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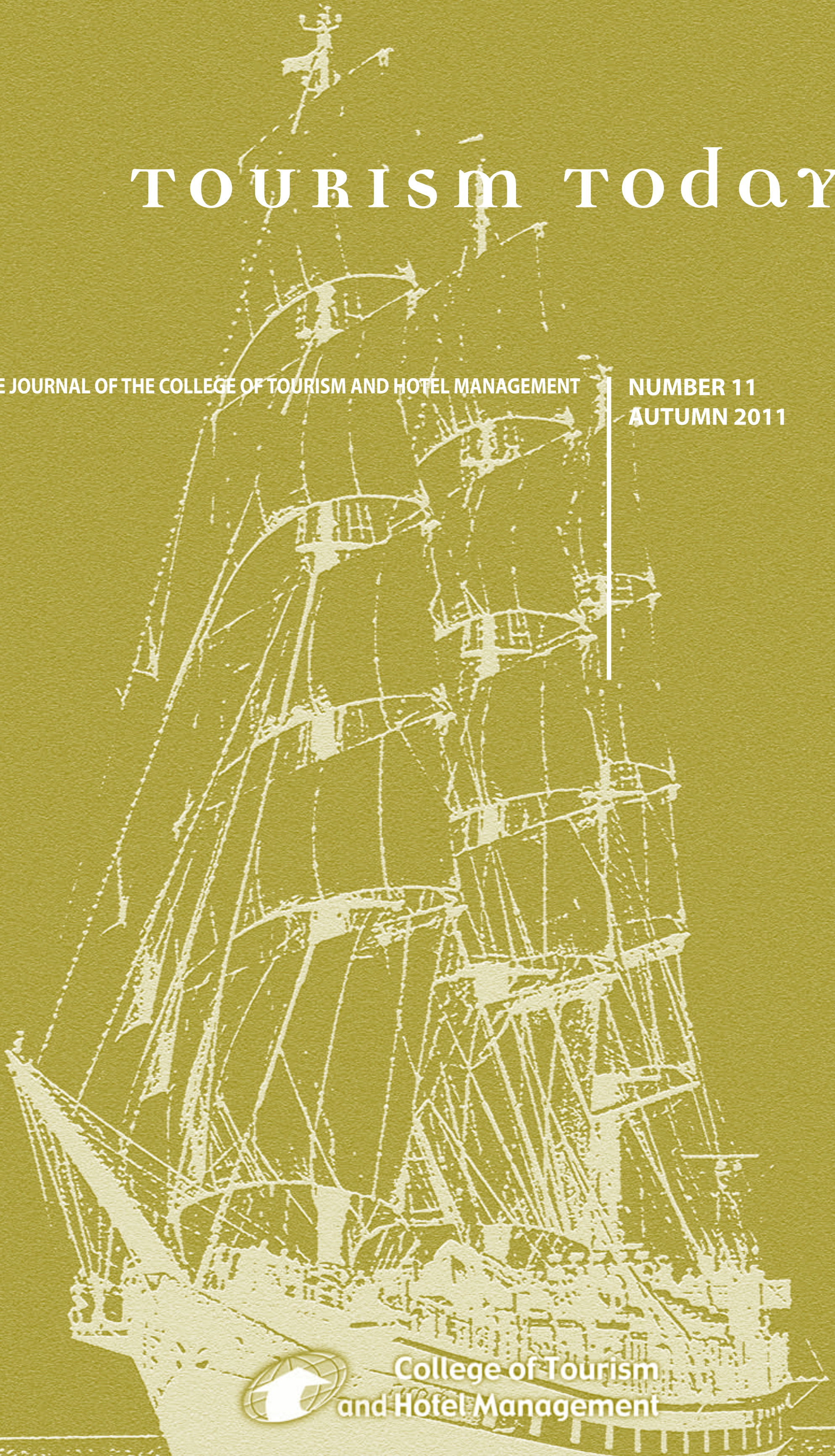

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Editorial Board

Editorial Board

Aims & Scope

Tourism Today serves as an international, scholarly, and refereed journal aiming to promote and enhance research in the fields of tourism and hospitality. The journal is published by the College of Tourism and Hotel Management, Cyprus and is intended for readers in the scholarly community who deal with the tourism and hospitality industries, as well as professionals in the industry. *Tourism Today* provides a platform for debate and dissemination of research findings, new research areas and techniques, conceptual developments, and articles with practical application to any tourism or hospitality industry segment. Besides research papers, the journal welcomes book reviews, conference reports, case studies, research notes and commentaries.

