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Preface

With increasing demand for newer tourism products, the search for satisfying strategies for the same has become more pertinent across all developed and developing countries, led the prospective researchers paving way to fulfill the need of the changing scenario. In align with this; Journal of Tourism (JOT) has been instrumental in disseminating quality research information to develop and promote tourism for the largest interest of the tourism sector.

This issue comes with 3 research papers, 2 research notes and a book review to quench the thirst of the potential tourism readers and other stakeholders. We are sure; the current issue will record its predominant source for betterment of tourism.

The Research Paper of Steve Sizoo on "Succeeding in the Global Marketplace: a practical approach to developing the cross-cultural skills of tourism & hospitality students" clearly educates about the significance of cross-cultural skills for hospitality and tourism students to face the globalised environment. Further the paper also examines cross-cultural learning theory and cross-cultural expertise development theories for managing cultural differences in this volatile environment. The paper recommends having a unique pedagogy to develop the necessary skills in the training institutes.

Hsuan-Hsuan Chang in his research paper **"**Nationality's differences in youth tourists' travelling risk perceptions and satisfactions within Taiwan" discusses about the various experiences of travelling youths while visiting abroad. It also addresses the nationality differences in pre purchase perception and post purchase satisfaction visiting Taiwan. Further the paper educates relatively neglected issues of the relationships among different nationalities.

Gongmei Yu, Zvi Schwartz and John E. Walsh in their research paper **"**Climate Change and Tourism Seasonality" discusses about the relationship between climate and tourism seasonality. Paper also examines about the dominant role in shaping the seasonal patterns of tourist visitation. The impact of season on tourist visitation is also studied on this paper besides assessing the relationship between tourism demand and climate.

The research note “Golf travel and definitions” by Jeongsun Kimmm describes the various definitions of golf and emphasizes on golf tourism. Paper also concentrates on various reasons of playing golf and usage of term golf travel rather golf tour. It provides strong base for future research in golf travel.

Dileep M R and Sindhu S in their research note “Destination Marketing: The Case of Kerala Tourism**”** discuss about the difficulties in marketing tourism destination as a successful product and reasons for such difficulties. They also enumerated various initiatives of Kerala state towards the development of tourism besides analyzing the strength of Kerala. The study serves as a focal point for effective tourism marketing.

JoT feels much pleasure to extend warm regards to our editorial board for thier valuable suggestions from time to time. JoT family is also indebted to our reviewers who have accepted our request in giving their views and finally to our contributors and subscribers for their extended support.

S. C. Bagri
Editor - in - Chief
& Tony L. Henthrone
Executive Editor

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Contents

Research Paper

Succeeding in the global marketplace: A practical approach to developing the Cross-cultural skills of tourism & hospitality students

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Abstract: *With customers and business partners originating from outside the United States, cross-cultural skills are becoming important for success in the hospitality and tourism industry. To be successful in this globalized business environment, hospitality and tourism students need to be able to manage cultural difference on three levels: self, interpersonal, and organizational. Since literature indicates that training programs based on cultural learning theories are more effective, this paper examines cross-cultural learning theory and theories in cross-cultural expertise development. Next, the paper examines a practical, theory-based program for developing the cross-cultural skills of hospitality students. The five related and synergistic activities discussed in the paper give participants experience in dealing with and solving real-world hospitality problems in cross-cultural management on those three levels. The program is discussed in terms of cultural learning theory, and to confirm the efficacy of this approach, a pre-test post-test experiment was conducted with a treatment-group and control-groups. The experiment specifically addresses the following research question: Can these exercises produce significantly higher levels of intercultural sensitivity? Results show that the treatment group was the only one to show a significant (at p<.05) increase in intercultural expertise—a measure of cross-cultural skill. Limitations and implications are discussed.*

Keywords: Hospitality & tourism education, cross-cultural skills, globalization, intercultural sensitivity, learning theory, expertise development

Introduction

International visitors not only create opportunities for the American hospitality industry but also present challenges as well. In this global marketplace, hospitality employees in the U.S. frequently find themselves interacting with customers, suppliers, or partners from other cultures. Research shows that interculturally competent hospitality employees provide their foreign customers with better service and their organizations with better results (Sizoo, 2008). Yet differing cultural norms and values often create misunderstandings and conflict that can result in unhappy customers or suppliers, frustrated employees, and lost business (Cushner & Brislin, 1996).

Given the growing importance of these intercultural interactions, American business has significantly increased its investment in cross-cultural training (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000). But much of this investment is wasted on training that consists of little more than the "dos and don'ts" of international etiquette (Bhawuk, 2001). Studies suggest that cross-cultural training is more effective if it has a strong theoretical foundation (Bhawuk, 1998). To explore that proposition further, this study assesses a cross-cultural training program in terms of recent literature and describes an experiment testing the efficacy of the program.

Literature Review

Cross-cultural learning theory

In a review of the concepts that have become part of cross-cultural literature during the last 50 years, Bhawuk and Brislin (2000) reported that theory had become an important consideration in the development of cross-cultural training. Bhawuk and Triandis (1996) proposed that culture theory provided an effective foundation for training programs and kept its content from simply being a loose collection of suppositions. To lay the foundation for testing this proposition, the paper next reviews developments in cross-cultural leaning theory.

In an examination of the theoretical fundamentals of cross-cultural learning, Chen and Starosta (1997) found that three separate but mutually dependent elements combine to enable individuals to achieve successful intercultural interactions and therefore should be incorporated in cross-cultural training. According to this model, *Intercultural awareness* is the cognitive aspect in which an individual understands the cultural conventions that influence how people think and behave. *Intercultural sensitivity* is what Chen and Starosta (1997) call the affective aspect in which one develops a positive emotion toward understanding and appreciating cultural differences. These two elements are the prerequisites for *intercultural competence*, the behavior aspect in which individuals conduct themselves effectively and appropriately during intercultural interactions.

But for an individual to demonstrate this competence, he or she must develop expertise. In an examination of the stages of expertise development (Anderson, 1990) determined that learning occurred in three stages: the *cognitive stage* in which the procedure is acquired; the *associate stage* in which learners begin to identify and eliminate some of their mistakes; and the *autonomous stage* in which the skill becomes more routine and familiar.

From this research, Bhawuk (1998) proposed a model of cross-cultural expertise development. In this paradigm, a *layperson* is one who has virtually no awareness of culture differences. A *novice* is one who has some intercultural expertise. These people are in the first, cognitive stage of Anderson's (1990) model of expertise development. An *expert* is a novice who has acquired the knowledge of cultural theories that are relevant to a large number of behaviors. These people are in Anderson's second, associative stage of expertise development. *Advanced experts* are "experts who have not only the knowledge of the theory but also have had the amount of practice needed to perform the relevant tasks automatically" (p. 636). These people are in Anderson's third, autonomous stage of expertise development.

U.S. executives have long rated an individual's ability to work with people of other cultures as one of the most important qualities of success in international business (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992). Yet training and development programs in the United States often deal inadequately with the potential conflicts that result from cross-cultural interactions. Too often this training addresses only the cognitive level-focusing on the dos and don'ts (Bhawuk, 2001). When individuals pursue careers in international business they must prepare for a life of cross-cultural interactions in a cognitive, affective and behavior context. That preparation must include learning cross-cultural considerations intellectually, emotionally, and experientially (Chen & Starosta, 1997).

Cross-cultural skills development

Serrie (1992)—building on the cross-cultural formulations of Brislin (1983), Gudykunst (1988), Hofstede (1986), and Triandis (1988)—reported that individuals involved in cross-cultural interactions as part of their job must be able to deal with cultural differences on three distinct levels. To be effective, a cross-cultural training program must address these elements.

First, individuals must be able to cross-culturally manage themselves: they should be able to move personally beyond culture shock and adapt to the alien behaviors they experience, either when working abroad or when involved in cross-cultural interactions in their home country. This last category is what Tharenou (2005) calls the growing phenomenon of "domestic jobs with international responsibilities."

Second, these individuals must be able to manage cross-cultural differences at the interpersonal level. This includes relating effectively to fellow employees, suppliers, customers, and government officials when working abroad. Life in a foreign culture also includes helping spouses, children, and home country friends and coworkers adapt to the host culture. Third, hospitality managers must be able to cross-culturally manage at the organizational or institutional level. This means possessing enough cross-cultural understanding to make correct managerial decisions regarding the capabilities of their own organization and the needs of foreign partners.

To address these needs, Serrie (1992) developed five training exercises. Although the five exercises are separable, when used collectively they are especially effective in building cross-cultural management skills on all three levels—the self, the interpersonal, and the institutional.

Next, Serrie's training exercises are assessed in terms of these recent studies in cross-cultural learning theory. Then, to empirically test the effectiveness of this approach, a pretest-posttest experimental design was conducted with treatment and control groups. The experiment specifically addresses the following research question: Can these exercises produce significantly higher levels of intercultural sensitivity? The paper first presents the five cross-cultural exercises in terms of the cross-cultural learning constructs reported above.

Cross-cultural training exercises

Exercise 1: Cross-Cultural Interview

In this exercise, each participant interviews one foreigner who is from a culture different from his or her own, and whom he or she has never met before. This exercise provides experience and builds skills at the first two levels of cross-cultural management, self and interpersonal. It helps trainees (hospitality students) overcome inertia and fear about getting to know strangers from a different culture, and provides the participants with an opportunity to successfully motivate a foreign stranger to expend a significant effort on their behalf. On the completion of the exercise, each trainee shares his or her strategy for meeting the foreigner and for getting him or her to do the interview.

The exercise helps develop the *affective* aspect of the Chen-Starosta model discussed above. Having to initiate and manage an interaction with foreign stranger addresses the emotional challenges of developing cross-cultural expertise.

This exercise also requires the trainer (instructor) do some preparation in advance. The assignment is more challenging if the foreigners to be interviewed are recent arrivals. One source of newly arrived foreigners would be English as a Second Language (ESL) programs in the United States. In addition to the hundred-plus private ESL schools, most universities and colleges have a version of an ESL program, as well as international student organizations (ISO)-many of whose members are recent arrivals to the U.S. A useful resource is Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. - www.tesol.org (2010).

Exercise 2: Cross-Cultural Incident

This exercise makes use the 110 critical incidents detailed by Cushner and Brislin in their book Intercultural Interactions: A Practical Guide, 2nd edition (1996). Each incident describes a realistic cross-cultural misunderstanding, four plausible explanations for the misunderstanding, and an evaluation of each explanation (see Appendix A for an example). The book is a "culture-general assimilator" in that the incidents describe a wide variety of cultural situations and reflect 18 themes that evolved from their research (i.e., anxiety, time and space, ambiguity, prejudice and ethnocentrism, etc.). In this activity trainees discuss and demonstrate the cross-cultural incidents. The emphasis is on having participants project themselves into the scenario so they "experience" the cultural conflict emotionally as well as intellectually.

This exercise addresses the first two cross-cultural management levels-self and interpersonal-by developing skills of recognizing and correcting a cross-cultural error. (It also addresses both the *cognitive* and *affective* aspects of the Chen-Starosta model.) Students learn to accept the virtual inevitability of their making some cross-cultural errors in the field, but not to accept their repeating the errors. They also learn that errors in appropriate behavior are far worse than mere inability to speak the host country language. The participants further learn to strategically recover in such situations, and soon afterwards seek out explanation of their cross-cultural error from a member of the host culture. In addition, they correct their understanding of the host culture and develop a mastery of appropriate cultural behavior in similar situations in the future.

Unfortunately, only a few of the incidents relate to the hospitality industry. Hinkin (2005) published 50 critical incidents that focus on the hospitality industry, but only a few of those are cross-cultural incidents. Alternatively, Shapero's (2007) article describes a method for developing critical incidents for the hospitality industry. Again, for an example of a critical incident illustrating a cross-cultural service failure in the hospitality industry, see Appendix A.

Exercise 3: Cross-Cultural News

Each trainee finds a newspaper or magazine article that describes an American work organization adapting, or having difficulty in adapting, to the culture of a foreign country. Participants present an analysis of the cross-cultural differences to the group as a whole and explain why the American organization was successful or unsuccessful in resolving its cross-cultural differences. This exercise builds analytical skills at the third or institutional level of cross-cultural management, as well as developing the *cognitive* aspect of Chen-Starosta. Through this activity, students become acquainted with cases involving well-known organizations confronting cultural differences that result in real and crucial consequences at the institutional level and which offer parallels to the personal and interpersonal levels that they have already experienced.

Exercise 4: Cross-Cultural Skit

For this exercise, participants are assigned to one of several "Country Groups." The Country Groups are charged with planning, writing, and performing a skit before the entire group that illustrates a minimum of five cross-cultural blunders that an American person might make in the host culture represented by the Country Group. Groups must organize the blunders into a business-related scenario involving social interaction between one or more individuals representing Americans and one or more individuals representing host country nationals.

This exercise builds skills and emotional commitment at all three levels of cross-cultural management-self, interpersonal, and institutional-in recognizing and in rejecting the ignorance and arrogance that produces many kinds of cross-cultural errors. The true costs of cross-cultural errors are exposed, including harm to self, harm to others at the interpersonal levels, and harm to the host culture or to the work organization at the institutional level. The exercise also addresses the three elements of Chen-Starosta's cultural learning model: *cognitive* in that it is a dynamic learning experience; *affective* because of the obvious emotional involvement of the skit; and *behavioral* because it forces the participant to actually "live" the scenario.

Exercise 5: Cross-Cultural Event

For this exercise participants work in teams to conceive, plan and carry out a program for improving cross-cultural relations. Typically, teams use foreign individuals from the ESL programs or international student organizations discussed in above.

Participants bring together foreigner individuals and local individuals who have never met before, and organize pleasant activities and interesting discussions that will foster cross-cultural understanding and friendship. A short proposal should be approved in advance of the program. After the program, a brief report is submitted summarizing the activity, the quality of the interaction, and evidence of improvement in cross-cultural relations among the persons involved.

This exercise builds skills at all three levels of cross-cultural management, for it involves mastery of self, of interpersonal relations, and of the dynamics of small groups. It is the most difficult of all the exercises, and represents the culmination of the four exercises preceding it. In this exercise, each student becomes an “agent of cultural change” within his or her own organization, and is equipped with knowledge and skills to figure out a way to actually make a real improvement in a problematic multicultural institutional situation. Some of the successful cross-cultural management events have involved getting together to cook a meal, going to the beach, going bowling, or organizing baseball or soccer games. Finally, the experiential nature of the activity addresses all three elements of Chen-Starosta’s cultural learning model: *cognitive, affective,* and *behavioral.*

Again, although the five exercises may be used separately, when used collectively they are related and synergistic. While the news exercise is academic, the others are experiential and engage the emotions. The incident and news exercises require intellectual analysis of real events that have already happened. The interview, skit, and event exercises require planned personal action. The interview and management exercise also involve interactions in the real world. According to Serrie (1992), these five exercises strongly reinforce each participant’s sense of being empowered to make a positive difference in difficult cultural situations that the trainees may face in the future.

While there was ample anecdotal evidence affirming Serrie’s program, the process nevertheless lacked empirical support. As a result, a series of experiments were conducted using a variety of participants to assess the statistical significance of the process. The experiment specifically addresses the following research question: Can these exercises produce significantly higher levels of intercultural sensitivity? The paper next describes those experiments and discusses the implications of the findings.

Methodlogy

A pre-test, post-test research design with a treatment-group and control-groups was developed to test the effectiveness of the five exercises described above. Participants in the experiment were a convenience sample of students who had taken hospitality and tourism courses at a college in Florida.

Four groups of students participated in the experiment: American students (referred to in this paper as the “U.S. Control” group), a group of international students (labeled as “Non-U.S. Control” group), and a group of American students taking a course called “Cultural Environment of International Business” (referred to as the “U.S. Treatment” group). It was this course that employed the five exercises described above. Finally a group of American adult learners taking a business courses in the evening also participated in the study (referred in this research as the “Adult Control” group). During the day, these adults were all full-time employees of businesses in the area, many of which were multinational corporations, some being in the hospitality and tourism industry.

Intercultural expertise-the independent variable of this study-was measured with Bhawuk and Brislin’s (1992) Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory. ICSI is one of the most widely used measures of cross-cultural skills. It asses whether people intend to change their behavior when living in an alien culture. In as much as intention is thought to be the best predictor of future behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), ICSI is believed to be a good indicator of intention to modify behavior in a cross-cultural interaction (Bhawuk, 1998). Since some respondents find the format of the ICSI confusing (Kapoor & Comadena, 1996), before distributing the questionnaires, the survey administrator briefly explained the format of the instrument without disclosing its intent.

At the beginning of the term all four groups completed the ICSI (which included several socio-demographic questions). While the three control groups received an overview of culture during international business courses they were taking, it amounted to little more than the “dos and don’ts” discussion that characterizes many cross-cultural training programs. Only the treatment group-the “Cultural Environment of International Business” classes-employed the five cross-cultural exercises. And to ensure that results were not dependent on one individual, three different professors taught the classes that were part of the “U.S. Treatment” group. Finally, at the end of the term, all four groups completed an ICSI questionnaire for a second time.

Results and Analysis

Participants completed a total of 248 usable questionnaires for the pre-test ICSI and 231 for the post-test version. The participants were distributed as follows:

Groups	Pre-Test	Post-Test
U.S. Treatment	91	88
U.S. Control	69	66
Non-U.S. Control	48	38
Adult Control	40	39
	248	231

In addition to the traditional background questions, this questionnaire asked participants if they lived or worked outside their home countries, if they spoke and wrote foreign languages, and asked what foreign/ethnic foods they had tried. Research has shown that having tried a wide variety of foreign foods can be a indicator of intercultural expertise (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992). Comparisons of background data revealed no significant differences between the U.S. Treatment and U.S. Control groups. As a group, the Non-U.S. Control segment had spent more time abroad, spoke more languages, and had tried more types of food. They were also about a year older than their U.S. counterparts. As for the Adult (25 and over) Control group, age was the only characteristic in which they differed significantly from the other American groups—35 years vs. 20.

Data analysis

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the ICSI means for the four groups. The Appendix B reveals that in the Pre-Test, when the four groups were compared against each other (reading vertically), only the Non-U.S. Control group had a significantly (p=.026) higher ICSI score than the U.S. Control group (Table B4). However, the Non-U.S. Control group's score almost reached significance (p=.060) over the U.S. Treatment group (Table B2). Based on these results, Bhawuk (1998) might label the Non-U.S. Control group as "novices," and the other three groups "laypersons."

In the Post-Test, again when all groups are compared to each other (reading vertically), the U.S. Treatment group had significantly higher ICSI scores than the U.S. Control group (p=.000), Non-U.S. Control group (p=.042), and the Adult Control group (p=.003). As in the Pre-Test, the Non-U.S. Control group's Post-Test result was significantly (p=.019) higher than that of the U.S. Control group. In other words, after being exposed to the five cross-cultural exercises, the U.S. Treatment group became what Bhawuk (1998) would call "experts," while the Non-U.S. Control group remained "novices," and the two U.S. control groups continued to be "laypersons."

In the Pre-Test vs. Post-Test results (reading horizontally), the U.S. Treatment mean is the only result that is significant (p=.000). In fact, it was the only result that was even close to showing a significant change. The other groups produced results of p=.382 for U.S. Control, p=.932 for Non-U.S. Control, and p=.705 for Adult Control.

