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Managing Cultural Tourism in Post-Conflict Areas: The Case of Kurdistan- Iraq

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Abstract

Many developing countries suffer from lack of an integrated tourism policy; in particular, those countries that are dealing with local conflicts (sometimes over many years). A current example of such conflict area is Kurdistan. In 2013, the number of tourists were 2,952 027, in 2014 and 2015 the number had decreased to 1529434 and 1117501 respectively (General Board of Tourism, Kurdistan Regional Government, 2016). However, there is wide scope to increase tourist arrival in Kurdistan based on investing in its diversity of cultures and cultural heritage sites. Such profitable tourism resources in Kurdistan have been neglected so far for the purpose of tourism.

In fact, conflict always changes the priorities of nations, and poses many challenges to the economic policy. Despite a need to maximize revenues, post-conflict areas have barriers to tourism development, such poor or damaged infrastructure, lack of services, low investment, political instability, and the lack of proper tourism management plan. There is much research about cultural tourism management issues, challenges, sustainability, but there is a lack of studies undertaken to know how post-conflict issues interact or change or the effects of emergent situations on cultural and heritage tourism planning and management. This paper aims to fill this gap and explore potentials and issues for developing cultural tourism in post conflict areas and in new autonomous regions such as Kurdistan, and to understand what cultural tourist strategy should be designed and implemented to develop tourism sector in Kurdistan to be successful, competitive and sustainable. The paper reports data from a series of focus groups conducted with residents and tourist, and in-depth interviews with policy makers and tourism experts in Erbil, Kurdistan, in 2015.

Introduction

Tourism has been continued to grow over the past six decades, and globally it is still considered as one of the fastest growing economic sectors (Muchapondwa & Stage, 2013; UNWTO, 2013). The number of international tourist arrivals has dramatically increased from 25 million in 1950 to 1,035 million in 2012, 1087 million in 2013, and 1133 million in 2014 (UNWTO, 2014; UNWTO, 2015). Tourism industry contributed approximately 10% of global GDP in 2014, and provided 9.1% of total global employment in in 2014 WTTC (2015). The World Tourism Organization estimates that visiting cultural attractions accounts for 37% of all tourism in the world, including historical monuments and buildings, museums, galleries and performing arts centres, conservatories, zoos and aquariums (Boyd, 2002; McKercher and Cross, 2002). Furthermore, these figures reached approximately 40% in 2007 of all international tourist arrivals (OECD, 2009).

However, there are various internal and external factors could influence tourism development, of which tourism is particularly sensitive to political situations and tourism management plan (Dwyer et al, 2009), with the potential to turn thriving tourist destinations into non-attractive destinations (Seddighi, Nuttall & Theocharous, 2001). More precisely, it believed that tourism only grows in stable societies with careful planning and management (Richter, 1999). In general, conflict brings several challenges to tourism industry such the

poor or damaged infrastructure, lack of services, low investment (Novelli, Morgan & Nibigira, 2012; Seddighi, Nuttall & Theocharous, 2001; Richter, 1999; Dwyer et al, 2009; Winter, 2008). In Cambodia, conflict caused major challenges, including inappropriate governmental, administrative and legal structures in parallel to lack of expertise related to conservation, community development, tourism, planning, deficiencies in infrastructure, and human resources (Winter, 2008). Moreover, tourism growth in Sri Lanka reached 21% per year from 1970 to 1980, but the civil war of the 1980s between Tamils and Sinhalese Buddhists destroyed the industry (Richter, 1999). Another example, according to (UNWTO 2012) the number of international tourist arrivals decline by 8% in the Middle East in 2011 as a result of the numerous uprisings that occurred (the 'Arab Spring') throughout the region during that year. A recent example is Kurdistan region, in 2013, total tourist arrivals reached 2,952,027 tourists, but this decreased to 1529434 and 1117501 in 2014 and 2015, respectively (KRG General Board of Tourism, 2015, 2016).

Challenges that face cultural tourism vary; Causevic & Lynch (2013) identified legislative and administrative issues as a major challenge that faced the tourism sector in Bosnia and Herzegovina (B&H) after the Balkan conflicts. Another challenges is negative images of branding destination, many countries suffer from such latent negative images due to news media associations indelibly ascribed to them; for instance, 'genocide' is associated with Rwanda and Darfur in Sudan (Gertner, 2007).. Mansfeld (1999) claim that negative destination image considered the major challenge to tourism sector in Israel during the 1967 to 1999, he claim recovering positive image requires the cooperation and integration between all stakeholders that involve in tourism industry. In addition, Vitic & Ringer (2008) claim Montenegro lost tourist market share after a decade of civil war in the former Yugoslavia, they suggested that promoting and marketing of tourist attractions is considered a central tool in recovering positive destination images. On the other hand, the stability after conflict situation might create suitable environment for massive tourism development. Winter (2008) claim that there was a massive shift of increase tourist arrivals after just a decade of post-conflict in Cambodia from 1994 to 2005, which recorded 10,000% increase in international tourist arrivals to Angkor in. This growth raised several issues including the social, environment and damaging cultural sites.

Thus, it is necessary and useful to develop an appropriate strategy for managing cultural attractions in Kurdistan and to devote efforts to preserve these resources both for the sustainability of the tourism industry itself and to conserve resources for succeeding generations.

The case of Kurdistan

Kurdistan was subjected to policies of exclusion and neglect during the successive Iraqi governments since 1925 until 2003. for example, in Kurdistan, there were no airports or motorways and railway constructed in the region until 2003, its inherently underdeveloped infrastructure has been further devastated by the incursions of the Iraqi regime during the 1980s (O'Leary, 2002). However, tourism has grown rapidly during the stability period from 2007 to 2013 (General Board of Tourism, Kurdistan Regional Government, 2015, 2016), because "Kurdistan is geographically diverse, from hot and dry plains to cooler mountainous areas with natural springs and snowfall in the winter" (Kurdistan Regional Government, 2016).

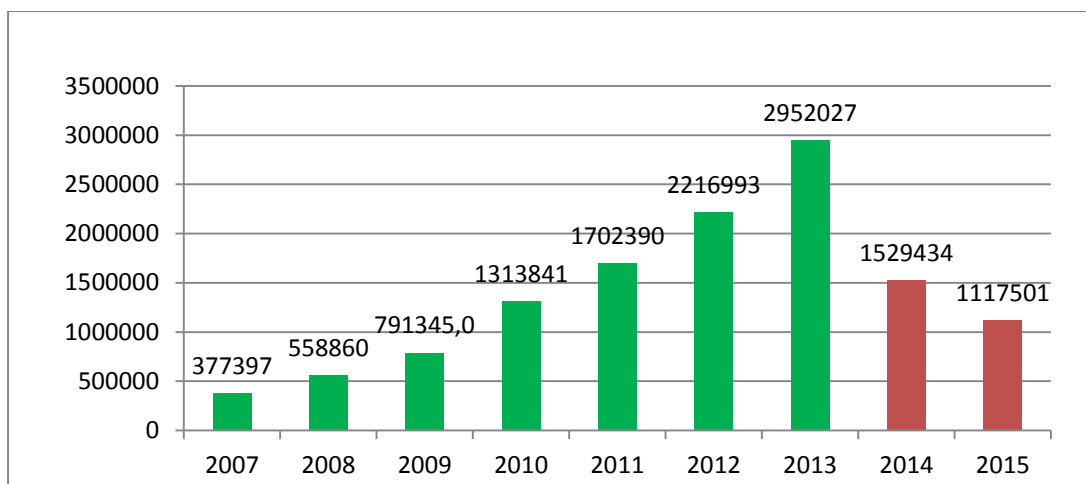


Figure 1: The number of tourist arrivals in Kurdistan- Iraq from 2007 to 2015

Kurdistan has a great opportunity for further development in tourism sector if setting up an appropriate plan to manage all potential tourism resources, because Kurdistan is rich with its diversity of cultures and cultural heritage sites. Such potentially profitable tourism resources in Kurdistan have not been used so far for the purpose of tourism. This study attempts to identify the major challenges that face cultural tourism in Kurdistan region.

In this study, qualitative data method was conducted through implementing focus groups and in-depth interviews to elicit perspectives of different stakeholders respond the research question and achieve these aims. In-depth interview sessions were held with 12 government representatives and 7 local business operators. The focus groups were implemented in Erbil in April 2015, with the recruitment of 4-10 people each into three categories: tourists, local residents, and local business operator.

Results and discussion

Conflict always changes the priorities of nations, and poses many challenges to the tourism industry such as management plan and tourism development (Richter, 1999; Dwyer et al, 2009), damaged infrastructure, lack of services, low investment (Winter, 2008), environmental and social challenges (Novelli, Morgan & Nibigira (2012). In Kurdistan, cultural tourism resources have not protected and used carefully for the purpose of tourism because of conflict in Kurdistan. The study highlights several reasons behind the underutilised cultural tourism resources in Kurdistan. For example, inappropriate planning (participant 12), the government neglected the tourism sector and only focused on producing oil to support the national economy (participant 3), funding crisis (participant 6).

In addition, Directorate of Antiquities and tourism operators face set of administrative challenges, firstly, authority limitation, Antiquity Directorate now supervise and protect historical buildings and antiquities that are over 200 years old only (participant 8), and other tangible cultural resources such as handicraft cultural products is out of Directorate of Antiquities' responsibility (participant 11). No laws or regulations to give historical buildings to others, or rent them to the private sector (participant 8). The second administrative issue is mixed or interactive work between governmental directorates in Kurdistan (participant 12). Third is proliferation of bureaucracy in daily obligations, which delay make decisions appropriately because of following long bureaucratic procedures (participant 10). To overcome the above administrative issues, the government should formulate a new regulation that give the right to Directorate of Antiquities to be able to deal with all cultural

heritage resources to be protected and then used for tourism purposes or outsourcing historical buildings to third parties for conservation and tourism. Moreover, there are two additional points can be classify under administrative challenges, firstly, many residential historic areas in Kurdistan neglected and left empty without any restoration process (participant 8). Second, there were no complete record lists for all cultural attraction in Kurdistan (as participant 6). Another challenge is Marketing and advertisement; overall, marketing and advertisement play a major role in recovering destination image in post conflict regions (Mansfeld, 1999; Vitic & Ringer, 2008). However, there is no appropriate marketing to cultural tourism industry in Kurdistan because of budgetary issues (participant 12).

On the other hand, there are motivations among government representatives that encourage cultural tourism to create revenue in general form, to diversify sources of income for the nations, to attract international tourists, to protecting cultural resources for damages. However, there were perspectives suspended these achievements with successful tourism management and the successful marketing schemes.

Another positive point is the level of hospitality. There is great opportunity for tourist hospitality, which lead to increase tourist arrivals in Kurdistan. In general, residents that participated in both focus groups 3 and 4 agreed that the advantages of tourism growth are greater than the disadvantages, and should benefit from cultural resources attractions for tourism purposes. Supporting local people to tourism industry is very important for hospitality (Aas, Ladkin & Fletcher, 2005). The more resident's positive perspectives toward tourism development and its economic and socio-cultural impacts would encourage residents to more support the tourism industry, in contrast, the less environmental impact leads the more support to tourism growth among local community (Stylidis et al, 2014).

Conclusion

Since the formation of Iraq, ethnic conflict has a direct negative impact of tourism industry in Kurdistan, example, there were no Airports, motorway, railway compared to the rest of Iraq Arab cities, in particular, Sunni cities. The absences of these essential facilities were negatively affected on tourism industry. The most serious negative factor is armed conflict from 1961 to 2003, and recent anti-terrorism operations in 2014 against Daesh terrorist organisation.

There are several problems hindering cultural tourism in Kurdistan, number of these challenges achievable such as administrative and legislative which can formulate a new regulations, or challenges such as lack of experiences which can be set appropriate training programs to address that, whereas, there are some external challenges that can be reduced its impacts. In the result, cultural heritage sites have not been developed yet properly to attract visitors with the exception of special case like Erbil Citadel.

The government should return all authority to the Archaeological Directorate to enable them to make decisions with appropriate timeliness. The government should formulate new regulations that give the right to Directorate of Antiquities to be able to deal with all cultural heritage resources. In addition, it suggested to combine all directorates related antiquities and culture including tourism industry into one board or ministry linked directly with council ministers in order to protect them, maintain

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Good Friday in Malta: A case study in Dark Tourism, Pilgrimage and Collective Memory

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Introduction

Malta is an island of ritual. Religion marks its chequered past. Testimony to this act of religiosity is the variegated sacred art and architecture, with fine examples of Megalithic architecture. For the past seven millennia Malta continues to be a center of pilgrimage.

Religion is an intrinsic part of culture, an integral aspect of the interpretative experience of a group's collective memory. The concept of collective memory has recently been shrouded in a 'negative' garb. Without any doubt, memory, collective or otherwise, can be selective, simplified, and manipulated. Nevertheless, collective memory also operates under the constraints of the historical past. Hobsbawm and Ranger warns against invented traditions, yet recollections of the past carry with them a dose of faithfulness to historical knowledge. Against this background, memory allows groups to reflect and shape their social reality. In other words, collective memory is also motivated by the social experience common, in some form or another, to several individuals. Shared memories generate the possibility of collective social experiences. Using the Good Friday Procession as a case study, this research attempts to highlight the overlapping relationship of pilgrimage, memory and dark tourism.

The Procession: a myriad of opportunities

Some aspects of authentic Maltese local Catholicism may be presented to the outside world in a commoditised and commercialised manner of traditions, such as patron-saint feasts, pageantries, re-enactments and processions. Especially the latter are reminiscent of past times, when daily life was regulated by the church calendar and the daily ringing of the church bells, while the monotony of that life was broken by a number of annual religious festivals and processions (Morinis, 1992: 11). At the same time, that past is continued in a contemporary fashion. In this context fits the custom of formal and normative processions, in which the whole journey is strictly regulated, such as the Good Friday processions and funeraries. Behaviour, dress and pace are formulated and rehearsed and the whole event is a collective one.

In view of Malta's minute size, this article argues that the religious processions in Malta can be counted as a pilgrimage, as both local processions and pilgrimages contain the elements of a pious journey and arriving at a shrine, while the patron-saint and the shrine are within the community they serve. Although during a procession little travelling is done for religious purposes, compared to long-distance pilgrimages, these processions are annually occurring occasions and form part of the binding process of Maltese communities or of society as a whole. This position is supported by Barber, who states that '[i]n a sense, pilgrimage begins at the moment when people declare one place to be particularly holy; even a short journey to a shrine can be a pilgrimage' (1998: 3). Although local pilgrimages of a day's walk to a shrine are not uncommon in Malta, short distance events are more common, mainly in the form of a procession to honour patron-saints on their feast day. Morinis (1992) regards the lengths of the journey or the nature of the destination less important in comparison to the drive and motivation of the adherents.

Drawing on the works of Halbwachs, sociologist Jeffrey K. Olick argues that, 'There is no individual memory without social experience, nor is there any collective memory without individuals participating in communal life.' Such understanding is best exhibited through the ritualized behavior exhibited during the Good Friday procession. As an exercise in 'prospective memory', such public manifestation inform the audience about the past as these receive, narrate, revise and relive an old Catholic tradition particularly emphasizing the dark experience of the passion of the Christ. The nature of the commemoration allows for individuals to directly and indirectly participate in this social experience. Even for the least faithful, this activity embraces the intellectual, moral and emotion of human experience, especially since it touches on the whole notion of salvation from eternal damnation, the need of sacrifice through suffering.

In the present day Good Friday procession in Zebbug, about 1,200 locals participate, dressed up as Old or New Testament personae, people dressed up in period military costumes (Roman, Babylonian or Jewish soldiers etc) on foot, horseback or in a Roman military chariot with four horses. There is even a local young man, with long hair and a beard, riding on a donkey towards 'Jerusalem', represented by the closed parish church doors. The moment he knocks, he is let in and the procession comes out. In this solemn procession, people are carrying the statues representing the stations of the Cross. Some groups of participants drag chains tied to their ankles, called the penitents (*penitenti* or *tal-ktajjen*, those of the chains) who participate dressed in long white dresses with a pointy mask (akin to what members of the Klu Klux Klan are wearing at present). Other penitents carry large wooden crosses. They are also masked. In the past, convicts were allowed to participate as a penitent, and their masks prevented them to bring shame to the family. In between, the band clubs are processing and playing the appropriate music for the occasion. In front of the procession walk the local dignitary in their Sunday best, including sashes or medals. At the very end of the procession, the general public will follow. A regular Good Friday procession would take about 3 to 4 hours to complete. The tourists who were shipped in, leave the village after the last statue has left the church and has passed the main street. Only the locals follow the procession through the narrow streets of the old village core of Żebbuġ. Once the last statue is back in the church, a mass follows in which all the volunteers, helpers and sponsors are thanked publically.

Fentress and Wickham emphasise how the participative nature of the audience is primarily an expression which denotes 'an active search for meaning'. An important aspect of pilgrimage is the quest for meaning through memory, an opportunity to seek meaning in the past and reliving this past in the present. Pilgrimage offers a social experience because it has a meaning for the faithful who seek to remember. Therefore, memory has an important social role since remembering sustains both individual and group identity. It basically tells us who we are, it clarifies our identity. Remembering Jesus provides the faithful with the essential meaning for their lives, their main reason for existence.

In view of processions, Badone (2004) regards authenticity not as an absolute value but as situated ideal, which the visitors may accept as an accurate, credible and authenticated interpretation of historical and cultural facts. This links to the concept of emergent authenticity, a situation in which a revival or adapted continuation of an event, such as a procession, is being accepted and presented as authentic (Cohen 1988: 379). Within a particular procession (the internal factors) ritual, celebration, narration, hymns, myths and drama (either oral or written) are essential to give an added meaning by means of repetition or by referring to events in sacred history (revelations, apparitions, visions, miracles etc.). All such matters keep the procession active in living memory and it earns a place in the culture of collective memory of a community (Barrowclough and Malone 2010).

The same applies to the Good Friday processions: over the years elements were added to older versions, such as the introduction of people dressed up as Old and New Testament

characters, people dressed up as Roman soldiers in shiny 'period' costumes, Roman chariots including horses, and an increased number of statues. Also, the participation of women in these processions is a relatively recent phenomenon. The devotional element has to a large extent been replaced by pageantry, and the religious by the more mundane elements. Or as one participant notes sourly: 'It has become a fashion show.' On the one hand, such observations continue to reinforce the previous statement emphasizing the commoditised and commercialised approach to what is presented as an authentic continuity of a distant past. Precisely because of such revisions, Connerton, Fentress and Wickham, and Schwartz never list the word 'tradition' in their indexes. However, the 'active search for meaning' is what drives both the Maltese and the growing number of foreign visitors to experience this type of pilgrimage.

The collective experience recalling the memory of Jesus, and particularly the passion of the Christ, continues to inform the Christian community of their identity and how to define their identity *vis-à-vis* Jesus, the Church founding fathers as well as those individuals who upheld the highest values of the Church. The recollection of the pilgrimage concurs with Geertz's description of culture as 'inherited conceptions expressed in symbolic forms by means of which people communicate, perpetuate, and develop their knowledge and attitudes toward life.' (Geertz: 1974) Pilgrimage allows for collective memory that sustains group identity, both when involving a closely knit community or other members of the same world religion who would have little or no personal affiliation to the host community. Conversely, when receiving, narrating, revising and reliving the pilgrimage experience, the host and the visitor engages in a collective experience structured around a remembered past motivated by the vague concept of 'tradition'.

Symbolic interpretation: meaning and identity

Symbolism is a salient feature of the Good Friday pilgrimage. The visitor does not require the knowledge of the spoken word. However, the Maltese case study indicates how very little is done to interpret processions to the foreign visitors, while the meaning of a procession is better known to the Maltese. At face value, there is a knowledge gap between the foreign visitors and the Maltese congregation, which is possibly only filled in part when the visitors are on tour with a tourist guide. The tourist guide may tell the visitors about the structure, meaning and history of the procession, and its authentic and contemporary elements. Nevertheless, the transmission of the social experience generated by the pilgrimage requires the audience to engage, silently, in interpreting the symbolic meanings as these unfold in front of them.

As another form of preaching, the performance representing recollections recorded in the liturgical texts immediately requires the onlookers to engage in what Connerton refers to as 'bodily practices'. While an effective explanation of the activity would enhance the visitor's 'bodily practice', people of different denominations could indirectly participate in the procession due to the soberness and macabre imagery that epitomizes the very nature of the pilgrim. Consequently, the concrete form of the event could categorise this social experience as a form of dark tourism.

Dark tourism as an act of travel "has historical pedigree and may be an old concept in a new world" (Stone 2013:310). The act of travelling to sites, attraction and exhibitions of death, disaster or the seemingly macabre, therefore is not a new phenomenon. Professor Tony Seaton (2004) is convinced that the interest in places related to death, or Thanatourism, is not a new phenomenon but in fact has always been an intrinsic interest of human beings.

It is indeed not a surprise that Christianity, throughout its two-thousand-year history, is also seen as an indirect promoter of Dark Tourism. Seaton (2009) views the influence of Christianity as a major contributor to Western consumption of death; through Christian

symbolism and the display of relics, and the prominence of death and macabry; the Christian Church kept death at the forefront of everyday life.

Dark Exhibitions revolve around products related to death, suffering or the macabre with an educational and commemorative message. They are sites that communicate and portray atrocity away from the actual site with a reflective message. Good Friday is indeed about the suffering, a display of macabry and ultimately death, with the theme of the Passion; torture and suffering and death of Christ. From the seven sub-categories for Thanatourism described by Dunkley et al., (2007), the Good Friday social experience is categorised as horror tourism. Horror tourism involves the visitation of sites associated with murder, torture and infamous crime. Tourists have a particular interest for sites and artefacts “related to atrocity ... [and it] is both a highly marketable combination of education and enjoyment and a powerful instrument for the transference of political or social messages” (Gregory Ashworth 1996: 4).

‘Traumascape’ is an important element of Dark Tourism as observed by Sharpley (2009). The visitor embarks on such journeys knowing that such pilgrims “create an environment for catharsis, reflection, and redemption”. (Lóránt Dávid, Bulscú Remenyik, Béla Zsolt Gergely 2013: 289)

Catharsis surely represents an important element of Good Friday, a period which channels people to address issues of personal meaningfulness. It is precisely this aspect of the dark tourism experience that illustrates how individuals employ memory as a confluence of intellectual, emotional, moral and religious frameworks of human experience. Consequently, social memory exists because it has meaning for those who seek to receive, narrate, revise and relieve the tradition.

The element of memory and meaning could broaden the whole concept of pilgrimage and dark tourism to become another contributor towards Malta’s niche-tourism package. This paper continues to delve into this confluence to further explore the hidden potential of the Good Friday pilgrimage.

Narratives of giving in volunteer tourism

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Introduction

“A volunteering experience is usually considered to be about giving your time to others; however, what I received from these people [the hosts] and this experience is so much more than I gave.”¹

Similar statements are reiterated each year by hundreds of Maltese who partake in a volunteer experience abroad. It juxtaposes two concepts: volunteer tourism and the dynamics of giving and receiving which are intrinsic to any form of altruistic giving, including volunteering.

This paper discusses the relationship between these concepts in terms of Maltese narratives about voluntourism. Hence, it explores the extent to which voluntourism should be contextualised within wider notions of giving and assistance.

In literature, altruistic motivations are inherent in what [Wearing and McGehee \(2013\)](#) describe as the ‘advocacy’ approach. Voluntourists sought to differentiate themselves from mainstream tourists to ‘make a difference’ ([Verardi 2013](#)) and ‘give back’ (Brown 2005). Likewise, supporting organisations sought altruistic aims including poverty eradication and socio-cultural change ([Palacios 2010](#)). However, literature equally saw voluntourists as self-interested, seeking personal growth, reputational goals and skill/competency acquisition or accreditation ([Sin 2009](#), [Ingram 2010](#), [Coghlan and Gooch 2011](#), [Lo and Lee 2011](#)), or organisational justification (Lupton 2011). Most literature, whether adopting an ‘advocacy’, a ‘cautionary’ or a third way ‘adaptancy’ platform ([Wearing and McGehee 2013](#)) included a prescriptive approach indicating what shape voluntourism should take to maximise its altruism’s benefits for volunteers and hosts alike whilst minimising negative impacts.

The link between voluntourism and altruistic-giving was made more explicit by [Lupton \(2011\)](#) and [Verardi \(2013\)](#). The former considers ‘service projects’ and ‘mission trips’ together with ‘charity’ and similar pro-bono efforts identifying similar impacts and benefits. Verardi builds on gift-exchange theory to make sense of volunteers’ intentions, perceived in relational terms based on assumed costs and benefits, and the “asymmetry of exchange” between volunteer and hosts where the volunteer’s “sense of balance” between gifts and receipts masks the power and inequalities inherent in the volunteer-host relationship.

Gift-theory posits two main concepts relevant to voluntourism: non-gratuity and reciprocity. [Mauss \(1990\)](#) described gifts as “in theory voluntary, disinterested and spontaneous but are in actual fact obligatory and interested”. Gifts accrue power (Sahlins 1972) and symbolic capital (Bourdieu 1989) to the giver. Moral and social sanctions coerce (Komter 2005) the receiver to make a “worthy return”, “wounding” (Douglas 1990) the receiver who is not able to reciprocate (Douglas 1990) requiring careful management of giving to soften the appearance of “charity” (Llewellyn 2011). However, gifts are culturally interpretable and in the West,

¹ Melanie Vella. ‘A Maasai family and me’ in the Times of Malta Sunday, July 20, 2014 (downloaded from <http://www.timesofmalta.com/articles/view/20140720/travel/AMaasaifamilyandme.528678> on 5/19/2016)

altruistic-giving transcends market-exchange (Parry 1986), eschewing calculations on returns or legal (Donati 2003) obligations.

Sources and Methodology

This study will assess qualitatively five years of narratives of voluntourist experiences as portrayed in newspapers and grey literature in Malta adopting a content-analysis approach. This enables the systematic evaluation of social-cultural temperatures and trends and developments within the symbolic environment of any given society (Gerbner 1995). The data was collected systematically in two ways. Key terms were searched through Informa, a privately-owned database of all Malta-based newspaper contents since 1989 which is made available to researchers. The results were corroborated through an online search within the different newspapers' websites. Both online and printed grey literature by the agencies sending voluntourists abroad, was consulted.

Nine search-terms, and their variants, enabled the identification of relevant texts: volunteer tourism, volunteer/s, mission/s, missionary/ies,² voluntary-work, fund-raising, charity, and philanthropy. The inclusion/exclusion criteria in Table 1 were used to evaluate the relevance or otherwise of the search results:

| Criterion | Reports and articles which concerned trips by an individual or a group of individuals to carry out voluntary work | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| | Inclusion | Exclusion |
| Geographical region | Not Malta | Malta |
| Duration | More than a week, up to one year | Long term trips of over one year |
| Fundraising | Yes, if funds were collected to finance the voluntary work meeting the other criteria, and included a narrative about the type of work, beneficiary etc | Any other |
| Language | Maltese or English | Any other language |
| Types of reports/articles | Interviews, features, reports, articles, letters, photos, provided subject was voluntary work in a third country and meeting the duration criterion | Any material where voluntary work in a third country and meeting the duration criterion was not the subject matter of the text. |
| Date of Publication | 1 January 2011 to 31 December 2015 | Any other date |

Table 1: Inclusion and Exclusion criteria

Short summaries provided by Informa, the search engine or a cursory look at the articles themselves enabled the categorization of the material into three groups: volunteer tourism (113 articles), context (176 articles), indirectly relevant (2,737 articles). The former two groups were then analysed content-wise.

² The term 'mission/s, missionary/ies' were included because a number of short-term voluntary work experiences in developing countries, when organised by FBOs, were reported as 'mission' experiences.

Findings

Conservatively, around two Maltese per thousand, mainly youths, partook yearly in a voluntourist experience. Most joined trips by Maltese faith-based organisations (FBOs) spending four to twelve weeks assisting a poor community in a third country. In 2014, at least 700 individuals made such an experience. Most trips, both by FBOs and other groups, involved voluntary-work in locations with a permanent Maltese 'missionary'. Projects involved a wide range of activities. Infrastructural projects included building a school, an orphanage, concrete homes, bathrooms, a bike-shelter, water-filtration or desalination systems, digging boreholes or laying tiles, plastering and painting, or installing a kitchen. Some had a 'soft' component: a summer-school, crafts for children, teaching English, dancing, drama sessions, first-aid courses. Some included a medical care by a group of medics and paramedics. Only a handful of cases diverged from this norm, including a two-week group experience working on a restoration project in France, and an individual's participation in a ten-day dog neutering campaign in India. Voluntourists included students and individuals from different walks of life including politicians, lawyers, engineers, accountants, and other professionals. Once, the President of Malta led 70 volunteers to Arequipa, Peru.

Volunteer-work experiences were described in terms of altruistic-giving and receiving. On one level, the narrative revolved around a simple plot: a group of individuals went on a voluntary trip for a few weeks to 'help the needy', paying for it themselves. In preparation, they organised fund-raising activities, collected sponsorships, and possibly received some informal language and acculturation training. In loco, they sought to 'make a difference' amongst those they helped, who repaid them with a smile, a photo opportunity or similar tokens of gratitude. On reflection they realised that for a little contribution they had a 'rewarding', 'eye-opening' 'experience of a lifetime' which made them better persons and helped them appreciate 'what they have'.

