that public sentiments changes almost instantaneously once the crises passes. Low price promotional fare may be an appropriate strategy to simulate demand in the immediate aftermath for a short time span. These studies of eighth research paper advocate that travel represent the healthy, cathartic response to privatization. It enables people both physically and emotionally from the event and in doing so to help the healing process. The Research paper "Japanese Tourism And The SARS Epidemics Of 2003" is response of Japanese inbound tourist market that is generally the same as that observed for outbound tourists to avoid the destinations as labeled as SARS Infected areas. Partly this was due to government making to this region difficult to justify in terms of adversaries, and restrictions on re-entry. Recovery of overall traveler number however is generally quite rapid, once the implied threats are reduced and is providing to be so for SARS affected travel to and from Japan. In "Tourism Industry Employee Work stress-A Present Future Crises", the tenth paper put forwarded that in order to avoid crises, tourism organizations needs to understand the major precursor to stress and to proactively intervene, creating conditions wherein tourism industry employees are provided with a workplace that can foster morale and job satisfaction and one that is less likely to infuse perceptions of unfairness. The last eleventh paper "Tourism Crises And Disaster: Enhancing Understanding Of System Effects" imply that resilience is useful in exploring crises and disaster. Mass tourism is alive and well, surviving many disaster and crises here organizational network analysis may be useful and appropriate. The Book although is very useful for the researchers but is limited to serve the purpose as a comprehensive textbook.

**(Mukesh Ranga)**

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Organizer- Institute of Vocational Studies, Master of Tourism Administration,  
Himachal Pradesh University, Summer Hill, Shimla 171 005 (H.P.) India  
Conference Date-17-18 March 2007  
Contact Person- Dr. S.P. Bansal  
Telefax: +91 177 2633251 (o) +91 177 2841389, +91 98160 41389 (M)  
E-Mail: spbansal\_mtahpu@rediffmail.com

### **BULGARIA**

Theme- Investments in Real Estate for Tourism  
Organizer- Uniglobal Research, Sofia, Bulgaria  
Conference Date-5 - 6th April 2007  
Contact Person- Lukas Sadowski  
Website-<http://www.uniglobalresearch.eu/>

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Organizer- Instituto Piaget ,Portugal  
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Email- [sguerreiro@ate2007.com](mailto:sguerreiro@ate2007.com)  
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Email- [papers@ictlconference.com](mailto:papers@ictlconference.com)  
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Organizer- School of Service Management, University of Brighton, UK  
Conference Date-13-15th June,2007  
Contact Person- Professor Peter M Burns  
Email- [tourismvisuality@brighton.ac.uk](mailto:tourismvisuality@brighton.ac.uk) Website- <http://www.brighton.ac.uk/ssm/sympo2007/>

#### MALAYSIA

Theme- Planning and Managing Heritage for the Future  
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Contact Person- Jasmine Zea Raziah Radha Rashid Radha  
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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's Encyclopedia of Hospitality and Tourism* (pp. 798-810). New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

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