Finally, correlation analysis revealed that "years lived abroad" (r = -.096, p =.036) and "number of languages spoken" (r = .130, p = .034) were the only socio-demographic variables significantly correlated with intercultural sensitivity. However, regression analysis showed that these variables failed to significantly predict intercultural expertise. Next, the paper discusses the implications and limitations of the findings.

Discussion

Given the importance of international tourism to both local and national economies, it is not surprising that tourism managers and scholars are devoting more attention to cross-cultural interactions. For example, a study of luxury hotels in Hawaii, London, and Florida found that international guests accounted for 55%, 60%, and 38% of their total patrons (Sizoo, 2008). And these were particularly valuable guests to have since international visitors tend to spend more money than their domestic counterparts (Milman, 2001).

But research has shown that encounters between customers of one culture and employees of another often result in misunderstanding and conflict because of differing cultural values and norms. The consequence can be an unhappy customer, a frustrated employee, and a loss of business for the organization (Cushner & Brislin, 1996).

But the study of luxury hotels in Hawaii, London and Florida also showed that interculturally sensitive hospitality employees provide their international customers with better service and their managers with better results. Specifically, those service employees were more attentive to the needs of customers from other cultures. They made greater use of suggestive selling, thereby creating opportunities to generate more revenue per international customer. Their intercultural skills were also seen as useful in a multicultural workplace, and they got more satisfaction out of interacting with international customers. According to the study, service managers who hire and develop interculturally sensitive employees will provide their international customers with a better service environment and their organization with better results (Sizoo, 2008).

The results of that study argue that it would be useful for educators and human resource managers in the tourism and hospitality industry to consider testing for and training in intercultural sensitivity for students and employees destined to be involved in cross-cultural service encounters. The long-term benefits from such an investment could be better prepared students, more satisfied customers and employees, more positive word-of-mouth, repeat business, and increased revenue.

But before educators or management trainers invest the time and resources in cross-cultural training, they want to be assured that there is a practical, theory-based approach to developing cross-cultural skills. This paper presented one approach to addressing those needs. And while there have been anecdotal endorsements for these cross-cultural exercises, they have lacked empirical support. As a consequence, the authors conducted the experiment that specifically addressed the research question: Can these exercises produce significantly higher levels of intercultural sensitivity?

The results of this exploratory study show that students in the U.S. Control group had the "typical" pedagogical exposure to cultural differences in an intro to international business course. They read about culture, wrote about it, discussed it, and were tested on it. Their exam scores indicate that while they intellectually understood many of the causes and consequences of cultural conflict, they showed no significant growth in their ability to deal with cross-cultural issues presented in the Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory (ICSI). The Non-U.S. Control group represents the students who might be expected to be somewhat more interculturally sensitive by virtue of the fact that they have been raised abroad and were generally more widely traveled than most American undergraduate students. They too read, discussed, and wrote about cultural differences. Yet in the pretest, their scores were only significantly ($p<.05$) higher than the U.S. Control group. Next, the Adult Control group represented the participants that might be expected to be more interculturally sensitive because of their "life experience." But for this sample, it was not the case.

Instead, this study suggests that intercultural expertise does not significantly increase by simply living in a foreign country, or by getting older, or by simply getting the dos and don'ts of culture in an intro to some international business course. It requires specific cross-cultural skill training that addresses the intellectual, emotional and experiential aspects of cultural differences that form the theoretical foundation of the Chen-Starosta (1997) model of cross-cultural expertise. The study also suggests that there is a practical and effective way for trainers and educators to improve the intercultural expertise of their participants. Additionally, the results show that the success of the program was not dependent on one individual (three professors taught the U.S. Treatment groups), or on a specific background (those professors had backgrounds in cultural anthropology, archaeology, and international business).

However, it is important to recognize that the results of any experiment have to be interpreted with caution. The sample of this exploratory study was relatively small and selected purely for its convenience. More importantly, from the viewpoint of a potential corporate trainer in the hospitality industry, the participants were mostly 20-year old students (with the exception of the Adult Control group), not managers.

Still, there are many things about these cross-cultural exercises which may appeal to corporate trainers. For example, in a study of adult learning Brookfield (1991) noted that while adults may be better organized, motivated, and disciplined than their 20-year old counterparts, they can also be less malleable and more anxious when confronted with unusual situations-such as those experienced in an alien culture. Also, Bhawuk (1998) thinks that it is better to test a training program on a student population before possibly offering it to the larger management community. Also, it may be important that the exercises are largely experiential and do not involve a lot of reading

Appendix B: Pre-Test Post-Test ANOVAs of ICSI Results by Subgroup

Table B1: U.S. Treatment Group vs. U.S. Control Group

Group	**Pre-Test Mean (Number)**	**Post-Test Mean (Number)**	**F-value (Sig. of F)**
U.S. Treatment	4.602 (91)	4.885 (88)	21.423 (.000)**
U.S. Control	4.575 (69)	4.513 (66)	.768 (.382)
F-value(Sig. of F)	.237 (.627)	24.426 (.000)**	

**p<0.01

and writing. Mintzberg (1973) said that many businesspeople have an aversion to activities that involve a lot of written media. Still, although these exercises have occasionally been delivered in a corporate training environment, the efficacy of that approach has not been empirically tested.

Table B2: U.S. Treatment Group vs. Non-U.S. Control Group

Group	Pre-Test Mean (Number)	Post-Test Mean (Number)	F-value (Sig. of F)
U.S. Treatment	4.602 (91)	4.885 (88)	21.423 (.000)**
Non-U.S. Control	4.709 (48)	4.715 (38)	.007 (.932)
F-value(Sig. of F)	3.599 (.060)	4.228 (.042)*	

*p<0.05 **p<0.01

Table B3: U.S. Treatment Group vs. Adult Control Group

Group	Pre-Test Mean (Number)	Post-Test Mean (Number)	F-value (Sig. of F)
U.S. Treatment	4.602 (91)	4.885 (88)	21.423 (.000)**
Adult Control	4.661 (40)	4.636 (39)	.145 (.705)
F-value(Sig. of F)	.918(.340)	9.169(.003)**	

**p<0.01

Table B4: U.S. Control Group vs. Non-U.S. Control Group

Group	Pre-Test Mean (Number)	Post-Test Mean (Number)	F-value (Sig. of F)
U.S. Control	4.575 (69)	4.513 (66)	.768 (.382)
Non-U.S. Control	4.709 (48)	4.715 (38)	.007 (.932)
F-value(Sig. of F)	5.104(.026)*	5.665(.019)*	

*p<.05

Table B5: U.S. Control Group vs. Adult Control Group

Group	Pre-Test Mean (Number)	Post-Test Mean (Number)	F-value (Sig. of F)
U.S. Control	4.575 (69)	4.513 (66)	.768 (.382)
Adult Control	4.661 (40)	4.636 (39)	.145 (.705)
F-value(Sig. of F)	1.781(.185)	2.169(.149)	

Table B6: Non-U.S. Control Group vs. Adult Control Group

Group	Pre-Test Mean (Number)	Post-Test Mean (Number)	F-value (Sig. of F)
Non-U.S. Control	4.709 (48)	4.715 (38)	.007 (.932)
Adult Control	4.661 (40)	4.636 (39)	.145 (.705)
F-value(Sig. of F)	.802(.373)	1.114(.295)	

While these results should not be generalized to a larger population, the outcome indicates that this topic deserves further examination. As with any investigation, it would be useful to replicate and extend the research, possibly employing different programs, measures, and constructs. Alternative approaches can be found in Brislin and Yoshida's (1994) *Improving Intercultural Interactions: Modules for Cross-Cultural Training Programs*, while other measures include Kelley and Meyers' (2001) *CCAI: Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory*™ as well as those examined by Graf and Harland (2005). In summary, this paper provides preliminary evidence that intercultural sensitivity is a skill that can be learned as well as measured. Since this skill is reported to be an important criterion for an individual's success in cross-cultural service encounters in the hospitality industry, these theory-related exercises could be a valuable skill for hospitality and tourism students to acquire.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A. A critical incident.

Arizona Appetizers

Chris Bishop works as a food server at an exclusive restaurant in a golf resort just north of Phoenix. The resort had begun to attract groups of Japanese executives traveling on business and golf trips. Since these Japanese travelers were expected to be an important source of business for the resort, everyone was working hard to make them happy.

Chris had a reputation in the restaurant for having excellent suggested-selling skills, so when serving a group of these Japanese visitors he suggested they have hors d'oeuvres with their entree. He knew they would like the appetizers and they helped build the revenue of the restaurant.

The Japanese diners responded to the suggestion by smiling and studying their menus. When Chris asked them again if they wanted to try a selection of the hors d'oeuvres, the Japanese smiled and nodded their heads, although not looking at Chris. After the dinner, with the appetizers, the Japanese left without saying anything to Chris and left him a very small tip. This was very disappointing because he had given them the best service anyone possibly could.

When Chris came on duty the next night, both the resort manager and restaurant manager wanted to talk to him. It seems that these customers had complained to their Japanese travel coordinator about "the waiter who behaved in an inappropriate and offensive manner." The two managers reminded Chris how important these visitors were to the success of the resort and insisted on knowing what happened. Chris was speechless. He couldn't imagine what he had done to offend these Japanese customers.

Why do you think the Japanese diners were so unhappy?

1. To the Japanese, appetizers are a sacred food. They resented having to eat foreign appetizers.
2. The Japanese diners didn't like the variety of hors d'oeuvres Chris had selected for them and they were offended by his inferior taste.
3. Japanese don't like having to say "no." Chris had forced them into an uncomfortable situation and they resented it.
4. Ordering food is a ritual in Japan; they have a precise way of selecting and placing their order. Chris, with his suggestions, has disrupted that ritual and the Japanese resented it.

The discussion of these alternative explanations begins on the next page.

Arizona Appetizers

1. Some cultures take the growing, preparation, and consumption of certain foods very seriously. Many Japanese do indeed view their domestic rice as a sacred food that should be protected from imported strains. But appetizers are not generally considered “sacred” by the Japanese and there is nothing in the scenario to suggest these hors d’oeuvres would be particularly offensive to the visitors. Select another response.
2. While some individuals and cultures may have specific preferences for appetizers, it is not clear from this mini-case exactly what these diners were offered. Also, some foreign visitors enjoy sampling a variety of what they consider local fare. If there is something they don’t like, they simply consider it a learning experience. There is not enough evidence presented that would suggest that there was anything offensive in the selection of hors d’oeuvres they were served. Please select a different explanation.
3. This is the best explanation. People in Asian cultures try to avoid confrontations. In confrontations, you may lose face or you may cause another to lose face; hence, they are avoided. Japanese are uncomfortable having to say “no.” It is a form of confrontation they would prefer to avoid, and they resent being put in a situation where they have to say “no.” So instead, many Japanese will simply smile weakly, divert their eyes, and hope the uncomfortable issue goes away. This is much too subtle a behavior for most Americans to interpret. When Chris didn’t hear a “no,” he pressed ahead with his suggested-selling strategy, which had served him well in the past. He interpreted the smiles and nodding heads as acceptance, albeit not enthusiastic, and added the appetizers to the order. What is more, unhappy Japanese tourists will commonly express their unhappiness to a tour coordinator (who is also Japanese or Japanese-American), or to the tour organizer back in Japan. As a result, a service provider may not hear about a problem until long after it’s happened. And like Chris, they may be at a complete loss as to why their behavior was deemed “inappropriate and offensive.”
4. While Japanese have many rituals related to food, there is little evidence to indicate that this extends to the way food is ordered in a restaurant. There is no information in the scenario to suggest that Chris really did upset any ordering ritual, even if one did exist. There is a better response.

Research Paper

Nationality's differences in youth tourists' travelling risk perceptions and satisfactions within Taiwan

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Abstract: *This paper studies international youth tourist's pre-purchase perceived travelling risk and post-purchase travelling satisfaction in the context Taiwan as a destination. The study of perceived travelling risk is important not only in its own right, but also because of its influence on the travelling experience and satisfaction. This study assesses nationality's differences in perception of travelling risk and travelling satisfaction, addressing the relatively neglected issues of the relationships among different nationalities. The data was collected though a closed-ended questionnaire from 360 international youth tourists. The factor analysis identified six dimensions for perceived travelling risks in Taiwan including transportation, accommodation, medical support, law and order, personal safety and telecommunication. The result indicated that international youth tourists had positive perceptions towards Taiwan's transportation and personal safety but negative perceptions towards its law/order condition. Moreover international youth tourists with different nationalities and traveling characteristics expressed statistically significant differences in their perceived risks of traveling in Taiwan in different dimensions. Overall, respondents with positive perceptions of traveling in Taiwan also revealed higher satisfactions with their traveling experiences. According to results from four multiple regression models for four groups based on their nationality, the travelling risks with different dimensions can have significantly statistical influence on their travelling satisfactions.*

Keywords: International youth tourist, travelling risk perception, nationality difference

Introduction

According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), youth travel is gaining the popularity due to its high and positive economic impact on global tourism (Huang, 2004). Youth travelers constitute a very important, distinct and separate tourist segment, and are considered to have good future prospects (Kreul, 1991; Kale, McIntyre & Weir, 1997). International youth tourists create a year-round market and prefer using public transportation tools to travel around the whole country due to their longer travelling periods even only with the essentials and will therefore patronize local business (Kelly, 1995). The Tourism Bureau, Ministry of Transportation and Communication of Taiwan, joined the Federation of International Youth Travel Organization (FIYTO) in 2002 to place more attention in international youth travel market by hosting the 2006 Worth Youth Student Travel

Conference (WYSTC) and declaring Year 2006 to be the Taiwan Youth Travel Year.

Travelling exposes people to varying degree and types of risk and security issues (Bentley & Page, 2006; Page, Bentley & Meyer, 2003; Page & Meyer, 1996). Independent travelers have higher chances encountering difficulties and problems during their visitations. As Ryan (2003) defined the tourist as "displaced" person who finds himself/herself in an unfamiliar surroundings and be away from daily routines which make tourists be susceptive to hedonism and away from responsibilities. This "hedonist" or relax attitudes sometimes could make them vulnerable to risks (Cossar et al., 1990). Sometimes tourists might prefer seeing something new and different from their daily life in a tourism destination (Eitzinger & Wiedemann, 2007). Pizam, Tarlow, and Bloom (1997) even indicated that tourists would select the tourism destination by considering perceived safety/ security and also prices and destination image. Previous tourism researchers found that traveler's perceived risk and safety could be an important factor on their travel-decision making process and even on their travelling satisfactions (George, 2003; Mawby, 2000; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a, 1998b; Pearce, 1988).

The personal perceived travelling risk is an influence factor towards its traveling decision-making process. For example, after the terrorists attacked on World Trade Center in New York and the Pentagon in Washington DC, the Americans and travelers became very concerned about travelling safety and security and tourists' risk perceptions became more important after September 11 event (Floyd, 2004). Floyd (2004) found that 30% of study participants would cancel or reschedule trips due to travelling risk concerns. Previous studies had identified four major travelling risk factors including terrorism, war and political instability, health concerns and crime. Moreover accident is a leading cause of injury, and death among tourists traveling to foreign destinations (Page & Meyer, 1996).

Youth people have different motivations and traits from older people (Pastor, 1991; Loker-Murphy & Pearce, 1995). Differences in their perceptions of danger can pertain to type of travel, group composition, and gender (Carr, 2001). Carr's (2001) research suggested that youth travelers' perceptions of danger are not only influenced by socio-cultural norms and values but also by their desired trip experiences. Pomfret (2006) developed a conceptual framework to identify key influences on people's participation in mountaineering and identified the ways in which their personality and lifestyle influenced their perceptions of risk (Pomfret, 2006). Perceived risk could also be influenced by travelers' socio-economic characteristics (Hsieh, 2001; Tsaur, Tzeng & Wang, 1997), personality and lifestyle (Pomfret, 2006), purchase situation (Hsieh, 2001), and influence their decision-making process and eventually their post-travelling experience and satisfactions (George, 2003; Mawby, 2000; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998; Pearce, 1988).

Perceived risk plays an important role in a traveler's expectation and choice of destination for international tourism market. The perceived risk of travelling has an intuitive appeal, and it is persuasive in explaining consumer's behavior (Hales & Shams, 1991). Majority of tourists would avoid negative travelling experience and prefer going to a destination with positive perceptions or tourism image. So what the tourists want is to maximize their travelling satisfaction by minimizing the perceived travelling risk during the same time. To increase inbound tourists' traveling satisfactions, Taiwan's government has the obligation and responsibility to provide accurate and sufficient information about travelling risks. So understanding how international youth travelers perceive risk of traveling in Taiwan can improve travel policies and the travel environment. However there has been litter academic researches exploring the perceived risk associated international tourism in Taiwan. So the study focuses on four research questions: 1) What kind of risks are seen to be related to travel in Taiwan from the perceptions of international youth tourists? 2) How those pre-perceived travelling risks influence their post-travelling satisfactions? 3) Are there significant differences on pre-perceived travelling risk and pot-travelling satisfaction among international youth tourists with different nationalities? and 4) Whether and to what extent does the pre-perceived travelling risk exert significant influence on the post-travelling satisfaction?

Literaute Review

(I) Travelling Risk

The perceived risk is an individual's subjective assessment of the real risk present at any time (Haddock, 1993) and is very different from absolute risk or real risk. Looking at an individual's perception of risk or risk taking propensity insights can be gained from psychology (Gilchrist, Povey, Dickinson & Povey, 1995) or decision-making sciences (Jia, Dyer & Butler, 1999). Through this psychological process, a person could acquire, interpret, select and organize sensory information in a meaningful way (Hsu & Lin, 2006). The perceptions of customers as tourists about the services delivered are important in assessing service quality and forming customer satisfaction and are also considered as a factor to influence the expectations of their purchases (Hsu & Lin, 2006). And each individual perceives as a risk may vary greatly because individual's perception could be influenced by the society such as wealth, demographics, technology and the media (Slovic, 1990). In marketing, customer's overall perceptions towards any goods or services would refer to general evaluation about a service company based on all previous consumption experiences. In travel industry, a traveler or tourist might have overall perception of any tourism destination based on his or her previous travelling experience, information from relatives or friends, advertisement, and different information sources. Then perceptions of travelers or tourists towards a tourism destination would influence their travelling expectations and satisfactions.