Aims & Scope

The scope of the journal is international and all papers submitted are subject to strict double blind peer review by its Editorial Board and by international reviewers. The journal features conceptual and empirical papers, and editorial policy is to invite the submission of manuscripts from academics, researchers and industry practitioners. The Editorial Board will be looking particularly for articles about new trends and developments within the field of tourism and hospitality, and the application of new ideas and developments that are likely to affect tourism and hospitality in the future. The journal also welcomes submission of manuscripts in areas that may not be directly tourism-based but cover a topic that is of interest to researchers, educators and practitioners in the fields of tourism and hospitality.

Decisions regarding publication of submitted manuscripts are based on the recommendations of members of the Editorial Board and other qualified reviewers in an anonymous review process. Submitted articles are evaluated on their appropriateness, significance, clarity of presentation and conceptual adequacy. Negative reviews are made available to authors. The views expressed in the articles are those of the authors, and do not necessarily represent those of the Editorial Board of *Tourism Today* or of the College of Tourism and Hotel Management.

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Note from the Editor

Welcome to the eleventh edition of Tourism Today, the journal of the College of Tourism and Hotel Management. The College of Tourism and Hotel Management continues to make the journal available to anyone free of charge from its website, as has been the case for years.

This edition is an accomplishment since Tourism Today has now been in existence for more than ten years. The success of Tourism Today can be linked directly with the vision of Antonis Charalambides, who as the Director of the College of Tourism and Hotel Management understood the value of an academic journal to the College and the greater academic community. It was his initiative that launched the journal more than ten years ago. Although he has since retired, his vision is still a benefit to those who produce, read, and publish in Tourism Today.

The journal's success is due to the hard work and dedication of many people, including the members of the Editorial Board, the reviewers, the authors of articles found in the journal, and the management of the College of Tourism and Hotel Management. Savvas Adamides, the current Director of the College of Tourism and Hotel Management, has had the wisdom to continue to support the journal, understanding the value of the journal to the academic community. I am grateful to all of you for enabling us to continue to put together a quality journal every year.

This edition of the journal has a great deal of variety in terms of the topics dealt with, the representation from scholars in different countries, and the methods used to perform the research. While the last edition was a special issue focusing on a particular topic (Integrated Relational Tourism), this edition is a collection as varied in terms of topics and approaches as could be imagined. Readers should find at least one article in this edition of interest.

As has been the case for more than a decade now, constructive comments that could help us improve the journal are appreciated. In addition, we hope that those who read the journal will also take an active role in the journal by submitting research for our consideration.

We wish you a good reading.

Craig Webster
Editor-in-Chief, Tourism Today

'It really depends on whether you are in a relationship': a study of 'gay destinations' from a tourist perspective

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ABSTRACT

Gay destinations may appeal to gay tourists because such destinations offer a sense of freedom and/or the chance to be with other gays. However, not all gay tourists choose to visit gay destinations. Although some gay tourists often visit such destinations, others (some of which have visited gay destinations in the past) are not likely to visit gay destinations at all. In fact, it seems that gay destinations appeal more to some gays than others – and particularly to those who are not in a monogamous relationship. Moreover, some gays are willing to repress their sexuality in order to visit specific (non-gay) destinations and others have rather negative perceptions of gay destinations. Accordingly, attitudes and behaviour towards gay destinations vary considerably across the 53 people in our study and the paper discusses the theoretical and managerial implications of these findings.

Keywords: Gay tourism, lesbian tourism, gay destinations, destination choice

INTRODUCTION

An increasing number of destinations market themselves as gay destinations (Guaracino, 2007). For example, in 2003 Philadelphia launched the campaign 'Philadelphia Get Your History Straight and Your Nightlife Gay'. Other examples include cities such as Manchester, London and Copenhagen. However, in order to be(come) the tourists' (in our case gay tourists) destination of choice, one needs to know what motivates tourists as well as how they choose amongst destinations. In relation to homosexual tourists, Clift & Forrest (1999) distinguish between gay male tourists, who seek gay social life and sex while on vacation and are likely to visit well-known gay destinations (such as Ibiza, Grand Canary and Mykonos) and gay men, who would mostly visit non-gay destinations. Clift & Forrest's (1999) findings *could* be interpreted as if two different types of gays (or segments) exist; one which gay destinations should target and another which is of little interest to these destinations. However, the identification of both gay men that seek gay social life during the holidays and gay men that do *not* could also be interpreted as some holidays (*not* people) simply being 'more gay' than others. According to such interpretation, it might be more realistic to argue that fluidity characterizes gay people's lives as well as their identities and as a result, gays may choose different types of vacations at different points in time – making the claim that two different types (or static segments) of gays exist rather simplistic. The idea that the individual takes different kinds of holidays and henceforth, the idea that he/she cannot be classified as a particular 'type' of tourist, might be especially important in relation to gay tourists. Hence, if a homosexual tourist chooses to go to a gay destination (e.g. Sitges or Lesbos) one summer and goes to a non-gay destination (e.g. India or Saudi Arabia) the next summer, then existing typologies cannot adequately describe the behavioral patterns of such a tourist. Unfortunately, knowledge on why gay people choose (not) to go to a gay destination during the holidays is sparse. Accordingly, the purpose of this paper is to contribute with (context sensitive) knowledge on why gays choose (not) to spend their vacations at a gay destination.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