Discussion

When such narratives are set against the wider socio-cultural context, they fit within an intricate web of representations of alter-assistance, ranging from overseas development aid and the justification thereof, to missionary experiences, to charitable giving and volunteering in Malta. They also fit squarely within the dyadic exchange-paradigm captured by exchange, in particular gift, theory. Arguably, echoing Trier (1931)'s notions of lexical or semantic fields or "clusters of closely related concepts", narrators borrow discourse from a common lexicon about alter-assistance to make sense of their experience and convey it to others sharing their cultural space. Representations of volunteers, beneficiaries and altruistic-giving are a case in point.

Volunteers and beneficiaries are defined in juxtaposition to each other (Vodopivec and Jaffe 2009). Donors/volunteers are clearly identified as distinct natural or legal persons with unambiguous altruistic character-traits and defined altruistic-goals which they intend to/actually carry out. They have a name, a profession/s, skills, a moral bearing compelling them to help others. They are real Maltese persons, have a history of altruism, a fixed address and contact details for further information or donations. They are positively inclined, and elicit positive feelings – beneficiaries' smiles, 'a ray of light in their lives', and so on. The beneficiaries are, in contrast, quasi-anonymous undifferentiated 'others', defined only in terms of their 'poverty', misfortunes, and other 'deficiencies' such as lack of proper clothing, education, medical care, infrastructure, water and other basic necessities, a deprived environment, with a bleak future, and, in some instances, lack of security, as victims of substance abuse. They are 'Africans', 'Kenyan', 'Cambodians', 'locals', 'beggars', 'orphans',

'children', 'drug-abusers', 'poor', 'sick', etc but never individuals and hardly ever distinct communities.³

Altruistic-giving appears as a moral and/or ethical normative obligation emanating from natural or religious precepts. It is arguably an extension of the inherent human need to show solidarity with those in need (Komter 2005). Partaking in volunteer activities, whether in Malta or abroad, has repeatedly been advocated as an intrinsic part of such solidarity creating bonds of trust and bringing people together. Grey literature produced by FBOs and some newspaper articles relative to trips organised by FBOs portray the volunteer experience as an expression of cherished spiritual values and one's or altruistic concern for one's neighbour.⁴ Implicitly, inherent in such giving is the desire to "make a difference", "help build a future", or "do your little bit" and the emphasis on the activities carried out whilst carrying out the voluntary work.

The discourse differentiating between volunteer and beneficiary and portraying the work done reflects internalised stereotypes about the needy, whom normative prescriptions, Christian or otherwise, oblige to assist. Indeed, with the exception of geographic-specific descriptors, terms used to describe beneficiaries and the help rendered echo those used for beneficiaries of charitable donations or voluntary-work in Malta and elsewhere. They also reflect stereotypical development discourse (Vodopivec and Jaffe 2009) as articulated by Maltese (and foreign) narratives about ODA – a world in need of exogenous material assistance to improve their quality of life. Besides, within the Maltese (arguably Christian) context, they reflect internalized consciousness instilled by the Catholic Church at least since the 1850s calling for 'assistance to the missions' (Archivium Archiepiscopale Melitense No. 27, p.44). Arguably their repetition irrespective of geographical or cultural context perpetuates self-reinforcing cycle of expectations and experiences. Pre-trip expectations were shown to heavily influence how the trip is experienced (Nyaupane et al 2008, Woosnam and Lee 2010) and indeed discourse describing the beneficiary-other in both pre-trip and post-trip narratives tend to be similarly articulated, reproducing the stereotypes and perceptions of superiority/inferiority, un-equality and aid-dependency of the host societies, and their need of external assistance by affluent donors/volunteers described in 'cautionary' voluntourism literature (Guttentag 2009, Sin 2009, Lupton 2011, Wearing and McGehee 2013).

The portrayal of receiving back also shows the need for contextualisation of voluntourism. Exchange-theories, in particular gift-theory, establish that giving is intrinsically related to expectations of receiving back (Mauss 1990, Derrida 1992) in line with the "norm of reciprocity" (Gouldner 1960), where the return gift is commensurate to what was given (or invested) in the first instance. Voluntourist discourse about receiving back may broadly be divided into two: the return 'gift' by the hosts such as a smile, a photo opportunity etc; and 'self-acquired' or 'self-imparted' non-material rewards which the voluntourists felt to have acquired upon reflection on their experience. The latter rewards are a central part of altruistic-giving, whether voluntourist or otherwise. Derrida (1992) identified it as the expectation of a "symbolic equivalent". Andreoni (1989, 1990) posited it as the "warm glow" or the positive emotions occasioned by altruistic behaviour which elicit donor utility

³ An exception were two articles referring to voluntary work amongst the Massai which were described (of course in a very wide brushstroke) as a hard-working people who don't want help, they just want an opportunity

⁴ One article expressed it in terms of the words of St Augustine of Hippo as follows: "What does love look like? It has the hands to help others. It has the feet to hasten to the poor and needy. It has eyes to see misery and want. It has the ears to hear the sighs and sorrows of men. That is what love looks like." 'Augustinian spirituality in action', The Malta Independent on Sunday, 14 September 2014, reviewed online on 7/13/2016

<http://www.independent.com.mt/articles/2014-09-14/letters/augustinian-spirituality-in-action-6566674434/>

maximisation when giving. Voluntourists variously portrayed their experience as rewarding through a sense of warm glow (“rewarding”, “golden” or “marvellous” experience), self-gratification and self-image enhancement (“seeing the child smile and knowing you’re the reason why, is the greatest gift”, “overloaded with love”, “I was brave”), self-development and self-enrichment (acquire “a new sense of what is important and a determination to improve the lives of others”, “learning to live and work with people you hardly know”, “life appreciation’) (Brown 2005, Sin 2009, Verardi 2013). Arguably, internalised notions of ‘worthy return’ are not satisfied by the hosts’ return-gift, and voluntourists restore the imagined transactional balance through such self-imparted rewards; thereby confirming the soundness of one’s decision to invest time and money (and the opportunity cost of not having undertaken a relaxing holiday) whilst enhancing one’s ego, and hence a contribute to the experience’s utility maximisation.

Conclusion

This paper sought to contextualize voluntourism and therefore position it within the wider cultural framework of alter-assistance, poverty, the developing-world and gift-giving in Malta. In these contexts, narratives about voluntourist experiences appear as part of a continuum of altruistic-giving, whether expressed by individuals and organisations (through charity and volunteering), churches (through charitable activities and missions) or states (through welfare or ODA) whilst replicating those structures of inequality they seek out to mitigate in the first place. The repetition of similar discourse about poverty and helping others over and over again irrespective of geographical or cultural context perpetuates self-reinforcing cycle of expectations and experiences, including within volunteer tourism. Indeed, pre-trip and post-trip narratives tend to be similarly articulated, with the only exception being the reference to the rewards received. Paradoxically, this too reflects such internalised notions of giving, as the actual tokens of host gratitude are ‘topped-up’ by self-imparted rewards to restore the expected transactional balance between giving and receiving.

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What drives the willingness to participate in a virtual non-monetary exchange system?

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Introduction

The structure of the current economic and monetary system has led to the systemic crisis that we are currently enduring. It is a system characterized by competition and inequality, and is socially, economically and environmentally unsustainable. Against the background of this crisis, a new economic model has emerged, that of the collaborative economy, allowing economic behaviour that is much more in accord with people's lives. Unlike the conventional economy, the collaborative economy puts money at the service of people. Virtual non-monetary exchange systems are an example of this. These are exchange platforms that do not use any officially circulated currency but operate using a system of balances. These digital balances represent the difference between what suppliers have provided to other users of the community and what they have received in return. Specific examples include service credit systems or time banks, and mutual exchange or credit systems, local currencies and swap markets (Corrons, 2015). Although systems of this type have great potential for contributing to the economy, to social cohesion and protecting the environment, their use is still very marginal, with life cycles that do not generally exceed two or three years.

In view of the benefits they could bring, this study is intended to analyse the motivation, perceptions and attitudes of people who currently participate in a virtual non-monetary exchange network. If we can gain an understanding of the reasons behind this kind of behaviour, we can define a range of strategic measures to raise awareness of its advantages, thereby attracting new users and encouraging the continued use of these systems.

Theoretical framework

The implementation and use of virtual non-monetary exchange networks has been facilitated by information and communication technologies (ICT) enabling the creation of digital balance counters that replace officially circulated currencies, while helping people to contact each other online, increasing the visibility and scope of such networks. These types of network are therefore based on technological innovations that encourage a fairer and more socially caring way of working.

Taking virtual non-monetary exchange networks as the technological innovations which they are, the behaviour associated with their use can be analysed using behavioural models based on attitudes and the adoption of innovations. These include models based on the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) and the subsequent decomposition of its variables (Taylor & Todd, 1995).

The theory of planned behaviour is an extension of the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) and was intended to increase its predictive capacity in the case of behaviours over which the individual has limited control. It incorporates individuals' perceptions of the control they have over their behaviour as an explanatory variable for their intentions and behaviour, together with attitudes and subjective norms. The decomposed theory of planned behaviour represents a model for the adoption of new technologies

designed to explore the dimensions of attitude, subjective norms and behavioural control, decomposing them into specific sets of relevant beliefs that affect each of these dimensions.

Based on the decomposed theory of planned behaviour, the different variables involved in the process of adopting virtual non-monetary exchange networks are as follows:

- Behavioural intention, as a direct precursor to the behaviour itself.
- Attitude towards the behaviour, including a series of prior beliefs such as compatibility, ease of use and perceived utility. A further belief has been included in this study, that of trust in other users of the platform, a variable that various authors have examined. Perceived utility, meanwhile, has been treated for this study as a secondary variable, based on four distinct types of utility: economic/instrumental, ideological/value, social and altruistic (Collom, 2011).
- Subjective norms regarding behaviour (the influence of third parties), associated beliefs of which comprise interpersonal norms (the influence of key persons) and extrapersonal norms (the influence of the media, social networks, etc.).
- Perceived control over behaviour, associated beliefs of which comprise personal effectiveness (ability to carry out the action) and facilitating conditions (availability of the technical means needed to carry out the action).

The theory of planned behaviour and its decomposed version allow for the existence of a series of underlying factors that, in turn, directly influence attitude, subjective norms and perceived control, as well as the associated beliefs (Figure 1). Personal values would be an example of this (Ajzen y Fishbein, 2005). The causal relationship between individuals' behaviour and values has been analysed and validated in different fields of study, especially those linked to the environment. This is the case of the values-beliefs-attitudes-behaviour chain described by Stern and Dietz (1994).

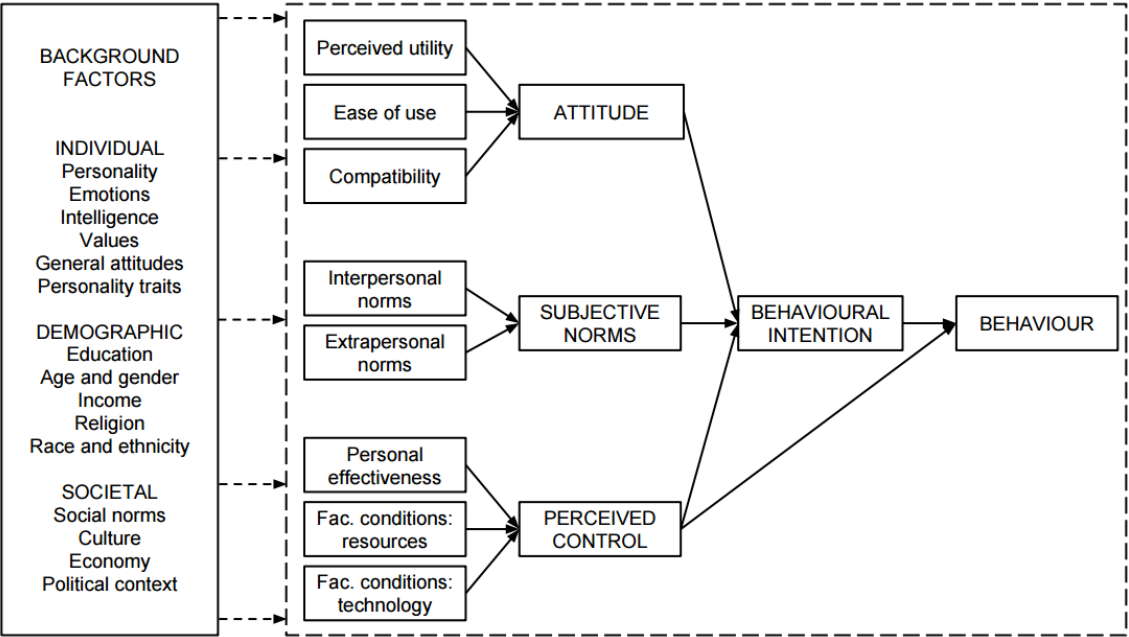


Figure 1: Decomposed theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005).

In view of the above, and following the lines of research of other authors in other fields, this study analyses the influence of personal values as direct precursors of attitude, subjective norms and perceived control, as well as all the beliefs related to them. And, consequently, as indirect precursors of behavioural intention.

The general theory of human values (Schwartz, 2006) is, and has been, one of the most carefully examined and validated theories internationally. The theory is based on the idea that human values form a circular continuum of motivations, so that adjacent values are compatible and have similar motivational meanings, while the opposing values express contradictory motivations (Figure 2). The circular continuum of motivations can be divided into four main groups of fundamental values, which can then be subdivided into another 12 or 19 types, depending on how deeply one wishes to analyse them (Cieciuch et al., 2014). The four main groups of fundamental values are those shown below:

- Self-enhancement: values whose goal is to promote one's own interests at the expense of those of others.
- Conservation: values whose goal is to preserve stability and safety in one's relationship with one's surroundings.
- Openness to change: values whose goal is to pursue one's own interests following routes that are uncertain or ambiguous.
- Self-transcendence: values whose goal is to promote the welfare of society and nature above one's own interests.

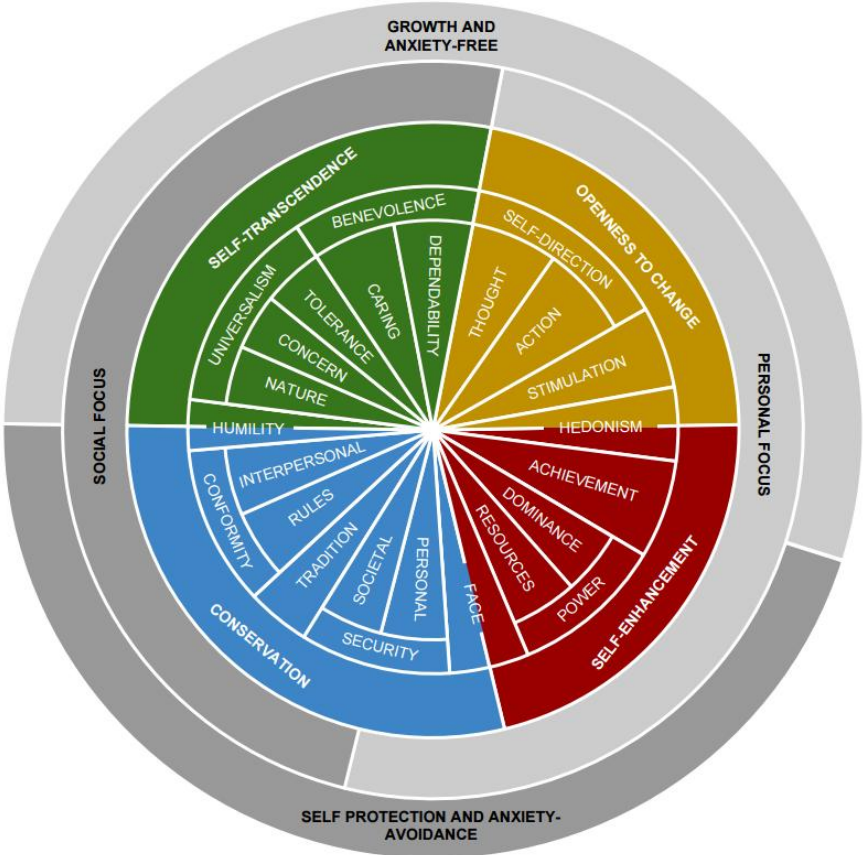


Figure 2: General theory of human values (Schwartz, 2006; Cieciuch et al., 2014).

Hypothesis and objectives

Based on a review of the literature, we propose the following general hypothesis:

“Like any other planned behaviour, people's adoption of virtual non-monetary exchange networks has a series of precursors in the form of motivational, attitudinal, normative and control factors. These all condition behavioural intention and subsequently behaviour itself. In particular, the intention to carry out transactions in this type of network is directly determined by individuals' attitude to their use, the normative influence of third parties, and the control or power to engage in such behaviour. Each of these three factors is, in turn, determined by a series of beliefs, perceptions and personal values.”

In order to verify the hypothesis put forward above, three specific research goals are proposed, on the basis of which the specific hypotheses of this study will be examined. The aims of our research are:

1. To determine the attitudinal, normative and control variables that directly or indirectly affect the use of virtual non-monetary exchange networks, as measured by the intention to engage in transactions involving goods, services or knowledge over a period of six months.
2. To determine the composition and structure of the motivational variables that act as background factors for other variables, by means of a third order analysis.
3. Lastly, to develop an integrated model to explain the process by which virtual non-monetary exchange networks are adopted, including the causal relationships between all the variables included, using the same methodology as for the first objective.

Methodology

To achieve the above goals, the research work comprises the following stages:

- Stage 1: review and presentation of the state of the question or preliminary theoretical framework.
- Stage 2: development of theoretical models and formulation of hypothesis. The first model is based on the decomposed theory of planned behaviour, linking the behavioural intention to its three causal antecedents and their respective beliefs. The second model is based on the distribution of personal values in the general theory of human values, in the most detailed third-order analysis. Finally, a third model (Figure 3) relates the two previous models.
- Stage 3: study and preliminary empirical qualitative analysis. A series of interviews took place with experts in the field. The aim of this first empirical stage was to develop an approach to the topic being studied, beyond the information obtained from the literature.
- Stage 4: main empirical quantitative study. Based on the results of the preliminary empirical qualitative analysis, the main empirical quantitative study was carried out. To this end an online questionnaire was drawn up. The quantitative research began with the initial draft of the questionnaire (defining, adapting and translating items) so that subsequently it could be pre-tested with a small sample of subjects, modified or improved if necessary and sent to the final sample of respondents to be answered online.

- Stage 5: distribution of questionnaires and compilation of data. The questionnaire was sent to two different sample groups. The first consists of students, teaching staff and administrative personnel at the Universitat Oberta de Catalunya. These are people accustomed to using virtual platforms but who have no reason to be acquainted with non-monetary exchange networks. The second group comprises users of time banks and social currency systems in Spain, who are individuals linked to cooperative movements with experience of non-monetary exchange networks. A total of 1,559 valid responses were received.
- Stage 6: empirical quantitative analysis. The first stage in analysing the data from this study comprises a descriptive analysis of the information, to characterize the sample used. An introductory descriptive analysis is followed by an analysis of the central part of the study, allowing us to test the hypotheses formulated. This involves the application of a two-stage methodology for each of the models examined, starting with an analysis of the accuracy of the psychometric properties of the measuring instruments used, using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). When the accuracy of the measuring instrument has been confirmed, it is modified by the inclusion of the structural causal relationships between the latent variables theoretically proposed, which are analysed using structural equation models.
- Stage 7: a comparison of the main findings with those of the literature presented in the theoretical framework, followed by a presentation of its main conclusions, observing whether the hypotheses initially presented are confirmed or rejected. Finally the main implications for management and the limitations of the study will be presented and future lines of research will be proposed.

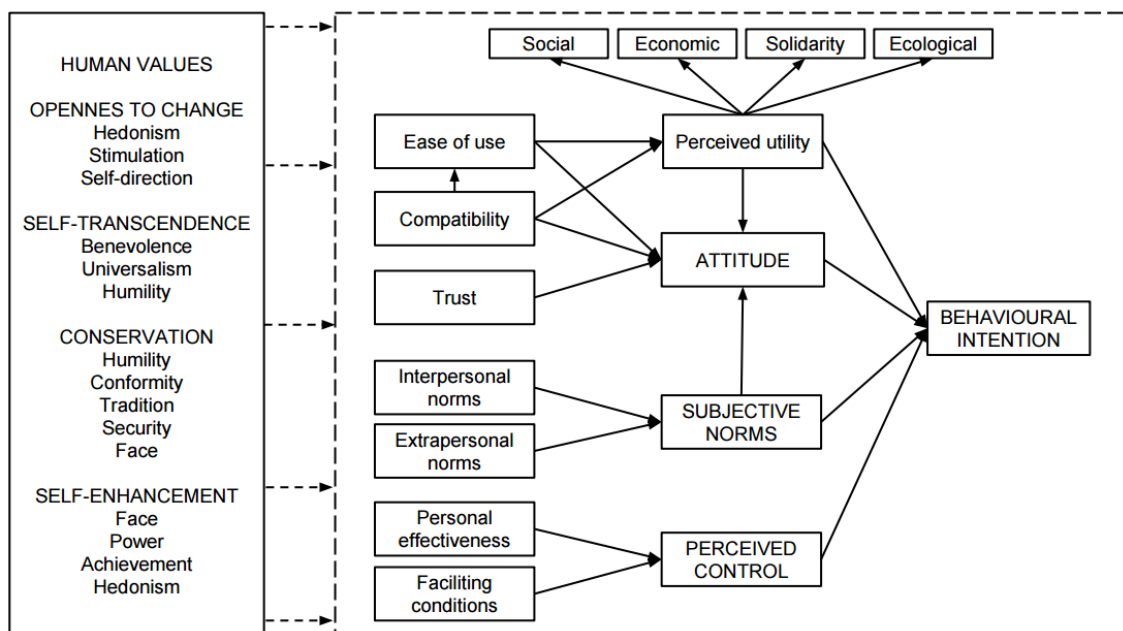


Figure 3: Theoretical model.

Status of research

The first five stages of research have been completed, and currently the empirical quantitative analysis (Stage 6) is being carried out so that subsequently the conclusions can be recorded and proposals set out for future lines of research (Stage 7). The study is expected to be completed in June next year.

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Exploring Hallmark Events through benchmarking: The case of Macau

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Introduction

Coined and made known in the 1980s (Hall, 1989; Ritchie, 1984), hallmark events often attract significant tourism benefits such as tourist arrivals and expenditure. Always iconic in nature, hallmark events are loosely and broadly considered somewhere in between a 'mega' event and a 'major' event in terms of the scope of impacts generated; these are celebrations that give communities and destinations unique competitive advantage (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris, 2011; Getz & Page, 2016). Conversely, mega events are typically referred to those which are one-time occurrences in a given destination, such as the Olympics, World Cup, World Expo, and so on. Hallmark events refer to festivals, sporting events, or special events of international status that offer destinations a unique proposition and are synonymous to the destinations which host them. Primarily for this reason, hallmark events are difficult to replicate as they are often rooted in the destinations' culture and heritage. While there are a number of texts that discuss hallmark events, much of their references to hallmark events have been on a tourism context, that is, the tourism benefits these events bring. Getz et al (2012) noted a lack of agreement on the definition of hallmark events in the literature, as well as their roles in communities (see Getz, et al., 2012 for a discussion on conceptualising hallmark events). Further discussions and research on hallmark events appear to have ceased at the turn of the century; subsequent work in hallmark events have been extremely scarce and in a pragmatic manner.

To contextualise the loose definitions of hallmark events, some famous examples include Germany's Oktoberfest, the Netherlands' King's Day, Thailand's Songkran, Mexico's Day of the Dead, Brazil's Carnival, India's Kumbh Mela, Japan's Tenjin Matsuri, among many others. Getz (Getz, et al., 2012, p. 52) proposes that hallmark events must meet two compulsory and an optional principle:

1. Hallmark events refers to the function of events in achieving a set of goals that benefit tourism and the host community, namely: attracting tourists; creating and enhancing a positive image that is co-branded with the destination/community; and delivering multiple benefits to residents.
2. Over time, the hallmark event as a tourist attraction also becomes an institution and its permanence is taken for granted. Its traditions generate a stronger sense of community and place identity. The event and city images become inextricably linked.
3. Hallmark events can also exist within the context of social worlds and for special-interest groups as iconic tourist attractions that facilitate *communitas* and identity building.

Background to the study

Macao positions itself to become the World Centre of Tourism and Leisure by utilising tourism and gambling as Macao's dragonhead industries, supplemented by cultural heritage, entertainment, retail, exhibition and integrated mega resorts (Vong, 2016). This appears to be a reasonable strategy as Macao has a strong and long history of Portuguese colonisation

for over 450 years – the lengthiest, first and last European occupation in Asia (Cheng, 1999). This brought an array of rich cultural heritage in Macao, from architecture to people, food to festivities. The historical perspective of Macao as a fishing port and safe haven for sea traders also brought in many customs and traditions such as the worship of the Goddess of A-Ma by seafarers and celebrating the nationally listed intangible heritage Feast of Drunken Dragon by fishmongers. Migration as a result of better life and refuge from countries in the region such as Myanmar, Thailand and the Philippines also brought in many cultural celebrations.

The liberalisation of the gaming legislations in the early 2000s also brought in unprecedented economic prosperity to Macao, which attracted foreign investments that transformed Macao into a gaming mecca, with gaming receipts long surpassed that of Las Vegas years ago (Liu, Chang, Loi, & Chan, 2015). Such prosperity fuelled other industries such as retail, exhibitions, meetings and incentive travel that further allowed and required the government to be innovative, build and encourage newer events and facilities to meet demands. Because of Macao's dependence on tourism and the negative image that may be associated with gambling, the government's tourism strategy has always attempted to steer away from casinos and gambling. Cultural assets such as festivals and events in Macao are being harnessed for touristic value (Du Cros, 2009). The government went as far as creating new major spectacular events in the hope of putting Macao's under the international spotlight, such as the 'Parade through Macao, Latin City', a fringe event of a parade through song and dance that promulgates Latin culture in Macao (Ho, 2015).

In light of global economic downturn and political factors in Mainland China affecting gaming receipts (Liu, et al., 2015), the latent reality that Macao's unique proposition as the only territory in China where gambling business is legal, as well as Macao's capability to sustain its population as a result of migration in the last few decades, the need to justify and be specific with spending as well as to allocate resources accordingly is more crucial now than ever.

The most sensible step for Macao, in which the government assumes a pivotal role in, is to adopt its 'naturally' unique proposition and available resources for positive ends, that is, to place Macao's festivals and events in the centre of a cultural festivals and events dominant tourism strategy. In fact, the Macao government hosts and co-hosts over 50 large-scale festivals and events, some of which are of major status known globally, such as the Macao Grand Prix, and others regionally, such as the Macao Food Festival, Macao International Fireworks Display, Macao Arts Festival, among others. The listing by the tourism board-Macao Government Tourist Office (MGTO) – lists over 45 items on its 'Calendar of Events' and 10 as 'Major Events'. Thus, the amount of financial resources spent on hosting and managing these events is astronomical. In the current period of austerity, particularly within the government – who is the major financier for these festivals and events – this need of focusing resources is imperative.

Given the challenges described above and the need to synergise resources, Macao should perhaps consider to develop a single event worthwhile of hallmark status to maximise benefits while streamline budgetary, promotion and organisation efforts for one instead of a multitude of festivals and events. To do this, this paper aims to identify an existing event worthwhile of a 'hallmark' status through benchmarking. The practical and managerial implications will follow along with some directions for future research.

Benchmarking

Destination benchmarking is a continuous assessment of a destination's performance against international quality standards in order to increase competitive advantage (Luštický & Bína, 2014). The benchmarking approach in travel and tourism only began in the 1990s; for

example, a comparative measurement of competitiveness between Turkey and the United Kingdom (Kozak & Rimmington, 1999), evaluation of developing wine destinations (Getz & Brown, 2006), and comparison of hotels in different Chinese provinces (Zhou, Huang, & Hsu, 2008). Benchmarking in festivals and events is novel and examples are limited.

Definitions and taxonomies of festivals and events, as extensively elaborated by one of earlier Getz's textbook on event studies (Getz, 2007) is useful but attempts made to systematically classify hallmark events – and other types of events other than immediately identifiable through its form and type – have been unsuccessful. The descriptors provided for hallmark events are best viewed as characteristics but not criteria that objectively determine whether an event is hallmark or not. This is particularly important for making informed decisions by governments and stakeholders regarding spending and investments, to the extent of justifications of 'tolerating' negative impacts caused by these events; for example, should the government 'waste' police resources to make sure Catholic processions are held in Macao, satisfying 5% of the population who practices this faith, causing widespread traffic disruptions in main streets within the central business district, businesses suffering from a long, albeit temporary halt to business?

Methods

The present study moves one step further by making more sense of these descriptors and characteristics of hallmark events. There were principally two stages in the research design. The first stage is to analyse the festivals and events through content analysis of literature in festivals and events of how hallmark events are referred to and the kind of impacts they create. This will create the benchmark criteria to be used for the subsequent analysis, specifically, the festivals and events in Macao are then used analysed based on the themes generated. For the purpose of this study, the listing by the Macao tourist board was used to identify the festivals and events. As noted by Getz (2012), research in hallmark events have lost its momentum hence key references were mainly textbooks which are dated. Therefore, through semi-structured interviews, the second stage of the research study was to authenticate the analysis of the benchmarking exercise as well as enriching the analysis with additional views from five key informants, who are professors in tourism, heritage and event management in Macao.

