

NOTE FROM THE GUEST EDITOR

Dear Readers and Contributors,

It gives me immense pleasure to place the June 2012 issue of the Journal of Tourism (JoT); an International Research Journal on Travel and Tourism (ISSN: 0972-7310) before you which encapsulates a variety of contemporary issues in tourism with the aim to provide empirical evidence and practical guidance. We have taken all necessary actions with more valued and relevant features to make this issue of JoT more educative and informative to our readers, researchers, practitioners and policy makers.

The Hemawati Nandan Bahuguna Garhwal University (HNBGU) is a central university which houses India's renowned tourism research oriented Centre for Mountain Tourism and Hospitality Studies (CMTHS). To encourage and propagate quality research and innovative ideas, this centre publishes an international Journal of Tourism (JoT). This Journal provides important input to the policy makers and practitioners of India as well as other countries on both theoretical and applied empirical studies on key aspects related to tourism. Hence, there is considerable diversity in the topics addressed by the contributors in JoT.

We received several research papers for this issue of JoT from across the globe. After thorough review, a collection of six quality research papers and one research note were selected for publication in this issue of JoT. The research papers in this issue provide in depth study on contemporary issues in the field of tourism.

The first paper entitled "River Tourism along Mae Klong River (Samut Songkhram Thailand): Community Perceptions, Issues and Challenges" co-authored by Corazon Catobog Sinha and Nuanpan Suravanichakit focuses on the issues and concerns of the local community regarding tourism development along the River. The study found that the perceived values attached to the River include economic, symbolic, spiritual, historic, recreational, and educational. This study revealed that the communities are interested in promoting river tourism, but they have some concerns as well as some suggestions on how community-driven tourism should be pursued in a sustainable and collective manner.

The second paper entitled "Stakeholder collaboration as a tool for tourism planning - A developing country's perspective" co-authored by Ian E. Munanura and Kenneth F. Backman reviews stakeholder collaboration frameworks for sustainable tourism planning, and explores their applicability from a developing country's perspective and proposes modifications to well-grounded frameworks of collaboration found in the current literature. This paper proposes an alternative framework by

applying the UNWTO's well-established three phase's collaboration model in a modified form to compensate for the gaps existing with collaboration constraints and environment in developing countries.

The third paper entitled "Local Communities and Ecotourism Development in Kimana, Kenya" authored by Tom G. Ondicho focuses on wild life based ecotourism project in which the people of Kimana have sought to exploit the commercial advantage of their communal land which lies near Amboseli National Park (ANP) in Southern Kenya. This case study concludes that internal political rifts within the community which have both hampered meaningful Maasai participation in tourism benefits and facilitated the exploitation of Kimana's tourism potential by external commercial operators.

The fourth paper entitled "An Investigation of the Attitudes of Travel & Tourism Operators to Mature Travelers" co-authored by Erwin Losekoot and Denise Schitko considers the attitudes to and experiences of travel agents and tourism intermediaries when servicing the needs of mature travellers within the broader area of 'accessible tourism'. The survey of members of a professional association within the travel industry in Auckland, New Zealand highlighted a number of key challenges and opportunities for those working in this increasingly valuable sector of the tourism industry. The research concludes with examples of best practice and some recommendations drawn from the many years' experience of the survey respondents.

The fifth paper entitled "Improving the Awareness of Northern Cyprus Tourism in the Finnish Tourist Market: A Preliminary Study" authored by Mustafa Daskin focuses on improving the awareness in Finland of north Cyprus tourism attraction through promotion mix. Semi-structured interviews were used to understand that though north Cyprus tourism destination has potential amenities for Finnish tourists, why this tourism destination does not take place in such gainful tourist market. The research revealed that the north Cyprus travel and tourism industry has marketing myopia on the Finnish tourist market and the promotion mix tool may have a positive impact on purchasing behaviors of Finnish tourists.

The Sixth paper entitled "Tourism Marketing: An Empirical Study Assessing the Destination Image of Delhi, India" co-authored by D. Mukhopadhyaya, Rashi Taggar and Pabitra Kumar Jena explore and assess the various attributes tourists' associate with Delhi, India thus developing the image of the destination in their mind. For this study a survey has been conducted in Delhi; and Factor analysis and means score comparison methods were used to identify important factors which are responsible for assessing the destination image of Delhi. The study finds that along with many tangible and intangible factors, places to visit, option to act, liaison,

environment, services and popularity are among the important factors for assessment of destination image of Delhi. This paper discusses some of the policy suggestions for improving Delhi as an international tourist destination.

These six research papers encapsulate a variety of practical contemporary issues in tourism to enable the readers to apply the theory and empirical findings in practice. The views expressed in this issue of JOT are those of the respective authors. This issue also presents a Research Note on Tourism: Science of Hospitality coauthored by Alastair Thirkettle and Maximiliano E. Korstanje which sustains the thesis tourism is the discipline of hospitality, which seems to be an ancient institutions present in almost all cultures in this world. Understanding hospitality is a valid alternative to connect with other economies, and sociological structures to the extent to create a new scientific discipline. It is mandatory to delve into the historical roots of hospitality to transcend the hegemony of managerial views. More than a strategy of kindness, hospitality is a social mechanism to intellectualize the fear of travelling. It summarizes, whether hospitality is the object of study that will consolidate tourism in next years, the dream-like subsystem should contribute researchers to create a new comparative method. The Call for papers and List of upcoming conferences and seminars are also included in this issue of JoT.

I would like to gratefully acknowledge time and support of the Referees and Editorial Board members in all the endeavours, which inspired to bring out this issue of JoT.

With best regards,

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River Tourism Along Mae Klong River (Samut Songkhram Thailand): Community Perceptions, Issues and Challenges

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Abstract: *This paper discusses the major natural and cultural features of the lower reaches of Mae Klong River in Samut Songkhram Province (Thailand). Such information is essential in the development of sustainable community-based tourism along the River. This paper focuses on the issues and concerns of the local community regarding tourism development along the River. The study found that the perceived values attached to the River include economic, symbolic, spiritual, historic, recreational, and educational. This study revealed that the communities are interested in promoting river tourism, but they have some concerns as well as some suggestions on how community-driven tourism should be pursued in a sustainable and collective manner. The factors that the local residents considered crucial in pursuing sustainable and locally managed river tourism include community agreement, community involvement and responsibility, training and education, and compatibility between tourism and local livelihoods. Because rivers transcend political and geographical boundaries, collaborative partnerships among relevant stakeholders are important.*

Keywords: Heritage, rural tourism, community tourism, flagship species, riverine ecosystem, livelihoods.

Introduction

The introduction of tourism in rural areas can have both positive and negative effects on the lives of local residents. Tourism in many of these areas is considered a catalyst of change in household economies because it provides supplementary job opportunities. Tourism offers economic fallback in case traditional livelihoods fail as a result of unexpected natural disasters or financial downturn (UNWTO, 2009). However, tourism can also be a major trigger of social conflicts as well as the decline of community cohesion and cultural integrity (e.g. Ross and Wall, 1999; Catibog-Sinha, 2012). Advocates of sustainable tourism reiterate that tourism should not be pursued as a developmental option when tourism would merely damage the tangible and intangible values of a place (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).

Studies have shown that benign form of tourism causes only minimum disturbances and may actually provide more benefits than problems if managed in accordance with the principles of sustainable development (Hall

and Lew, 1998; Vargas-Sanchez et al., 2011; Yeoman et al., 2007). While economic consideration is a major factor in sustaining tourism venture, it is essential that it does not compromise the cultural and environmental integrity of a destination. Generating livelihood opportunities and enhancing both cultural pride and environmental ethos among members of a community are also crucial in sustaining tourism.

Many developing countries including Thailand view tourism as a major source of revenue both at the local and national levels. Tourism contributes about 6.5% to Thailand's GDP. During the period 1998-2007, Thailand attracted an annual average of 10.8 M foreign and 67 M domestic tourists (TAT, 2008). The positive tourist image of the country includes culture, food, friendly people, entertainment, and natural places (Evrard and Leepreecha, 2009; Henkel et al., 2006; Horng and Tsai, 2010; McDowall, 2010). The Tourism Authority of Thailand aims to position the country as the tourism hub in Southeast Asia and to be known for its cultural, natural, and historical assets. To promote nature-based and cultural tourism, the government of Thailand has re-channelled its tourism priority program from urban to rural areas. This allows the decongestion of Bangkok and the sharing of tourism benefits with rural communities (McDowall and Wang, 2009).

Because tourism development in rural areas can trigger different perspectives from various stakeholders in particular local communities, this paper explores both the positive and negative views regarding the development of tourism along the lower segment of Mae Klong River. The epistemological underpinning of this study considered both qualitative and quantitative research methods. One-on-one assisted questionnaire survey and field observations were conducted.

Given that individuals have different views about social issues around them (Bryman, 2008), the local issues and suggestions as perceived by the respondents are vital in tourism management. The economic, socio-cultural, and environmental factors that the local residents believed to be crucial in pursuing a sustainable and locally managed tourism along the Mae Klong River are presented. This paper also discusses the natural and cultural features of the lower reaches of the River, which can be the bases for the development of sustainable river tourism. The study argues that local knowledge about natural and cultural features as well as the values that they assign to these features can influence their decision regarding tourism development.

Literature Review

Community-based tourism and participation

Community-based tourism is a form of tourism wherein the local members of the community are actively involved in tourism development.

Also referred to as community tourism, it focuses on the capability and capacity of the host community to be self-reliant and confident in tourism planning and management (Blackstock, 2005; Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).

Tourism in rural areas, where host communities are often marginalised, should provide opportunities for local residents to participate in all developmental matters that directly and indirectly affect them. Their participation is vital in sustainable tourism planning and management to ensure that local issues and concerns are understood and addressed. When traditional livelihoods (e.g. weaving, farming, fishing) complement tourism, the community may benefit from improved local production and economic diversification. For instance, the farmers in Sanjiang National Nature Reserve (China) are willing to participate in wetland tourism because of its local benefits such as, capital and employment opportunities, positive government's attitude and support, and quality of the wetland ecosystem (Chun-Li *et al.*, 2009).

The benefits of local participation and cooperation on issues pertaining to the management of tourism are recognized for the conservation of tourist destinations such as those on Koh Kred Island along the Chao Phraya River in Thailand (Catibog-Sinha and Wechtunyagul, 2011). Involving the local people and sharing the benefits accruing from angling at Western Ramganga River (Himalayas, northern India) has been proven to be an effective incentive for locals to protect the river from destruction and over-exploitation (Everard and Kataria, 2011). However, not everyone in the community benefits from tourism. Tourism can make existing jobs less viable, causing some social and economic problems (Stronza, 2007; Zhang *et al.*, 2009). To ensure that tourism contributes to sustainable livelihood, it is important to determine and understand the existing livelihood activities, assets, and benefits; these data can serve as guide in determining if proposed tourism-related jobs are complementary or potentially conflicting (Tao and Wall, 2009; Wechtunyagul and Catibog-Sinha, 2010).

River ecosystem a tourist destination and the community's life line

Many tourists are fascinated by natural flowing bodies of water, such as rivers and streams and the associated recreational activities. Chao Phraya River, which flows through Bangkok City, is famous for its river cruise and floating restaurants. The Amphawa Canal, a few kilometres north of Mae Klong district (Samut Songkhram Province), is widely known for its floating market. However, these popular destinations have, in recent years, been showing environmental and social strains especially during peak tourism seasons.

Flowing bodies of water are dynamic, changing constantly in size, shape, length, and colour. These attributes together with the cultural and historical stories of riverine communities and villages are not only valuable

components of heritage (UNESCO, 1972) and life-giving ecological system (Catibog-Sinha and Heaney, 2006) but also remarkable tourism products. In Southeast Asia “water, rather than land, is the defining element... where human relationship to water has long formed the basis of existence” (Rigg, 1992 in Mohammed, 2009 p. 353). Rivers do not only enrich human’s cultural and recreational experiences but also regulate biogeochemical cycles, support fisheries production, and supply freshwater for domestic, industrial and agricultural purposes (Postel and Carpenter, 1997). Flowing rivers and streams carry with them organic nutrients in a downstream direction, which are essential for fishery and aquatic productivity. Rivers at the lower reaches form estuaries stretching out into the mangrove forests. Estuaries are critical nursery habitats for numerous marine species including commercial fishes and shellfish. The high productivity of estuaries, such as those in Pattani Bay in southern Gulf of Thailand (Hajisamae et al., 2006), can be attributed to the constant mixing of fresh and salt water, allowing nutrients to disperse and nourish numerous organisms.

Unfortunately, freshwater and coastal ecosystems worldwide are very much at risk because of severe human use and exploitation (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005). Human settlements and industrial activities tend to concentrate near rivers and streams, leading to a range of disturbances. Human activities, such as agriculture, urban development, navigation, and industrialisation, contribute to the alteration of the structure and functions of inland rivers, streams, canals, and estuaries. Because of the increasing population of Thailand (60 million in 2000 to 67 million in 2010) (NSOT, 2009) and rapid economic development, many inland waters and coastal areas in the country have been destroyed and polluted (Kunacheva et al. 2009; Wattayakorn, 2005). For instance, the ecological disturbances due to human exploitation (e.g. pollution, over-fishing, loss of marine biodiversity) of the Gulf of Thailand are alarming (Suvapepun, 1991).

Sustainable river tourism

River tourism is a form of nature-based tourism occurring along flowing freshwater course including its tributaries and river banks. Depending on the quality and dynamics of rivers, tourist experience may range from active (e.g. game fishing, boating, kayaking, rafting) to passive (e.g. bird watching, meditation, sight-seeing, dining on floating restaurants) recreational activities. In developing countries, rivers are used by local communities not only as source of food but also for navigation and for washing, bathing, and irrigating farms and gardens. Given the poor condition of rivers in many parts of the world (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005), it is worth considering the role of rivers in tourism development and supporting local communities. However, Farooquee et al. (2008, p.587) argue that tourism (i.e. camping and rafting) “needs to be sensitive to local environmental and cultural norms and beliefs for it to be accepted by local people and promote sustainable development”.

The potential of river tourism to generate socio-economic benefits cannot be underestimated (Mohammed, 2009; Pinto et al., 2010). Yassin et al. (2010) suggest establishing income-generating activities (e.g. boat renting, hotel, home-stay and local product shops) to improve the income and quality of life of the local communities residing along the Maur River (Malaysia). The study of Loomis and Santiago (2011) shows that tourists, especially overseas visitors, were willing to pay for a pristine recreation experience in Puerto Rico's rain forest rivers. Local tourist entrepreneurs promoting salmon fishing in River Tornionjoki (between Finland and Sweden) claimed that the economic value of salmon as part of recreational activity is much higher than from salmon caught from the open sea (Salmi and Salmi, 2010). Sustainable tourism can help minimise the impacts of destructive fishing and other human exploitative activities on freshwater ecosystems (Everard and Kataria, 2011).

Maintaining the ecological integrity of river ecosystem is essential in sustaining river tourism. The environmental quality of the Ping River (Thailand) was closely linked to the economic and social benefits derived by the local communities from river tourism (Mohammed, 2009). Understandably, rivers that are polluted do not attract tourists. The mere presence of rubbish on water and river banks is a major deterrent for tourists interested in river experience (Jalilian et al., 2012). Grossmann (2011) further states that adequate in-stream flows and water level are crucial in promoting boating along the Spree River (Germany). High water transparency and fish diversity were identified as important attributes for recreational snorkeling in the two streams studied in Brazil (Barreto et al., 2011).

River tourism, to be sustainable, should take into account the integration of the economic, ecological, and social aspects of planning and management. This is particularly true for all river ecosystems because of the inevitable impact of upstream activities on the downstream segments of the river where tourism and other human activities occur (Pinto et al., 2010).

Study Area

Mae Klong River, is located in Samut Songkhram Province (also known as Muang Mae Klong), less than 100 km south of Bangkok. The Province is increasingly becoming a popular rural destination. The volume of tourists that arrived in 2007 reflects an increase of 24% from the previous year. Out of more than half a million tourists that visited Samut Songkhram in 2007, 97% were Thai and the rest were foreigners. Majority of the visitors (87%) arrived as independent tourists, usually travelling by car from Bangkok (43%), Central Region (34%), and Eastern Region (11 %) (TAT, 2010).

The study area is located within the Mae Klong River Basin, which is drained by two rivers - Khwae Noi and Khwae Yai – that converge into the Mae

Klong River and empty into the Gulf of Thailand. The study was conducted at the lower reaches of the Mae Klong River (13.33°-14.00°N, 99.50°-100.09°). The sampled villages are bounded to the north by the Marhon Canal (*Klong-marhon*), and to the south by the Moblad Canal (*Klong-moblad*).

The study area, when compared with Chao Phraya River, is relatively free of major industrial activities, and therefore, the associated pollution found in ground and tap water (Kruawal et al., 2005), the loss of native marine life (Beamish et al., 2006), bank erosion, and crowding are not as severe. Despite the industrialisation and modernisation in the entire Province in general and the upper reaches of the River in particular (Dulaiova et al. 2006), the value of the study area as a relatively tranquil, aesthetic, and touristic destination cannot be ignored.

Methods

Both quantitative (basic descriptive statistics) and qualitative (narrative, local interpretation/views) methods were used in this study. One-on-one assisted questionnaire survey and field observations were conducted during the period July 2006-February 2007. The responses of the participants with regards to the benefits and values of Mae Klong River were grouped according to the following categories: economic, recreational, symbolic/cultural, spiritual, historic, aesthetic, domestic use, and educational. Because the focus of this paper is on local perceptions about the prospect of developing river tourism, in-depth face-to-face interviews with selected government officials and community leaders were also conducted. The interviewees were approached by visiting their respective local offices and/or headquarters. Since one of the authors of this paper is native of the study area, it was relatively convenient to access respondents and solicit their opinion about tourism. Using the social construction of the benefits and risks of tourism, a qualitative analysis was applied to assess the data on local perspectives about tourism development.

Out of the 14 villages (*chumchon*) that comprise the Mae Klong district, nine were sampled along the River banks: six along the east and three along the west. Since these communities are geographically in juxtaposition to each other, it was assumed that the residents there had more or less the same level of access to and knowledge about the River and its resources.

The main questions/topics covered in the survey and interviews are as follows:

- Socio-demographic profile
- Factors which contribute to the aesthetic, cultural, and educational values of the River
- Personal beliefs in the River Goddess

- Commodities directly and indirectly derived from the River
- Local recreational and occupational activities that are dependent on the River
- Perceived environmental quality of the water
- Historical knowledge about and patrimony towards the River
- Reasons for agreeing or not agreeing to the idea of developing river tourism
- Social and political issues that could deter or weaken the development and management of river tourism
- Role of the local residents and relevant stakeholders in sustaining river tourism
- Recommendations on how river tourism should be set up and managed.

The natural and cultural features of the study area were also collected using both field observation and literature review. A rented motorized boat was used to convey researchers to various sections, tributaries, and canals of the River. Knowing the existence of these features can facilitate the process of determining the potential of the study area for community-based tourism development.

Results and Discussion

Socio-demographic profile

Out of 500 adults approached to participate in the survey, 380 (76%) were residents and willing to be involved. The responses from only 301 participants (79%) were used in this study; the rest were discarded because they were either incomplete or irrelevant.

The participants were predominantly females (56%) who were more vocal and articulate than the males. Regardless of sex, the majority belonged to 18-40+ years of age, and all were literate. More than 50% of the respondents had lived in their respective villages for more than 30 years. The majority (69.3%) of the respondents owned the land where they lived. While some (44%) were working either as casual or contractual employees in fish-based manufacturing industries in Samut Songkhram, others (31%) were fishers and/or farmers just like their forebears. A few others were engaged in small-scale aquaculture usually set up on the mangrove zone adjoining their place of residence. Some residents, mostly women, were vending fish at the market place or from house-to-house. An average of 4 members comprised a household.

Natural attributes of Mae Klong River

Because of the proximity of the study area to the Gulf of Thailand, it is subject to seawater intrusion during certain tidal movements, resulting in the mixing of salt water from the Gulf and freshwater from inland water

bodies, creating an estuarine which is considered one of the richest and most productive ecological systems in the world (Burnett et al., 2007; Vidthayanon and Premcharoen, 2002). The existence of the three major water zones (freshwater, marine and brackish) along the lower portion of the Mae Klong River system earned the Province of Samut Songkhram the title of “Province of Three Waters” (Piyakarnchana, 1979).

Because the study area is inherently a rich habitat of diverse aquatic and wetland biota, it supports local fishery as well as offers interesting tourism opportunities and attractions. Several small water canals branching off the River are lined with mangrove trees and other wetland vegetation that serve as nursing grounds of numerous aquatic species (e.g. fish, crabs, molluscs) and refuge and feeding grounds of several wetland and shore birds (e.g. kingfishers, egrets) and reptiles (e.g. monitor lizard).

The upland section of the River basin and tributaries have been the subject of some ecological research. For example, the study of Beamish et al. (2006) revealed that the species richness of cyprinids (freshwater fish) at the streams of Mae Klong is one of the highest in the Basin. Likewise, several bays in the Gulf were found to be important spawning, nursing, and feeding grounds of a rich variety of aquatic and marine life, such as crustaceans (crabs and shrimps) and molluscs (e.g. oysters, mussels, cockles) (Jarernpornnipat et al., 2003). These diverse biota provide local food sources not only for the community but also for tourists; their presence in the area also adds premium to tourist experience.

The canals of Mae Klong River (including those in famous Amphawa River) have a myriad of glowing fireflies (or lightning beetles) that fascinate tourists, many of whom would stay up until dusk to watch the spectacular show of blinking lights. The emergence of the fireflies complements the aesthetic and romantic appeal of the River which used to attract some 5,000 tourists at Amphawa Canal (MCOT News, 2008). Recently, however, the fireflies have dwindled in number and are less frequently seen most likely because of the disturbance of their habitats and the depletion of native trees (locally called *Lampoo*) that line the banks of canals. Suggestions have put forward so as to attract the fireflies as well as native birds and other wildlife back to the wetland. Riparian forests are vital in protecting water quality and aquatic life and have beneficial effects on terrestrial biodiversity (Catibog-Sinha and Heaney, 2006). Rehabilitation and reforestation of the riparian forest will stabilise river banks and protect them from massive soil erosion and inundation.

Cultural attributes of Mae Klong River

Rivers are often depicted in arts, oral history, and literature as a peaceful and sentimental place to be. Mae Klong River is no different. As one cruises the Mae Klong River, tourists can develop a feeling of

calmness as well as a sense of being in a remote and unfamiliar place. Tourist experiences can take a variety of forms, such as 'moods, emotions and feelings of individuals moving through natural landscapes' (Chhetri et al., 2004, p. 31). According to Green (1990), experiencing 'nature' revolves around tourism and leisure in pursuit of pleasure and personal fulfilment that may be built on the intangible features of a place.

The way of life of people living along the river banks is an intangible component of cultural heritage and a unique tourist attraction (UNESCO, 2003). Tourists while on a boat cruise can have a glimpse (without actually intruding into people's privacy) of how local residents go about with their daily lives. These sceneries may include children swimming playfully at the edge of the river bank, men fishing while on their small paddled boats or leisurely sitting under shade of trees with a hook and line, and housewives busying themselves in the garden and kitchen. The maintenance of aquaculture pens and sometimes frantic harvesting of the cultured fish contribute to a memorable tourist experience. The friendly greetings from these local folks provide warmth to one's tourist experience as well.

The intangible experiences of tourists are complemented by the tangible aspects of culture. In the study area, the prominent tangible structures observed while on a river cruise are the typical Thai houses and Buddhist temples (*wat*). Temples are important tourist attractions in Thailand; they are known for their elaborate works of arts, architecture designs, and mural paintings. On both sides of the River are four significant Buddhist temples, which the locals regularly visit to pray. Although the temples are relatively small compared with those found in the city proper, they are all brightly coloured and intricately designed. As in many parts of Thailand, temples and the religious beliefs associated with them provide interesting interpretative materials for cultural tourists (Robinson and Picard, 2006).

Despite the increasing modernisation in rural areas, the study area has still several traditional Thai houses which can be more than 50 years old. The majority of the respondents (47%) said that their residential houses are relatively old, having been built at least 20-50 years ago. Many of the houses in the study area are on stilts made of wood and/or a combination of wood and cement. In some cases, new houses adapting Thai architectural design are built to replace the old ones. The row of houses at certain segments of River bank, viewed as one cruises the waterway, offers an interesting scene of the blending of the contemporary way of life with old tradition and culture.

Another cultural attraction in the study area is the historic Mae Khlong-Mahachai railway (one of the oldest in Thailand), which runs between Wong Wian Yai in Thonburi (West Bangkok) and the Mae Klong River area. Originally established to transport sea products from the fishing ports

of Samut Songkhram to city markets, it also now transports commuters and tourists. The train ride offers a panoramic view of the quiet and lush countryside a contrast to the chaotic and busy Bangkok. The railway market where locals sell a range of native products is another interesting attraction in the study area.

Linking nature and culture: Fish festivals and iconic species

The community's natural wealth is celebrated as part of the culture of the local people. For example, to promote the native mackerel (local name: *platu*, scientific name: *Rastrelliger brachysoma*), the Mae Klong Mackerel Festival is held annually from late November to December when the fish is abundant. This short-bodied mackerel is a very popular local dish and seems to be also popular among tourists as it is often shown in tourism brochures/websites as a culinary attraction of the Province. According to Sims (2009, p. 321), "local food can play an important role in the sustainable tourism experience because it appeals to the visitor's desire for authenticity within the holiday experience." Other studies have also shown that there is strong relationship between culinary/food image of destination and the traveller's intention to visit (Horng and Tsai, 2010; Karim and Chi, 2010).

The Mae Klong Mackerel Festival is a memorable tourist event which gives local communities a sense of pride of their cultural and natural heritage as well as opportunities to earn additional income from the sale of local products and to promote their local agricultural and aquacultural initiatives. For example, the tourism income generated from the sale of fresh mackerel, which is sold for about USD\$ 2 (THB 70) per kilogram, and from other tourism-related activities are substantial. About 400,000 visitors come annually for the festival, generating about USD 2 million (THB 80 million) (Chirawet, 2005). The revenue generated from tourism can help provide government funding for the protection of the species and its habitat. This is necessary because the successful celebration and sustainability of the "Mae Klong Mackerel Festival" depends on the sustainability of the population of the mackerel itself. Furthermore, the iconic value of short-bodied mackerel can make an interesting and strong marketing emblem in the promotion of Thai culinary arts within rural setting. Shackley (2001) states that native species are effective flagship species not only for tourism but also for biodiversity conservation. As a flagship species, *platu* can serve as a tool to conserve Mae Klong River and its life support system. The promotion of this species as a tourism flagship or emblem can improve public awareness of its ecological and economic importance, which in turn can be used as a good rationale for a more sustainable harvesting practice and the conservation of its habitat in the Mae Klong River.

Local community's perceptions about Mae Klong River

The perception and understanding of a phenomenon is a social construct determined by the person's economic, cultural, and educational background as well as his/her previous and present experiences (Bryman, 2008). Some of personal views of individuals, although lacking or deficient in scientific evidence, are nonetheless important factors that should be considered in developing sustainable tourism (Vargas-Sanchez et al., 2011).

Given that sustainable tourism development has to be built on community's needs and aspirations, taking into account the perceptions of the host community with regards to the values they attach to Mae Klong River is necessary in order to ascertain if the study area can be a suitable community-based tourist destination. For example, the perceptions and attitudes of the local people of Koh Kred Island (Nothanburi Province, Thailand) were found to be fundamental for a successful tourism venture (Wechtunyagul and Catibog-Sinha, 2010).

The perceived values of the respondents regarding the uses and features of Mae Klong River include both the tangible and intangible aspects of heritage. Table 1 summarizes these values. These values reflect the major issues that they are so concerned about.

Table 1. Perceived Values of Mae Klong River, Based on Responses of 301 Participants.

Values/Issues	Number of participants	%	Examples
Economic	239	80	Household income and food source from subsistence fishing and aquaculture; cleaning and repairing docked fishing vessels
Recreational	202	67	Swimming, wading, boating, hook-and-line fishing
Symbolic/cultural	184	61	Values embedded in songs and legends
Spiritual	89	30	Belief in the Goddess of the River
Historic	81	27	Historical events associated with the River
Aesthetic	67	22	Based only on the brownish colour of the water
Domestic use	58	19	Partial or complete reliance on the River as source of freshwater for drinking, washing, and bathing
Educational	23	8	Availability of educational materials and mentoring opportunities

Economic and domestic-use values

The economic value of the River, through aquaculture, was acknowledged by the majority of the respondents (80%) as highly significant. Of the 22 respondents who own traditional small fishing boats, majority (82%) claimed that they are economically dependent on the River, as these are generally used for subsistence fishing and day-to-day transport, and occasionally, to take tourists to various tourist spots along the River (e.g. restaurants and the floating market located further upstream). Some of

the respondents were involved in small scale aquaculture, set up along the river banks near their residence. The study area, being close to the mouth of the Gulf of Thailand where commercial fishing occurs, offers an ideal shelter for fishing vessels (mostly trawlers and seiners) docking there after the morning catch or needing repair. Some of the residents are employed in cleaning and/or fixing these boats. Several residents use the River for washing and bathing.

Recreational value

The scenic attractions and activities along the River can be promoted in river tourism. The specific reasons expressed by the respondents with regards tourism development are as follows: tourism will generate supplementary income to the local community (39.7%), there will be an added tourist attraction (34.7%), and it will make the province more popular (10.5%). The residents (67%) living at the edge of the river bank have been enjoying leisure fishing, swimming, and wading or simply relaxing from their private water docks or balconies.

Cultural/symbolic values

The majority of the respondents (61%) appreciated the cultural/symbolic power of the River, which is often depicted in native songs (e.g. *Mon Rak Mae Klong*) and in the celebration of river festivals. About 70% (n=212) of the respondents claimed that they are familiar with at least one traditional Thai song that is linked to the River and/or nature. One resident states that “knowledge of traditional songs about the River reflects his appreciation of the cultural value of the River.” The songs give tribute to the River and impart a feeling of nostalgia about the cultural and romantic meanings of the River. These songs can still be heard over local radios, and can be used as a powerful tool in promoting river tourism.

Spiritual value

Flowing rivers, regarded by the majority of rural folks in Thailand as the ‘mother of life’, are linked with traditional Thai beliefs in spiritual beings, which are often expressed in religion, rites and rituals, festivities, and works of art. Such example is the Guardian Goddess of the River, locally known as *Phra Mae Kong-Ka*. She is also symbolises wealth and prosperity. Of the 301 respondents, 30% expressed their belief in the Goddess both as benefactor and spiritual guardian. Fishermen, including those involved in boat maintenance (e.g. boat carpenters, painters) and the fishing industry (fish sorting, freezing, and packaging), generally believe in the goodness and power of the Goddess. The beliefs in the relationship between the River and people are reflected in many Thai proverbs, riddles, and children’s games (Van Beek, 2004). Unfortunately, modernity is gradually eroding these beliefs; although there are several cases elsewhere

(Catibog-Sinha and Bushell, 2002) where tourism is considered an effective tool in re-vitalizing the connectivity between nature and culture.

Aesthetic and water quality values

About 22% of the respondents believed that the aesthetic value of the River is being compromised because of the brownish colour of the water, which they associated with pollution and sedimentation. For example, a number of residents said that they are not sure if the water, because of its brownish colour, is safe for domestic use. Nonetheless, aesthetic value can also be measured in terms of a pleasant feeling of being (Kellert and Wilson, 1993; Urry, 1995). For example, the calmness of the River, the refreshing breeze, and the sense of remoteness as one cruises the River towards the Gulf of Thailand is an aesthetic and breath-taking experience, which the researchers felt themselves during their field visits.

Historical, ecological, and educational values

Despite the proximity of the residents to the River, only 27% of them and mostly elders were aware of the historical value of the River. The ecological value of the River was not clearly articulated by the respondents, although they were aware of the presence of diverse plants and animals thereat. Likewise, the educational value of the River, while not overwhelmingly recognized at this stage, can be improved through capacity building and interpretative programs in tourism. Transfer of scientific knowledge to inform policy and the management of rivers in a changing world has been emphasised by Stevenson and Sabater (2010). Understanding ecology hand-in-hand with the cultural/symbolic aspects of the River provides a person a sense of having a 'symbiotic relationship' between nature and culture. This notion of nature-culture-tourism linkages has been one of the guiding principles of sustainability in many parts of the world.

Community concerns and recommendations

Understanding the factors that could influence the potential success of community-based tourism is crucial in tourism planning and management. These factors can assist decision makers as well as the tourism industry in addressing sustainability issues and concerns. According to Ribeiro and Vareiro (2010), failure to address local concerns could hinder the ability of tourism development to progress.

It is crucial to ascertain if the local communities of Mae Klong are ready and capable of undertaking sustainable river tourism. This study found that the communities are interested in promoting river tourism, but they have some concerns on how community-driven tourism could be pursued in a sustainable and collective manner. Several suggestions were offered by the respondents in developing river tourism at Mae Klong River. These are as follows:

Community agreement

The study found that the majority of the respondents (73%, n=219) are enthusiastic in developing a small-scale 'floating-market' attraction and a waterway cruise at Mae Klong River. However, the rest (27%, n=82) who were neither interested in nor in agreement with the idea of developing any form of tourism attractions in the area were somewhat apprehensive of the possible environmental and social problems that could arise from tourism development. In a separate study, the local communities of Mae Wang and Mae Chaem district in Chiang Mai Province have also expressed anxiety over plans to develop tourism in their village, although they were aware of the economic benefits of community-based tourism (Promburom et al., 2009). This feeling of anxiety is normal because there are indeed problems associated with unsustainable tourism development, which include physical disturbance of the environment, displacement and relocation of human settlements, changes in social demographics as well as the disruption of community cohesion and lifestyles (e.g. Ross and Wall, 1999; Yeoman et al. 2007).