People might go on vacation in order to form images of who they would like to be (Decrop, 2006) and, homosexuals, as well as heterosexuals, might feel that they can show who they are through holiday choices. Accordingly, the choice (not) to spend the holidays at a gay destination is likely to relate to the identity, the gay tourist wishes to emphasize at a certain point in his/her life. Waitt & Markwell (2006), Blichfeldt et al (2011) and Bell & Valentine (1995) state that because society is dominated by 'hetero-normativity', many homosexuals constantly consider how they speak and behave in their everyday environment. However, going away on holiday may function as an opportunity to 'be oneself' and feel freed from the constraints of 'hetero-normative' practices. At the destination, gays can 'act out of character' (Cox, 2002; Graham, 2002; Waitt & Markwell, 2006; Hughes, 1997, 2002b). However, Hughes (2002b) found that most gay men chose not to be more open about their sexuality while on vacation. Nevertheless, some gays and lesbians might feel an 'additional' sense of freedom while holidaying because they go away from their everyday lives and constraints. Although gay and lesbian tourists might not be very different from straight tourists, there may be some aspects which gays and lesbians find more important than straights when they go on holiday. For example, it seems like gays and lesbians particularly look for belonging and acceptance when travelling (Waitt & Markwell, 2006; Pritchard et al., 2000; Cox, 2002; Hughes, 1997; 2002b) and are concerned about safety and escaping 'at home' constraints (Hughes 1997, 2002b, 2007; Pritchard et al., 2000; Howe, 2001). Hughes (2002a:185) argues that gay and lesbian tourists' choice of destination depends on "destination attributes and images, the tourist's motives and values, and time and income constraints" and thus, gays and lesbians seem to make destination choices in much the same way as straight tourists. However, Hughes (2002c) argues that an additional criterion might influence gay people's destination choices; i.e. a criterion he labels 'gay space'. Most gay tourists in Pritchard et al.'s (2000) study did not find that their sexuality influenced their holiday choices and/or travel motivations, nonetheless, these gay tourists did not want to go on holiday in a country where homosexuality is illegal. Moreover, when homosexual tourists choose holiday destinations, compared to heterosexual tourists, they are likely to take additional factors into account; e.g. the presence of gay space, the opportunity for socializing with other homosexuals and gay friendliness (Hughes, 2002a; 2005a). Both Hughes (2002a; 2002b), Pritchard et al (2000) and Cox (2002) argue that gays and lesbians do not only have to consider where they want to go and what they want to experience while on holiday, but they also need to take the social and juridical conditions for homosexuals at the destination into account and consider whether they can and will suppress their sexuality in order to avoid problems in destinations at which homosexuality is against the law. Drawing on these findings, sexuality might affect *rejection* of specific destinations more than it affects *choice* of destination.

Even in countries in which homosexuality is legal, gay and lesbian tourists might face discrimination, social disapproval and/or prejudices (Hughes, 2002a, 2002b; Pritchard et al., 1998a; 1998b). Hughes (2002b) states that the risk of being assaulted or feeling uncomfortable because of other people's reactions to homosexuality is something that gays take into account when choosing a holiday destination. Therefore, gays and lesbians might choose to spend their holidays at gay destinations (i.e. destinations where homosexuality is accepted and where gay and lesbians can be open about their sexuality). According to Pritchard et al. (2000), gays and lesbians are compelled to go to gay resorts and gay hotels, since holidays in straight tourism spaces might not provide the gay and lesbian tourists with an opportunity to escape 'hetero-normativity', prejudices and/or discrimination. Due to the existence of prejudices and discrimination, gays' and lesbians' destination choices might be more limited than those of heterosexuals (Cox, 2002; Hughes, 2002a, 2002b, 2002c). However, it could be argued that this statement is simplistic as some gay and lesbian tourists might not care whether they are able to show their sexuality while on holiday (e.g. if their wish to visit a particular attraction is stronger than the desire to be able to show affection in public). Furthermore, Hughes (2002a, 2002b) argues that the stay at the destination might also be restrained because of the need to adapt to cultural norms and local law and that some gay men avoid holidaying in certain countries because of the negative perceptions that they hold thereof. It thus seems that although gay tourists go through the same destination making processes as straight tourists and do not specifically relate their choice of destination to their sexuality, some gay tourists take factors such as gay space and gay friendliness into account. Accordingly, sexuality may affect destination choices, albeit perhaps more indirectly. Moreover, there seems to be a tendency for gays and lesbians to avoid certain destinations if homosexuality is illegal or disapproved of at the destination. In this way, sexuality does seem to delimit gays' and lesbians' destination choices.