The interviewees were purposively sampled based on two criteria: first, the interviewee must be an academic that teach or research in courses related to events, tourism or heritage; and second, the interviewee must be well aware of Macao's tourism industry developments and destination competitiveness. Semi-structured interviews as a research method was based on its strengths; for instance, the topic in question can be investigated in more detail (King, 2004), discuss deeper meanings and feelings and spontaneous answers (Silverman, 2013) while maintaining a reasonable amount of control over the kind of questions asked.

Following email invitations, mutually agreed dates and venues were arranged where recordings were possible and privacy of the interviews were assured. The main interview questions are listed below and adaptive probes were used to encourage discussions. Although prompts were prepared, they were used only as a last resort. Each interview lasted approximately 45 minutes; all conversations were transcribed and analysed accordingly.

1. How do you think events can be measured?
2. What is the role of culture in hallmark events?
3. What makes Macao's events different from other destinations?
4. What are the economic benefits that events in Macao bring to the society?
5. Which events in Macao are popular among tourists? Why?
6. What are the impacts that events create?
7. Which is Macao's hallmark event? Why?

Because of the professional nature of the interviewees (as academics), the interviews were relatively detailed and straightforward without the need of many probes. Discussions mainly circulated two themes which conformed to the objectives of seeking further thoughts about the benchmarking exercise: first, the criteria that makes an event ‘hallmark’, and second, which events in Macao merit a hallmark status. The five identities of the five interviews were anonymised; they are referred to and abbreviated as ‘R1’ to ‘R5’ for Respondent 1 to Respondent 5.

Results

Five themes immersed that represented all the characteristics gauged from the literature review (Allen, et al., 2011; Getz, 1989, 2012; Getz, Andersson, & Carlsen, 2010; Getz & Page, 2016; Getz, et al., 2012; Hall, 1989, 1992; McCartney, 2010; Page & Connell, 2011; Quinn, 2013; Richards & Palmer, 2010; Ritchie, 1984; Smith, 2012). These themes were known as ‘hallmark indicators’ in the present study: scope, cultural attachment, economic value, destination value and impacts. For more information about the themes and sub-themes indicated below, see Hall (1989, 1992) and Ritchie (1984) for earlier definitions and discussions on hallmark events, particularly their relevance to tourism, and Getz et al (2012) for a recent synthesis of research effort in hallmark events. See also Wang, Couto & Litwin (2016) for an abridged version of a senior thesis, which is the basis of the present extension to the study. Table 1 below shows these themes grouped together with related sub-themes.

Table 1. Indicators of hallmark events

| | |
|---------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Scope | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recurring events • Relative to the size of the host community |
| Cultural attachment | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationship with culture or tradition • Rapport with host community • Uniqueness • Professional organisation • Historical significance |
| Economic value | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tourists and tourism revenue • Investment and business opportunities • Involvement from local businesses |
| Destination value | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Competitive advantage • International recognition • Residents’ sense of local pride |
| Impacts | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social-cultural impacts • Economic impacts • Environmental impacts |

As noted earlier, Macao hosts over 50 different festivals and events so comparing each using these benchmarks was considered impractical. Table 2 shows the analysis of festivals and events listed on the MGTO Calendar of Events website using the five indicators generated from the literature.

Table 2. Analysis of Macao's festivals and events against the indicators of hallmark events

| Festivals and Events | Scope | Cultural attachment | Economic value | Destination value | Impacts |
|------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|---------------------|----------------|-------------------|---------|
| New Year's Day | | | | | |
| Chinese New Year | X | | X | | X |
| Procession of Our Lord, the Good Jesus | X | X | X | X | X |
| Feast of the God Tou Tei | X | X | | | |
| Macao International Environmental Cooperation Forum & Exhibition | X | | X | | X |
| Easter | | | | | |
| Ching Ming | | | | | |
| Feast of Pak Tai | X | X | | | |
| Macao Arts Festival | X | | X | | |
| Labour Day | | | X | | |
| International Museum Day | | | | | |
| A-Ma Festival | X | X | X | X | X |
| Procession of Our Lady of Fátima | X | X | X | X | X |
| Feast of Buddha's Birthday | X | X | | | |
| Tam Kung Festival | X | X | | | |
| Feast of the Drunken Dragon | X | X | X | X | X |
| Macao Lotus Flower Festival | X | | | | |
| Macao International Dragon Boat Races/Tun Ng Festival | X | X | X | | X |
| FIVB Volleyball World Grand Prix | | | | | |
| World Music Day | | | | | |
| Feast of Na Tcha | X | X | | | |
| Feast of Kuan Tai | X | X | | | |
| Feast of Maidens | X | X | | | |
| Feast of Hungry Ghosts | X | X | | | |
| Macao International Fireworks Display Contest | X | | X | X | X |
| World Tourism Day | | | | | |
| Mid-Autumn Festival | | | | | |
| National Day of the PRC | X | | X | | X |
| Festival of Ancestors | | | | | |
| Macao International Music Festival | X | | | X | |
| Macau A-Ma Cultural & Tourism Festival | X | X | X | | |
| Macao Golf Open | X | | X | X | |
| Macao International Trade and Investment Fair | X | | X | X | |
| Lusofonia Festival | X | X | | | X |
| All Souls' Day | | | | | |
| Macau City Fringe | X | X | | | |
| Macau Grand Prix | X | X | X | X | X |
| Macau Food Festival | X | | X | | |
| Parade through Macao, Latin City | X | | X | | |
| Macau International Marathon | X | | X | | |
| Feast of Immaculate Conception | | | | | |
| Macao SAR Establishment Day | | | | | |
| Christmas | X | | X | | X |

As mentioned earlier, Macao hosts a variety of festivals and events; this is particularly a result of the length Portuguese colonisation and influence in the city, as evidenced by the number of Catholic-related festivals and feast days Macao observe; interestingly, even after the handover, the statutory public holidays of Macao include both traditionally 'Portuguese' and 'Chinese' religious festivals and cultural feast days. For instance, the large-scale street-based Catholic processions in Macao are second to none other than the Philippines in Asia (see Couto, 2014a). Another interesting festival which was left out by the MGTO listing is a traditional festival that celebrates Macao's roots to the Portuguese culture and was considered by many as the 'Macao Day' before the handover in December 1999 – the Festival of Arraial de São João. It was halted for several years but restarted after the encouragement of the government to diversify Macao's festival and event offering, and on a wider and more ambitious objective, to be in line with Macao being the platform between Lusophone countries and China (see Couto, 2014b). Other than these culturally-rooted festivities, Macao also hosts a number of commodity events, such as food, music and arts festivals, sporting events such as world-renowned motorsport racing and the FIVB Volleyball contest, as well as newer events specifically created to attract tourism, e.g. Parade through Macao, Latin City and the Macao Light Festival, which only started in 2015 and was not included in this analysis because it was only launched at the time the present research was carried out.

Based on the analysis of the authors of using these benchmark indicators against the festivals and events, the majority of the listed events meet at least two of the criteria. These events encompass a variety of types, target markets, genres and scale that they are hosted. The following meet the criteria of all five criteria:

1. Procession of Our Lord, the Good Jesus
2. A-Ma Festival
3. Procession of Our Lady of Fátima
4. Feast of the Drunken Dragon
5. Macau Grand Prix

Considering the aim of this study was to identify a hallmark event in Macao with the objective of focusing resources and investments on a single or 'couple', five festivals and events meriting this hallmark status appeared to be unjustifiable for such an ambitious and urgent objective. Upon closer examination, each of these festivals and events are spectacular in their own right, but each has their own pros and cons as hallmark events and these are summarised in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Indicators of hallmark events

| | Pros | Cons |
|----------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Procession of Our Lord, the Good Jesus | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Historically significant to the Portuguese's heritage and influence in Macao Has been celebrating for decades and one of its kind in Asia Attracts tourism and unique destination proposition | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low business value (e.g. sponsorship) Undesirable disruption to local life as procession held in main city streets Religious event may be seen as profane |
| A-Ma Festival | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Very significant to Macao's patron goddess and Macao's history as a fishing port Attached to properties within the UNESCO World Heritage High participation from local residents and tourists | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low business value (e.g. sponsorship) Religious event may be seen as profane No uniqueness as similar festivals and devotion to the Goddess of A-Ma are numerous in the region |
| Procession of Our Lady of Fátima | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Largely similar to Procession of Our Lord, the Good Jesus but this is on a different theme. It has a tighter cultural attachment to the Portuguese because of the country's specific devotion to Our Lady of Fátima (among her many other manifestations) | |
| Feast of the Drunken Dragon | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Highly relevant to Macao's history of seafarers Listed on the National Intangible Heritage List Attracts tourism and unique destination proposition High participation from local residents and tourists | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low business value (e.g. sponsorship) Undesirable disruption to local life as events held in main city streets Religious event may be seen as profane Significant media attention |
| Macau Grand Prix | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A very historical event celebrating its 63rd edition in 2016 World-renowned Attracts tourism and induced effects (e.g. accommodation, entertainment) High business value | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hostile and tough competition from the region; no unique destination proposition No cultural attachment other than 'a westerner sport' Undesirable disruption to local life as event held in main city streets |

The common threat to all festivals and events, particularly to those of hallmark status, is the loss of authenticity. For example, the Feast of Drunken Dragon in Macao is currently at risk of losing its sensual nature of 'space' within a cultural environment as a result of over-promotion by the tourist board (see Imon, Choi, & Couto, 2015). Interestingly, one of the major strengths of an event meriting a 'hallmark' status is its unique characteristics and difficulty in replication; the situation with the Feast of Drunken Dragon is extraordinary.

Evidently, it is practically impossible for any of these five festivals and events above to be considered as 'the perfect hallmark event' because each has its own strengths and

weaknesses. Catholic processions, unique as they are in Asia, do not possess a significant cultural element that manifests the Macao identity although they are reminiscent of its Portuguese heritage. Besides, with the population of Catholics in Macao reportedly being 5% (census 1991), its continuation in the long term is also uncertain given the disruption they cause and the festivities' relevance to the local people. In terms of touristic value, continuous promotion of the event to attract mass tourism as opposed to higher quality, more 'discipline' cultural tourists, could also risk turning the religious spectacle commercial and profane.

Although significant in scope when compared to the variety of festivals and events in Macao, the A-Ma Festival is considerably smaller in scale and scope than other shortlisted events. Like other 'Chinese' or Taoist cultural festivals in Macao, such as Feast of God Tou Tei, Feast of Pak Tai and Feast of God Tam Kong, the A-Ma Festival is a community event that manifests the historical and pagan roots of the people's devotion to the gods and deities. For instance, devotees of Goddess of A-Ma were traditionally seafarers hence similar festivities are also found in other coastal ports in the region such as Fujian in China and Chinese Taiwan. Likewise, the God of Tou Tei, as the name suggests in Chinese – the God of Earth – he is usually worshipped by devotees related to agriculture.

Unlike other popular hallmark events around the world such as La Tomatina and Songkran, the cultural festivals in Macao – in its original form or as perceived by event attendees – lack an entertainment and 'fun' perspective. Rightly so, these cultural events were originally created and practised solely to meet civic objectives: to please the gods and to manifest the community's pagan roots and cultural identity. These festivities, many of which religious in nature, are solemn and sacred. The carnivals were originally sacred and religious in nature, celebrated on the day before Lent, with lavish celebrations and plentiful feasts, to mark the beginning of holiness and abstinence leading up to Easter. The current form which the carnivals take place is completely different from its original intentions, but filled with entertainment and fun – although many considered profane – hence their success as hallmark.

The Macau Grand Prix is significant in scale and scope – it is one of the only few motorsport races that uses city streets and is the only one that hosts motorcycle, Formula 3 and touring car races. It is also an internationally known for the 'birthplace' of numerous motorsport races such as the Schumacher brothers. Besides the immediate business opportunities brought forth by the races such as sponsorship, the races also create lucrative economic benefits such as maintenance and improvement of existing infrastructure, jobs as well as induced effects in the lodging, retail, entertainment, food and beverage sectors, and so on. Although in its sixty-third year and is historically linked to Macao's uniqueness and considered pioneer in Asia to host motorsport event, this is best seen the result of a somewhat 'Portuguese' or 'western' heritage, but the races lack any form of cultural identity associated with Macao and its history. Despite demonstrating vital characteristics of a tourist hallmark event such as lucrative economic outcomes, high volume of tourist business and a major spectacle in the region, the Macao Grand Prix does not exhibit any form of cultural attachment like other hallmark counterparts around the world.

Although the benchmarking exercise concludes that none of the festivals and events in Macao qualify at the hallmark status. This could prompt the need of further refinement of the five indicators, or, it could be a problem with the benchmarking method, which seems to be rigid and inflexible. Nonetheless, the analysis conforms to the evaluation of the five expert interviewees.

Discussions

The discussions focus on two of the notions that determine hallmark events: scope of event impacts and cultural attachment. The reason of discussing significantly less of the other criteria was because these two encompass various aspects of the other benchmark criteria, and as further discussions below will show, the two notions elaborated here play a significant role in concluding our views with regards to Macao’s hallmark event.

Scope of events

The interviewees believed a hallmark event needs to be unique and has a cultural attachment to the destination in which it is hosted; additionally, hallmark events should be synonymous with the destination’s image and must be well-known, that is, not just be able to be identified with a given destination, but must be a popular event. However, in the context of Macao, none of the interviewees believed Macao’s events was of hallmark status. Nevertheless, they believed some festivals and events had some potential in being developed into hallmark events: Macau Grand Prix, Feast of the Drunken Dragon, Lusofonia Festival and Feast of Pak Tai. As shown in Table 4, two of the four events, specifically, the Macau Grand Prix and the Feast of the Drunken Dragon, suggested by the interviews matched the benchmarking exercise but the other two, specifically, Lusofonia Festival and Feast of Pak Tai, were not considered ‘hallmark enough’ by the benchmarks on the grounds of lacking economic and destination value as well as minimal impacts comparatively to other events in Macao.

Table 4. Shortlisted potential hallmark events by benchmarking and interviews

| By benchmarking | By interviewees |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Macau Grand Prix • Feast of the Drunken Dragon • Procession of Our Lord, the Good Jesus • A-Ma Festival • Procession of Our Lady of Fátima | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Macau Grand Prix • Feast of the Drunken Dragon • Lusofonia Festival • Feast of Pak Tai |

The two Catholic processions shortlisted by the benchmarking exercise were not mentioned by the interviewees at all. A prompt was made, and one of the interviewees believed “they are not the combination of Chinese and Portuguese culture in Macao... [they are also] very small scale and they’re too religious” (R2). R3’s response articulated further, “[processions] are too small. Because the city is too small to hold large scale events at one time, religious processions are hard to be developed as hallmark events because of limited space. However, the Macau Grand Prix is possible as it is large scale and lasts for several days; the total number of tourists generated is also more”.

All interviewees believed that hallmark events have to be recurring which is in accordance to the literature, but R3 believed hallmark events can be one-offs by giving an example to explain further, “Like a particular opera house opening or the finishing of the construction [of a landmark]. For example, the Shanghai Opera House [opening]. It was a big hallmark event, but it only happens once. It could be very big scale and it depends on how the organisers want to shape it”. However, this view is not how the reviewed literature typically defines hallmark events and one-off events are difficult to bring significant long-term benefits to the destination.

Interviewees were also aware that the size of events is futile as a distinctive criteria for hallmark events because the size of the event is only relative to the destination in which the event is hosted. The total area of Macao is mere 22 km² and all large scale public events are held on city streets, which are typically narrow and winding, characteristics of Portuguese old town streets built not for motor vehicles. Instead, the academics preferred to use scope of impacts events create to determine whether an event is significant enough.

Hallmark events need to demonstrate its destination competitiveness and unique proposition to attract visitors; likewise, hallmark events need to manifest the destination's culture to visitors. Hence, tourism plays a significant role in hallmark events. R5 believed that "hallmark events should attract people from different parts of the world", which is enforced by R2's view "[a hallmark] needs to be able to attract people from outside of the destination". In other words, hallmark events cannot be community based or attract only attendees from the same culture and within the same country in which the event is hosted.

Cultural attachment

All respondents unanimously believed that cultural attachment is critical in hallmark events. R2 emphasised "the identity of a city has to be related to sort of culture. We are talking about the image. To that extent, culture is vital, is critical in developing hallmark events. R4 believed "culture is the soul of the events and they demonstrate local culture of the hosting community... they let people remember the traditions and customs". Relating these views back to the shortlisted events by both the benchmarking exercise and the interviews, none of these festivals and events represent Macao's culture accurately.

In fact, the culture – and notions like cultural identity of Macao – is contested (Cheng, 1999). Historically, Macao has always been part of China until in the 1550s the Portuguese formally established power in Macao as a trading port until the late 90s when the sovereignty was handed back to China. Throughout these centuries of Portuguese influence and occupation, many world cultures, mostly from the Lusophone countries, settled in Macao making it one of Asia's most diverse, multicultural destination of strong European influence. Since the handover in 1999, Macao underwent unprecedented economic prosperity, attracting many immigrants. Thus, considering the population of Macao as reported by the last census (DSEC, 2012) as 550,000 with 59.1% born outside of Macao, most of which from Mainland China, followed by Hong Kong, the Philippines, Vietnam, Indonesia and other countries, the cultural identity of Macao would naturally be Chinese. Indeed, the ethnicity of Macao stands at 92.4% of the population were Chinese while those of pure and mixed ethnicity of Portuguese were less than 2%.

Demographically – and politically – Macao is in every aspect Chinese. However, considering its colonial history and heritage as well as the influence by the Portuguese and many other cultures, Macao's culture is distinctive; therefore one should not consider Macao's culture as Chinese. Furthermore, historically, Macao has always been a harmonious society but the Portuguese and Chinese had their different ways of life. Hence, there is no festival nor event that falls within this category as there was not an occasion to celebrate this harmony together. Predominantly 'Chinese' or 'Portuguese' festivals and events are available but none of which merit a true cultural attachment to Macao.

The interviewees recommended Chinese festivals as potentially 'hallmark', such as Feast of the Drunken Dragon and Feast of Pak Tai. Likewise, the benchmark exercise also shows the potential of the Feast of the Drunken Dragon viable. These views are in line with Macao being 'mostly Chinese' – in fact, the festival is inscribed onto the China's national list of intangible heritage – but as the brief preamble above shows, the culture of Macao cannot be generally referred as Chinese. From cultural attachment, the interviewees turned to historical significance of events as a cultural manifestation to Macao's culture. For instance, R4

believed that the Macao Grand Prix with its origins of Portuguese influences is well-suited to manifest the unique cultural proposition of Macao, “I think if we can associate this competition with cultural story or historical story, a lot of people will be interested in it”.

Conclusions

So, what is Macao’s hallmark event? The short answer is none. As seen in the benchmarking exercise, none of the festivals and events in Macao truly merit the definition – or criteria – of a hallmark event. The closest the exercise reached was either the Feast of Drunken Dragon or the Macao Grand Prix. However, each has its strengths and shortcomings; for instance, the Feast of Drunken Dragon is culturally rich and relevant but has low economic and destination value while the Macao Grand Prix has high prestige and economic value but low cultural attachment to Macao. These are generally supported by the views of the interviewees.

The benchmarking technique has its own merits but appears to be overly simplistic. Of course, further measures could be used to ensure the benchmarks are more sophisticated, for example, more stringent and even quantifiable measures. However, this may not be ideal for the case of events as they are so diverse and as the discussion above point out, certain aspects of events, such as impacts they create, are relative to the community in which the events are being hosted. Therefore, it would not be plausible to have an overall strict set of benchmarks. Besides, the limitation of the literature – both in terms of the effort of the review for the present study as well as availability of the literature on the subject anyway. The search of hallmark indicators saturates rather quickly as the literature point to similar set of characteristics by seminal literature (Hall, 1989; Ritchie, 1984). The research design built in semi-structured interviews for expert opinions further narrow down these hallmark characteristics into events which must be of scale and of cultural attachment, in addition to the criteria of attracting tourism.

Considering the aim of this study was to identify the Macao’s hallmark event to streamline and focus effort, particularly in economic resources during the current austerity, the conclusion is somewhat discouraging. The search for hallmark events in Macao has been problematized, we argue, at the expense of the overall loose nature of how hallmark events are defined. In addition, the need of ‘meeting’ all criteria for an event to be hallmark, therefore justifying resources allocation, is arduous and almost inconceivable. On the one hand, events showing the kind of unique propositions merit its status as ‘hallmark’, specifically, being significant in scope, possess substantial destination and economic value, as well as culturally rooted and attached to the destinations in which they are hosting. On the other, many hallmark events are being replicated, commodified and their original meaning changed, we wonder if these criteria are all important as long as events become magnet for tourism. Certainly, tourism plays a vital role in economies around the world; as destinations are moving away from the mass tourism ‘curse’, hosting culturally rich and authentic hallmark events attract more quality tourists who cause less problems and bring benefits.

In the case of Macao, there seems to be a lack of an event management strategy incorporated within the city’s tourism plan, and at a wider context, economic plan. The government hosts and sponsors a number of the festivals and events as discussed earlier. The argument we present in the present study is whether the government should be doing this or focus efforts in a single or a few of events which are more significant. Clearly, Macao’s festivals and events are hardly hallmark but a few from the list are worthwhile to be developed further.

From the interviews, R1 and R4 suggested the bundling of events (see Xu, Wong, & Tan, 2016). In simple terms, events are strategic placed close to each other in terms of when the event is hosted (and in Macao’s case, spatially, events are always close enough as the city is

merely 22 km² in size). The main benefit is to create competitive advantage in terms of tourist product offering.

The authors suggest the government to adopt a series of 'signature events' strategy incorporated within the wider tourism and economic strategies of Macao. Rather than diminishing promotion and economic resources on a multitude of events, the government should position a selection of significant festivals and events which are themed to the cultural and heritage context of Macao to attract quality tourists and maintain Macao's unique harmony as well as spaced throughout the year to counter seasonality problems. Such thinking is largely in line with the idea of 'eventful cities', to harness a destination's innate resources (Richards & Palmer, 2010, p. 2). The emphasis is to focus on a strategy that makes Macao eventful by using the available resources, such as the diversity and multicultural nature of Macao, to encourage creativity and mixed economy of events.

The festivals and events shortlisted in Table 4 is a good start. For example, positioning Macao as Asian's capital of cultural diversity, incorporating the variety of festivals and events with the existing UNESCO World Heritage listed properties which range from Chinese to predominantly Portuguese, from Taoist to Catholic ones, from religious to motorsport races. Other festivals and events should be secondary in terms of resources allocation and supplement the primary ones discussed above. This way, a clearer strategy is in place, better resources allocation, and at the same time, more apparent direction for protecting and safeguarding the heritage and community values of Macao.

The latent threat of Macao's losing its monopolistic gambling rights in China, and thus significantly impacting tourist receipts and economic stability could be diminished by relying more on the innate cultural resources instead. In time, Macao's destination image also moves further away from the 'Las Vegas of Asia' to one of Asian's premier cultural capitals. This study contribute to our understanding of using benchmarking in events by articulating further the discussions on create Macao into an eventful city and implications to Macao's future. The conclusions and implications drawn can be applied on other postcolonial destinations heavily dependent on tourism and rich in cultural diversity and heritage.

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Are Travel Agents Market Mavens? A Study on Travel Agencies Located in Izmir, Turkey

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Introduction

Businesses spend billions of dollars in order to market their products and serve their customers as a result of increasing costs of promotional activities in a competitive environment (Clark, 2005: 289-290). With reference to existing literature about word of mouth marketing, three main groups have been indicated (Corey, 1971:51; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2010:292; Silverman, 2001:195). These groups who perform word of marketing are early purchases, opinion leaders and market mavens (Feick and Price, 1987: 83). Early purchases are the customers who buy and use the product they recommend and keep an active communication with other consumers since they have information about the product; however they do not have general information about the market itself (Wiedman et al, 2001: 198). On the other hand, opinion leaders recommend products and services with information they have (Solomon et al, 2006: 374) and they encourage consumers to purchase (Goldsmith et al, 2003: 54). To summarize, early purchasers and opinion leaders influence other consumers with the specific information and expertise they have about products (Feick and Price, 1987: 84). This study is about the third group - market mavens - who are market information providers who affect buying decisions of various consumers seeking advices about a broad variety of products and services (Williams and Slama, 2005:4).

Feick and Price (1987: 85) defined market mavens as “individuals who have information about many kinds of products, places to shop, and other facets of markets, and initiate discussions with consumers and respond to requests from consumers for market information”. Market mavens, as information sources about market characteristics, are individuals who trust their own expertise and opinions and share them with other consumers and additionally give information about shopping (Clark et al., 2008: 240). Geissler and Edison (2005: 76) indicated that market mavens are essential to businesses in order to support marketing communication and have a competitive advantage in the market. Accordingly, the purpose of this research is to figure out whether the front line employees in travel agencies as a significant information source in travel industry are market mavens or not. In addition, the study aims at determining how much travel agency employees have information about the products and they recommend to tourism consumers as these characteristics are stated in the definition of market mavenism concept. Although market mavens are studied extensively in literature by various researchers (Elliott and Warfield, 1993; Williams and Slama, 1995; Clark and Goldsmith, 2005; Yang, 2013), market maven behavior of travel agency employees is a highly ignored issue. Consequently, this study is important in terms of making a contribution to the existing literature.

As consistent with the aim of study, the hypotheses below were formed:

H1: There is a significant relationship between gender and information giving behavior of travel agency employees.

H2: There is a significant relationship between gender and recommendation giving behavior of travel agency employees.

H3: There is correlation between information giving and recommendation giving behavior of travel agency employees.

Methodology

A quantitative study on the employees of travel agencies located in İzmir has been conducted through a structured questionnaire. A survey of 123 representatives from total 160 travel agencies was implemented between the dates of 15 February 2016 – 01 March 2016.

The total 11 items which have been resulted in 2 independent factors are rated on a five-point scale (1=strongly agree; 2=agree; 3=neither agree nor disagree; 4=disagree; 5=strongly disagree). The travel agency employees were requested to rate these statements. The questionnaire consists of four separate sections. The first section was adapted from the original six-item market maven scale (Feick and Price, 1987) and the second and the third sections were adapted from the study of Goodey and East (2008), while the last part of the questionnaire consisted of demographic questions. Before, all the questionnaires were handed out, a pilot study with 45 participants were conducted between the dates of 15 February 2016-20 February 2016. KMO value of pilot validity test is .84 at a significance level of $p < .05$ and Cronbach Alpha value is .86. Then, we continued to collect data from the sample.

First of all, validity and reliability of the study were analyzed and then hypothesis tests were performed. Data were analyzed with SPSS 23.0 (Statistical Program for Social Sciences). Principal Components Analysis was used in order to define structure of factors and the reliability of data gathered was tested with Cronbach's Alpha.

Findings

In this part, the results of frequency analysis, factor analysis, reliability analysis, independent sample t-test, ANOVA Test will be explained. Additionally, the responses given to the open ended questions in third section of the questionnaire were analyzed with content analysis and frequencies have been explained accordingly.

The sample profile has been shown in detail in the following table (Table 1.0). Most of the respondents are between the ages of 25-34 and female (64%). Almost all of the respondents (84%) had finished university or graduate schools. While 66% of the participants have been working in tourism sector for 6 and above years, most of them have been working in the firms for 0-2 years (36%) or 6 years and above (35%). 66,4% of the employees have been working in tourism sector for 6 years and above.

Table 1.0: Numerical and Percentage Dispersion of Sample Profile

| | Frequency (N) | Percentage (%) |
|---------------------------------------------------------|---------------|----------------|
| Age | | |
| 18-24 | 11 | 9.3 |
| 25-34 | 63 | 53.0 |
| 35-44 | 38 | 32.0 |
| 45 and above | 9 | 6.7 |
| Total | 119 | 100.0 |
| Gender | | |
| Male | 42 | 35.9 |
| Female | 75 | 64.1 |
| Total | 117 | 100.0 |
| Education | | |
| High School | 11 | 9.3 |
| University | 100 | 84.0 |
| Master's & PhD | 8 | 6.7 |
| Total | 119 | 100.0 |
| The Number of Years Worked in the Tourism Sector | | |
| 0-2 | 16 | 13.4 |
| 3-5 | 24 | 20.2 |
| 6 and above | 79 | 66.4 |
| Total | 119 | 100.0 |
| The Number of Years Worked in Travel Agency | | |
| 0-2 | 43 | 36.2 |
| 3-5 | 34 | 28.5 |
| 6 and above | 42 | 35.3 |
| Total | 119 | 100.0 |

The summary results of confirmatory factor analysis are presented in Table 2.0. According to these results, it is found that 10 variables are formed under two factors in which each item loaded on its correct factor and no two items loaded on the same factor. Additionally, two constructs are different but related.

As a result of factor analysis performed on data gathered, KMO (Kaizer-Mayer-Olkin) value is 85% at a significance level of $p < .05$ and Cronbach Alpha value is 91%. Therefore, the reliability of this scale is founded to be high (Nunnally, 1976).