The respondents expressed the need to balance these opposing concerns in order to pursue river tourism. For example, the number of tourists and boats cruising the River at one particular time as well as the infrastructure development can be regulated and their impacts regularly monitored. In addition, infrastructure development can be integrated into the geology, culture, and vegetation type of the river bank ensuring minimum disturbance on the ecosystem and aesthetic scenery.

Community involvement and responsibility

The success of community-based tourism can be achieved when there is a strong sense of responsibility among members of the community. The respondents (73%) would like to be involved in meaningful activities that benefit them. They argued that local government and lead tourism organizations should ensure that community involvement and participation are not offered only to those who have political power and money.

Long-term residents in Mae Klong, especially those who own the land where they reside (69.3%), can participate effectively and responsibly in tourism venture. As volunteers, they can be officially authorised to monitor the impacts of tourism development and other human activities to ensure that the integrity of the River is maintained not only for the long-term sustainability of the tourism industry but also for the sake of present and future residents of Mae Klong.

Training, education, and public awareness

Ability to manage community-based tourism can be developed and enhanced through education and training in various aspects of ecotourism (Baum and Szivas, 2009), especially in tour guiding (Christie and Mason,

2003). For instance, Menakanit et al. (2006) suggest that waterway tourism, such as the one along Chao Phraya River, can be improved, among others, by developing an educational interpretation program that covers the various tourist sites/attractions along the River.

For Mae Klong River, it is necessary to identify local skills and competency shortages before development can be implemented. The respondents believed that the members of Mae Klong River community should be well-informed and trained in sustainable tourism management and river ecology. The Governor of Samut Songkhram Province (Mr. Opas Savetmanee, personal communication, August 7, 2008) was enthusiastic in promoting tourism but stated that there is a “need to increase environmental awareness among the local people and tourists on the importance of preserving the River and the quality of life of the local people.” For instance, preserving historic and cultural objects, such as the vernacular shop markets along the river bank in Supanburi (Bangplama district, Thailand), entails the appreciation of the community and shop owners of the cultural and historical values of these architectural units (Suephakdee, 2010). Promoting local cuisine can strengthen regional identity and enhancement of environmental awareness. Everett and Aitchiso (2008, p.150) observed an “increase in social and cultural benefits celebrating the production of local food and the conservation of traditional heritage, skills and ways of life.”

Compatibility between tourism and local livelihoods

Not everyone in the community appreciates the benefits from tourism as it may not be always compatible with local people’s livelihoods. For example, tourism can make existing jobs less viable, causing economic displacement and conflict (Stronza, 2007).

In this study, tourism was seen by some respondents to potentially contradict or displaced the existing livelihoods of residents. However, given that majority of the residents are directly and indirectly involved in fish-based livelihoods and businesses, they can promote the River and the local fishery products as tourism resources.

Traditional livelihoods (e.g. farming, fishing) can complement tourism but only if the community could benefit substantially from improved local production and economic diversification. To ensure that tourism contributes to sustainable livelihood, it is important to determine and understand the existing livelihood activities, assets, and benefits; these data can serve as guide in determining if proposed tourism-related jobs are complementary or potentially conflicting (Catibog-Sinha and Wechtunyagul, 2011; Tao and Wall, 2009). McDowall and Choi (2010) found that Thai residents in southern Thailand have recognised that the local benefits of tourism include the promotion and conservation of local culture and livelihoods, which could boost financial investments and local revenues.

Conclusion

This paper explores the natural and cultural features of the lower segment of Mae Klong River as potential tourist destination as well as the perspectives of the local residents about the development of river tourism. The local residents of Mae Klong River are enthusiastic in developing the lower reaches of the River into a small-scale, community-centered, and benign form of river ecotourism, that is, tourism that does not diminish the natural and cultural attributes of the River but rather one that helps in improving its ecological integrity as well as in enhancing community culture, heritage, and solidarity including livelihood opportunities.

The study found that the attachment of the local residents to Mae Klong River can be described as one referred to as 'place dependence' (Moore and Graefe, 1994 p. 19). This is because the local people strongly associate themselves with and are dependent upon the River for their day-to-day subsistence. The respondents also believed that Mae Klong River gives them a sense of 'place identity', which is defined as the "combination of attitudes, values, thoughts, beliefs, meanings, and behaviour tendencies reaching far beyond emotional attachment and belonging to particular places' (Proshansky et al., 1983 in Bricker and Kerstetter, 2002). It is thus important that the local values of the community are not compromised by the demands of certain elements of the tourism industry who view the natural and cultural assets of a destination merely as 'products to be consumed', which could eventually create social conflicts and animosity between tourists and local communities and the irreversible damage to the environment.

However, it is necessary to identify local skills and competency shortages before development can be implemented. The Mae Klong River community should be well-informed and trained in sustainable tourism management and river ecology. Knowledge about the natural and cultural attributes of a destination is necessary in tourism development. Furthermore, the assessment of a tourist destination should take into account not only its economic benefits but also its ecological, social, and cultural values.

The preliminary results of this study can inform future and more in-depth research on river tourism development along Mae Klong River as well as in other similar areas where local communities are highly dependent on nature for their daily subsistence and have strong connections with local traditions and culture. From the tourism industry perspective, the results of this study can provide basic tourism management approaches that are consistent with the community's points of view and are in accordance with the fundamental principles of sustainable development. In addition, collaborative partnerships with relevant stakeholders sectors are essential in pursuing tourism development.

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Stakeholder Collaboration as a Tool for Tourism Planning - A Developing Country's Perspective

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Abstract: *This paper reviews stakeholder collaboration frameworks for sustainable tourism planning, and explores their applicability from a developing country's perspective and proposes modifications to well-grounded frameworks of collaboration found in the current literature. The idea of sustainable tourism planning and the role of stakeholder collaboration are discussed in the background section to provide a rationale for this paper's final recommendations. Additionally, the most widely applied theories and important models of tourism stakeholder collaboration that have been identified important for sustainable tourism planning are discussed briefly. Using a UNWTO stakeholder collaboration model for tourism sustainability, the stakeholder collaboration experience in developing countries is discussed; particularly those in Africa are reviewed to identify collaboration gaps that exist in that context. Based on this review, an alternative framework is proposed by applying the well-established three phase's collaboration model in a modified form to compensate for the gaps existing with collaboration constraints and environment in developing countries.*

Keywords: Collaboration, stakeholder, local community, sustainable tourism.

Introduction

Stakeholder collaboration (SC) is rarely used as a tool for tourism planning and management in Africa (Honey 2008; Sharpley 2011). Where SC exists, it is informal and led by a few elite organizations and individuals in the private sector involved in the tourism service delivery as well as from government officials that are driving the marketing of tourism. This top down approach to tourism planning has resulted in the isolation of important tourism stakeholders such that local communities and their leaders only continue to participate in tourism planning informally. One of the impacts of such a situation is the advent of unbalanced tourism plans that affect the effectiveness and sustainability of tourism in Africa (Hall, 2008, Gunn and Var, 2002). It is also well documented that if tourism is not well planned developed and managed in partnership with all relevant stakeholders (such as local residents), there is a potential to destroy the environment, economic and social resources it depends on (Inskeep, 1991; McCool and Martin, 1994).

As seen in the tourism literature, un-inclusive and unorganized stakeholder collaboration is not a rare phenomenon globally. Because of its nature and scope, the tourism industry in general can be highly fragmented and as a result sustainable tourism businesses and programs

are more likely to fail if they continue to work in isolation (Aas, Ladkin, and Fletcher, 2005; Jamal and Getz, 1995). The close interdependencies among the stakeholders in various sectors of the tourism industry suggests that interrelationships through organized collaboration mechanisms have to be considered seriously by tourism agencies in order for them to achieve their common goal of tourism sustainability in Africa (Echtner and Jamal, 1997; Hall, 2008).

Stakeholder collaboration approaches has emerged in the tourism literature as a significant tool available to tourism planners and managers to help promote interrelationships among tourism stakeholders to ensure sustainability of tourism programs can occur (Aas et al., 2005; Byrd, 2007; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Jamal and Stronza, 2009; Koontz, 2006). Central to the collaboration approach in tourism planning are the elements of identification and legitimization of potential collaboration stakeholders (Aas et al., 2005; Byrd, 2007; Koontz, 2006), and the collaboration structure that is self sustaining (Gray, 1985). A number of collaboration models capturing these elements have been developed and applied to sustainable tourism planning (de Araujo and Bramwell, 1999; Gray, 1985; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Jamal and Stronza, 2009; Wood and Gray, 1991). In reality however and drawing from personal experience in tourism planning and management in Africa, the effectiveness of these models cannot be predicted in varying situations which complicates their utility and the general advancement of collaboration theory. As Wood and Gray (1991) suggest, it is important to understand the meaning of collaboration in varying practical context for the advancement of the theory.

This paper therefore explores proposed collaboration models that are commonly used in tourism planning, particularly the phased collaboration model developed by Gray (1985), to assess the applicability of such a model in the African tourism stakeholder collaboration environment. In Addition, this paper reviews the current tourism stakeholder collaboration environment literature using the UNWTO's sustainable tourism stakeholder collaboration model (Swarbrooke, 1999), and proposes a modified stakeholder collaboration framework that is more relevant for tourism planning in Africa.

Background

Tourism planning is rooted strongly in the concept of sustainable tourism (Hall, 2008; Gunn and Var, 2002; Bulter, 1991). It is therefore critical to first review the relevance of sustainability in tourism planning which provides a clear connection between tourism planning and stakeholder collaboration. The concept of sustainable tourism has been around for over a decade in the tourism literature. It is defined as a forward-looking type of tourism management that promotes the long-term health of

natural and cultural resources for future generations (Butler, 1991). The proponents of sustainable tourism also argue that tourism development needs to be economically viable in the long-term and must not contribute to the degradation of social, cultural and natural environments (Butler, 1991; Mowforth and Munt, 1998; Murphy, 1988). Sustainability has evolved to become an important concept in relation to tourism planning (Byrd, 2007; Hall, 2008; Yuksel, Bramwell, and Yuksel, 1999). In fact it is strongly argued that for sustainable tourism to function successfully, stakeholders must be involved in the tourism planning and management process (Hall, 2008; Gunn, 1988). This argument then qualifies the need for and importance of collaboration theory in the tourism planning debate (Bramwell and Lane, 2000; Byrd, 2007; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Jamal and Jamrozy, 2006; Jamal and Stronza, 2009; Hall, 2008).

From the stakeholder standpoint, sustainability in tourism planning calls for fair and equitable development opportunities, mutual understanding and equality among stakeholders (Hall, 2008; Sharpley, 2000). In practice however, achieving desirable collaboration is debatable. Sharpley (2000) suggests that the ability of all stakeholders to effectively collaborate and realize a balanced share of tourism benefits is not being achieved because of the nature and scope of sustainable tourism businesses especially in developing countries. The tourism business domain unlike other domains in Africa whose success depends on good management alone, tourism succeeds only when other stakeholders are actively involved because its products and services are not offered by a single stakeholder and the actions of one stakeholder affects others in the same business domain (Gunn and Var, 2002; Hall, 2008).

By its nature and scope, the tourism industry is highly fragmented and sustainable tourism businesses and programs are more likely to fail if they continue to work in isolation from other stakeholders (Aas et al., 2005; Jamal and Getz, 1995). The close interdependencies among the stakeholders in various sectors of the tourism industry means that interrelationships have to be considered seriously by stakeholders who are bound by a common goal if tourism planning and effective implementation are to have a chance to succeed in Africa (Echtner and Jamal, 1997). As Jamal and Getz (1995) suggest, the cross-sectoral collaboration among stakeholders has potential to reduce turbulent domains such as in the tourism industry and increase likelihood of success for sustainable tourism planning and management in Africa.

From the supply side of the tourism system perspective, a few elite organizations and individuals in the private sector and government have primarily led tourism planning and management in Africa. Other potential stakeholders in the tourism system such as the local communities have been left on the periphery and have not been formally engaged in

tourism planning and decision making despite the potential impact of their informal involvement in the tourism supply system. For example, the local community stakeholders living in proximity to tourism resources could be engaged for partnership in service delivery, which would help to create a sense of ownership value for the tourism resource among local residents (Hall, 2008, Wunder 2000).

Absence of collaboration and engagement of such stakeholders in tourism planning and decision-making has resulted in undesirable situations in Africa. Some of these situations include; power imbalances where tourism businesses in the service delivery sector of tourism are dominated by a few elite organizations in the private sector, which are often times foreign owned, or government controlled with regard to product development, delivery and revenue. Such tourism situations in Africa have further alienated other potential stakeholder's especially local community residents who operate small-scale tourism businesses and other local stakeholders who are important to the survival of the natural resources on which tourism in the local area is often based. The resulting issues and conflicts which have exacerbated the tourism situation have led to more problems such as social economic polarization, leakage of tourism revenue out of the local economy, increasing local demand for resources, cultural alienation and loss of social control issues that as Brohman (1996) says, have potential to create a huge gap between potential stakeholders with shared interests.

It is well documented that if tourism is not well planned, developed and managed, it has the potential to destroy the environment, economic and social resources it depends on (Inskeep, 1991; Hall, 2008; McCool and Martin, 1994). Therefore if the situation described above does not change, the future of the tourism industry on which most of the economies in Africa depend remains at risk. The key question one would ask with respect to tourism planning in Africa then is why are the local community's important stakeholders left out of tourism planning? Using Byrd's (2007) suggestion, tourism stakeholders are any group or individual who can or will be affected by tourism development. Clearly this positions local community members as important tourism industry stakeholder in Africa and other parts of the world. However, sustainable tourism cannot be achieved in Africa until the private sector and government stakeholders controlling the tourism industry there are willing to make an effort to understand the local community better and attempt to understand their needs relative to tourism opportunities through a mutual interest driven by the collaboration mechanism (Byrd, 2007; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Jamal and Stronza, 2009).

Stakeholder collaboration is therefore legitimately considered a major element of planning for sustainable tourism, and central to any collaboration approach which first involves the identification and legitimization of

potential collaboration stakeholders (Aas et al., 2005; Byrd, 2007; Koontz, 2006). Aas et al (2007) and Koontz (2006) further posit that in emerging tourism destinations such as those in Africa where interests are not collectively organized, identification of potential and relevant stakeholders is a complicated process, which is exacerbated by the extent to which the potential stakeholders that are identified represent the local community. To address these two important elements raised for effective collaboration in tourism; stakeholder identification and legitimization, and local community representation, we will use two questions raised by Byrd (2007); first, *who is the local community stakeholder in a sustainable tourism problem domain?* And second, *how should they be involved in the collaboration process?* Guided by the first question, we will review the tourism stakeholder collaboration situation in Africa, highlight any gaps identified and provide a basis for a more inclusive approach to stakeholder identification. Through the second question, we will review stakeholders overlapping roles and use it as a basis to recommend a more effective stakeholder involvement and participation framework. First, let us review the theoretical framework of stakeholder collaboration and how it is applied in practice in tourism.

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework of Collaboration

The academic interest in stakeholder collaboration dates back to the 1960s during the social reform movement, where the typology of citizen participation was developed to understand power imbalances (Landorf, 2009). Towards the end of the following decade, collaboration was introduced as a new theory that calls for consciousness, caring and commitment (Appley and Winder, 1977; Trist, 1977). While explaining this process, Appley and Winder (1977) argued that collaboration operates within a rational system that is just and based upon fairness, mutuality and responsibility. As the theory evolved, the definition of collaboration broadened in literature (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Gray, 1989; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Landorf, 2009). Perhaps a more concise and widely adapted definition can be considered as, “a process of joint decision making among key stakeholders of a problem domain about the future of that domain” (Gray, 1985).

At the heart of this definition and the foundation of this paper as Jamal and Stronza (2009) suggest there are two key elements central to the utility of the collaboration theory “problem domain” and “the future of the domain”. Gray (1985) explains the problem domain as a set of actors in the form of individuals or organizations that become joined by a common problem or interest, which is to shape the future of the domain for the better. Faced with unstable and turbulent business environments and economic sectors that are common in developing countries, reliance on free market principles where autonomy and competition is a precondition to survival cannot achieve results (Appley and Winder, 1977). The reason for this is

the actions of a single organization affects others in the same domain and any uncoordinated attempts to manage them tends only make them worse, because only those efforts that seek new and innovative solutions such as collaboration theory to shape the future of these sectors stand a chance to succeed in contexts such as Africa (Appley and Winder, 1977; Byrd, 2007; Gray, 1985).

Many authors have advanced various conceptual stakeholder collaboration frameworks to better understand the meaning and measurement of collaboration, Thompson et al (2009) presented a five dimensional model of collaboration as a multidimensional concept involving: 1. *governance*, where stakeholders must understand how to jointly make decisions about rules that will govern their behavior and relationships; 2. *administration*, where a common goal can be achieved after establishing necessary administrative structures; 3. *organizational autonomy*, where organizations maintain their own distinct identities and authority separate from their collaborative identity; 4. *mutuality*, where stakeholders must experience mutual beneficial interdependences based on either differing or shared interests; and 5. *norms*, where reciprocity and trust are key to effective collaboration.

A three phase collaboration process model was suggested by Gray (1985) and one that is widely applied (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Parker, 1999; Selin, 1999) contends that collaboration should be understood through developmental phases and conditions for each phase should be considered to manage domain level dynamics effectively. The three phase model Gray (1985) advanced involves: a *problem setting phase*, where the main concern is identification of stakeholders within a domain and mutual acknowledgement of the issues that binds them; *direction setting phase*, where stakeholders articulate the values that guide them and use of values to develop a common purpose; *Structuring phase*, where stakeholders create structures to support and sustain collective problem solving activities aimed at creating a mutually acceptable conditions for their domain. The two questions raised by Byrd (2007) and that serve as a basis for this paper's discussion; *who is the local community stakeholder in a sustainable tourism problem domain?* And *how should they be involved in the collaboration process*, are well placed within the three phases of Gray's model described above. For example, the first question relates to the first phase of problem setting where stakeholders are identified, while the second question relates to the second and third phases of direction setting and structuring of partnerships to ensure that the collaboration system created continues to function.

Stakeholder Collaboration in Practice

The diversity and complexity reflected in the theoretical background of collaboration is even more evident when it is put into practice. Most

collaboration studies have focused on its value as a tool for effectiveness and cohesion in an inter-organizational setting (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Jamal and Stronza, 2009; Selin, 1999). However, less has been done to develop a reliable and valid analytical framework and model that can better guide practitioners on how to develop and maintain collaborative partnerships (Bramwell and Lane, 2000). A number of models as seen from previous section have been useful to understand collaboration theory in practice especially the three phase collaboration process model (de Araujo and Bramwell, 1999; Gray, 1985; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Jamal and Stronza, 2009; Wood and Gray, 1991). Through this work, it is clear that the application of any proposed collaboration model needs to be dynamic and therefore able to be flexible based on the diverse nature of situations in tourism planning. In reality however the effective application of these models is less predictable in varying situations which complicates their utility, while as Wood and Gray (1991) suggest, understanding the meaning of collaboration of tourism stakeholders in a varying theoretical and practical context is extremely important to the effectiveness of the general theory of collaboration to advance.

From the practitioners' perspective in developing countries, stakeholder collaboration is even more important for progress in tourism planning and management to be gained due to the constant turbulence caused by weak economies, poverty, high population growth rates, limited resources, corruption and many more of such issues. Most recently, the collaboration concept has emerged in Africa primarily as a result of many international donors operating in Africa today (*particularly the United States Agency for International Development and the UK based Development Fund for International Development*) insistence on funded programs have collaborative mechanisms as a precondition to the funding of the development programs including tourism. This forced collaboration is based on the assumption that collaboration will enable programs to overcome the complex challenges involved in development efforts in Africa. However, it is believed that collaboration in a forced environment faces significant challenges that undermine its potential effectiveness in building necessary stakeholder partnerships that are essential in tourism planning and management (Thomson et al., 2009).

It is important therefore to look for alternatives to forced cooperation in this case to better adapt the widely applied process phased model of collaboration advanced by Gray (1985), to the African context for stakeholder collaboration to be meaningful in tourism planning and management. To do this, we will return to the two key questions raised by Byrd (2007) and discussed in the background section of this paper; *who is the local community stakeholder in a sustainable tourism problem domain? And how should they be involved in the collaboration process?* These questions will be used as a guide for adaption of the phase collaboration

process model to the collaboration context in Africa using sustainable tourism development as a problem domain.

Identification of Local Community Tourism Stakeholders

Byrd (2007) posits that tourism stakeholders in a tourist host community are composed of local residents, tourism business owners in the private sector and government officials. Unlike local community stakeholders, identifying tourism stakeholders in both the public and private sector in Africa is relatively straightforward because they are few and commonly known locally. The diversity of the stakeholder composition at the local community level highlights the complexity of identifying the right community stakeholder representatives because of the direct and indirect impacts various local community groups have on tourism. As Gray (1985) suggests, the most important factor in promoting collaboration among stakeholders is to determine who should be identified and involved as a stakeholder. Using UNWTO's sustainable tourism stakeholder model reproduced by Swarbrooke (1999), tourism stakeholders from a host country falls into three categories; those stakeholders involved directly in the tourism industry through product and service delivery, those involved in environmental conservation to ensure the protection and future survival of natural resources exposed to tourism, and stakeholders representing local communities. In a desirable best practice collaboration situation for sustainable tourism, stakeholders should be identified and engaged based on the intersection boundaries in the UNWTO stakeholder collaboration framework (Figure 1).

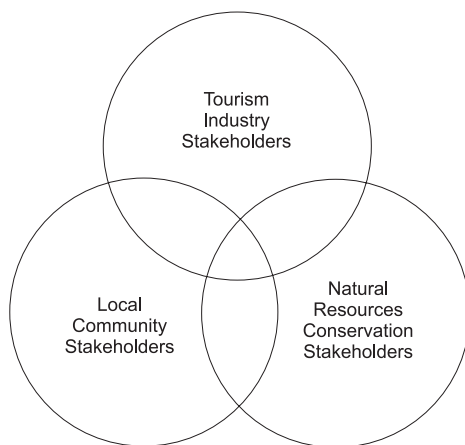


Fig. 1. UNWTO sustainable tourism stakeholder collaboration model adapted from Swarbrooke (1999).

Existing Local Community Tourism Partnerships: A Developing Country's Perspective

Collaboration among the three key stakeholder categories for sustainable tourism in Africa takes a form contradictory to that

recommended UNWTO collaboration framework where all three of the tourism industry stakeholders, natural resources conservation stakeholders and local community stakeholders collaborate effectively to promote sustainable tourism (see Figure 1). To the contrary and as Figure 2 illustrates, collaboration in the tourism industry in many African countries is evident between those stakeholders actively involved in tourism and those organizations that work to protect the natural resources developed for tourism. This collaboration is mainly driven by governments in their mandate to develop and implement tourism policy as a strategy to manage tourism in natural environments. The same nature conservation interest drives government agency's collaboration and partnerships with local communities as illustrated in Figure 2. For example, organizations protecting natural resources work closely with selected community groups to maintain the integrity of resources under protection through conservation awareness raising campaigns and development of alternative community livelihoods programs by government initiated tourism revenue sharing schemes and conservation NGO sponsored integrated conservation and development programs. Collaboration and partnership between the private sector in the tourism industry and community is nonexistent and the only relationship with local community is through local resident employment as local guides and hotel staff as well as the supplier of locally grown food supplies for hotels located in these communities.

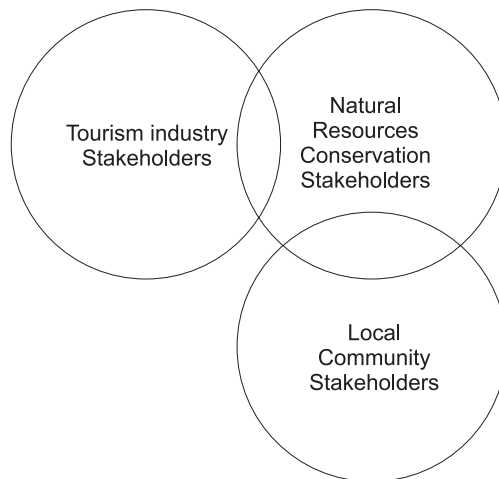


Fig. 2. Conservation interest driven Tourism Stakeholder Collaboration Environment in Rwanda, observed through the UNWTO recommended collaboration framework.

Recommended Stakeholder Identification Process: A Response to the Question “Who is the Local Stakeholder?”

Stage 1: Select a Convener to Initiate Stakeholder Identification Process: The stakeholder identification process has gotten to have a

starting point as Gray (1985) and Jamal and Getz (1995) suggest that the collaboration initiator and/or convener has a *critical* impact on the success of all collaborations and this is very true for Africa where institutional capacity and inter-organizational conflicts may challenge potential collaboration conveners including government agencies. However, the stage at which the convener is engaged and how they are determined is not addressed in the stakeholder collaboration literature. From the African perspective, this paper's recommendation is that the initial collaboration process should begin with the committed convener the organization taking the initial stakeholder identification responsibility. This role could best be assumed by one of the respected international NGO representative organizations especially those involved in supporting the national government in conservation and tourism management or any development organization involved in tourism management at the local level. However, this convener role responsibility once established in the local community should be passed on to a local secretariat/management unit dedicated purposely to drive the collaboration process.

Stage 2: Stakeholder Mapping Exercise based on the UNWTO Collaboration Framework: This paper recommends that selected conveners should use the UNWTO stakeholder collaboration framework to define desirable boundaries of collaboration, and to work with a few known stakeholders that fall within the defined boundaries of interest to identify organizations that fall in the desirable collaboration boundary. The stakeholders that fall within the intersections of all the stakeholder collaboration categories based on the UNWTO collaboration framework for example the conservation category and the local community category should be identified and mapped. Once the convener has exhausted the list of stakeholders that falls in the intersections of the different inter-stakeholder categories, the objective of the convener would then be to bring them together in one desirable collaboration framework for sustainable tourism planning. However, the convener must understand that the mapping exercise might have missed some important stakeholders, but which utilizing an initial stakeholder meeting may identify.

Stage 3: Initial Stakeholder meeting to Identify stakeholders missed in the mapping exercise: This paper recommends that the convener invites the identified stakeholders to the first stakeholder meeting to introduce the sustainable tourism project to be facilitated by the partnership idea for stakeholder support. Along with this meeting objective, the convener should use this opportunity to demonstrate to stakeholders the process used to identify stakeholders and give them an opportunity to contribute to this process by identifying key stakeholders that may have been left out in the mapping exercise. It's with this meeting that the convener transitions the collaboration process from stakeholder identification to initiating

their involvement and participation in the tourism planning process. This then addresses the second question raised earlier in this paper that fits the direction setting and structuring phases of Gray's (1985) collaboration model as shown in the following section.

Involvement and Participation of Local Stakeholders in Tourism Planning: A Response to "How Can Stakeholders be Involved?"

The process for collaboration among the identified local stakeholders is very critical for tourism managers and professionals involved in tourism planning. Bramwell and Lane (2000) suggest that the process of collaboration is a key element of sustainable tourism especially when a wide representative range of stakeholders from the local community are actively involved. Numerous studies about collaboration have been done to guide practitioners in the process of stakeholder collaboration, which is important for tourism planning effectiveness (de Araujo and Bramwell, 1999; Gray, 1985; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Jamal and Stronza, 2009).

From the African perspective, tourism collaboration and partnership forms as seen from the preceding section, have evolved around the powerful and elite stakeholders within the private and public sectors. As a result, local community members have been left out of this important partnership framework necessary for tourism sustainability. The suggested two-step collaboration process is intended to guide tourism practitioners who are starting a stakeholder collaboration process on how to involve and engage the identified local community stakeholders. The first step is to define individual stakeholder activities, collaboration interests, and identify overlapping roles that are useful as a basis for collaboration. The second step would be to establish a self-sustaining structure that legitimizes the collaboration process. These two collaboration process steps are further explained.

Step 1: Defining Stakeholder Activities, Overlapping Roles and Interests: Once the stakeholders have been identified, the convener should facilitate the stakeholder meeting to determine individual stakeholder activities, and the overlapping roles that potentially are a basis for collaboration. To do this, the convener should limit this exercise within the collaboration boundaries defined by the UNWTO stakeholder collaboration framework (see Figure 1), and the list of stakeholders identified is used to generate a list of activities and overlapping roles to guide the collaboration process. Table 1 on the next page is intended to guide the convener in this process. It shows a list of indicative stakeholder activities and overlapping roles from the African tourism stakeholder perspective.

Table. 1. Indicative roles and opportunities for tourism stakeholder collaboration.

Stakeholder	Indicative Key role/activity	Indicative Stakeholder Overlapping roles- a basis for collaboration among all stakeholders rather than some of them
Government	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide enabling policy environment • Play a supervisory and monitoring role • Provide institutional support • Provide funding for tourism programs 	Private Sector (ongoing/opportunity for collaboration between government) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Working with government to improve quality of tourism services • Working with government to formulate policy, and strategy for tourism • Working together to promote tourism business and investment
		Local Community (Ongoing/opportunity for collaboration with government) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government policies and strategies that enable communities to engage effectively in tourism sector. • Institutional support for community based tourism ventures
Private Sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deliver tourism services • Maximize profits from tourism 	Government (Ongoing/opportunity for collaboration with private sector) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • See private sector and government overlap above
		Community (Ongoing/opportunity for collaboration with Private sector) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supply of locally produced food and other supplies to private owned hotels/businesses • Local agents and guides employed by private businesses. • Private sector and community joint venture in tourism businesses
Local community living in proximity to tourism destinations (PAs)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employing various local initiatives to overcome poverty and improve livelihoods 	Private Sector (Ongoing/Opportunity for collaboration with local community) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employment of local people in private sector based tourism ventures • Joint-ventures with local communities in tourism ventures • Locally owned tourism ventures with links to tourism supply chain controlled by the private sector

		Government (Ongoing/opportunity for collaboration with local community) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financially supporting local income generating initiatives linked to tourism • Providing access to the market for community tourism initiatives • Guiding communities on quality control and tourism services delivery
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Depending on protected area resources for livelihoods 	Government (ongoing/opportunity for collaboration with local communities) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To raise awareness for conservation of protected areas • Meeting with local communities when there are community based issues threatening the park • Partnership initiatives to ensure integrity of the park e.g. ICDPs, joint patrols, community intelligence
		Private Sector (Opportunity for collaboration with local community) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporting financially and technically those community projects that directly help to mitigate community threats to protected areas e.g. organized bee keeping projects that help to control fire outbreaks in the parks.
Donor community interested in tourism as a sustainable development tool	Donor community is a key partner for their interests in tourism as a tool for economic development. It is on the periphery of the stakeholder model because of their inability to participate at implementation level. They are reflected in this model to stress the importance of communication between donors and all the stakeholders to ensure that implementation experiences and realities are reflected in donor funding policies, strategies and plans. Otherwise wrong tourism plans and activities risk being funded and implemented.	

Step 2: The Proposed Stakeholder Participation Framework:

Identification of stakeholders and their roles in the collaboration process covered in the preceding sections fall into the first phase of the widely applied collaboration model of “problem setting” (Gray, 1985; Jamal and Getz, 1995). It is also well understood that the collaboration process needs to be guided so that it leads to desirable tourism planning outcomes (Gray, 1985; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Wood and Gray, 1991). As a direction setting process, a stakeholder participation framework is proposed (Figure 3) to guide the collaboration convener in placing a self-sustaining structure that will enable all stakeholders to fully participate in the collaboration process. Such a structure may be different in various situations, and this structure

serves only as a guiding framework that can be adapted in any collaborative tourism planning process.

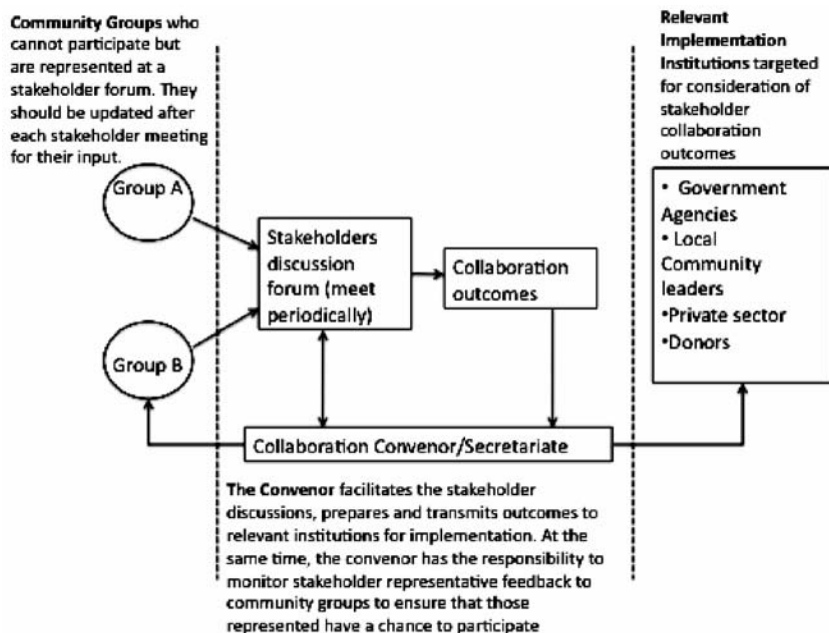


Fig. 3. Proposed tourism stakeholder participation framework

Conclusion

Tourism especially in Africa is considered a highly fragmented industry because of the diversity of stakeholders and varying interests in tourism services (Aas et al., 2005; Jamal and Getz, 1995). At the same time, we have seen that close interdependencies among tourism stakeholders means that interrelationships that are developed through organized collaboration mechanisms have to be considered seriously for sustainable tourism planning in Africa to advance (Echtner and Jamal, 1997). Stakeholder collaboration theory has emerged in the tourism literature as a significant tool for tourism planners and managers to pursue and promote interrelationships among tourism stakeholders to ensure tourism sustainability (Aas et al., 2005; Byrd, 2007; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Jamal and Stronza, 2009; Koontz, 2006).