METHODOLOGY

Fundamental believes underlying the piece of research accounted for in this paper are that knowledge will always depend on and be influenced by social-cultural context (Flick, 2002; Berger & Luckmann, 1966) and that the people we study are not passive objects, but actively shape research (Salner, 1989). Denzin & Lincoln (2005:3) assert that qualitative researchers "study things in their natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people put to them". In the present piece of research, we study people in their natural settings (i.e. in their homes, in bars and cafés, and during their holidays) and the methods used are participant observation, informal talks and semi-structured interviews. However, when disseminating the findings of an empirical study, interviews (represented by interview fragments and quotes) have a stronger stance than researchers' attempts to account for the knowledge obtained through observation and/or more informal talks. As a result, albeit the forthcoming findings section, explicitly, draws on interview fragments and quotes, the findings also originate from data obtained through the other methods. Furthermore, it ought to be mentioned that although quotes and interview fragments may come across as representing only an individual interviewee, in the forthcoming findings sections, all quotes included (apart from rare instances in which it is explicitly stated the quote represents one or a few atypical interviewees) represent a group of interviewees and/or a pattern of meaning that characterizes a larger group of interviewees.

Kvale (1990) suggested that the researcher is a traveler on a journey away from home, during which she observes, talks to and encourages people to tell the stories of the world they live in. The traveler starts reflecting on these stories and hereby obtains new understanding. Throughout the journey knowledge is constructed, brought back home and subject to further reflection. The insights presented in the findings section, though not objective and value-free, thus contribute to a better understanding of decisions (not) to visit gay destinations and henceforth, to the closing of a 'gay gap' in tourism literature (Pritchard et al., 1998b; Hughes 2002c; Guaracino, 2007; Waitt & Markwell, 2006). The empirical study consists of various streams of data collection and data analysis in order to ensure that analysis continuously enriched further data collection. The interviewees were identified through purposeful sampling. For example, some interviews were made in Barcelona as one of the researchers was going there for SITC 2009 (Spain's second largest tourism fair). Other interviewees were contacted as a friend of ours went to a lesbian party and brought along flyers on the project. Moreover, one of researchers visited a lesbian café in Aarhus (Denmark's second largest city) where she introduced herself and the study while another researcher visited a gay café in Copenhagen. Furthermore, the researchers joined gay and lesbian groups on Facebook, contacted gay/lesbian B&Bs and hotels in the Copenhagen area, and went to The World Outgames in Copenhagen as well as to Stockholm Gay Pride. Although we acknowledge the rather 'opportunistic' nature of this research design, a key criterion underlying this design was not to do a destination-based study. To do a study of gay tourists at a gay destination would obviously mean that the researcher only comes in contact with gays who have chosen to visit a gay destination. However, as a key concern that triggered the current piece of research was that perhaps not all gays choose a 'gay holiday', it was important to get in contact with gays that are not to be found at a gay destination. Nonetheless, the sample of gays given voice in the study accounted for in this paper is not representing gays in general – particularly so as gays who volunteered to participate are people that are both willing and able to talk about their sexuality and how this effects destination choices. Accordingly, particular types of gays are likely to be over-represented in the present study. However, compared to studies conducted at gay destinations, a key advantage of the present study is that is also includes gays that may not (wish to) visit gay destinations.

The interviews were conducted with one or two interviewees and in the last interview, three friends participated. When interviewing two people, they were either a couple or close friends. The interviews were done in different places depending on interviewees' wishes (i.e. in our homes, in the interviewees' homes, at workplaces, at our universities and at cafés and bars). The first interviews were very explorative. However, as both analysis of previous interviews and further literature studies were conducted, interviews became more structured. During the various rounds of interviews, one or two of the researchers took part in the individual interviews whereas the third researcher only took part in analysis; not in interviewing. In total, we conducted 41 interviews with 53 interviewees (21 hereof were lesbians). Most of the interviews were in-depth interviews, albeit a few of the last interviews were focused theme interviews, during which only a few, specific topics were discussed. The interviews lasted from 20 minutes (the few, focused theme interviews) to more than two hours (the majority of interviews lasted one and a half hour). In the subsequent sections, we account for the interviewees' perceptions and thoughts pertaining to (gay) destination choices.

FINDINGS

The interviewees come from countries such as Australia, Germany, Thailand, Sweden and Canada (although a disproportional large number were Danish) and the age span of the interviewees is from 23 to 61 years old. The majority of interviewees was in relationships (albeit around a third was singles). Occupation covers students; teachers; self-employed; unemployed; public and private employees; people in creative jobs etc. and income levels varied substantially; from around 2,000 to 9,000 Euro per month. However, it is difficult to conclude anything pertaining to income due to the cross-nationality of the study. The interviewees' education levels also vary, but more than a third of the interviewees have university degrees – thus corroborating the statistical non-representativeness of the sample. According to the 53 interviewees (and in accordance with the findings of e.g. Pritchard et al., 2000 and Hughes, 2002c), gays and lesbians go on holiday for the same reasons as straights and, consequently, sexuality does not appear to, directly, effect choice of destination. Most interviewees find that they choose holiday destination on the basis of their personal interests and past experiences and not because of their sexuality and the majority wants to go on holiday to a place where they have never been before, as exemplified by the following three interviewees:

What drives a destination choice is: Where haven't I been?