Any choice or decision-making involves risk when the consequences are associated with the decisions that are uncertain, even though some decision outcomes are desirable for customers (Rapport & Wallsten, 1972). For travelling abroad independently, tourists might encounter many different choices and decision makings to transportation, accommodation, entertainment and so forth. Whether decision consequences meet the customer's expectations would be considered as an important key to the presence of perceived risk. Perceived risk has been a fundamental concept in consumer behavior marketing since 1960 (Bauer, 1960; Bettman, 1973; Cox, 1967; Kaplan, Szybillo & Jacoby, 1974; Lutz & Reilly, 1973). However relatively little research examining perceived risk in service industry has been published (Murray & Schlacter, 1990). In general, services are associated with higher levels of risk than consumer goods (Bateson, 1992; Eiglier & Langeard, 1977; Murray & Schlacter, 1990; Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996). Consumers consider the purchase of services, especially professional services, to be a higher involvement decision than that of products (Guseman, 1981; Zeithaml, 1981). Consumers also assume that greater risks are associated with services due to their intangibility, inseparability, variability and perishability (Burton, 1993; Kurtz & Clow, 1991). Generally, travel risk could incorporate the “uncertainty” or “dissatisfaction”. In reality, what “perceived travelling risk” is not a real risk that tourists might encounter or feel. Sometimes consumers tend to give more weight to the negative consequences (Kunreuther, 1976) and tend to asses only a partial outcome rather than the overall picture (Budesu & Wallstein, 1985). The whole travelling satisfaction will depend on the satisfaction on each tourism component including transportation, accommodation, food & beverage, activity, entertainment and so forth.

When consumers purchase travel products or tour packages, they encounter a level of risks that depends on the destination. For travel industry, risks could happen in two different levels. The first level is product-category risk which can reflects a tourist's inherent perception of the risk in purchasing any travel product. The second level of risk is product-specific risk, which is associated with a particular travel purchase (Dowling & Staelin, 1994). The risks could inhere in the means of transportation, the accommodation, entertainment or activities, facilities, the host or local residents. Tourists' perceived risk was more influential in decisions to avoid regions than to visit (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a, 1998b). Some studies placed the research focus on product-specific risk (Gemunden, 1985; Madrigal & Kahle, 1994; Oetzel, 2001) but some focused on inherent perception of travelling risk (Hsu & Lin, 2006). Tsaur, Tzeng and Wang (1997) identified tourists' choice of destination as mainly influenced by the possibility of criminal attack, political instability and exposure to infectious diseases. The study conducted by Poon and Adams (2000) also consistently noted that safety and security are important concerns among individuals vacationing abroad. In other words, risk perceptions can influence the image and the choice of destination. Risks that potential tourists associate with specific destinations may create lasting images (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a, 1998b). The risk that is most influential to consumers and most relevant to tourism industry is the perceived risk. So the focus of this research is to understand the perceived travel risk from the perceptions of independent youth travelers.

In the earliest studies of travel and risk, Moutinho (1987) reviewed marketing literature and classified tourists' perceived risks as functional, physical, financial, social, and psychological risk. Then Roehl and Fesenmeier (1992) drew on consumer behavior models to expand to seven types of risk which could be associated with travel decision (Cheron & Ritchie, 1982). The seven perceived travelling risk are functional, financial, physical, psychological, satisfaction, social and time risk. For example, the functional risk is related to the possibility of mechanical or equipment problems or technical failure occurring during travel or while on vacation such as happening in taking transportation facility, hotel facility, recreation facilities and etc. The physical risk could cause the physical danger or injury detrimental to health while on vacation. Pinhey and Iverson (1994) explored safety concerns centering on typical vacation activities of international travel and divided the travelling safety concerns into seven items for perceptions: the describe safety, the sightseeing safety, water sports safety, beach activities safety, night life safety, in-car safety, and road safety. The study done by Tasur, Tzeng and Wang (1997) also focused on the perceived travelling perceptions of package tour tourists by sampling Taiwanese and divided perceived travelling risks into physical risk and equipment risk. The physical risk refers to the possibility that an individual's health is likely to be exposed to risk, injury, and sickness because of conditions like law and order, weather, and hygiene problem encountered during the tour. The equipment risk refers to the unavailability of equipment or its malfunctioning such as insufficient telecommunication facilities, unsafe transportation, and etc. Later Tasur, Tzeng and Wang (1997) developed 16 risk evaluation criteria by using 7 items of perceived traveling risks: transportation, law and order, hygiene, weather, sightseeing spot and medical support.

Afterwards Sonmez and Graefe (1998a, 1998b) added health, political instability and terrorism risks to the seven risk factors investigated by Roehl and Fesenmeir (1992). Lately Leep & Gibson (2003) cited another travelling risk factor of natural disaster occurring which might also influence travel plan and summarized that four types of perceived travelling risk which could probably influence international tourism market. The four risk factors are terrorism (Aziz, 1995; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a, 1998b); war and political instability (Gartner and Shen, 1992; Hollier, 1991; Richter, 1999; Seddighi, Nutall, & Theocharous, 2001); health concerns (Cossens & Gin, 1994; Lawton & Page, 1997) and crime (Brunt, Mawby & Hambly, 2000; Dimanche & Leptic, 1999; Pizam, Tarlow & Bloom, 1997). After USA 911 event, terrorism attacks appear to be major sources of risk even the actual probability of the terrorism occurring are quite miniscule. Lepp and Gibson study (2003) found that more experience tourists would downplay the threat of terrorism. In Carter's study in 1998, the study of healthcare as a perceived travelling risk factor found that Europe and North America are widely regarded as a safe tourism destination from inflection or disease compared to Asia and Africa. Except significant difference on healthcare perceived risk between different countries, a related study conducted by Cossens and Gin (1994) found that the health risks originally starting from poor food and water quality are also perceived to be greater in Africa and Asia than in Europe and Australia. When international tourists travel to different countries, they easily compared the health quality of tourism destination with their own country. Any event or issue related to healthcare such as SARS, bird flu, Swine flu and so forth could also cause a negative perception on travelling risk and unattractive tourism image.

Tourist-perceived risk is influenced by several factors such as tourist's socio-economic background (Han, 2005; Lepp & Gibson, 2003), previous travelling experience (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a, 1998b), culture/nationality

(Cossens & Gin, 1994; Rogers, 1997) (discussed in the next section), information sources (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a, 1998b), personality (Han, 2005; Plog, 1974; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992;) and etc. Lepp and Gibson study (2003) sampled US-born youth adults who spent a three-week period travelling abroad and discover sever risk factors of health, political instability, terrorism, strange food, cultural barriers, a nation's political and religious dogma and crime. The study revealed that women perceived a greater degree of risk regarding health and food and more experience tourists downplayed the threat of terrorism. Plog (1974) found that tourists' risk-taking reflects their personality; risk perceptions are situational and personal (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). Sonmez and Graefe (1998) found that travelers based their decisions on their previous travelling experiences as well as subjective perceptions. Without pervious travelling experience, tourists would try to avoid destination that appear to be risky and prefer selecting destination perceived as safer. But, Pizam, Tarlow and Bloom (1997) found that tourists are easy to engage in "risky" behavior such as going to nightclubs, drinking alcohol, etc, and sometime ignorant of local languages, signs, and local customs. Furthermore, majority of international tourists still perceived language differences as a troublesome (Basala & Klenosky, 2001). Han (2005) concluded that people were more likely to choose a packaged tour than independent travel when an international destination was perceived as dangerous but independent travelers carry adventurous characteristics would prefer choosing "risky" destination. According to those findings, tourists' risk perceptions are influenced by their socio-economic characteristics, their traveling experience and traveling patterns. The following hypothesis will be examined in this study:

Hypothesis 1: International youth tourists with different socio-economic and traveling characteristics have statistically significant differences in their perceived risks of traveling in Taiwan.

(II) Influence from Culture and Nationality

Culture, which normally develops and forms in institutions or units built by a group of people together, can refers to the collective mental programming of people in an environment and everything that people live in common (Hofstede, 1980). A group of people can be referred to persons who come from same family, regions, country, or with same religious organization, work place, educational structures and so forth (Landis, 1986). People in same culture might share similar beliefs, norms, values and customs which underlie and govern conduct in a society or a country (Master & Prideaux, 2000). In the meantime, Master and Prideaux (1980) also explained the culture from another perspective, which could represent material elements such as where to travel, what to eat, what to buy and how to behave while travelling. Since culture is normally developed from the childhood and reinforced through shared life experiences and beliefs with the influences from family, social groups, or regions (Kim, Prideaux, & Kim, 2002). It is very obvious that culture could hold a strong and significant influence on their opinions, attitudes, and perceptions towards certain issues or matters. Moreover, culture could also influence tourism behavior and actions that are acceptable in one culture which may be repugnant in another culture (Pizam & Sussmann, 1995).

Researchers on discussing how different culture or nationalities influence tourist's behavior have developed in the past and provided some solid suggestions toward different marketing strategies on customers with different culture or nationality background. Pizam and Sussmann (1995) investigated how nationality affects tourist behavior and suggested that many more differences than similarities in the behavior of the four tourist nationalities were perceived by tour guides. Again Pizam and Jeong (1996)'s study also confirmed that tourist's behavior is perceived to be different by nationality and suggested that using cultural approach to design tours can enhance tourist's travelling satisfaction. More studies focused on the comparison study between tourist groups from different countries (Iverson, 1997; Kim & Lee, 2000; March, 1997; Thompson & Cutler, 1997) and organizational behaviors in the hospitality industry (Gilbert & Tsao, 2000; Master & Prideaux, 2000). Those study results all said that certain differences could be identified between tourists with different nationality and suggested the necessarily of implementing different marketing strategies for tourists from different countries in order to enhance their satisfaction.

Study conducted by Carr (2001) highlighted the influence of travelling distance on tourist behavior, attitudes and perceptions on their vacation destination. Debbage (1991) stated that the tourists who travelled the furthest to the resort were likely to exhibit behavior of an 'allocentric' nature, while those travelling a relatively short distance behaved in a 'psychocentric' manner. An allocentric tourist may be defined as an inquisitive and curious individual, who is self-confident and adventurous, which is the opposite of a psychocentric tourist (Hoxter & Lester, 1988). In other words, a tourist who travels from different destinations (different travelling distances) would have different motivation, perceptions and expectations towards visiting destination. Another study conducted by March (1997) also compared tourism behaviors of five Asian countries (Indonesia, Thailand, Taiwan, South Korea, Japan) and found Korean are more adventurous in choosing tourism activities. Armstrong, Mok, Go and Chan(1997) found that customers with different culture background (English-heritage, European, and Asian) would have different values in expectations, perceptions and perceptions minus expectations in measuring service quality. Customers' perceptions about services delivered are very important in assessing service quality and forming customer satisfaction. Likewise, tourist's perceptions about travelling risks can also be an important factor on the incoming travelling expectation and satisfaction.

From previous studies, tourist's travelling motivation, attitudes, perception, expectation or behavior could be influenced by their cultural differences or nationalities. In detailed, those research findings indicated that there are considerable difference between Western and Eastern tourists and even differences are discovered between tourists among Asian countries. Kim, Prideaux, and Kim (2002) summarized major cross-cultural studies in the context of tourism and major of studies defined their tourists in terms of their nationalities (March, 1997; Iverson, 1997; Lee, 2000; Pizam & Sussmann, 1995; Pizam & Jeong, 1996; Sussmann & Rashcovsky, 1997). From Taiwan tourism perspective, it is necessary to identify how international traveler perceives the travelling risks in Taiwan and consider the significance of cultural/nationality difference as part of the process of developing and promoting Taiwan tourism destinations. Unfortunately, there is an absence of studies detailing cross-cultural or nationality differences of international youth tourists' perceptions of travelling risk in Taiwan. From that evidence, the following hypothesis will be examined in this study:

Hypothesis 2: International youth tourists with different cultural background or nationalities can have statistically significant difference on their perceptions of travelling risk in Taiwan.

(III) Travelling Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction is the customer's evaluation of a product service in terms of whether the product or service has met the customer's needs and expectations (Zeithaml, Bitner, & Gremler, 2006). It is also a post-purchase construct related to how much a consumer likes or dislikes a service or product (Woodside, Frey, & Daly, 1989) and the result of the comparison between tourists' pre-trip expectations and what they actually experience at their destination (Moutinho, 1987) and has strong influences on their future travelling plan. Sonmez and Graefe (1998a, 1998b) implied that personal experience with travel or a particular destination can affect travelers' risk perceptions, which in turn influence their future travel plans. A person's expectations are confirmed when a service is as or better than expected, and disappointed when the service is worse than expected (Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988). However, the influence of pre-purchase perception or expectation on satisfaction and post-purchase behavior has been criticized by Arnould and Price (1993), who found that the most satisfying experiences are those that are unexpected. Others have shown various ways in which "expectations" can be conceptualized: as "ideal," "desirable" or "minimally tolerable" (Miller, 1977). Sonmez and Graefe (1998a, 1998b) concluded that tourists would avoid destinations that appear to be risky in the absence of past travel experience and choose safer destination according to their subject perceptions. This also means that they might have higher expectation or incorrect expectation under this circumstance. The gap between tourists' pre-trip expectations and what they actually experience at their destination could be enlarger if the subjective perception is not correct or set up too high. Dissatisfaction might occur due to this wrong perception of travelling risks.

Pre-decision perceived risk is an influence on consumer choice and information search, whereas the post-decision phenomenon is better conceptualized as a risk- or dissonance-reduction process (Bauer, 1960). A high level of perceived consumer risk could create uncertainty, discomfort or anxiety (Dowling & Staelin, 1994). Consumers might decrease those negative feelings by simply lowering their pre-consumption expectations (Mattila, 2001). However, Lepp, and Gibson study (2003) found that more experience tourists would visit destination perceived risky and concluded that tourist role was the most significant variable, with familiarity seekers always being the most risk adverse. Obviously the novelty seekers can tolerate higher levels of risk. In fact, the perceived risk could make consumers adjust their expectations and in turn magnify the relative influence of expectations in the satisfaction formation stage. Mattial (2001) proposed that satisfaction of consumers who have completed dissonance reduction should be biased towards expectations, regardless of the actual performance. So consumers' perceived high risks about their purchases of certain products or services then lowers their expectations, which could reduce their satisfaction. Moreover, learning from this disappointing experience should be apparent in future purchase behavior (Geva & Goldman, 1991).

Mattila (2001) measured perceptions of risk among patrons of business hotels to identify how perceptions of risk influence satisfaction and post-purchase behavior. The study found that the primary consequences of high perceived risk are negative; elevated levels of perceived product-category risk translated into lower satisfaction ratings, weaker repurchase intentions, and less willingness to generate word-of-mouth referrals. The pre-purchase perceived risk, either positive or negative, could affect consumers' expectation and influence their satisfaction and post-purchase behavior. Many earlier studies of traveling satisfaction focused on the difference between expectations and experience. However, very few studies sought to understand how perceived risk affects post-purchase satisfaction. So the following hypothesis will be examined:

Hypothesis 3: International youth tourists with different perceived risk of traveling in Taiwan can have statistically significant differences in their traveling satisfaction in Taiwan.

Study Method

This study was an applied and quantitative-oriented research by using a closed-ended questionnaire for data collection. The simple random sampling procedure was used to survey 361 international youth tourists who travelled to Taiwan from January to September of 2010. There is no universally accepted definition of a "youth" traveler (Seekings, 1995). The study population is defined as international youth tourists between the ages of 18 and 35 who stayed in Taiwan for recreation or pleasure purposes for less than six months. The age criteria is decided by considering the definition from the CONTIKI international youth travel agency, established in 1964 and emphasized on youth customers between 18 and 35. Besides life stage might influence tourist style, perceived risk, and travel career stage (Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002; Pearce, 1988). Lepp and Gibson (2003) also limited the youth adults from 18 to 35 in order to minimize the influence of ages towards perceived risk. The survey was provided in three different languages including Chinese, English and Japanese. Four hundred and twenty questionnaires were distributed equally between two youth hotels in Taipei City, two major tourism destinations: the National Palace Museum and National Chiang Kai-shek Memorial Hall, and another two major travel information centers on Taiwan Taoyuan International Airport and Taipei Train Station Travel Information Service Center. At each data collection point, participants were selected randomly and filled out the survey in the language which they felt most comfortably. A screening question was used to select only those who just came to Taiwan for short-term visitation or vacation (less than six months) and were able to understand one of three languages. It was felt that foreign nationals and those who lived overseas for extended periods would perceive the risks associated with international tourism differently (Seddighi, Nuttall, & Theocharous, 2001). The 360 questionnaires (86% response rate) were collected and valid for data analysis.

The survey instrument was a self-administered fixed-choice questionnaire. Part one contained questions about how respondents arranged their tours, how many people they travelled with and how many times they travel abroad annually. Part two of questionnaire contained questions of 25 items that were directly referred to the Taiwan tourism environment. Respondents used a seven-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree) to judge the importance of each risk factor. For example, questions are *"I think it is safe to take the buses in Taiwan", "I think Taxi drivers in Taiwan obey the traffic safety code all the time", "I think the dine environment in Taiwan is very clean", "I think the quality of medical institutions in Taiwan is good"*, and so forth. According to literature review and expert consultation, six aspects of perceived risk suggested by Tsaur, Tzeng and Wang (1997) have been employed to formulate 25 perceived risk items in this study. These evaluation criteria are transportation, law and order, hygiene, accommodation, weather, sightseeing spot. The details can be found in Table 1.

Part three of survey is questions related to customer satisfactions. The 25 items about travelling satisfactions towards transportation,

Table 1: The criteria for Tourist Perceived Risks

Aspect	Items
Transportation	Safety of transportation including airplane, MRT, bus, train, taxi / Safety of driver: taxi & bus / Convenience of telecommunication facilities
Law & order	Government attitudes towards tourists / Possibility of criminal attack / Attitude of inhabitants towards tourists / Safety of neighborhood
Hygiene	Hygiene of dining environment / Hygiene of local food / Possibility of contracting infectious diseases / Hygiene of public environment
Accommodation	Hotel fire control system / Hotel fire escape equipment / Well-equipped hotel
Sightseeing spot	Safety of recreational facilities / Quality of the service people
Medical support	Quality of medical institution / Quantity of medical institution / Convenience of medical institution / The support and assistance from local government

telecommunication, law/order, accommodation, hygiene, and medical support factors suggested by Tsaur, Tzeng and Wang (1997) and service quality, product quality, and travel product price factors suggested by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1994). Respondents used a seven-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree) to judge the importance of each satisfaction factor. For example, questions are "I am satisfied with the bus drivers in Taiwan", "I am satisfied with the medical system ", "I am satisfied with the cost of lodging in Taiwan", and so forth. The higher the score it is, the higher the respondent's satisfaction is. The last part of questionnaire collected information about respondent's socio-economic background characteristics.

The data was analyzed using SPSS frequencies, independence sample T-test, and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The 25 items measuring the perceived travelling risks with Taiwan and traveling satisfactions were then grouped into specific factors according to the result of factor analysis. The individual items within a risk or satisfaction factor were summed and then a mean score was calculated. By doing this, each factor could be interpreted on the same Likert scale as the times from which it was created. Cronbach's Alpha was used to test the internal consistency of each. The one way ANOVA was used to determine the effect of tourist's demographics, nationality and travelling characteristics on the perception of risk associated with Taiwan Tourism. The perceived risk factors operationalized with the 25-item scale were used as dependent variables; tourist demographic, nationality and travelling characteristics were the independent variables. The focus of this analysis was to determine the main effects of the independent variables; all non-significant interaction terms were dropped from the model. As such, this analysis centered on the following general null hypothesis: International youth tourists' perception of risk travelling in Taiwan does not vary according to preference for their demographic characteristics, nationalities or travelling characteristics.