This paper has proposed a stakeholder collaboration process that is more applicable for tourism stakeholder collaboration environments such as those found in Africa, within the widely applied three phased collaboration process model involving a problem setting phase, direction setting phase and Structuring phase (Gray, 1985; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Parker, 1999; Selin, 1999). However, this process cannot be implemented universally because of the diversity of issues in collaboration environments that

surrounds tourism planning, which normally requires different approaches to be applied to the stakeholder collaboration process. For collaboration theory to work from the African perspective using a phased collaboration model, it has to be applied differently and with more flexibility because of the various constraints inherent within the stakeholder collaboration environment in Africa, such as limited institutional and human capacity to lead this process and operate effectively with the inter-organizational conflicts.

This paper proposes that the phased collaboration model be introduced in Africa through a two step process: The first step is to identify the stakeholders, wherever a convener organization establishes itself or is seconded by a group of organizations interested in ensuring stakeholder collaboration to start the collaboration process. The second step is the use of a UNWTO stakeholder collaboration framework in the first stakeholder meeting, which is used to identify any stakeholders that had not been included and to install stakeholders into their primary roles that falls within the problem setting phase. The third step would be to put in place a collaboration framework that will enable all stakeholders to participate effectively. Such a framework that has been proposed provides programs that are facilitated and/or driven by a convener or secretariat and that will coordinate the stakeholder deliberations, outcomes and provide feedback will be quite instrumental to the effectiveness of tourism planning and its implementation of plans in Africa.

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Local Communities and Ecotourism Development in Kimana, Kenya

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Abstract: *This article presents a case study of a wildlife-based ecotourism project in which the people of Kimana have sought to exploit the commercial advantage of their communal land which lies near Amboseli National Park (ANP) in southern Kenya. The Kimana Community Wildlife Sanctuary represents one of the best examples of a community-based ecotourism project that promotes the ideals of local participation in wildlife management and creates opportunities for the local Maasai pastoralists to benefit from wildlife tourism. Whilst local participation has a positive resonance, the case study suggests that a great deal of the ecotourism potential for the Kimana area has not materialised. The chapter concludes that internal political rifts within the community which have both hampered meaningful Maasai participation in tourism benefits and facilitated the exploitation of Kimana's tourism potential by external commercial operators.*

Keywords: Ecotourism, Kimana, Kenya, Maasai, conservation, development, communities.

Introduction

“Time had come for a new approach, an approach resting on fairness and local involvement rather than on alienation and enforcement. Why should local communities, not become the principal beneficiaries and ultimate custodians of wildlife, as they had always been, without sacrificing the larger interests of society” (Western, 1997 cited in Watkin, 2003: 5).

Ecotourism has aroused a considerable amount of interest in the last two decades, not only as a substitute to mass tourism, but also as an important convergence point for economic development and environmental conservation (Southgate, 2006; Watkin, 2003; West and Brenchin, 1991). Pundits maintain that ecotourism can potentially offer opportunities for local communities to benefit from tourism and environment while at the same time minimizing undesirable effects. However, some commentators have contended that ecotourism has so far not been proven to be either sustainable or economically viable. A growing number of scholars and researchers have suggested that local participation and control are essential and necessary in circumventing the difficulties that derive from mass tourism (Southgate, 2006; Western and Wright, 1994; Wells and Brandon, 1992). By keeping it small scale and benefits local, ecotourism may minimize economic leakages and undesirable impacts, and stimulate rural

development in destination areas. However, the global nature of tourism can engender many problems for communities yearning to retain control over the tourism industry at the local level. More often, local people neither have the business skills and connections nor the political and economic power to compete with transnational tour companies. Nonetheless, the growing economic significance of ecotourism has caught the interest of many people and communities especially in the developing countries. The Maasai of Kimana are one of such communities.

Research Methodology

This paper is based on an ethnographic research I conducted for my dissertation amongst Maasai communities residing in two group ranches that lie adjacent to Amboseli National Park in Kenya. (See Fig. 1 and 2 showing the location of Amboseli and Kimana). Data was collected for a period of slightly over twelve months, with intermittent breaks, between November 2003 and 2005. The research incorporated a multi-sited ethnographic methodology. The resulting data were largely qualitative stemming from participant observation, in-depth informant interviews, text analysis of documents and focus group discussions.

The Context of Kimana Group Ranch

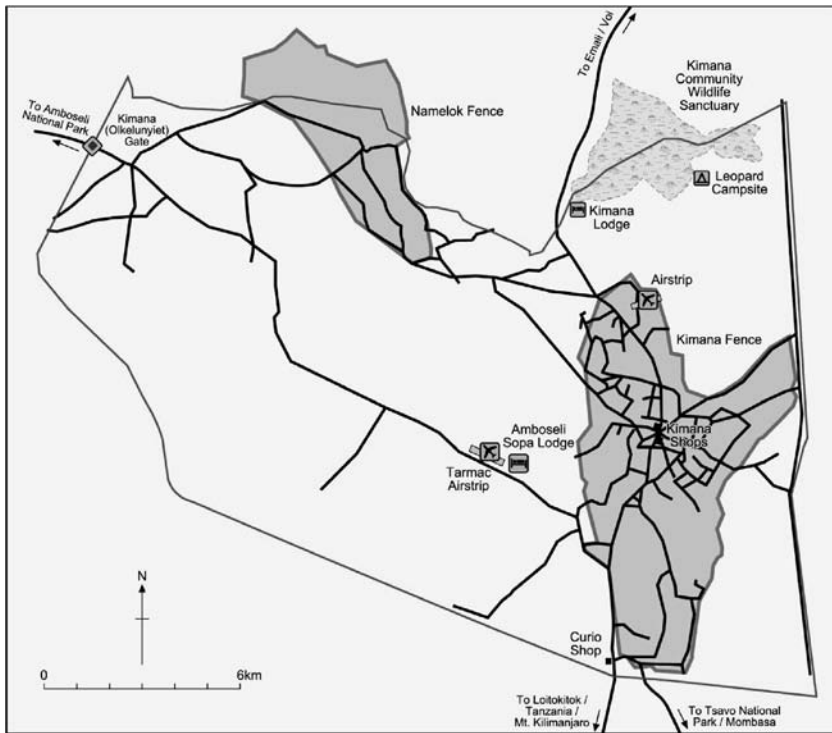
The Kimana Tikondo Group Ranch (25, 120 ha) is situated at the base of the northern foothills of Mount Kilimanjaro and adjacent to Amboseli National Park in the newly created Loitokitok District in the Rift Valley of Kenya. Formerly owned jointly by some 845 extended families of the indigenous Iikisonko Maasai pastoralists, the ranch has recently been subdivided into small and individually owned plots and ranches. Although large sections of the ranch are arid, there are also a number of wetlands including the Kimana swamp fed by the Kimana and Tikondo streams (Mburu, 2004; Rutten, 2004). These swamps are the main sources of permanent water in a region that receives low and unpredictable rainfall (ranging between 300 mm and 500 mm annually). These swamps and the vegetation around them were traditionally, according to the local Maasai pastoralists, one of their most important dry-season livestock grazing and watering refuges, and useful sources of food, fire wood, building materials, craft materials and medicine.

Kimana Group Ranch is also a very important dispersal area and seasonal migration corridor for wildlife between Amboseli and Tsavo National Parks. Because of the availability of permanent sources of water, Kimana Group Ranch offers opportunities for livestock herders, agriculturalists (majority of them recent migrants) and wild animals. However, as a result of competition for scarce range resources including water and pasture, serious conflicts often erupt between these user groups threatening their welfare and wellbeing as well as the areas biodiversity

(Rutten, 2004; Reid et al., 1999). The individualisation of land tenure has exacerbated these conflicts as the title holders fragment their land and either sell or lease a portion or the entire piece to Maasai elites and non-Maasai people (Monbiot, 1994). The new owners immediately fence and convert these lands into commercial beef or arable land, and sometimes tourist areas or other uses (Homewood, 1995). This hasty sale of land and the resultant loss of access and user rights over critical livelihood resources have driven many Maasai into landlessness and poverty (Hillman, 1994).

Whilst the Maasai are denied the opportunity to access the natural resources in the park, wildlife from park often forage on their lands spreading diseases to livestock and causing damages crops, livestock and human lives (Ecosystem, 1982). As a result, Maasai resentment towards wildlife conservation and tourism development has been on the increase. The negative attitudes are accentuated by the fact that the local Maasai pastoralists receive very few direct benefits from the revenues generated from conservation and tourism in their territory yet they are the ones who bear most of the costs from wildlife and the foregone opportunity of not using land for traditional activities accrue entirely to them (Ondicho, 2006). Exclusion from critical natural resources in the park essential for livestock production has had profound negative effects on the Maasai including growing poverty and breakdown in the social systems of livestock sharing and exchange. As a consequence the Maasai became overwhelming hostile to park and unsympathetic to wildlife. Talbot and Olindo (1990) lay the claim that in protest and frustration the Maasai started to spear wild animals. As a result wildlife, Kenyas been increasingly suffering major depletion.

As a result of increased human-wildlife conflicts, poaching, and complications brought about by the sub-division of the group ranches in around Amboseli National Park, the government came into realisation that the future survival of the more than 75% of Kenyas wild animals that live seasonally or permanently outside the park dependent on the goodwill of the local Maasai pastoralists (Norton-Griffiths, 2000). The subdivision, fencing and conversion of Maasai groups ranches into privately owned farmlands was not only a threat to wildlife but also to the tourism industry which depended on it. Subsequently, in 1990 a major policy shift occurred when the newly formed Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) started to encourage and aid the Maasai to participate in conservation through the establishment of locally owned small-scale wildlife-based ecotourism projects as a form of commercial enterprise (KWS, 1990). Ecotourism was viewed as a viable tool not only to curb further wildlife losses but also to reconcile the otherwise intractable conflicts between conservation and development (Southgate, 2006). The assumption was that active local involvement in wildlife management and tourism benefits would provide economic alternatives which would, ultimately, relieve the day-to-day



Source: Researcher (2008)

The Development of Ecotourism in Kimana

KCWS was set up in 1996 after a preliminary Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) of the Kimana wetland to determine whether the proposed Sanctuary was the best land use option and the potential effects. The EIA report did not provide a conclusive verdict other than suggesting that “if the proposed Sanctuary proved to offer more rewards as opposed to those from cultivation the Maasai would no doubt discourage cultivation” Further the report envisaged that unless upstream irrigation was stopped the swamp would dry up, human-wildlife conflicts would increase and building of more campsites than the existing ones would bring adverse ecological impacts (Irigia 1995 cited in Rutten, 2004: 12). It was however acknowledged that the place was very suitable for wildlife viewing and sightseeing and would therefore be an ideal place for ecotourism development. Ease air (there are two airstrips: one in Kimana and the other within ANP) and road accessibility both directly from Nairobi and Mombasa together with proximity to Nairobi, (Kenya's capital city situated 240 km away) and Amboseli National Park which is only 15 kilometres away were added advantages for the establishment of an ecotourism project in Kimana Group Ranch.

Although the origin of the ecotourism project is not very clear, anecdotal accounts suggest that the idea of establishing a community

wildlife sanctuary in Kimana was initiated by KWS in an effort to win back some space for wildlife and further the parks conservation goals. The proposal to set up an ecotourism project at the Kimana swamp was first presented at a GR meeting in 1992, by a former GR chairman, a well-respected community elder, assisted by the parks Community Warden. As ANPs Community Warden stated,

The Kimana swamp is generally a very beautiful place with lots of wildlife. The people wanted to subdivide and cultivate the swamp but KWS advised the locals that this would lead to the swamp drying up and vegetation withering. So we advised them to set-up a mini-Amboseli to attract fee paying tourists. We told them that the Sanctuary would belong to them and benefit them economically (Ruto, personal communication, 2004).

As the idea of establishing a locally owned community-based wildlife Sanctuary began to spread, community opinion was divided over the wisdom of having such a project on their land. The proposal not only generated a lot of confusion but also social divisions within the community between proponents and critics. Generally, many people and particularly the older members of the community, who remembered how the government had in the 1970s failed to keep its promise of providing livestock watering points outside the Amboseli National Park strongly opposed the proposal (Rutten, 2004). As a local primary school teacher told me,

Initially, there was a lot of resistance within the community because we had negative attitudes towards wildlife and tourism. We thought that KWS was going to take away our land and then we lose access to the water and pasture resources within the Kimana swamp. We also thought we were not going to benefit from the proposed Sanctuary because tourism was a white mans business and just for a few rich individuals. Then another challenge was, we only thought of tourism as the national park. So the general feeling was that if we accepted the Sanctuary project then ANP would be extended into Kimana group ranch. Many of us already knew the dangers of having a national park in our midst. ... However after a lot of persuasion the project gained a lot of support locally and it eventually succeeded (Sitonik, personal communication, 2003).

Community wide consultations were carried out through a series of participatory village meetings where all community members were courted either as individuals or groups to support the project. These community wide sessions elicited mixed feelings ranging from downright confusion to fear of the potential negative socio-cultural changes that tourism could engender. However, a group of local elites who wanted to see the ecotourism development go ahead spoke to every community member explaining the potential benefits that could accrue to them from such a project. This core group of about 5 villagers was instrumental in influencing public opinion and the overall direction on the project. As one leading local womens leader

stated, "It was not until I heard more about the importance of wildlife conservation and the potential benefits that could accrue to us from tourism in the proposed Sanctuary that I realised it was worthwhile supporting" (Eunice, personal communication, 2004).

The KWS subsequently arranged and sponsored a small number of influential community leaders and elders to a study tour of successful community wildlife conservation projects in other parts of the country. The findings of the study tours were reported and deliberated upon in a GR meeting. In the meeting, it emerged that the community's biggest fear was that the "government will one day come and take the Sanctuary away from the land owners as it did with Amboseli claiming wildlife is a national resource so the government must control them" (Ntiati personal communication cited in Smith, 2001:1). However, the project was slowly accepted after the community was assured that the government had no designs on their land and that they would own the project. The major motivation for the members to accept and support a wildlife Sanctuary in their midst, however, was the desire to receive economic benefits. Each of the member families was promised an annual dividend paid from the entrance fees, lease fees from the three campsites and one game lodge in the Sanctuary, and a certain percentage of tourist bed nights. Some money could also be retained for joint community development projects such as a school and dispensary and a revolving loan scheme (Rutten, 2004). So whilst the concept of local participation in community-based wildlife conservation and tourism development was both novel and strange the possibility of making money was enthusiastically welcomed. In fact, without the promise of money a community wildlife sanctuary would not have made sense to the people of Kimana whose main source of livelihood, livestock production heavily depended on the swamp.

With the promise of money on the horizon the KCWS was born. This marked the first time that the Maasai were drawn into conservation-oriented tourism development. As one resident recalled, "to be honesty it was a very rough beginning. We never had any experience with either tourism or conservation ... we even didn't know our role in the whole process and how tourism worked, so we just waited to see the outcome. People never believed it could come to pass" (Onetu, personal communication, 2003). Trusting that the community was going to benefit the project got underway. The funds for the project were provided by several international donors including USAID, WB and Kenyan government. In addition to these donors, a large number of other stakeholders including conservation-oriented NGOs, researchers and volunteers provided infrastructural, material and technical support. For instance, The European Union donated money for a 61km game-proof fence which was put up around the western edge of ANP in 1997. The Friends of Conservation (FoC) and The Amboseli Community Wildlife Project (ACWP) helped in planning, designing and organising the

construction of the required infrastructure including the gates, the purchase of uniforms and the acquisition of entrance-ticket books (Gicharu, 1999 cited in Rutten, 2004: 13). In addition to employing a manager and paying salaries for the Sanctuaries staff, KWS also contributed a road network, a toilet block, staff housing and in training 17 community game rangers and 7 community wildlife scouts.

With the basic infrastructure in place the final step was to attract tourists. Towards this end, the Sanctuary negotiated a deal with a private tour operator to build a luxury lodge in the Sanctuary and channel tourists to the area. The neighbouring lodges, Kilimanjaro Buffalo (now Amboseli Sopa Lodge), and Kimana Lodge both owned by Kilimanjaro Safari Club together with the three leased tented camps within the Sanctuary were to assist in marketing the resort internationally. Additional overseas exposure and marketing was provided by a British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) documentary recorded in the Sanctuary. For the local market, marketing was done by Abercrombie and Kent (A&K) under a commission arrangement with the Sanctuary (Gicharu, 1999 cited in Rutten, 2004: 14). In marketing the Sanctuary had a tremendous advantage due to its close proximity to the ANP. The entry fee into the Sanctuary was fixed at US\$ 10 per person, which was considerably lower than the US\$ 27 per person charged by ANP at that time. It was anticipated that lower entrance fees would attract visitors from ANP.

When the Sanctuary opened its doors for business in February 1996 it attracted an overwhelming amount of media coverage both locally and internationally as the first genuinely community owned and run wildlife Sanctuary in East Africa. In recognition of its significance to the countrys conservation efforts, the Kenyan government and international organisations hired a Royal Ballet to perform a specially choreographed production in the middle of the Sanctuary during the opening ceremony. For its pioneering and exemplary work in community-based wildlife conservation the Sanctuary was granted the prestigious „Silver Otter award by the British Guild of Travel Writers in 1996 (Southgate, 2006). This was the first time Kenya had ever received such an award. The Sanctuaries success stories were told around the globe and the future looked even more promising especially for the people of Kimana. In fact, the Sanctuary was locally perceived as one of the biggest and most significant developments in the history of Kimana, so much so that it formed a dividing line between the past and the present. Even today, 1996 is remembered as the landmark year for the Maasai community involvement in wildlife tourism.

Shortly after its official opening, the Sanctuary began attracting tourists and by the end of the first year it had hosted 800 visitors (KWS, 1997 cited in Rutten, 2004: 14). The people of Kimana were amazed to see tourists flock to the Sanctuary. Many villagers could not believe that this same old wetland they had grown up with and took for granted had brought the inevitable. This was surprising, considering that tourism was

something they had watched since ANP was created, but they had not been directly involved with in any way. People could have never guessed that tourists would pay money to visit Kimana. I asked residents, "Did you believe that tourists would ever come and pay to see animals in your ranch?" The common reply was simply, "the truth is that we honestly didn't know that could happen". Within a short period, Kimana put itself on the international tourist map and tourists quickly became acquainted with the Sanctuary, apparently unaware of the latent controversies that surrounded its establishment or the larger political and ecological context in which tourism and conservation in Amboseli are situated.

In spite of the initial opposition, the people of Kimana overwhelmingly and enthusiastically threw their support behind the Sanctuary and many villagers started to exhibit positive attitudes towards wildlife and tourism. Instead of spearing wild animals, they protected them as a valuable economic asset that needed everybody's care. As one local resident stated, "It is now our collective responsibility to ensure that wildlife is protected so that we can all draw benefits from it" (Lekolol, personal communication, 2005). Another resident, a female teacher said,

Many people have changed their attitude towards wildlife because of tourism. Now wild animals are earning them a living ... When tourists come to see the animals in the Sanctuary they pay us money and they also purchase our souvenirs ... now people have the attitude that if you kill wildlife there will be no tourism within this area and the community will no longer get money (Florence, personal communication 2005).

Everything looked promising for the inhabitants of Kimana GR particularly as tourists continued to flock into the Sanctuary - for it had an appeal of its own. Walking around the Sanctuary was not only a natural experience but also a cultural one since a cultural boma at the edge of the Sanctuary satisfied the needs of tourists interested in Maasai lifestyles. Instead of competing with the national park the Sanctuary complimented it perfectly well. Generally, the motivation behind the establishment of the community Sanctuary was government quest to protect and conserve the fragile wildlife resources of ANP. Community participation in income-generating opportunities in tourism was just a bait to achieve conservation goals. In spite of the project being conceived by KWS many local Maasai strongly believed that it was they who initiated the project. In any case, they were the recognised owners of the Sanctuary.

Analysis

Soon after the Sanctuary's inception a situation arose where the Kimana people became doubtful of the GR committee and KWS's style of management and also fading project support. KWS had from the beginning sought to control the operations of the Sanctuary. Towards this end it (KWS) worked with the GR treasurer and secretary excluding the illiterate

chairman and other members (Knegt, 1998 cited in Rutten 2004: 14). “Over the intervening years, GR members were consulted only twice: during one Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) meeting and the annual general meeting when the decision to establish the Sanctuary had been made” (Rutten, 2004:14). The twin issues of representation and responsibility were not seriously addressed by KWS, yet they affect operational issues such as openness in financial management and decision making (Muthiani, 2001 cited in Rutten, 2004:14). As one local resident stated,

The trouble was that KWS had a different agenda from that of the community. KWS was only interested in securing more land for wildlife and preserving natural habitats for wildlife use. When they found out that most wildlife exists in our land outside the park, they thought they'd better do something to keep us busy and happy so that we support their conservation efforts in the park (Lekanaiya, personal communication, 2004).

A local management board was appointed by the GR committee in 1998 to take over the Sanctuary's management responsibility which had been relinquished by KWS. The board was theoretically supposed to handle all administrative and financial affairs. However, in practice the board had only a ceremonial role because of the GR committee's refusal to transfer the management responsibilities to it as originally agreed. This unwillingness to cede management powers to the board, which became a contentious issue locally, is a clear manifestation of the significance of political control over the Sanctuary's revenues. Some board and community members began to voice serious complaints and suspicions about lack of transparency and accountability in the handling of the Sanctuary's finances. The GR committee was criticised for failure to pay dividends and spending group money without consulting the board and GR members and collusion with outsiders to defraud the landowners. The management board later on resigned over major disagreements with the GR leadership on the Sanctuary's management (Muthiani 2001 cited in Rutten, 2004). One former civic leader expressed his opinion in this way,

For a long time we were not aware of the level of corruption that was going on in the Sanctuary. However, at some stage we saw the dishonesty and greediness of the GRC members come out in the open. We have seen some of our own brothers collude with outsiders to steal from us. There are some educated Maasai amongst us who have started to ask questions. They are also talking to their relatives and slowly the people are awakening. People are right now talking about the amount of corruption going on there. To some extent people have started to vet seriously people seeking management positions in the GRC (Kipaa, personal communication, 2004).

Poor marketing of the Sanctuary by the three campsite concession holders and neighbouring game lodges may have to a large extent contributed

to its pathetic performance. In practice, each of the three concession holders had attempted to play each against the other in an effort to keep control over the Sanctuary (Kanene, 2002 cited in Rutten, 2004: 15). As a result, a poor relationship developed between the concession holders and the community. Unfortunately, with no proper mechanism for co-management of the Sanctuary and conflict resolution, differences over cattle-grazing areas and resource harvesting further contributed to the deterioration of the relationship between the community and the concession holders. Lease fees were always either in arrears or not paid at all, and in spite of demands by the GR committee for payment (ibid). Nobody in the community knew how much they earned since they never declared their occupancy rates and income. Although GR members demanded a review of the statements of account both for the Sanctuary and the concession holders this was never undertaken or given and no adequate solution was immediately found.

In an attempt to revive the erstwhile success story, the GR committee in 1999 made a move to find a private investor to manage the Sanctuary. This decision was hastened by the failure of the Sanctuary to attract tourists and a huge debt in unpaid salaries. Towards this end, the GR committee informally approached various tour companies operating in the area including Abercrombie and Kent (A&K), African Safari Club (ASC) and the Kilimanjaro Safari Club with a view to leasing the Sanctuary to them (Buysrogge, 2001 cited in Rutten, 2004:16). However, only A&K and ASC showed interest. Most GR members preferred A&K which offered flexible terms about grazing and the collecting of resources inside the Sanctuary but the GR committee opted to lease the Sanctuary to ASC. During negotiations with ASC the landowners were told that only the original 2,720ha (6, 793 acres) would be leased out. However, after the signing of the lease agreement it emerged that the land involved was 14,000 acres. The size of the lease land had certainly been extended deceitfully without the knowledge of all GR members (Rutten, 2004). As one local teacher stated,

The level of illiteracy in our community is very high. Once you have a group of men and women who cannot read or write it is quite easy to manipulate them because they do not understand how the modern system works, and how contracts are negotiated or enterprises are run ... it is very easy for them to be conned, abused and taken advantage of. Illiteracy and ignorance really puts our people in a vulnerable and disadvantaged position (Kilelu, personal communication, 2003).

There was a lot of suspicion within the community that the GR committee was bribed to accept the ASC's offer and terms. The fact that the GR committee signed the lease contract, without informing and consulting with the members, gave credence to these claims. ASC was criticised for conniving with the GR committee to steal from the people of Kimana. The Kimana people perceived ASC as acting to deny the community control and

access to the Sanctuary and tourism activity. The community believed that foreigners had abrogated the role of the GR committee in the management of the Sanctuary. The failure to advertise the partnership and later to pay dividends led to the conclusion that an underhand deal to swindle the members existed. Some respondents suggested that local elites were to blame for the problems that emerged. When asked if people of Kimana had benefited from the leasehold with ASC, a retired civil servant retorted,

In Kenya today it is impossible for poor to benefit from tourism and wildlife in their lands. As long as political elites and government bureaucrats have an interest in the tourism you cannot stand on their way. They have greater monetary and political power, so whether or not all the Maasai are involved in tourism it will not make a difference. To be very specific, some of our own people have seen the potential and in the process have tried to get to the mainstream of the tourism industry. And in the process of that they have compromised quite a lot. They have compromised the interests of their own people, compromised the interest of the environment, and the entire Amboseli region. Some of our own people are to blame for what's happening today (Momoi, personal communication, 2004).

After ASC signing the lease agreement KWS's involvement was maintained at a lower level and only a few GR members were directly involved in collecting the lease money and solving grazing disputes (Mburu, 2002). The leasing of the Sanctuary demonstrated a conflict of interest over the management responsibility between the various stakeholders. Each of these stakeholders had their own interests they wanted to further. These competing and often differing interests of the Sanctuary's main stakeholders were the cause of many local social conflicts, power struggles and political controversies over benefit sharing. The external tour operators and investors sought to make profits whilst the government through KWS and other conservation organisations sought to conserve biodiversity as a source of earning foreign exchange. These objectives differed from the subsistence needs of the Maasai people.

Staff - Management Relations

The main motivation for supporting the Sanctuary was the promise that it could create employment and training opportunities for the people of Kimana. While this did not engender any problems but when ASC started running the Sanctuary it did. Despite the agreement with ASC that most of its staff would come from Kimana only a few low-waged seasonal unskilled and manual jobs such as those of security guards, rangers, porters, casual construction workers and cleaners were made available to the local people. Most of the skilled positions such as those of managers, drivers, were filled with employees transferred or rather sourced from its (ASC) Mombasa premises (Buysrogge, 2001 cited in Rutten, 2004: 18). As one civic leader

observed, “Our people have limited access to well-paying skilled jobs in the Sanctuary. Well paying jobs are certainly out of the reach of our people” (Saïre, personal communication, 2005). A local manager at the community campsite further confirmed this assertion when he stated,

Sadly we have very high rates of unemployment amongst our people because of their generally low levels of education. The growth in tourism has created employment opportunities for the Maasai but these jobs tend to be short term and insecure. The tourist industry provides our people with only part-time and seasonal unskilled employment, and not full time secure employment. What our people really need are more skilled and secure full-time jobs (Nkadayo, personal communication, 2005).

Most of my informants told me that they were unhappy with the employment situation in the Sanctuary. The general feeling was that employment opportunities including those that did not require any special skills or formal education were given to outsiders who just dressed like the Maasai. The most cited examples involved the positions of cleaners and watchmen. Many interviewees claimed that non-local managers often deny the Maasai employment opportunities by hiring people from other parts of the country. As a local primary school teacher stated,

The Maasai have been denied job training and employment by the tourism lodges here ... many locals have not been employed in the tourism facilities here because managers often judge the Maasai to be incapable of advanced training. I feel this is a form of discrimination against the Maasai in their own soil ... The Maasai people are fully capable of job training and employment; they just need to be given a chance” (Raphael, personal communication, 2005).

In the view of some of the Maasai staff I interviewed, the so-called skilled jobs were tasks that many ordinary villagers could perform. Many villagers also lamented that it was difficult to get employment in the Sanctuary because of the requirement for one to obtain a letter of recommendation from the GR officials. However, such recommendations were selectively given to clansmen and friends (Rutten, 2004). This means that not only do people from some clans dominate employment in the Sanctuary but also jobs are available to only a minority of the residents and not necessarily the poor. I asked one Lodge manager why the Maasai were not employed in the game lodges in Amboseli and she responded,

The Maasai lack the required skills because many of them drop out of school early ... they are incapable of advanced training ... they are only suitable for menial jobs such as security guards because they are accustomed to guarding their livestock ... the Maasai are unreliable people because they come and go as they must attend to their livestock herds and many wives (June, personal communication, 2005).

The other important issue that came up during interview sessions with local employees was the lack of security of tenure. Several interviewees stated that locally based tourism enterprise managers held problematic views about Maasai staff such as they were lazy and unreliable. These views rendered their relationship with Maasai staff difficult. As a result, the relationship between the Maasai employees and the expatriate managers was one characterised by hostility and mistrust. Some Maasai staff had resigned or lost work as a consequence. As one Maasai who had lost employment as generator operator for the electric fence stated, "In most cases the Maasai are hired and fired by word of mouth as they were never given any chance to enter into a formal employment contract like other employees from outside the region" (Matiko, personal communication, 2003). This means that the employment agreement with Maasai was very loose, thus giving the employers the advantage of dealing with the local employees in a way which suited them not employees. Generally, working conditions were tough especially for the Maasai who were tasked with the responsibility of keeping away wildlife from the camps. I was told that those local employees who raised or attempted to raise any complaints were either fired instantly or suspended without justification. Without any support from a trade union or employment organisation many are left to serve at the mercy of the managers.

Most Maasais working in the resort on a casual basis lamented that they were not only paid low salaries compared to employees from outside the community and never received any payment or benefit from their employers during the off-season but also were denied permission to attend customary activities and events such as funerals and ceremonies. In cases where such permission was granted a deduction was made from their meagre salaries for the days when they were absent. In such an environment small problems became magnified and tension was heightened with the Maasai, who felt that they were being treated unfairly in their own territory.

Finances, Benefits and Leadership

The initial investment for setting up the Sanctuary and its infrastructural was vast and could not be met fully through donations. A business plan drawn up by KWS for the Sanctuary projected that Ksh. 9 million would be needed for further infrastructure development and capacity building. KWS pledged Ksh 6 million and the remainder of the money were to come from the Sanctuary's profits (Muthiani, 2001 cited in Rutten, 2004: 13). Although the KWS financed infrastructural developments in the Sanctuary to the tune of Ksh. 4.2 million this was far much below what it had pledged. Relative to the initially projected annual earnings based on estimated financial investment costs the capital spent and the time needed to begin profitable operations were considerably underestimated. This gap and the other financial and accounting confusions resulted in negative

repercussions upon the villagers and also their relationship with the GRC and foreign investors.

The Sanctuary's budgetary deficits were attributed to lack of transparency and accountability in the GR leadership. While the money collected from entrance fees by the Community Game Scouts was handed over to the GR treasurer nobody within the community knew how these funds were spent. This money which amounted to Ksh. 1 million in the first year was supposed to be put in a bank account and then distributed to members at the end of every year minus management costs. Over and above this the GR was to be paid a certain share of the bed nightly bed lodging rate received from tourists. This fee per visitor per a night was supposed to be invested in the construction of a school and clinic and to support other special community projects and the running of a small „soft loans scheme for members (Knegt, 1998 cited in Rutten, 2004: 15).

The GRC was censured for being not only secretive and dishonest but also running the Sanctuary as their personal property (Mburu, 2004). As one resident aptly put it, “the GRC members are doing business for themselves that is why they are building new houses and buying cars’ (Onetu, personal communication, 2005). Whatever actual income was generated from the Sanctuary it was difficult for the villagers to comprehend because of the high operating costs. The people of Kimana could see foreign tourists visit and/or stay at the campsites and lodge in their Sanctuary but no profits in terms of direct dividends were forthcoming as had been expected and promised. As one Kimana ranger lamented: “we are now really very tired of waiting for the economic benefits we were promised from the Sanctuary to come ... we have grown impatient ... if we are to realise any benefits we need change at the top” (Sakuda, Personal Communication, 2005). The only local people who have so far claimed any profits from the Sanctuary, are a few elites many of who were wealthy and politically powerful members of the community. Otherwise, a huge junk of the Sanctuary's tourism revenue was garnered by the foreign investors, tour operators, middlemen and the government. This confirms Crick's assertion that tourism industry is notorious for the „uphill’ flow of benefits: profits normally flow to those who are already wealthy, and thus the overall effect of tourism is often to reinforce existing patterns of inequality (1994: 94).

By the time of this study many local people had become not only restless and desperate but also lamented the positive decision they had made a few years ago to set up a wildlife Sanctuary in their most important remaining dry season livestock refuge. The enthusiasm that greeted the Sanctuary at its inception was no more and by the time of this study community members had lost their goodwill towards the Sanctuary as it was no closer to the ideal of community participation which they had been told. Some villagers claimed that they had lost faith in their leaders and that they felt cheated

or even misled to support the Sanctuary project. They even hinted that loss of access to water and pasture in the Sanctuary had contributed to poverty in the community. They accused their own leaders of being responsible for the mess. As one local member of the Kimana Game Scouts Association explained "... a general low opinion of the community is to a certain extent justifiable as the GRC responsible for running the Sanctuary did a shoddy work" (Ole Saina, personal communication, 2005).

However, some interviewees reported that the community had received some indirect benefits from the Sanctuary such as the construction of an electric fence, school and health clinic, together with education bursaries and some revenue from the park under the sharing scheme. These benefits were not necessarily a direct result of the Sanctuary but are part of other initiatives that all group ranches in the area have received regardless of whether or not they created a wildlife Sanctuary on their land. In many ways the Sanctuary and tourism had created a mind-set of anticipation. The failure to deliver economic benefits thus became a major source of increased social conflicts and power struggles for political control over the Sanctuary's revenues at the community level. In the next section I will shed light on how political and power relations, induced by external interest groups, within the community affected the smooth operation of the Sanctuary.