[Robin, 45, Australia]

I like it to be relaxing, I like it to be challenging, I like it to be something new. So I like to have… I like to go to different countries where I have not been before.

[Maria, 40, Australia]

If I go on a vacation, then I go to somewhere that is unknown, unfamiliar territory for me.
[Eric, 26, Israel]

The drive to visit new places and experience unknown territory relates to Plog's (1974) 'allocentric' tourist, who wants to discover foreign cultures (Lowyck et al., 1992; Ross, 1998; Plog, 1974) and to Gray's 'wanderlust', which relates to those who go on holiday to meet new people and experience new places (Gray, 1970; Clift & Forrest, 1999; Wall & Mathieson, 2006). However, some interviewees like to go to destinations where they have previously been on holiday. For example, 53-year-old Lukas talks about his holidays in London as follows:

When I come from the Metro, then I know exactly where I am […]. And then I just walk there. I mean, the centre of London is exactly like I remember it, right? And that's kind of the same with Paris, right? You almost always know where you are.
[Lukas, 53, Denmark]

As a series of other interviewees, Lukas often visits places he knows. This aligns with the fact that the gay segment is often characterized as being particularly loyal towards certain destinations (Pritchard et al., 1996; 1998b), and this is also reflected by the present study as interviewees would like to return to destinations which they have previously visited and enjoyed. The group of interviewees that Lukas represents might consequently be characterized as rather psychocentric (Plog, 1974) because they go to familiar destinations. A problem with Plog's tourist typology is that is does not take into account that a tourist may choose fundamentally different kinds of holidays from one vacation to the next (Clift & Forrest, 1999; Moutinho, 1987). As an example, Lukas has also been to e.g. Cape Town and hence, his travel career contains holidays very different from his repeat visits to Paris and London. Thus, it is actually *not* possible to categorize Lukas as a psychocentric tourist. Furthermore, even interviewees who have a strong sense of 'gay identity' (and often seek out gay destinations when holidaying), at other times go on holidays which are, by no means, gay related. Identities are multiple and flexible (Bell & Valentine, 1995) and seem to be actively constructed by the interviewees; thus leading them to emphasize different identities and self-concepts in relation to different holiday projects. Furthermore, the wish to go to a known/unknown destination does not seem to depend on sexuality as the reasons offered by the 53 homosexuals in our study are not notably different from reasons offered by straight tourists. Only a few interviewees mention their sexuality when explaining how they choose a holiday destination. For example, Eric emphasizes that he finds it utmost important that there are gay bars, restaurants and accommodation at the destinations due to the following line of reasoning:

We have special needs. We are not straights. We don't have the straight dichotomy, we don't live the straight dichotomy, we break it. We come out from our cocoon and we break it. It's nice to go on a vacation where you don't have to break it every day when you wake up in the morning.
[Eric, 26, Israel]

Yet, the vast majority of the gays and lesbians in our study tell that they choose holiday destinations on the basis of their interests (culture, gastronomy, sports, shopping, sun bathing, and so on) and only thereafter, they *might* look for gay space like bars, stores, restaurants, and accommodation (for elaboration of this issue please see Blichfeldt et al, 2011). This is in accordance with Hughes' (2002c) finding that gays' choice of destination depends on age, income, personality and relationship status and not necessarily on sexuality.

Destination avoidance on the basis of sexuality

As indicated above, most of the 53 gays and lesbians do not choose holiday destinations on the basis of their sexuality. However, some interviewees tell how they choose not to go somewhere because of their sexuality. As an example, Anita states that she chooses holiday destinations where she is able to be herself and she would, as a result, not visit a Muslim country:

So I would not go to Iran. Because I know that then I have to compromise with myself to an extent where I would not feel comfortable. I choose to go to places where I can absolutely be myself […]. But, I mean, if I go to a Muslim country, I would feel really offended […]. So I would rather go to countries where people think that I am allowed to be there.

[Anita, 51, Denmark]

As another example, Dennis affirms that Muslim countries do not attract him because homosexuality is not accepted there:

My friend wants to… he has tried to talk me into going with him to Turkey. And I really don't want to […]. And I don't want to, simply, because of their religion and because it might be that many Muslim men are homosexuals and bisexuals behind the values and stuff like that. But, I mean, the religion is still there and it's not… my impression from what I know about Turkey and Islam is that it is not like it's accepted. So with countries like that I think twice before going.