(IV) Survey Finding

Of 361 respondents, 222 were male (61.5%) and 139 female (38.5%). The largest percentage of international youth tourists (44%) came from Asia; 27% from America and Canada; 21% were from Europe, and the rest were from Australia, New Zealand and Africa. Due to the sampling criteria, the average age of respondents was 26 years older and only 10% of respondents married. As would be expected, around 42% of respondents are currently students without any annual income and financially supported by their parents. Regarding respondent's educational level, 231 (64%) were university level, 48 went to graduate school, 11% college educated and another 11% were under high school education level. More than half of the respondents have less than $1,000 for their monthly income. As to their travel type, 58% of respondents identified themselves as independent travelers who arranged the Taiwan tour all by themselves without any help from travel agency or friends. Another 34% of respondents made hotel and airline ticket reservation through travel agency but planed the trip activities by themselves. Only 8% of respondents joined package tour. The average size of traveling group is four people, but 32% of respondents traveled to Taiwan alone. As to their tourism experience, 70% of respondents traveled abroad more than once annually and the average number of trips abroad is two to three times per year.

(I) Factor Analysis on youth traveler's perceived travelling risks

This study employed exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to derive meaningful and uncorrelated factors that could be used in the subsequent analysis. According to the tests of KMO value (.788), Bartlett's chi-square value (1797.801), and p value (less than .05), the items were factor analyzed using principal component analysis along with a varimax factor rotation. Three items were excluded from EFA due to the low communality value (less than .4). Most of the factor loadings were greater than .50, which indicated a good correlation between the individual items and the six factors. The 22 items were factor analyzed again and produced six factors based on the criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1. Five Cronbach alpha coefficients of the factors scored higher than .60 and factor 5 has .434 in Cronbach alpha coefficient. The cumulative percentage explained by these six factors has 66.435%.

Each risk factor can be interpreted with the Likert scale used in the questionnaire (1="strongly disagree", 7="strongly agree"). A mean score less than or equal to four suggests that respondents perceived the existence of certain kind of travelling risk. For factor 1, the factor loading is 3.282 and the percentage of variance explained is 14.917%. Five perceived risks included safety concerns of taking local airline, MRT, bus, train, and taxi and factor 1 is named as "Transportation" perceived risk. For factor 2, the factor loading is 3.274 and the percentage of variance explained is 14.880%. Five perceived risk items are included and named as "Accommodation" perceived risk. Those risks are related to hotel security, fire-control, fire-escape system, environmental sanitation, and food hygiene. For factor 3, the factor loading is 3.043 and the percentage of variance explained is 13.834%. Five perceived risk items are included and named as "Medical support" perceived risk. Those risks are related to location and quantity of medical institution, service people quality of medical institution and tourism attraction and sanitation of public place.

For factor 4, the factor loading is 2.156 and the percentage of variance explained is 9.798%. Two perceived risks are related "Law and order". For factor 5, the factor loading is 1.549 and the percentage of variance explained is 7.041%. Three perceived risks are the possibility of encountering robbery or theft matter, the public security nearby hotel, and the infectious disease. This factor is named as "Personal safety" perceived risk. For factor 6, the factor loading is 1.312 and the percentage of variance explained is 5.965%. Two perceived risks are related to the governmental support in tourism activities and named as "governmental support" factor.

Six dimensions of youth travelers' perceived risks of traveling in Taiwan (transportation, accommodation, medical support, law & order, personal safety and telecommunication) were assessed. Only two factor's mean value is higher than "5" (Perceived low travelling risk in Taiwan). International youth travelers have the highest and best perception of traveling risks in the transportation category (Mean=5.69) and then safety factor (Mean=4.54). This means respondents consider the transportation system and communication network as quite safe, affordable, and convenient. Besides respondents also perceived it is very safe to travel in Taiwan and robbery or theft is also uncommon in Taiwan. Three factors received their mean values around 4.5. One factor's mean value is less than 4. Respondents still perceived negatively towards law and order factor from their own understanding or information. For example, the public transportation driver or taxi driver sometimes pay no attention to pedestrian, make inappropriate turn and etc. Majority of respondents perceived that Taiwan's medical support, treatment and system were quite inconvenient, insufficient and unprofessional (Table 2).

Table 2: Respondents' perceived travelling risks in Taiwan

Risk	# of items	Factor loading	% of variance	Reliability	Mean
Transportation	5 items	3.382	14.497%	.850	5.69
Accommodation	5 items	3.274	14.880%	.862	4.70
Medical support	5 items	3.403	13.834%	.781	4.47
Law and Order	2 items	2.156	9.798%	.830	3.93
Personal safety	3 items	1.549	7.041%	.605	5.40
Telecommunication	2 items	1.312	5.965%	.600	4.54

(II) The role of socio-economic characteristics in perceived travelling risks

According to test results for Hypothesis 1, international youth tourists with different gender, occupation, and annual income can have statistically significant differences on their perceptions towards transportation factors. Their occupation can also influence their perceptions towards accommodation and law/order factor. Their education level can also influence how they perceived law/order and safety factor. Female youth travelers were more concerned about transportation and telecommunication risks than male youth travelers. In Lepp and Gibson's study (2003), perceptions of health related risk varied significantly by gender, which is not discovered in this study. According to Post-Hoc test, travelers who work for public sector or public-oriented organizations/agencies perceived less risk in transportation factor than travelers who are students or work in private sectors. Oppositely, students perceived more risks in accommodation and law/order sector than travelers working for private sectors. Travelers with lower educational level concerned more about law/order and safety factor than travelers with higher education level. According to Table 3, youth travelers with different monthly income also have statistically significant difference on their perceived traveling risks

Table 3 Respondents' perceived travelling risks by their socio-economic characteristics

Risk factors	***F/T* value**	**Sig**	**Post Hoc test**
Transportation			
Gender	2.580	.010	Male>female
Occupation	8.424	.000	Government agencies>studentGovernment agencies >private company
Monthly income	3.566	.007	$2,000>$500, $2,000+>$500-1,000
Accommodation			
Occupation	3.288	.023	Private unit>student
Law and order			
Education	1.552	.209	Graduate>university
Occupation	1.945	.122	Private>student
Personal safety			
Education	6.058	.001	University>high school, University> college, Graduate>high school
Telecommunication			
Gender	2.455	.015	Male>female

on transportation category. The Schaeffer Post Hoc test indicated that international youth tourists whose monthly income exceeding $2,000 have perceived less traveling risks regarding transportation than those whose monthly income was less than $500.

(III) The role of travelling characteristics in perceived travelling risks

Furthermore, international youth tourists with different travelling experience can have statistically significant differences on their perceptions towards transportation, medical support, law/order, personal safety and telecommunication factors. For transportation factor, participants who traveled with more than 4 people perceived more risks in transportation, medical support, personality safety, and telecommunication than people who travelled alone and two persons, except for law and order factor. People who travel only once per year also perceived more risk in transportation factor than people who travel aboard frequently such as 3 or 4 times per year. Furthermore, independent traveler also perceived less risk in transportation, safety and medical support factors than non-independent traveler. From the result, it is very obvious independent travelers are more knowledgeable towards different travelling destinations and easy to accept new and different travelling experience.

(IV) The role of nationality characteristics in perceived travelling risks

According to test results of Hypothesis 2, international youth tourists with different cultural background or nationalities can have statistically significant difference on their perceptions towards transportation, accommodation, medical support and law/order factors.

People from Asia perceived more risks in transportation and medical support factors than people from USA, EU and Oceana regions. People from Oceana perceived less risk in accommodation factor than people from USA and Asia. Travelers from Oceana perceived more risk in law and order than people from Asia and EU regions. Compared to the tourist from USA or EU areas, tourists from Asia area should know Taiwan travelling environments more due to the location and similarities in culture background. However, the study results show that tourists from Asia still perceived certain travelling risk existing in transportation, accommodation and medical support. This is similar to the study result concluded by March (1997) that tourists from different Asia countries also had differences in choosing tourism activities and behaviors. Moreover, Debbage (1991) provided a clear explanation on how travelling distances influence their behavior and attitudes.

Table 4 Respondents' perceived travelling risks by their travelling experience

Risk factors	***F* value**	**Sig**	**Post Hoc test**
Transportation			
# of travelling people	2.641	.050	One person>more than 4 people 2 persons>more than 4 people
# of yearly travelling times	2.871	.037	3 times>once per year 4+times>once per year
Travel Type	4.658	.010	Indep.>Group traveler Indep.>Self-Indep. traveler
Medical support			
# of travelling people	3.601	.014	One person>more than 4 people 2 persons>more than 4 people
Travel type	6.432	.002	Indep.>Self-Indep. traveler
Law and Order			
# of travelling people	2.705	.046	2 persons>one person 3-4 persons>one person
Safety			
# of travelling people	3.413	.018	One person>more than 4 people 2 persons>more than 4 people
Travel type	7.474	.001	Self-Indep.>Group traveler Indep.>Group traveler
Telecommunication			
# of travelling people	1.804	.0146	One person>more than 4 persons

Debbage (1991) stated that the tourists who travelled the furthest to the resort were likely to exhibit behavior of an 'allocentric' nature, while those travelling a relatively short distance behaved in a 'psychocentric' manner. The tourists from USA or EU perceived less travelling risks in Taiwan possibly due to their "allocentric" nature and adventurous characteristics.

(V) Level of traveling satisfaction

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was again used to derive meaningful and uncorrelated factors for travelling satisfaction. According to the tests of KMO value (.886), Bartlett's chi-square value (3894.391), and p value (less than .05), the items were factor analyzed using principal component analysis along with a varimax factor rotation. The data loaded on five factors based on the criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1. Four items were

Table 5 Respondents' perceived travelling risks by their nationality

Risk factors	df	*F* value	Sig	Post Hoc test
Transportation	3	28.188	.000	USA>Asia*, EU>Asia, Oceana>Asia
Accommodation	3	2.800	.050	Oceana>USA, NZ>Asia
Medical support	3	14.759	.000	USA>Asia, EU>Asia, NZ>Asia
Law and Order	3	3.283	.021	Asia>Oceana, EU>Oceana

*This information refers to the nationality of the travelers which also stand for their culture background. USA stands for people from United of America or Canada. EU stands for the countries located in Europe region. NZ stands for people from New Zealand, Australia and Oceana.

excluded from EFA due to the low communality value (less than .4). The 21 items were factor analyzed again and produced five factors. Five Cronbach alpha coefficients of the factors scored higher than.80. The cumulative percentage explained by these five factors have 67.885%.

Five perceived risk factors were identified. Each risk factor can be interpreted with the same Likert scale (1="strongly disagree", 7="strongly agree"). A mean score higher than or equal to four suggests satisfaction. For factor 1, the factor loading is 3.773 and the percentage of variance explained is 15.090%. This factor including five items is named as "Service Quality" satisfaction factor. For factor 2, the factor loading is 2.952 and the percentage of variance explained is 13.226%. This factor included three items related to their satisfaction towards "safety" factor. For factor 3, the factor loading is 2.755 and the percentage of variance explained is 13.120%. Five items are included and named as "Travelling Cost" factor satisfaction. For factor 4, the factor loading is 2.722 and the percentage of variance explained is 12.960%. This factor including three items is named as "Accommodation" satisfaction factor. For factor 5, the factor loading is 2.402 and the percentage of variance explained is 11.438%. This factor included five items related to their satisfaction towards "Transportation" factor.

According to table 6, travelers are most satisfied with the travel cost factor (M=5.45) including the spending on transportation, accommodation, F&B, and entertainment. The mean values for another four factors are between 4 and 5. Furthermore, travelers with different nationality background can have significant differences on their travelling satisfactions. The result suggested that travelers from European countries have higher satisfactions towards service quality than people from USA region. Speaking of safety, travelers from Asia countries have lower satisfactions than travelers from other areas. The result showed that travelers from USA and EU regions are much more satisfied about the travelling cost and transportation than travelers who are from Asia. Taiwan is considered as the budget travel destination compared to some Asia countries such as Japan, South Korea, or HK. However for some countries such as south eastern Asia, the travelling costs probably are much higher than their own country. Oppositely, there is no significant difference existing on accommodation sector between travelers with different nationalities.

Table 6 Respondents' traveling satisfaction in Taiwan by Nationality

Risk	**Mean**	***F* value**	**Post-Hoc Test**
Service Quality	4.98	2.850	EU>USA
Safety	4.88	20.987	USA>Asia, EU>Asia, NZ>Asia
Travel cost	5.45	4.036	USA>Asia, EU>Asia
Accommodation	4.67	1.089	N/A
Transportation	4.77	8.866	USA>Asia, EU>Asia, NZ>Asia

* 1 = "very dissatisfied," and 7 = "very satisfied."

(VI) The perceived travelling risk's influence on travelling satisfaction by nationality

Furthermore, the study performed a multiple regression analysis to investigate whether and to what extent the independent variables (six perceived travelling risk factors) exert significant influence on the dependent variable (the total travelling satisfaction including 25 items). Table 7 reports the results of the regression analysis for four models. Each model presented the results for youth tourists with different nationalities. Except the model 4, the overall R^2 is quite high for model 1, 2, and 3. Besides, three models were also statistically significant (Ff".00000). For the model 1 (used the data of the research participants from north and south America), three independent variables (transportation, accommodation and medical support) were significant at P<.05. The three variables accounted for virtually all of the variance (R^2=.731; Adjusted R^2.692). Of three variables, variable "medical support" carried the heaviest weight in explaining overall levels of travelling satisfaction, followed by "accommodation" and "transportation" variable.

For model 2 (used the data of the research participants from countries located in Asia), three independent variables (accommodation, medical

Table 7 The perceived travelling risk's influence on travelling satisfaction by nationality

	Model 1 USA region		Model 2 Asia region		Model 3 Europe region		Model 4 Others*	
	β	*Sig.*	β	*Sig.*	β	*Sig.*	β	*Sig.*
Transportation	6.34	***.013***	2.19	.222	1.67	.612	10.06	.534
Accommodation	6.96	***.002***	9.53	***.000***	2.28	.275	2.944	.785
Medical support	9.70	***.000***	4.83	***.020***	9.81	***.002***	11.23	.452
Law and Order	.316	.084	2.34	.102	3.52	***.016***	11.00	.167
Personal safety	3.05	.094	5.05	***.000***	3.57	.138	6.563	.649
Telecommunication	.021	.922	.406	.795	-1.18	.626	.592	.904
R^2	.731	.611	.740	.689				
Adjusted R^2	.692	.581	.669	.067				
F-ratio	19.014	20.159	10.453	1.107				

* Australia, New Zealand and Africa.

support and personal safety) were significant at P<.05. The three variables accounted for virtually all of the variance (R^2=.611; Adjusted R^2=.581). Of three variables, variable "accommodation" carried the heaviest weight in explaining overall levels of travelling satisfaction, followed by "personal safety" and "medical support" variable. For model 3 (used the data of the research participants from countries located in Europe), two independent variables (medical support, law and order) were significant at P<.05. The two variables accounted for virtually all of the variance (R^2=.740; Adjusted R^2=.699). Of two variables, variable "medical support" carried the heaviest weight in explaining overall levels of travelling satisfaction, followed by "law and order" variable. According to the multiple regression results, the youth tourists' perceived travelling risks can influence their travelling satisfaction only for the youth tourists coming from America, Europe and Asia regions. Of six variables, "medical support" was a very important factor to influence traveler's satisfaction. For the youth tourists from Austria or New Zealand region, their perceived travelling risks do not have statistically influence on their travelling satisfactions.

Conclusion

It is very important to note that the results highlighted in this paper may be specific to international youth tourists. The young tourists tend to possess motivation and personal traits that are different from general population (Loker-Murphy & Pearce, 1995; Pastor, 1991). This may lead to the differences between young tourists and general tourists in terms of their perception of danger, group composition and gendered differences/similarities (Carr, 2001). Due to this concern, the result of this paper should not be generalized to the general tourists. Despite this, some interesting results have emerged from this study both support and contradict research on perception of travelling risk in Taiwan. Despite this, some interesting results have been found in this study.

Data analysis revealed that more than 40% of respondents were from Asian countries such as Japan, Hong Kong, Singapore, and South Korea. Another 60% were from Western countries, which are very different from Taiwan. The majority of respondents were male, single, either held a bachelor's degree, or were students, and were an average of 26 years old. In addition, most respondents' monthly income was less than $500. Nevertheless, youth travelers planned an average of two to three trips abroad each year. Half of them preferred to travel alone and the remainder traveled with three or four companions. Whether traveling alone or with others, youth travelers definitely showed no interest in package tours and were much more interested in independently organized and flexible travel schedules. Their previous traveling experience and the research that they had conducted prior to the trip could influence their perception of risk at their destinations.

International youth travelers' pre-trip perceptions about traveling in Taiwan were positive, especially when it came to transportation and communication. They perceived airplanes, MRT, bus, train and taxis as safe but they believed that taxi drivers in Taiwan did not follow traffic rules sometimes. According to analysis result on their satisfaction, international youth tourists were still dissatisfied with mass transportation. Taiwan's bus and taxi drivers are not as conscientious is following the law as are their counterparts in other countries. The government should enforce safe driving laws among mass transportation drivers, especially those who are associated with in international airports and hotels. A politically unstable destination is a dangerous place to visit. Most youth travelers consider Taiwan as a stable destination despite the tense relationship with Mainland China. Besides, Taiwanese are disorderly when waiting in line and driving. To change youth international travelers' perception of law and order, government and the media could use public relations to show the stability of Taiwan's government. To assure the safety of youth international travelers, a travel safety network should be developed to provide assistance and protection for travelers in trouble by cooperating with police systems, travel agencies, embassies, and related association and agencies. Furthermore, temporary police or safety stations should be set up during the special events or at popular tourism spots. Those efforts would be very helpful and useful in increasing tourists' positive images or perception on law and order condition in Taiwan.

For accommodation category, youth international travelers perceived positively towards the cleanness and reasonable price of accommodation but perceived that fire-escape, and fire fighting, monitoring system and English signage are not good enough. According to research, most youth international tourists can only afford to stay in economy hotels, small inns or bed and breakfasts. Most hotels, except luxury hotels, are not multilingual. Most respondents were very satisfied with the price of their accommodations but were dissatisfied with access to emergency exits and escape routes, fire extinguishers and safety monitoring systems. Those facilities or equipment might not be used during their stays but they were necessary when accidents happen. The Tourism Bureau should encourage hotels, especially in Taipei, to recruit staffs who can speak and understand foreign languages, and provide web sites and tour guide books in more than one language.

International youth travelers were neutral regarding dining environment, public areas, food purity, and contagious disease before their trips to Taiwan. Their satisfaction with hygiene fell between "neutral" and "okay" and did not reach "satisfied" level. Their evaluation of hygiene was exactly the same as their perception of it had been before their trip. The cleanliness of the traveling environment, public facility or dining places will require more attention from Taiwan's government. To improve the cleanliness of the traveling environment, the government could develop standards or criteria and then conduct regular inspections more frequently and precisely. The government could also encourage businesses to become more hygienic, by sponsoring competitions among businesses in the hospitality industry.