Table 2.0: Results of Factor Analysis

| Eigenvalue:3,45; Mean: 4,11; V. Explained:68,93 p<.05 | Factors Loadings | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------|-------|
| | 1 | 2 |
| <i>Measures</i> | | |
| A1* | 0.896 | |
| A2 | 0.888 | |
| A3 | 0.809 | |
| A4 | 0.781 | |
| A5 | 0.768 | |
| Eigenvalue:3,82; Mean: 4,41; V. Explained:76,36 p<.05 | | |
| B1** | | 0.906 |
| B2 | | 0.886 |
| B3 | | 0.879 |
| B4 | | 0.864 |
| B5 | | 0.832 |

*Measures from A1 to A5 refer to the sentences about information giving behavior.

** Measures from B1 to B5 refer to the sentences about recommendation giving behavior.

In the study, hypothesis tests were conducted. According to the results of independent samples t-test, there is a significant relationship between gender and information and recommendation giving behavior of travel agencies. Therefore, the hypotheses (H1 and H2) are supported since Sig. values are .025 and .029 at a significance level of $p < .05$. Females were found to be more likely to give information and recommendation about tourism products to consumers. The results are shown in Table 3.0. However, according to the results of ANOVA tests, there is no significant relationship between information and recommendation giving behavior of agents and age, education, working time in the firm and working time in tourism sector.

Table 3.0: Results of Independent Samples T-test Analysis

| | Gender | N | Mean | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances (Sig.) | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|----------------|--------|----|--------|-----------------------------|------------------------------------------------|-----------------|
| Information | Female | 75 | 4.2613 | Equal variances assumed | .000 | .008 |
| | Male | 42 | 3.8095 | Equal variances not assumed | | .025 |
| Recommendation | Female | 75 | 4.5493 | Equal variances assumed | .000 | .006 |
| | Male | 42 | 4.1429 | Equal variances not assumed | | .029 |

Pearson correlation coefficients (Pearson's r) were used to investigate the relationship between the level of information giving and recommendation giving behavior. The results of correlation analysis between two factor attributes are shown on Table 4.0. According to results, there is a moderate positive relationship ($r=.55$; $p<.05$) between information giving behavior and recommendation giving behavior of travel agency employees. H3 is supported here.

Table 4.0: Results of Pearson Correlation Analysis

| | Information | Recommendation |
|----------------|-------------|----------------|
| Information | 1 | |
| Recommendation | ,55** | 1 |

**Correlation is at a significance level of $p<.05$ (2-tailed).

The third section of the questionnaire was consisted of open ended questions about the recommendations that travel agency employees give tourism consumers. They give advices to consumers about hotels, destinations and cruises which they mostly experienced themselves. Secondly, they recommend the products and services which they get information through advertisements. Thirdly, front line employees of travel agencies recommend tourism products as per the advice from someone else such as friends, family or other consumers. Table 5.0 explains the detailed information about the recommendations made by travel agents.

Table 5.0: The Information Sources for the Products Recommended by Travel Agents

| | Sources | Frequency (n) | Percentage (%) |
|---------------------|--------------------------------|---------------|----------------|
| Hotels | I experienced myself | 54 | 56.3 |
| | Advertisements | 18 | 18.8 |
| | I got advice from someone else | 9 | 9.4 |
| | Other* | 15 | 15.6 |
| Destinations | I experienced myself | 65 | 62.5 |
| | Advertisements | 20 | 19.3 |
| | I got advice from someone else | 11 | 10.6 |
| | Other* | 8 | 7.7 |
| Cruises | I experienced myself | 25 | 48.5 |
| | Advertisements | 11 | 21.1 |
| | I got advice from someone else | 8 | 15.4 |
| | Other* | 8 | 15.4 |

* Other consists of the responses such as searching through the Internet, info travels organized by the company, through the official website of the company worked.

Travel agents recommend the hotels mostly located in Aegean and Mediterranean parts of Turkey. It is figured out from the responses taken from the question about destinations that travel agents suggests mostly Antalya, Bodrum, Marmaris in Turkey, and European Cities, Maldives, the Far East and the Balkans abroad. In addition, respondents indicated that they only offer cruise companies which their employers have agreement with.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to understand whether the front line employees of travel agencies are market mavens or not. Our research indicates that travel agents should be accepted as market mavens with their information and recommendation giving behavior about hotels, destinations and cruise tours. Employees working in travel agencies located in Izmir have product knowledge and market expertise. The conclusion of the study reveals that the travel agents are market mavens with their marketplace knowledge and information sharing behavior; however, they are unable to offer tailored services to their consumers due to their strict agreements with other tourism service providers.

Limitations and Future Research

Our study is limited in generalizability and has some shortcomings. According to the website of TURSAB (Association of Turkish Travel Agencies), total of 384 travel agencies are located in Izmir, however some of them were inaccessible due to various reasons such as closure, merging or address changes.

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Main Central European tourist destinations and their collaborative offer for people with disabilities

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Travel and tourism, to remain the world's largest and fastest growing industry, constantly has to face new challenges. One of them is tourism accessibility. Infrastructure that does not cater adequately for the needs of people with disabilities, including infants and the elderly, excludes many destinations from this promising market (UNESCAP, 2007).

Little research has been published so far on the subject of disability and tourism mutual relationship. While some important studies come from late 80s and 90s (Darcy 1998; Smith 1987), there have been some more recent ones as well (Eichhorn et al. 2008, Smith et al. 2013, Yau et al. 2004). The increased political and economic attention to the problem has been stimulated by the adoption of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in 2006, 30 Article of which asserts them the right to access all areas of cultural life including tourism. It was soon that the European Commission adopted a strategy to break down the barriers that prevent persons with disabilities from participating in society, which was complying with UN Convention (*European Disability Strategy 2010-2012*, 2010). Tourist organizations have been following the same path with the first Annex to General Assembly of the World Tourism Organization resolution added already in 1991, updated in 2005 in Dakar (*Accessible...2005*). So far, some accessible tourism special programs have been implemented, like the European Network for Accessible Tourism or OSSATE (One-Stop-Shop for Accessible Tourism in Europe) (Duda-Seifert and Zajączkowski 2011).

The aim of the research is the evaluation of the collaborative accessible tourism offer of Central European capitals: Prague, Budapest, Warsaw and Bratislava. Accessible tourism is understood here as the one that enables people with access requirements to function independently and with equity and dignity through the delivery of universally designed tourism products, services and environments (Darcy & Dickson 2009). However, although the definition above includes mobility, vision, hearing and cognitive dimensions of access, the authors decided to focus on the tourists with physical impairment, using wheelchairs, since that group displays very precise requirements. The demographics of people with disabilities proves that it is an interesting and profitable market (Chan 2010) with prospects to grow significantly in the nearest future (Yau et al. 2004), but still a disproportionately small number of people with disabilities participate fully in mainstream tourism (Darcy 1998). This is due to three types of barriers which include: environmental, interactive (social communication) and intrinsic ones (Smith 1987). When they are overcome, there is last factor, appearing to be the most effective immediate and indispensable solution for expanding tourism opportunities to disabled people (Darcy 1998; Eichhorn et al. 2008; Yau et al. 2004). This means that tourists with disabilities need to identify information on accessibility to scenic spots, toilets, hotel accommodation, and transportation (Yau et al. 2004). Lack of this information forces disabled tourists to either stay in the region where they know the standards or abandon the idea of vacationing altogether (Eichhorn et al. 2008). This is particularly the Internet which provides unique opportunities to disseminate and promote the information (Buhalis 2003, Eichhorn et al 2008). For above-mentioned reasons the authors decided to analyse the information concerning the physical accessibility of places constituting the tourist product of the selected cities in the first place, and, secondly, to use the data provided through Internet. Still, what the tourist with mobile impairment would search for is the concise information provided through appropriate tourism information sources. The researchers stress the importance of

specialised public bodies as appropriate mediums for reliable information dissemination (Cavinato and Cuckowich 1992). However, this information can also be provided by the group of tourism products providers. The question remains of the whole geographical area to be accessible, including routes and connections between the spots. Therefore, after the first phase of research considering individual products providers, the upper level of organisation is also studied, as a collaborative offer of the city on the market of accessible tourism. All the Internet sites will be studied in English because the offer is analysed as intended for international tourist. The number of international tourist arrivals for all four Visegrad Group countries, being considered in the text, is growing from year to year in all the countries (except for the Czech Republic which stagnates), but still the four countries give only the 7.2% of the European tourist arrivals in total (UNWTO 2015). The cities of the East Central European region attract large number of tourists eager to experience its architectural, archaeological and artistic values. The most visited cities are Budapest, Prague, Krakow, while some of the cities, like Bucharest, Belgrade and Warsaw or Sofia, due to their less aesthetic character are of less interest (Smith 2007).

The authors decided to take into consideration the first level – information displayed by the official website of every destination under research. Accessibility must be presented throughout the tourism chain, the links between all sites, services and activities must be well planned and tested (UNWTO, 2013). Seven elements of potential of tourism development for disabled people of each destination will be studied, divided into two main groups: tourism elements of each destination and the general approach of the city authorities as follows:

Tourism elements of each destination

The authors decided to analyse the information provided through Internet, as the most popular and easiest available source of tourist information. For majority of elements under the research the authors decided to use the website of TripAdvisor in the first place. It the world's largest travel site, making up the largest travel community in the world, reaching 340 million unique visitors monthly, 350 million reviews and opinions covering more than 6.5 million lodgings, restaurants, and attractions and operates in 48 markets worldwide (TripAdvisor, 2016). As a second source there were as well official websites of particular tourist bodies and facilities, as follows:

1. Tourist attractions:

- a. monuments – 10 monuments out of top 20⁵ sites and landmarks which play a vital role in tourist potential of the city, and concentrate tourist traffic, according to TripAdvisor,
- b. museums and galleries – top 10 museums and galleries, according to TripAdvisor and registered in the official registers of Museums: The National Institute for Museums and Public Collections (NIMOZ) and Contemporary Art Galleries in Poland; Czech Association of Museums and Galleries (AMG); Union of Museums in Slovakia; Hungarian Museums.

2. Modes of transport and stations:

- a. airports – all city airports were taken into consideration – as each V4 capital city offer one National Airport, except Warsaw, where two airports are located,
- b. main train station - as the one most important for tourism development, assuring the international accessibility for the city under research, secondly, it is also usually conveniently located close to the City Center of each destination,
- c. main bus station – as above,
- d. city public transportation – local transportation systems as a whole where taken into consideration, composed of: buses, trams and underground,
- e. water transportation – the whole system of water transportation as the means of local transport and tourist attraction,
- f. funicular – information about the availability for disabled travelers in Budapest and Prague.

3. Accommodation, food service and conventions:

- a. hotels & similar accommodation establishments – top 20 accommodation establishments according to TripAdvisor, however most of them are luxury and high standard hotels which is not the target group for disabled tourists, authors decided to research them as treated as trend setters in hospitality management,
- b. restaurants – top 20 restaurants according to TripAdvisor.

4. Cultural activities - one example from each evaluated city:

- a. most important music and performance venues.

5. Other tourism activities - one example from each evaluated city, as follows:

- a. zoo,
- b. botanical garden,
- c. national stadium,
- d. aqua park & baths.

The general approach of the city authorities will be evaluated based on:

1. Collaborative tourism destination management:

- a. tourism destination management bodies and administrations,
- b. tourism strategy: both on the city and district levels,
- c. collaborative projects using the EU and National funds for disabled people,
- d. package offer,
- e. guide offer.

2. Collaborative tourism information and advertising:

- a. website managed by the city,
- b. website managed by collaborating units,
- c. downloaded brochures, guides.

⁵ Just monuments proposed in TripAdvisor in the group: Sights and landmarks which correspond to the official register of National Monuments (Narodny Instytut Dziedzictwa in Poland; Národní památkový ústav in Czech Republic; Pamiatkový úrad Slovenskej republiky in Slovakia; Kulturális Örökségvédelmi Hivatal in Hungary) and some of the sights overlap each other, not all of them need information about their accessibility (like statues) – the authors' own interpretation of source in this case is essential.

The evaluation of the collaborative accessible tourism offer of Central European capitals for physically disabled, wheelchair users is based on the complex information regarding the data provided through Internet. The evaluation will lead to more detailed and narrow analysis in the future. The methodology is based on the point range method to attribute points to particular element analysis with the following scale:

- 0 – no information about accessibility for disabled travelers,
- 1 – information dedicated for disabled travelers.

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Where have all the people gone? Strategies for rural redevelopment in an aging society

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It is well known that many industrial and post-industrial societies have birth rates that are much lower than replacement value, and that the population is currently only being maintained by increasing life expectancy among the elderly. Japan is an extreme example of such a case, with the longest life expectancy in the world, especially among women, and also one of the lowest birthrates. In this paper, we discuss the implications of these trends for rural and regional development, given that much of the depopulation is disproportionately located outside the major urban regions of Japan, mostly concentrated along the shinkansen routes from Sendai in Tohoku to Kagoshima in Kyushu, and especially in Kanto, Kansai and Chubu.

The changing profile of the Japanese population

Japanese population data for the period 1950-2000 and projections for 2050 show dramatically the change to an ageing society. The 1950 population pyramid is a real pyramid, typical of developing countries with high birth rates, apart from two features: the number of people surviving past the age of 55, and the dip in the male life expectancy due to the Second World War. However, the immediate post-war period was one of relatively high fertility, with the baby boom underway, and families at the time probably having a modal four or five children. As economic growth took off in the 1960s, this started to change, with the birth rate eventually declining below the replacement rate.

Thus, by the end of the 20th century, the pyramid of the 1950s had turned into something like an apple core, eaten around the middle. The remnants of the previous pyramid could be seen in the generation from 50 years old onwards, as could the rapid decline in the birthrate which took place as a result of the demographic transition during the period of high-speed growth. Population growth took off once again in the early 1970s, as the baby-boom generation itself started to reproduce – but was followed by a further steady decline in the birthrate, with the pyramid tapering towards its base.

By 2050, the Japanese population pyramid will look more like a carrot, with survivors from earlier periods of high fertility concentrated in the upper age groups. Under present trends, women over 70 will be the largest age group, while an increasing number of people will be living into their 90s, or even over 100. Meanwhile, the size of the population will rapidly decline if there is no program of immigration, from the present size of over 120 million to 80 million. This would allow everyone to be accommodated in the present housing stock in the major cities along the shinkansen express train routes.

Current trends

So what do these changes imply for the population distribution within Japan and the future of the rural areas? Current trends can be summarized as follows:

(a) There is a rapid decline in population in many areas of the country, especially in Tohoku and other areas outside the main urban regions of Kanto, Kansai and Chubu.

(b) As a result, services such as education are increasingly collapsing in many areas, as children vanish and schools are amalgamated. There is good evidence of this happening e.g. in Akita, Niigata etc.

(c) As the rural population declines, those that remain are increasingly elderly, as the younger members of society move out to the cities.

(d) It is increasingly difficult for many men to find wives willing to move to the rural areas with them, and so there is also a movement of foreign brides into these areas, not only from the Philippines (the most famous case) but also further afield. This is a trend to be seen in other parts of East Asia as well, in e.g. Korea and Taiwan.

(e) In extreme cases, smaller villages have become completely depopulated, and the houses abandoned. The only signs of life in these places are the flowers which appear on the tombs on memorial occasions.

(f) As the population shrinks, so do revenues from central government, so that the whole economic base and infrastructure of rural regions begins to decline.

(g) Many communities have tried to reverse the trend through rural rebranding and development programs, such as the home town campaign of the late 1980s, in which communities were given sums of money to create or strengthen their local identities.

(h) As communities have gone into decline, so nature has started to take over. A particular problem noted in the literature is the appearance of (large) wild animals in inconvenient places as the rural economy collapses, reducing security and accelerating the process of depopulation.

Reversing the trends

What strategies are available to rural areas to lure back both inhabitants and economic activity? Here we might draw on some insights from Europe, many areas of which have been subject to a similar process of depopulation since the early 20th century.

(a) Revival of agriculture and local products for niche markets. This usually involves the development of new markets and new investment. Possible parallels include the revival of the wine industry in southern France in the late 20th century, and the development of the whisky tour as a tourist attraction in Scotland.

(b) Sales of rural housing to a recreational/commuting/second homes market. In the UK, most of the rural housing stock close to large towns and cities has been bought up by middle-class migrants, while houses in the more remote rural areas have become holiday homes. Does rural Japan have similar potential?

(c) Abandonment to wilderness. In some of the national and regional parks in Southern France, population densities used to be much greater, as is shown by the existence of old farming terraces in the undergrowth of the "unspoiled" natural environment.

(d) Creation of new tourist attractions with a spillover effect on the surrounding region. A major European example here is the creation of a new resort in what was previously wasteland, near the ancient town of Agde on the southern coast of France, now one of the largest leisure complexes in Europe.

This gives us a list of four basic strategies:

- (a) Exploit local products as the basis of tourism
- (b) Exploit the local housing stock to attract new settlers, either permanent, or seasonal, as weekend or vacation homes
- (c) Exploit the local wilderness for eco-tourism or
- (d) Establish a tourism magnet in the region which will have multiplier effects throughout the region.

How would these apply to Japan?

One difference between Japan and some of the major tourist countries in Europe like Italy and France is that the tourist industry is largely domestic – the number of visitors from outside has been comparatively limited. So the question is how to devise strategies that would appeal to a domestic market.

(a) The exploitation of local products in Japan is well advanced – though how far this is enough to stimulate domestic tourism is an interesting question. Many of the products produced in particular areas, such as sake or shochu (spirits made out of sweet potatoes or other starchy crops), are not restricted to those areas, even though the quality may be very high. The question is how to rebrand and internationalize these products. Japanese whiskey has been increasingly successful in this regard.

(b) Japanese rural housing is a largely unused resource, given the Japanese preference for rebuilding rather than refurbishing in the housing market. Many areas have an increasing supply of rural accommodation to market, and a dense road and rail network servicing them. It is also possible that in future, rural living may be increasingly attractive to urban dwellers in Japan, just as it has in many of the commuting areas in parts of Europe.

(c) Under present projections, it is likely that a considerable part of Japan will be abandoned to the wild by the mid-21st century, rather like parts of southern France. This may be good for ecotourism, with the establishment of an increasing number of regional and national parks. The question is how to turn this into an industry with a significant revenue stream remains problematic. It may be good for providers of bed & breakfast accommodation, small restaurants, and shops selling equipment for outdoors sports. Fishing is already popular, and could expand, especially if some of the rivers which were dammed in the 20th century could be restored to a more natural condition. So a strategy similar to the Highlands of Scotland might eventually be possible – with a mixture of hunting, fishing, eco-tourism, hiking and consumption of local alcoholic products as the basis of a tourism industry in areas the summer, combined with winter sports and hot spring tourism in the winter.

(d) The development of a large-scale resort area which could act as a magnet with multiplier effects for the surrounding region is also a complex one. The success of the southern France seaside resorts depends on their temperatures being warmer than those of northern Europe, but perhaps the only area of Japan with a sufficiently large temperature difference would be Okinawa. Despite its surfing potential and relatively warm climate, even Miyazaki has not really developed as an international surfing destination. Other large scale developments, such as casinos or large-scale arts festivals would be an alternative.

The Japanese future

So the future organization of Japan might be as follows:

- (a) The population will be increasingly concentrated in the large cities as the population falls.

(b) It is possible that as the mid-20th century housing stock is replaced, individual houses in the cities coupled with second houses in the countryside for weekends or vacations or as a basis for commuting could become more popular. It is most likely that the commuting zones would be around the present large cities. So if there is going to be the kind of population needed to maintain satoyama, the traditional rural landscape, as an historically important agricultural system, it will be in these peri-metropolitan regions.

(c) Further out from the large cities, the reversion to wilderness is far more likely. This might produce increasing interest in eco-tourism, and could be marketed as opportunities for hunting or (more likely) fishing. But without major recreational developments, this is unlikely to provide the basis for regional development or large-scale employment.

(d) Whether a major development could be made in any part of rural Japan which would transform the regional economy is an interesting question. Casinos, arts festivals, conventions and major sporting events have become ways in which international cities now compete in the world market. One could imagine, to take one random example, a Kagoshima international festival, coupled with the volcano experience, the shochu Tour, and a casino located in a major onsen in the area providing a package of attractions which would both attract Asian high-spending tourists, and have a transformative effect on the economy of southern Kyushu. An alternative might be investment by a major educational institution – as Stanford has transformed Silicon Valley. But thinking about specific rural sectors and their maintenance also means thinking about the rest of the rural economy which might support them, together with the metropolitan housing market and the population of Japan as a whole. This kind of thinking is perhaps best done at a regional level, and would require major investments on the part of regional and prefectural governments and private capital, as well as innovation and entrepreneurial flair.

The influence of maintenance culture in the sustainability of tourism attractions in Obudu Mountain Resort

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Introduction

The desire for pleasure, comfort ability and privacy is one of the essences of man by creation and tourism provides an avenue to meet these needs, tourism is considered individualistic because of its increasing demand (Ojo, Odediran, Adeyinka and Oparinde, 2011). Tourism can be defined as the temporary movement of people from their normal place of abode to another for leisure, pleasure or business activities, staying for not less than 24hours or more than 365days. Nigeria has huge tourism potentials especially given its natural and diversified landscapes and mountains (Ayeni and Ebohon 2012). It is an indisputable fact that for the development of tourism to be successful, it must be planned and managed responsibly and sustainably (Puczko & Ratz 2000; De Oliveira 2003; Southgate & Sharpley 2002).

Maintenance is a combination of actions carried out to retain an item/machine equipment/system/plant in Order to restore if to an acceptable working condition. Frey & George (2010) suggested that whereas responsible and sustainable tourism should not be used interchangeably, the approaches all have the common objective of minimizing negative social, economic and environmental impacts, whilst maximizing the positive effects of tourism development. To this end, sustainable tourism signifies a condition of tourism based on the principles of sustainable development, taking “full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts” and addressing the needs of stakeholders (Waligo et al.2012). Shaelal, (2004); opined that service quality by its very nature is an elusive, indistinct and abstract concept because consumers do not really articulate their requirements. Quality in tourism is an important factor and ultimately dictates the success of the tourism business (Eda 2003).

Objectives of study:

The major objective of this study was to ascertain the influence of maintenance culture in the sustainability of tourism attractions at Obudu mountain resort.

Specifically the objective includes:-

1. Identified the various attractions at the resort
2. Identified the maintenance culture practices in place at Obudu mountain resort.
3. Ascertained the level of tourist patronage in the study area
4. Determined the role of maintenance culture in level of patronage
5. Verified ways of improving the sustainability of the destination through improved maintenance in the level of patronage.

Research Questions

The following questions were raised in the course of this study and were used in forming the research questionnaire

1. What are the various attractions in Obudu mountain resort?
2. What is the maintenance culture practice at the study area?
3. What is the level of tourist patronage in the study area?
4. What is the role of maintenance culture in the level of patronage at the study area?
5. What are the ways through which sustainability of the destination will be improved so as to increase the level of patronage?

Methodology

Area for the Study: This study was carried out at Obudu mountain resort in Cross River State. The state of Cross River is located on longitude 5°45'N and latitude of 8°30'N. The state was created on the 27th of May 1967 and has an area of 20,156km squared (7,782 square mile) and a density of 93km squared (240 square mile).

Research Design: The study adopted a survey research design, with the use of questionnaire and interview schedule to obtain information from the host communities of the tourism destination. Survey research design was used for the study because it requires the use of questionnaires and interviews (a procedure that involves asking questions from respondents) to gather information about people and their thoughts and perception about the research topic.

Population for the Study: The population for the study consisted of guests lodging in the resort and the management of the resort as at the time of this study. The population of this study, however, consisted of two hundred and fifty (250) respondents.

Sample/Sampling Technique: The sample size was structured on two population size, determined using the Taro Yamane formula ascertain the sample size of the both tourists and staff used for the study. The sample size for the tourists was 122, while the sample size for the staffs and management was calculated as 60; a total of 182 questionnaire was administered to the respondents found at the resort.

Instrument for Data Collection: The instrument used in carrying out this study was questionnaire and personal oral interview schedule. The personal interview was verbally communicated between the researcher and the respondents, while the questionnaire was structured into five sections

Findings

The study revealed the following various tourism attractions at Obudu mountain resort. Holloway (2006) rightly pointed out that it is generally the attraction that prompted the tourists to travel. The maintenance strategy practiced at Obudu mountain resort was corrective maintenance and preventive maintenance. The frequency with which the above maintenance strategies were carried out at the resort. 6 monthly basis is considered as the rate on which the maintenance strategies are being carried out; just as Horner et al. (1997) Ojo, et al. (2011); observed that in the last decades, maintenance strategies evolved with the aim of carrying out as little maintenance as possible and as infrequently as possible while at the same time preserving the availability of company asset. The results also revealed that the following factors- lack of funds, no training and education, inadequate staffs, no motivation, bad policy system and no reward and recognition; as the factors that affect the implementation of the mentioned maintenance strategies. Even though, the development of

maintenance culture is difficult and definitely needs some time, when the determinant factors for the development of maintenance culture are implemented it will succeed without fail. Suwaibatul Islamiah Abdullah Sania, Abdul Hakim Mohammeda, Mohd Saidin Misnanb, Mariah Awang; (2012). The overall mean of 3.3 which was higher than the decision rule which states that any mean response above 3.0 should be accepted. The percentage of the level of tourist patronage at the resort in a month; with 51 – 70% having the highest respondents, and Studies by Key and Pillai, (2006); Jenny, (2001) and Ashley, (2000), reveals that domestic tourists, record more visits to the tourist destination than international tourists based on factors like; distance, climate, language, culture and security. The facilities that were used more often by tourists were cable cars, canopy walk way, the state-of-the-art swimming pool and the grotto were the most visited attractions and facilities used at the resort. The finding showed that the level of service at Obudu mountain resort was on an average scale. Most failed facilities and ill- maintained tourist attractions contributed to guest experiencing an average service quality and with this quality of service, sustainability is not assured. About 64% of tourists would like to visit the resort once more while 36% are not coming again.

Conclusion

Maintenance is very important to an organization today; maintenance culture is very necessary not only to maintain continuous productivity of facilities and infrastructures, but to also minimize maintenance cost and to ensure a safe environment. Therefore, maintenance culture needs to be implemented by the tourism industries to increase the quality of maintenance work. Maintenance culture is unique for each organization, for that reason, the maintenance in the tourism organization needs to be evolved to meet the changing in the tourism market demand and trends. However, there are inadequate studies from maintenance culture perspective (Oedewald and Reimann, 2004). Studies related to maintenance usually focuses on maintenance strategies, information and technology, whilst there are few studies discussing about cultural maintenance. In other words, most other industrial sectors have literatures on maintenance and strategies of achieving them. But, tourism sector can only boast of very few literature studies on maintenance; Hence, this research. The element of maintenance culture is usually ignored by the tourism sector. The objectives of this paper were discussed for the conceptual framework for developing maintenance culture for all parties involved in maintenance management of tourism destinations.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following recommendations were made-;

- Due to the eco sensitivity of ecological habitats, of which the mountain resort falls among; the state government should endeavor and make appropriate funding for the maintenance and upkeep of the facilities and attractions used by tourists.
- The comfortability of tourists during visits is very essential and can be achieved through a well maintained facilities and infrastructures in terms of good accommodation, feeding, serene environment and reputable smart attendants which can encourage further visits and attract others. Therefore, maintenance activities should be of paramount importance and there should be a steady frequency for such activities.
- There should be an awareness campaign on the involvement of the private sector initiatives and public investors as a means of increasing maintenance cost for improved quality of service and reliability of tourist facilities and attraction.

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Food, art and tourism as a boost for innovation: successful experiences from Italy

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Introduction

Food tourism has grown considerably in recent years and has become one of the most dynamic and creative part of tourism (UNWTO, 2012;). Gastronomy is a key part of all cultures and nowadays plays an important role in tourism allowing visitors to access cultural and historical heritage. Its increasing popularity and attractiveness is the result of the growth of gastronomic offerings based on high-quality products and the development of innovative and creative food tourism experiences (Richards, 2011; Dodd, 2012; Getz et al., 2014). Traditional food experiences are being implemented with more innovative and creative elements in order to increase the quality of visitor experience. Food and wine museums, art exhibition in wineries, gastronomic events and festivals are some examples of more appealing products.

Italy has always been internationally recognised as a gastronomic tourist destination thanks to the highest number of EU-recognised certifications for its food and drink products and a wide range of traditional local cuisine. The current popularity of food tourism has led an increasing number of producers to develop projects that integrate food, art and tourism; such activities can provide benefits to the producers and also to the local economy; moreover, they can stimulate innovation and reinforce the linkages between different sectors.

Literature Review

Since the “Experience Economy” has developed (Pine and Gilmore, 1999), tourists have no longer required basic services but have been increasingly searching for something new and concerned with consuming culture and creativity of the places they’re visiting. The process of product development has therefore shift toward co-creation, and producers work together with consumers to create moments of contact and meaningful-experience settings (Boswijk, et al., 2005). However, a careful balance should be found between innovation and authenticity in order to meet new tourists’ needs and increase their satisfaction.

As stated by Richards (2012), food can provide a basis for tourism experiences developing the meal experience, linking culture and tourism, producing distinctive foods, developing the critical infrastructure for food production and consumption and supporting local culture. In this process gastronomy can be considered a fertile breeding ground for “creative tourism” (Richards and Raymond, 2000) because it allows visitors to create rather than consume.