[Dennis, 23, Denmark]

The tendency for some gays and lesbians to avoid Muslim countries can also be seen in the literature (Hughes, 2007). In the same vein, some interviewees explain that there are countries they will not visit because they prefer not to financially support 'regimes' that do not respect minorities. For example, Terzo explains:

When I decide where I want to spend my holidays, where I want to spend my money, I also consider social things like: Is it a free country? Is it a country where not only homosexuals but also women and minorities have the same rights?

[Terzo, 28, Italy]

To sum up, more interviewees prefer to avoid destinations at which homosexuality is not accepted. Some of them are also aware of their power as consumers as they do not want to give their 'pink pound' (Hughes, 2006) to regimes which oppress homosexuals and other minorities. This is concordant with Pritchard et al. (2000) findings that many gays and lesbians do not want to go on holiday in a country where homosexuality is not accepted. Therefore, our findings, at least to some extent, corroborate Hughes' (2006) conclusion that gays and lesbians have less holiday destinations to choose from than straight tourists.

Concealing one's sexuality

Some gays and lesbians in our study tell that if there is something they really want to see at a certain destination they would go although they would have to hide their sexuality, and, consequently, it seems that Hughes' (2006) conclusion that destination choice is reduced for homosexuals might not apply across all our interviewees' holidays. As an example, Juan tells how he alters his behavior in order to visit destinations at which homosexuality is illegal as follows:

We have guide books and everything telling how every country, every place is. Of course, it is illegal in many places, right, and even sentenced with death or prison. So you have to be informed […]. Knowing how it is, following their laws, though I do not share them, but that's how it is. But yes, I would go - of course! I don't care as much about that as I care about what there is to see there. Surely, their way of life is more interesting than me being able to hold another man's hand. Really, it's not that important.

[Juan, 24, Spain]

Juan would thus visit a specific destination even though he knew beforehand that homosexuality is illegal if that particular destination was one that he really liked to experience. Likewise, Patrick made the following remarks:

I think you can just be quiet, that's how I feel. Because if I want to go somewhere in the Middle East, where there is practically death sentence […] then I would just not tell officially. Because then there would be things and experiences that would draw me to the destination, and then I would just go there.

[Patrick, 33, Denmark]

In contrast to existing literature on gay and lesbian tourism, which emphasizes gays and lesbians who want to visit destinations where homosexuality is accepted (Hughes, 1997, 2002a, 2005a; Pritchard et al., 1998a, 1998b), it is interesting to note that many participants in our study have different attitudes when it comes to travelling to destinations, at which homosexuality is banned or condemned. As exemplified by Patrick and Juan, some interviewees express that if there is something of particular interest to them at a certain destination they would go although homosexuality is illegal or not accepted at the destination; they would just 'keep quiet' about their sexuality. Moreover, some interviewees argue that it is important to behave in accordance with the culture visited – exemplified by Martin as follows:

I don't think that you can go to another country and behave as you want to. I don't think you should do that. I mean, I think you should accept their culture and not start a political fight by holding hands. […] I mean, I kind of think that you have to respect those cultures or ways of being in a country where you don't belong.

[Martin, 26, Sweden]

Martin thinks it is essential to respect the culture at the holiday destination and to show cultural sensitivity and other interviewees argue that they are flexible when it comes to hiding or showing their sexualities and thus, to hide ones sexuality becomes a matter of respect for local culture; much in the same way as when western women wear a headscarf or a straight couple restrain themselves from bodily contact when visiting certain cultures. If necessary, many interviewees are able and willing to suppress their sexuality and adapt to the culture and country visited. This might relate to the skewness of the sample and to the fact that most interviewees are 'out' and accepted in their home environments. Consequently, they do not mind suppressing their sexuality in order to experience parts of the world otherwise not open to them. Hughes (2005:57) argues that although gay men do not encounter disapproval and intolerance at home, "they would not wish to visit destinations on holiday that are less agreeable". Contradictory to Hughes' (2005) findings, our gay respondents argue that they will visit 'less agreeable' destinations if special attractions, local culture etc. make such a visit 'worth it' and thus, willingness to suppress gay sexuality during the holidays seems to be a strategy most of our interviewees are able to apply.

A number of interviewees offer reasons why they would not want to visit a certain country, which do not related to their homosexuality. For example, Simon would not go on vacation in Sunny Beach in Bulgaria, and Darío and Ramón would never visit Bolivia because they believe 'there is nothing to see there'. In the same vein, Else would not go to countries outside Europe, because she is afraid of flying long distances, or to Greenland because she believes it is too cold there. Thus, it is interesting to see how many gays and lesbians do not, ultimately, relate unattractive holiday destinations to their sexuality whereas others think about the country's attitude towards homosexuality when deciding where to spend the holidays. Moreover, some women relate the perception of dangerous or unappealing destinations to their gender and avoid destinations at which women are subject to discrimination. For example, Sabine avoids destinations at which homosexuality is illegal and destinations at which women, in general, are not treated well:

I wouldn't want to travel […] to countries where there is death penalty [for being homosexual], for example, or where it's just… well, where women are treated badly.