The traveling risk could be decreased or eliminated with thorough pre-trip planning. However there is still a chance for youth international travelers to have accidents, get sick, or find themselves in trouble. The results show that youth international travelers find it very hard to acquire information about medical treatment and emergency clinics, and this might increase their worries about traveling in Taiwan. Furthermore, they thought that the Taiwan government provided insufficient information and efforts on traveling safety and risk management and medical assistance. Most respondents were dissatisfied because they did not know where medical treatment centers and hospitals were located. Currently hospitals and medical institutions are available not only in cities but also in small towns. However the information about them was not found on tourism-related web sites, in travel books, brochures, or at travel agencies. To make information about medical facilities more accessible, the Tourism Bureau should place this information prominently on its web site and attach it to city maps or Taiwan Tourism brochures that are available in international airports and travel information centers.

Youth international travelers perceived that recreational facilities and services in sightseeing spots to be very safe. After their trips, they were not satisfied with interpretation systems, traveling information service, professionalism and quality of people in travel industry. Due to those results, more service people should be trained to speak English. A regular evaluation of service people's performance should be implemented in order to provide better and service to youth international tourists. According to the result, when youth international travelers had a better pre-purchase perception about Taiwan, they reported greater satisfaction with their trip upon their return. Likewise, when their perceptions about traveling in Taiwan were negative, they were less satisfied after their trips. Taiwan has great potential to build its international youth travel industry due to low travel cost and friendly people, both of which are prized by youth travelers. However more effort is required to make Taiwan an even more attractive tourist destination. Taiwan needs to ensure a multilingual traveling environment, make sufficient information about medical and emergency centers available, improve the quality of its service people and make sure that bus and taxi drivers observe traffic regulations. Those study results all said that certain differences could be identified between tourists with different nationality and suggested the necessarily of implementing different marketing strategies for tourists from different countries in order to enhance their satisfaction.

Discussion

Unter-Jones (2000) mentioned that package tour companies no longer regard themselves as simply the agents of their service providers but are full of responsibility for the quality of tourism experience and satisfactions for those foreign customers. However, non-package travelers and independent travelers are still in a difficult position with regard to seeking redress should their holiday prove unsatisfactory. Eitzinger and Wiedemann's study focused on the responsibility for traveling risks. The result indicated that travelers or tourists should be responsible for behavior-related risks or sport-risks. In contrast, local authorities and tourism operators should be responsible for the transportation, accommodation, infrastructural and industrial risks. For man-make risks are attributed to human negligence and criminal risks are ascribed to the offender's responsibility. Of six travelling risk dimensions, transportation, accommodation, medical support, and telecommunication risks are attributed to local authorities or to the tourism operator, law and order risk to the man-made and personal risk could be attributed to tourists themselves or offenders. Weiner (1995) suggested that those risked caused by external factors are seen to be controlled.

Previous studies all concluded that national culture does affect tourists' preferences for length of stay at a destination, expenditures, and preference for accommodation and facilities. For example, American visitors prefer travelling independently and staying more nights. That could partly explain the reason that American youth tourists concerned more on transportation, accommodation and medical support system. For independent travelers, they normally spend more time in one country and arrange itineraries by themselves. Compared to package tour travelers, they need to face more challenge and difficulties from transportation and accommodation arrangement. Taiwan medical support system maybe is sufficient but not friendly enough to Americans and Europeans due to language barrier. Except Taipei, the most internationalized city of Taiwan or some major cities, majority of tourism destinations are located in countryside without sufficient and convenient medical support and service to foreigners. European youth tourists have special care on law and order items compared to youth tourists from other regions. Taiwan government should educate the drivers of mass transportation tools to have better manners and behaviors in driving.

National culture is a major socio-psychological factor influencing tourist's behavior, but its influence should not be underestimated (Crotts, 2004). Tourism planners need to be aware of which risks might cause stress among tourists, awareness that should also inform marketing strategies based on the national culture differences of the youth tourists. Previous study also suggested that tourists from low UAI cultures, such as Germany, and tourists from high UAI cultures, such as Japan, differ in information-search patterns (Money & Crotts, 2003). This is of particular importance in the development world where tourism is being promoted as important market sector (Burns, 1999). It is very normal to see the advertisements which indicated that international tourists should purchase traveler's check, guide books, blotted water as tourist's precautions against any perceived travelling risks associated with international tourism. Youth travelers are likely to confront risks in transportation, hygiene, accommodation, and sightseeing during their visits to foreign destinations. It is impossible to make international travel completely safe. However, perceived risks could be reduced if tourists are aware of possible dangers and plan their trips accordingly. This also means that youth travelers need more, reliable, accurate information which are provided by government agencies and tourism operators to build up the correct perceptions and understanding of travelling in Taiwan. Moreover, the drivers of public transportation tools might need to receive more education and training on law and order matter and driving attitudes. Additionally international tourists or travelers might be aware of their own travelling behaviors. In order to make Taiwan a better travelling destination and create a better tourism image, tourism and related government agencies and unites should take the lead in the guidance that they give to tourists and tourism industry, and also try to establish clarity for all parties.

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Research Paper

Climate change and tourism seasonality

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Abstract: *This study proposes a decomposition-based time series method to assess the relation between tourism seasonality and climate. When applied to two geographically contrasting locations, the results suggest that climate plays a dominant role in shaping the seasonal patterns of visitation, and that the impact of climate variations on visitation varies across seasons and locations. Beyond the methodological contribution of developing a procedure which facilitates the incorporation of the seasonality of the explanatory variable, the findings underscore the importance of a localized approach. The variation across regions indicates that such localized approach could provide more precise and accurate estimates in support of tourism planning, forecasting and decision-making.*

Keywords: Climate change, visitation, seasonality, decomposition

Introduction

Climate change is one of the major environmental issues facing the world today as evidence shows that the global climate has changed compared to the pre-industrial era. According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2001; Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2007), the global average surface temperature has increased by about 1 $^\circ F$ in the past century, with accelerated warming during the past few decades. This warming trend is expected to continue into the 21st century and beyond.

The impact of climate change on tourism is widely recognized (Breiling & Charamza, 1999; Martin, 2005; deFreitas, 2003; Hale & Altalo, 2002) as studies suggest that climate change can influence tourists' destination selection (Hamilton & Lau, 2005; Bigano, Hamilton & Tol, 2006), tourism supply (Amelung, Nicholls & Viner, 2007), and tourism demand (Amelung & Viner, 2006; Scott, Jonesa & Konopeka, 2007). Research shows that a substantive spatial and temporal redistribution of climate resources for tourism is possible as a result of projected climate change in the 21st century. For example, Amelung et al. (2007) found that the seasonal pattern in the Mediterranean is likely to shift from the current summer peak to a two shoulders pattern, while Lise & Tol's 2002 study implies that global warming has the potential to cause the relocation of tourists towards higher latitudes and altitudes.

One challenge for studies that aim at examining the relationship between climate and tourism demand is the lack of an appropriate methodology. Recent attempts to explore the relationship between climate and tourism demand have been limited by methodologies that failed to properly account for climate seasonal patterns. For example, consider Scott et al. (2007) who proposed statistical models of monthly visitation and climate (monthly maximum, minimum, mean temperature, and precipitation) to examine the direct impact of climate change on park visitation using monthly data from 1996-2003. They found a weak relationship between monthly minimum temperature and visitation in the summer peak season (July and August) and a strong relationship in the shoulder season (September to June). However, the strong relationship identified may be biased because it could have been caused by the similar seasonality pattern of climate and tourists visitation.

Similarly, the lack of consideration for the seasonality of the explanatory variables in econometric tourism demand models makes them inapplicable to studies of the impact of climate change. Usually, econometric tourism demand studies apply multivariate analysis methods to model the role of factors such as income, price, and foreign exchange rates (*e.g.*, Song & Witt, 2003; Croes & Vanegas, 2005), adding seasonal indicator variables when demand data exhibit seasonality (Ismail, Iverson & Cai., 2000; Kulendran & Witt, 2003). A major limitation of these models is that their inherent assumption about the constant seasonal pattern of demand is often unsubstantiated. The dynamic nature of the seasonal pattern of both tourism demand and climate conditions is very important and should not be ignored when assessing the impact of climate change on tourism demand.

In their recent attempts to improve the accuracy of forecasting tourism demand, Greenidge (2000), and Witt & Turner (2002), advocated the use of a structural time series model in which time-varying components, including trend, cycle, and seasonality, are decomposed from demand time series, and are then incorporated into an econometric model along with other explanatory variables. While this approach considers the dynamic nature of tourism demand, its major drawback is that it does not accommodate the seasonal patterns of the independent variable(s). This is a considerable weakness when studying the impact of a changing climate because, unlike the traditional economic factors of the tourism demand models, tourism climate resources most often exhibit strong seasonality.

The purpose of this study is therefore to develop a more robust statistical procedure to assess the relation between climate on tourism in destinations where both visitation and climate exhibit unambiguous seasonal patterns. The method is tested using data from two destinations where tourism demand exhibits different seasonal patterns.

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This paper proposes and tests a method to handle multiple seasonal patterns simultaneously. In this section we outline the decomposition procedure we propose, the manner in which the outcome of the decomposition procedure can be used to assess the impact of climate on visitation patterns, and the data used in this study.

Study methods

Our approach is based on the notion that both tourism demand and climate factors can be decomposed into different time varying components (*e.g.*, trend and seasonal) according to the nature of the time series. The relationship between demand and climate is then estimated by using monthly corresponding components. Thus, for monthly data, 12 coefficients are estimated. The use of seasonal components has several advantages. First it allows for the examination of the climate/ demand relationship in different seasons. Second, it distinguishes climate impact from the impact of other factors such as income and price. These economic factors don't usually exhibit seasonality and their effects are contained in the trend component. Lastly, the decomposed seasonal components are used to measure how similar the seasonal patterns of tourism demand and climate factors are. The more similar the two patterns, the more significant the climate impact.

The proposed method follows three consecutive stages as follows:

(1) Decomposition of the demand and climate factor series into a stochastic time trend and a stochastic seasonal component. This phase follows Harvey (1989; 1995) as outlined below.

$$y_t = \mu_t + \gamma_t + \varepsilon_t \quad \varepsilon_t \sim i.i.d.N(0,\sigma_\varepsilon^2) \tag{1}$$

where y_t is the original time series. μ_t is the trend component, and γ_t is the seasonal component. ε_t is an identical independent normal distributed variable with a mean of 0 and variance of σ_ε^2. The trend component μ_t is modeled as:

$$Level\text{: } \mu_t = \mu_{t-1} + \beta_{t-1} + \eta_t \qquad \eta_t \sim i.i.d.N(0,\sigma_\eta^2) \tag{2}$$

$$Slope\text{: } \beta_t = \beta_{t-1} + \xi_t \qquad \xi_t \sim i.i.d.N(0,\sigma_\xi^2) \tag{3}$$

Where η_t and ξ_t are the level and slope disturbances respectively, and are uncorrelated. The seasonal component γ_t is modeled as:

$$\gamma_t = \gamma_{t-1} + \ldots + \gamma_{t-s+1} + \omega_t \qquad \omega_t \sim i.i.d.N(0,\sigma_\omega^2) \tag{4}$$

$$\gamma_t = \sum_{j=1}^{[s/2]} \gamma_{j,t} \tag{5}$$

where each $\gamma_{j,t}$ is generated by

$$\gamma_{j,t} = \gamma_{j,t-1} \cos\lambda_j + \gamma^*_{j,t-1} \sin\lambda_j + \omega_{j,t} \tag{6}$$

$$\gamma^*_{j,t} = -\gamma_{j,t-1} \sin\lambda_j + \gamma^*_{j,t-1} \cos\lambda_j + \omega^*_{jt} \quad \text{for j=1,...,[s/2]} \tag{7}$$

where ω_{jt} and ω_{jt}^* are zero mean white-noise processes with a common variance for j=1,…,[s/2]. ω_{jt} is uncorrelated with ω_{jt}.

(2) Assessment of the impact of climate on tourism demand seasonality. We propose that the contribution of climate to visitation seasonality can be assessed by comparing the shape of the climate pattern to that of the visitation seasonal component's pattern. Similar patterns indicate a larger role of climate in shaping the seasonal characteristic of the visitation. Since the two patterns have different units, the seasonal components of visitation and the climate factor must be first standardized.

The similarity of the two patterns is assessed using a Euclidean distance as follows:

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{1}{12}\sum_{i=1}^{12}(\gamma(DEMAND\_SD)_i - \gamma(CLIMATE\_SD)_i)^2} \tag{8}$$

where γ *(DEMAND _SD)* denotes the average standardized decomposed seasonal components of tourism demand; γ *(CLIMATE _SD)* denotes the average standardized decomposed seasonal components of the climate factor; i denotes the month (i=1,…, 12); and *D* denotes the distance between the two time series.

(3) Estimation of the seasonal relationship between climate and tourism demand with seasonal components using univariate regression analysis.

$$\gamma_{in}(DEMAND) = \rho_i \gamma_{in}(CLIMATE) + o_{it} \qquad i=1,\dots,12;\ n=1,\dots,N \tag{8}$$

where γ_{in} denotes the i_{th} month component of year n. N is the number of years in the sample. v_t and o_{jt} are zero mean white-noise processes.

The magnitude and sign of ρ_j gauge the sensitivity of tourism demand to climate variation across the seasons: The higher ρ_j, the larger the impact of climate on tourism demand in month i.

Data

Twenty-seven years (1979-2006) of hourly weather observation data as well as monthly visitation statistics were used in this study to assess the impact of climate change on visitation to two U.S. National Parks: Denali in Alaska, and the Everglades in Florida. Park visitation data were published by the Public Use Statistic Office of the National Park Service (Public Use Statistic Office, 2007). The two national parks, Denali and the Everglades, are popular tourist detonations. In 2008, 432,309 tourists visited Denali and 822,118 visited the Everglades (Public Use Statistic Office, 2009).

Hourly weather observation data were obtained from the National Climate Data Center (National Climate Data Center, 2007). Following the procedure demonstrated in Yu, Schwartz & Walsh (2009), a modified climate index for tourism was constructed. This modified index (MCIT) was designed to integrate multiple weather elements, elements that determine the quality and suitability of weather conditions for pre-defined outdoor tourism activities and it introduced several improvements over previously suggested indices. First the MCIT altered the tourism related climate elements that were used to construct a tourism climate index by adding visibility and significant weather elements such as rain, lightning, hail, and snow, while removing other such as sunshine and clouds. In addition, instead of using a 7 point scale this modified index has employed three categories of unsuitable, marginal and ideal (0, 1, and 2 respectively) conditions, describing each of the sub-indices and the aggregated index. Finally, it used hourly data as oppose to the daily averages used before. It aggregates four sub-indices which use perceived temperature (temperature, relative humidity and wind), visibility, and significant weather data. The use of the 0, 1, 2 scale allows for a more realistic representation of the conditions as it reflects the overriding nature of these weather elements. The aggregated index is set to 0 (that is, unsuitable condition) when any of the four sub-indices shows unsuitable weather condition, and it is set to ideal condition (2) only when all sub-indices are at the ideal level.

Accordingly, this study uses the index to characterize the tourism weather conditions (in terms of suitability for outdoor activities) in the two destinations during the investigated period of 27 years. Given the nature of these two destinations, the index parameters were set to reflect suitability for outdoor sightseeing. In other words, the index combines hourly observations of multiple weather and climate factors to construct an aggregated (across time and factors) measure: the monthly frequencies of ideal conditions for sightseeing by tourists to these two destinations. Data were extracted and aggregated, and the indices were generated according to the rules outlined in Yu et al., (2009) using computer code written in C. The structural time series decomposition was conducted using SAS/ETS 9.1.3 (PROC UCM).

Results

Significance tests of the decomposed components (Table 1) suggest that park visitation in both Denali and the Everglades display strong seasonality. The seasonal component (along with the trend component) plays a significant role in explaining visitation in both parks. The chi-squared value of 335.25 with 11 *df* and a *p* value of 0.00 for Denali indicates that the seasonal component is significant.

The analysis of the stochastic nature of the individual components suggests that Denali's visitation differs from that of the Everglades (Table 1). The estimates of the parameters and their significance levels indicate that the seasonal pattern for Denali is stochastic, since the disturbance variance for the seasonal component is significant at the

Table 1: Decomposition Statistics for Denali AK and Everglades FL National Park Visitation

	Component	Parameter	Estimate	Chi-Square	R-square
AK	Level	σ_η^2	901341	122.78**	0.927
	Slope	σ_ξ^2	545	0.11	
	Season	σ_κ^2	1202588**	335.25**	
	Irregular	σ_τ^2	57611437**	0.01	
FL	Level	σ_η^2	59313218**	103.48**	0.775
	Slope	σ_ξ^2	0.06933	13.48	
	Season	σ_κ^2	11547	554.8	
	Irregular	σ_τ^2	122792481**	0.70	

(**) significant at .01 level

0.05% level. The trend component, however, appears to be non-stochastic. In the case of the Everglades, the trend component is stochastic but the seasonal pattern is non-stochastic.

Figures 1 shows the distribution of monthly visitation from Jan 1979 to Dec 2006 along with the decomposed components (trend, seasonal and irregular) for Denali AK. The charts for the individual components confirm the analysis conclusion above that the trend component of Denali's visitation and the seasonal component of the Everglades' visitation are non stochastic and that conversely, the seasonal component of Denali and the trend component of the Everglades are stochastic.

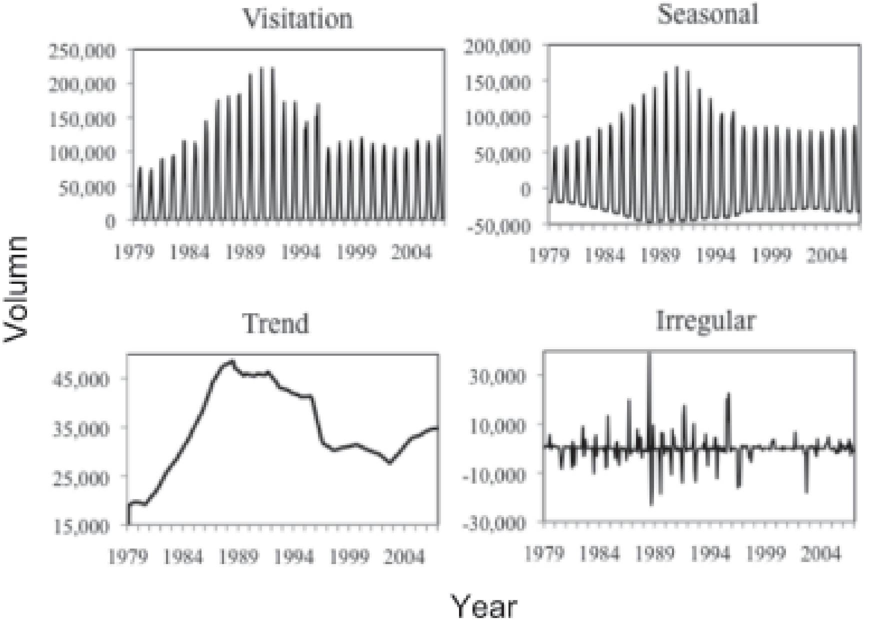

Fig 1. Decomposed Trend, Seasonal, and Irregular Components of Denali AK National Park Visitation.