Political relations

Political relations within the community affected the effective management of the Sanctuary and, subsequently, the realisation of the anticipated benefits for the members. The management of the Sanctuary was often mired in controversy and political power struggles revolving around the issue of equitable resource and benefits distribution. The resultant competition, for control over the Sanctuary's decision-making process and income, generated various conflicts and tensions that consequently impeded the smooth operation of the Sanctuary. A basic factor that heightened internal political pressures within the community was loss of access to traditional natural resources within the Sanctuary, mainly water and pasture. Shortly after taking over the management responsibility signs were erected around the Sanctuary by the ASC management warning local Maasai that the land had been designated „private' property and that they were to stay clear. Evidence of local feelings can be seen by the large number of spear holes and scratches concealing the word private on the signs (Southgate, 2006). The conflict over water and pasture was evident in 1999, a year of serious drought, when Kimana members allowed their livestock to return to the Sanctuary. This angered the foreign partners who demanded that Maasai livestock be kept out of the Sanctuary, to the consternation of the already distressed land owners. As one older resident stated,

Livestock holds significant meaning to the Maasai society, not just economically but also socially ... livestock is both the cultural and economic life of the Maasai and must be recognised as such. ... We are more interested in pasture and water for our livestock. Livestock is our livelihood (Saire, personal communication, 2005).

It is worth noting here that the concept of group ranches, managed by an executive committee elected periodically by all group ranch members to discuss and make joint decisions on behalf of their communities, is a recent development amongst the Maasai (Southgate, 2006). However, the concept of Western democracy is something with which the Maasai had not been familiar. For instance, during the 1970s only one election was held in Kimana as one village elder recalled, “people did not know the importance of group ranch elections at the time”. As a result, it is not surprising that group ranch elections rarely took place, and when they did occur they were not the annual democratic events they were supposed to be. The Annual General Meetings would often fail to achieve the necessary 60% quorum required for elections to be legally binding, and thus the legitimacy of the elections held in 1980, 1986, 1993 and 2003 has been increasingly challenged over the years. Often politicians and bureaucrats rigged the elections in favour of young educated and easy to manipulate individuals (Rutten, 2004). By vesting the power to control the group ranches in the hands of young elite group leaders, prominent figures were able to gain access to some of Kenya’s prized land and key natural resources, in return for promises of political promotion and a share of the benefits.

It is important to point out here, that when I began the active phase of my research in Kimana political campaigns for a parliamentary by-election were beginning to take shape. Ten political parties were taking part in the by-election, which was held on Wednesday 19 November 2003. Although each party supplied a candidate, the main contest was between candidates from two main political parties, that is, the ruling NARC and the official opposition KANU. Before the day of the election, for close to three weeks, campaign rallies were held in the vast Kajiado South Constituency in order to canvas for votes. Whilst during the campaigning, politicians used tourism as a symbolic weapon for political contest and although they expressed different viewpoints, they did not oppose it. The by-election was eventually won the NARC candidate, who was a second year Computer Science student at the University of Nairobi and the youngest of all the contestants. This result was a clear indication of how a young and well-educated man can take up the role of traditional elders in the management of community affairs.

In an attempt to follow the intricacies of Maasai politics, I was alerted to the ‘workings’ of clan politics at the grassroots level, and how politics affected community relations and perspectives on several issues including tourism. Clan affiliation was a major determinant in deciding the eventual

winner of the by-election. The winner hailed from one of the largest sub-clans in the constituency. It became evident that whilst traditionally age-grade and set affiliations provided the very basis of collaboration and co-operation, the clan has become the medium through which political support can be harnessed and client-patron networks established. Maasai clans have become vehicles through which key politicians elicit political support, in the same way as they exploited the age-group system. Suffice to say that the clan plays a central role in political relations. Clan monopoly over political and social power, amongst the Maasai, has had deleterious impact on development in the Amboseli region.

This political and clan divide was also well rehearsed in group ranch and tourism enterprise leadership contests. For many Maasai villagers, democracy has become increasingly associated with increased conflicts and power struggles for political control over resources (natural and financial) at the community level. The popular perception of political leaders and parties is that they have taken the democratic system as an opportunity to enrich themselves, at the expense of the public. Serious conflict between political parties and interest groups has become extreme in Kimana. Many local people bemoaned how clan and party politics had polarised the community and they felt that this was unfortunate but nevertheless an important part of life. Many associate this development with democracy itself, and consequently they have an entirely negative image of what it means.

When the national political regime and group ranch leadership changed, the Sanctuary became a focus of internal clan-based leadership struggles for control over the Sanctuary and its revenues. The evidence of tourism, as a new arena of age-old inter-clan rivalries, crystallised in struggle over the rights to serve at the group ranch cultural boma. It was felt that it was only members of one clan that were benefiting from the group ranch boma (through direct sales of handicrafts to tourists). Many of the villagers I talked with expressed their annoyance that the majority of those who served at the boma were from the same clan as the former officials. The general perception was that these people were benefiting enormously. Consequently, this provoked other clans to demand equal representation, and indeed a decision was taken to have each clan appoint representatives to serve at the boma. However, similar representation has not yet been achieved in the GRC. Generally, the contest for Kimana's commercially valuable resources is now vehemently being fought between clans. There is no quick solution to the problem and it will also be a setback to other forms of economic development.

Conclusion

This paper has highlighted that although local participation in ecotourism has the potential to merge the interests of conservation and development, the

reality is different. The case study has shown that rather than empowering the Maasai to take control over the management of natural resources in their area, ecotourism has served to reproduce and strengthen the predominant values, beliefs, and institutional procedures which benefit the state, foreign tour operators and investors as well as a few local elites. Inequitable participation in benefit sharing and decision-making processes has engendered power struggles and social conflicts which threaten not only to tear the community apart but also to compromise the chances of the Maasai prospering from the resources in their area and their involvement in ecotourism.

In conclusion, ecotourism, if cautiously designed and managed, can provide a sustainable return, much of which can be retained within the local community and thus contribute to development. However, for local participation in wildlife-based ecotourism development in Kimana to succeed issues that relate to local ownership, equitable benefit sharing, good governance and political control over access and user rights of land resources need to be more carefully addressed. There is also urgent need to develop local capacity particularly in the fields of management and business skills. Training especially in leadership and micro-enterprises management skills will in the long run equip the Maasai with sufficient business expertise that will enable them not only to negotiate equitable and sustainable relationships with other actors and agencies in ecotourism development but also to undertake collective action in natural resource management.

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An Investigation of the Attitudes of Travel and Tourism Intermediaries to Mature Travellers

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Abstract: *This study considers the attitudes to and experiences of travel agents and tourism intermediaries when servicing the needs of mature travellers. It reviews the literature on mature travellers within the broader area of 'accessible tourism'. The survey of members of a professional association within the travel industry in Auckland, New Zealand highlighted a number of key challenges and opportunities for those working in this increasingly valuable sector of the tourism industry. While this study was a pilot study of the supply side of the tourism industry in Auckland, the research concludes with examples of best practice and some recommendations drawn from the many years' experience of the survey respondents which would form a useful starting point for a more detailed study considering the experiences of mature travellers.*

Keywords: Mature travellers, travel agent, tour operator, intermediaries, customer service, New Zealand.

Introduction

This study developed from an initial project to investigate facilities and services for the disabled in hotels (Schitko and Poulston, 2009; Schitko and Simpson, 2011). In the course of that study it was realised that there are many users of hospitality and tourism services who do not have a registered disability (and therefore do not regard themselves as 'disabled' whatever that may encompass), but who do appreciate a certain amount of assistance or support when booking travel or while on their journey. However it should be noted that this study can itself only be another piece in the jigsaw, and this paper finished with as many opportunities for further research into the mature travel market as it does with findings and recommendations. This issue of mature travellers is a very contemporary issue faced by many tourism operators'. For the purpose of this study it is assumed that travellers over the age of 65 are 'mature travellers'. This has long been an accepted benchmark (Visvabharathy and Rink, 1985) and this is the retirement age for pensioners in New Zealand. Visvabharathy and Rink (1985) reported a feeling among marketers that 'the elderly market was not responsive or large enough to justify special attention' (p. 81). However Ananth, DeMicco, Moreo and Howey (1992) forecasted that

by 2030 a third of the US population would be over 55 years of age and they would control nearly half the USA's discretionary income. Vieregge, Phetkaew, Beldona, Lumsden and DeMicco (2007) suggest that 'the mature population is growing dramatically throughout the world and is considered to be the fastest growing segment through the developed world' (p. 167). Other authors have suggested that this market segment is flexible in terms of timing (not tied to school or public holidays), have considerable disposable income because of relatively few financial commitments, and are increasingly fit and healthy for a longer lifespan than previous generations (Wei, Ruys and Muller, 1999; Callan and Bowman, 2000; Fleischer and Pizam, 2002). Discussing the 'Baby Boomers' who were born 1945-1965, Hudson (2010, p. 444) argued that:

'Traveling boomers are looking for a memorable experience rather than a holiday, seeking authenticity, spiritual and mental enlightenment, nostalgia, convenience and spontaneity, all packaged in a safe, customised, healthy, green wrapping and delivered with great customer service.'

If the travel industry can better understand the needs of this group and therefore communicate more effectively with them, then it has an opportunity to build a loyal customer base of affluent consumers who often prefer to travel in off-peak periods. McGuire, Uysal and McDonald (1988) identified this market but said more research was required to understand what their requirements would be and how those might differ from younger travellers. Romsa and Blenman (1989) suggested that mature travellers may be more likely to wish to travel in groups rather than as independent tourists. Grougiou and Pettigrew (2011, p. 477) note 'Age does not always have a linear impact upon individuals' activities and consumption decisions, and changes occur at different times for different people as results of individual choices (e.g. pursuing a career over a family) and situational circumstances (e.g. widowhood)'.

Having established the importance of this area as a subject for research, this paper will now consider the substantial literature which already exists on this topic. There is literature on the definitions and terms used, on the technical requirements of disabled and mature travellers (Petzäll, 1995; Darcy, 2010), on the cultural aspects of what constitutes disability (Woodside and Etzel, 1980; Buhalis and Darcy, 2011), and on mature travellers and their needs (Langlois, Theodore and Ineson, 1999; Huang and Tsai, 2003; Kim, Cheng and O'Leary, 2007). This study explores the attitude of travel operators towards mature travellers and identifies how tourism and travel operators build relationships with this market sector in order to address their needs.

Limitations of this Research

This study focuses on the supply side of tourism intermediaries and how they respond to the needs of the mature traveller. The work does

not contain material regarding the (demand side) thoughts of mature consumers, although this line of research is suggested as area of future study. As the focus of this study is on tour operator attitudes, hotel facilities and accessibility issues are also not specifically addressed within this paper (but see Schitko and Poulston (2009) or Schitko and Simpson (2011) for further discussion on these important issues). However some of the respondents operate accommodation and transport businesses, and their comments are included where appropriate.

Theoretical Review

Defining disability and mature tourism.

Buhalis and Darcy (2011) introduce their text on 'accessible tourism' with a foreword from Dr Taleb Rifai, Secretary General of the United Nations World Tourism Organization in which he refers to 'an ageing population and increasing rates of disability' (Buhalis and Darcy, 2011, p. xx) demonstrating that the two topics are closely related. These authors warn that the topic itself is very difficult to define as it is (like much of tourism) extremely multidisciplinary, and researchers must also deal with the issues that disability is a cultural and social construct, and that tourists displaying some form of impairment are an extremely diverse and heterogeneous group. Although the United Nations produced the *Convention of Rights of People with Disabilities* in 2006 (<http://www.un.org/disabilities/>) each signatory to the convention must introduce its own national legislation in terms of access rights and building regulations. This makes it very challenging for outbound tourism operators as their clients may be used to certain 'rights' in their home country which are not a legal requirement in others and therefore puts the responsibility on the operator to ensure that their clients will consistently have a positive tourism experience.

Medical versus Social models of disability

Disability is regarded by many as a medical condition. This perspective is often accompanied by a focus on what the individual cannot do, what can be provided to make the individual's experience as 'normal' as possible, and therefore what the costs of doing so are. In cases where the disability is as a result of an accident, terms such as 'loss' and 'tragedy' are often used in an unthinking and insensitive way. This approach often presents people as passive beings who have well-meaning individuals and institutions 'do things' to or for them. Others would argue that a more enlightened approach is to recognise that a person may have an impairment but that it is the 'disabling social environment' (Buhalis and Darcy, 2011, p. 4) which prevents the individual from fully participating in whatever activity they are interested in. This is where the concept of 'universal design' becomes important for tourism operators. Darcy (2002) and Darcy and Dickson (2009) make the point that by having more accessible facilities

not only are wheelchair-bound customers able to utilise facilities, but so too are young families with buggies or prams, and the elderly. The argument is that if access is designed into a facility, 'rather than an add-on for compliance reasons' (Buhalis and Darcy, 2011, p. 9) then a larger number of potential customers may be attracted to a facility. Darcy and Dickson (2009) estimate that although 20% of the population have a disability, a further 3% are families with young children and 8% are senior citizens with access considerations. This means that a carefully designed facility will be accessible to the 31% of the population who might otherwise not bother to use it. Also, Woodside and Etzel (1980, p. 10) reported that 'nearly 50% of physical or mental conditions reported as limiting travel are conditions likely to be unobservable'. Carefully designed facilities would mean that such individuals would not be forced to disclose their disability in order to obtain assistance. Tantawy, Kim and Pyo (2005, p. 92) reported that 'one out of every four consumers in the UK is either disabled or has a disabled person in their immediate circle'.

A number of different terms have been used to describe this way of thinking. While initially the term 'disabled tourism' might have been acceptable along with reference to a 'disabled person', a shift in terminology has accompanied the development in thinking. Terms such as 'easy access tourism', 'barrier-free tourism', 'inclusive tourism' and 'universal tourism' have become more commonplace. Likewise the term 'people with disabilities' rather than 'disabled person', puts the emphasis on the *person* rather than on any disability they may have (Darcy, 2002). For the purpose of this paper, the researchers will use the term 'accessible tourism' (Buhalis and Darcy, 2011, p. 10).

There is some literature on tourism and physical disabilities. Smith (1987) tried to categorise the kinds of barriers tourists with disabilities face, calling them intrinsic, environmental and interactive barriers. Sen and Mayfield (2004, p. 223) discussing people with disabilities and the elderly stress the importance of 'leisure trips that serve to immeasurably enhance their quality of life'. Tantawy, Kim and Pyo (2005) investigated wheelchair accessibility of upscale hotels in Egypt. Daniels, Rodgers and Wiggins (2005) identified themes which came out of an analysis of writings from travellers with (mostly physical) disabilities and their companions who had posted comments about travelling with a disability on a website. While saying that most of the entries suggested the participants had enjoyed their travel experiences, they warn that,

'Travel personnel and tourism site managers who lack comprehensive training and information are often ill-prepared to assist individuals with disabilities' (Daniels et al, 2005, p. 919).

Accessibility and the natural environment is addressed by Lovelock (2010) who discusses the competing priorities of retaining an 'unspoiled'

natural environment with the desire to facilitate access for tourists with disabilities in the Milford Sound area of New Zealand's South Island. He suggests there will be increasing conflict between those fighting for universal right of access and those arguing for a pristine and 'natural' environment. Ray and Ryder (2003, p. 66) found that, 'the mobility challenged are sceptical of general travel agents who do not know what their needs really are'. This raises another interesting issue for management as Tantawy et al. (2005) found no evidence of hotels seeking to actively recruit employees with a disability to enhance the experience of guests with disabilities through first-hand knowledge of the challenges. Daruwalla and Darcy (2005) found that there was a gap between people's stated support for people with disabilities, and what they actually felt. They furthermore found that training improved people's attitudes, but that over time they reverted to a rather negative view. They therefore suggest that there is a difference between 'societal' and 'personal' attitudes to disability which may require disability awareness training and ongoing communication from management in tourism businesses. It is possible that this underlying staff attitude may be partially as a result of seeing their management make changes to comply with legislation rather than because they believe in it or feel it will be good for the long-term survival of their business. This makes the Darcy and Pegg (2011) study particularly relevant as it investigates the attitudes of hotel accommodation managers. It found five new 'themes' - an increasingly inclusive perspective, liability and safety, a frustration that staff would be able to help more if they were advised of travellers' requirements, a problem renting accessible rooms to those who did not request them and training and maintenance issues with 'assistive equipment'. They also found that even hotel management who did have the right attitudes, training and equipment did not communicate to people with disabilities that these facilities were available – which is very disabling in its own right.

The link between an ageing population and disability

It should be obvious that many of the shifts in attitude and approach discussed above will be extremely beneficial to mature travellers who, while they may not have a registered disability, as they grow older may find participating in some tourism activities more challenging. The 'medical versus social model' discussion above is an important debate, but the focus of this paper is on the mature traveller and this very heterogeneous group does not fit easily into one or other category. This group may begin to need more medical support than earlier in their lifetimes, but may also have different requirements in terms of a supportive and secure environment, appreciate the opportunity for group travel, be concerned to be doing something philanthropic, and be very sensitive to the customer service attitudes of front-line service personnel. They may also have strong views on the technology they are required to interact with in terms of information

systems or specialist equipment. As Buhalis and Darcy (2011, p. 41) state, 'The elderly population...shares many of the same access barriers as people with impairments'. Likewise, Lovelock (2010) points out that the number of people with disabilities will increase with an ageing population. There is also some very technical research available to guide operators in what may be required. Petzäll (1995), for example, discusses the ideal design of accessible taxis which would allow people with disabilities to travel more easily.

What mature travellers really really want

It has already been discussed that the so-called 'baby boomers' (those born between the 1940s and the 1960s) are in better health, better educated and more financially independent (at least in the early years of retirement) than previous generations. These travellers are not likely to be satisfied with a sedentary tour, and it is perhaps this issue that Pritchard and Morgan (1997) are referring to when they called their journal paper 'Beyond bowling and ballroom dancing'. Lohmann and Merzbach (1997) and Lohmann and Danielsson (2001) suggest that this new group of retirees is significantly different from previous generations in terms of their demands and expectations – not so much because of their age or stage in life, but because of what they have done and experienced prior to retirement. Patterson and Pegg (2011) warn that the increased interest in an 'experience' in the experience economy has not passed the mature traveller by. Indeed, they found that mature travellers showed very little interest in holidays that did not teach them something new, take them somewhere unusual, introduce a new culture, or do some good in the local community or environment. This links in with what Cohen (1979, p. 179) argued, that for some, tourism is 'an earnest quest for the authentic'. Above all, their experience had to be memorable. Cohen (1979) quotes United Nations research claiming that by 2050 22% of the world's population will be over 60 years of age (some two billion people). This group not only have more financial resources but also tend to travel for longer periods of time, often due to reduced family commitments (e.g. the death of a partner). Therkelsen and Gram (2008, p. 269) suggest that 'mature people use holidays for expressing who they are'. Vieregge et al. (2007) identify travellers between 60 – 70 years of age as the segment taking the longest vacations. This has seen the development of specialist adventure tourism operators offering safaris, rafting, trekking (or 'tramping' as it is called in New Zealand), and even kayaking and jet-boating. Hudson (2010, p. 445) warns that 'Boomers want to squeeze every last drop of their time here on earth rather than settling for an indolent retirement'. Yet while they may be more adventurous in the destinations and activities chosen, Patterson and Pegg (2011) found that mature travellers preferred all-inclusive tour groups with like-minded individuals - although research also showed that mature travellers consistently felt themselves to be ten years younger than

their actual age! Smith (1987) warns that putting the disabled or mature tourists on 'special' tours may not be a satisfactory solution as it segregates these groups from 'mainstream' society. Tourism New Zealand's theme tune to their marketing campaigns such as '100% Pure New Zealand' is perhaps very apposite for this market as it is called 'forever young'. Two terms which are often used by this heterogeneous group when describing their requirements are that travel must be 'meaningful' and 'authentic' (Fleischer and Pizam, 2002). Above all, this group does not see itself as a passive sightseer or mass tourist. Researchers quote one seventy-four year old traveller as saying about Hawaii or California, 'very nice places, but I can visit them when I get older' (Patterson and Pegg, 2011, p. 182). Lee and Chen (2011) found to their surprise that during the 'bird flu' and SARS scares in China and Singapore that there was no decline in mature traveller numbers, despite this group being identified as 'high risk', suggesting that this market segment is perhaps not as sensitive or risk-averse as some might assume. Hudson (2010) makes the point that even if a tour operator does not currently have many mature travellers, if they are good at retaining customers then they will eventually have an older client base! Ray and Ryder (2003) found their interviewees in their 60s and 70s acknowledged that 'any problems were due to "slowing down" due to age' (p. 63). Woodside and Etzel (1980) found in their study that 50% of the sample said their disability was a heart condition which was a 'restriction on effort' (p. 11). Hudson (2010) warns that 'boomers (will) redefine retirement' (p. 458) and reminds people that one-third of baby boomers are now single and the image of empty-nester couples may not be an accurate reflection of reality and therefore tourism businesses may be missing out on business opportunities.

Accessible tourism

Despite what has been stated above, there are activities which mature travellers would not be able to undertake – or at least not at the level of younger people. Patterson and Pegg (2011) suggest that 'the matching of needs against abilities requires some delicate balancing' (p. 186). Operators have therefore found that such adventure activities are closely supervised by experienced guides who also provide the educational and cultural component that is important to this sector and that 'hard' days are followed by recovery days. Accommodation facilities should be comfortable (and above all safe), mostly non-smoking, and while they may not request accessible features in the bathroom, they would usually appreciate them (Wei et al, 1999). Food and beverage facilities should offer choices and be of a high standard. Mature travellers are very sensitive to friendly welcomes and considerate service, as well as good lighting and quiet dining areas. On trekking holidays it may be appreciated, for example, to send luggage ahead and travel with daysacks (as many people who walk Scotland's 95 mile West Highland Way route through Glencoe to Fort William choose to do).

Wang (2011) emphasizes the importance of realising that while this group may have certain common characteristics, they should not be regarded as a homogenous group as this kind of labelling and stereotyping is precisely what they are trying to escape from. The issue of website accessibility is also likely to become increasingly important (Williams and Rattray, 2005; Williams, Rattray and Grimes, 2006). Interestingly, Fleischer and Pizam (2002, p. 120) refer to some of this segment having a 'perceived disability', suggesting that there may be a role for travel professionals to persuade clients that they can do more than they think. Smith (1987) suggested that some people may develop a 'learned helplessness' as a result of believing that they cannot undertake a particular activity. However, as travellers' age, their physical abilities and financial resources will eventually start to diminish, and tour operators will need to be aware of this when recommending tours to people who think they are ten years younger than they really are. Finally, while this sector has more financial resources than in the past, they are more likely to purchase more expensive packages if they can see from the high quality of what is offered and the way in which it is offered, that they consider the package is good value for money.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the attitudes of travel and tourism operators towards mature travellers. The study also aims to identify techniques used by operators to build relationships with this market segment.

Methods

Pilot study

The pilot study was conducted in January 2011. The aim of this stage was to ensure that the questions were not ambiguous and could be easily understood by the participants. The pilot survey was conducted with the researchers' colleagues and friends who matched the characteristics of the population being studied. On completion of the survey several questions were altered and improved to ensure ease of understanding by the intended respondents.

Main exploratory study

Following on from the pilot study mentioned above, the main study on which this paper is based was conducted in Auckland, New Zealand. Due to the time-limited access that the researchers had to research participants, the questionnaire was designed to be completed in just a few minutes. This obviously impacted on the details that were possible to gather, meaning that any findings should be regarded as exploratory and certainly not generalizable or statistically significant. Survey forms were created and then distributed to the Auckland members of SKÅL International,

the international association of travel and tourism professionals (<http://skalnet20.skala.org/>) and the New Zealand Institute of Travel and Tourism (NZITT) (<http://www.nzitt.org.nz>). Both these membership organisations have considerable numbers of travel professionals who have been working in the industry and have owned travel businesses for many years, some of whom have now recently retired from the industry. They therefore had a considerable wealth of experience which this study was specifically designed to draw on. The forms were issued at a SKÅL event with a request to complete and return them on the day. Pre-paid envelopes were also distributed for those who wanted to complete them later or for those who wished to take a questionnaire for members who were not at the meeting. The questionnaire was also e-mailed to members three weeks after the meeting as a reminder to return them and provided another copy in case they had misplaced the hard copy. As quite a number of travel professionals in Auckland are members of both organisations it was suggested the researchers e-mailed a version of the questionnaire out to NZITT members as well (one of the researchers is a Fellow of the NZITT). At the closing date twenty-three questionnaires had been returned with very detailed responses to the questions. As there were fifty people at the SKÅL event this suggests an almost 50% response rate. However, as some of the anonymous responses may have come from NZITT members who are not also SKÅL members, the actual response rate is likely to be around 40%.

A number of members approached the researchers saying they did not wish to complete the questionnaire but wanted to explain why. Reasons given included commercial confidentiality, company policy and the fact that they felt it did not apply to them as they claimed they did not have any mature clients. Finally, a small number expressed great interest in the topic but felt that what they wanted to share did not 'fit' into the survey form and offered instead to meet the researchers to share their thoughts. Their offer was gratefully accepted and a meeting was held at a later date at which a wide-ranging discussion took place which was recorded and later transcribed.

Instrument

The survey form was a mixture of quantitative and qualitative questions. The first two questions collected quantitative information regarding the amount of business the company did with mature travellers and whether or not they actively sought business from this segment. The following thirteen questions were qualitative in nature asking for the participant's thoughts and advice when dealing with the mature market and reflected the interpretivist perspective of interest to the researchers. The last section of the survey collected information regarding the participant's personal demographics and information such as the tourism sector that they worked in.

Results

Demographics

Respondents were asked for some basic demographic data. This confirmed the researchers' confidence in the experience and expertise of the survey sample. 92% of respondents were managers, directors or owners of the business they represented. They could therefore be considered to be highly-motivated to know their client base and its needs. 80% of respondents said that they actively seek bookings from mature clients which indicated recognition of the importance of this sector. The size of the various organisations varied with the number of employees ranging from one to two hundred. Not surprisingly, the majority (72%) of respondents had a travel agency background, but there were also representatives from coach operators, airlines and accommodation providers (hotel/motel owners). Their responses are summarised below in broad themes.

What attracts mature clients to use your company?

In answer to the question why mature clients book with the particular business respondents offered the following reasons:

Our consultants are all over 50 and have a better understanding of the client's needs (Travel agent senior consultant)

(We have) senior staff with many years experience (Travel agency CEO)

(By) understanding their needs (Travel agent senior consultant)

The experience of our consultants (Travel agent)

Many years in the trade plus extensive personal travel over the years (Travel broker).

These comments indicate that older staff are perhaps better able to relate to the needs of mature travellers – the ability to empathise with the clients develops a level of trust which is essential in tourism businesses. An example of this was:

My attention to detail and wide knowledge of airlines, hotels, cruise lines brings the clients back (Travel agent).

Another respondent noted:

My interest in providing conscientious personal service (Tour operator).

A final statement regarding loyalty of customers tends to sum up this question:

Welcoming and helpful hosts able to give helpful itineraries, group and independent options ... is our point of difference (Tour operator).

This is in keeping with comments from Huang and Tsai (2003) who note that mature travellers rely more on travel agents than any other market

sectors. Huang and Tsai (2003, p. 562) also state 'that the quality of the agent/traveller interactions, communications, overall convenience, pricing, product features and image were important issues'.

58% of respondents said the most common methods of booking for such clients is either in person or over the telephone. This suggests that mature travellers prefer to deal directly with a person rather than using the internet or other options of communication.

Size of group

Interestingly, respondents noted that most mature travellers prefer to travel as couples (60%) rather than in groups (27%) or as individuals (14%). This was contrary to research by Romsa and Blenman (1989) who suggested group travel would be preferred for mature travellers as it offered a sense of safety. One respondent did suggest however:

A lot of people who are more elderly are quite happy to do group tours as there is someone to look after them (Tour operator).

Special requirements for mature travellers

In response to questions regarding any special requirements that are needed most respondents suggested:

Quality of accommodation and reliability of services are a main concern. Also

Easy access, minimum of steps, close to toilets, access, healthy meals, secure parking close to the building are necessary for mature travellers (Tour operator).

Another respondent noted:

My mature clients are mostly in the upper income bracket so they require personal attention with no room for errors (Tour operator).

Special considerations when making bookings

Responses regarding any special factors required by operators when taking bookings from mature travellers received the following responses:

Ensure they are met and shown around on arrival (Hotel manager).

Give consideration of journey times with stopover breaks (Tour operator)

Sightseeing length and level of activity (Tour operator)

The need to ensure they know exactly what they have purchased (Travel agent)

and the *selection of a product that meets individual requirements* (Tour operator).

These responses are in keeping with findings by Glover and Prideaux (2009, p. 35)

who suggest mature travellers 'know the type of product and the level of service they should be able to expect'.

Many of these responses were repeated in the next question that sought information as to any special arrangements required when booking holidays for this market. Participants noted:

We know our clients and most are able-bodied, for those not quite so I can advise them of places they can go without too much difficulty (Tour operator).

Reasonable stopovers and the length of travel times (Travel agent).

There was reference to the need (sometimes) for:

Wheelchair assistance and hotels with disabled access facilities and possibly assistance at airports (Airline manager).

One respondent noted:

It is the person who is taking the booking – they need to know the right questions to ask bearing in mind the destination they are going to and the difficulties they might have (Travel agent).

Yau, McKercher and Packer (2004, p. 955) note 'they must often rely on the advice of others regarding which places are accessible or are not accessible'. Huang and Tsai (2003, p. 570) add 'because many senior travellers have chronic health problems, mobility emerged as a significant factor that influences travel behaviour. It is important for the travel industry to ascertain typical products and services that would encourage senior travellers to overcome their travel barriers'.

Information regarding disabilities or health issues and any special arrangements that are required by this sector drew the following comments:

Possible heart complaints – mobility and sight issues but mostly minor age-related issues (Travel agent).

One respondent noted that:

Obesity is often an issue for cruise passengers (Cruise operator).

Another remarked that:

Travel insurance is sometimes a problem due to existing health issues (Tour operator).

Negative or positive impacts of servicing the senior market

The impact of older travellers drew the following comments:

Sometimes agents filter them too thoroughly and do not offer them the unusual destinations as the agent thinks these clients are more sedate than they actually are (Tour operator).

Hudson (2010, p. 445) agrees and suggests seniors 'are looking for more active travel pursuits in which health and fitness play prominent roles'. A further respondent stated:

Mature travellers tend to be trail blazers for other 'wannabe' travellers (Tour operator).

Another respondent suggested:

They are loyal customers and 95% become repeat clients – you build up a lovely friendship with many clients (Senior travel agent).

This statement is confirmed by Hudson (2010) who suggests these clients will become very loyal customers if they are targeted correctly.

A respondent added:

After the trip the clients come and tell you about their trip and letters and cards keeping coming including emails with positive feedback (Travel broker).

Advice for other operators

Advice for other operators who are seeking to appeal to the mature market was given by the following comments:

The older market is much more adventurous than they are given credit for, baby boomers will form the high-end segment of our industry in the next few years and must be cultivated carefully and there are very few negatives – go for it!!! (Travel agency manager)

Hudson (2010 p. 458) also suggests as mature travellers 'redefine retirement, tourism marketers that fail to acknowledge their importance are missing out on a profitable 'market segment'. This statement is further endorsed by the Jackson report (2009, p. 16) 'The most significant development is that the tourists are getting older ... growth will be driven by older Australians in the 60 year plus category.'

Comments from another respondent suggest that:

Businesses need to be aware of clients needs but be subtle in how you present to and communicate with them (Hotel manager).

Another respondent noted:

It is no use seeking to appeal to this market unless you are very well experienced and well-travelled (Tour operator).

Hudson (2010, p. 458) suggests 'the key to securing and retaining this growing, lucrative segment is a better understanding of how they behave, their buying motivations and their needs as they get older'. Huang and Tsai (2003, p. 569) further comment 'senior travellers normally have more time and more discretionary income for travel (and) matching the interests of senior travel clients is a serious issue for travel agents (as) there is a need to identify a particular marketing strategy to reach this potential market'. Grougiou and Pettigrew (2011, p. 480) suggest 'the physical appearance of seniors is an inadequate guide to how they may wish to be treated during a service encounter, and instead service providers may need to invest time in getting to know their older customers to correctly gauge their needs and preferences'.

Summary

From this research it was concluded that as a preference mature travellers tend to relate better to mature agents who have (themselves) travelled extensively and so are able to offer suggestions and personal preferences for itineraries and travel products. The travellers also prefer to return to an agent they have already dealt with for further bookings which means the agent will be aware of any medical or physical concerns affecting the client and would be able to offer suggestions that will negate any restrictions that may be experienced. Most respondents believed the personal attention to detail and spending time with clients to ensure all their requirements are covered was the main reason why clients continued to deal with the same agent.

An interesting finding was the preference of mature travellers to travel as couples which was not expected. A possible explanation could be that 'mature travellers' in this research were regarded as being over 65 years of age. Many couples are still together at this age - this could possibly change if the research started at age 70.

All respondents were extremely aware of the importance of the mature traveller market and that in time to come this sector will become even larger as people's life expectancy extends and the fact that the current mature market are more active than their parents or grandparents which will expect to result in more physically involved travel options. The mature market will also possibly be the most affluent sector of travellers in the next decade as they are increasingly tending to spend their retirement savings rather than leave it for their family. Huang and Tsai (2003, p. 571) summarise

'this market will be the fastest growing segment in the world travel market because seniors travellers have the time, money and will to travel. They tend to spend more on travel, creating a potential senior travel market that will be of great significance. The travel industry must be prepared for an explosive growth in the senior travel market'.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Yau et al (2004, p. 950) state that all their study respondents 'reported that their disability affected their tourist behaviour'. Results from previous research shows that mature travellers are a growing and wealthy sector of tourism demand, although Fleischer and Pizam (2002) suggest that this is heavily dependent on two factors – income levels and health. They identify the age group 60 – 70 years of age as the one with the most potential for tourism operators. They are physically and financially more able than their parents were at that age and more interested in travelling and experiencing new environments. They build relationships with travel agents and readily accept advice and suggestions. Hudson (2010) suggests that 'nostalgia tourism' will increasingly feature in marketing to this segment, particularly in the imagery and the music used to support the marketing message promoting culturally sensitive, authentic, sustainable and memorable experiences. He suggests tourism operators should look at other business sectors for best practice, mentioning that this market segment 'have embraced the Apple stores where they enjoy the attention of very well trained sales associates that are ambassadors for the brand' (Hudson, 2010, p. 455).