[Sabine, 32, Germany]

Hughes (2007:23) states that lesbians are subject to dual influences and that "holidays of lesbians are the consequence of gender as much as sexual orientation". Roth & Luongo (2002) agree and explain that a lesbian would probably not feel comfortable in a country where a straight woman would not go on holiday. In this respect our interviewees' accounts concord with theory. The quote from Sabine might furthermore verify that gays and lesbians sometimes take into account, and are very reflexive upon, their homosexuality whereas, at other occasions, other sides of their identities predominate. Bell (1991) finds that gay men are more influenced by their gay side than by other aspects (e.g. profession, ethnicity and race). However, the gays and lesbians, upon whom this paper draws, seem to have multiple, fluid identities, which they relate to at different moments of life. At some points, the 'gay identity' will be stronger and at other points in time, other identities (e.g. that of 'being a woman') dominate. Accordingly, the influence of 'the gay side' on destination choice seems to be highly contextual and varies considerably across the different holiday projects the individual engages in.

The role of safety in relation to destination choice

According to Hughes (2006), destination choice is limited for gay and lesbian travelers because additional risks exist, especially for gay men (Hughes, 2002b; Pritchard et al., 1998b). However, hardly any of the interviewees in this study have encountered problems on holiday that relate to their sexuality. Still, many agree that safety is important when travelling and some destinations are avoided by the interviewees because of considerations about safety. This issue is exemplified by Caroline and Sonja as follows:

Caroline: I don't wanna go to a place where there is war. No…
Sonja: No, I don't want to. There has to be peace and friendliness.
Caroline: And I don't wanna travel to a Muslim country, which is very Muslim, because that would be a threat against me.
Sonja: At least when the two of us are together.
Caroline: So the answer is: I don't wanna go… I want to go somewhere where I feel safe.

[Caroline & Sonja, 49 & 37, Norway]

As exemplified by Caroline and Sonja, safety is not only important in relation to sexuality and gender; it also relates to the general safety situation in a specific country. However, what makes the interviewees feel safe on vacation varies significantly. For some, safety is associated with the presence of other tourists and for others, safety relates to staying at a hotel where everything is paid in advance. Many interviewees explain that tourists can do a lot themselves to avoid uncomfortable situations and that, as an example, flashing expensive bags and clothes in poor areas should be avoided. In relation to safety on holiday, one interviewee regrets that he feels that is it important for him to feel safe on holiday, because he thinks that it is healthy to, once in a while, be in an environment which he perceives as being less safe:

I believe it is very dangerous to search for safety. I mean, sometimes it's good to get out of your safety frame. Intuitively, I believe that when you feel safe, you feel more satisfied. But I try to avoid it.

[Martin, 26, Sweden]

As evident in the quote, Martin relates safety to satisfaction. Kozak (2007) found that harassed tourists display lower levels of holiday satisfaction. In the same vein, Hughes (2002a: 181) states that "holidays will obviously be unsatisfactory if verbal or physical abuse, social disapproval or threatening behaviour are experienced or anticipated". It is also suggested that "because perceptions of risk and safety can influence destination image and choice, their relevance to behavioral intentions also needs to be recognized" (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998: 172). It is interesting that our interviewees do not, automatically, link considerations of safety to homosexuality. In fact, many interviewees have travelled in countries that are often seen as hostile towards homosexuals (e.g. Morocco, the Sinai Desert, different parts of Africa, Oman, Egypt, Turkey and India). Moreover, the destinations that interviewees avoid are predominantly countries in the Middle East and Africa and these are, according to Sönmez & Graefe (1998), the regions that are most likely to be avoided by all tourists due to fear of terrorism, health risks and/or lack of satisfaction. In relation to destination choice (and avoidance), not many gays and lesbians in our study choose a certain destination on the basis of their sexuality, but some choose to avoid destinations because they do not believe that they would feel comfortable as homosexuals at these destinations. However, others would not mind going to a destination even though they would have to hide their sexuality if they were truly interested in experiencing the destination. Safety thus means different things to the interviewees and considerations of safety do not always pertain to sexuality. Furthermore, the fact that our interviewees suggest that they can, safely, visit destinations hostile towards homosexuality by simply concealing their sexuality is an issue not covered by extant theory.