Food and drink can provide add value to tourist experiences in several ways. Most popular gastronomic tourist products are, for example, unique and memorable dining experiences in local restaurants or at food trucks, farmers markets, agricultural fairs, food&beverage events and festivals, visits to wineries, breweries or distilleries, gastronomic and wine routes, cooking classes, ... (World Food Travel Association, 2016). Traditional experiences are often limited to visit and tastings and they can be augmented in order to create more appealing products (Getz, 2000). For example, a list of potential developments for winery experiences has been suggested by Jaffe and Pasternak (2004): winery as a museum, art gallery and monument to taste and sophistication; winery as a fun-filled event venue; wine estate

destination; family home and business, at which all visitors are personal guests; winery as a retail outlet; winery as an educational institution; winery as living history; cultural routes.

Combining traditional and non-traditional elements can help to create a link between innovation and authenticity and stimulate a sustainable development of food tourism not only based on the preservation of the past but also the creation of future (Richards, 2002). New augmented food experiences represent a way to improve the quality of visitor experience as well as to widen food experiences and market products.

Aims and Methodology

This paper aims at providing an overview of successful experiences combining food, wine and art in Italy in order to identify areas and modalities through which they stimulate innovation in the agricultural sector, involve the consumer in co-creation and create links between global and local cultures and narratives around food.

The experiences have been categorized into 6 types: 1) Contemporary art exhibitions and modern-designed wine cellars; 2) Performing arts events; 3) Labels and packaging designed by artists; 4) Cultural awards; 5) Restoration and enhancement of cultural heritage; 6) Food and wine museums.

To meet the objective of the study a two-stage research study has been proposed. An online research has been conducted to identify the experiences with the better ranking in the search engines and to assess their main characteristics. The number of experiences collected is 219. This phase has provided the context for the second stage of the research. Stage 2 consists of a survey in order to understand motivations and results of the experiences. The number of responses collected is 79 (36%).

According to the objectives of the paper, each experience has been analysed focusing on: a) which are the most common food and art experiences b) motivations, results, characteristics and the level of innovation in terms of distinctiveness, project ideas and public engagement activities; c) cultural and artistic values and their relationship with the territory.

Results and discussion

Although a representative sample of Italian experiences was not conducted, meaning that the data reported in this study are not representative of the Italian context, the study allow a better understanding of a key market segment to which researchers devoted a little attention in the past.

The main results can be summarized as follows:

- The most common experiences in Italy are food and wine museums (45%), performing arts events organized or sponsored by private entrepreneurs (23%) and contemporary art exhibitions in agricultural companies (13%). Other initiatives tend to be less popular.
- Most of the experiences considered have been undertaken by wine producers (59%) from Northern Italy. Piedmont, Veneto, Tuscany, Emilia Romagna and Lombardy encompass more than half of experiences. We noticed a larger interest and attitude towards cultural initiatives among these producers, and this fact may be linked with both internal and external factors, such as the propensity to quality (61% of agricultural producers obtained EU quality labelling schemes), the presence on international markets and a competitive territorial system.

- Entrepreneurs are mainly motivated by their own personal passion for culture and arts and they often succeeded in transforming culture into successful experiences. Passion represents the main reason for the respondents of the categories “contemporary art exhibitions and modern-designed wine cellars” (87%), “performing arts events” (75%) and “Labels and packaging designed by artists” (60%). Economic motivations tend to be less important.
- Respondents express a high level of satisfaction with the results obtained, meaning that investing in food, culture and arts helps to improve the economic competitiveness of the company. The level tends to be higher among respondents who have undertaken contemporary art exhibitions (100%) and projects of modern-designed wine cellars (100%).
- A recurrent element is the sustainability over time: such initiatives are not sporadic but are often taken on regular basis. The capacity to ensure stability and continuity should mean that such experiences have been undertaken in order to meet individual needs and desires (as previously mentioned). Entrepreneurs were able to develop mid-term strategies paying less attention to immediate profit.

Conclusions

The development of interactive and creative food experiences has become important in many regions. Traditional experiences such as tasting and visits to local producers allow to meet the desire of authenticity expressed by tourists but lacks of innovation and high level of engagement. Going beyond this vision allow developing initiatives that combine several elements, especially food, art, culture and tourism.

This paper shows that Italy is a fertile breeding ground for creative food experiences. There is a large variety of successful initiatives combining art, food and tourism, such as food and wine museums, art exhibitions, gastronomic events and festivals, cultural awards, ... And they are often undertaken by local entrepreneurs, especially wine producers, for the purpose of following their personal passion.

Investing in creative cultural activities does not often provide immediate economic benefits but the high level of satisfaction suggests that entrepreneurs seem to have understood the potentialities for the improvement of their activities and their attractiveness, also towards tourists.

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Tourists' dances on urban stage - measure and management of tourist flows

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Introduction:

In previous studies of tourists' flows in cities one can designate two scales of analysis. The first, a macro scale analysis concerns rather commonly performed measurements over a long period of time (year, quarter). The primary measure in this approach is the number of tourists estimated on the basis of the number of overnight stays, number of visitors to museums, galleries, parks, etc., number of events participants, and the average amount spent per trip. Such studies are commonly used to manage tourism development in urban areas. However, this kind of statistical aggregate data analysis eliminates information concerning the patterns of spatial behaviour of individual tourists in the city.

The second approach less frequently applied focuses on micro-scale observations, which follow daily activities of tourists in urban areas (tourists' daily routine). That kind of approach is quite rarely used. Thus, in the project we propose such a micro-level detailed study, which will enable to learn and understand tourists' activities in urban space.

Inspirations:

Motion and movement are essential characteristics of the tourists' behaviour in the city. Tourists move between attractions. A city could be compared to a scene where a daily spectacle is going on and tourists, alongside with the residents and other newcomers, take part in it. The displacement of tourists, their movement in space resembles, metaphorically speaking, a dance. Tourists, like dancers, move to create a daily spectacle. Using the metaphor of a dance one can describe the behaviour of tourists in urban space using measurable indicators. Taking into consideration the parameters describing a dance, such as: performers, path (line) of the motion, rhythm, pace, mood, emotions, steps, style, social conventions, scenery, atmosphere of the place, and audience one can select a few of them, which will describe and measure tourists' behaviour in urban space.

Project concept - description:

The proposed research concept comprises 3 types of analyses that allow to register tourists' behaviour in urban space (tourists' daily routine) and inhabitants' behaviour in urban space (residents' daily routine). Collected data will then provide the basis for the comparison of how these two groups exploit urban areas.

The following types of analyses are proposed:

- A. Quantitative analysis of tourists' behaviour (TOURISTS' SMART DIARY)**
- B. Qualitative analysis of tourists' behaviour (TOURISTS' PERSONAL ITINERARY)**
- C. Quantitative analysis of residents' behaviour (RESIDENTS' SMART DIARY)**

which will be described in detail below.

A. Quantitative analysis of tourists' behaviour – TOURISTS' SMART DIARY

The basic parameter of measuring the mobility of tourists would be the way, which they cover during the day in visited city. That route (or trail) registers places visited by tourists in the city and thus captures the way of spending time .

One can specify the parameters describing the tourists' routes (tourists' trails), such as:

- the length/distance (km)
- transition time (hours)
- number of places visited
- categories of places they visit (cafés, museums, parks, stores, talking in the street, etc.)
- time spent in different places (hours)
- number of segments along the entire route (trail between successive places of detention)
- length of individual sections (km)
- transition time in individual sections (km)
- time of the day,
- day of the week (weekdays, holidays,) and time of year (month)
- travelling alone or accompanied
- expenses incurred by tourists in these places (optional)
- means of transport.

On the basis of these data we can describe in details a tourist daily routine as well as identify areas, which visited in the city (location, features etc.)

Tools and techniques:

To collect the above mentioned data we propose to develop a modern tailor-made mobile application for smart phones: "TOURIST'S SMART DIARY" (available for all operating systems i.e. Android, iOIS, WindowsPhone etc.). The proposed method of collecting and analyzing data belongs to detailed quantitative approaches. Path registered by every tourist is measurable and allows to aggregate the data. As a result, we can obtain an entire set of characteristics for tourists who will take part in the research. The creation of a generalized image of tourists' behaviour during the day, for a specific day of the week, the average length of the route, the average number of sections covered, the average time and speed of the translocations, and optionally average expenses, etc.

Additionally, the set of collected data will help us to draw a pattern of how city space is used. Thanks to gathered information circadian rhythm of visited areas will be shown. Urban areas in the context of tourist movement can also be described by the following parameters :

- traffic volume of tourists at certain times and places ,
- intensity of spending in different places (optionally).

On this basis, it is possible to classify the areas of the city according to the criteria: profitability, the use at different times of the day (space daytime, night, round the clock) the intensity of use (high, medium, low, not used).

B. Qualitative analysis of the behaviour of tourists – TOURIST'S PERSONAL ITINERARY

Previously we appealed to the dance as a metaphor for the way, in which tourists move around the city. Some elements of dance are also difficult to measure and to include them in the quantitative analysis. These include: mood, emotions, social conventions, atmosphere of the place. Despite the fact that they do not have a precise measure, they are very important if we wish to understand the essence of dance. Tourist behaviour in this context, shows a certain similarity, certain analogies. Qualitative elements of it are difficult to measure but very important for understanding tourist behaviour in cities and tourist's daily routine there.

In order to register emotions and impressions it is necessary for visitors – tourists to save them in a way which allow analysis. We propose taking notes about tourists' impressions and observations on visited places to keep the record of their everyday translocations according to measurable parameters. Such a subjective form of presentation of the day's trail can be called an ITINERARY. Tourists using it should show impressions, emotions, feelings, opinions about visited parts of the city. Tourists share descriptions of their own, authentic experience. Emotional information collected this way or another cannot be aggregated. However, the picture presented in itineraries city is priceless. We receive an important collection of individual data on different parts of the city. We also learn about tourists impressions from meetings with the residents. Thanks to itineraries we can also learn how tourists assess the quality of purchased goods and services, what is their impression of the places which they have visited.

Tools and techniques:

Qualitative studies will be conducted based on the itineraries recorded on the social media sites (Facebook, Instagram, etc.) of the visited places. In prepared domains/applications tourists who have registered their daily path, will provide the account of the passing day they have passed (what was important, whether the place is worth recommending to return or not). It should be called a "TOURIST'S PERSONAL ITINERARY". Each tourist who has registered his/her impressions acquires access to other itineraries posted on those websites. The result is a subjective, but very interesting, picture of how visitors perceive the city and its individual areas. One can get a subjective, but to a certain extent generalized image of the city, characteristic elements of its atmosphere, the mood in specific places and emotions experienced during the visit. You can say that what you cannot measure must be experienced.

Selection of the research sample:

An important issue is the representativeness of the sample. In both cases, i.e. TOURIST'S SMART DIARY and TOURIST'S ITINERARY research sample should be representative, including tourists spending the night in a variety of accommodation facilities. We should also consider guests visiting their relatives and friends living in the city. The hosts of respective establishments should inform about conducted research, provide information about the applications and encourage visitors to download them and use actively. Local authorities and institutions dealing with tourism will benefit from well-conducted studies and the results obtained. Information about the behaviour of tourists gathered in this way can be used to improve the tourist products offered. And finally it should help to maximize the derived profits

C. Quantitative analysis of residents' everyday activities – RESIDENT'S SMART DIARY

Returning again to the metaphor of a dance, it is worth to mention that events on the scene are watched by the audience. Dancers and spectators come together and enter into various relationships. If we consider the behaviour of tourists and residents one can notice some similarities and analogies. Daily activity of the inhabitants of the city (their daily routine) is an important element influencing the behaviour of tourists in urban space. These interactions can be friendly, neutral, professional, or hostile. On this basis we are able to designate tourist areas according to the type of interaction between tourists and locals.

Tools and techniques:

The measurement of a daily path (daily routine) of inhabitants of urban areas will be conducted also with the use of tailor-made mobile application for smart phones i.e. RESIDENT'S SMART DIARY. People will download the application and then they will register their daily activities from the moment they have left home until the moment they have returned. They will be marking places where they are and amount of time they spend there.

This quantitative approach allows to collect information concerning residents movement in the city, which will supply us with the following data:

- length of the residents daily path ;
- location and time [of work, education, shopping, meetings, visits, etc.).
- way of movement, its cost and time spent.

We primarily wish to identify areas for meetings and spaces used jointly by locals and tourists. The collected data on the daily path of life of the inhabitants of the city may be aggregated. Thus, it will help to determine the areas and hours of intensive use of urban space by the residents. We can then compare them with the areas frequented by tourists in the city and on that basis indicate locations of potential conflicts between these two groups of urban space users.

Selection of the research sample:

The conducted study should be representative as our aim is to obtain valid results. The selection of residents involved should be done according to location where they live. Diversification of the residential environment is the key to identify the daily routine of city inhabitants, which depends on the functional structure as well as the management of urban space.

The result of the project: synthetic picture of tourist urban space

The three proposed empirical approaches to the analysis of the tourists' behaviour in urban space : TOURIST'S SMART DIARY, TOURIST'S PERSONAL ITINERARY, RESIDENT'S SMART DIARY should diagnose the use of tourist areas in the city. Data collected with the help of the proposed tools allow to formulate definitive conclusions concerning results obtained from the records of the daily activities of visitors and residents.

They will be complemented by personalized knowledge on tourist perception of visited places to show the areas, which induce similar emotional states among tourists (see model above). Personal experience of tourists will help to construct maps of the areas that arouse similar emotions (joyful places, gloomy places, indifferent places, dangerous places, etc.). The results can also be used to map the intensity of the use of the city by locals and tourists at different times of the day and the week. That type of information is necessary to optimize the management of tourism in the city. Thanks to it we learn about places where relationships between the hosts and visitors are positive. It will help to eliminate potential conflicts between the locals and tourists in cities.

Ruining / demolition and regeneration of tourist space

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Tourist space develops as a result of multiple activities aimed at meeting a variety of tourists' needs. Being a form of tourist environment management it reflects ways of spending leisure time and, as such, it naturally changes over time. Evolutionary and cyclical development is typical of tourist space. Since the 1980s considerations over tourism area life cycle have been the subject matter of numerous studies undertaken all over the world (Agarwal, Shaw, 2007, Cooper 2005, Smith, Richards 2012, Butler 1980, 2006, Boniface, Cooper 2001, Harrisom 2001, Ryan 2003, Johnson 2001 et al.). Most studies conducted so far suggest that changes are usually progressive in their nature (new type of use is a more complex, improved form compared to the previous one). Analysis of tourism area life cycle (TALC) in various countries shows how universally popular tourist destinations sink into oblivion, equipment shows signs of wear and tear, tourist assets lose the power of attraction or fade away leading to the drop in the number of visitors and producing negative economic effects to a specific area. Against this background, we can discuss demolition of tourist space.

Changing human needs and evolving tourists' behaviour patterns mirror directly in the ways tourist space is managed and used. Besides, components of tourist space, such as accommodation establishments, restaurants and bars and other facilities used by tourists show signs of wear and tear, get damaged and do not meet expectations of visitors as to how they wish to spend their leisure time. Two phenomena overlapping in time: ageing structures and changes in tourists' preferences produce a situation where the number of visitors dramatically decreases, which always leads to economic crisis. Visitors preferences depend on their personal characteristics but also on many other factors of political, economic, cultural and social nature indirectly connected with the tourist area. The abovementioned aspects that condition the use of tourist space often result in degradation of respective areas, economic crisis, demolition of existing structures and in the call for rather difficult intervention action.

This paper seeks to analyse selected cases of degradation leading to the demolition of tourist space and to discuss remedy actions that were undertaken paying special attention to regeneration.

Degradation shall mean spontaneous, unplanned, uncontrolled significant reduction in value (wear and tear) of physical structures (establishments, facilities) within tourist space and damage or disruption of stable social relations among investors, tourists and local communities. Degradation is caused by: changing users' needs and related changes in development patterns, as well as political, social and economic transformations in closer or more distant surroundings of the area in question. Unfavourable changes caused by tourism that we observe in local communities represent a specific form of degradation in tourist space. They are due primarily to the discrepancy between the expectations of tourist investors' (in particular big hotel chains, air carriers, etc.) and local communities. The first ones see the area as a part of space where they invest in accordance with current expectations of their clients and where they expect profit in proportion to the outlays. The second ones are usually not involved in the planning phase, have limited impact upon such activities and often do not share the benefits but directly experience losses. Thus, they feel ignored and abused, which in a longer time perspective may instigate frustration or even aggression vis-a-vis visitors. Under such circumstances, degradation consists in damaging

friendly social-cultural and economic relations based on the mutuality of benefits that should develop in tourist space between local residents and visitors.

Degradation of tourist space leads to **demolition** meaning damaging the existing structures that takes place in physical, economic, social and cultural planes.

Even though degradation and demolition of tourist space are constant elements of its history, they acquired new dimension and meaning with the emergence of mass tourism in the 20th century. Origins of degradation observed in various actively used tourist spaces differ, similarly to its course, intensity and effects that lead to demolition. In general, reasons for degradation in a tourist space can be classified into the following several categories:

- wear and tear of structures and their incompatibility with continuously and rapidly changing users' needs (including insufficient care for its maintenance and management),
- reduction of assets caused by improper use and overexploitation or purposeful damage,
- changes in the expectations of tourists when it comes to holiday patterns and leisure time activities,
- incompatibility of tourist services culture and visitors' expectations,
- change in social profile of users (elimination of some social groups or their decreasing relevance, emergence of new groups previously absent from the market),
- fierce competition among tourist areas, especially when new destinations that offer similar characteristics of natural environment are better developed, offer more interesting attractions and are better accessible with means of transport from areas of high tourist demand,
- wrong decisions made at various levels (local, regional or national) in the area of spatial management and planning tourist space,
- political situation in the immediate vicinity of the area, lack of safety among visitors (military conflicts, threats of terrorist attacks, social conflicts, unstable economic and political situation) caused by local and global circumstances,
- natural disasters (likelihood of extreme weather conditions: hurricanes, floods, earthquakes, volcano eruptions, etc., also the presence of dangerous animals or plants),
- quality of local natural environment (danger of environmental disasters),
- other threats and incidental factors that are little predictable (dangerous diseases difficult to cure, food poisoning, forest fires, etc.),
- negative (justified or stereotypical) image of the destination in the tourist demand area.

Importance of the above factors varies but each case of tourist space degradation is the outcome of conditions and circumstances that should be analysed on a case-by-case basis. Clearly, similarities in types of facilities and the use of area, political and cultural contexts, geographical location of tourist space help demonstrate certain similarities in their fate, which have already produced or contribute to degradation. However, apparently the identification of similarities in reasons for degradation in different locations does not translate directly into general decision-making practice concerning choices of activities that mitigate negative impacts. Demolition of tourist space as an outcome of degradation is increasingly more often identified in different locations across the world.

Although any type of degradation is unfavourable to the area where it takes place, correct identification of its causes is vital to mitigate the effects, i.e. to be able to apply various remedy scenarios. The most frequently observed activities include: modernisation and diversification of forms of tourist management, improved offer of leisure time attractions in a given destination, new image of an area based on assets different from the previous ones

and restoring tourists' interest that may bring repeated visits. These activities focus primarily on the improvement of components that build up tourist product anew in a degraded area, which, unfortunately, not always produces expected effects making the situation even more complex. (Boujrouf, Tebbaa 2011, Dewailly Johnson, Lewis 2007, Weaver 2012, Smith, Richards 2012, Kaczmarek 2006) .

The second part includes the concept of regeneration as remedy for degraded areas in tourist space, where demolition has taken place. **Regeneration** means a sequence of planned actions aimed at economic recovery, change of spatial and functional structure in degraded areas, which should ensure economic and social stabilisation. Each regeneration has got spatial, social, economic and cultural dimension. Space decision-makers, i.e. persons and institutions who take decisions are important components in planning regeneration of tourist areas. Depending on the location of tourist space we are dealing with different contexts of relations among owners of tourist establishments (in broad sense of the term that covers all components of tourist management), their users (tourists), local administrative authorities (central and local authorities), and local residents. In some locations interests of these groups of participants involved in a specific "space game" do not have to be consistent and may generate conflicts. In conclusion, we will present a case study (based on field research done *in situ*) of regeneration model for tourist space that identifies conditions and relations typical of the process.

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Social identity, Sports and local food: the case of Barcelona (Spain)

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For many tourists, trying the food and drink is one of their main reasons for visiting new destinations (Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Hall and Mitchell, 2001; Hall and Sharples, 2003; Hjalager and Richards, 2002). Gastronomy, and food in general, has always had a significant presence in tourism, given that it accounts for one third of tourist spending (Mitchell and Sharples, 2003; Quan and Wang, 2004; WTO, 2012). As Bessi ere (1998) states, a country's cuisine is an expression of its culture, local food markets are recognized as an important part of a region's cultural and tourism experience, and local identity can be reinforced by the products that are sold there.

Food can also play a major role in substantially differentiating between tourist destinations; Okumus *et al.* (2007:253) refer to how "cooking" is commercialized by nationality (Chinese, French, Italian, Turkish, Mexican, etc.). For instance and according to Ravenscroft and Van Westering (2002), Spain has once again successfully reinvented itself by creating a brand as a tourist destination where sun, sea and sand are equal partners to paella, gazpacho and Rioja. The global impact of its local food has been surprisingly high. Spanish food products are also exported to many other countries where they enjoy notable success. Note the growing number of popular *tapas* restaurants to be found in many European cities.

When we talk about local food, the term local and regional make a reference to the provenance of food products, which has been taken into consideration by different scholars (see Ilbery and Kneafsey, 1998; Ilbery *et al.*, 2005; Ilbery and Maye, 2006; Parrott *et al.*, 2002; Whatmore *et al.*, 2003). The term local contribute to achieving a reconnection among producers and final customers.

Local food products linked to tourism are important for the diversification of destinations, as they increase sales and exploit a competitive advantage. Cooper and Hall (2008) present the idea of the product as an experience, in which providers and destinations respond to the challenge of creating products based on experiences. Such experiences are personal, memorable and evoke an emotional response, whereby the tourist enters into a multi-faceted relationship with both the actors and the destination that provides the experience. Despite the fact that there is extensive literature on the promotion of sports and social identity, there are few studies on the relationship between sports, tourism and local food as mechanisms able to transport social identity.

Sports linked to Tourism represents according to the World Tourism Organisation (2013), the fastest growing sector in global tourism as several National Tourist Offices (NTOs) are working towards promoting their destinations for Sport. It generates €450billion to the global tourism industry annually. For the case of Barcelona, in 2014 more than 2, 8 millions of people were registered officially at sports events in the city. From an anthropological point of view sport tourism allows individuals to celebrate identities they share with others who also have an interest in a particular sport or event (Green, 2001).

For the current case study which is focus in Barcelona, it is well known that in the city football has a big impact on tourism activity and local markets, souvenirs shops and food enterprises are aware of this fact. They provide snacks, cheeses and sausages that reflect football teams. However, these snacks and food products are not only sports souvenirs, but also are

reflecting local identity. Therefore, in Barcelona local products linked to sports teams must be understood in a broad context where culture and identity taking place.

According to Stoica (2016), national identity is built through specific social dramas and events in which the meaning of the nation is contested and potentially transformed. However, based on Sewell (1999), it may argue that cultural differences can be seen also inside a nation, that may leads to local identities with a representation in material symbols, in rituals that succeed taking hold the local culture. Based on the previous work of Lau et all (2010), their results demonstrated significant relationships between sport identity, physical activity level and national identity. Their results may be extrapolated to the local level where sports and local values converge through food.

This paper explores the link between social identity, sports and local food through and its impact for a destination such as Barcelona. The findings from the case study provide some answers raised in the sense of a broad understanding how local food is connected with sports and social identity, and whether local food linked to food has an impact on important urban destinations such as Barcelona. In this paper, we start from the macro level, focusing on the local food discourse linked to tourism, and how food enterprises are shaping and adapting local food to tourism as a way for transporting social identity.

The methodological focus for the case study applies triangulation as a valid procedure for qualitative research, as it represents a search for convergence between multiple information sources. Triangulation is a systematic classification process that uses data to find common themes through the elimination of overlying areas. In addition, Alain (1999) maintains that with its combination of data sources, methods and theories, triangulation opens up the way to richer and potentially more valid interpretations. To achieve this objective, a literature review was carried out which is complemented with field observation which include visits to local food producers and souvenirs shops located at the influence area of a big sports infrastructures.

The demand from sport tourists for local food products whit a logo or a symbol of their favorite team are souvenirs that evoke memorable experiences. However, for local producers and locals are symbols of identity and culture because these products might be found in many shapes and ways. Post-industrialism, as a context of action, has brought about a change in the way we perceive and conceive tourism, orienting it towards the flexibility of the product offer and the meeting the personalized needs of tourists who are increasingly seeking to create new experiences. In this context, local food products linked to sports are a manifestation of post-industrial tourism and are creating a new relation between locals and tourists. Furthermore, local food products sold through the sport industry in Barcelona are conducting to an embeddedness and reinforcing local identity while are able to improve the image of a urban destination such as Barcelona.

Individual tourism space – subjective world of geographical experiences. Theoretical and empirical perspective

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The aim of the paper is to describe individual tourism space. It constitutes a first part of author's research on perception of tourism space.

The first part discusses most significant theoretical issues (e.g. tourism space, individual tourism space, perceptual-mental tourism space, the process of perception of tourism space and the values perceived in the tourism space).

Second part has empirical meaning – it refers to the research conducted in Tatra National Park (Poland) in 2015, in a high season. The objective of the research was to identify individual tourism space of the visitors, including their motivations and perception of values. The research question is what is the individual tourism space of one of the most frequently visited tourist regions in Poland.

Space can be defined as a three-dimensional extension, indefinite and unlimited in which all physical phenomena occur. It is also an area, a place occupied by material subject and a concept of related "set of elements", a structural system in exploring the world (Lisowski 2005).

Tourism space means a part of geographical space containing elements of natural environment, permanent elements of human activity (economic and cultural) and the social environment. The main requirement to distinguish tourism space is the occurrence of tourism. It can be defined with specific organization, tourist function, particular physiognomy and legal status (Liszewski 1995, Włodarczyk 2009).

In terms of its complex nature, two basic types of tourism space are singled out – area tourism space and individual (human) tourism space (Włodarczyk 2009). The area tourism space means all the places and processes occurring in them where various forms of tourism activity take place. Individual (human) tourism space divides into two types: the space individually used, as well as individually perceived (imaginary).

The individually perceived space is strictly connected with the world of human ideas and imaginations. It refers to previous tourism experiences and it means a subjective world of values and interpretations. Different types of individually perceived space can be singled out (affecting each other): perceptual-mental tourism space, internal and virtual tourism space.

Perceptual-mental tourism space means real, experienced and memorized space. It is usually incomplete and highly hierarchical in terms of meaning and value. A virtual space is a kind of unreal space arising on the basis of secondary sources. It is not directly experienced, sometimes fake and blurred. The internal space is symbolic and it results from conscious, mind, thoughts and feelings and it is a derivative of types mentioned above.

The overview of concepts related to the theory of tourism space, reveals that the most discussed in the literature is an area tourism space approach (e.g. R.W. Butler's Tourist Area Life Cycle, concepts related to seaside and mountain resorts development, tourism in suburban areas development etc.) (Włodarczyk 2009).

Experiencing tourism space is a part of the complex perception process influenced by many internal and external determinants. Perception is defined as a cognitive process reflecting phenomena, processes and subjects as a result of stimuli. It is a registration of the world, its interpretation, understanding and identification (Zimbardo 1999).

In the tourism space the perception process consists of many stages: identification of the pillars of the space, understanding the centres of values, total experience (senses, reflective mind), cognitive imagination of the space, experiencing emotions, valuation of space and finally feeling the sense of place – accustomed and unaccustomed (Krzyszowska-Kostrowicka 1997, Tuan 1987, Richling, Solon 2010). In the perception process, originally the tourism space has an abstract form but along with acquiring the knowledge, it gains reality and value. Registering proper landscape stimuli, the tourist evaluates it, guided by aesthetic, intellectual and emotional preferences and their usefulness for particular purposes. As a result – a world of individual geographical experiences is created – a place, which constitutes a part of tourism space, containing a load of emotional meanings connected with its evaluation (Tuan 1987).

The discussed process is determined by various factors connected both with human and his experiences, and the visited area (area tourism space).

Amongst the first factors, five groups of determinants should be singled out: individual biological characteristics of human (e.g. sensory integration, age and gender, health condition), contemporary condition (e.g. emotions, mood, expectations), socio-cultural milieu (e.g. cultural traditions, place of birth, breeding, cultural stereotypes, moral and aesthetic sensitivity), education and interests (e.g. system of acquiring knowledge, profession) and others determinants like: personal relationships with the place, personal experiences and memories, length of interaction with the space).

Factors connected with the visited area refer to tourist values and infrastructure, socio-economical, political and ecological situation of the area, technological factors (e.g. mass media, publicity) and many others.

In the process of perception numerous kinds of values are being read from the tourism space. Generally, five categories of values in the tourism space can be singled out: informative (e.g. historicity, authenticity), aesthetic (e.g. beauty, sublimity, harmony), emotional (e.g. hedonistic, prestigious, contemplative), symbolic (e.g. sacrum, genius loci) and health (e.g. psychotherapeutic, stimulating, regenerative). It should be mentioned that both positive and negative kinds of values can be singled out (e.g. beauty – ugliness) (Dąbrowska-Budziło 2008).