The decomposition of the climate factor (the frequency of ideal climate conditions for tourism) indicates that similarly to the visitation data, the role of the seasonal component is significant. The seasonal component of the climate factor is non stochastic with *p* value of 0.359 in Denali, but is stochastic in the Everglades with a *p* value of 0.0021. In addition, Denali data exhibit an increasing trend, while the trend component for the Everglades is non-stochastic is decreasing over time.

The Impact of Climate on the Seasonal Patterns of Visitation

Using standardized monthly averages, the seasonal patterns of visitation and the climate factor for Denali and the Everglades are shown in Figure 2. In both destinations, the seasonal visitation patterns are very similar to the climate seasonal patterns. However, the shape of Denali's seasonal visitation pattern is a mirror image of that of the Everglades. Denali's visitation and climate condition patterns both peak in the summer. Conversely, the seasonal pattern for visitation and climate conditions in the Everglades appears to have a summer valley and a winter peak.

The match between Denali's visitation and climate patterns is stronger than that of the Everglades. As shown in Fig. 2, Denali's visitation and climate peak in the summer (June through August) and valley between November and March. In the Everglades there is a slight timing difference between the peaks, but the valleys match very well. The peak for climate conditions in the Everglades is between November and January, while the peak for visitation appears to be around February and March. A Euclidean distance (Equation 8 where zero denotes a perfect match) was used to measure the similarity between the two standardized patterns. The Euclidean distance between the seasonal patterns of visitation and climate is 0.48 for Denali and 0.71 for the Everglades, confirming that visitation and climate seasonal patterns match well in both Denali and the Everglades with Denali scoring slightly better (i.e., a stronger pattern match).

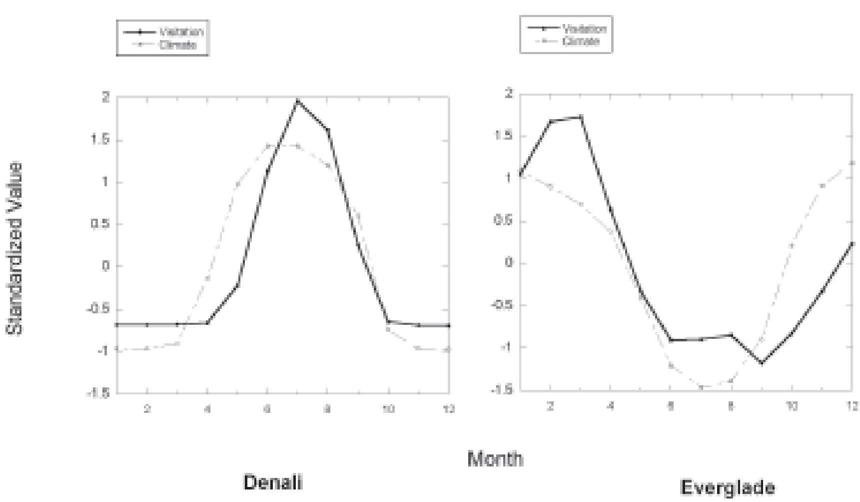

Fig 2. Seasonal Patterns of Park Visitation and Climate Conditions (Standardized Seasonal.

In summary, the findings indicate that climate conditions play a significant role in shaping the seasonality of visitation to both Denali and the Everglades, two national parks that are located in areas that are very different form each other in terms of their climate. The study's finding that the decomposed seasonal patterns of visitation and climate are more similar in Denali than in the Everglades suggests that the impact of climate seasonality on visitation might be larger in northern regions such as Alaska than in southern regions such as Florida.

Seasonal Differences in the Impact of Climate on Park Visitation

Does the impact of climate on park visitation vary across the seasons? Univariate regression analysis is used to answer this question, where the decomposed seasonal component of monthly visitation is the dependent variable, and the decomposed seasonal components of monthly frequencies of ideal climate conditions are the independent variable. The set of regression coefficients, ρ_1, are reported in Table 2. In addition, the coefficients of the univariate regression were estimated with the pre-decomposition data. These coefficient estimates are reported in Table 2 as ρ_2. Note that the interpretation of ρ_1 is somewhat different from ρ_2. Since ρ_2 reflects the relationship between park visitation and climate conditions, it is interpreted in the traditional way: An increase (or decrease if the coefficient is negative) in park visitation due to a 1% improvement in tourism related ideal weather conditions. However, the decomposed seasonal components coefficients do not represent actual visitation figures but rather a relative position in a seasonal cycle. As such, the sign and statistical significance levels are more meaningful than the magnitude.

At Denali National Park, the impact of climate on park visitation varies by season. The variation of ρ_2, the pre-decomposition coefficients relating park visitation and climate condition, across seasons show a clear pattern: the improvement of climate condition for sightseeing increases park visitation during most of the summer season (May through July), but decreases park visitation in the winter. The variation of ρ_1, the vector of coefficients of the decomposed elements, displays a similar pattern: high values in the summer season (June through July) and low value or a negative sign in other seasons. While the relations and patterns, revealed by using the decomposed coefficients, are similar to those shown by the pre-decomposition fitted models, more of the former are statistically significant. This underscores the notion that assessing the relationship between visitation and climate using seasonal decomposed components is more efficient than using the original data.

Table 2 Coefficients of Regression Analysis models: park visitation and climate

	Denali		Everglade	
Month	ρ_1	ρ_2	ρ_1	ρ_2
1	6244	-7	76	-246
2	1989	-217	147 (**)	-315
3	-199	-47	44	-98
4	-4247 (*)	-4	96 (**)	-111
5	4172 (*)	200	-106 (**)	-734 (**)
6	10873 (**)	1155	-78 (*)	-989 (*)
7	134879 (**)	1385	-80 (*)	-1421 (**)
8	4588	73	-251 (**)	494
9	-5944 (*)	47	-21 (**)	176
10	9379 (*)	-21	-2	149
11	4438	-296	276 (**)	833
12	-186	0	-592 (*)	-205

Note:
ρ_1 are the regression coefficients of the decomposed seasonal visitation and climate components model
ρ_2 are the regression coefficients of the actual visitation and climate factor model
(*) significant at .05 level
(**) significant at .01 level

Interpreting the negative relationship (between favorable climate conditions and visitation) is not easy. The plots show that the standardized visitation components fluctuate much more than the climate factor components over time. The climate factor appears to be stable with an increasing trend in all months while the visitation components appear to have different trends in different months. For example, the visitation components exhibit an overall increasing trend in June but a decreasing trend in September. This suggests that in addition to climate, there might be other important factors that affect park visitation patterns, and consequently that the coefficients estimates might be biased. The visitation components in September appear to follow an overall decreasing trend while the frequency of ideal climate conditions exhibits an increasing trend. The omission of important factors that might explain the overall decreasing trend is likely to result in biased estimates. For example, the extremely severe September snowstorm in 1992 might have had a carry-over effect into subsequent Septembers, as tourists were “scared away” from planning

September trips to Denali. It is therefore very likely that the negative coefficient in September is biased.

Finally, the observed impact of climate on visitation in early summer is considerably larger and more significant. It is difficult to detect the impact of a single factor if the data contains effects of other known or unknown factors. A comparison of the plots of the decomposed standardized visitation and climate factors to the pre- decomposition figures in June, indicates that the pre-decomposition data fluctuates more (Fig. 3).

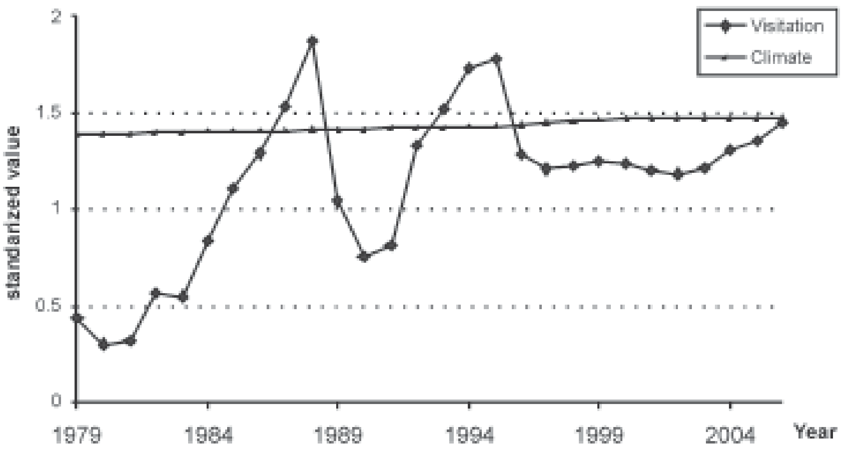

Fig 3. Standardized Visitation and Climate Seasonal Component for June in Denali.

As for the Everglades data, the analysis indicates that the impact of climate on visitation is smaller as the coefficients (positive and negative) are of lesser magnitude. Though the coefficients are significant in most months, compared to a monthly average visitation of 75,593, a change in visitation of around 100 a month has no practical significance. In addition, the variation in (standardized) visitation is very small compared to the variation of climate, implying that visitation is almost constant as it does not change much over time. It indicates while statistically significant the impact of climate and other factors on visitation is small.

Conclusion

This study proposed an innovative method to assess the relationship between tourism demand and climate, both of which display strong seasonality. This new method is based on the notion that both tourism demand and climate factors can be decomposed into different time varying components. Examination of the patterns with decomposed seasonal components facilitates a more efficient separation of climate impact from the impact of other factors.

Application of the proposed methods to two geographically contrasting national parks, Denali and the Everglades, shows that climate plays a dominant role in shaping the visitation seasonal pattern for both destinations. However, there is a difference between these two parks in terms of the impact of climate variations. The seasonal component of park visitation in Denali is stochastic and the correlation between visitation and climate varies with season. The climate impact is only significant in the late spring and early summer season with the largest impact in July. However, the seasonal component of park visitation in the Everglades is non-stochastic, implying no obvious change over time. Thus, the impact of climate on seasonal visitation in the Everglades is small even though the coefficients of the regression analysis are statistically significant in several months.

Our findings suggest that the application of time series decomposition techniques facilitates a more efficient examination of seasonal climate impact on tourism demand by filtering out “noise”, and consequently better understanding of the nature of patterns of tourism demand and climate conditions. An analysis of the decomposed trend and seasonal components provides specific information on the change trend and seasonal patterns.

Decomposition of Denali’s visitation patterns also shows that the trend component is non stochastic (a cycle pattern) while the seasonal component is stochastic. Given that the seasonal component of the climate pattern is a non-stochastic, monotonic increasing trend, is it likely that there are additional important factors which influence seasonal visitation.

The Everglades visitation trend component is stochastic while the seasonal component is non stochastic. Given the nature of the visitation seasonal pattern, the impact of climate on the seasonal component appears to be negligible. The non stochastic nature of the trend components implies that there are possibly mixed multi-cycles in the trend component and this calls for further exploration. Identification and understanding of the nature of these components can assist in properly assessing the impact of climate on visitation and in forecasting future park visitation.

The contribution of this study is both theoretical and practical. The study pioneers a three stage statistical procedure to assess the impact of climate on tourism demand, a procedure which accounts for both climate and demand seasonality. As such, the study extends the existing tourism demand literature by offering an innovative way to accommodate the unique characteristics of climate/tourism demand relationships where both the dependent and independent variable patterns might have a seasonal component. This timely contribution is of great importance as the scientific community attempts to assess climate change trends and their likely impact on global economic activities.

On the practical side, the study shows that the impact of climate change on tourism demand will be diverse and wide-ranging and will depend upon location. Our analysis of the data from Denali and the Everglades shows that global warming has significant impact on park visitation in May, June and July but its impact on park visitation in the Everglades is inconsequential. Region-specific knowledge about global warming and its relation to visitation could lead to better understanding of who is likely to gain and who is likely to lose because of climate change. This could assist tourism managers to develop adaptation plans in advance so as to minimize the cost or maximize the benefits. Information gleaned in this study, and by applying its methods to other destinations in future studies, could provide valuable support for climate sensitive tourism planning, forecasting and decision-making.

Although tested with only two destinations, the proposed method showed encouraging results. Plans for future research, include extending this analysis to data from additional locations with more diverse climate characteristics and visitation patterns. The long term relationship between tourism demand and climate change will be examined as data become available. More research is needed to explain the puzzling relationship (the negative sign in the univariate regression model) between park visitation and climate in some months. The ultimate goal is to incorporate this better undesrtasind of the relation between climate and tourism demand in tourism forecasts. In other words, plans for future research include using the identified relationship between climate and tourism demand to produce more accurate tourism demand forecasts, especially in regions where drastic climate changes are expected and where tourism demand is likely to be affected.

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Golf Travel and Definitions

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Abstract: *This paper presents dictionary definitions on golf, game, and travel. Based on these definitions, the author defines various types of golf, travel, and golf travel. The paper is finalized with the recommendation for future research to define 'golf tourism' and other related terms or phrases.*

Keywords: Golf, travel, golf travel, golf tour, golf tourism, golf traveler

Introduction

The definitions of terms are often controversial, especially when a term is newly created, or when no universal concept exists. For example, a term 'leisure' has been defined in various ways such as 1) the concept of time (Lundberg et al., 1934; Brightbill, 1960; Gross, 1963; Gist & Fava, 1964;Yukic, 1970; Clawson & Knetsch, 1974; Parker, 1976; Patmore, 1983), 2) an opportunity (Neumeyer & Neumeyer, 1958), 3) a mental and spiritual attitude and a form of silence (Pieper, 1965), 4) an activity (Dumazedier, 1974), or 5) living (Godbey, 1985).

As research on 'sport tourism' started to be active since 1990s, there have been attempts to define this phrase by scholars such as Gibson, 1998;Gammon & Robinson, 2003; Deery et al., 2004; Robinson & Gammon, 2004; Zauhar, 2004; and Kurtzman, 2005. However, 'sport tourism' also seems to be understood in different angles from scholars to scholars as Gibson (1998) stated, "Disparities in the definition of sport tourism . . . the difficulties which scholars have faced in establishing a standardized definition" (p 45). These disparities and difficulties seem natural since 'tourism' is such a term with diverse definitions (e.g. by Jafari, 1983; Murphy, 1985; Mill &Morrison, 1986; Smith, 1988; Heath & Wall, 1992; Gunn, 1994; Lieper, 1995; Hall, 1998; and Sharpley, 2002).

As research on golf tourism has also launched since 1990s, phrases'golf tourism' and 'golf travel' also appeared. Even though disparities were noticed in the case of 'sport tourism' (Gibson, 1998), there have been even no rigorous attempts to define 'golf tourism', or 'golf travel'. Therefore, meanings of these terms were often left to the understanding of possibly subjective each reader (e.g. 'golf tourism' in the studies by Markwick, 2000; Gison & Pennington-Gray, 2005, and 'golf traveler' by Petrick, 2002; and Petrick & Backman, 2008).

Even though researchers can explain the meanings of 'golf tourism'or 'golf travel' in their own research project, it seems meaningful to make an attempt to define these phrases considering the paucity of academic definitions. Therefore, this paper makes attempts to define various types of 'golf', 'travel', and 'golf travel' as a trial to open the door to more discussions on terms related to golf tourism/travel and finally to lead to more sophisticated definitions.

Definitions of golf

According to dictionaries, various definitions exist on golf as follows:

A game played on an outdoor course, the aim of which is to strike a small, hard ball with a club into a series of small holes with the fewest possible strokes (Oxford University, 2008)

- A game played over a large area of ground using specially shaped sticks to hit a small hard ball into a series of 9 or 18 holes, using as few strokes as possible (Oxford University, 2001)
- A game in which you use long sticks called clubs to hit a small, hard ball into holes that are spread out over a large area of grassy land (Sinclair, 2001)
- A game played on a large open air course, in which a small hard ball is struck with a club into a series of small holes in the ground, the object being to use the fewest possible strokes to complete the course (Wehmeier, 2000)

As demonstrated, there are some differences on the definitions of golf. However, the above definitions all define golf as a game which is defined in diverse ways as follows:

Game

- An activity engaged in for amusement; a form of competitive activity or sport played according to rules (Oxford University, 2008)
- An activity or a sport with rules in which people or teams compete against each other (Oxford University, 2001)
- An activity or sport usually involving skill, knowledge, or chance, in which you follow fixed rules and try to win against an opponent or to solve a puzzle (Sinclair, 2001)

- A form of play or sport, esp. a competitive one played according to rules and decided by skill, strength, or luck (Wehmeier, 2000)

There are also some differences on the definitions of game. However, according to the above definitions, a game can be divided into two types: an activity for 1) pleasure, and 2) competition. Therefore, based on the dictionary definitions, 'golf' can be categorized into two types: pleasure golf played mainly by amateur golfers, and competition golf played mainly by vocational golfers. 'Golf' categorized as a noun and a verb can also be defined as 1) an activity played using golf sticks to put a golf ball into holes on a golf course and 2) to perform an activity played by golf sticks to put a golf ball into holes on a golf course. 'Golf' as a noun can be defined in various ways according to purpose, period, or location as follows:

- Professional golf
  Golf for competitions among vocational golfers for prizes
- Pleasure golf
  Golf for fun or pleasure
- Pleasure competition golf
  Golf for competitions among amateur golfers for a bet
- Leisure golf
  Golf during one's voluntary free time
- Health golf
  Golf to keep or improve one's health
- Social golf
  Golf to socialize with other people such as friends or co-workers
- Business golf
  Golf to have business relationship or deal
- Practice golf
  Golf to improve one's golf scores
- One-day golf
  Playing golf in a day
- Three-day golf
  Playing golf for straight three days during golf travel
- Domestic golf
  Playing golf in a domestic location
- International golf
  Playing golf in a foreign nation

Definitions of travel

Different definitions also exist about 'travel' as follows:

- Move or go from one place to another (Oxford University, 2008)
- Go from one place to another, especially over a long distance (Oxford University, 2001)
- If you travel, you go from one place to another, often to a place that is far away (Sinclair, 2001)
- Go or be moved from place to place (Wehmeier, 2000)

'Travel', based on the above definitions, can be defined as 'a movement or to move from a departure place to an arrival destination'. According to this definition, a term 'travel' can possibly be used for a movement from a house to a supermarket, or for a movement from a bedroom to a bathroom. However, it would be very rare to use the term 'travel' for those kinds of movements. It would be more reasonable to use other verbs such as 'go' or 'move' for house errands or daily biological needs. As the scope of the definition for 'travel' is broad, various types of travel can be defined as follows:

- Travel
  To move or a movement from a departure place to an arrival destination
- Pleasure travel
  Travel to relax or have fun during one's voluntary free time
- Business travel
  Travel for business purpose
- Errand travel
  Travel to undertake errands
- Biological travel
  Travel for biological needs

Definitions of golf travel

Based on the definitions of 'golf' and 'travel', various types of 'golf travel' can also be defined as follows:

- Golf travel
  To move or a movement from a departure place to a golf course to play golf
- Professional golf travel
  Golf travel for competitions among vocational golfers for prizes
- Pleasure golf travel
  Golf travel for fun or pleasure
- Pleasure golf competition travel

Golf for competitions among amateur golfers for a bet
- Field lesson golf travel
  Golf travel for a field lesson
- Domestic golf travel
  Golf travel in domestic locations
- International golf travel
  Golf travel in overseas locations
- One-day golf travel
  Taking a golf travel in a day
- Two - day golf travel
  Taking a golf travel for two days
- Golf tournament travel (golf gallery travel)
  Attending a golf tournament as a watcher
- Golf event travel
  Visiting golf related events, e.g. an exhibition of golf products such as golf clubs

As presented, there could be diverse types of golf travels. It has been noted that in some cases, a 'golf tour' is used also to refer to 'golf travel by hobby golfers' because travel, trip, and tour are terms which are substituted often each other. However, it has to be noticed that one of the meanings of 'tour' is "series of performances or matches in several different places by performers or sports players" (Oxford University, 2008), and a 'golf tour'generally indicates 'a golf tournament' among professional golfers. An official golf tournament among non-professional golfers is generally called 'amateur golf tour'. Therefore, 'golf tour' should be restricted in use to indicate 'a golf travel/trip or a golf holiday' by hobby golfers in order to avoid confusion. This observation indicates that when tourism studies conduct combined research with other areas such sport, careful examinations on other fields including usage of terms seem to be required.