Much previous research has focused on the lived experience of the mature traveller (Darcy, 2002) and their requirements, or on the facilities on offer, so this research has chosen to address the perspective of the tourism professional or travel agent – the facilitators for mature travellers to undertake such activities. The aim has been to address the gap in the literature concerning the supply-side attitudes to mature travellers. No longer are they an 'invisible and forgotten market segment' (Visvabharathy and Rink, 1985, p. 81) but instead they are a very important and contemporary challenge for operators. This research has shown that companies that understand the needs of the mature market will benefit from loyal customers and feedback regarding trip experiences that can then be used for planning holidays for other clients. Results suggest that this market sector is very well-informed themselves and so companies that plan to seek to appeal to mature clients need themselves to be well travelled and completely up to date with information and suggestions. This market will not accept being taken for granted. Some modifications regarding access and facilities may be required by hotels and airports. Questionnaire responses from tour operators appeared to have more specific recommendations regarding the needs of mature travellers than the responses from travel agents, so does this mean that the travel industry has not yet realised the value and requirements of this sector?

As identified earlier, this study should be regarded as 'exploratory'. It is believed that there are opportunities for further research with various operators including hotels, airlines and cruise ships to assess their impressions of the value of this increasing market sector and how operators plan to adapt their product offerings to better cater for mature

travellers. Furthermore, this study has focused on the supply side of the tourism product, with respondents from travel intermediaries, airlines, accommodation and transportation companies. Additional research should also be conducted with the 'demand' side of the tourism sector – the mature market themselves – to learn of their perceptions regarding their individual travel needs and experiences from a demand side perspective. This could be in the form of interviews, focus groups and online discussion boards (mature travellers are thought to be very active users of the internet and user-generated content). Another possible avenue is to consider whether there is a particular New Zealand perspective on this topic. With no compulsory retirement age, it is not uncommon for kiwis (New Zealanders) to continue working well into their 70s. While it could be argued that this limits their leisure time, it could conversely be argued that this means their economic power to travel does not diminish as much as in other countries. Also, being so far away from everywhere, kiwis are perhaps more used to (and therefore willing to) make relatively long journeys by air and sea.

The authors would welcome correspondence from any other researchers working in this area.

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Improving the awareness in Finland of north Cyprus tourism destination: Some evidences from the industry

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Abstract: *The purpose of this study is to improve the awareness in Finland of north Cyprus tourism attraction through promotion mix. Semi-structured interviews were used to examine the activities of north Cyprus tourism authorities in the Finnish tourist market. The most active member organizations' executives from Cyprus Turkish Hoteliers Association and Cyprus Turkish Travel Agents Association and one executive from Destination Management Organization were included in the survey to understand that though north Cyprus tourism destination has potential amenities for Finnish tourists, why this tourism destination does not take place in such gainful tourist market. Based on the research findings, it was realized that the north Cyprus travel and tourism industry has marketing myopia on the Finnish tourist market and the present study claims that promotion mix tool may have a positive impact on purchasing behaviors of Finnish tourists.*

Keywords: Promotion mix, tourism, north Cyprus, Finnish tourist market, tour operator.

Introduction

Tourism is one of the fastest growing and single largest industries in the world. The contribution of tourism industry in the global as well as individual perspective is really amazing. Many countries in the world depend upon tourism as a main source of foreign exchange earnings (Fyall and Garrod, 2005; Theorell and Sigaty, 2001). Many countries are now dependent on this sector for foreign currency earnings. Every destination country is trying to achieve more gain by developing this industry. The expansion of the tourism throughout the world has increased the competition among the tourist destinations, so, the tourism organizations are trying to attract more tourists by adopting appropriate tourism marketing techniques and strategies. Failure of doing so, will lead to become non-competitive in the world tourism market (e.g., Hossain and Hossain, 2002; Law, Cheung and Lo, 2004).

In this regard, as an important element of marketing, promotion mix plays the vital role in marketing any product and service, because tourists want to know in advance about the attractions and the facilities of a particular destination and they also want to know other related information of their visit to make the same safe, secured, and enjoyable. As a result, dissemination of information on travel and tourism-related products and services are highly important (Millner and Lees, 2007). By using

the different tools of promotion, tourism marketers attempt to serve this purpose and try to influence the potential tourists' attitudes in favour of the sponsor's destination and grow interest to visit the same (Björkman and Kock, 1997). However, tour operating firms need to give proper attention in developing the promotional materials and careful attention is required to incorporate the factors affecting the choice of potential tourists. Without effective and sufficient promotional activities by public and private sector of a tourism destination place, there is no possibility or little possibility to make tourism as a major contributor to a national economy.

As a case in point, north Cyprus with its favorable climate makes a season of "sun, sea, sand" tourism possible along the whole year, its environment is relatively unspoiled, peaceful and safe living environments prevail, and historical, cultural and religious riches give unique absolute and competitive advantage to north Cyprus compared to its regional rivals (see Fig. 1).



Source: Cyprus44/Photo Gallery

Picture 1. A view from north Cyprus

Though north Cyprus has comparative advantages of beautiful attractions and full potential of various types of tourism alternatives to its destination, it fails to attract the significant number of tourists because of the uncontrollable external factors and the internal factors, such as the managerial insufficiencies (Alipour and Kilic, 2005; Arasli, Bavik, and Ekiz, 2006; Safakli, 2010). Since 1963 tourism industry in Cyprus has been significantly influenced owing to political instability of the island (Altinay, Altinay, and Bicak, 2002). It is well known that tourism is widely sensitive to political instability and political environment, which

has a great impact on the tourism industry in any region (Clements and Georgiou, 1998). Particularly, the lack of direct flights and internationally unrecognized position of the country are between the some external reasons of not reaching the potential tourism capacity, because these external factors may have potential to reduce the travelers' satisfaction and hence the motivation of being a tourist in north Cyprus in terms of comfort and time. However, along with these factors, most importantly the destination managerial insufficiencies such as the development and implementation of successful marketing activities with cooperation of the public and private sectors – which is under the responsibility of governmental authorities – might be critical issues preventing tourism from driving optimal economic development.

North Cyprus with its alternative tourism attractions is now an emerging new market for European and Asian tourists who seek holidays in the country. In the wake of rising competition and the dramatic changes occurring in the world tourism industry, there is a need for the north Cyprus public and private tourism organizations to recognize the importance of promotion mix as a tourism marketing tool in attaining new market shares like Finland. Because the tourism statistics showed that north Cyprus hotel occupancy performance fluctuated at the annual rates of 30 % in the last years (Statistical Yearbook of Tourism, 2010).

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to improve the awareness in Finland of north Cyprus tourism attractions through the promotion mix. This study is the first and necessary in terms of understanding the reasons that why north Cyprus travel and tourism industry does not take place in the Finland tourist market and what kind of strategies might be improved for this.

This paper is organized as follows: the literature section gives a brief description of promotion and addresses different types of promotion. Some background on the Finland tourism industry is also included. Next, the methodology and data collection of the research paper are explained, which is followed by the research findings and results of the study. Finally, conclusion and managerial implications are noted, and lastly limitations and future direction are discussed.

Literature Review

The promotion component of the marketing mix primarily serves to inform potential customers of a firm's product or service offering. Communication with the customer is the key function of promotion. In addition, it works to persuade and increase brand awareness for a company, whilst improving sales figures (Millner and Lees, 2007). In the service industry, it is vital that the service firms communicate in an effective way with its target customers. Promotion is emphasized by organizations to affect

the way how the consumers behave and it is thereby an essential motivator in the tourism or hospitality companies (Lawton and Weaver, 2005). Special emphasize in the academic research is put on destination advertising and promotion efforts of national tourism organizations which are responsible for the destination marketing (Dore and Crouch, 2003; Gretzel, Yuan, and Fesenmaier, 2000; MacKay and Smith, 2006) and the effectiveness of these efforts (Kim, Hwang and Fesenmaier, 2005; McWilliams and Crompton, 1997). The promotion of a destination is considered as a factor influencing the choice of a destination to travel by the potential tourists and changing destination's competitive position compared to other similar destinations.

As the scope of this research study focuses on the promotion (P) of tourism marketing, the promotion mix presented to address the different types of promotion available and most common for tourism companies to use. The promotion mix includes personal selling, sales promotion, direct marketing, advertising, and public relations. The use of promotion tool combinations is usually based on marketing strategy. Using different promotion tools for delivering messages to customers can result in varied responses. For example, if a company desires to enhance its competitive strength and short-term operating profits, price-oriented sales promotion is a good option (Lee, 2002). If a company wants to strengthen brand recognition, accelerate brand proliferation, and change consumer shopping patterns, advertising methods can be adopted (Lee, 2002; Nair and Tarasewich, 2003).

Promotional activities can play the significant role for the development of tourism industry. Tourism in north Cyprus is of no exception from this. Lack of promotional activities is likely to affects the development of tourism in any country as well as in north Cyprus. But the existing literature on the promotional aspects of north Cyprus tourism is very rare and even on the literature covering the marketing aspects of tourism industry in the country is very limited. As a result, the study is exploratory in nature.

Against this backdrop, this study on the use of promotion mix activities in attracting Finnish tourists by north Cyprus tourism industry organizations is an attempt to highlight the issues related to promotion of north Cyprus tourism and put forward some suggestions to what actual promotional measures are best suited for attracting much more Finnish tourists to north Cyprus and thus contribute to the relevant literature and the practitioners of the country as well.

Elements of Promotion Mix

Over the years, with the maturing of the service markets, the number of competitors has been growing, and competition in the market environments is becoming more rigorous. Promotion is a frequently used marketing strategy for a company to retain competitive advantage. As it is mentioned in

the previous section, the five major promotion tools often used in marketing are: advertising, personal selling, sales promotions, direct marketing, and public relations (Kotler and Keller, 2006):

Advertising

Advertising stands for any paid form of non-personal communication. This applies to an organization, product, service or an idea. It attracts the awareness of the consumer, thus generating sales (Belch and Belch, 2001; Fill, 1999). Advertising is the most common form of promotion, and constitutes a major topic of investigation and management in its own right. It is also the dominating form of promotion when it comes to marketing attractions and destinations (Fyall, Garrod, and Leask, 2003). A major decision when it comes to advertising is the selection of the media type that will best convey the desired message to the target market. The most commonly used Medias are television, radio, newspapers and magazines, brochures and the Internet (Kotler and Armstrong, 2004; Lawton and Weaver, 2005).

Personal selling

Personal selling is where the salespeople communicate with the customers in the target market. It has the advantages of two-way communication, sending sale messages to the customers, and ultimately decreases customer resistance. In spite of these merits, the expenses involved in the personal selling technique are high. In addition, personal selling has small message coverage, and sometimes, the sales message may be inconsistent (Belch and Belch, 2004).

Sales promotion

Sales promotions utilize diverse short-term techniques to induce customer awareness, with the goal of interesting customers to purchase products or services. For short-term retailing market, sales promotion is a powerful tool, tempting customers to make impulse purchases. They tend to add an extra buying motive, encourage the customer to buy other non-promoted products/services, and ultimately reduce inventory level (Honea and Dahl, 2005; Laroche, Pons, Zgolli, Cervellon, and Kim, 2003).

Direct marketing

In the direct marketing strategy, products/services are launched to the target market directly, through which, there could be timely buying, selective contacts, savings of time, and an increase in convenience (Reardon and McCorkle, 2002). Direct marketing is an increasingly popular technique as it enables marketers to target specific customer groups very accurately. It is a flexible way to deliver a message because each letter can be personalized and the chances of a response are greatly improved. The overall success

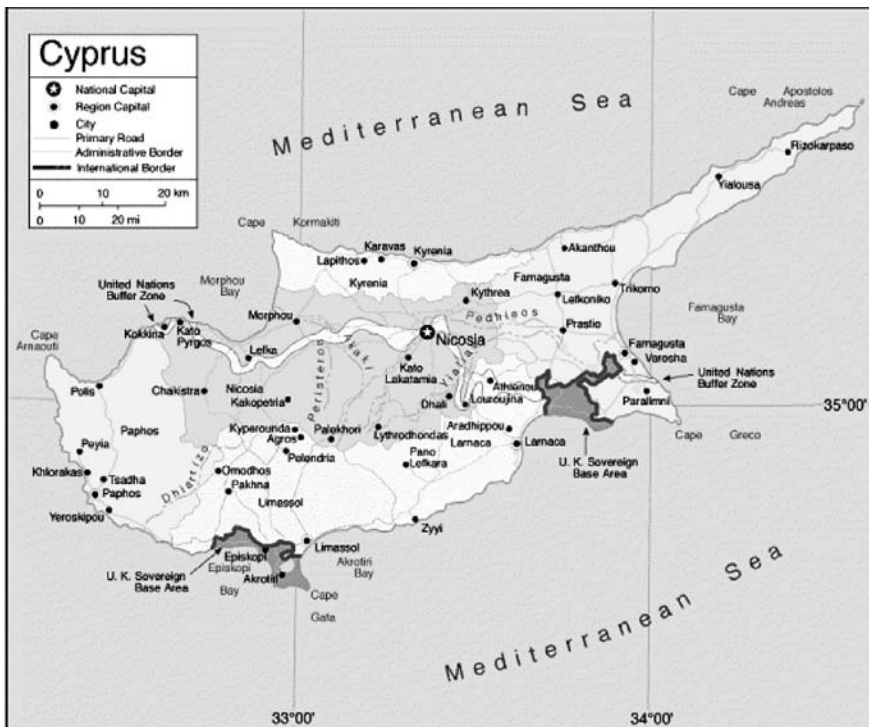
of a campaign can also be directly measured in terms of the number of responses received.

Public relations

Public relations can help a company build a communicable, understandable, acceptable, and cooperative relationship with consumers. Generally, a company that is perceived as devoted to protecting the environment, donating money to charitable organizations, obeying the law, or doing something good for the community, or utilizes other public relations activities to enhance goodwill, tends to have a brand name that attracts new customers, and strengthens customer loyalty, ultimately increasing profits (Belch and Belch, 2004).

Contribution of Tourism in North Cyprus

Cyprus is the third largest island in the Mediterranean Sea (see Picture 2). It occupies an area of 9851 km. (3572 square miles). It lies 60km. south of the coast of Turkey, 96 km. west of the coast of Syria, and 322 km. distant from Greece.



Picture 2. Cyprus map

The Republic of Cyprus gained its independence from Britain in 1960. Today, the island has two parts: North – administered by Turks, and South

– administered by Greeks since 1974. Travel and tourism industry is the one of the main generators of income for north Cyprus economy. The tourism industry contributed \$450 million to the GDP of north Cyprus and created 9.224 jobs in 2010 which is about 9% in the total employment. The ratio of net tourism income to the trade balance was 43.1% in 2009. The north Cyprus tourism industry hosted 480.514 tourists, with its 134 accommodation establishments and the bed capacity of 16.177 (see Table 1), main tourist markets have been Turkey, Britain and Germany with an annual occupancy was 34.4 % in 2010 (Statistical Yearbook of Tourism, 2010).

Table 1: Number of establishment in tourism sector in 2010

Type of Establishment	Number of Establishments	Number of Employee
Tourist Accommodation Est.	119	3,321
Other Accom. Est.	15	43
Tourism & Travel Agencies	144	340
Casinos	25	3,567
Tourist Restaurants	360	1,953
Total	663	9,224

Source: North Cyprus Statistical Yearbook of Tourism

Existing Tourism Alternatives of North Cyprus

Eco-Agro Tourism

Gaining wide popularity as an alternative to mass tourism, tourists have been exhibiting a greater tendency to travel to experience different lifestyles, cultures, and cuisines in different countries. Northern Cyprus as a mosaic of numerous civilizations and cultures possesses and offers various creative investment opportunities for eco and agro tourism products. Northern Cyprus has recently started experiencing better diversity in special tourism through numerous events such as Tulip Festival, İskele Traditional Food Festivals, Famagusta Culture and Arts Festival, Büyükkonuk Eco-village/ Eco-day, Mehmetcik Grape Festival, Bellapais Music Festival, and Orchid-walks (Tourism Information Booklet, 2011).

Golf Tourism

A new venue for special interest tourism in northern Cyprus is golf brought to north Cyprus courtesy of Korineum golf course. Located at a 15 minutes driving distance from Kyrenia in the picturesque valley of Esentepe with views of wooded green slopes of the five Finger Mountains on one side and the clear blue waters of the Mediterranean on the other. The golf course is of an international standard with a country club catering to golfers both novice and professionals alike. Its international standards are a first on the island and serve not only the sport of golf but also maintain the beauty of the area in general. The 21 holes course has been professionally designed with the overall length from the tee off to the end being 6,600 yards with water and sand pits. The club offers professional training on 3 holes and the rest for an enjoyable round of 18 holes games (Tourism Information Booklet, 2011).

Scuba Tourism

Scuba diving in northern Cyprus provides the advantages of clear visibility (30 meters plus), warm waters, the chance to see turtles, octopus, grouper, numerous other fish, fascinating coral and plant life. You can see the remains of amphora and other pottery all over the area dating back several thousand years lying undisturbed on the seabed of Mediterranean. The oldest wreck in the world (carbon dated to 300 BC) was found just off Girne (Kyrenia). She sank in heavy seas and now complete with her cargo is housed in a special museum at the castle, but there remain on the seabed many artifacts where she went down. North Cyprus has one of the longest dive seasons in the world, running from April right through until almost Christmas. The lack of tides mean even beginners can learn in safety in the warm waters of the Mediterranean, and dive amongst rocks and fish on their very first lesson. Great dive sites in northern Cyprus include wrecked ships, reef formations, caves, cuts and canyons that team with wildlife. Also, there are ancient sites to explore, which featuring Roman remains (Tourism Information Booklet, 2011).

Turtle Watching

There are two types of turtles “*Caretta Caretta*” and “*Chelonia Mydas*”. Both of them prefer the beaches of northern Cyprus for laying eggs. Approximately 300 – 400 of *Caretta Carettas* which are today almost extinct in the Mediterranean and whose population is thought to be 2000, lay eggs on Alagadi Beach in northern Cyprus. The other type of turtles *Chelonia Mydas* lay eggs on the Karpaz beaches. Tourists who are on holiday in north Cyprus are interested in the days on which turtles release their eggs (Tourism Information Booklet, 2011).

Bird Watching

It is possible to watch 347 different species of bird in Cyprus. However, only 46 of these are native of Cyprus, and 7 of these are endemic sub-species (only found in Cyprus). 119 out of the 347 birds that can be observed on the island are of winter-migrant breeder type, and 90 of these migrate to Cyprus regularly every winter. 29 of these winter-migrants migrate to the island less regularly than others. Together with the native Cypriot birds 27 of them migrate to Cyprus for breeding purposes. Apart from these, there are 220 other species of birds that use Cyprus in transit while migrating to other lands (Tourism Information Booklet, 2011).

Health Tourism

With its unspoiled nature, warm weather, and the local hospitality together with other facilities, northern Cyprus provides a suitable environment for developing various health tourism products, specifically care homes for elderly tourists. Convenient airports, the availability of

health care services, and qualified multilingual human resources enable both local and foreign guests to spend some of their precious time in serenity and joy. There are several chain hotels located in the island offer SPA services to their customers and guests, such as Accor Mercure Hotel, Kaya Artemis Resort, Noahs Ark Deluxe Hotel, and Cratos Premium Hotel.

Culture, History and Belief Tourism

The effects, historical inheritance and cultures belonging to Egypt, Hittites, Finike, Greeks and from Greek, Byzantines, Venetians, Lusignan, Ottoman and English influences are still found in Cyprus. They provide a rich mosaic of culture and history (Hakeri, 1993, pp. 40-87).

Today, Salamis, the administrative and religious center of the island during the Byzantine period (395-1191), is within the borders northern Cyprus, and is an attractive place for tourists. St. Barnabas, in a visit to Palestine met Jesus and worked for the spreading of Christianity. Today, there exists a church and a monastery built under the name of Saint Barnabas, one of the 12 Apostles of Jesus, where his tomb was found. Within this enormous building, antiquities from that period are exhibited (Gurkan, 1982, pp. 15-16).

One of the capitals of the 9 kingdoms present in Cyprus in the 4th Century BC was Lapithos, which consists of today's Kyrenia villages Lapta and Karava. Lapithos gained its fame and importance from the richness of its people during the first years of Christianity and the ancient Byzantine period. In the meantime, its name has been changed to "Lambousa," meaning "shiny." Today, in Lambousa, famous for its richness, are an ancient church and a monastery (Gurkan 1982, pp. 16-17). The Cathedral of St Nicolas, built by Guy Ibelin between the years 1298 and 1312, is a good example of Middle Age Gothic architecture. Within the cathedral are the tombs of the Lusignan Kings, James II and his son, James III (Metin, 1959, pp. 218-219).

Some of the historical buildings that can be seen in the north of Cyprus were built by the Venetians and are frequently visited by tourists. What is today the symbol of Nicosia, the Dikilitas, is a Venetian construction and a long time ago carried the emblem of the Venetian Republic and a lion's sculpture. The historical bridge in Gocmenkoy, the Museum of Stone Goods, some parts of the walls around Nicosia and Famagusta, and some parts of the Kyrenia castle were built by the Venetians.

Buildings such as the Kantara and Bufavento castles, and the Apostle Andreas Monastery, which is a favorite of the Christian visitors to the Karpaz, are potential tourist attractions that provide living examples of the history and an alternative product to its competitors in the tourism sector that are attracting believers.

Overview of Finland

Finland is one of the Nordic countries of Northern Europe. Its capital city Helsinki is northernmost national capital on European continent with a population of about 588,195 inhabitants concentrated on small southwestern coastal plain. There are two official languages in Finland Finnish and Swedish. However, nowadays many young Finns also speak quite many other foreign languages of which English is the most popular. Finland is bordered by Sweden, Norway and Russia. The country has a land area of 338,424 sq km and a population of about 5.37 million (Finnish Population Centre, 2010). Finland gained independence from the Soviet Union on 6th December 1917. Finland has an industrial economy based on abundant forest resources, capital investments, and high technology. The Finnish economy has made enormous strides since the severe recession of the early 1990s. It is considered one of the best performing economies in the European Union and Europe. According to the Ministry of Finance (2010) in Finland GDP is EUR 170.9 billion, the inflation rate is 1.2%, the GDP per capita income is EUR 32,025 respectively and unemployment rate is 7.9%.

Market trends

Finland is a prime candidate for outbound tourism and travel due to the cold climate and long winters, combined with high per capita wealth and spending power. The country is known to be egalitarian, with relatively equal distribution of wealth and incomes. Thus outbound travel is easily affordable and within reach of practically all classes of the society. According to Finnish Tourist Board (2010), Finnish residents aged 15 to 74 made a total of 5.6 million leisure trips abroad. Twenty-nine per cent of them were destined to Estonia, 25% to Sweden and 7% to other neighboring areas (Russia, Norway, Denmark, Latvia and Lithuania). In all, 3.4 million leisure trips were made to the neighboring areas (see Table 1). The number was up by 267,000 trips. Over this decade only in 2004 the number of trips has grown more than now. In 2010, 42 percent of leisure trips with overnight stays in the destination country, that is, 1.5 million trips, were package tours bought from travel agencies including at least travel to the destination and accommodation. At the beginning of this decade still more than one half, 55% were package tours (Official Statistics of Finland, 2010). Summer is the high season for both the domestic and outbound travel. About 40 percent of the foreign travel takes place in June, July and August. Bookings are typically made four to six months in advance however lead times are becoming shorter. Visiting friends and relatives is usually the most important reason for choosing a domestic destination and sun and sand, city destinations and adventure for outbound travel. However, the trend is that more travelers are looking for individual packages and are interested in various activities such as local culture, nature and sports. While many Finns choose packages, a fast growing number

of Finns are moving to more individual travel. About 25-30% of travelers are purchasing airfare only and making other travel arrangements on their own. Normally Finns enjoy a four-week summer vacation and a one-week winter vacation. Therefore, travel abroad is spread throughout the year. The busiest long haul travel period is June-October, June, July, and August is the most popular months for leisure travel. September-October and April-May in the spring are the so-called mid seasons. Four trends have been particularly important for Finnish holidaymaker in recent years. Firstly, there is growing trend for alternative forms of tourism. For example nature based holiday, eco-tourism, cultural holiday, and activity holiday. In short haul travel, consumers are increasingly moving towards independent options, particularly driven by low cost carriers, operators and agencies are beginning to develop modular and customized packages, also for long haul destinations in part driven by demand, in part by higher margins, more so than other European markets packages and independent travel are increasingly sold in trip type categories as opposed to geographic. Finnish travel to north Cyprus has mainly been by independent travelers and has traditionally and certainly been influenced by visiting friends and relatives and business travel.

Table 2: Finnish residents' trips abroad by destination country in 2010

Country	Leisure Trips			
	Same-day visits	Cruises overnight on board only	Overnight in destination country	All leisure trips
Estonia	530000	389000	718000	1636000
Sweden	148000	868000	378000	1394000
Spain			390000	390000
Germany			169000	171000
Russia	54000		125000	179000
Italy			173000	173000
United Kingdom			141000	141000
Greece			164000	164000
Norway			91000	91000
France			111000	111000
Thailand			121000	121000
Turkey			104000	104000
USA			88000	88000
Denmark			52000	52000
Austria			41000	41000
Egypt			53000	53000
Cyprus			21000	21000
Israel			11000	11000
India			15000	15000

Source: Finnish Tourist Board

Method

The research has been conducted based on both primary and secondary data. As it was mentioned earlier that the existing literature on

the promotional aspects of north Cyprus tourism and even on the overall marketing aspects is not adequate, the study was done on the primary data collected through semi-structured interview on the use of promotion mix activities by north Cyprus tourism industry in order to attract Finnish tourists. Secondary data was also used in this study. To collect the secondary data, annual reports of both north Cyprus and Finland, tourism planning office, related journals, periodicals, newspapers, WTTC web page etc. were consulted and used as references. In view of the exploratory nature of this research, it was decided that qualitative research was most appropriate. In-depth, face to face interviews was identified as suitable technique for broadening the scope of the research and to raise further issues that would subsequently underpin a quantitative research. Creswell (2004) posits that personal interviews are one of the best ways to obtain or collect primary data. Following the formal communication in the form of telephone inquiry, data was gathered by means of eight phenomenological interviews held at the interviewee's offices with the conveniently identified travel and tourism industry organizations in north Cyprus. The reason for this approach was because the meeting the interviewees on site and face-to-face would provide detailed answers. It would also give the ability to respond to situations that come up during the interviews and ask the interviewee to develop or explain an answer better. Interviewing people in their own environment may give the interviewee a stronger feeling of security, which could improve the quality of the answers (Yin, 2003). Furthermore, the opportunity for feedback to respondent would be a distinct advantage in face-to-face interviews. Not only was there the opportunity to reassure the respondents who would have been reluctant to participate, but the author was also able as interviewer to clarify certain instructions or questions.

Interviews were tape recorded and later transcribed for analysis purpose. The author of the study conducted the interviews, then processed and consolidated the data that required some data cleaning, summarizing, organizing, and coding to so that the data was ready to be analyzed. Comparative analysis technique was used when analyzing the qualitative data.

The interviews were carried out with the four executive managers from the Association of Cyprus Turkish Travel Agencies (KITSAB) member organizations, the one executive manager from The Destination Management Organization (tourism ministry of north Cyprus) and the three executive managers from The Northern Cyprus Hoteliers Association (KITOB) member organizations. Interviews lasted for between 40 and 50 minutes. The reason of selecting the respondents from these eight tourism organizations was their well-known position as extensively engaged in marketing activities. So it is reliable and reasonable that interviewing the issue with these main role players from different scopes in the industry would be more reflective on the issue. The selected KITSAB and

KITOB member organizations are the most extensively working tourism organizations on inbound and outbound tourism. Destination Management Organization (DMO) was a unique state-owned organization in the country and directed by tourism ministry of North Cyprus, which is responsible for the destination marketing activities in abroad.

Findings

The following discussion presents the research findings within the context of the questions based on the research themes. The interview questions addressed a range of subjects; awareness of Finnish tourist market and Finnish holidaymakers' travel patterns, target market for the promotional activities, and the barriers against the promotional efforts. When interviewees raised issues not directly prompted by the questions, they were permitted even encouraged to discuss them. The flexible, informal nature of the interviews meant that fresh and sometimes surprising perspectives were revealed.

Awareness of Finnish tourist market and Finnish holidaymakers' travel patterns

According to the explanations of DMO's executive as the planning and marketing manager in tourism ministry of north Cyprus, many Finnish tourists were bring to north Cyprus tourism destination up to ends of 1990s through the effort of some tour operators located in the country but today, only small number of Finnish tourists visited north Cyprus and they most probably passed from south Cyprus border gates. Actually, Finnish market would be very fruitful tourist market for the country especially for the period of low season that is between October and April because there is no occupancy problem of the north Cyprus tourism at the summer season. Finland is a cold country where centigrade are ranging from freezing 0C to - 30C being common in the winter months (November- March), whereas, the average centigrade in the destination is ranging from 20-25 in the low season that is between November and March, this geographical feature of the north Cyprus tourism destination could be an advantage in attracting exclusively the old generation of Finnish people. Exclusively the old generation, because, north Cyprus is not a tourism destination that provides much activities for young generation anyway, it is mostly famous for nature tourism with its favorable climate that makes a season of "sun, sea, sand" tourism possible along the whole year, its environment is relatively unspoiled, peaceful and safe living environments prevail, and historical, cultural, and religious riches give unique absolute and competitive advantage to north Cyprus compared to its regional rivals. In addition to his statements, he said that, because of the economic power and the cold climate and long winters, Finland people are mostly candidate for outbound tourism and many of Finnish travelers are looking for individual packages

and are interested in various activities such as local culture, nature and sports. So he stressed that, “north Cyprus tourism destination is one of the most suitable tourism destination that can meet the needs and expectations of Finnish holiday makers”. On the other hand, according to the statements of the two executives from KITSAB member organizations, Scandinavian tourist market was already in their agenda. Due to Finland possesses high capita for per person, the routine holiday trends, and the very cold geographical location of the region, north Cyprus is a very suitable tourism destination for Finnish tourist profile. The Finland government exclusively encourages its over 65 year’s age population to make holiday three times in a year, for example; Turkey hosts thousands of Finnish tourists for the health tourism activity in the area of Pamukkale that is famous for health tourism. North Cyprus has no health tourism brand anyway, mostly the north Cyprus brand is developing on ‘sun, sea, sand’ tourism, ecotourism, casino tourism and cultural tourism activities which might be the expectations of Finnish tourists. Similar statements were given by the executives from KITOB member organizations. One of the executives said that;

We are the one of the oldest hotel enterprise in north Cyprus with over a thousand bed capacity, and hosting tourists from many countries like Turkey, England, Germany, Italy, Iran and others as well. We always think about the Finnish market that would be profitable for us but to penetrate a new market might be costly for exclusively the North Cyprus travel and tourism companies due to the lack of direct flights which puts extra expenses on the operation costs such as the mandatory stopover costs in turkey and also big efforts on marketing issues should be spent, because we are unknown tourism destination for Finnish tourists yet.

In addition to this, the all executives stated that, Finland is one the richest country in Europe and so the Finnish people have higher living standards, lower working hours and higher per capita income that give more opportunity to make holiday along the year. Finnish people have more leisure time, for example; due to aiming a healthier community, the Finnish government encourages its officers to make holiday three times in a year. In Finland, There is a growing trend for alternative forms of tourism such as ecotourism, sport tourism, and health tourism. In this regard north Cyprus tourism destination has that kind of capacity to meet the needs of Finnish holidaymakers.

Target market for the promotional activities

Again the DMO’s executive stated that north Cyprus tourism destination focused its marketing strategies on three main tourist markets which are Turkey, Germany and England along with Iran, Italy and etc. According to him, there is no much preparation for Finland tourist market, except thinking, but the tourism ministry attends the eight international

tourism fairs organized around the world in order to find new markets for the country. A cooperative approach is urgently needed by the tourism ministry, the tour operators and the hoteliers of the country in order to plan, organize, and implement the promotional activities in a target market of Finland. He continued that the ministry plays a catalyst role in penetrating new tourist markets, the tour operators should come up with new projects to bring tourist from abroad, then the ministry examines the feasibility of projects and finally assists the tour operators to bring more tourists from a penetrated market or a new target market by providing some incentives. The DMO's executive exclusively stressed that, "to find and penetrate new target markets is not responsibility or duty of the tourism ministry". In short, the travel and tour operators in order to take all kind of physical assistance like finance, should come up with a project to the ministry that shows tourist potential in Finland. The executives from KITSAB member organizations mostly emphasized on the older generation of Finland population as a target market. According to them, the older population over 55 years age accounts for nearly the 30% of overall population and north Cyprus tourist destination generally welcomes middle-aged and older generation of tourists from all around the Europe and Middle East.