Finally, under the influence of the process of perception and familiarization of the tourism space, two types of place can be distinguished: "familiar" and "unfamiliar place". Familiar place means accustomed place with special values for human. It is a gist of emotions contained within the place which is a particular, spiritual part of the space connected with a dialogue between human and environment.

The paper refers to the example of individual tourism space of tourists visiting Tatra National Park in Poland. The research was conducted in high season (July, August 2015) in the most popular national park in Poland (alpine landscape). A questionnaire (540 in-depth interviews, systematic sample) allowed to analyze tourist behavior in terms of motivations and values in active tourism. In-depth interviews included also issues connected with organization of the stay in the Tatra mountains, qualifications of tourists, as well as free time preferences (in terms of active tourism). Additionally, participant observation took place, as well as analysis of existing data. The general overview of individual tourism space in the area was outlined.

Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents reveals some regularities: participation of both sexes was balanced (52% were women), the dominance of the cohorts 26-35 and 36-45 years can be noticed, as well as significant domination of higher education of respondents.

Tatra National Park (TPN) situated in southern Poland (the highest Polish mountains with alpine landscape), belongs to the smallest national parks in Europe, but with the biggest congestion of tourists (Pociask-Karteczka, Baścik, Czuberant 2007). Varied natural environment, easy access to the region, as well as satisfactory tourist infrastructure make the region the most visited national park in Poland. As a result, two main groups of people visiting the region can be singled out: enthusiasts, travelling with passion and properly prepared, as well as occasional and incidental tourists, visiting flagship places during their holidays. The ratio of tourist traffic on hiking trails repeatedly exceeds ratios from other mountain areas in Europe. It is also strongly concentrated in summer season (July, August) and centers in few areas of the park (trails to Morskie Oko and Kościeliska Valley). In the years 2000-2014 number of tourists in Tatra National Park fluctuated, reaching the value of 2 791 837 in 2014.

While analysing individual tourism space of tourists visiting Tatra National Park in a high season (summer time), some important regularities can be noticed. Respondents were asked to evaluate on the scale of 0 to 5 volume of each motivation. Motivational structure reflects the main reasons for the visit and the needs of tourists hiking in the highest Polish mountains. The main motivation of the respondents was escapism, defined as an escape from everyday life (average 4,5). Next motivation were: the sense of freedom and independence (average 4,1), improving health and well-being (average 4) and contact with natural and cultural environment (average 3,8). Much lower were evaluated: a possibility to improve qualifications (average 3,5), strong emotions associated with the risk (average 2,9), possibility of establishing new social contacts (average 2,3), rivalry (average 1,6), the opportunity to be appreciated (average 1) and the need to acquire mountain tourist badges (average 0,7). The research shows that the cathartic and health motivation are the most important for the tourists visiting the region, while the improvement of social status and prestige are less important.

Similar results can be noticed while analyzing motivation structure of climbers in Tatra National Park. The biggest meaning have: escapism (average 4,7) and sense of freedom and independence (average 4,3). Much lower meaning have: ambitious motivations connected with the opportunity of being appreciated (average 0,8) and rivalry (average 1,9). Those respondents don't associate their visit to the highest Polish mountains with establishing new social contacts (average 2,5).

Further research concerned values perceived in the landscape. Regarding the aforementioned categories of values, the respondents were asked to point which values have meaning for them in the tourist space of the region (possibility of multiple choice). In the informative category dominated: uniqueness (79%) and representativeness (42%). In aesthetics: beauty (90%), nature (98%) and sublimity (82%). In emotional category: hedonistic (82%), contemplative (68%) and prestigious (10%). In symbolic category: sacrum (78%) and symbolism connected with reaching most characteristic places in the Tatra mountains (52%). In the health category: regenerative (89%) and stimulation (70%).

Concluding, the Tatra National Park, being the most popular and the most frequently visited national park in Poland, is mainly associated with escapism, sense of freedom and health improvement. Beauty of its unique natural environment associated with sublimity, hedonism and sacrum are its most appreciated and desired values of the tourism space. On the other hand, for some of the visitors, the park means also only reaching flagship places including reaching the highest peaks of Poland and the emergence in the popular, prestigious and fashionable place.

Perceptual-mental tourism space of tourists visiting Tatra National Park has highly hierarchical meaning and is strongly determined by virtual space (secondary sources). Results of the research show strong relationship of the visitors with escapism, freedom, hedonism and sacrum which leads finally to the internal space creation.

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Methodological approach for tourism destination zoning based on the tourists' spatial behavior

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Traditionally, destinations are regarded as well-defined geographical areas, such as countries, island or towns. However, destinations are often artificially divided by geographical and political barriers, which fail to take into consideration consumer preferences or tourism industry functions (Buhalis, 2000). The evidence of this can be found in much cross-border tourism literature, which acknowledges that tourists consume attractions from both sides of the border. Thus, the true consumption area is in fact an overlapping space spreading out in both sides of the borderline, and do not correspond to the current destinations in each side. Boundaries of a destination are hard to define, as they are being constantly produced and reproduced through complex practices and discourses. Destinations may appear totally different in terms of shape, content and relationships, depending on the point of view from which they are experienced (tourists, tourism companies, destination managers and local people). In this paper, we focus in tourists, since they are essential in the process of defining a tourism destination.

Introducing the tourist's point of view, Lew & McKercher (2006) consider a local destination as the area containing products and activities that could normally be consumed in a daytrip from the heart of the destination. This definition suggests a reinterpretation of what is considered a tourism destination. When defining tourism destinations, it should be considered that, they actually operate as functional areas in terms of mobility of tourists for the consumption of attractions and services (Russo, 2008).

Dredge (1999) supported that destination's regions boundaries should be tied to travel patterns, taking into account the consumer-side. For Dredge, tourists are a central figure in the process of defining a tourism destination. She encourage planners to divide the tourism geography into functional areas, which may or not overlap. Dredge states that the use of administrative boundaries, commonly adopted in land-use planning, may limit proper conceptualization and planning of the destinations. Recognizing the existence of these regions, may involve several planning and management advantages for the destination: placement of new tourism infrastructure, reduction of tourism impacts, supplying useful information for tourists, planning and reinforcement of public transport, collaboration between tourism companies and public administration within the functional destination, detection and development of latent tourism products, efficiency of tourism promotion efforts, etc.

To exactly define the functional regions' limits, it is important to know which are the most common travel patterns within a destination and their influencing factors. In fact, tourism generates specific geographical patterns within a destination, which are determined by the relation between a mobile demand, with specific time and money endowments, and the location and spatial form of the tourism assets (Russo, 2008).

Lue, Crompton, & Fesenmaier (1993) identified five relevant linear itinerary patterns adopted by pleasure travellers and affected by the spatial structure of the supply of recreation opportunities. a) In a single destination pattern an attraction stands alone as single destination place without relating to other attractions. b) In the en-route pattern, visitor has a main destination but stops briefly at other attractions. The en route attractions are established between the market origin and the primary destination, so that visitors are

“intercepted” on the way. c) At the base-camp or hub-and-poke pattern, the visitor stays at one location used as a “base camp” to visit other places of interest in the region doing day trips. In some situations, the satellite attractions may lack necessary support facilities. Therefore, they may depend upon a symbiotic relationship with the support services offered by the base-camp. d) At the regional tour pattern, the visitor has several destinations within a given region. This is typical in regional destinations which cooperate to create sufficient “pull” to attract visitors by fostering a number of good quality themed events that are clustered in time and space. e) In trip chaining pattern, a tourism vacation visitor has several destinations encompassing several regions and is characteristic of some vacation package tours. It is assumed that in these models the points visited are not simply attractions, sights, or objects at which a given motivation is being fulfilled, but are nodes which contain tourism services and facilities. However, as we are analysing within a destination movement patterns, when a new accommodation point appears, a new destination zone is invoked.

Moving to the influencing factors of travel patterns within a destination, attractions has been considered as the central factor of the tourism process and the basic element around which tourism develops since the classical authors until now (Gunn, 1988; Kušen, 2010; Leiper, 1979, 1990; Lew, 1987; MacCannell, 1976; Richards, 2002; WTO, 2007). As attractions are the central elements to which tourist travel, their number, their spatial distribution and their accessibility to visitors are of critical influence to travel patterns (Chhetri & Arrowsmith, 2008). Whether attractions are clustered or dispersed influence whether tourists move widely or narrowly within the destination (Mckercher & Lau, 2008).

The availability of services is another important factor (lodging, food, merchandise, entertainment, etc.). As Leiper (1990) said, tourism attractions systems should include a service component which act as a central point from the heart of the tourism attraction system. Locations which provide infrastructure for visitors, such as accommodation, shops, kiosks, picnic and camping grounds, and information centres are more likely to attract a visitors (Chhetri & Arrowsmith, 2008). Moreover, the spatial relationship between accommodation and attraction influence in how far people have to travel to enter tourist precincts (Mckercher & Lau, 2008).

Another critical factor which influences tourism patterns is travel time. Tourists’ visits are constrained by the availability of time (Chhetri & Arrowsmith, 2008; A. G. Dietvorst & Ashworth, 1995). Therefore, time availability will influence both the number of places visited and intensity of visitation (Mckercher & Lau, 2008).

Although there are not central elements, there are a wide number of other factors that somehow affect to tourism patterns; such as the markers (MacCannell, 1976), fragility of the attractions, budget, education level, tourism intermediation, communications, infrastructure, etc.

The Main contribution of this paper is to extend the knowledge base regarding methodologies and that could be used to define new tourism destination from the tourist point of view. Therefore, we review several methodologies which could be used to redefine tourism destinations with the focus on the consumer point of view. We have analysed and compared several methodologies and methods used in the literature to collect and analyze data. The following tables offer a wide view of their usefulness for detecting and analyzing tourism travel patterns within a destination and the further analysis of the data capable to build new zones. Moreover, their pros and cons depending on the case analysis characteristics has been considered and exposed. Thus, these tables constitute a very useful tool for visual assessment of methodologies and their choice depending on the specific case that the researchers wish to analyze.

Clustered areas

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| <p>Geographical micro clustering based on strategic marketing and development plans included into an umbrella brand at regional level based on identity (Krajnović, Bosna, & Jašić, 2013).</p> | <p>Pros Conceptual improvement in the way destination should be build. Propose the revision of defining regional boundaries as tourism brands. Efficiency increases by building small clusters within a greater umbrella brand.</p> <p>Cons Clustering processes not based on the tourist point of view.</p> <p>Zoning usability Although is useful for delineating zones in all type of destinations; micro functional regions are not based on tourists' point of view.</p> |
| <p>Theoretical zoning applying cluster analysis to a time matrix based on the driving distances from each of the attractions of an area (Blasco, Guia, & Prats, 2014; Paulino & Prats, 2013).</p> | <p>Pros Introduces the idea that spatial patterns are defined by the spatial distribution of the attractions in relation to the accommodation hubs</p> <p>Cons The clustering process considers that the attractions have the same weight. Accommodation hubs don't have a central position when clustering.</p> <p>Zoning usability Although is useful for delineating zones in all type of destinations, new zones do not necessarily reflect the demand view of the destination. Tourists travel patterns may draw different areas.</p> |

Modern Track analysis techniques with GIS

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| <p>GPS tracking (Birenboim, Anton-Clavé, Russo, & Shoval, 2013; Donaire, Gali, & Royo-Vela, 2015; McKercher, Shoval, Ng, & Birenboim, 2012; Shoval, McKercher, Ng, & Birenboim, 2011);</p> | <p>Pros Easy to select participants. Data quality.</p> | <p>Zoning usability</p> <p>Travel patterns mapping is extremely complex due to the possible thousands of individual travel routes.</p> <p>Tracks should be manually examined to decide which the stops of the track are.</p> <p>Cluster analysis from tracks cannot be calculated.</p> <p>Network analysis of GIS has limited functions.</p> <p>GIS software provides useful flow maps to represent the main corridors and heat maps or absolute bar-charts maps to represent accumulation of dots in certain areas.</p> |
| <p>APP for tracking and surveying (Birenboim, 2016)</p> | <p>Cons Not applicable to indoor and rural/mountain contexts due to black areas. Gathering data is Time-consuming. Logistics difficulties of the GPS device delivery and return.</p> <p>Pros Solve the logistical inconveniences of using GPS devices. Reduces the data loss for indoor and rural/mountain contexts combining several technologies. Allow tracking and surveying.</p> | |
| <p>Phone cell tower tracking (Ahas, Aasa, Mark, Pae, & Kull, 2007; Asakura & Iryo, 2007; González, Hidalgo, & Barabási, 2008; Raun, Ahas, & Tiru, 2016)</p> | <p>Cons APP cost. Differences in data quality depending on the Smartphone. Tourists' reluctance to install the APP. Still some black areas in indoor and rural/mountain areas.</p> <p>Pros Quick Big data. Position calculated through antennas. Allow filters based on nationality or geo-position. Useful for large and small scale. No biases for the reason of participants feeling observed.</p> <p>Cons Data obtaining is very expensive. Refining and analysis data is time-consuming. Limited density of cell towers and black areas in rural/mountain areas. Restrictive legislations concerning personal data protection.</p> | |

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|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>Geotagged pictures (Vu, Li, Law, & Ye, 2015) or posts (Hawelkaa et al., 2014)</p> | <p>Pros Great amount of data for a reasonable cost. Capable to capture the place image. Useful to see concentration of tourists in certain attraction places.</p> | <p>Zoning usability</p> <p>These techniques tend to be more related with places; partially eliminating the complexity of the individual travel routes of the GPS based techniques.</p> <p>Share same GIS limitations than previous methods.</p> |
| <p>Tracking with the use of ad-hoc Bluetooth sensors distributed over a study area (Versichele et al., 2014)</p> | <p>Cons Tracking only within the universe of posts. Only valid for analyzing tracking mobility within big areas.</p> | |
| <p>Consumption cards tracking (Zoltan & McKercher, 2015)</p> | <p>Pros Contributes to detect networks based on small-scale movements</p> | |
| | <p>Cons Reduced area coverage of sensors, invalidating it for open areas. Only valid for small scale movements from preselected monuments or buildings. Pre-selection reduces the global image of travel patterns.</p> | |
| | <p>Pros Easy to obtain the data. Can also easily show attraction type clusters.</p> | |
| | <p>Cons Restricted to urban and massive destinations. Limited to the participant places which tourists has used the card. Represents only a particular segment.</p> | |

Network Analysis

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| <p>Theoretical Spatial Centrality using network analysis and GIS (Lee, Choi, Yoo, & Oh, 2013)</p> | <p>Pros</p> <p>Takes into account attractions amenities and population as attraction factors and shortest path as frictions factors. Valid for all destination types, but especially for rural areas.</p> | <p>Zoning usability</p> <p>Travel Patterns follow network characteristics.</p> <p>Allow interesting calculations like betweenness, closeness centrality, community analysis, degree centrality, etc.</p> |
| | <p>Cons</p> <p>Spatial centrality may not correspond with tourism spatial patterns.</p> | |
| <p>Travel patterns with network analysis, where destinations are treated as nodes and travel routes as arcs or links. Mobility Patterns (Hsueh & Lin, 2014; Shih, 2006; Smallwood, Beckley, & Moore, 2012; Stienmetz & Fesenmaier, 2015)</p> | <p>Pros</p> <p>Combines collecting data of travel pattern through surveys with the calculations possibilities of network analysis. Show the connection within nodes eliminating the problem of having thousand of travel routes of tracing techniques.</p> | <p>Geomapping of the resulting graphs have to be done afterwards.</p> <p>Resulting graph show overlapping destination zones based on travel patterns. Both Ego destinations and Multidestination travel patterns can be detected with network analysis.</p> |
| | <p>Cons</p> <p>Surveyed tourists can lie or make mistakes in their answers.</p> | |

Negotiating national identity in tourist narratives of history from Eastern European destinations

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Tourism provides a social space for the negotiation of identity conceptualizations. Experiencing new and different cultures and environments contribute to changes in the tourists' concept of self. These processes are frequently supported by the encounters with a host community, which tends to be discursively constructed as the "Other" in visual and textual representations. (Wearing, Stevenson und Young 2010, [36]-41) The negotiation of individual and collective identity conceptualizations among tourists is not the sole dimension of identity formation in tourism, though, as these visual and textual representations in tourism also provide a space to negotiate collective identity conceptualizations within the host community. The capacity of tourism to facilitate nation building and the conceptualization of a national identity has been the focus of scholarship. In a comprehensive body of research literature, destination development and branding, the design, structures and management of sights and attractions have all been found to provide a space for the negotiation of the various dimensions of national identity. (Sears 1989) (Shaffer 2001) (Zuelow 2009)

What is more, modern mass tourism and nation formation may even be intimately/historically linked through their shared ordering characteristic. Nation building works by ordering human and non-human environments according to national discourses and by nationalizing sites and places whereas tourism has its own way of ordering the world and the tourists. Franklin (2004) observed that it was the ordering process of 19th-century nation formation that provided sights and attractions to the members of a nation and thus instigated mass tourism by *erstwhile* including social groups in a national travelling culture who had up to then been sedentary and locally or regionally bound, by motivating travellers to visit sites deemed significant as national heritage. (Franklin 2004) The creation of both sites of national significance and tourist attractions proved in some cases to be reciprocal processes as growing demand for tourist attractions resulted in the establishment of nationalized landscapes for domestic tourist consumption, and visitors commenced to appropriate the discourses provided as their own national narratives. (Linden und Thewes 2007, 43)

Promoting "national tourism" was thus vital in the emergence of modern tourism and has retained its significance across Europe up to the present. This becomes specifically evident when regarding tourism policies in former Socialist countries and the former Soviet republics in Eastern Europe. Most of them have early on realized the potential of tourism for their national economies and thus developed their tourism industries. The ensuing creation of nation and destination brands as well as the establishment of tourist landscape of sites and attractions does not only serve economic purposes but they are also projections of conceptualisations of nationhood and identity, targeting both co-national and overseas tourists. By visiting nationalized sites and attractions, co-nationals experience an affirmation of their own sense of identity as well as an appropriation of their own nationhood through touristic practice. (Palmer 2005) Meaning-making processes with overseas tourists at nationalized tourist sites differ from those of co-national tourists, though. Through their consumption of the projected conceptualisations of nationhood and national identity and thus become participants in the respective nation building project (Pitchford 2008, 3), and they act as an "out-group" with which to anchor the projected conceptualisations of nation and identity with, and thereby attain the function of multipliers. (Hettlage 1997)

However, tourist sites and attractions are not given but they are socially constructed spaces. (Wöhler, Pott und Denzer 2010) They also depend on representational cultures such as tourist media for consumption and interpretation. (Rojek 1997) If they are imbued with national significance, they are the carriers of hegemonic discourses on nationhood and national identity which are mediated through representations available for a tourist audience. (Klekot 2010) Narratives of history in tourist media, i. e. “tourist historiography”, are one source of discourses on nationhood and national identity, and they cater specifically for the historical dimension of national identity. (Posch 2015)

Tourist historiography thus seems to provide the space to negotiate conceptualisations of nationhood through the mediation of respective discourses on the nation’s past, present, and future, and to project an imagined national identity in its historical dimension to co-national and overseas tourists. With regard to their interpretative capacities, co-national and international tourists again differ. Co-national visitors have usually been exposed to a nationalized historiography in the course of their lives in school, at university or in the public sphere. They thus bring along “narrative dispositions” to the consumption of the tourist sites, i. e. prior knowledge and a frame-of-reference from educational or public spheres with which to interpret representations of history they encounter at the tourist sites. (Chronis 2012, 1811) In contrast, overseas visitors have been submitted to fictions and imaginations of their travel destination beforehand. They bring along “geographies of the imagination” of destinations that to them are spaces of projections, blank spaces to be filled with imaginations, fictions and projections; these are provided, among others, by tourist media. (Scherle 2011, 53-54)

This paper will focus on tourist historiography from foreign-language media aiming at overseas tourists and will seek to establish the discourses of nationhood and identity by analysing the tourist narratives of history, both on a textual and on a meta-textual level. The analysis is based on a sample of tourist historiographies from websites currently promoted by the national tourist boards of Hungary, Slovakia, Slovenia and Croatia, as they are likely to provide officially endorsed narratives of the nation’s history, mirroring the contents of national historiographies. Tourist historiography on these websites is characterized by the brevity of the representations. Through narrative strategies of selection and omission, the brevity contributes to mediation of programmatic ideas of nationhood in its historic dimension. They are also characterized by the frequent appearance in combination with visuals to support the narratives and their symbolism. Tourist historiography can be found in different formats either as overviews of national history in different lengths or incorporated into the contents of the website. They may also be incorporated into current promotional campaigns, and the provision of tourist historiography through the pdf-version of current brochures or magazines is also frequent.⁶

Tourist historiography from websites operated by national tourist boards from Hungary, Slovakia, and Slovenia show striking similarities in the discourses on the historical dimension of nationhood; the historical narratives are informed by a dual discourse of origins of the ethno-national community and of independent statehood.

By adopting a representational strategy of appropriation of early medieval populations, the nation is projected into early medieval times. The narratives of the early formation of the ethno-nation endow it with age and continuity, and also with an ethnic identification as either Magyars/Hungarians, Slovenes or Slovaks. The appropriation of early medieval political structures and entities support the claim for historic statehood as a basis for these fairly

⁶<http://gotohungary.com/history;jsessionid=4BD653431A69F5061E23418D3E0ABAFD>, <http://slovakia.travel/de/ueber-die-slowakei/geschichte> , http://www.slovenia.info/de/zgodovina-slovenije.htm?zgodovina_slovenije=0&lng=3 (last 7. 7. 2016)

young states that have only gained statehood after the collapse and demise of the socialist federations and the Soviet Union. The narratives on the early medieval statehood as the historical blueprint to current modern statehood also mediate the discourse of the Golden Age of the nation, when it was in possession of independent statehood for the nation.

At the same time, the dual discourse of origins also promotes the claim for a national territory. By situating the ethno-nation as well as the projected early state in a certain territory, the national territory is outlined and emerges as a mental map. Frequently, these do not correspond with the actual state territories and are thus ambiguous depictions.

Narratives of early medieval statehood often endorse these political structures and entities with Christianity as a decisive feature of statehood; as Christianity has historically been a universal characteristic of European states, these narratives serve to promote a discourse of European-ness, in addition to the discourse of ethno-national origins. Discourses of the Golden Age of a complete formation of the nation and independent statehood are followed by discourses of foreign rule or suzerainty and of oppression, as well as a national renaissance.

Identity formation on a collective level is always characterized by a separation between the “We” and the “Other”, i. e. a “We”-group and the “Other”-group, which is also reflected in a dual discourse of othering in the tourist historiographies. (Billig 1995, 65-70) Historically, this Eastern Central European region has celebrated its sense of being a bulwark to the Christian Europe against the threat of Ottoman expansion. Thus the bulwark-myth has become a European lieu de mémoire, valid for a range of countries in the region. (Kenneweg 2012) The Ottomans represent the Oriental Other, the Asian, Barbaric, non-Christian, i. e. the non-European Other. By promoting a discourse of the Ottomans as the Oriental other and a threat to Christian Europe, these tourist historiographies again promote the discourse of European-ness. However, the adoption of additional othering parameter can be seen with those that have represented a menace to the development of the nation and an obstacle to the pursuit of statehood. This projected Other is only partially the outside Other, but mainly the oppressors to the nation within the former imperial structures to which these countries once belonged.

The discourses of current tourist historiography reflect national historiographies of these countries which have been sourced from 19th-century nation formation projects within the framework of the former empires and are based on conceptualisations of the nation as ethnically and culturally homogenous. After independence in the late 20th century, political elites in the countries have been pursuing nationalized politics of history to legitimize their claims and also to provide populations, who have seen themselves as deprived of the past by the Socialist regimes, with a history. (Niedermüller 2004, 13-14) Many of these destinations have been promoting similar versions of their tourist historiographies for at least two decades. In this context, Croatia presents an interesting contrast since the 2016 promotional campaign and the current version of the Croatian tourism board homepage sport a changed approach to the use of historical narratives in tourism promotion.⁷ Overtly engaging national or nationalist discourses on history is avoided. Instead, as its new campaign is based on experience-related tourism marked by the strapline “Full of life”, the experience of history in the form of built heritage, cuisine, culture, arts and folklore is moved into the focus of representations, without providing a chronological overview of history. Discourses of nationhood have been replaced by discourses of diversity and European-ness: Croatia as having facilitated the encounter of manifold civilisations and cultures over the course of history, thus being multi-cultural and diverse. This is a remarkable change from earlier tourist historiographies, which were observed to reframe history within a nationalized context, albeit also promoting discourses of European-ness. (Rivera 2008)

⁷ <http://www.croatia.hr/en-GB> (last 19. 7. 2016)

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The UNESCO effects on island tourism

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Overview

Culture is becoming more and more significant in modern tourism industry, thus representing a relevant attraction both for domestic and international visitors. Cultural tourism, indeed, allows destinations to expand the customer basis, to diversify the supply, to extend the length of stay (overnight stays) and to reduce seasonality (Patuelli et al., 2013). Cultural heritage, therefore, can provide great beneficial potentialities for economic and social development but such effects are not automatic. For these reasons, national governments and regions work hard in order to obtain the UNESCO World Heritage Sites (WHS) label for their historical and cultural attractions.

Indeed, it has long been recognised that a positive relationship exists between UNESCO World Heritage Sites and tourism. More specifically, many UNESCO sites are popular tourist destinations. The inclusion in the WHL, thus, can be considered a quality certification that allows the site and the surrounding area to adopt a collective trademark for differentiation in the market of tourism destinations. The inclusion contributes to the rise in popularity of a site, in its 'appeal' and consequently in promoting tourism and it encourages the increase in the number of tourists who learn about it, the number of them who want to visit it and the amount each of them will pay to do so.

However, relatively little research has been undertaken to explore and quantify tourism demand at such sites. In particular no research has been undertaken in Sicily, an island that benefits from possessing seven UNESCO sites. In this paper a special interest is devoted to islands like Sicily. In the European Union, with more than 3000 insular contexts, islands nearly represent an independent state with an interesting economic system, especially if referred to tourism and related activities. Islands, moreover, because of their peculiarity and their fragile economy, benefit from development policies focusing on services and cultural aspects, in order to emphasise their role, not just as seaside resorts.

After the analysis of the Sicilian case-study, the last section of the paper includes considerations and implications in order to improve tourist demand in islands, particularly in Sicily, thanks to the presence of UNESCO sites.

Thus, the purpose of this paper is to address the above mentioned gap in knowledge, by considering the peculiarity of insular contexts, and to outline whether the UNESCO brand can really affect the demand .

Literature – Theoretical Background and Research Hypotheses

International literature presents different case studies related to tourism and UNESCO sites. Some of the existing international studies concerning UNESCO sites investigate the evolution of the concept of Cultural Heritage within the UNESCO system and how it may be used to enhance management strategies in world heritage sites (Gfeller and Eisenberg, 2016; Buzio and Re, 2012), as well as the relationship between preservation of cultural heritage and planning in UNESCO World Heritage List (WHL) sites (King and Halpenny, 2014; Lo Piccolo and Leone, 2014). Other studies, instead, aim to test whether the world heritage brand affects the total number of visitors, their origins (Roh et al., 2015; Huang et

al., 2012; Buckley, 2002) or overall performances of a destination (Su and Lin, 2014; Cuccia et al., 2014; Patuelli et al., 2012); they focus on the development of measures to monitor the effects and impacts produced by the management of UNESCO world heritage sites (Spencer and Nsiah, 2013; Carmen, 2013; Mondini and Re, 2012). Moreover, some research concentrate on the relationship between UNESCO status and tourist behaviour in a given site (Kaltenborn et al., 2013) and outline the profile of visitors at an UNESCO site (Adie and Hall, 2016).

In this paper, the research hypothesis is that UNESCO brand influences tourism demand and consequently tourism supply in the related sites. Therefore, the aim of this study is to determine whether tourism is really affected by UNESCO brand in terms of differences in mobility between UNESCO and NOT UNESCO sites, as well as in terms of tourist behaviour. Moreover, the research highlights which aspects of the destination supply need to be improved or changed in order to enhance local economic, social and environmental development.

Case Study – Sicilian Unesco sites

Based on a longitudinal quantitative study, the purpose of the paper is to present and draw implications from an accurate analysis of tourism at the UNESCO sites in Sicily and its archipelagos, resulting from methodological research carried out over an eight-year period. Specifically, tourist demand was monitored over the years 2006-2014, focusing on both UNESCO and non-UNESCO sites, the overall purpose being to identify means of enhancing tourist supply both from a qualitative and a quantitative point of view in order to increase the competitiveness of UNESCO sites.

By following the analysis of international literature related to tourist demand at UNESCO World Heritage Sites, the paper focuses on an analysis of the data obtained from the offices of tourism statistics concerning 53 Sicilian municipalities in the areas of Agrigento, Caltanissetta, Catania, Enna, Messina, Palermo, Ragusa and Syracuse, where tangible UNESCO heritage sites are located.