Conclusions

'Tourism' is defined as "the commercial organization and operation of holidays and visits to places of interest," while 'travel' is defined as "move or go from one place to another, especially over a long distance" (Oxford University, 2008). According to these definitions, 'travel' is related to a person's movement, while 'tourism' includes a person's movement along with an organization and operation. Therefore, 'tourism' is a broader definition than 'travel' based on the dictionary definition. As this research is to open the way for further discussions, 'golf travel' rather than 'golf tourism' is defined. Defining terms or phrases must be important to let readers have clear idea on the meaning or scope of utilized words or phrases in research papers, especially when no definitions are settled on new terms. In this regard, the attempt to define phrases based on the existing dictionary definitions is considered valuable. It is recommended that attempts are made to define or discuss 'golf tourism', 'golf traveler', and other related terms or phrases in the future research.

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Destination marketing: The case of Kerala Tourism

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Abstract: *Tourism destinations are probably one of the most difficult 'products' to market due to its inherent characteristics like 'amalgam of products', multi-stakeholdership, fragmentation of the industry and domination of service characteristics. Also, due to the hyper competition destinations face, authorities take all efforts to keep them remain competitive and successful. Marketing is a vital determinant in the success of destinations. Among the marketing activities, destination usually give more importance to promotion along with brand building and positioning. Kerala, a small state located in the south western peninsula of India, has emerged as a strong player in the tourism market around two decades back and since then it has been attracting increasing number of foreign and domestic tourists. The state is taking innovative efforts to remain competitive in the market. Against this backdrop, an attempt has been done to discuss about destination marketing in general, with more emphasis on creation of destination image and brand building, and to explore the strategies and practices undertaken by Kerala Tourism to remain a competitive destination in the domestic and international tourism market.*

Keywords: Destination, marketing, promotion, brand building, destination image, tourism market

Introduction

Tourism marketing is interchangeably used to refer destination marketing and now, in this hyper competitive tourism industry, destination marketing is not an easy task. Destination is an amalgam of products and services and that increases the complexity of marketing. Destinations are taking all efforts to attract more tourists, and in many countries destination marketing is the main component of 'place marketing'. Tourism destinations is considered one of the most difficult 'products' to market due to its diversity in offerings and involvement of large number of stakeholders. Many recent researches reveal that the focus of the tourism industry has shifted from air travel, overnights, meals and so on to total experiences associated with specific destinations (Keller, 1996). A number of factors are associated with this new phenomenon, like, economic factors, new cultures, new generation of tourists and the like. Tourism in the new era is featured with super-segmentation of market, the need for flexibility of supply and distribution, and achieving profitability through diagonal integration and subsequent system economies and integrated values, instead of economies of scale (FAYOS-solá, 1996).

In the case of destination, the authorities at various levels are vested with the responsibility of marketing it competitively. India has been developing tourism and marketing it in the world market for the last three decades or so. Inside the country, Kerala, a state situated in the southern part, is a late comer in tourism development, and yet has become a very competitive destination within a short span of time. It has been experiencing consistent growth in tourist arrivals for the last twenty years or so. The market share of it in Indian tourism has increased from 2 per cent in 1980s to around 15 percent recently. This remarkable growth can be attributed to a range of factors. Of those factors, marketing, especially promotion and image and brand building takes a great share. Against this backdrop, an attempt has been done to discuss about destination marketing in general, with more emphasis on promotion, creation of destination image and brand building, and to explore the such strategies and practices undertaken by Kerala Tourism to remain a competitive destination in the domestic and international tourism market.

Literature Review

With number of tourist arrivals nearing 1000 million annually, tourism has already gained position as one of the largest and fastest growing industries in the world. Tourism industry has undergone profound changes, which have been categorized by Poon (1993) as new consumers/tourists, new technologies, new forms of production, new management styles and new prevailing circumstances. Due to the profound success of tourism as a business sector and as an engine of economic growth, countries are taking all efforts to develop and promote it vigorously (Hollway, 2006). Destination, the core of tourism activities, is an important component of tourism industry, where a cluster of tourism resources exist and in it visitors temporarily base themselves to participate in tourism related interactions and activities (Pike, 2008). As more and more destinations gaining popularity, tourism sector is now facing hyper competition (White, 2004). This hyper competition is complemented by the ability of potential tourists to choose any destination from their awareness set (Woodside and Lysonki, 1989).

As in other businesses, destinations also offer products and services to cater the requirements of tourists. Destinations are multi dimensional and the destination product is an amalgam of a diverse, and often electric range of attractions, activities, people, scenery, accommodation and climate (Pike, 2008). These wide range of components that make up the destination product, the complexity of the relationship that exists between them and strengthening of this due to the tendency of a large number of different stakeholders to be involved is such that destination is commonly acknowledged to be one of the most difficult products to manage and market. Competitiveness in destination management is attributed to many factors. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) describes it as 'its ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors while providing them with satisfying memorable experiences and to do so in a profitable way while enhancing the wellbeing of destination residents and preserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations'. Of the factors, attracting increasing number of tourists is a primary activity to be undertaken by the authorities. Here, marketing takes vital role. Marketing is one of the most important functions of business and management and its effectiveness is definitely a determinant of the success of the business. Basically marketing is as much a forward thinking exercise about unmet consumer needs as it is about catering current needs. The concept of marketing revolves around adoption of a series of managerial measures based upon satisfying consumer needs. Marketing is a process and this continuous process involves identification of customer needs through analysis of internal/external influences and marketing research, setting objectives, and developing a marketing mix. In the case of destination as well, marketing involves these stages. The most often quoted definition of marketing is of Philip Kotler, which says that it is a societal process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating, offering and freely exchanging products and services of value with others'(Kotler, 2004). Through the definition, it is specified that marketing is the art and science of choosing target markets, keeping, and growing customers through creating, delivering and communicating superior customer value (Cooper et al., 2005). Recently, the increasing relevance of marketing in tourism has been widely discussed in tourism industry literature (Coltman, 1989). Tourists decision making is not an easy task. For them a variety of issues involved, of which risk is one of the most predominant. Now customer sophistication is on the increase, with tourists more knowledgeable and demanding than ever, yet still conscious of the risk of buying strange destination product (Dore and Crough, 2003). The new age tourism sees more demanding customers and global competition and this necessitates specific characteristics of their customers and to access them in the most effective and efficient ways (Will and Moutinho, 1989).

Destination marketing often seen as a component of place marketing. The AIDA model is also discussed in association with destination marketing (Ryan, 2005). That argues that the customer purchases are the outcome of a sequential process of gaining ‘attention’, creating ‘interest’, the ‘desire’ to buy and making the final ‘action’ to purchase. The conceptual foundation of place marketing lies in marketing theories, primarily the ‘marketing mix’ approach (Olsson and Bergland, 2006). ‘Marketing mix’ is the planned mix of the controllable elements of a product’s marketing plan commonly termed as 4P’s: product, price, place, and promotion. These elements are adjusted until a right combination is found that serves the needs of the product’s customers while generating optimum income. When it’s a consumer-centric marketing mix, it has been extended to include three more Ps: people, process and physical evidence, and three Cs: cost, consumer and competitor. Very much important for destinations whose intangibility is often renders them high risk purchases for the tourist promotion, is only one element of the marketing mix and it will be ineffective if the other elements are defecitive (White, 2004).

Usually marketing of a destination is undertaken by an umbrella organization, referred to as Destination Marketing Organization (DMO). This will be exclusively established for enhancing the competitiveness of the destination (Ritchie and Ritchie, 2002). At the country level, National Tourist Office or National Tourism Organization (NTO) is the term used to represent the entity with overall responsibility for marketing a country as a tourist destination. It can be a DMO or a National Tourism Administration (NTA) (Pike 2008). When it comes to states, it is the state tourist office vested with the responsibility. In the process of persuading tourists to visit, respective agencies initiate to develop the whole country as a destination and maintain it as a sustainable and successful one. Integrated approach is more relevant in the context of destination marketing. The general framework of destination marketing involves marketing research, marketing planning and budgeting, target market identification, marketing strategy development in terms of marketing mix, branding and destination image formation, and positioning. Place promotion, a component of marketing is described as the active shaping of the place image in relation to competing places (Short and Kim, 1993). The image of a place is the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions people have towards a destination (Kotler et.al., 1993). Place image is also defined as the sum of cognitive, affective, evaluative and behavioral characteristics of a place or inherent perspective of itself (Elizur, 1987).. When it comes to destination image two distinctive categories of image can be identified- Organic image and induced image. (Gunn, 1988). The former is formed when customers form the image through non commercial sources such as news, television, information received from friends and the like. But on the other hand, the induced image is created as part of a deliberate effort from the side of the marketers and they are commercial sources like advertising. The marketers usually focus to create induced image more (Cai 2002; Ritchie and Ritchie, 1998). Place branding has become one of the most popular concepts in the field of marketing (Gold and Ward, 1994; Herstein, 2000). Branding and positioning destinations can capture consumers' attention to a more compelling and urgent reason to visit. Destination branding has been considered as a potent marketing tool (Hall, 2002; Morgan, et.al, 2002). Most important challenge and task of tourism marketer is to create a good image on the destination or place in the minds of the potential travelers and the public. The key for destination branding is to develop an emotional link with tourists (Morgan et al., 2002; Ekinsi and Sameer 2006).

Kerala

Kerala, a popular tourist destination branded world over as "God's Own Country", featured with fascinating history, rich culture, interesting customs, unique architecture and abundant natural beauty, has always lured people from across the world to visit. The landing of Vasco Da Gama, the world famous explorer, way back in 1498 in one of the most beautiful beaches, Kappad situated near Kozhikode, opened up Kerala and India to the west. This historic landmark event paved the way for the commencement of a trade route to the Europe, which finally ended up in conquest of the land by the westerners. Kerala always loomed large in terms of foreign travelers and writers and those who visited this land earlier times speak of the wealth of the various kingdoms and their influence on world trade. For example, Marco Polo, the world renowned traveler on one of his various voyages visited India and stopped at Kannur and Kollam in 1292. He, in his travelogue referred to these places as great emporia of the spice trade. Also Ibn Batuta another great traveler who visited India in 1332 found time to sail to Malabar coast of Kerala. His writings include mentions about the richness in the spice trade located at Kozhikode. Though a small strip of land, the area consisted of different kingdoms and the British have ultimately conquered and ruled the land directly or indirectly for several years. Later, after independence, the state was formed on the basis of language in 1956. Sooner, the state got fame as it got the first democratically elected communist government in the world.

Table 1 List of some of the recent awards and accolades bagged by Kerala Tourism

Titles of awards
• PATA Gold Award 2010 for Best Website, Gold Award 2009 for Marketing "Dream Season in Gods Own Country", Gold Award 2008 for Culture - Utsavam, Kerala Arts Festival, Gold Award 2008 for Consumer Travel Brochure - Kerala Tourism Theme Brochure
• UNESCO - Asia Pacific: Heritage Award - Honorable Mention - Arakkal Kettu, Kannur, 2006
• Government of India-Most Innovative Adventure Activity - International Paragliding Championship, 2007-08, Best Responsible Tourism Project - Better Together-Responsible Tourism Initiative, Kerala, 2007-08
• CNBC-Best Tourism Board, 2009, Best Travel Destination, 2009
• ITB-Berlin-Das Golden Stadttor Award for the Print campaign, 2007

Source: Tourism Statistics, Kerala Tourism, 2010

Though Kerala has it failed to emerge as a productive state, over the years, it has experienced considerable growth in the service based industrial sectors. The IT based business was emerged as a major industry in the state by 90s. In the meanwhile, Tourism, another service sectors gained importance as an important sector to develop, by 1980s. It was during then, in 1986, Tourism was declared an industry. Realizing the potential of tourism, the government and the private sector started to promote the sector vigorously. Throughout 80s and 90s, innovative measures were taken up by the authorities with the support of the private sector to develop and promote tourism. It resulted in grand transformation of tourism from an ordinary business sector in the 1970s to the most important industry in Kerala by 1990.

Tourism gained the status of core competency sector by creating employment, enhancing production and productivity and contributing significantly towards the development of the state. Travel and Tourism industry directly and indirectly contributes nearly 10 lakh jobs in the state which is around 7 percentage of the total employment (DOT, 2008). Number of tourist arrivals to the state has grown considerably during the last three decades. In the year 2007, Kerala was visited by 5, 15,808 foreign tourists 66, 42,941 domestic tourists. Kerala had received earnings of Rs. 11,433 crores from tourism in the same year and foreign exchange earnings were accounted for Rs.2640.94 crores during the year. Among the foreign visitors, majority are from western countries. UK, France, USA, Germany, Maldives, Italy, Switzerland, Srilanka, Netherlands and Israel are the top ten countries in the list of tourist generating countries to Kerala.

Methodology

As explained earlier, through this study an attempt has been taken to discuss about destination marketing in general, with more emphasis on creation of destination image and brand building, and to explore the marketing strategies and practices undertaken by Kerala Tourism to remain as a competitive destination in the domestic and international tourism market. To study these objectives, both primary and secondary data were collected. The success of Kerala tourism depends on various factors. Marketing is one of the most important among them. Even in the case of marketing of destination, public as well as private sector is more or less equally involved. Here the focus is on destination marketing undertaken by the state tourism organization. There is no exclusive DMO in the state and the marketing activities on behalf of government are done by marketing and publicity wing of department of tourism. It functions in close association with allied public sector agencies like KTDC as well as with private sector agencies. Also, a few advertising agencies, communication firms, IT agencies and event management firms are closely associated with the department for marketing of the state as a destination nationally and internationally. The data collection was done from officials in the marketing and publicity wing of department of tourism. Deputy Director-marketing, tourism publicity officers and four key staff in the marketing section were interviewed (unstructured interviews) to gather data. Also, large number of published promotional materials were collected and analyzed to gather data and information pertaining to the study. The data and information collected thus were analyzed and the following discussion is the outcome of the analysis undertaken. The insights of the study hope to provide marketers an understanding of the application of fundamentals of marketing and brand building into practice.

Discussion

In India, both central and state governments have been taking lead role in developing and promoting tourism industry. The public agencies in tourism in Kerala creates tourism legislations, encourage private sector investments, develop tourist centers and open up tourist offices houses in several cities within India and in major cities abroad. Tourism is a people industry and human resource is an integral part of its development. Government in association with private sector educates, train and employ qualified people. To maintain highest possible standards of hygiene and cleanliness and positive attitude from the host community, government carried out various measures. As part of tourism promotion programs, local community involvement is ensured by Government by conducting Responsible Tourism programs. There are several organizations under Government of Kerala which provides active support to them, such as Kerala Tourism Development Corporation (KTDC), District Tourism Promotion Councils (DTPCs), Tourism Resort Kerala Limited (TRKL), Bekal Resort Development Corporation (BRDC), Kerala Institute of Tourism and Travel Studies (KITTS) and Directorate of Eco Tourism.

Consistent efforts are being taken by the authorities to market tourism in the state. A range of factors can be attributed to the success of the destination. It includes the intensified marketing efforts of the state tourism department, the innovation and international focused management and marketing efforts of the industry, emergence of local entrepreneurial activities, changes in the socio economic conditions in the state and in the country, and the like. The focus of this discussion is on the marketing and promotion activities undertaken by the state.

Every year, with the assistance of private industry, Kerala tourism conducts survey among visitors basically to identify the trends in tourist behavior. Also data on tourist arrivals are analyzed frequently and the data is published annually. This provides base for the further marketing activities. These analyses also give the idea where to target the marketing activities. As per the recent trends, Kerala’s top international markets are UK, France, USA, Germany, Maldives, Italy, etc. New areas are also emerging, like Scandinavian countries.

Kerala uses the marketing mix effectively in spite of the limited budget and manpower to market at the national and international level. As part of product strategy Kerala has been unique and very dynamic. Kerala takes special interest in introducing innovative products regularly in comparison with any other state in the country. In the beginning stages of tourism in the state, the state had to depend on a few products, some were cultural products and some others were wildlife related. But, by 1990s, Kerala has become a model in establishing new products. The most successful was the Backwater tourism, using Houseboats. Backwaters represent the network of lakes, rivers and other water bodies inside. In the midst of lush green, the backwaters themselves are an attraction. The introduction of houseboats was a revolutionary initiative. In fact the initiative was taken first by a private player, which gained much attention and that became very popular among both domestic and international tourists alike. Sooner Kerala adopted Backwaters as a USP. Ayurveda tourism was another product got established very soon, especially Kerala has strong tradition of Ayurveda system of medicine. Many ayurveda resorts were also emerged and it became another unique product of the state. Later Kerala has pioneered in introducing many similar products. Some of the recent ones are given below.

“My Village, Tourism Friendly village”

The idea behind the scheme is to identify and develop unknown rural tourist destinations with the participation of local bodies. Here the main objective was to ensure more local people participation through which better tourism experiences could be given to the tourists.

Kumbalangi Rural Tourism

Kumbalangi is a traditional village situated near Cochin. The place is famous for village life style and traditional fishing methods. Realizing the tourism potential, it was developed as a first planned village tourism destination and promoted nationally and internationally.

‘Spice Route’ project :

Kerala Tourism and UNESCO have jointly conceived a ‘Spice Route’ project, on the lines of the famed trans-Asian ‘Silk Route’ through which inter-continental trade was carried for centuries, to throw open more opportunities in tourism, historical research and spice trade.

“Wake up to Malabar”

It is a programme aiming at a comprehensive plan to develop North Kerala. Malabar region in Kerala is famous for cultural varieties especially. Tapping those resources and expanding tourism into Malabar region is expected to give more flavours to the tourism in the state.

Grand Kerala Shopping festival

It is an initiative to make Kerala a sopping hub. It has been successfully conducted in Kerala for the last five years and the tourists are attracted more with a shopping spree.

"Utsavam"

This is a unique scheme aims at staging traditional arts throughout the state for a period of time in the tourist season. The folk art forms, especially performing arts were chosen and performed in the major destinations in the state. This helped the revival of dying art forms as well as to offer more cultural attractions to tourists who visit the place.

Monsoon Tourism

This is a campaign launched to attract tourists during the rainy season. Rainy season in Kerala has been lauded by one and all as a beautiful and enchanting period to feel the essence of the state. Honeymoon packages are also introduced as part of this.