North Cyprus tourism destination has many features to meet the needs and expectations of this generation with its 'sun, sea, sand' along the whole year, Unpolluted fresh air, silent and safe living environments. One of the executives stressed that, "according to the general statistics, this Finnish tourist segment prefer to stay long compared to young generation that means more revenue for the country tourism". And they continued that, north Cyprus hotel sector, at that point, should improve some promotions to encourage Finnish holidaymakers to come and stay longer, because the incoming tourists to the island already stay short, so, rather than the number of incoming tourists to the country, the amount of foreign exchange left by that tourists matters. None of the tour operators have been penetrated the Finland tourist market yet. For example, they focused on the packet tour which are sold with better prices in the Middle East region than as it is in north Cyprus. So, the executives want the hoteliers to give them competitive prices to penetrate in the Finland market. According to the KITOB member organizations, the Finnish market could be a very profitable market for north Cyprus tourism, so, a serious and urgent attempt by the tour operators is necessary. When the hotel executives were asked about the target market, they said that, they were planning to penetrate the Finnish tourist market by aiming target market of the older generation. Two of the executives stated that, while penetrating the Finnish market which is a new market for north Cyprus destination, to focus on a target market is very important, otherwise it would be costly or fiasco to try to attract all prospective holidaymakers in Finland. Because, north Cyprus tourism destination has already some handicaps compared to other regional rivals, for example; the lack of direct

flights would raise operational cost terminates the comparable advantage, which means more expensive holiday packages compared to Turkey or south Cyprus. As a result, they stressed that, “the tour operators would have to spend more and more endeavor to attract Finnish holidaymakers”. Although this, many thousands of tourists from abroad are familiar with north Cyprus tourism, this is off course the result of cooperative endeavor spent by the north Cyprus travel and tourism industry. And finally, all of the executives continued that, the north Cyprus destination is mostly visited by middle-aged and older generation tourists, but this does not mean that the hoteliers and the tour operators would prefer to target the older generation of the Finnish population. Most of the hotels are activity-based hotels with their infrastructural capacity to meet the needs of both young and older generations. Therefore, the target market in Finland for the hotel sector would be both the older and young generations respectively.

Barriers against the promotional efforts

As it is known, north Cyprus is a new emerging tourism destination country which encounters embargoes for the years such as the politically unrecognized position of the country. Although this, the country should improve itself at marketing activities that is the only way of recognition all around the world, therefore this part accounts for the main issue of the research study. According to the statements of the DMO's executive, different countries have different understanding of promotion, for example; the most efficient way of advertising in north Cyprus is word of mouth and newspapers, the brochures are very important for Germans and TV is very influential promotional tool in England. Here again he stressed that, “the tour operators assess the best promotion tool for a target market, the tourism ministry is responsible for assisting at every stage of marketing process”. And he continued that, north Cyprus could be a suitable tourism destination for Finnish travelers, but unfortunately there is no any attempt especially for Finland market. Today, north Cyprus tourism is presented at the eight big tourism fairs in the world. Although the uncontrollable external factors such as the unrecognized statue of the country, the lack of direct flights, and south Cyprus' political pressures of preventing prospective tourists to not to visit north Cyprus. These factors creates extra burden on the operational costs for the travel and tourism industry. Nevertheless, the tourism ministry is attending the fairs together with the private tourism sector with a maximum preparation and cooperative approach to attract new markets. Based on the statements given by the executives of KITSAB member organizations, a brochure gives the first impression about a tourism product, so they always attend the international tourism fairs and stands ready with well-prepared brochures and demonstrations to attract prospective visitors. According to features of target markets, other kinds of promotional tools are also used along with brochures. And they stressed that, “if we want to attain a share

from Finland tourist market, we should certainly analyze the market and use an effective promotional tool, otherwise causes a lost of money". They agreed on the financial contribution of the tourism ministry which balances the operational costs at the same level of other regional tourist destinations' costs and that is why it is vital to be able to stand profitable in the region due to the unavailability of direct flights that increases the costs. But, they complained about the bulky structure of the ministry and they said "tourism ministry should encourage us to penetrate the Finnish market, we are limited of finance and professional cadre". Two of the executives, at the beginning, are planning to grasp a Finnish tourist market share through the Turkish tour operators which bring Finnish tourists to Turkey, because they are already familiar with the Finnish market. Over one hundred thousand Finnish tourists visited Turkey which is a well-known tourism destination in the world and the flight proximity between Turkey and north Cyprus is only 30 minutes from the city of Antalya tourism destination, so through some negotiations with the Turkish tour operators, small percentage of the prospective Finnish tourists can take the small part of their holidays in north Cyprus. According to the executives, this combined travel would be a first step and give an opportunity to be familiar with Finnish tourists and vice versa. The following plan of the executives is to use effective promotion tools in the target market that would be the older generation at the first stage. Finnish tourists' travel patterns look like English's who are mostly visiting north Cyprus. For example, one of the executive said, "we have many experiences in English tourist market where the demonstrative promotion tools are effective, such as TV, magazines, and billboards". And he continued that, the leading magazines mostly read by the target people in Finland would be analyzed for advertisement and also, some billboards in the target market might be used for advertisement which would reflect the tourism products of north Cyprus destination brand that could be a 'sea, sun, sand' tourism concept in winter time in north Cyprus. In addition, the internet marketing is very important and getting popular all around the world and nearly over 20% of Finnish travelers are doing their reservations through online bookings which provides many kind of promotions as well. But, according to the executives, north Cyprus has no well-known tourism brand yet and it is face to face some political dilemmas like bad word of mouth by southern Cyprus. Also, north Cyprus has no effective on-line system to reach the potential tourists for the destination, so it is not preferable to make online reservation for the first time prospective visitors who are not familiar with north Cyprus tourism at all. In addition to these explanations, some important statements were also given by the executives of KITO member organizations, who stated that the only way of succeeding to get a market share from Finland is effective promotions through a Finnish travel and tour operator. Marketing of north Cyprus with its unknown brand in Finland calls for a cooperative business approach with the Finnish tour operators which operate in the Mediterranean region.

After a negotiation with a selected tour operator, charter flights might be arranged from Finland to north Cyprus and from north Cyprus to Finland with very short-time stopovers in Turkey. All of the executives were agree that, most of the young generations in Finland prefer to make reservations through online bookings which offer big discounts anyway, but according to them, none of those would prefer to make online reservation for an unknown tourism destination. So, marketing through internet that is very popular would not be attractive tool for the tour operators. The all executives accept the importance of Finnish tourist market for the destination, but it was interesting that, none of the selected organizations for interview did not make any attempt for this market, because the high costs makes them unwilling to attempt. They generally focus on the close markets like Turkey. When the executives were asked about the promotion tools, they focused on the brochures that would play a great role in communication of the hotel products and services to prospective Finnish holidaymakers. Using of other kind of promotion tools, such as TV and magazines could be also more effective in the following promotional process. The executives continued that, the brochures take place in offices of negotiated Finnish tour operator to be distributed from here to prospective holidaymakers all around Finland. And they finally stressed that, “a well-designed web page prepared in both Finnish and English is also needed for the Cypriot tour operators in order to attract the prospective Finnish holidaymakers because no one would buy a holiday without examining the destination would be visited”.

Results

Importance of the Finnish tourist market together with the barriers against the promotional efforts of the north Cyprus travel and tourism industry to attract Finnish holidaymakers was discussed. The findings of this research has shown that though north Cyprus tourism destination has the potential tourism attractions to meet the leisure needs and expectations of Finnish holidaymakers, there is no promotional effort by the north Cyprus travel and tourism industry to attract Finnish holidaymakers beyond thinking. According to the interviewees of this research, north Cyprus encounters to the external uncontrollable factors such as the lack of direct flights, bad word of mouth by southern Cyprus and the political instability that puts extra burden on effectively marketing of north Cyprus tourism in the target markets like Finland. However, beyond this, there is a reality that north Cyprus was visited by nearly 500 000 tourists from different countries (England, Turkey, Germany, Italy, and Iran etc.) in 2010 (Statistical Yearbook of Tourism, 2010). This claims the need for a promotional effort for the Finnish tourist market.

First of all, the executives interviewed in this research were mostly aware of Finland and the Finnish people. They exclusively emphasized

on 'sea, sun and sand' tourism product which fits the Finnish tourist profile due to the cold climate geography of Finland. Secondly, the higher living standards of Finnish people along with their demographic structure that Finland has mostly the older population, was the another important advantage for the north Cyprus tourism destination, because the north Cyprus tourism destination with its silent, unspoiled, peaceful, and safe living environments generally hosts the middle-aged and older tourist generations. There is a reality expressed by the executives that the north Cyprus travel and tourism industry is generally familiar with the older tourist generation from different countries such as England, Germany, and Turkey etc. The executives have ideas to penetrate the Finnish market by targeting this generation, because they have big experiences about the needs and expectations of this generation and the destination has very fitting features to the Finnish tourist profile.

Finally, examination of the likely effects of promotion mix and the barriers against the promotional efforts were the main issues of this research discussed with the executives who explained about their thoughts on this issue. The research showed that the most important factor preventing to get a competitive advantage for the north Cyprus island destination is the higher costs which mostly affected by the uncontrollable external factors. Most importantly by the lack of direct flights which puts extra burden on travelers and so may create unwillingness to take holiday in the island. Nevertheless, the monetary part of this cost is tried to be at the same level with the other rivals in the region through the incentives given by the tourism ministry of north Cyprus to related travel and tourism organizations. The executives participated in this research were slow and sure about directly embark upon the promotional activities in Finland. Rather, at the first stage, they are planning to negotiate in conjunction with Turkish and Finnish travel and tour operators already operate in the Mediterranean region to bring Finnish holidaymakers to the island. Then they would try to attract the target market in Finland through the advertisements such as brochures, magazines, billboards and TV. In addition, the popularity and importance of marketing through internet and the increasing trend for online booking by Finnish holidaymakers was also mentioned by the author to the executives, but the findings showed that the unknown tourism brand of north Cyprus in Finland weakens the possibility of online individual booking by exclusively the first-time holidaymakers who want to purchase holiday in north Cyprus tourism destination. And the on-line network system of north Cyprus is not much effective. The study also found that the organizations have human resource and financial limitations to succeed in the Finnish tourist market and the tourism ministry stays bulky to lead the industry. Also, the most important result of this research is that the travel and tourism industry has marketing myopia on Finnish tourist market, though the tourism ministry gives incentives to balance the operational costs at the same level of the other rivals in the region.

Conclusion, Implications, and Limitations

Specifically, this study makes useful practical implications for the practitioners and some useful contributions to the hospitality marketing literature. The present study shows the attractiveness of the Finnish tourist market for north Cyprus tourism destination and contends that the north Cyprus tourism industry has marketing myopia on this market.

North Cyprus tourism destination is developing and already hosts thousands of tourists in a year, but the current study depicts that the north Cyprus travel and tourism industry has marketing myopia on the Finnish market. Consonant with the results reported in other studies (Belch and Belch, 2001; Fill, 1999; Kotler and Armstrong, 2004; Lawton and Weaver 2005; Millner and Lees, 2007), this study also suggests that the promotion mix tool may have a significant positive impact on the purchasing behaviors of Finnish tourists.

As it was mentioned in the literature part, the tourism in north Cyprus, as a state policy, was identified as the locomotive sector for economic development. However, the tourism could not meet the expectations due to the internal and external factors; infrastructural problems, poor marketing effort, the lack of direct flights to the country, the politically unrecognized position (Alipour and Kilic, 2005; Altinay et al., 2002; Arasli et al., 2006; Safakli, 2010). Despite the existing managerial and external problems, north Cyprus is an exceptional tourist destination providing a diverse range of tourism opportunities to tourists from all around Europe and Asia.

Consequently, the study findings point to a number of implications for managerial action. Based on the research interviews, this study aimed to show a light for the north Cyprus travel and tourism industry managers who were late to attack in the Finland tourist market which would be very profitable one. Firstly, under the leadership of the tourism ministry, KITO and KITSAB member organizations should come together with the projects to discuss the promotion mix alternatives that would be effectively used in Finland. Secondly, the hoteliers in the destination should provide reasonable price and diverse products & services alternative to the Cypriot tour operators to be able to compete in the market. Thirdly, a tourism office should be opened in Finland for marketing researches and to find and negotiate with the Finnish tour operators operate in the Middle East and Turkey would be very important. Fourthly, nearly hundred thousand of Finnish travelers visited Turkey last year, so the Turkish tour operators should be contacted to benefit from their experiences. New business alternatives might be developed with them.

There are limitations to this current empirical investigation. The effect of the promotional mix tools on purchasing behavior might be measured with financial values in a case study in order to see a comparable effect

of the promotion mix components on purchasing behaviors. The current study conducted a qualitative method in hospitality setting. A quantitative future research study in hospitality and other settings is needed for better reliability and generalization of the research.

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Tourism Marketing: An Empirical Study Assessing the Destination Image of Delhi, India

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Abstract: *The aim of the study is to explore and assess the various attributes tourists' associate with Delhi, India thus developing the image of the destination in their mind. For this study a survey has been conducted during June-August of 2011 in Delhi city on a sample of 100 domestic and 100 foreign tourists. Factor analysis and mean score comparison methods were used to identify important factors which are responsible for assessing the destination image of Delhi, India. The study finds that along with many tangible and intangible factors, places to visit, option to act, liaison, environment, services and popularity are among the important factors for assessment of destination image of Delhi. This study also shows that foreign tourists have felt better in terms of finding Delhi as stimulating and relaxing but also they feel more expenses made while visiting Delhi and its places. For networking, domestic tourists have found this place very beneficial and their perspectives of developing links for business and other social network. Foreign tourists have found Delhi crowded, polluted, not very clean and safe. Further, the paper discusses some of the policy suggestions for improving Delhi as an international tourist destination. Finally, scope of further research and limitation of the study are spelt out.*

Keywords: Delhi, destination image, domestic & foreign tourists.

Introduction

In the spring of 2001, the Indian Tourist Bureau launched a campaign aimed at creating a counter-message image. In the campaign, India is presented as a peaceful, beautiful and spiritual place. Repositioning India as counter to the common stereotype is an efficient way to change the negative image of the country¹. The Ministry of Tourism has made various efforts

¹ Kozak, M. and Andreu L. (2006) Progress in Tourism Marketing, Elsevier, UK (pg. 118)

to expand the tourism infrastructure at various destinations in India. These efforts are a judicious blend of traditions, legacy, religion and ecotourism projects that intend to offer the tourists a holistic experience. The Indian tourism sector is also linked with important sectors such as transportation, infrastructure, and handicraft, which further helps in the growth and development of the country. India is well known for its natural resources (ranked 8th) and cultural resources (24th) with many World Heritage sites, both natural and cultural; rich fauna, many fairs and exhibitions and strong creative industries. India also has quite good air transport (ranked 39th), particularly given the country's stage of development, and reasonable ground transport infrastructure (ranked 43rd), reports (The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report - 2011, World Economic Forum, Geneva, Switzerland).

The Foreign tourist arrivals (FTAs) during the month of March 2011 was 5,07,000 as compared to FTAs of 4,72,000 during the month of March 2010. A growth rate of 7.4 per cent in March 2011 was recorded. The sector has witnessed a steady growth from four million travelers in 1998 to 11 million in 2008. As expected, the figure is intended to reach a mark of 29 million visitors by 2018. There is an opportunity in the inbound MICE sector (meetings, incentives, conventions and events) which has already registered a growth of 15 per cent to 20 per cent during the last five years (India Tourism Statistics, Government of India - 2010).

A Brief Review about Delhi as a Tourist Place

Delhi is believed to be 'DIL' of India. Delhi today, has extended its urban area spread over some 1473 square km. Delhi is also an ancient settlement and can claim over 3000 years of inhabitation if reference is to be made to Indraprastha. It features historic attractions tracing our evolution from the past to the present (Mishra, 2003). Here the past coexists with the present. India presents unique challenges to heritage management because of the present rapid development eroding its architectural heritage. Delhi, as a potential World Heritage City is often compared to Rome and would deserve more attention. There is lot of interest in conservation among local elites and communities, but problems persist in the capacity of human resources to respond with technical and managerial competence (Albert et al, 2007).

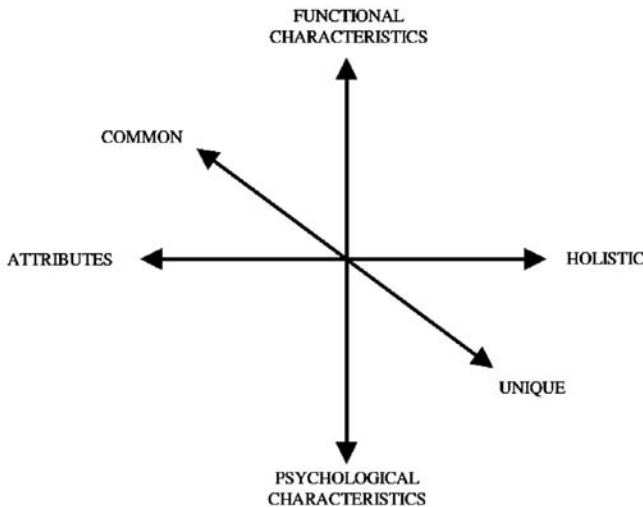
According to a report of Incredible India (2011), 2.92 million foreign tourists arrived in India between Jan-June in 2011 with estimated foreign exchange earnings of US \$ 7811 million. In Delhi only 18,93,650 foreign tourists visited in 2010 with 10.6% share of total foreign visits in India (India State Ranking Survey 2011). According to a website of tourism forum (starktourism.com) 13,558,000 domestic tourists visited Delhi in 2010. In India Delhi has been given 3rd rank after the survey in which the states

were evaluated on the basis of eleven parameters which were Luxury Tax on Hotels, State Expenditure on Tourism, Tourist Arrivals, GDP Per Capita, Effectiveness of Marketing Campaign, Urbanization, Road and Railway Infrastructure, Aircraft Movement, Literacy Rates and Intangible Aspects. The world heritage monuments of Delhi include Humayun's Tomb, Qutab Minar and Red Fort. The religious places Akshardham Temple, Bahai Temple, Jama Masjid, Birla Mandir, Nizam-ud-din Shrine, International Society for Krishna Consciousness (ISKCON) Temple, Chattarpur Mandir, Bala Hanuman Temple, St. James Church, Aurobindo Ashram substantiate the existence of many religious places in one destination thus supporting unity in diversity. Other attractions like Chandni Chowk, Alai Minar, Botanical Gardens, Coronation Durbar Site, Crafts Museum, Firoz Shah Kotla, Hauz Khas, Iron Pillar, Jantar Mantar, Khuni Darwaza, Lahore Gate, Purana Quila, Raj Ghat, Safdar Jung Tomb, Shalimar Bagh, Spice Market, National Museum and Tughlaqabad Fort provide lot of options for the visitors to have diverse experience of knowledge, history and shopping (India State Ranking Survey 2011). Various events organized in Pragati Maidan and India habitat centre augment the scope of business travellers to benefit. Thus there is an existence of so many diverse reasons to visit Delhi.

Destination Image

Destination image is highly discussed by both researchers and tourism marketers (Hunt, 1975; Echtner and Ritchie, 1993, 2003; Coshall 2000; Tapachai and Waryszak 2000; Sirakaya et al., 2001; Cai, 2002; Awartiefe, 2004; Bonn et al., 2005; Obenour et al., 2005; Casto, 2007; Albert 2007; Gover et al., 2007; Murphy et al., 2007, Tasci et al., 2007, Govers et al., 2007; Phau et al., 2010; Greaves and Skinner, 2010; Evangelista and Dioko, 2011). Although there is lot of scope in tourism sector, but to enhance the marketability of the tourism, its likeability has to be developed in the minds of the prospects. This development is possible when there is clear understanding of the tourists and prospects expectations and perceptions of the places or the destinations they select to visit. Destinations depend on their image for attracting tourists (Ephron, 1996; Balakrishnan et al., 2011; Brezovec, 2004; Ekinici and Hosany, 2006; Phau, 2010). Destination images influence tourists' travel decision making and behavior towards a destination as well as satisfaction levels and recollection of the experience. Therefore, perceived images are the basis of the evaluation or selection process and thus provide the link between motivations and destination selection (O'Leary, and Deegan, 2005). For the sustainable development of tourism in destination areas there is an ongoing need for research that examines the perceptions of tourists for the destination chosen. Travel decisions are influenced by a number of factors as tourists mentally categorize destinations. Image is believed to have a rather strong effect on tourists' choice of destination. Destination image became a focus

of tourism research in the early 1970s, and attention to this construct increased in the 1990s (Tasci et al. 2007). There are positive and negative associations with a destination, its people and its products, which are difficult to change (Brezovec et al., 2004). Echtner and Ritchie (1993) suggested that destination image consists of three dimensions: attribute-holistic, functional-psychological, and common-unique. These different components should be envisaged in three dimensions and they represent a successful tool in capturing all of the components of destination image



Source: Echtner and Ritchie (1993)

Fig. 1. The components of Destination Image

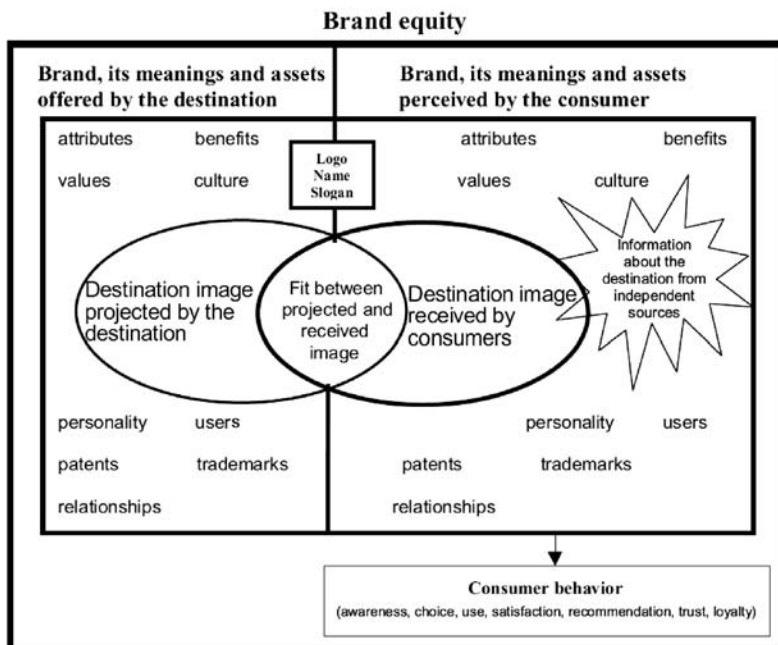
(fig. 1).

Consumers' choice processes are influenced by both psychological variables (motivations, attitudes, beliefs and images) and non-psychological variables (time, destination attributes, perceived costs of tourism product, buyer characteristics and benefits sought). Psychological variables are internal to the consumer, whereas non-psychological variables are the external causes on this process where the latter exert influence on the formation of the former.

The authors have defined Destination Image by taking into account different outlooks, some of the definitions are mentioned below:

According to Cai (2002), 'The image of a destination brand includes the perceptions about the place as reflected by the associations held in tourist memory.' Coshall (2000) described destination image as the individual's perceptions of the characteristics of destinations. According to Tapachai and Waryszak (2000), 'Destination image is defined to comprise of the image characteristics of a destination that subsequently influence tourists'

decision to visit particular vacation destinations.’ Whereas, Ephron (1996) had termed it as the destination brand which is a cluster of perceptions



Source: Tasci A. and Kozak, M (2006)

Fig. 2. Destination Image and Brand

attached to various destination experiences sold under a specific brand name.

Fig. 2 is a comprehensive model of destination image and its supporting antecedents and outcomes. As it is presented, the image of destination influences the destination brand which further leads to the behavior of consumers or selection of destination by the tourist. Temporal environmental or situational influences can have a dramatic short-term effect on perceived destination image. Some of these factors also have a longer impact on destination image by changing a destination's identity and/or projected image (Gover et al., 2007).

Martineau (1958) proposes that the image is the basis to human behavior such as tourist decision-making and the image becomes more important than objective reality, also not much evidences are there to suggest that an image was much different than a perception (White, 2005).

Hunt (1975) states that images are the impression that people hold about a place in which they do not reside. He also regards tourist destination image as one factor in the tourism decision-making process along with access, population concentration, physical facilities, and intervening opportunities. Thus destination image has to be researched to examine

attributes of tourism destinations as we have observed in that images are critical to the success of any destination.

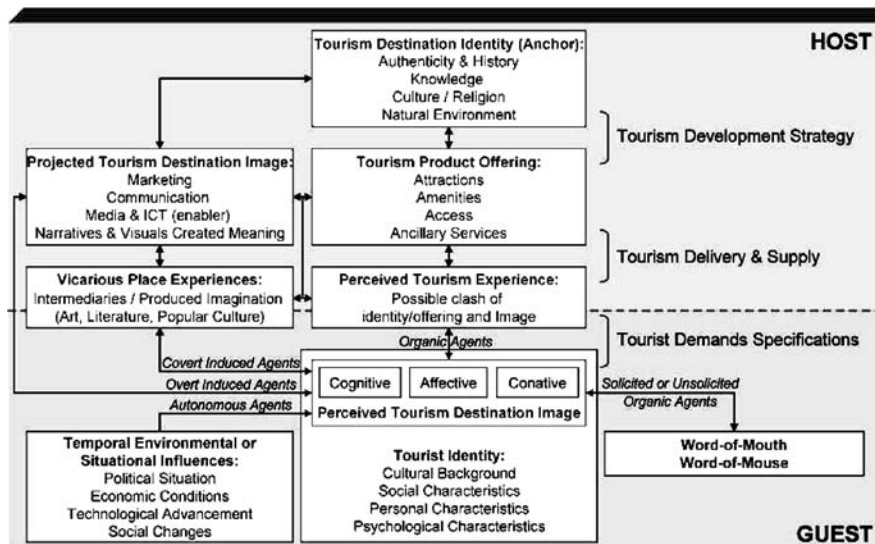
Review of Literature

A number of studies have been attempted to explore and understand the dimensions of destination image across the world and it is imperative to offer an account of the studies so undertaken and the concluding remarks as the outcome of such research under the following order.

A path breaking study by Hunt (1975) demonstrated the importance of the “destination image” in increasing the number of tourists visiting destinations as much as, or even more than, tangible resources while surveying the tourists for four US destinations. Another significant study by Echtner and Ritchie (1993) showed that the tourists’ perceptions of physical attributes, the way they feel about the destination and a single item that requested respondents to state what images or characteristics came to mind when thinking of the destination and suggested that destination image construction consists of three dimensions: attribute-holistic, functional-psychological, and common-unique. A similar type of study by Sirakaya et al., (2001) indicated that tourists can classify the mental pictures and evaluate each image component according to its importance in choosing destinations and also familiarity with the destination acts as a moderator in making decisions. The tourism developers and marketers should take into account these positive and negative image components for further enhancement of image of the destination. Another study by Awaritefe (2004) showed with the help of cluster analysis the preferences to different attributes of destinations in case of tourists and non-tourists. He found that natural attributes, recreational options, income level and transportation facilities as compared to other attributes are more important while selecting the destination.

A different type of study by Bonn et al., (2005) considered two categories of destination attributes in terms of atmospherics and service provided with three groups of visitors to Florida: locals, non-locals/domestic and foreign. They found significant differences in the ratings by these three groups for destination attributes and concluded that geographic origin of visitors is the reason of variations in their perceptions for destination. In similar type of study by Obenour et al. (2005) assessed the image of newly developed nature-based tourist destinations in US and investigated the influence of distance on the image of the destination in an internet survey and found that not all nearby and long-distance geographic markets are uniform. They suggested that distance from destination has to be considered while developing intraregional spots but on-site tourist visitation and activities influence the perception of tourists for destinations making it complex. On the contrary a study on destination personality by Ekinici and Hosany (2006)

empirically surveyed using Aaker's brand personality scale on British tourists. The authors indicated that destination personality has positive impact on perceived destination image and intention to recommend. They also said that tourists ascribe personality characteristics to destinations. A study of Australian destinations by Murphy et al. (2007) also used Aaker's personality descriptors but the authors indicated that personality descriptors were not as common as more attribute-based descriptors when free-elicitation of destination perceptions occurs. The tourists were able to articulate different destination brand personalities for each region and they also provided evidence that Aaker's traditional product brand personality model does not translate directly to tourism destinations. A study by Tasci et al. (2007) discussed the evolutionary nature of tourism destination image studies from both theoretical and operational perspectives and provided necessary adjustments in the methodological rigor and the focus of inquiry for destination image research using Echtner and Ritchie's (1993, 2003) review as a guide. They also provided the extant literature on definitions given by various authors and the methodology used in surveys related to destination image. A similar type of study by Govers et al. (2007) presented a Tourism Destination Image Formation model (Fig. 3) and also suggested, with the help of survey based on seven sample destinations, that tourism promotion does not have a major impact upon the perceptions of travelers and that other sources of information have a much greater bearing on the formation of destination image. As a result, tourism authorities need to understand that successful tourism promotion is dependent on a broad



Source: Govers et al. (2007)

Fig. 3. depicts the destination image formation model and subsequently identifies those elements that have a dynamic impact on how the perceived destination image is framed in the mind of the consumer. This model provides the basis for the comprehensive deconstruction of the destination image pattern.

range of external influences. At the same time, the impact of marketing communication decisions on measurable such as revenue, market share, and costs must be carefully assessed.

Figure 3 depicts the destination image formation model and subsequently identifies those elements that have a dynamic impact on how the perceived destination image is framed in the mind of the consumer. This model provides the basis for the comprehensive deconstruction of the destination image pattern.

The study by Phau et al. (2010) established through their study that perceived destination image is found to predict destination choice intention and also examined the influence of two sources of information, induced and organic, on tourists' perception. Again this a study by Prayag G. (2010) in order to assess the Cape Town's destination image as tourist destination used interview and questionnaire techniques. His study focused on the advantages of both these techniques used for the survey and emphasized the importance of both unstructured and structured ways of determining the brand image of the destination in a balanced way. This study has supported the differences in perception of tourists towards the destination exist because of different motivations to visit the place and demographic characteristics. The authors also suggested the new strategies to be developed on the basis of findings. A recent study by Balakrishnan et al. (2011) associated destination brand components with motives and identified those components that are most important while choosing the destination and further creating destination loyalty. The authors suggested that functional components which are visual and tangible attributes need to be focused more as they influence the choice by tourists. Also in one more study Evangelista and Dioko (2011) examined the effect of two types of social influence i.e. normative and informational, on travelers' perceptions of a destination's brand equity by applying a measurement model and determined the generalization of branding principles for tourism destinations. These studies helped us to work out objectives and research gap in the chosen field.

Need for the Study

While there have been a number of studies about importance of destination attributes, a universal answer has not been obtained. Such studies are often destination specific and, therefore, rank attributes in order of importance with regard to a particular destination. The literature mentioned incites that the need for image research is especially required for emerging tourist destinations in developing countries. Many of the components have been discussed to assess the image of particular destinations in their studies and in order to capture all of these components, a combination of structured and unstructured methodologies is necessary to measure destination image.

Objectives of the present study

The objectives of the present study include

- 1) To identify important factor for assessing destination image of Delhi
- 2) To compare the perspectives of domestic and foreign tourists towards Delhi.
- 3) To offer some policy suggestions for improving Delhi as an international tourist destination.

Research Methodology

A combination of unstructured and structured methods is an appropriate alternative method for brand image assessment, in comparison to either qualitative or quantitative approaches alone (Prayag, 2010). Keeping this in mind, for this study, both subjective and objective methods have been used to collect the required data regarding the perception of the travellers. Unstructured Method: In subjective form, the groups of tourists (both domestic and foreign) were asked about their overall perspective towards Delhi. For this purpose two groups (one domestic and one foreign) were targeted with the help of a local travel agency. The domestic group comprised of 18 tourists and the foreign group comprised of 12 tourists. These tourists were interviewed while they were available in hotels, so as to prepare further a comprehensive list of attributes they associate with Delhi. These hotels targeted were in the category of budget hotels where possibility of getting more number of respondents was more. The tourists were asked about their experience while visiting various places in Delhi and how they perceive the associations of different aspects of a tourist place with Delhi. This interaction helped in constructing the objective form of the questionnaire which involved the various attributes quoted for Delhi by the respondents. Structured Method: The survey form (questionnaire) was developed further and pretested on the same two groups of tourists who contributed the attributes mentioned in the survey. This pre testing of the questionnaire and expert advice made the instrument valid to be used further. For this study survey has been conducted during June-August of 2011 in Delhi city on a sample of 100 domestic and 100 foreign tourists with the help of simple random sampling. To cover the travellers with different motives to visit Delhi, the tour guides were accompanied to get the responses from the tourists while they were visiting the various destinations. Also the people staying in the hotels were targeted to get the responses. This way the opportunity to access the tourists with different motives to visit Delhi were covered.

Data Analysis

The travellers were given the questionnaire to be filled which had been prepared to evaluate the perspective of both domestic and foreign tourists towards Delhi as a choice destination. Thirty attributes selected after the

interviews were mentioned in the questionnaire to assess. The respondents were required to choose an option from strongly disagree to strongly agree (1-6 scale). They were asked that how much they agree with the association of attribute with Delhi.

The socio-demographic details of the respondents are:

Among Domestic 66% were males and 34% were females whereas there were 58% males and 42% females in foreign travellers. More foreign female tourists were in the respondents list. Similarly 38% of the domestic tourists were single and 62% were married. In foreign tourists 59% were single and 41% were married. More foreign tourists respondents were in single status and more domestic tourists respondents were in married status. Further 17% of the domestic travellers were visiting the place alone, 20% were with colleagues, 38% were with friends and 25% were with family. In case of foreign tourists 37% had come alone, 7% were with colleagues, 31% were with friends and 30% were with their families. More of the foreign respondents had come to visit Delhi alone as compared to domestic ones. In educational background 27% of the Domestics were under graduate, 47% of them were graduates and 26% of them were post graduate. 29% of the foreigners were undergraduates, 52% were graduates and 19% were post graduates. Not much difference has been observed in case of educational background among domestics and foreigners. For Domestics 54% were on holiday in Delhi, 26% were here for business purpose and 20% had other motives to visit Delhi. Among Foreigners 76% were on holiday, only 8% were for business purpose and just 6% had some other motives to be in Delhi. More domestic tourists were on business purpose in Delhi at the time of data collection.