The UNESCO sites considered for the demand analysis are:

- 1) Archaeological Area in Agrigento (Temple Valley)
- 2) Villa Romana del Casale, Piazza Armerina
- 3) The Aeolian Islands
- 4) Baroque towns in Val di Noto
- 5) Syracuse and Pantalica Necropolys
- 6) Mount Aethna
- 7) Arab-Norman Palermo, Monreale and Cefalù Cathedrals

In particular, the data which have been acquired from each municipality concern:

- 1) annual arrivals from the year of WHL recognition to 2013
- 2) monthly arrivals up to 2014
- 3) arrivals in 2014 according to nationality
- 4) arrivals according to the type of accommodation chosen up to 2014
- 5) number of monthly visitors in each site in 2014
- 6) number of accommodation facilities and beds up to December 31, 2014

Furthermore, owing to a lack of data concerning tourists' awareness of the UNESCO brand, authorised tourist guides were interviewed at various UNESCO sites. A questionnaire was devised that resulted in 93 comments, collected from their answers to the questionnaire, which have also been included in our study.

The analysis considers some important tourist indicators and calculates statistics in order to synthesize the main peculiarities of tourism, UNESCO sites and tourist behaviour.

Results

Analysis on demand reveals that tourism to UNESCO sites has grown at a remarkable rate over the years since 2006, as confirmed by synthetic indicators showing a value which is superior to the regional average. Indeed, not only has Sicily experienced an increase in cultural tourism in recent years, but also more than 46% of tourist overnight stays are in accommodation facilities directly or indirectly connected to cultural sites. Specifically, the overall number of foreign tourists visiting cultural heritage sites is higher than the number of domestic (Italian and specifically Sicilian) tourists whilst at UNESCO sites in particular, foreign tourists account for almost 50% of the total. This confirms the high value of the internationalisation of tourist demand at UNESCO sites. At the same time, in terms of seasonality, tourist demand at UNESCO sites reflects the typical seasonal trends in tourism in Sicily, although with less emphasised peaks. In other words, the data for tourist demand at cultural destinations revealed flatter, more constant demand throughout the year, pointing to a reduction in seasonality compared with the regional average. However, with the exception of the Aeolian Islands, the other sites still have to organise their tourist offer better in order to increase the value of their economic and productive sectors. Moreover, tourists are only partly aware of the fact that they are visiting an UNESCO site and this also coincides with their expectations about the services offered, which are above those actually offered: then, it is evident that services at these sites require attention and improvement.

Conclusions

A strategic opportunity exists to promote the effective and productive management of tourist supply which derives from the extensive cultural heritage of Sicily.

This study, therefore, offers recommendations for organisation of tourism policies based on a categorisation of tourists' needs, the overall aim being the contribution to the improvement of tourist supply, both from a qualitative and a quantitative point of view, in order to increase the competitiveness of UNESCO sites.

The UNESCO certification should not be considered by local policy makers as the final goal of a procedure devoted to acquire local consensus; rather, it should be considered as the first step for a local development process based on culture and tourism that should involve local communities. Management strategy must support the transition to a wider and more inclusive approach to cultural heritage management and to a greater emphasis on community engagement, through a dynamic relationship between cultural heritage and its context, which may lead to greater reciprocal benefits.

Evidence deriving from the previous analysis has to become the starting point in order to plan specific, effective and efficient measures, in order to promote general local development. Specifically:

- local authorities have to work hard in order to improve, enforce and reorganise the supply, i.e. structures and infrastructures;
- the private sector has to improve its own specialization in UNESCO sites and increase the number of operators. It has to rethink itself as a key element for local development, given that it is able to influence tourist experience and, therefore, the image of a destination.

First of all, it needs to preserve cultural heritage, through restoration and specific activities focused on physical conservation, as well as to enhance promotion plans and specific marketing strategies. All that aims to expand local people's and visitors' knowledge and awareness concerning the value of cultural heritage sites.

A further public measure is linked to transport services and infrastructure. These, indeed, have to be increased and improved in order to facilitate accessibility, which is a fundamental aspect in tourism and local development, both as for connections from and to a destination and within a destination and its UNESCO sites. Besides, considering tourist services, the need for more competitive accommodations emerges, both as for variety and quality.

The concept of site management has changed over the last fifty years, showing an inclusive approach; at the same time, the historical environment has changed as well and will continue to change in response to human needs and other factors. The management of historical sites is, therefore, the management of changes. This is true for World Heritage sites as well as for any other form of heritage.

As outlined in the UNESCO guidelines about cultural heritage management (2013), the requirements include:

- strengthening knowledge, abilities, skills and behaviour of people with direct responsibilities for heritage conservation and management;
- improving institutional structures and processes through empowering decision-makers and policy-makers;
- introducing a dynamic relationship between cultural heritage and its context that will lead to greater mutual benefits through an inclusive approach, so that outputs and outcomes will follow on a sustainable basis,

In order to implement a really effective and efficient destination management and to enhance an economic, social, cultural and environmental development.

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Expenditure pattern analysis of cultural tourists at World Heritage Sites: an empirical evidence based on CHAID analysis

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Introduction

This study investigates tourists' expenditure patterns in the city of Évora, a world heritage site (WHS) classified by UNESCO. The use of chi-squared automatic interaction detection (CHAID) was chosen, allowing the identification of distinct segments based on expenditure patterns. Visitors' expenditure patterns have proven to be a pertinent element for a broader understanding of visitors' behaviour at cultural destinations. Visitors' expenditure patterns were revealed to be increasing within years studied.

Nowadays, WHS have been facing new challenges, partially due to a different tourism consumption patterns. As is highlighted in a considerable number of studies, visits to these sites are almost always justified by this prestigious classification and motivations are closely associated with their cultural aspects and quality of the overall environment (among others, Marujo et al, 2012). However, a diversity of tourists' profiles has been underlined in the literature. Starting from the results obtained in a previous study about the profile of cultural tourists conducted during the year 2010 in the city of Évora, Portugal, it is our intent to compare them with a recent survey (2015) applied in the same city. Recognition of Évora by UNESCO in 1986 as WHS has fostered not only the preservation of heritage but also the promotion of tourism in the city. This study compares and examines tourist profiles, regarding tourists' expenditure patterns in Évora. A number of studies have analysed tourist expenditure patterns, mainly in the context of sun and sea destinations (e.g. Nicolau and Más, 2005; Qiu and Zhang, 1995; Wang and Davidson, 2010; Serra et al, 2015), but so far few empirical studies are reported to WHS small historic towns.

This paper contributes to fill a gap in the literature by analysing tourist expenditure patterns in order to segment visitors for a WHS destination (Évora). In the case of WHS destinations only a few studies have explored tourist expenditure patterns (Amir et al, 2016).

In this context, the aims of this study are:

- to identify tourists' expenditure patterns at a WHS based on segmentation criteria.
- to compare, within the years studied, tourist profiles based on expenditure patterns.

Methods

Data collection

Tourists' expenditures per capita and the number of arrivals are the most common variables to measure tourism demand (Song *et al*, 2012). Since the recent literature considers cultural visitors a heterogeneous market with different characteristics and behaviour patterns (Brida *et al*, 2013) the t-test was used to test for significant differences by year in spending patterns at Évora city (2010 and 2015). The results confirmed that there is a difference in tourists' expenditure patterns within these years.

A total of 451 surveys were distributed in 2010, and recently, in 2015, 465 surveys were collected. The adopted sampling method was probabilistic, with a random sample, which was based upon a stratified sample by place of residence. Results revealed different patterns of daily expenditure between the years 2010 and 2015, even if the primary results did not reveal significant variations in socio-demographic and trip characteristics among the visitors'

core profile. For the present research, the questionnaire dimensions for analysis consisted of three main sections, these being: socio-demographic data; background behaviour, i.e. that prior to the visit; and behaviour during the duration of the stay. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for questions, which dealt with the evaluation of satisfaction with destination attributes, with responses ranging from very unsatisfied (1) to extremely satisfied (5).

Amir *et al.* (2015) stated that two popular methods have been adopted in tourism research in order to examine expenditure patterns of tourists, such as exit interviews and daily expenditure records during the visit.

For present research, none of those methods were fully applied. The survey was submitted only for those visitors that had spent a minimum of one half-day in the city. In this way, the survey asked them to identify their intended average daily amount spent, which in fact is more properly, the amount they are willing to pay during their stay in the destination.

Data Analysis

Chi-squared Automatic Interaction Detection (CHAID) was applied to model consumer patterns of domestic and international visitors, based on sociodemographic factors, trip characteristics, length of stay and the degree of satisfaction with destination attributes. CHAID allowed us to find a population classification in groups that is able to describe the dependent variable, average daily tourist expenditure. Kass (1980) introduced this exploratory statistical method, which was, few years later known as the decision tree analysis tool by a few researchers (e.g. Kim *et al.*, 2011; Hsu and Kang, 2007).

Díaz-Pérez and Bethencourt-Cejaz (2016) stated that CHAID is more sophisticated than other multivariate analysis techniques. The authors maintain that this method has been rarely adopted in the tourism market research context. One of the very important advantages is that it does not require the use of parametric tests for predictive variables.

Analysis via CHAID has at its base a criterion variable with two or more categories. Researchers are thus able to ascertain segments with regard to the variable, and also according to combinations of an array of independent variables (predictors) (Chen, 2003; Legohérel *et al.*, 2015). In order for CHAID to be applied, the choice of dependent variable (criterion) and independent variables (predictors) must be made prior to the start of the procedure.

The significance level of the results of the Chi-square test determines how many categories of independent variables there will be. The most significant independent variable is contained in the first node of the tree. When there ceases to be a significant relation between dependent and independent variables, then the node formation and segment configuration process also ceases. Studies of this kind applied to tourism research have been very few in number (Chen, 2003; Legohérel *et al.*, 2015).

Días-Pérez & Bethencourt-Cejas (2016) affirmed that merely studies used CHAID to obtain information on the level of expenditure, using both demographic and other variables regarding trip characteristics (Díaz-Pérez *et al.*, 2005), to describe expenditure habits (Legohérel and Wong, 2006). More recently Amir *et al.* (2015) examine expenditure patterns of tourists in local transport and shopping sector.

Results

Visitors' expenditure patterns

Visitors' daily expenditure was €66.58 in 2010 and €104.19 in 2015. According to t-test results, the difference between the years is statistically significant ($p \leq 0.005$). To perform the segmentation of visitors based on expenditure patterns, figures 1 and 2 show the results based on the CHAID analysis for each surveyed year (2010 and 2015). The dependent variable was daily visitor expenditure. Considering the year 2010 (27.1% spent on average between €61 and €100), among the respondents ($n = 351$), *place of residence* was identified as the first significant segmentation independent variable ($p \leq 0.005$).

Results illustrate two opposite segments. A first group of tourists from Portugal, the UK, France, Italy and other countries from the Americas, and a second group were tourists from Germany and other EU countries, America, Spain, Brazil, African countries, Dutch, other countries from Asia, Japan and Oceania countries. The first group of visitors (Node 1) revealed the following expenditure pattern: 32.8% spent between €1 and €40 and 29.9% spent between €41 and €60. In Node 2, 31.6% of respondents spent between €61 and €100 and 27.1% spent more than €100. The second dividing variable was the destination attribute *heritage/monuments and buildings*. Node 1 diverged into Node 3 and Node 4. 44.6% of visitors that were very satisfied or less spent between €1 and €40, while 33.9% of those who were very or extremely satisfied spent €41-€60. The second group of visitors by place of residence revealed a higher expenditure pattern, identified by Node 2 (31.6% spent between €61 and €100). This last Node (2) is separated into Node 5 and Node 6 which was split by a third variable (attribute destination – *welcoming and hospitality of the locals*). 35.8% of visitors less or equal to very satisfied spent between €61 and €100 and visitors who were more than very satisfied spent over €100.

Taking into account the results from the year 2015 (32.9% spent more than €141.50), among the respondents ($n = 353$), *place of residence* was identified as the first significant segmentation ($p \leq 0.005$). As is described in figure 2, results identified two opposite segments. Visitors from the USA, Germany, France, the United Kingdom, Belgium, Canada, The Netherlands and other countries from Europe belong to a first group. Visitors from Portugal, Brazil, Spain and other countries of the world compose the second group. The first group of visitors (Node 1), 43.7% spent more than €141.50, while the second group of visitors spent less (39.9%) – between €21 and €70. Node 1 is divided into node 3 and node 5, both split by recreation activities. 47.1% of visitors who were satisfied or less with this attribute spent between €71 and €141.50, while those who were more than satisfied spent more than €141.50. Node 2 diverged into Node 5 and Node 6, and overnight stays divided them. 49.5% of daily visitors spent between €21-€70 and visitors staying at least 1 night, 65%, spent more than €71.

Conclusion

The present research evidenced different patterns of visitors' expenditure in Évora between the years. Even if the average daily expenditure increased between the years 2010 and 2015, it was evident that two groups of segments were identified by place of residence with some shifting patterns between the years.

In accordance with the previous objectives of our paper, the findings enable the following remarks to be made:

- Two groups of visitor segments were identified by place of residence, which in a few cases do not match between the years. In the year 2010, attributes that explained expenditure patterns were *Heritage /Monuments and Buildings* and *Welcoming and Hospitality of Locals*. In the year 2015, significant variables were *Recreation Activities and Overnight Stays*. Despite the fact that place of residence was the dividing variable in order to identify two distinct groups in both years, independent variables that explained expenditure patterns were slightly different.
- Different expenditure patterns were identified between the years. In this context, results suggest that an increasing spending pattern is evident explained by two independent variables, recreation activities (Year 2015 – Node 1) and Overnight stays (Year 2015 – Node 2).

Theoretical contributions are suggested as a result of the empirical results. Only few studies examined expenditure patterns of visitors at WHS destinations, and the tourism literature focused mainly on expenditure patterns in sun and sand destinations. In other stream, this paper contributes to tourism marketing literature, through the adoption of CHAID as a market segmentation method, since this technique has rarely been used (Dias-Pérez and Bethencourt-Cejas, 2016).

Managerial implications should be highlighted, mainly based on this way of segmenting the market of cultural visitors. Local authorities should be aware of these changing expenditure patterns of cultural visitors in Évora.

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Figure 1. Results for CHAID analysis –2010

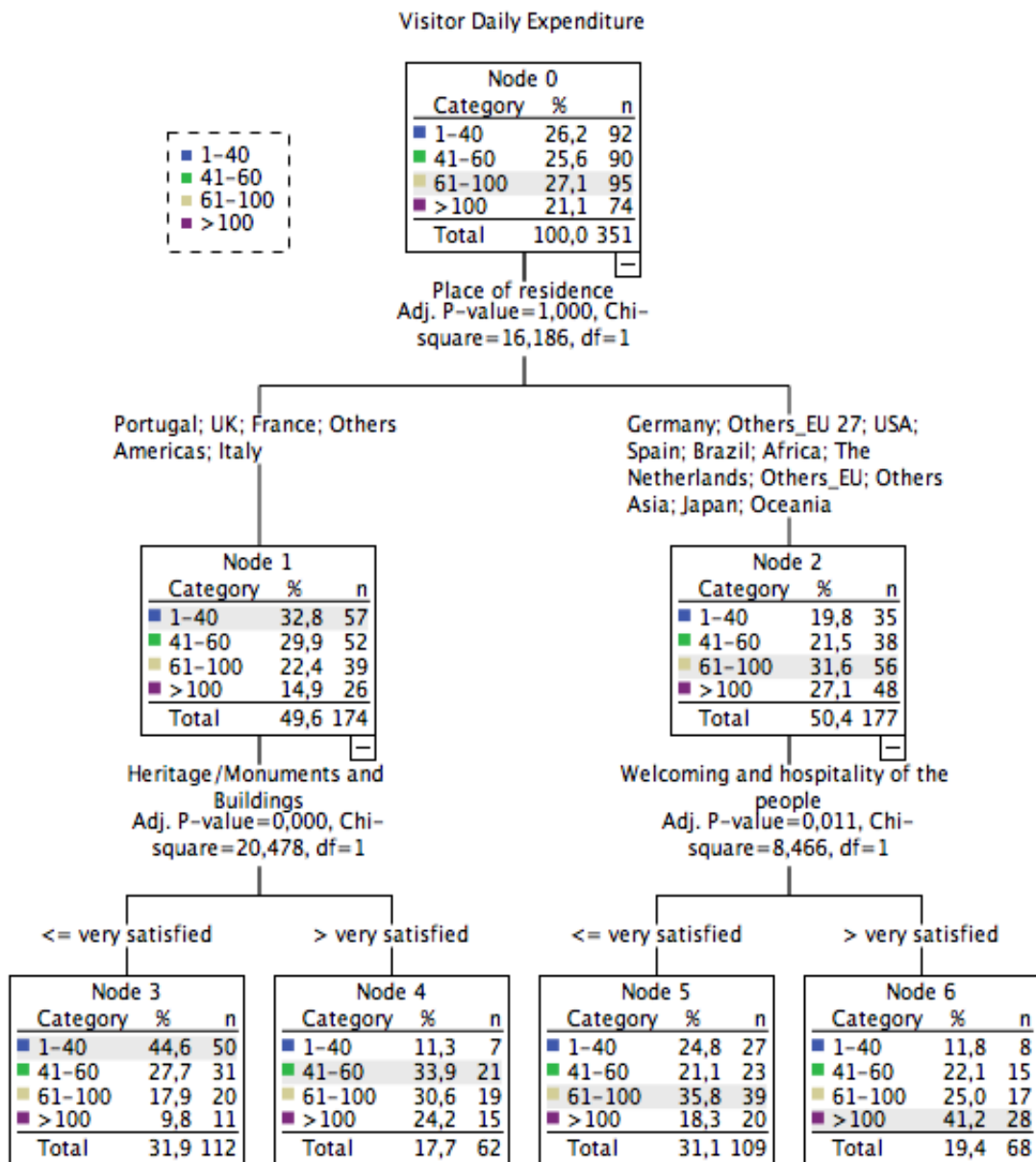
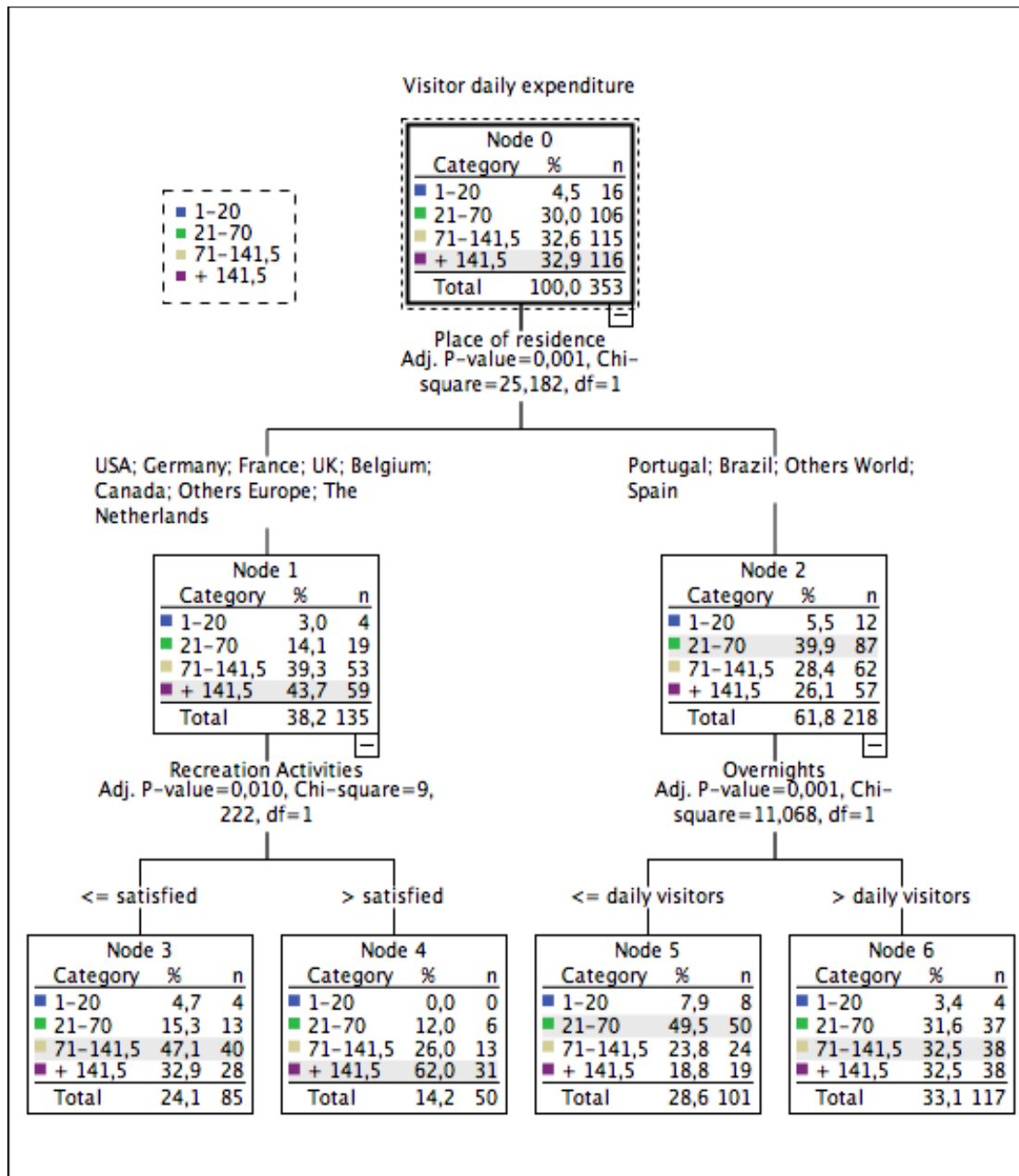


Figure 2. Results for CHAID analysis – 2015



Volunteer Tourism is not one-sided... Deserves an inside look

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Literature Review

In recent years, volunteer tourism initiatives have been dramatically increased to trigger social and economic development or protectionist projects which are characterized as combination of travel and volunteering activities (Sin, vd. 2015: 120). Volunteer tourism is one of the popular form of alternative tourism and participation has grown exponentially (Vodopivec and Jaffe, 2011: 111). This form of tourism defined as 'those tourists who, for various reasons, volunteer in an organized way to undertake holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment' (Wearing, 2001, p.2). At the Volunteer tourism activities represent meaningful experience for volunteers and host community (Lo and Lee, 2011: 326). Although, volunteer tourism is quite different form the mass tourism, it has some similarities because of affect the local people live day by day (McGehee and Anderect, 2009: 47). Raymond and Hall (2008: 541) drawing attention this situation, state that volunteer tourism organizations should create programs that appeals local people's real values and they should facilitate the opportunity to interact with other cultures in their projects.

In academic literature, the most of research have focus on motivational factors (Benson and Siebert, 2009; Leonard and Onyx 2009; Sin, 2009; Lo and Lee, 2011; Grimm and Needham, 2011), experiences (Bailey and Russell, 2010; Barbieri, vd. 2012), protection-oriented project activities for local people (Coghlan, 2006; Brightsmith, 2008), benefits of volunteerism (Qian and Yarnal, 2010) and another research area is about harmful point of view of volunteerism (Guttentag, 2009). In this study, Ulan Batur which is a project uncover before. This volunteer project was contextualized with before, during and after as a process and investigated all sides of volunteer experience.

Methodology

This research aims to support a different point of view for volunteer tourism as a look side from volunteers and managers who lead volunteers for the same purposes. As a result of this aim of the study, we determined Mongolia, UlanBatur field study that was applied by SosyalBen Association, Istanbul. The research questions within this framework divided into three categories like before-during and after as shown as follows:

- How do volunteers define the term of volunteerism and volunteer movement?
- How do volunteers separate the term of volunteerism and social responsibility?
- How do volunteers and managers interpret the relationship between tourism and volunteerism?
- How do volunteers evaluate their leisure time at UlanBatur, Mongolia?
- What are the main motivations to be a volunteer?

In line with above listed research themes, this research was designed as a qualitative study. Thus, the main target is to explore some unsearched issues within volunteer tourism frame. Qualitative methods facilitate study of issues in depth and detail (Patton, 2002, p.14).

Volunteerism and volunteer tourism terms need to be investigated deeply. Focus group (interview) technique was used as a data collection tool in order to get a deep understanding of terms (Morgan 1988). The focus group interview has been defined as an interview with a small group of people on a specific topic (Patton, 2002, p. 285). On the other definition, Dean (1994, p.342) states that focus group is an informal, small-group discussion designed to obtain in-depth qualitative information.

Firstly, the main themes under the main phenomenon were defined and the main questions have been identified according to the existing literature (Wearing, 2001, McGehee & Santos, 2005, Callanan, 2005, Coghlan, 2007, Sin, 2009, Butcher & Smith, 2010, Wearing & McGehee, 2013). The interview form has 12 questions. Two moderators conducted focus group where different types of discussions had been held in. Before the focus group study, all moderators had been educated. The group consists of six participants who are members of SosyalBen Association as volunteers. Participants were asked to discuss their experiences (before, during and after as a whole process) and some general issues – i.e. volunteerism, volunteer tourism, and their past experiences. The focus group study was held in Istanbul to reach participants easily. The length of the discussions in the focus group had been taken approximately two hours. All discussions during focus group were tape recorded. One of the researchers or moderators took some notes when the other ones addressed the research questions. After the focus group interview, the moderators made some debriefing to make a framework for the findings.

After the focus group interviews, all records have been written by one of the researchers. Content analysis was used to analyze text data. Content analysis defined as “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts to the contexts of their use” (Krippendorff, 2004, p.18). All pages were evaluated and then coded individually by each researcher to get more reliable and trustworthy findings and results. After being consensus on the codes, four main themes or nodes and 24 child nodes under these themes were defined through selective coding method (Creswell, 2013). Descriptive analysis is also used to highlight dramatic issues and show these vital points with readers of this research.

Findings

As a result of content analysis, classification for steps of the project is needed to apply to see differences and commonalities for each step. Thus, four main themes are identified as general, before, during and after the field as listed in Table 1. General codes are also divided into six inferior codes –i.e. volunteerism, entrepreneurship, social responsibility, association, tourism and stakeholders. Focus group results clearly indicate that participants see volunteerism as a different term from give donations to disadvantaged groups- i.e. old people, children, homeless and poor people. The finding dramatically shows that volunteers have seen their job or duties as a long process. Thus, the volunteers have mostly mention that volunteerism is related with sustainability. Some of the interviewees also remark on meaning of the volunteerism. The findings shows volunteers defines volunteerism is a kind of philosophy which people need to adopt it into their daily lives. The focus group results find out volunteers can change and shape world's future and can remove some barriers between societies. As a result of analysis, it seen as a necessity for human-beings and this movement includes help other for disadvantaged people who generally live in underdeveloped territories.

In order to understand the motivations of volunteers, researchers asked for general perceptions of their experiences at UlanBatur, Mongolia. Most focused themes has emerged and named as socializing with other volunteers and local people, enthusiasm, excitement and make someone and themselves happy.

Nodes

| <i>Child Nodes</i> | General | Before Field | During Field | After Field |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| <i>Volunteerism</i> | Altruism Strong Effect Charity Disadvantages Group Sustainability Need Emotion Reach Future Philosophy Globalization Disadvantages Territory Necessity | | | |
| <i>Entrepreneurship</i> | Income Cycle Design | | | |
| <i>Social Responsibility</i> | Awareness Frame Cluster | | | |
| <i>Association</i> | Systematic Work Division Plan Meeting Education Experience Acceptance Process Eagerness | | | |
| <i>Tourism</i> | Vocation Accommodation Instinct Exploring New Destinations Meeting New People Trip Shopping | | | |
| <i>Stakeholders</i> | University Local People Sponsorship | | | |
| <i>Target</i> | | Sustainability Livable World Experience | | |
| <i>Destination</i> | | Climate Culture Local People Physical Feature | | |
| <i>Past Experience</i> | | Hosting Teaching Old-Age Pension Hand Out Food, Donation Society For Prevention Of Child Reading | | |
| <i>Barrier</i> | | System Exams Daily Responsibilities | | |

| | | | | |
|---------------------|--|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--|
| <i>Motivation</i> | | Reach People Socialization Belonging Make Yourself Happy Make Someone Happy Self-Actualization Carrier Enthusiasm Excitement Effectiveness | | |
| <i>Requirement</i> | | Budget Time | | |
| <i>Preparations</i> | | Language Learn Culture Fertilization Volunteer Book Making Research Plan Meeting Clothing Cooperation Accommodation Workshop Budget Planning Flight Operations Health Issues | | |
| <i>Budget</i> | | Accommodation Flight Ticket Food And Beverages Personnel Budget Association Budget Currency | | |
| <i>Education</i> | | | Art Academy Photography Design Social Education Learn Dance Workshop | |
| <i>Interaction</i> | | | Cultural Transmissio n Learn New Culture | |
| <i>Teamwork</i> | | | Family Team Togethernes s Support Serve The Same Purpose | |
| <i>Duties</i> | | | Prepare Workshop Plan Visiting Diplomacy Meeting Preparation Evaluation | |

| | | | | |
|-----------------------|--|--|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <i>Experience</i> | | | Communica te Translator Local People Body Language Taking Photo | |
| <i>Sustainability</i> | | | | Educate Local Teachers Exchange Programs |
| <i>Contribution</i> | | | | Individual Experience Learn Different Cultures Self-Actualization Pleasure Self-Improvement Social Status Social- Awareness Support Sharing Contribution |
| <i>Output</i> | | | | Feedback |

Volunteers were asked to reflect on whether they thought their experience at Mongolia would change them personally or socially. The volunteers explained how the major impact occurs on their lives and society. The results demonstrate volunteer tourism contribute to improvement, social capital and well-being. In addition, these type of activities significantly lead to personal change. Volunteers frequently indicated that the way they looked at “life” and “cultures” had been transformed. The findings reveal that volunteer tourism give a chance to volunteers to immerse in a different culture. In addition, the majority of volunteers spend their day to educate children and teachers in Mongolia. That’s the reason the volunteers don’t have lots of time to spend on touristic activities.