Farm Tourism

This scheme aims at conducting farm tours to agricultural fields and plantations of pepper, and coffee giving an opportunity for tourists to participate in the activities

To increase the quality of products and services offered to tourists, Kerala has introduced sector wise classification schemes. The classified units would be enlisted in the official website of Kerala tourism and much information on them will be given to tourists. This is encouraging for industry as they would be taking all efforts to be classified in the better grades. Such classification you can see in hotels, ayurveda resort, houseboats and the like.

Diverse range of tools is used to promote the state nationally and internationally. Even advertisements are released in BBC and CNN channels in Europe and USA. It has been found that there is continuous marketing effort of shifting the targets from backpackers to high end group by identifying the opportunity. The strength of a brand enhances when there is enough differentiation to offer. The strength of the brand is also associated to the fact that the industry thrives on the partnership between public and private sector. Tourism development can be ensured only if there is convergence of resources and expertise. Various new schemes like the following strengthen the product base and expand tourism and thus to create better image and for better positioning. Responsible Tourism initiative, "Synergy quest", "My Village tourism friendly village", "Wake up to Malabar", Kerala Souvenirs, "Let's Learn", Grand Kerala Shopping festival, "Utsavam", Dream Season, Monsoon Tourism, Grihastali, Home stay projects and Vazhiyoram are some of the major among them.

Organizing trade fairs would be inspiring for the tourism industry and will help to disseminate information on variety of tourism resources in a destination. Realizing this, Kerala has taken the initiative to commence Kerala Travel Mart (KTM) and the same has been successfully being organized for the last ten years. It is a public private initiative. The latest edition of it, The KTM 2010 has registered a grand success. Many participants expressed satisfaction at the response it generated. KTM has been improving in its quality, total ambience and also in the number of participants – buyers and sellers. The main intention of the Mart is to establish contacts and relationship with buyers, sellers and stakeholders and to continue to upgrade them with product information and also provide an opportunity for them to market their products and properties. Kerala Travel Mart is a perfect example of the synergy between the public and private sector joining hands for the promotion of a destination.

Road shows constitute another popular tool used by detonations to disseminate information on tourism products and industries and to bring in more tie-ups with other industries outside the place. Every year Kerala organizes a number of such events in various locations inside and outside the country. The list of places where Kerala would be doing road shows/ partnership meets in the first quarter of 2011 is shown in Table 2.

Many traditional IT tools like promotional CDs are introduced every year by the state. These are distributed among potential tourists and industries outside the state alike. Internet is one of the most important tools for the promotion of any products. Realizing the same Kerala Tourism also has started to use the potential of it extensively. Kerala is dynamic in Internet and social networking sites and has one of the finest web portals involving

Table 2 Partnership Meets 2011 (First Quarter)

1	Chennai
2	Bangalore
3	Hyderabad
4	Surat
5	Mumbai
6	New Delhi
7	Kolkata
Consumer Trade Show	Ahmadabad

Source: Department of Tourism, Kerala

almost all the aspects of tourism in the state. The official website is already available in seven languages - English, Hindi, Malayalam, French, German, Italian and Spanish. Blog aggregator', another tool, will bring together links to all travel blogs on Kerala.

Websites also gives opportunity for Relationship marketing beyond the imagination. The hotel industry, one major component of tourism is shifting their focus from market share and profitability to customer share and profitability. Customer acquisition will be the new marketing technique, which may take the place of customer retention. A recent statistics shows that web is a favorite source of information for tourists, i.e. 43.7%, whereas tour guides, friends and official material constitute the remaining (Kant, 2009). Twitter, Flicker, Doppler, and Shutter fly could give super brand Kerala Tourism what a hundred visual or print ads had never ever managed to: universal visibility at virtually no cost. Social media marketing, or the online conversation model, is the new concept of Kerala Tourism. It involves the use of all the informal social media tools available on the internet. Spreading the word through the net has three major advantages over conventional marketing techniques. One, it feels impromptu and does not sound like a promotional campaign, and therefore is perceived as infinitely more authentic. Two, it is not financially demanding because a blog or a profile in a social networking site can be created for no cost at all. Unlike conventional campaigns that are like shooting in the dark, it micro-targets. The travel-specific social networks such as Dopplr.com, Tripwolf.com or Tripsay.com, offer greater visibility than even YouTube. 'YouTube is a generic site, but, a site like Dopplr, or Tripwolf, is ultra specific. A thousand hits in Doppler are therefore worth a million hits in YouTube. Therefore getting some 200 Kerala-specific videos and travelogues and other such material uploaded on these sites could do wonders. The Department will initiate travelers to create profiles in such forums and social networking sites to upload Kerala-specific material. Kerala Tourism has also plans to create a Blog Aggregator where Kerala-specific content in various blogs are gathered and accumulated. The 'blog aggregator' will be available on the Kerala Tourism Web site and will show 'what travelers have to say about Kerala'. The most unique content among this would then be popularized in bookmarking sites like digg.com and reddit.com. Kerala Tourism has already tapped the advantages of micro blogging through twitter.com. Twitter - a mini blog where not more than two sentences are employed to stay connected - now helps travelers to keep themselves updated about the goings on in the state. Subscribers can access Kerala Tourism's twitter services through the net, SMS or mobile.

Kerala Tourism is also looking at the mobile phone as yet another marketing tool. The plan is to set up a mobile group. Those who subscribe to this mobile group will receive alerts from Kerala Tourism on their mobile phones. These alerts will be on topics such as special discounts, important events in Kerala and so on. Members of this mobile group will also be able to download ringtones, wall papers and so on. In a bid to expand its domestic market, Kerala Tourism will now increase its focus on tier II and other smaller cities apart from the metros.

Table 3 List of some Trade Fairs Kerala Tourism is participating in 2011

International	**National**
World Travel Mart - London	IITM, Mumbai
FITUR, Madrid, Spain	Discover India 2010, The Hindu Chennai
ITB, Berlin, Germany	IITM, Pune
TUR, Gothenburg, Sweden	TTF, Chennai
ATM, Dubai	SATTE, New Delhi
	TTF, Mumbai
	TTF, New Delhi

Source: www.keralatourism.org

Kerala Tourism undertakes many more promotion efforts. Creating a positive destination image is always a challenge for destination. Indeed, Kerala has succeeded in creating it as a safe destination even at the time of terrorist attack held in Mumbai. Majority of the destinations in the country were badly affected by it. Also the followed recession was another major blow to the tourism sector. But the integrated efforts of Kerala Tourism were useful in minimizing the impacts of both the crises on tourism. It is of interest to analyze the position of Kerala in the fashion curve and the positioning map. Given the tools used by Kerala for developing the brand image, the exercises done to create an image of God's own country and the arrival statistics, it can be identified that it is positioned with high emotional pull. The National geographic traveler has identified Kerala as a must see destination of life time around a decade ago and it had gave the destination a big advantage. But the selection of this state was surely based on the image of it among the tourists. Yet there are miles to go and along with promotion of image and brand popularity, the product and service quality has to be upgraded often.

Conclusion

Marketing is a crucial factor in the success of any destination. Destination is not a product that can be marketed with ease due to its inherent characteristics like diversity, intangibility and multi-stakeholder involvement. Destination marketing, as in any other sector, is a process which involves range of activities like marketing research, market segmentation, marketing planning, strategy formulation and the similar. As discussed Kerala has been phenomenal in taking efforts and initiatives to develop market and promote tourism in the state. Periodical marketing research, creation of new strategies, introduction of new products and service as per the changes in the market constitute the vital success factors for Kerala. Information technology has been rightly utilized by the destination managers in marketing the state. In addition to dynamic web presence, latest tools including mobile communication services are effectively integrated in Kerala's marketing efforts. The role of private sector, along with public agencies, certainly needs appreciation. To sum up the following marketing aspects effectively performed by Kerala can be considered as the vital factors that help to remain the state as one of the most competitive destinations in the country.

- Consistent focus on customer needs and interests and changes in the market conditions
- Multi - USP based marketing and promotion
- Unique public private interaction and cooperation in marketing
- Regular introduction of new products/services
- Efforts to enhance the quality of products and services
- Regular identification of new tourist markets and initiating promotional efforts in them
- Increased focus on band building and destination image creation
- Unique destination positioning, separately from the national level, as a green, beautiful and peaceful state with variety of things to enjoy.
- Regular efforts to meet key players in the national and international market and to build relationships with them
- Effective utilization of information technology for information dissemination, customer relationship management activities, image building, product distribution and the like.

At this juncture, it should be mentioned that there are many other factors that contribute in the success of a destination. Here, the focus of the discussion was on marketing and as far as Kerala is concerned, its marketing and promotion efforts are worthy to note and a model for many other destinations that aim to evolve as a competitive destination.

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News and Views

7th Annual International Conference on Tourism

13-16 June 2011, Athens, Greece

Call for Participation and Papers

The Tourism Research Unit of the Athens Institute for Education and Research (ATINER) is organizes its 7th International Conference on Tourism in Athens, Greece 13-16 June 2011. For programs of previous conferences and other information visit the conference website www.atiner.gr/tourism.htm.

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Tourism and Economic Development

- Tourism Geography
- National and Regional Tourism Policy
- European Union's Tourism Policy
- Mega Events (Olympics Games) and Tourism
- Hotel Management and Marketing
- Restaurant Management and Marketing
- Tourism Economics
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- Tourism Management
- Travel Agents and Tour Operators
- Sports Tourism
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- Tourism Research and Methodology
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All abstracts should be submitted in English. The length of abstract should not be longer than 300 words, and should preferably follow the following structure: Title, Authors, Positions, Affiliations, Objective, Material & Methods, Results and Conclusions. Selected (reviewed) papers will be published in a Special Volume of the Conference Proceedings. Please submit a 300-word abstract (by email) by 22nd of April 2011 to: Dr. Valia Kasimati, Head, Tourism Research Unit, ATINER.Email: atiner@atiner.gr URL: www.atiner.gr/tourism.htm If you want to participate without presenting a paper, click here for the registration form of the conference. If you want to chair a session, evaluate papers to be included in the conference proceedings or books, contribute to the editing, or any other offer to help please send an email to Dr. Gregory T. Papanikos, gtp@atiner.gr Director, ATINER.

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- Journal Tourism & Management Studies
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Best regards
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Guest Editors:

Maximiliano E. Korstanje, University of Palermo, Argentina

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This special issue invites submissions with a focus and emphasis on narratives of risk, hazard and security issues in the fields of tourism and hospitality.

The world's tourism industry has experienced a dramatic growth over the last thirty years. The economic impact of tourism together with its proximal causes has rendered the tourism industry into a highly significant and integral part of almost every national economy. As a result, national governments are concentrating on the continuous development of their tourism industries, and are capitalising on their efforts for higher quality and service standards.

Tourism is an integral part of society, both for individuals within the society and for the society as a whole. However, despite the attention that has been given to the tourism industry and the emphasis on continuous development and improvement, there are some factors that are uncontrollable which can exert a considerable and sometimes severe and adverse impact on the tourism industry.

In the last fifty years, tourism has been adversely affected by a wide range of problems – natural disasters, serious social conflicts, wars, economic crises and terrorism. The effects of these events have underlined that the symbiotic relationship between risks/security issues and tourism needs to be understood and acted upon, not just in terms of the fluctuation in tourism statistics but also in a broader interdisciplinary framework. This will ultimately allow the expansion of the current understanding of the anthropological and sociological nature of risk. In the aftermath of the attacks to World Trade Center in 2001, numerous and valuable studies have certainly emphasised risk as a primary concern and topic, but their quantitative perspective do not focus on the narrative of risk or "discourse of risk".

From the contributions of Mary Douglas and Aaron Wildawski onwards, specialists in anthropology and ethnology have devoted considerable efforts to providing an all- encompassing framework that helps scholars to comprehend the nature of risk. As a social construct and something other than a probability, every culture elaborates its own conception of security and risk.

Following Malinowski´s contributions, security corresponds with a grounding function of culture which can be decoded to allow us to understand how a society is organised. For that reason, risk engenders its own narratives enrooted in the cultural values, expectations and frustrations of every society. Depending on the perspective, travelling is not only a form of entertainment but also a fertile source for panic and concern. This happens simply because travellers temporarily lose their epicenter of ontological security, thus feeling more vulnerable.
We consider ethnography as a suitable method of investigation for two main reasons. Firstly, it encompasses the complexity of emotions to understand the untangled net of discourses that risk encourages, ranging from fear to ethnocentrism. Secondly, there is a huge gap between what people manifest and what they do. This merits opening a new channel for the investigation of risk perception and security issues wherein anthropology and ethnology have much to say, in complement with other quantitative methods and disciplines.

Subject Coverage

Suitable topics include but are not limited to:

Studies related to comparative cross-cultural perceptions of risk and threat

Natural and human-caused disasters

Post-disaster recovery strategies in tourism and hospitality

Terror movies and tourism

Aviation safety and security

Crime and security issues in tourism and hospitality

Political instability, terrorism and tourism

Thanatourism

War on terror and tourism.

The effects of global warming on tourism destinations

Innovative quantitative/qualitative methods for the study of risk and security issues in tourism and hospitality

Virus outbreaks and tourism Mobility

Disasters, trauma and tourism

Apocalyptic theories and tourism as a form of entertainment

Notes for Prospective Authors

Submitted papers should not have been previously published nor be currently under consideration for publication elsewhere. (N.B. Conference papers may only be submitted if the paper was not originally copyrighted and if it has been completely re-written).

All papers are refereed through a peer review process. A guide for authors, sample copies and other relevant information for submitting papers are available on the Author Guidelines page

Important Dates

Full paper due: 15 July 2011
Notification of acceptance/rejection to authors: 15 August 2011
Submission of revised manuscript: 15 October 2011
Final acceptance of manuscript: 15 November 2011

Editors and Notes

You may send one copy in the form of an MS Word file attached to an e-mail (details in Author Guidelines) to the following:

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Development & adaptation of appropriate technologies in the Tourism Sector.
Creating awareness towards the advance developments in the technology sector of the Tourism Industry.
Evolving Strategic technology management to integrate the Tourism, Banking & Insurance sectors.
Comprehensive review of the technology platforms available for the Tourism sector in relation to Banking & Insurance sectors.
To invite the Banking & Insurance sectors to incorporate their technologies & infrastructure
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Book Review

Tourism and Terrorism: an experience of Turkey and the World.

Derman Kucukaltan. 2006. ISBN 978-0-595-38998-8. Universe, Lincoln Nebraska, pp. 119.

Reviewed by Maximiliano E. Korstanje
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Undoubtedly, post-September 11, terrorism posed a great challenge for the well-functioning of tourism and hospitality. Of course, travelers have historically been attacked by insurgents simply because they represent the epicenter of vulnerability, discrediting the State whose charge it is the protection of foreigner travelers. As something else than a criminal act, terrorism should be understood as a political act whereby violence take to more vulnerable actors as the main prey. Quite aside from this, what World Trade Center reminded was not only the failures of control in the airspace of the US but also the onset of a new state of fear that invaded immediately to other countries worldwide. After all, the war-on-terror initiated by Bush's administration engendered more problems than solutions.

In this backdrop, Professor Derman Kucukaltan introduces readers to the slippery connection between tourism and terrorism. His book represents a serious academic effort to expand the current understanding of how tourism works worldwide and impacts of terrorism upon local economies. Travel and technological advances have certainly transformed the modern forms of displacement. If one pay attention to the fact that their high degree of mobility makes international tourists an easy target of terrorist cells, it is clear how after 11/9 the relationship between tourism and terrorism became more troublesome.

Considering the crisis as an outstanding state of distress or misery that affects ordinary people and social order, Kucukaltan argues convincingly that some crises cannot be predicted timely. In this vein, the author does not hesitate to point out: "*one effect of globalization is that it enables crises to spread rapidity, but it also helps certain countries think of new alternatives to dealing with crises. Globalization refers not only to the flow technology, labor and money but also to the disadvantages* *of that technology, labor and money – a crisis can spread beyond geographical and economic borders. Tourism, due to its international dimensions, has become the leading sector affected by crises"* (p. 2).

The main argument in this book is when humankind is unable to meet the affordable and necessary resources for achieving its goals and develop skills, the situation naturally brings into a crisis. After further examination of the economic factors that potentiate or mitigate a state of emergency, this insightful work suggests that tourism and hospitality are too sensible to economic inequalities. Ranging from inflation and increasing of prices to the ecological deterioration of non-renewable resources, economic crisis causes several and much profound problems to tourism simply because it paves the pathways for the advent of political instability and of course terrorism. The consequences of terrorism might extend even to neighboring countries and this should be considered with paramount importance during policy-making and planning.

The primary point of discussion in this book is associated with the belief that all wars as well as political crises correspond with the convergence between religious, economic, and ideological reasons. To some extent, Kucukaltan acknowledges that even if war shows negative aftermaths for local economies, the nostalgia for involved countries or the sentiment of nationalism can very well create a demand-boom even for tourism and hospitality industries. That way, battlefields are often commoditized to be offered as a product of mass-consumption for international tourists. This means that crisis or disasters should be capitalized and transformed in tourist-spots (Thanatourism and Darktourism seems to be alternative form of consumption emerged post-disaster). The versatility of tourism to face and overcome states of disasters becomes clear after reading this book.

Another main contribution of this book is the complexity of tourist-system which replicates the earlier conditions that facilitated the state of disaster. If tourism is known to be negatively affected by economic, ecological, and politic crises, it is not clear how this activity not only survives in situations of emergencies but also grows. This is perhaps the most intriguing, interesting, and important contribution of *Tourism and Terrorism.* Nonetheless, one of the aspects that balk the understanding of this book seems to be a supposed lack of homogeneity between what the authors declare in the introductory chapter and the subsequent developments. In fact, this book examines repeatedly how the different crises impinge on tourism and hospitality but less than required attention is given to terrorism as main threat. Again it does not place under scrutiny the role played by tourism to trigger terrorist attacks. Academics in tourism and hospitality still remains in a slumber and its dominant design does not allow focusing upon terrorism appropriately beyond the hegemony of existent politic discourse where innocent travelers are the good boys and “terrorists” the villains. In a way, many times, tourism and terrorism (this represents our stance) are part of the same phenomenon. However, this is a much deep-seated issue which merits more detained discussion.

Sociologically speaking, the material dispersion suffered by economies because of globalization and free trade is counteracted by other means. Terrorism and ethnic resentment, in this light, works as mechanisms of social control to the extent Nation-States gain much required legitimacy. The repudiation that engenders the death of children and women (as vulnerable targets) is plausible for politic manipulation. The bio-power and principle of shortage plays a pivotal role in increasing the sentiment of uncertainty that characterize the late-modernity. It might be that terrorism and tourism are need for the suffering of otherness to survive. This suggests that the lines and boundaries between otherness (strangers) and selfhood (home) are often blurred. In recent years, a neologism has been coined: War-Tourism. This is to denote the attractiveness of certain destinations at war-fare. Because of voyeurism, many travelers are interested in visiting zones of conflicts such as those in Israel, Colombia, Afghanistan etc. In this backdrop, tourism can be seen as a consequence of war and vice-versa. The suffering of others is elaborated in a mediated object closely circumscribed to mass-consumption. What this book does not address is that existent inequalities that potentiated the conflict persist even in peace-times until the surfacing of a new episode of dispute.

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