It was first visit to Delhi for 40% of the domestic travellers, second time for 20% of them, third time for 14% of them and 26% of them were frequently visiting Delhi. 60% of the foreigners were on their first visit, 23% were on their second visit and just 12% were on their third visit. Only 5 % of these frequently visited Delhi. Domestic tourists were more frequently visiting Delhi as compared to foreign tourists.

Reliability of the questionnaire administered has been checked with the Cronbach's alpha value in Table 1 which supports that the questionnaire administered to the travellers is reliable as cronbach alpha value is greater than acceptable value of 0.7 (Cronbach and Shavelson 2004).

Table 1: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.838	30

Factor analysis is a data reduction technique which reduces to less number of variables from more number of variables. Factor analysis has

been applied for the attributes in order to know which main factors are associated with the image of Delhi as destination choice from the travelers' perspective. Before going directly to the factor analysis technique, KMO and Bartlett's Test is done, as this test provides a minimum standard which should be passed before a factor analysis.

Table 2: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.709
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2136.355
	df	435
	Sig.	.000

Table 2 shows the value of KMO & Bartlett's test. The KMO value varies between 0 and 1, and values closer to 1 are better. A value of .516 is a suggested minimum for better implementation. So, the KMO value in this study was found out to be 0.743 which is nearly closer to 1 and also the Bartlett's test value is also significant. Thus, we can say that the tests provide a minimum standard which should be passed before a factor analysis.

Table 3: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.888	22.962	22.962	4.310	14.365	14.365
2	4.112	13.707	36.668	3.934	13.115	27.480
3	3.407	11.358	48.027	3.122	10.406	37.886
4	2.634	8.778	56.805	2.591	8.636	46.522
5	1.834	6.114	62.919	2.344	7.812	54.334
6	1.551	5.169	68.088	2.313	7.711	62.045
7	1.351	4.505	72.592	2.128	7.092	69.137
8	1.018	3.392	75.985	2.054	6.848	75.985
9	.848	2.827	78.812			
10	.797	2.658	81.470			
11	.670	2.234	83.704			
12	.616	2.052	85.756			
13	.553	1.844	87.600			
14	.506	1.687	89.287			
15	.400	1.333	90.620			
16	.366	1.221	91.841			
17	.356	1.187	93.028			
18	.320	1.068	94.096			
19	.268	.893	94.989			

20	.258	.860	95.849			
21	.224	.746	96.595			
22	.178	.594	97.188			
23	.172	.575	97.763			
24	.158	.526	98.289			
25	.125	.418	98.707			
26	.103	.342	99.049			
27	.089	.297	99.346			
28	.080	.268	99.614			
29	.061	.203	99.818			
30	.055	.182	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

In the above table 3, Eigen values are the variances of the factors. The first factor will always account for the most variance (and hence have the highest Eigen value), and the next factor will account for as much of the left over variance as it can, and so on. Hence, each successive factor will account for less and less variance. Thus the amount of variation in the data described by each component decreases successively with each factor; the first pattern defines the greatest amount of variation, the last pattern the

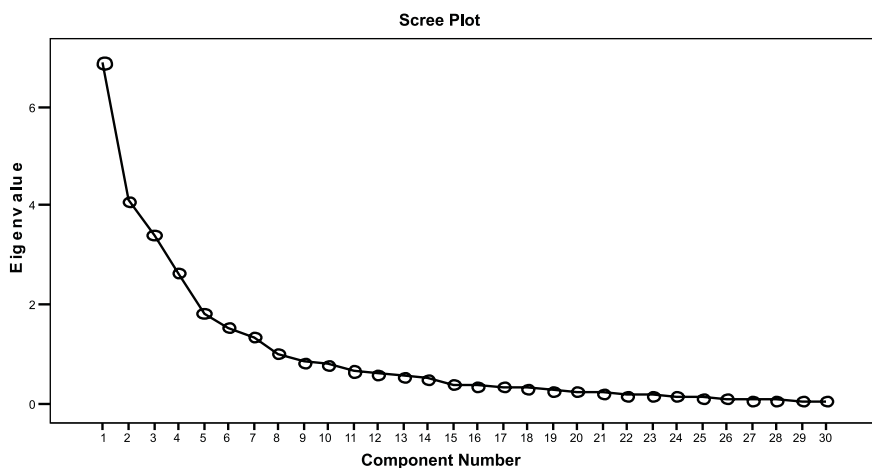


Fig. 4.

least. So, the components having Eigen values greater or equal to 1 are significant and from the above output it is analyzed that there are only eight components that are significant. Rests of the components are not significant thus they get eliminated from our observations. So here after applying factor analysis technique it has been observed that there are eight principal factors which are affecting near about 75% for considering Delhi's image with these attributes.

In figure 4 screen plot is the graphical method of showing the significant components out of all the components taken. The screen plot graphs the Eigen value against the component number. The values in the first eight columns of the graph are immediately above 1. From the ninth factor on, the line is almost flat which shows their Eigen value is less than 1. It shows each successive factor is accounting for smaller and smaller amounts of the total variance. It also signifies that there are only eight components that come out to be significant.

Table 4: Factors Extracted

Factors	Items/Attributes	Indicator Loadings
i. Tangibles	1. Infrastructure	.622
	2. Scenic Beauty	.599
ii. Intagibles	3. Stimulating	.756
	4. Expensive	.550
	5. Relaxing	.776
iii. Places/Events	6. Religious	.828
	7. Historical	.734
	8. Trade Fairs	.789
	9. Sports Events	.532
	10. Special Events	.411
iv. Options to Act	11. Shopping	.608
	12. Adventure	.646
	13. Cuisine	.778
	14. Children activities	.772
	15. Night Life	.456
v. Liasion	16. Networking	.671
vi. Social / Environment	17. Quality of Life	.583
	18. Fast pace of Life	.440
	19. Safety	.463
	20. Climate	.429
	21. Crowded	.732
	22. Pollution	.693
	23. Cleanliness	.450
	24. Multicultural	.697
vii. Services	25. Communication	.897
	26. Hospitality	.664
	27. Accommodation	.620
	28. Transportation	.461
viii. Popularity	29. Popular	.575
	30. Interesting	.747

Table 4 contains these components extracted in rotated component matrix with the names designated and the factor loadings. The first factor ‘Tangibles’ includes the attributes which are seen like Infrastructure and Scenic Beauty. The second factor has been named ‘Intangibles’, as the attributes included are Stimulating experience, Relaxing and Expensive which are ‘felt’ by the travellers. The third factor is ‘Places/Events’ as it

comprehends the places or the vents happening in Delhi for which people have actually visited. The fourth factor takes account of various activities like shopping, adventure, goings on for children, enjoying different cuisine available and night life, which can be done in the city thus it has been named 'Option to Act'. The fourth factor is 'Liaison' and it has only one attribute i.e. networking with people and it was preferred by those people who visited Delhi for business or educational purposes. The sixth factor 'Social/Environment' encompasses maximum number of attributes (8) which are Quality of Life, Fast pace of Life, Safety, Climate, Crowded, Pollution, Cleanliness, Multicultural. The seventh factor is 'Services' involving services to the travellers in the form of Transportation, Accommodation, Hospitality and Communication. The last factor extracted is 'Popular' which has attributes based on the popularity of Delhi and finding this place interesting enough to be visited.

Table 5: Mean scores

Factors	Domestic	Foreigners
Tangibles	3.72	3.82
Intangibles	3.88	5.26
Places/Events	4.56	4.38
Options to Act	3.02	3.04
Liaison	5.34	3.3
Social/Env	3.1	4.84
Services	5.22	5.26
Popularity	4.74	4.32

The comparison of destination image perspectives for domestic (Indian) tourists/travellers and foreign travellers have been shown in the chart 7. This has been developed by taking the mean scores of the travellers' perspective for eight different factors identified in the rotated component matrix of factor analysis above. As seen in the table 5, major differences in the destination image perspective between the two exist in case of three factors which are Intangibles, Liaison and Social/Environment.

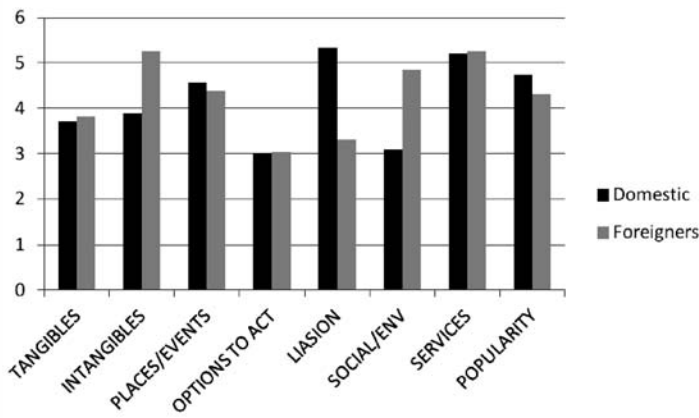


Chart 1. Comparing mean scores for Factors

Foreign tourists have felt better in terms of finding Delhi as stimulating and relaxing but also they feel more expenses made while visiting Delhi and its places. For networking, domestic travellers have found this place very beneficial and their perspective of developing links for business and other purposes are more agreed by Indians. Foreign tourists are finding Delhi crowded, polluted, not very clean and safe. Whereas, Indians were not expecting much from the social aspects or environmental dimensions in Delhi (as it was also noted in first phase of interviews) thus they have different perspective for Delhi from their counterparts.

Conclusion

Destination image exists in the mind of people. Tourists choose the destination to visit depending on their perspective and also others. Thus it can be said this important cog drives the customer action. Foreign tourists and domestic tourists have different expectations from the destinations, it is also seen in this study that differences exist in the perception of two groups for the same place. Defined as the 'cluster of attributes and associations that consumers connect to the brand name', brand image is considered to be the key determinant of brand equity, the set of assets and liabilities connected with the brand (Thakor, 1996). Just like the humans have the personality, the destinations also have the image or personality and people choose the destinations which they tend to associate with theirs. A distinctive image of destination has the ability to attract the tourists' choice of destination. The elements that influence destination images are multi-dimensional as suggested by Tapachai and Waryszak (2000). Also in this study thirty (30) attributes have been formed under eight factors which have influenced the destination image of Delhi. These factors included tangible and intangible factors; places to visit, option to act, liaison, environment, services and popularity for assessment of destination image of Delhi. The foreign tourists have found Delhi stimulating and relaxing but also they feel more expenses made while visiting Delhi and its places. For networking, domestic tourists have found this place very beneficial and their perspectives of developing links for business and other social network. Also foreign tourists have found Delhi crowded, polluted, not very clean and safe. The results of tourism image research can be used by marketers to conduct intelligent destination marketing, which means that important decisions regarding planning, development, positioning, and promotion depend on these results.

Managerial Implications

Managerial implications are common in image studies. They are mostly about positioning, product development or improvement, segmentation and policy development in relation to the image held by the current and potential markets (Tasci et al., 2007). The challenge of destination marketing is that it is made up of many tourism practitioners, including hotel operators,

restaurant operators, car rental operators, etc. A tourist destination consists of a bundle of tangible and intangible components, and can be potentially be perceived as a brand (Ekinci and Hosany 2006). It can be implied for further marketing tools as destination image is a critical element in the destination choice process thus it is one of the variables that can be influenced by marketing policy decisions. Domestic and international tourism complement each other since the same infrastructural, facilities and services can generally be used by both types of travel. But they ways to use the marketing tools or promotional strategies for enhancing the brand image of the destination should vary with types of tourists. There is a need of different ways of promoting or marketing the destinations. The media heavily influences public awareness, perceptions, and behavior, including buying decisions (Macnamara, 2006). Destination Marketing Organizations often develop destination brand personality profiles that are somewhat generic and have considerable overlap with other destinations (Murphy et al. 2007). Creating brands as defined and discussed in the traditional marketing literature is a more difficult and complex process when considering destinations and locations (Hankinson 2001) as the people actually experience the places, products and services associated with the destination they have preferred.

Some Policy Suggestions

The destination image and brand building is pivotal in the development and delivery of tourism products and services and the implementation of tourism policy. The aim of developing a strategic dimension of destination image is to reach competitiveness and success of the destination for more visits and positive word of mouth as for customers who enjoy variety (which is a large segment), satisfaction is a key driver and though they would not revisit, they will recommend (Castro et al., 2007). Many attributes like heritage of the place, shopping options, eating points, clean and beautiful natural environment, modern infrastructure for services give an edge to the destination and provide uniqueness in such a way that comparatively the tourists prefer that particular destination only. Therefore, a destination has to effectively use and enhance its resources to compete with success as the image is the most important intangible resource from which tourists' perceptions and travel choices depend.

The natural as well as social environment of the place also influences the image of destination. Delhi had a good blend of social and natural environment but now with more of the commercialization of the place has led to the depletion. The new concepts and ideas have to be generated so as to provide good environmental experience for the travellers. The evolution of urban forestry has been recognized as an essential means of maintaining urban ecosystem health, improving human living conditions, fostering harmonious human-nature relationship and ultimately achieving

urban sustainability (Carreiro et al. 2008). Though man made greenery cannot compensate nature's green cover, yet it plays a significant role in attracting tourists towards a city of parks/gardens in a developing country like India (Chaudhary and Tewari, 2010). Therefore, environment of Delhi can be rejuvenated with modern means so as to generate an experience for the travellers to provide optimum stimulations required by them, but at the same time it is important to distinguish between attempts to change a destination's image while changing its actual reality (Beriatos and Gospodini, 2004), and attempting to alter an image without making any concrete changes.

The present study aims at establishing that tourism has tremendous potential in India. India is a great civilization. What she needs is to market the tourism among the world tourists who are in research of a place of unity in diversity. The model developed out of the rigorous study may be found to be useful to the decision makers. One of the most significant trend is of 4 % to 5 % annual growth is in due to destination image. The government should give careful attention to this sector as the economy in order to earn substantial foreign exchange. Tourism is a product and this needs appropriate strategy for marketing. Tourism and society ate today in the midst of a revolution comparable to industrial resolution in both scale and consequence. These market needs infrastructural support to make it more globalised. To attract potential tourists to Delhi, more emphasis should be placed on the campaigns on components which travellers perceive as interesting and stimulating and also the options for action oriented and historical as well as religious based outings. The destination should be developed for singles and families so as to attract both the groups. The key to viable success lies in understanding prospective tourists, their lifestyles and attitudes and in creating the product-service blends that match their expectations and needs.

Limitations

The study suffers from the following limitations and the same should be taken into account while relevance of the present study should be referred to for the purpose of strategic decisions making by the policy makers.

- Study was only confined to Delhi region.
- Sample size was small i.e. 100 domestic and 100 foreign tourists.
- Some of the important explanatory variables may be left from the analysis. Because both psychological and attitudinal factor also influence the destination image of a particular place. But this study is not able to capture all variables due to time and money constraint. So it could be included in future research.

Scope for Further Research

As discussed the destination image has a direct causal impact on travel behavior and is a valuable concept when investigating the destination selection process. Potential tourists use various destination attributes to aid in destination image formation. These attributes can take the form of both controllable attributes and uncontrollable attributes. While the destination image construct has proven difficult to measure, consumers' overall perceptions of a destination may be either favourable or unfavourable (Milman and Pizam, 1995). It is difficult to measure the perception of tourists for all destinations. A generalized way to track changes in destination images through time, Dynamic Destination Image Index (DDII) has been developed by Stepchenkova and Eales (2010) in which monthly time series are obtained applying content analysis to media materials about a particular destination and reflect news volume, topics raised, and favorability of media coverage. The perceived brand equity of a destination is affected by the propensity of a visitor to conform to the expectation of referent others but not by the information that they obtain from them (Evangelista and Dioko 2011). A rich understanding of destination image from travelers' perspective is vital for developing successful marketing strategies in promoting and positioning a destination. The research studies which include both qualitative and quantitative ways are always desirable to be conducted on continuous basis so as to know the trend as the choices of tourists vary with time, options of visiting other destinations, their living standard and ability and readiness to spend. Thus further studies can be conducted to assess the image of Delhi from the perspective of tourists belonging to different regions, cultures and motives to visit. Matching the personality of travellers with the personality of destination is also a good area to work upon. As no such work or studies have been conducted for Indian contexts so apart from Delhi other destinations can also be included in advance studies.

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Tourism: Science of Hospitality

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Abstract: *This epistemological review examines the indiscipline of tourism research and the problems to be an academic discipline, or at least the resistance of other already-consolidated science to accept tourism. At some extent, not only tourism lacks from a proper method but also a distinguishable object of study. This paper sustains the thesis tourism is the discipline of hospitality, which seems to be an ancient institutions present in almost all cultures in this world. Understanding hospitality is a valid alternative to connect with other economies, and sociological structures to the extent to create a new scientific discipline. In basis with a comparative nature, we need to explore societies by their ways of offering hospitality. In doing so, it is mandatory to delve into the historical roots of hospitality to transcend the hegemony of managerial views. More than a strategy of kindness, hospitality is a social mechanism to intellectualize the fear of travelling. In sum, whether hospitality is the object of study that will consolidate tourism in next years, the dream-like subsystem should contribute researchers to create a new comparative method.*

Keywords: Solidarity, hospitality, epistemological debate, tourism, conflict.

Introduction

Many authors in different languages and historical contexts have attempted to define tourism, and the opportunities and limitations of converting tourism into a scientific discipline. (Jafari and Aeser, 1988; Jafari and Pizam, 1966; Jafari, 2005; Coles, Duval and Hall, 2005; Korstanje and Busby, 2010; Tribe, 2010). Even if there are interesting epistemological writings on the subject, a growing disintegration has led to them being almost incomprehensible to the reader and the specialised public. We agree with those that point out that it is not sufficient to talk of the “scientification” of tourism, as the number of publications or conferences is not a pre-condition for the development of a scientific discipline. In the context of today, tourism is seen as a commercial activity, which is studied from the viewpoint of various disciplines, including economy, geography, sociology, psychology, and anthropology. The academic level and the body of knowledge are so great and so varied that they have either generated a supposed incomprehensibility or a simplification of the subject (Escalona-Muñoz, 2011). The fragmentation of studies and epistemologies has brought serious problems for research in tourism. As we will see in this essay review, one of the most troubling aspect of tourism-related investigation

is the lack of an object to study. Although tourism discipline has grown in last decades, there is no clear diagnosis not only on what tourism is but also its method. Every consolidated discipline has its method and object of study defined. Anthropology is based on the understanding of culture, psychology prefers to approach attitude, geography needs from soil and territory while sociology monopolizes the study of rules; and Tourism?. This essay review presents a model to understand tourism as a discipline whose object is hospitality. Tourism as a scientific discipline rests on shaky foundations and our innovative penchant to go ahead looking for something news prevent to exert criticism against the already-consolidated paradigms.

Preliminary Debate

From its inception, the tourism disciplinary research emphasizes on the importance of hospitality to facilitate the encounter of tourists and residents. Hospitality has been considered a term inextricably intertwined to tourism and leisure (Lashley and Morrison, 2001; Santos Filho, 2008; Gallarza and Gil, 2008, Nadeau et al, 2008). Originally, E. Cohen (1972) proposed that tourism should be viewed as a form of commercialized hospitality where hosts and guests re-negotiate their own identities. This type of approach is based on hospitality as a continuance of human relationships. With the passing of years, this view has been changed to more elaborated forms. Unfortunately, the current view of hospitality has nothing to do with its historical roots. Being hospitable now means a way of enhancing business and profits. Rather, hospitality seems to be a millenarian institution that reduces and controls the uncertainty that supposes an inter-ethnic encounter. The tourists-receiving as well as tourist-delivering communities need from protection whenever an alien is introduced to their soil. Hospitality works not only scrutinizing the travellers but also giving to them a safe-site to be. This means that the hospitality seems to be associated to the risk engendered by uncertainty. J. Derrida argues that there are two types of hospitality, conditioned and absolute. Whilst the former refers to the protection exerted only for those who travels with a patrimony, the latter demands hosts to open the home to any alien in any conditions. Nation states today do not offer absolute hospitality simply because the protection is superseded to the purchasing power of travellers (Derrida, 2006). In this vein, O’Gorman contends that industrial countries construct significant barriers to deter mobilities but at the same time, encourages tourism as a privileged form of travelling to peripheral areas. These types of conditioned hospitalities, enrooted in the capital hegemony, not only open the doors to economic asymmetries, but also to resentment and terrorism. Tourism as an industry of services seems to be unable to offer an absolute hospitality. At some extent, Derrida’s contributions become in fertile source to consider the moral view of hospitality (O’Gorman, 2007).

As the previous argument given, Andrews, Roberts and Selwyn assertively emphasize on the conflictive nature of hospitality. Our own penchant to visit other sites is explained by the curiosity but these rites of passages should be conditioned under a framework of stability and safety. Hospitality facilitates travels defining the boundaries across inter-personal connection. This encounter is often honoured as a divine doctrine. Those communities who provide aliens with support and assistance are compensated by the Gods. F. Amuquandoh addressed how ancient hospitality in Ghana (mythical archetype) not only paved the ways for the commercialization of tourism but also posed a view of strangers as messengers of Gods. These communities developed the beliefs that disasters, misfortunes and other unlucky events is a product of spirits anger. Whenever travellers or strangers are mistreated whatever the reason may be, this gets furious to gods. The religious life seems to be a primary factor of hospitality. Similarly, the British Anthropologist J. Goody (1995) observed how Lodagaa, another African tribes bring to outlanders a diversity of food and beer to celebrate hospitality. Otherwise, demons may put a curse on the children of community. This ritual works as a mechanism that help intellectualize the otherness, the uncertainty that wake up any alien because Gods protect strangers. G. Visser (1991) acknowledges that food is a sign of well gesture that characterizes the hospitality from other practices. Basically, civilizations are not possible without food, and what is at stake during welcome rites is the luck for the next hunting. However, sometimes the travellers cross some limit that leads involving actors to conflict. As a form of abeyance, authors see in hospitality and eroticism a mechanism to regulate the hostility. Precisely, Korstanje and Olsen (2011) demonstrated how terror surfaces when the hospitality cannot be guarantee by States. The discourse present in terror-related movies appeals to convince audience that the monstrosity of villains is certainly associated to attack vulnerable tourists. Nationhood has been historically constructed centred on the cultural principles of mobility, free transit and hospitality. The sentiment of terror is enabled if the hospitality is suspended. Lashley and Morrison (2001) reported that hospitality ought to be understood as a contemporaneous interchange of benefits among two or more parts where the well being prioritized is. For that reason, it is noteworthy to differentiate hospitality from commercial hospitality (this means tourism).

In an ever changing world where the social institutions are on shaky foundations, D. Innerarity (2001) adds, it is important not to loose the sight that we have to develop an ethic of hospitality. The improbability of events needs from overt expression of tolerance to accept and adapt to the otherness. In this process, the hospitality would play a pivotal role in intellectualizing the heterogeneity. Our being in this world depends on the type of hospitality we offer. What Innerarity explores in his development seems to be the hospitality as a form of responsibility. Filgueiras Nodar

(2011) reminds that hospitality should be thought from the Bildung model (under the format of a master-work in art). Since tourists opt not to return to those inhospitable destinations, many policy makers have devoted considerable time in designing strategies to improve the safety in destination, but at some extent, this does not suffice. Tourism industry lures attacks against visitors. Hospitality should be taught in educational establishments or universities dedicated to offer tourism degrees from an all-encompassed way. Tourism should be deemed as the discipline that explores hospitality.

Hospitality needs Solidarity

Sociology and anthropology were two disciplines concerned to study the social bondage. The founding parents of sociology found that the in-group affiliation depended upon many factors as religion, trust, and language. Ethnicity was associated to a much broader process of territorialization enrooted in the doctrine of division of labor. The process of identity reinforced economically the exchange of goods and other merchandises among clans. Anthropology realized that primitive societies were fertile sources for enhancing the investigation and understanding the essence of industrialized countries. The social bond started to be considered a key factor in the politic fields of communities. The first entry in the discussion has been originally placed by Marcel Mauss who in his respective studies noted that society is united by a sentiment of solidarity (theory of gifts) based on three previous assumptions: a) gifts are never free and involve a material exchange between receiver and giver, b) the power of giver resides in the given object, and c) the exchange of gifts engenders a liaison of reciprocity among members of clans (Mauss, 1979; Sahlins, 1972). The main contributions of Mauss, undoubtedly, paved the pathways for a considerable volume of books and studies in ethnology and anthropology for many years.

Among these works we come across with the British anthropologist Marshall Sahlins who contemplated that *“reciprocity stipulates two sides, two distinct social-economics interests. Reciprocity can establish solidary relations, insofar as the material flor suggests assistance or mutual benefits, yet the social fact of sides is inescapable”* (Sahlins, 1972:189). The reciprocity and distribution of wealth are two key factors that mobilize the scaffolding of economy. In this vein he goes on to say that *“the practical, logistic function –redistribution- sustains the community, or community efforts, in material sense”* (Sahlins, 1972:190). Theory of reciprocity emphasizes on the needs of weaving alliances not only to protect the soil (sovereignty) but also to encourage the trade and travels. The ancient hospitality has been created as a strategic net of alliances to improve the material conditions and duties of clans during periods of peace and warfare. It is important to note that reciprocity would play an important role in

preventing the social fragmentation. Following this explanation, reciprocity can be classified in three different types: a) generalized (loan), balanced (exchange) and negative (robbery).

Readers who want having this clearer should take into consideration that the generalized reciprocity surfaces whenever one subject gives a good or service to others expecting anything else in return. The gap in wealth, power and authority give as a result a generalized reciprocity to the extent the social distance among participants is considerably shortened. Rather, balanced or Symmetrical reciprocity refers to the fact that both parts expect a fair return evoking moderate levels of trust. Most certainly, money mediates symbolically among participants equaling the duties of ones and others. Ultimately, Sahlins admits that the negative reciprocity can be deemed as *“the attempt to get something for nothing with impunity, the several forms of appropriation, transaction opened and conducted toward net utilitarian advantage ... negative reciprocity is the most impersonal sort of exchange. In guises such as barter it is from our own point of view the most economic. The participants confront each other as opposed interest, each looking to maximize utility at the other’s expense”* (Sahlins, 1972:195). In this vein, Sahlins realizes that some factors such as spatial proximity, wealth, power, status potentiate the possibility to develop certain kind of reciprocity in detriment of others. By assuming that reciprocity operates in all contexts of social life in primitive but in industrialized communities too, Sahlins admits the following relevant points:

- 1) The geographic proximity or distance among giver and receiver is of paramount importance at determining the type of solidarity. People situated far away of each other are prone to celebrate a balanced reciprocity than others.
- 2) Differences in the Rank or Status. Whenever the status gap of people is enlarged the reciprocity takes a generalized typology simply because one part does not expect retribution from the other (poorer).
- 3) Wealth. In similar conditions explained to the earlier point 2, the differences of richness lead people towards a generalized reciprocity.
- 4) Type of exchanged good is crucial to determining the type of reciprocity. For further clarification, food aims to create a generalized-reciprocity type while money triggers a balanced reciprocity type.

Furthermore, it is important to note that one of the most visible aspects of reciprocity in tourism fields is the visa. This document poses two or more countries in similar conditions to celebrate a covenant with the end of protecting and guiding their citizens abroad. A visa, very well, can be understood as a residual instrument of ancient hospitality because of many reasons, but two are of paramount importance: a) it can be symmetrical

or asymmetrical depending on the wealth or degree of materiality among involved Nation-States (reciprocity in the visas), and b) it is subject to the management of time of the permission to enter in an unknown soil (expiry date of visa). Following this, the principle of visa seems to be an inter-tribal covenant. One of the aspects that characterized the hospitality was the protection of strangers because they were seen as messengers of gods. Starting from the premise travelers who stood in transit lacked of a citizenship, hospitality bestowed to them a transitory protection during their travels. With this background in mind, Balbin Chamorro contemplates that the transitory transference of citizenship to foreigners (a rite were the preconditions for modern hospitality. (Balbin Chamorro, 2006). In sharp contrast with Mommsen's contributions, Chamorro inclines to say that hospitality was a natural product resulted from the needs of mutual protection. Ethimologically, the term hospitality stems from the formula *hostis and pet*. The former is related to the presence of enemies while the latter were certainly used in circumstances characterized by kindness or sympathy. Chamorro questions the thesis that *hostis* symbolized the natural prone to violence and conflict of human beings. From her perspective, hospitium is a result of the human nature by equaling forces to mitigate the negative effects of social conflict by means of dissuasion. To some extent, Chamorro notes that *hospes* means "Master of guest" but she gives not further references about the reasons behind. This moot-point reminds that the vulnerability of guests who are often introduced in an unknown land was somehow transformed in a need of expropriation.

Underpinned in the supposition that home emulates symbolic attachment of people with their territory, Waldenfels (2005) argues that home can be considered a site wherein converges the work, blood, soil and kinship. To some extent, our home can be interpreted as the root of political life. As previously mentioned, in Ancient Europe, hospitality was used as a form of communication between tribes in two different ways. From a religious perspective, strangers were welcomed as messengers of divinity: religious and political. Whereas the former refers to the idea that foreigner travelers should be honored the latter facilitated the celebration of different covenants aimed at strengthening the defense of the own territory. Hypothetically, Ramos y Loscertales (1948) supposes that these preventive measures helped in creating diverse nets of alliances in case of an outsider's aggressions or attacks (Rivero, 1993). In the mid of twentieth century, Alvaro D'ors brilliantly analyzed the evolution of hospitium as institution in Spain validating the previous findings of Ramos and Loscertales. The thesis here seems to be that hospitality has been historically utilized to harness the geographical boundaries and prevent the onslaughts of other tribes (D'ors, 1953). Ettiene, La Roux and Tranoy (1987) collected hard archeological evidence that proves the previous assumption in respect to hospitality. Once again, hospitality engenders a double risk that should be

symbolized by means of rites of passages such as the migration clearance or visa requests. Whenever the ontological security of people is in danger, displacement and tourism represent prophylactic alternatives to recover the sentiment of security. The violence exerted over guests can be proportional to its own vulnerability.

Theory of Hospitality

The serious nature of tourism studies has been widely questioned by certain classical disciplines, as S.L. Smith (2011) describes in his work "Becoming a western scholar" in which he demonstrates the difficulties which the principal exponents of the geography of tourism have confronted in explaining the serious nature of their own discipline. In particular, being uninterested by the classic programmes in geography, they saw in tourism a new field of academic research, but did not have the support of their peers, who considered tourism to be a trivial discipline. This led them to find various obstacles in their research programmes. Perhaps the problem, not mentioned by Smith, is the lack of a clear objective by tourism to consolidate itself as a specific discipline. As the study of territory is the substantive base of geography as a science, hospitality is the substantive base of tourism as a science. In other words, tourism is the science of hospitality, understood as an ancient institution whose psycho-social roots derive from the theory of early anthropologists known as the principle of "solidarity" or "reciprocity".

Following this argument, we are told that there is an inalienable right to travel and to be well received (Gogia, 2006), but this argument itself is culturally constructed. On some occasions, not all cultures have understood "hospitality" as do western cultures. In fact the concept of hospitality, deriving from the word "hospitium", is a purely Indo-Arian and European idea, which has its roots in a war-like society. Hospitality in ancient Europe was a complex system of relations and solidarities whose obligations included (a) providing protection and making alliances in times of war, and (b) receiving and giving assistance to travellers from regions which have signed pacts of friendship, or non-aggression (Korstanje, 2010). Thus, the majority of European tribes celebrated hospitality as a way of reinforcing their systems of defence. The voyage as a form of conquest was born, therefore, in this inalienable principle of hospitality. Many centuries after the fall of Rome in 476 A.D. the Spanish empire proclaimed itself to be the inheritor of Roman "juris-possidetis". Although Pope Alexander VI had indeed conferred to Spain and Portugal over America, there were both conceptual and academic obstacles in the path of Spanish appropriation of American soil, particularly because, as was noted by French and English philosophers, American natives did not profess the Catholic religion, and therefore did not recognise the Pope.

These obstacles seemed to disappear when ecclesiastical scholars realised that the natives did not recognise the principles of hospitality and free passage as did the Spanish. This curious anecdote soon came to consolidate itself as a formidable weapon of colonisation and territorial expropriation. The fact that the indigenous peoples resisted granting free passage to the travellers through their territories was irrefutable evidence to the Spanish of their sub-human nature. Their lack of knowledge about hospitality converted them, for the Spanish, into near-animals. Due to the academic conditions, it was bound to be only a question of time until actual land expropriation (Pagden, 1997). The ideological manipulation of the principle of “*ius perigrinandi*” was the basis for the conquest of America. Once the Spanish were established in the continent, topographical surveys were carried out by servants of the Spanish Crown. The first element which defines tourism is the creation of hospitality as an anthropological process of relation and reciprocity. However, this process was not divorced from the economy, or politics. The expropriated lands are worked, and their resources taken to the imperial metropolis, in order to be re-inserted in the colonies as leisure consumption and products which denote the status and life-style of the dominant civilisation. This complex process may be called “pre-touristic”. If hospitality plays a crucial role in the configuration of tourism, leisure was a fertile source to revitalize the tendons of escapement. The dream-like theory as discussed in the next lines, will illustrate the procreative nature of tourism in diluting conflict. Hospitality as earlier stated is a troublesome instrument. For that, tourism should rest on a second element: leisure

Dream-Like theory

As far as we know, tourism in practice is an inherent part of the sub-system of leisure (which is associated with other institutions and activities such as reading, films, sporting spectacles, and the theatre, among others). One of the most important functions of leisure is to maintain a balance in the social system. As Elias and Dunning (1998) state, leisure is the foundation not only of work, but also of the socialisation of individuals in the different cultural aspects and values which are important for society. Initially, authors such as S. Freud and K. Jung defined the dream-like state as a psychical and biological regulatory mechanism, associated with sleep. For both authors dreams are an activity of the unconscious produced by the libido whose principal characteristic is to compensate the psychic system for the different frustrations experienced while awake (Freud, 2000). By fulfilling the repressed desire, dreams combine and articulate levels of thought into one coherent whole. However, for Jung, dreams should be decodified in a message concerning our own “self-knowledge”. In contrast to Freud, Jung maintains that dreams should be understood as rather more than a mere result of the repression of fear and desire, but function under the

principle of fantasy evoking “truths” about which the subject is unaware or has not registered while awake (Jung, 1999). Does this mean that tourism is an industry of fantasy? Tourism, whether for vacations or not, is defined by a dream-like process, which follows on from the pre-touristic phase, defined above as being concerned with hospitality.