Discussion and Conclusion

The results of the study indicate that tourism and volunteerism have intuitively perceived. These two terms have basically seen as similar. However, volunteers expressed motivation to travel somewhere has the second importance to being involved volunteer activities. As a results of findings, it can be mention that volunteers would not want to mention direct relationship between tourism and volunteering. The results emphasize that volunteers has mostly seen their volunteer activities more vital than tourism in general. But the researchers notice some dialogues directly refer to tourism definition. Exploring new places or destinations is one of the main motivations to travel (Cohen, 1972). In that phase, volunteers pointed out some expressions about vocation, exploring new destination, meeting new people, trip and shopping.

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The multidimensional impact of Dark Tourism practices on local population, in natural disaster sites: the case of Montserrat, West Indies

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Literature review

In recent years, there has been significant academic discussions over the rise of Dark Tourism trends, as the visits to places associated to death, mourning or atrocities (Foley & Lennon, 1996). More of a marketing niche than a business or cultural label, this form of Tourism has attracted global attention and created controversial discussions, although it is considered to be the most ancient type of movement from the time of Colosseum during the Roman Empire (Hohenhaus, n.d).

Dark Tourism or Thanatourism embraces a wide range of subcategories, many of which are subject to debate, since they overlap with motives of Danger or Extreme Tourism, among others. Disaster Tourism, is a subcategory of dark tourism that is specifically directed to tourism to destinations devastated by natural or man-made catastrophes (e.g. nuclear sites, areas that have been hit by earthquakes or have a significant volcanic history). This tourism form represents a less widespread trend, with numerous limitations, both natural and ethical (Sather-Wagstaff, 2011).

Dark Tourism fanatics are usually driven by the eagerness to witness history and to experience a historical event that happened, not by their fascination with death. It is, in all its forms, a multi-dimensional experience that can have a deep impact and make people put their life in perspective from a comfortable distance, (Aicken, *et.al.*, 2006). The economic condition, sociocultural status, age and other indicators of the visitor profile may vary, but in their majority dark tourists are characterized by a higher educational and financial background, as compared to the average mass tourist (Gaya, 2013).

According to Daams (2007), dark tourism provides an intricate experience that can have profound relevance to our perception and critical ability. Additionally, it contributes to the restoration and reclamation of the area, as a result of the tourism income multiplier effect. While it also provides emotional and psychological benefits to the visitors, given that the Dark tourism related practices are often used as an educational tool and an instrument to externalize the effects that are associated to the situation (Walsh, 1992).

At a macro level, it is crucial that dark tourism practices guarantee financial support for the visiting areas and cultural interaction with the local population as part of the reconstruction effort that is associated to the damaging event. Moreover, it is a mechanism of resiliency helping society to accelerate recovery after a tragedy (Korstanje, 2012), “a form of domesticating death in a secularized world and scrutinizing fundamental interrelationships of the contemporary commodification of death with the cultural condition of society” (Stone, 2013; p. 312).

Dark tourism is a broad ranging and often-contentious consumer activity that can provoke debate about how death and the dead are packaged up and consumed within the modern visitor economy as emphasized by Stone. The industry remains one of the most controversial mainly due to lack of detailed reports, studies and expertise and has been criticized for

consumer incentives that could be associated with voyeuristic behavior. Part of the opposition accuses Dark Tourism of pursuing economic exploitation of human tragedy and violation of privacy, for supporting extreme political regimes, for amplifying the environmental footprint, for setting impediments to the provided humanitarian aid, as well as for superficiality and lack of interactivity (Coote, 2012) The institute for Dark Tourism Research states that within its sensitive morality dilemmas, such practices can also reveal tensions in cultural memory, interpretation and authenticity (Stone & Sharley, 2009)

Its intricate and interdisciplinary nature reveals a need for further understanding of its structure and impact, moving forward from the over-researched visitors' motives, in order to build upon sustainable development of the sector and fully utilize it for social, cultural or environmental rehabilitation purposes.

Methodology

Montserrat, an island in the Caribbean Sea and an overseas territory of United Kingdom, is a unique case of Disaster Tourism destination at its very early stage of development stage, compared to its pre-disaster era, when it used to be a vibrant spot of residential and eco tourism. The area has been devastated by all elements of nature, including long lasting droughts and the renowned Hurricane Hugo in 1986 which was followed by a series of volcanic eruptions, most catastrophic being the ones in 1995 and 1997. The latter lead to the evacuation of two thirds of the island's terrain and to the overwhelming reduction of its population to 5,100 inhabitants from 12,000 in the period prior to the eruptions (Worldmeters, 2015). Recently, a more structured tourism activity in the exclusion zone (area with restricted entrance marked as unsafe) has been achieved with the authorization program for tour guides provided by the state.

The aim of this study is to identify the role of Dark Tourism in the alleviation process at all levels and in constructing and reinforcing a destination identity. More specifically, the objectives of the study are:

- i) to record all Dark tourism practices that have been established in the island, the operating mechanisms and attributes and to discover the business growth potential
- ii) to underline its socio-cultural impacts and externalize the ethics and deontology within Dark Tourism
- iii) to explore the contribution of Disaster Tourism in the relief process of Montserrat today, as well as the possible contribution of such tourism forms in the revitalization of the area in the future.

In order for the above objectives to be accomplished, a field research has been conducted in the island during the period of April to June 2016, enriched with prior secondary data over demographics, existing policies, local narratives, community engagement (forms of businesses, cognition and cohesion of enterprises, figures on income-turnover, records of local views, involvement of various social backgrounds). The primary study took place in two steps. The first step involved the conduction of face-to face in-depth interviews with local tourism stakeholders, including governmental officers, accessibility coordinators, external strategy advisors and international marketers, representatives of the Montserrat Development Corporation and Economic Chamber, tour operators, representatives of the scientific sectors, including the Volcano Observatory, the Hospitality Association, the Disaster Management Corporation, British Governmental officers (DfiD and FCO) and other public, governmental or private institutions representatives, along with individuals with a wider, but related background (i.e. Ministers of Education, Agriculture and security) shaping Disaster Tourism status. In total, 28 interviews have been conducted during May and June 2016. The second step of the primary study involved the of face -to face distribution of semi-structured questionnaires to the local population. More specifically an effort was made to create a sample that would include people of every group that is directly or indirectly affected

by tourism- related decisions and acts. That includes hospitality employees, shop owners, museums, food and beverage managers/owners, expats and underprivileged social groups have been included in the sample. The participants were given a semi-structured bilingual questionnaire (in English and Spanish) that consisted mainly of open-ended questions. The population's mentality with respect to providing their personal opinions posed difficulties during the data collection phase, resulting in a small number of 113 usable questionnaires that represent a 2.2% of the island's population. As random sampling was not a feasible option, due to time constraints and inability of the researcher to travel around the island, a convenience sampling method has been applied. This step has been supplemented by 10 additional face to face in depth interviews with individuals from the above mentioned target group. The steps described above opted to capture the widest possible range of Montserrat population views and opinions, inducing them to express additional aspirations and personal concerns. This methodology focuses on revealing a causation and effectuation model through combining empirical analysis, qualitative field research and the use of worldwide case studies as a reference point, in order to connect the study's results to relevant Dark Tourism practices.

Another limitation of this study refers to the shortage of basic secondary data combined with the obstacles that were set by the official statistic department and other institutional sources. Therefore, vital rates, documents, past and present figures were not available and thus only few data have been incorporated in the research analysis. This has been counteracted by the small scale reality into which exchange of information, contact making and a sufficient approached percentage of population were achieved. Notably, the results interpretation is asked by governmental bodies and individuals attached to Tourism acts in order to fulfil the for records of innovative proposals, researched fields and replacement of inaccurate data towards the implementation of the recently launched new Tourism Strategy upon new governance.

Preliminary Results

A number of difficulties during the conduction of the field research have revealed some intriguing traces regarding the societal structure of Montserrat, as well as a need to readapt the pre-designed methodology to the new environment with tight time limitation. According to the most recent Tourism Strategy Montserrat should readapt a residential and ecotourism focus as it used to be during its pre-volcano vibrant era, while Disaster Tourism should be applied using a volcano-inclusive, rather than a volcano-centered approach.

An important aspect revealed from the survey is how the dramatic changes in the island's demographics have led to a weaker emotional connection to the activities within the exclusion zone. This is the result of an aging and diminishing Montserratian population, an expanding ex-pat community and numerous not properly integrated Caribbean ethnic groups of workforce, combined with an overwhelming wave of locals migrating abroad after the massive disasters. It is argued that, the observed brain drain, lack of capacity and unskilled tourism workers could be partially counteracted by increased economic activity in the field or by a notorious wave of upcoming educational, scientific programs related to the volcano that attract foreigners and engage residents.

Still a virgin destination, locals almost unanimously agree with the use of the volcano as a tool to differentiate the island into the Caribbean context regardless of the Disaster Tourism aspect -towards which a superficial apathy may occur- as it is not as interactive and inclusive nor as profitable as other forms of tourism. In addition, there is a general dissatisfaction with the island being associated to the disaster, as in the official mottos 'Ash to Cash', 'Green or Greet' and 'Modern Day Pompeii'. The negative points also include a limited distribution of Disaster Tourism turnover, attraction of low-quality tourism, and a continuous false impression that relates Disaster Tourism to a welfare state image, as well as safety concerns that are related to the development of disaster tourism activities. It is worth mentioning that

the Soufriere Hills volcano is responsible for the very lucrative geothermal energy trade and sand-mining trade, and thus its value so far is very much underestimated.

Although the condition of the natural environment is gradually being normalized, the volcanic activity and risk assessment levels are still high, discouraging business investments. The scientific community suggests potential benefits are balanced out by multiple concerns, underlining that risk perception is more relaxed nowadays, which creates a misleading impression of safety. Furthermore, authorities hold reports of vandalism, unauthorized sea arrivals and smuggling of illegal drugs within the exclusion zone. As the majority of the visits refer to day-trips from Antigua and Barbuda with cruise liners, packages are fully-structured, short-term and do not usually include any interaction with the community. Unofficial debates on ethics and effect of the visits do exist, but are only associated to the fact that visitors in the exclusion zone are usually uncontrolled, not-supervised individuals. With respect to the economic impacts, it is argued that living costs have been increased as a result of the tourism activity, while on the other hand tourism income only affects a few in an already income-wise polarized society.

On the positive side, the development of Disaster Tourism provided the opportunity to externalize Monserrat's culture and communicate the actual situation by mouth-to-mouth advertisement, enhanced international awareness over the island, provided the incentive for formal discussions over responsible expansion of the area, has boosted slightly the economic activity and normalized the existing high seasonality of employment in the island.

It is interesting to note at this point, that, according to the preliminary data analysis, tourism is not considered to be a promising industry in the eyes of locals and seems to represent only a small percentage in the GDP breakdown (ECCU, 2015) with a relatively small growth rate. In addition, certain impediments that are associated with the complex dual government regime and public debates on the current inadequate management of the available funds have repeatedly brought up the issues of corruption, absence of meritocracy and conflicted priorities in development.

Accessibility issues are excessively emphasized and there is an urgent need to enhance the tourism arrivals and overnight stays. The development and review of the island's Tourism Strategy is fully participatory and systematic and reflects the opinions of various stakeholders' views. However, complaints in regard to its implementation are widely echoed and feedback is given both from individuals and from industry practitioners, followed by exterior policy advisors. Foreign investment could be the low-hanging fruit for development under the condition of a less bureaucratic and more entrepreneurial reality.

Undoubtedly, Disaster Tourism development requires excellent destination management in order to fully extract the financial, environmental and social advantages that are associated with the traumatic incident for Montserratians. It can intensively contribute to the reinforcement of the destination's identity and has definitely not reached its full growth potential. Locals have not yet realized that disaster tourism could play a key role to the recovery even though there is proof it could be so under certain circumstances and conditions.

It is a very challenging endeavor to distinguish the economic as well as the socio-cultural implications that can be attributed mainly to Disaster Tourism. Nonetheless, this field research created a space for public dialogue and gave food for thought to the local community. It has been welcomed by the majority of the local population, which actually considered this study to be very intriguing. Countless proposals have been tracked concerning the fundamental product development, for instance ways to add recreational activities for the public and stabilize the tourism sector by pushing it more positively in the political agenda so that it becomes everybody's consideration.

This study provides a preliminary exploratory review identifying opportunities for further research in the area, especially in combination with other disciplines. Notable fields are immigration-naturalization of skilled non-nationals, ways to ensure sustainable development and equal distribution of tourism turnover among the population, innovative ways to enrich the tourism product and reinforce a long-lasting destination identity or improve cooperation between stakeholders.

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Volunteer Tourism and Living with Contradiction: Symbiosis or just Compromise?

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Volunteer tourism (VT) hinges on the assumption that if problems faced by communities are by nature divergent, they must also have many solutions. If a problem can have many solutions, then it can also have a diversity of people with a diversity of experience working out these solutions. Volunteer tourism creates this social capital as it brings together individuals from diverse backgrounds and expertise all working on a common goal and in a variety of settings. Contemporary volunteer tourism is a commercialised tourism activity incorporating volunteer services combining serving environmental, cultural, or humanitarian causes with tourism related activities. It applies to tourists who travel with a purpose (Brown and Lehto, 2005) and wish to make a difference (Coghlan, 2006), while enjoying themselves. There is a growing provision of volunteer experiences with many commercial tour operators, environmental and humanitarian NGOs, and academic groups offering travellers the opportunity to participate in projects assisting in community development, scientific research, or ecological and cultural restoration (Wearing, 2004; Wight, 2003).

Arguably one of the main objectives of the marketing of volunteer tourism was to transform it into an institution which would place people, the environment and other worthwhile causes at the centre of production, trade and consumption. As such, the ethical qualities of volunteer tourism opportunities became its product characteristics that distinguished them from other competing tourism products. It was this 'difference' that made volunteer tourism eventually widely available and highly visible. In the field of ethical branding such characteristics (Crespi and Marette, 2003) provide consumers with simple, useful and credible information on complex issues along the supply chain (Hartlieb and Jonnen, 2009). This codification of complex information into a simple, easy to digest message turned certain ethical aspects into product quality, and then that in turn created a new field where sellers started to compete for consumers' hearts and minds, as a new niche market was born.

This niche in its current form is the result of multilevel but inherently incompatible institutional processes which are derived from the institutionalization of VT and all its key stakeholders. To start with, agent or broker VT organizations have to a large extent emulated the successful model of other tourism operators and they have been institutionalised and typified by practice. In addition the volunteers themselves have also become institutionalised themselves as the identity of the volunteer tourist is adopted over and over again. The experiences may vary but the individuals comfortably slip into the shoes of the typified volunteer tourist. Finally the recipients of the volunteers' help have also become institutionalised with this process possibly being underlined by colonialism remnants and the reinforcement of stereotypes in the discourse of VT. This symbiotic relationship of different institutions brings forth friction as all above agents are seeking the best outcome for themselves. This strife to secure best outcomes means that different institutions involved in the VT experience have misaligned interests that added to the inherent incompatibility and ambiguities of the VT phenomenon create a critical mass that leads to change. This critical mass is finally at a point when change is inevitable and VT was transformed as a consequence of these contradictions as agents work in order to make the most of any situation and circumstances. Through this process VT has become segmented in terms of practice and that is reflected on all stakeholders.

To the professional manager charged with the responsibility of managing the volunteer tourism organization the external environment of volunteer tourism poses several challenges. Volunteer tourism has grown more competitive as markets and competitors globalize, and volunteer tourism organizations seek lines for sponsorship and have to uphold their brand as a means of attracting volunteers. The literature of volunteer tourism has highlighted the differences in pricing strategy and approach by different volunteer tourism NGOs (Callanan and Thomas, 2005; Tomazos and Butler, 2009; Tomazos and Cooper, 2012). To achieve profit maximization, a volunteer organization, just like any other firm, must attempt to increase its output as long as the marginal revenue from the last volunteer placement produced is greater than the marginal cost of that placement (see Saiia, Carroll and Buchholtz, 2003). From a strict economic standpoint, a firm that seeks only to maximize profits will not make any decisions that will prevent it from getting the highest possible utility out of each unit sold. To a large extent VT NGOs see VT experiences as commodities, or market goods, and in many respects in trying to make a commodity out of helping others, they may be running the risk of spoiling the experience all together. Fortunately, there is still an element of volunteer tourism that sees VT more like a mission, instead of just a commoditized tourism product. To them partaking in VT, is not only a marketable good, but also a gift. If all VT brokers charged as much as the market could bare, the gift nature of VT would have been forsaken as it would have excluded individuals of more modest means of making this gift. Perhaps this is just mere market positioning through price management, as the lower charging brokers adopt a strategy to forgo some revenue in the short term in order to preserve good will and the moral high ground so that to maximize earnings in the long term. But in any case, this contradiction in pricing strategies may also reflect that some VT brokers believe that to treat VT as solely a marketable commodity, would be to demean it.

There are brokers that position themselves as up-market and inclusive type of experience providers or operators who provide –for a premium- extra services to volunteers who can afford it. They have identified that they can be successful by catering to this niche of the market, playing on potential volunteers' insecurity, but also their desire to have fun. At the other end of the spectrum are organizations that use a very different approach. They charge a very small amount for a placement- usually a one-off-fee and they provide no extra services. Finally there are also organizations that provide their services free of charge, but they usually have an agenda of social engineering or a religion related scope. This segmentation through praxis is also reflected in the different approaches by the managers of VT projects. On the one hand you have projects that completely understand the fun element of the experience and that is manifested in short shifts, and the welcoming of a large number of volunteers, who most of the time, feel redundant and/or surplus to requirements. On the other hand there are projects that place emphasis on the task at hand and they usually require the volunteers to work long shifts and they are very strict in terms of their rules and management

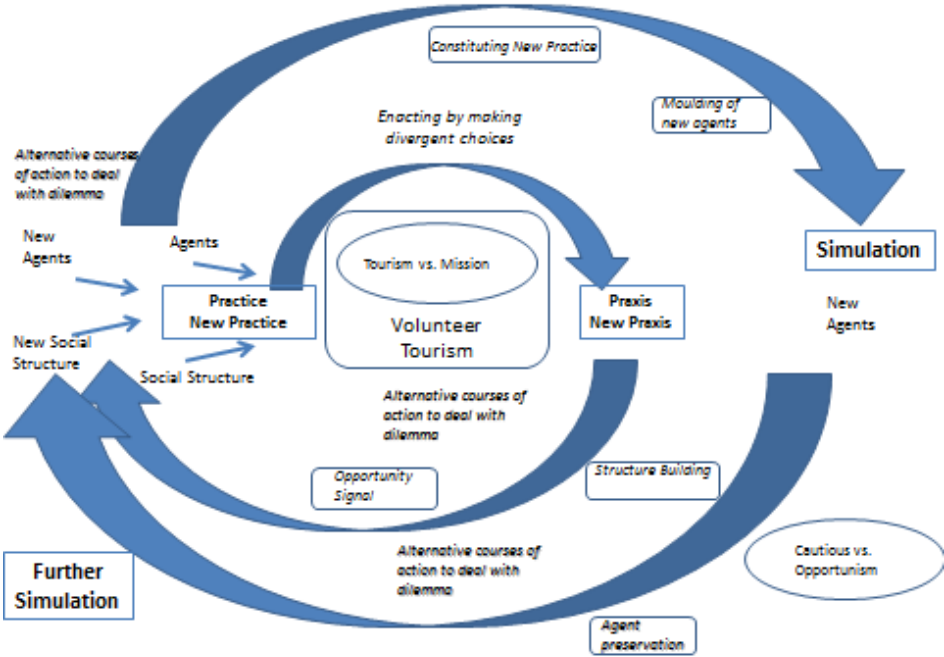
Inevitably this segmentation also applies to the volunteers but also their experiences. After all they are the paying customers who, at least to some extent, have been shaping the supply of the VT experience. Volunteers have been found to be very reflexive in terms of trying to make the most of their experiences and we must not overlook in this process, how different individuals will perceive their participation. Every volunteer's journey is different to the next one, despite the fact that the institutionalization of VT has put in place a few common characteristics. Most volunteers for a pre-determined period of time pay in order to do volunteer work. Some of them will go through very rigorous screening, others will not. Some will receive appropriate training, others will not. Some will think they are making a difference, others will be left disillusioned and underwhelmed by the experience, and some will make a real impact through their work, while others will be surplus to requirements

So VT has reached a cross-road in its development where the institutionalization process and the activities of heterogeneous agents, serving their own interests have turned VT into a very segmented, prolific and ambiguous phenomenon. This ambiguity and proliferation has

left VT open to criticism about the role of the volunteers and the actual impact of their efforts. It is clear that VT has already become very commercial and that it has become a very sophisticated tourism niche. While the jury is still out in terms of the long term effects and impacts of VT, it is clear that VT as an institution or a collection of many different and competing institutions is in need of reform in order to ensure that there is a level of consistency in terms of the ethos, the impact and the quality of the volunteer involved. But unfortunately, things are not that simple.

VT to a large extent in its current shape and form is the result of the efforts of individual actors striving to accomplish their own goals. This paper draws on the findings of covert ethnographic research at a children’s home in Cambodia that identified nine stakeholders in the VT ecosystem. These stakeholders identified in the study have their own agenda and their own strengths and weaknesses and as agents are faced with dilemmas when making decisions that have both direct and indirect outcomes. As illustrated in Figure 1 at the heart of VT there is the inherent dilemma Tourism vs Mission and as agents choose their course of action, practice starts to take shape. When divergent agents take alternative courses of action to deal with this dilemma, new praxis and new social structure emerges, which in turn is cemented, as others see this opportunity signal and follow suit. This new practice is slowly constituted and in the process becomes instrumental in the moulding of new agents. As a result what emerges in the end is a simulated version of the original structure/order, a simulacrum of volunteer tourism. Moving forward, these newly moulded agents are bound to build structures and make choices that would contribute to their self-preservation and the safe-guarding of their own interests; in this process they are limited only by how cautious or opportunistic they choose to be. In accordance, there is further simulation and this cycle as illustrated in Figure 1 continues to grow as centrifugal forces take hold and push VT away from its original axis. This diagram illustrates that given the large scope of VT, the diversity of the agents involved but also the inherent paradoxes and its ambiguity, every attempt to reform VT will inevitably create new problems as the contradictions and the serving of the interests of different agents will mean that the issues are transformed, transferred, camouflaged, ignored but never solved.

Figure 2: A Never Ending Cycle of Simulation



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„Dark Tourism“ – Web Content Evaluation of Visitors Experience at selected European Torture Museums

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Initially known as ‘black spots’ (after Rojek, 1993) tourist attractions that are related to death and dying have attracted the attention of the academic world and since the introduction of the concept of dark tourism by Lennon and Foley (1996) many articles and books on this subject have been published. Although some prefer the concept of thanatourism as introduced by Seaton (1996) this research, focusing on communication between suppliers and consumers opted for the definition of Lennon and Foley (1996) and the categories suggested by Stone (2006). The locations chosen for the case studies were four torture museums in western Europe that could be classified as belonging to the second and/or third category as suggested by Stone (2006), e.g. dark exhibitions with educational elements and/or dark dungeons. In two cases the exhibitions were offered in original dungeons therefore both categories seem applicable. The four case study locations were : 1) the Prison Gate museum (“Gevangenschap”) in The Hague, Netherlands, 2) The Countship’s castle (“Gravensteen”) in Ghent, Belgium, 3) The Medieval Crime Museum (“Kriminalmuseum”) in Rothenburg ob der Tauber , Germany, and 4) The Museum of Medieval Torture Instruments in Prague (Czech Republic). These museums were chosen because of their location and the fact that visitors left reviews on Tripadvisor.

The objective of this research was to determine what terminology was used in online reviews of the selected museums, in order to understand how dark tourism attractions are perceived and evaluated by their visitors and to recommend dark tourism sites how to effectively communicate with the visitors. To achieve this aim, this research used a mixed approach combining desk and field research techniques such as content analysis, netnography, and semi structured interviews. The first two methods took the shape of code books where the personal and physical contexts of the visitors were analyzed according to the interactive experience model by Falk and Dierking (1992) and the last one looked at the identity of the resource as perceived by its management. A combination of deskresearch, non-structured interviews and in situ observations also allowed the researchers to define the position of the four sites within the dark tourism spectrum provided by Stone (2006).

In terms of terminology the results, that were collected between January first and April twelve 2015 showed that visitors perceived their experience at the museums as being very interesting, arousing their interest and curiosity. Also, they evaluated their visit as an educational experience, where they learned about the dark history of crime, punishment, torture and the dark side of humanity. In terms of dark tourism terminology there was no direct reference made to dark tourism, but many visitors described their experience as being scary and frightening. Other labels which were recognized in the visitors’ reviews were: macabre, morbid tourism, negative sightseeing, gruesome, graphic, unusual and different. In general the visits were described as an interesting and educational experience that provided insight into such subjects as the Middle Ages, crime and punishment and the location itself. According to most reviews the authenticity of the buildings in The Hague and Ghent as former prisons definitely contributed to the experience

Furthermore, the interviews with the management gathered substantial data on their desired identity which was compared with the online identity (official website) according to the Mind the Gap model by Van der Grinten (2010). In general the management wanted visitors to see

their identity as being serious and historical museums which are there to educate the visitors about the dark medieval history of torture. A connection with the concept of dark tourism was not spontaneously made by the management and in fact some considered it a negative connotation. However, after further explanation they agreed that their attractions could be considered as elements in of the dark tourism spectrum and some even requested more information about this subject.

Although the museums had a substantial amount of reviews on the world's largest travel review site TripAdvisor (Prague: 35; Ghent : 212; The Hague : 21 and Rothenburg : 104) these were not (yet) considered as a possible relevant contribution to the museums identity by the management. Some of the museums do not have a very strong on-line presence but, according to the management depend upon the unique location, historical authenticity, and word of mouth recommendations to attract visitors (The Hague). The museum in Ghent emphasizes the history and renovation of the castle on its website and the first mentioning of the torture museum can only be found after clicking the page that mentions the museum of judicial objects. According to the management the local history should be offered in an entertaining manner, due to the fact that many visitors are children. In Rothenburg the management seems more aware of reviews, since they feature the Tripadvisor logo on their landing page and encourage visitors to write or read reviews. Entertainment is not part of the mission and the focus is on education and even research. Surprisingly the museum in Prague does not have an official website, but can only be found amongst other through the Prague City Line website which gives an extensive overview of the city's sights and attractions. According to the management a website is not needed because the museum has "enough followers" all over the world. In contrast with the other locations there is more emphasis on morbidity and people with "a weak stomach" are recommended not to visit.

Regarding the possible gaps between desired and online identity it can be stated that there is no difference between these for The Hague where the website contains the mission as expressed by the management. The same can also be said for the museum in Rothenburg. In the case of Ghent there was a gap between the desired and the on-line identity, as the mission of the museum is not made clear and there seems to be no clear choice between history and entertainment, or stories and facts. The fact that the Prague museum did not have a website made it impossible to compare the desired identity to the on-line version. Finally when comparing the museums within the dark tourism spectrum The Hague should be positioned as darker because of the fact that a well-known Dutch politician was kept a prisoner and tortured there. The location ranks higher on a scale of political influence and ideology. The Prague museum ranks lowest since they only exhibit a range of torture instruments. Both The Hague and Rothenburg put more emphasis on education and therefore should be regarded as darker than the other two locations. And the same can be said when comparing the emphasis on conservation or commercialization. When analyzing the authenticity, The Hague stands out as the darkest site. Although the Ghent castle did have political prisoners, the present exhibition is in one of the former courtrooms that has no direct connection with torture and therefore it is ranked as less authentic than the exhibition in The Hague. The Rothenburg collection used to be located in the original torture chamber but was moved to another historical building because of the growth of the amount of artefacts. Regarding the supply as non-purposeful or purposeful The Hague and to a lesser extent Ghent could be considered as the former since these buildings were originally built to house (and torture) prisoners. When looking at the tourism infrastructure again The Hague should be considered more dark than the others, allowing only guided tours for small groups. The attention given to education and research in Rothenburg would position this museum as just one category lighter than the previous one, while Ghent and Prague should be considered as the lightest. Within Stone's categorisation of dark dungeons and exhibitions The Hague could be considered as having a darker shade, while Prague and to some extent Ghent should be considered as lighter versions.

Summarizing one could state that all these researched dark sites are involved providing their visitors with information about former, often medieval punishment. However some put more emphasis on education than others and this might influence the experience of the visitors and therefore their reviews. Their desired identity was mostly in line with their online identity found on the website, but in the case of Prague no website was available for making this analysis. Furthermore this research revealed that the terminology used by visitors in relation to their experiences and the concept of dark tourism is not obvious. The content analysis results justify the conclusion that the dark tourism terminology used by the academia is not the same as the ones used in the visitor reviews, but that generic expressions confirm the fact that certain locations might well be classified as darker or lighter versions of dark tourism attractions and that within certain categories lighter and darker shades might be applied.

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