According to our perspective, the dream-like (or oniric) sub-system of society has two functions: a) release of stress, and b) re-accommodation to a new situation. Whereas the first tends to reduce conflict by loosening the ties which unite society and thus leading the individual towards selfish behaviour, the second refers to a dynamic whereby the subject re-inserts himself into a slightly different role. This role, which confers identity on the subject, follows cyclical processes. To the contrary to the position of Turner and Cohen, a vacationist does not change either his status or his role when he takes a holiday in a particular destination (Korstanje, 2010). The function of the dream-like (or oniric) system is to preserve the different components of society, such as the political system and the productive system, thus avoiding dramatic social change. The dream-like system itself rests on three principal pillars. The first is scarceness, without which it cannot operate. Relationships between the actors cause situations of everyday deprivation, and even symbolic frustration. To avoid a situation where the members completely abandon the group, as we see in the case of migration, the dream-like system gives back to the dreamers a “motive” to belong to the group, and a theme which makes it worthwhile, and even necessary, to belong to the group. The second element is the extra-ordinary, which reminds us of the first heroes. The oniric sub-system, like dreams themselves, permits the subject to do things which are prohibited in the waking state. In a film or sporting spectacle or other event the subject experiences a type of dream-like cathartic meeting with his hero, who is destined to mediate between men and the gods. Lastly, predestination gives to society concrete examples of activities which might put its very survival in danger.

The dream-like system (conformed by scarcity, the extra-ordinary, and predestination), and by means of leisure activities as described by Huizinga (1968), redefines the limits of uncertainty so that the subject might anticipate an accident. Distraction and entertainment acquire a didactic character, by means of which the suffering of others (in the news, terror films, natural disasters, video games, and even museums dedicated to genocide) imply a reinforcement of one’s own perception of security (Bruner, 1996; Stone, 2011; Dann and Seaton, 2001; Tarlow, 2005; Blasi, 2002). Predestination and stories of the disaster play an important role in cases of emergencies as they give to the subjects specific moral survival guides. In any case, as we will see, the oniric subsystem does not operate alone but linked with four other sub-systems, which are just as important, or more important. Just

as each fracture is bound to be re-adjusted, the oniric system of regulation is determined by the conflicts in the future and past of humanity, and its hopes, frustrations and contradictions.

Society is composed of five sub-systems which are mutually interconnected: the political sub-system, which accumulates and distributes power, the economic sub-system (which regulates scarcity), the mythical-religious sub-system (which tries to explain cosmic incongruences), the geographic sub-system (which maintains the identity, and the security of borders), and the oniric sub-system (which absorbs the tensions and conflicts generated by the other four sub-systems, and forms a consensus which is disputed by no-one). Leisure is a part of the oniric sub-system, and tourism is one of the many forms of leisure. Tourism, furthermore, generates a discourse which regulates the wish of the individual. Mobility, as a supreme cultural value of the west, is a right transmitted to children through differing means of socialisation from their earliest years. This same "right" to mobility is encouraged by holidays (as sacred spaces dedicated to the practise of tourism, and whose objective is the creation of economic wealth), and by specific economic interests. The geographic sub-system is also important, in the planning of tourism routes where tourism for recreation is safe (or unsafe). Entertainment, which is an element of all voyages which alternate relaxation with moderate risk, is the basis of tourism as a total phenomenon and applicable to all cultures (Elias and Dunning, 1998).

Returning to the theme of the Spanish conquest of America, in which there are inconsistencies either generated within the system or by an external system or society (that is, the meeting between two ethnic groups), leisure and tourism not only followed the discourse of the dominant society, and therefore its political subsystem, but created a cosmic vision with sufficient symbolic power to justify the very act of territorial expropriation. When the oniric system cannot perform its function of regulation and balance, social change is the result. On the other hand, the mythical-religious sub-system (which includes all those who preserve knowledge such as priests, scientists, and journalists) needs a story to give any sense to the world and the events which happen. The process of the construction of myths is the foundation for cultural values which support society and around which are created different rituals, heroes and cultural practices. The link between the mythical-religious subsystem and the oniric sub-system is of great complexity. Cultural values which are considered to be unquestionable, such as rest, mobility, and the return, are essentially transmitted by myths of origin, or genesis, and may be observed in the different religious doctrines of the world. A temporary journey therefore requires a psychic relocation of the voyager, who thus experiences, in his fantasy, the necessity of a change of narrative and identity, and subsequent return to his situation of origin.

Even if there are many important works concerning epistemology, so as not to confuse the reader we will discuss in this section the most important elements of the scientific system. This was without doubt one of the most important errors of Jafari when he developed his thesis of the “scientification” of tourism. In part this error was caused by the fact that he had not taken into account the historic evolution of the different sciences, or their links to the economic systems within which these disciplines were born. When we talk about the scientific method, we imagine a person in a laboratory surrounded by test tubes and chemical formulae. However, scientific thought is determined by three basic pillars: a) the inference of laws, b) the replicability of the data, and c) the explanation of phenomena. Following this reasoning, one may add that the scientific method always seeks to apply accumulated knowledge and the possibility of inferring universal laws which explain the relation between variables. The sources and processes should be duly documented and the results should be capable of being repeated by another researcher. Lastly, science should, by observation, permit the comprehension and explanation of the variation and connection of the variables of the problem. Thus, all scientific research begins with a question, which is answered by following a method.

Unfortunately, for a long time, the positivists, not knowing about the contributions of the Viennese School, introduced relativity in the evaluation of results. Thus, science came to be determined not by the method but by the falsability of the results. This suggests an investment in the production of knowledge in which the result comes to be more important than the intervening steps. As a result of this epistemological confusion, many scientists fell into conceptual relativity which has led to great fragmentation. The form of research then gave way to methodological subjectivity, which, being linked to the situation and politics accelerate, the consolidation of modernity as a general way of life. In this context, it is worth clarifying that all science rests on two forms of generating knowledge. The first is called “1st State” and is characterised by the isolation of those variables which are studied, generally in laboratories, and which seek to learn about the laws which govern the universe. Physics is one of the sciences which operates under the principle of direct observation. The environment, in this type of situation, is totally controlled. The scientist should always conduct experiments in the present in order to draw inferences about the future. However, “2nd State” science is totally different. Under certain conditions, the grade of repeatability cannot be isolated in a determined frame of time and space, and the researcher must “reconstruct” the causes of the problem from the past. Within this classification are the so-called social sciences, which include psychology and sociology, among others. As capital expands its influence, breaking down the former notions of time and space with globalisation, knowledge is produced by a great variety of research centres with few links between them. Their results are so dispersed

that there is little or no dialogue between the different schools of thought. The most established disciplines accuse newer bodies of knowledge of not being able to infer laws, and this becomes a motive for their rejection. Given the general laws of science, it is of interest to know that historical evolution of science has changed through the years. We may explain our model of “The three phases of science” as follows:

From antiquity until the end of the middle ages, mankind was interested by questions concerning the connection between people and its cities. His economy was purely a subsistence economy linked to cattle farming and primary agriculture. There was an important link between a man and his territory and lineage, as there was no concept of salaried work as we know it today, or in other words the possibility of a person to choose where, for what wage, and for whom he would work. The disciplines which governed life were philosophy, astrology, medicine and astronomy among others. We term this phase “the primary production of knowledge”. In the late middle age, we enter into a second phase, which we term “the secondary production of knowledge” in which the Industrial and Cromwellian Revolutions have left their mark. Work and the relationship of a person with his lineage started to lose their strong linkage, due to the consensus that labour should be sold according to the conditions of the context. Little by little man ceased to be subject to God, his city, and his master in order to become part of the capitalist adventure based on speculation, control of the results, and calculation. During this process, from the 19th century until the middle of the 20th century, new disciplines were born. These included psychology, anthropology and sociology. These new disciplines were totally orientated to the study of man, but rather than seeking the answers to abstract universal questions, they were specific with emphasis on industrial work, poverty, and development, for instance.

The Advance of Science

The “social sciences” entered into conflict with the established disciplines, and so sociology confronted philosophy, and psychology confronted medicine (and psychiatry). Without doubt, we inevitably begin to see a fragmentation in the method of generating and interpreting knowledge. These forms of the production of science cannot be studied outside the context of the standardisation of the modern means of production in general. Systemic standardisation (that is, the possibility of the accumulation of comparative data, as defended by the positivists) was directly proportional to mass production. Society and human behaviour begin to be considered as a systemic whole, where there are inputs, processes and outputs which indefinitely feed back into other systems. Social interaction is the conceptual base which these new sciences claimed to study.

However, the situation changed radically towards the end of 20th century, or to be more exact in about 1970 when capitalist countries began to realise that they could not guarantee serial production for ever in a sustainable way. This was due to the energy crisis provoked by the Arab-Israeli War, in which industries had to introduce a new form of consumption so that capital, which had been born out of the Industrial Revolution, could become electronic. The production of capital for the purchase of goods did not now seem to be as important as the opposite situation, where goods become a pre-condition for the production and general accumulation of money.

The classic relationship is replaced by symbolic mediators, such as money, generating a total solipsism, or the view that the self is the only thing that really exists. We may call this third state the “fragmented stage of knowledge” in which the new disciplines (communication, journalism, tourism, gastronomy, management and publicity, for example) begin to gain ground in comparison with second stage disciplines such as sociology. As two of the main characteristics of post-modernity have been social fragmentation and subjectivity, these new forms of knowledge have been oriented towards consumption and the aesthetic. These new values of society are rejected by the already established second stage sciences. Sociology and anthropology claim that tourism is a science which does not have its foundations in serious reason. These are the same claims that sociology had confronted from its own predecessors. In order to summarise this model and enable the reader to achieve a greater understanding of the phenomenon, we might synthesise the main aspects which distinguish third stage sciences as follows:

- 1) They are disciplines which are linked to the creation of necessities, in order to explain them.
- 2) They consider social reality as a product.
- 3) They follow parameters which are similar to market engineering.
- 4) Their considerations and findings are isolated, and cannot be integrated into a coherent whole.
- 5) They show great fragmentation or lack an academic base to orientate research.
- 6) Information plays an important role in the construction of their discourse, but is not integrated.
- 7) They appeal to multi-disciplinarity but their results are mere second-order explanations.
- 8) They are purely descriptive.
- 9) They are strongly influenced by the aesthetic and appearance.
- 10) They focus on experience as their principal strength, but lack an integrated methodology.

- 11) They confuse the form of data collection with method.
- 12) They are disconnected elements of knowledge which prioritise reason and not the pursuit of truth. In other words, as they define reason as an abstract form of thought, these new sciences can express principles which do not have any real direction.

The new post-industrial sciences are, above all, incomplete sciences which try to explain what to do in the face of particular problems rather than investigate the cause of the problem. They are linked to the effects and not the causes of behaviour. This article has tried to contribute to those epistemologists interested in the existence or otherwise of the science of tourism. Jafari concluded, mistakenly, that one measures a discipline by the quantity of bibliographic production, ignoring the essential characteristics of science. It must be admitted that this belief is widely accepted in scientific works, and therefore must be seriously considered. Tourism might be defined as “a cyclical process whose function is the dislocation of the identity, and physical movement, to a place far from the usual residence of a person, with recreational purposes, and with subsequent re-insertion in his or her permanent environment, temporarily fulfilling the psychic necessities of escape, curiosity and extraordinariness, which are common to all forms of leisure”.

As a social practice, tourism bears a code whose objective is educational and socialising in respect to the rest of society. The contents of this discourse vary depending on the socio-economic and political context. The particular time and space in which tourism as a multi-cultural phenomenon takes place is a discussion which is secondary to its definition. The most important issue is to understand, not only the evolution and different forms of tourism in other cultures and times, but also its function within the complex system which is society. Thus, even if there is one form of tourism which is predominant, imposed by the cultural constructions of empires, there are also local forms of tourism which confront, and dialogue with, this narrative imposed from outside. To understand the relation between tourism and society is to explore conquests, imperialism and territorial expropriation. Did not the Azande, Navajo and Aymara, among others, also travel for escape or pleasure? Scientists have forgotten that there are non-western practises of tourism which should also be studied. In summary, it is necessary to develop a new method to understand social practises with respect to tourism, or tourisms. This new method should take into account history, inter-cultural comparison, the interpretation of myths, and ethnography to discuss tourism as symbolic voyages in which the individual meets others in order to recognise himself. Ethnocentricity leads many to consider modern tourism as the only form of travelling in a civilised manner, and it is her that one can find a series of erroneous descriptions of tourism. The “other” or the non-western, or the indigenous,

forms merely the object of “cultural tourism” or “ethnic tourism”. Western paternalism obliges the protection of other cultural forms in order to reinforce the ethnocentricity itself.

Conclusion

Tourism as a modern practice seems to be a result of two combined factors, hospitality and leisure. While the former creates discontent and conflict, the latter revitalizes the broken tendons in order to prevent the social fragmentation. From the conquest of America, to the rise of most important Empires, almost all human allegories are circumscribed to hospitality. Being hospitable is a divine mandate, present in all cultures. Under such a context, we must understand hospitality as a rite that facilitates the acceptance of otherness reducing the risks and uncertainty. Of course, Hospitality depends upon many factors but travels and political alliances are in fact instruments that orchestrate the sense of community. Coming across the history, one might realize that tourism and hospitality has been inextricably intertwined. Following this explanation, hospitality should be considered the object of study of tourism-related research. Exploring the diverse ways communities accept or neglect the otherness is always a way to understand their economic or politic orders. This essay review has provided reader with interesting assumptions to see in hospitality more than a strategy of marketing in order for a certain destination to gain attractiveness. In perspective, hospitality is, undoubtedly, an ancient institution based on culture by means communities celebrated trade in peace-times but commitment to alienate in case of external attacks. Processes of scrutiny, trace and protection, for example at an international airport, are enabled to reduce the fear strangers wake up. It is important to remind that after 9/11, United States changed its view respecting to world, not only closing its boundaries but also rejecting hospitality. This is a good point to keep on working in next approaches, at some extent, terrorism needs from conditioned-hospitality, in terms of Derrida, to create more psychological impacts in the core of targeted society but paradoxically, this restricted types of hospitality becomes in paranoia after the attacks are perpetrated.

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About the Authors

As sociologist, Korstanje has specialized in the study of risk and mobilities from many interdisciplinary approaches. Recently, his interest was based on the impacts of 9/11 to tourism and local economies. As a result of this, in 2010 he founded the first journal dedicated to the study of safety in tourism, *International Journal of Safety and Security in Tourism* hosted by The University of Palermo Argentina. His contributions led to co-editor important journals as *Event Management* and *Int. Journal of Tourism and Travels* and work as editorial board member for more than 20 journals in risk and tourism such as: *Risk and Uncertainty*, *Journal of Tourism Anthropology*, *Journal of Risk Research*, *Rosa dos Ventos*, *Journal of Emergency Service Information*, *Journal of Disaster Resilience in the Built Environment*, *Studies and Perspectives in Tourism*, *El Periplo Sustainable*, *Tourism and Society* and *Int. Journal of Hospitality and Event Management*.

With more than 300 published papers and 13 books, Korstanje takes part of the Philosophical society of England, The international Society for Philosophers, United Kingdom and Int. Committee Research on Disasters, United States.

Alistair Thirkettle is one of the best epistemologist in Spanish world. He studied initially at the London College of Printing, where obtained a diploma. He obtained his Msc in tourism at the University of Strathclyde, Scotland with a thesis entitled Tourism Development in Nicaragua. He was then involved in the foundation of the School of Tourism of the National Autonomous University of Nicaragua in Leon. In this, he received the support of Dr. Francisco Muñoz de Escalona, whose general theory of tourism was used in the design of the Curriculum of the school. Thirkettle was subsequently a Lecturer in this University over 15 years, before returning to UK where now is leading his own project in translating and proofreading important scientific projects.

LIST OF CONFERENCES

July 2012

Annual Conference on Management and Social Science (ACMSS 2012)

27th to 30th July 2012

Beijing, China

Website: <http://www.acgebf.org>

Contact person: Tia Rada

August 2012

International Conference on Sustainable Tourism in Developing Countries

8th to 9th August 2012

Zanzibar, Tanzania

Website: <http://www.udbs.udsm.ac.tz/>

Contact person: Dev Jani

Second International Conference Management of Health Tourism - MHT

9th to 11th August 2012

Varna, Bulgaria

Website: http://www.europe-made.com/conf_MHT_2012.htm

The Asian Conference on Arts and Cultures 2012

9th to 10th August 2012

Bangkok, Thailand

Website: <http://www.acacconference.com>

Contact person: Weeranan Kamnungwut

2012 Shanghai International Conference on Social Science (SICSS)

14th to 17th August 2012

Shanghai, China

Website: <http://www.shanghai-ic.org>

Contact person: Secretariat - 2012SICSS

Transition - National Conference on Effecting Changes in Hospitality & Tourism

16th to 16th August 2012

Bangalore, Karnataka, India

September 2012

International Hospitality and Tourism Conference 2012

3rd to 5th September 2012

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Website: <http://www.jthca.org/conference>

Contact person: Assoc. Prof. Artinah Zainal., PhD

2nd International Conference on Tourism and Sports Management

5th to 6th September 2012

Debrecen, Hungary

Website: <http://tsmconf.com/>

Contact person: Adrian Nagy

Current Issues and (Im)possible Solutions: an interdisciplinary dialogue in tourism and leisure

6th to 7th September 2012

Guildford, Surrey, United Kingdom

Website: <http://ocs.som.surrey.ac.uk/index.php/GLTRG/GLTRG2012/schedConf/overview>

Contact person: Annabelle A. Mc Laren-Thomson

The 2012 IBSM-International conference on Business and Management

6th to 7th September 2012

Phuket, Thailand

Website: <http://www.caal-inteduorg.com/ibsm2012>

Contact person: Asep Hermawan

The 3rd International Academic Consortium for Sustainable Cities (IACSC) Symposium

8th to 8th September 2012

Near Bangkok, Thailand

Website: <http://www.iacsc2012.org/>

Contact person: IACSC 2012

Tourism, Climate Change and Sustainability

13th to 14th September 2012

Bournemouth, United Kingdom

Website: <http://www.bournemouth.ac.uk/climatechange2012>

Contact person: Dr Vijay Reddy and Dr Keith Wilkes

International Conference on Hotel and Business Management

14th to 15th September 2012

Hyderabad, India

Website: <http://hospitalitycongress.wordpress.com/>

Contact person: <http://www.omicsonline.org/management2012/registration.php>

2nd International Conference on Island Sustainability

17th to 19th September 2012

Brac, Croatia (Hrvatska)

Website: <http://www.wessex.ac.uk/12-conferences/islands-2012.html>

Contact person: Alice Jones

WYSTC 2012

18th to 21st September 2012

San Diego, California, United States of America

Website: <http://www.wystc.org>

Contact person: Sari Hietamak

2012 Global Business Conference

19th to 22nd September 2012

Zadar / Solaris hotel resort, Croatia (Hrvatska)

Website: <http://www.gbc-2012.com/>

Contact person: Morana Fuduric

The 4th World conference of the International Society for the Social Sciences of Sport

19th to 22nd September 2012

Kranjska Gora, Slovenia

Website: http://www.spolint.org/contents_files/docs/1st_call_ISSSS_2012.pdf

Contact person: Milan Hosta, PhD

Innovation for Sustainability

27th to 28th September 2012

Porto, Portugal

Website: <http://www.ulusiada.pt/is2012/>

Contact person: Paula Rodrigues

International Conference on Social and Technological Development (STED 2012)

28th to 29th September 2012

Banja Luka, Bosnia and Herzegovina

Website: <http://conference.univerzitetpim.com>

Contact person: Prof. dr Mile Vasic

October 2012***International Conference on Business Hospitality & Tourism Management***

10th to 12th October 2012

Montego Bay, St. James, Jamaica

Website: http://www.utech.edu.jm/FOBM_conf

Contact person: Joan Lawla

13th International Joint World Cultural Tourism Conference

12th to 14th October 2012

Bangkok, Thailand

Website: http://kasct.co.kr/eng/open_con01.htm

Contact person: Prof. Sungchae Jung, Ph.D.

International Society of Travel and Tourism Educators (ISTTE)

16th to 18th October 2012

Freiburg, Germany

Website: <http://www.istte.org/conference.html>

Contact person: Joann Bruss

***Towards a system and theory of tourists? Sehnsucht and tourism
Sehnsuchtsorte. Unpacking tourists? desires and places of longing in
Eastern Europe***

19th to 20th October 2012

Basel, Switzerland

Website: <http://sehnsuchtsorte.wordpress.com/>

Contact person: Hannah Wadle, Bianca Hoenig

Appreciating Physical Landscapes: Geotourism 1670?1970

22nd to 23rd October 2012

London, United Kingdom

Website: <http://www.geolsoc.org.uk/geotourism12>

Contact person: Tom Hose, University of Bristol, UK

***EIB 11th FEMIP Conference: Towards Sustainable Tourism in the
Mediterranean***

25th to 25th October 2012

Amman, Jordan

Website: <http://www.eib.org/projects/events/11th-femip-conference-jordan.htm>

13th Annual International Conference on Gay & Lesbian Tourism

31st October to 2nd November 2012

San Francisco, California, United States of America

Website: <http://www.communitymarketinginc.com/education-and-conferences/new-york-lgbt-marketing-conference/>

Contact person: David Paisley

November 2012***MAPACA Travel and Tourism Panels***

1st to 3rd November 2012

Pittsburgh, PA, United States of America

Website: <http://mapaca.net/MAPACA-2012-CFP.pdf>

Contact person: Jennifer Erica Sweda

1st Jordanian Conference of Tourism and Hospitality

4th to 6th November 2012

Irbid, Jordan

Website: <http://www.yu.edu.jo/thc/>

Contact person: Khalid Magablih

Tourism, Innovation and Training

6th to 7th November 2012

Odivelas, Lisboa, Portugal

Website: <http://www.isce-turismo.com/index>

Contact person: Ana Marques

2nd International Conference on Tourism Recreation

7th to 9th November 2012

Peniche, Portugal

Website: <http://www.giturprojects.com/ictr/index.php?lg=3>

Contact person: Fernanda Oliveira

Culture Matters 2012 - International Cultural Heritage Conference - Capturing the social and economic value of cultural heritage

14th to 16th November 2012

Norwich, Norfolk, United Kingdom

Website: <http://www.shaping24.eu/conference>

Contact person: Janet Robertson

4th Asia-Euro Conference 2012 In Tourism, Hospitality & Gastronomy

28th November to 1st December 2012

Subang Jaya, Selangor, Malaysia

Website: <http://www.taylors.edu.my/asiaeuro>

Contact person: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kashif Hussain

December 2012***Hospitality Development under Globalization***

1st to 4th December 2012

Guangzhou, China

Website: <http://www.china-spain.org>

Contact person: Mrs Luo

American German Conference for Academic Disciplines

2nd to 7th December 2012

Gottenheim near Freiburg, Germany

Website: <http://www.internationaljournal.org/germany.html>

Contact person: Dr. Joseph Bonnici, PhD, JD

Destination Branding and Marketing IV

5th to 7th December 2012

Cardiff, Wales, United Kingdom

Website: <http://www3.uwic.ac.uk/english/cardiff-school-of-management/tourism-hospitality-events-management/dbm-conference/pages/h>

Contact person: Professor Nigel Morgan

CALL FOR PAPERS

SPECIAL ISSUE FOR ROSA DOS VENTOS JOURNAL

THE DIALECTICS OF BORDERS, EMPIRES, AND LIMENS

ROSA DOS VENTOS, the journal of Post-graduate Programs in tourism and hospitality hosted by the University Caxias do Sul in Brazil invite researchers, scholars, practitioners and readers to send your advances, research and contributions for the next special issue 2012/2013. This special issue explores the pervasive nature of tourism, opening a new view on the existent academic literature. In doing so, the question of mobilities and rationality have paved the way for the advent of a new spirit of supremacy of some groups over others. The hot debate seems to be related to the role played by tourism in such a process. Particularly, oppressive or alienable for ones, emancipator for others, the fact is that tourism & hospitality contributed notably to the surfacing of nation-states.

Borders are central to empires. Empires make borders, ignore, enforce and transgress them. None of this is new. What is new is a new kind of empire, an empire of globalization, to use the current euphemism. More honestly descriptive, capital comprises the empire of the early twenty-first century. Metaphorically, its borders form a Great Wall of Capital as Mike Davis (2005) dubbed it. The great wall of capital transcribes the globe in a vaguely north-south orientation. The empire has several centers; among them are Wall Street in New York City, Washington DC, the City of London, Tokyo, and maybe a few others. Capital's borders are ever shifting as the needs of capital are dynamic. This bordering wall permits empirical observation only on the local level, because its expanse requires abstraction for comprehension. Therefore to write of the borders of the empire of capital and its liminality means continually shifting between the concrete, empirically accessible micro-level to its Victor W. Turner started what became a small industry in liminality when he recouped and elaborated Arnold Van Gennep's (1960) concept developed as part of the latter's study of rites of passage. Turner noted that during rites of passage, "the characteristics of the ritual subject (the 'passenger') are ambiguous; he passes through a cultural realm that has few or none of the attributes of the past or coming state" (Turner 1969:94). The same applies to travelers who cross the borders of empire. Limens and borders both separate and tie together disparate sectors of society. This dialectical function of borders and limens applies to structural social positions and to classes. In fact it makes the positions relational. They function in this way to create a "human bond, without which there could be no society. Liminality implies that the high could not be high unless the low existed" (97). Those on the threshold can observe the function from a perspective unavailable to those on either side. Turner argued that because of its dialectical function, liminality was anti-structural and a manifestation of *communitas*—a sense of togetherness

and equality in the human condition. Turner's association of liminality with *communitas* and anti-structure, however, grasps only one part of the dialectic. Turner's *limen* is the aspect of liminality that ties together. He neglects its separating function. Take, for instance, the borders in Palestine. This is Derek Gregory's characterization of them in and around the occupied territories, and arguably all of Palestine is an occupied territory.

The occupied territories have been turned into twilight zones, caught in a frenzied cartography of mobile frontiers rather than fixed boundaries. These enforce a violent fragmentation and recombination of time and space, which is nothing less than a concerted attempt to disturb and derange the normal rhythms of everyday Palestinian life (Gregory 2004:131-2).

Gregory then continues by comparing these *limens* that crisscross Palestine to Giorgio Agamben's (1995) philosophical essay, grounded in the Nazi concentration camps and their containment of *Homo sacer*—bare life. "As the splinters of Palestine form the shattered space of the exception, punctuated by the power-topologies of a colonial necropolitics, it seems clear that 'third spaces' and paradoxical spaces are not necessarily sites of emancipation (Soja 1996)" (Gregory 2004:134).

Travelers, tourists and others, enter liminal space-time upon crossing borders. In some cases, the borders are subtle, with little or no physical presence to act as guides and reminders of the liminal state. In other times and places—the Wall in Palestine, the Berlin Wall and Checkpoint Charlie, the killing zone between the fences in Nazi concentration camps, and the anti-immigration wall between Mexico and the United States (Nevins 2002)—the *limen* operates as a sieve, a semi-permeable membrane that allows free passage for some but not others. The borders that are less visible still appear clear to socially perceptive travelers when they traverse neighborhood boundaries in cities such as Chicago. In these latter, subtler border crossings, there are no physical walls, armed border guards, or other paraphernalia of what Gregory aptly called necropolitics. Such neighborhood boundaries remain no less real. Moreover, they replicate at a micro level the same globalized politics as those of a grimmer visage.

Tourists are the privileged border crossers. Their privilege arises from their position in the world capitalist system (Wallerstein 2004), the empire of capital. They move at will, regulated, but still able to cross borders so long as they have two commodities—passports from appropriate authorities and money. Those two commodities make tourists the ritual passengers, as Turner put it. They participate in the rituals of passport control and customs when the cross national boundaries. Mouth the appropriate perfunctories about their visit being for pleasure. Nevertheless, their roles in the drama are not under their control. They are controlled by the things, the objects, the commodities that they

carry, but do not possess. They carry but do not possess them, because it is more accurate to say that the tourists are possessed by them. Their role depends on them. Their identities depend on them. This relationship between carriers and possessor is made possible, indeed required by the empire of capital. Capital sorts out humanity according to its own needs. That is how the empire of capital works.

The present call for papers is aimed at receiving full length contributions, book reviews and short manuscripts respecting to the connection between tourism, capitalism and imperialism. Manuscripts should contain no more than 8.000 words and formatted in APA style. For further references authors should visit the following URL <http://www.ucs.br/etc/revistas/index.php/rosadosventos>

Studies should be sent to attention of Maximiliano E. Korstanje at maxikorstanje@fibertel.com.ar by copy to Skoll Geoffrey skollgr@buffalostate.edu no later than October 2012.

GUEST EDITORS

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CRIMINAL JUSTICE DEPARTMENT
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DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS
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JOURNAL OF TOURISM (JOT)-SPECIAL ISSUE ON TREKKING TOURISM

Call for papers: Special Issue *Journal of Tourism* (December 2012)

Trekking Tourism as a modern nature-based tourism experience has gained importance in recent years and has diversified into different sub-categories not being confined to specific climatic regions or certain heights and alpine conditions. It has established itself among the traditional hiking and mountaineering products that have marked the origins of this field, especially in the European context. It now encompasses all types of outdoor journeys that can be conducted with a minimum of infrastructure and can also include various means of transportation such as bikes, boats or skis (Zollondz, 2008). Especially in developing countries trekking has become a driver for tourism development in remote areas and service chains have been set up around the core product trekking. In many cases it has been combined with different adventure and outdoor products like river rafting and wildlife watching. New approaches can be found that use technical innovations like GPS-mapping or social media services to enhance the trekking experience for the customers. Because of its closeness to the nature theme and since it is supposed to rely on very basic infrastructures while creating jobs for the local population and using the natural resources in a sustainable way, it has also become a major aspect of sustainable travelling. But there are still many issues for the supply, as well as the demand side that need to be addressed. The following topics can be used to structure the submitted papers:

- Trekking Tourism and Sustainable Development
- Trekking Tourism and Destination Management
- Trekking Tourism and Product Development
- Trekking Tourism and Marketing Innovations

Concrete questions can be derived from those topics and become a starting point for the proposed paper projects: What competencies are needed to create a functioning trekking tourism value chain? What types of networks have to be set up to enable innovative product development? What is the sustainability impact of the trekking product? What kind of regulation is needed to ensure quality and safety standards? What are future target groups and what can be done to satisfy the needs of these customers?

The objective of this special issue is to discuss in an international context the prospects of trekking tourism and its related products (especially hiking and mountaineering). Because of the interdisciplinary character of tourism, studies from different backgrounds can be included, ranging from management and economics to geography and social studies. The

intention is to understand the needed practices, networks and competencies to establish sustainable trekking operations and how this can lead to an improvement of local and regional development processes.

We therefore invite you to submit research papers on any aspect of Trekking Tourism, including case studies, best practices, meta-studies and empirical analyses. All papers submitted for the special edition of *Journal of Tourism* will be subject to double blind peer review before publication and should conform to the submitting requirements as described at:

<http://www.hnbgu.ac.in/images/ad/Circular/Journal%20contents.pdf>

Abstracts (up to 1,000 words) should be sent to Prof. Dr. Harald Pechlaner (harald.pechlaner@ku-eichstaett.de) by November 30, 2012. Information about acceptance will follow by December 09, 2012. Submissions of full papers have to be handed in by the end of December 2012. Revised full papers are due by the end of September and the publication of the special issue is planned for December 2012.

Journal of Tourism (JoT) is a collaborative publication of the Centre for Mountain Tourism and Hospitality Studies of H.N.B Garhwal University, India. The journal is aimed to be a platform for interdisciplinary researchers in tourism to communicate their research to an international audience that include educators, researchers, and professionals. The journal recognizes the broadness and the interconnectedness of tourism, both as a phenomenon and as its realization as an industry. There exists almost no disciplinary field which cannot offer some or the other valuable perspective on tourism and the journal's contents shall reflect its integrative approach. JoT also aims to heighten awareness of the Asian and the North American continents as significant players in international tourism.

GUEST EDITORS

Prof. Dr. Harald Pechlaner
Catholic University of Eichstaett-Ingolstadt

Mr. Christopher Reuter,
M.A.Catholic University of Eichstaett-Ingolstadt

INDIAN HOSPITALITY CONGRESS

Indian Hospitality Congress (IHC) is an academic platform aimed to provide a common space for Hospitality educators, Institutes, Professionals and Students. It aims at organizing

- Indian Hospitality Meet/ Seminar (annually).
- Indian Hospitality Newsletter.
- Promotion of Indian Literature in Hospitality.
- Inviting Authors to Develop Study Material on Hospitality in Indian Context.
- Promoting Research in Hospitality.
- Encouraging Hospitality Students – Annual Awards to be presented in Seminar at Annual Hospitality Meet.
- Industry Institute Partnership.
- Hospitality Youth Club

IHC is instrumental to strongly promote young academicians to develop study material in Indian Hospitality Context, which shall be vetted by senior people from Academia/ Industry. IHC also plans of promoting research in Hospitality by assisting in Projects.

Membership:

To request a membership form please send an email with subject” Membership Form Request” to - hospitalitycongress@gmail.com

We welcome you to join the Indian Hospitality Congress Online at Yahoo Groups. It is absolutely free. IHC Group is a form of bulletin board which serves as a means to connect the hospitality research and education community. Its purpose is to promote an exchange of information relevant to hospitality research and to create a place for open debate on issues related to hospitality research and education.

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