Choosing the gay destination or not

Some authors (e.g. Pritchard et al., 1998b; Clift & Forrest, 1999) argue that the number of gay destinations is increasing and that many gays find these destinations attractive. Comparing our data with the literature, surprisingly few gays and lesbians in our study have, in the past, visited so-called gay destinations. The gay men that we interviewed are, however, more likely to visit gay destinations than lesbians, as practically none of the women have ever visited a destination which they would label gay/lesbian. At least four different kinds of opinions on, and experiences with, gay destinations exist. Firstly, some gays and lesbians argue that they will probably never visit a gay destination just because it is 'gay'. Primarily, they are not interested in doing so because they are simply more attracted to other experiences (e.g. to have cultural experiences, sensing the ambiance at the destination, and/or tasting local gastronomy) than to gay ambience and as a result, they are willing to 'conceal' gayness if this is necessary in order to have the experience they crave for. Consequently, instead of calling this group of tourists 'gay tourists' it might be more accurate to label them 'heritage tourists', 'gastronomy tourists', 'culinary tourists' etc. as their motives relate to other aspects than 'gayness'. Another group of interviewees have never been to a gay destination, but would like to and thus, these interviewees reveal travel motivations that relate to gayness. This viewpoint is exemplified by Else and Daniel as follows:

There is, what's it called, Lesbos, which is a Greek island. I have never been there, but my *ex-girlfriend can tell some great stories about it. And then I become a bit curious. I don't have a thing with going down and making out with a hot, Greek woman or anything. That's not how I think, but, obviously, I get curious, because it sounds quite interesting. Women from all around the world go there.*

[Else, 47, Denmark]

Well, in Spain you find Grand Canary: Maspalomas. Out of curiosity, I would go…

[Daniel, 38, Spain]

As exemplified by Else and Daniel, these gays are curious about going to a gay destination. Furthermore, at illustrated by the quotes above, some destinations (e.g. Lesvos and Maspalomas) have strong gay images and thus attract the attention of (at least some) gays and lesbians. Other gays and lesbians, who wish to go to a gay/lesbian destination in the future, have other motives than curiosity. Particularly, these gay and lesbians wish to experience 'being themselves' and showing feelings towards their loved ones openly. In this way, it might be suggested that showing one's sexuality openly relates to what a destination has to offer – or, as Anna phrased it:

I mean, if I should choose a holiday with sun and summer, I would consider going to Lesbos because I know that many go there and that we could find a place where it was okay to be [my girlfriend] and I – and now the little one is coming – so maybe a place where it would be okay to be us as parent together with the little one without being looked at strangely. I think that I would consider that more in the future because we come as a family and are maybe then easier to spot. Instead of just being two friends then we actually come as a family with a child.

[Anna, 38, Denmark]

The fact that this lesbian couple is, in future, going to travel as a family makes them more inclined to go to a gay destination and accordingly, this quote illustrates how the emergence of a 'new' identity (i.e. that of 'being a family together on holiday') influences inclinations to visit a gay destination. Choices of destination as well as experiences sought at the destination are obviously influenced by the people one travels with. However, in the gay and lesbian tourism literature, this has not been subject to much debate (apart from Visser, 2007, who mentions that gay men, who travel in a group might be more likely to visit gay destinations). More of our interviewees mention that being single or not heavily influences whether they would go to a gay destination and the following quote from the interview with Dennis is a typical example of such influences:

It really depends on whether you are in a relationship or not. Because if I were single, I would choose one of the places where there was something going on and something happening all the time. You can do that when you are in a relationship too, but you might not choose Grand Canary when you have a boyfriend - unless you are in an open relationship, obviously.

[Dennis, 23, Denmark]

I don't think I would go there [Lesbos] just because everyone there is lesbian because why should it make a difference when I was there with [my girlfriend] and we were on vacation together. No… Maybe if I was single, I would look differently at this.

[Ulrikke, 28, Denmark]

To some gays and lesbians, their status as single or not as well as who their travel companions are (partners or not) seem to influence whether they choose to go to a gay destination or not. Moreover, it is interesting how Dennis implicitly indicates that going to a gay destination means having sex with other men, as he states that Grand Canary is only an attractive holiday destination if one is single or in an open relationship (i.e. one where it is accepted to be with other people than one's partner). Overall, it seems that singles find gay destinations more interesting than those who are in relationships. Combined with the findings of Visser (2007) it thus seems that gays travelling in larger groups, singles and partners in 'open relationships' are more likely to visit gay destinations than other gays. Accordantly, the gay destinations are destinations attractive to, and visited by, gays in specific life situations. This issue is not covered by extant literature but seems to be of importance to any gay destination, which hopes to build lasting relations to a group of loyal/repeat visitors as it seems that tourists like Dennis are likely to visit e.g. Grand Canary when/if they are not in a monogamous relationship whereas they would not visit such a destination during the times of their lives when they are in a monogamous relationship.

Negative perceptions of gay destinations

A third group of gay and lesbian tourists consists of people who have visited gay destinations and did not like it. This group includes interviewees such as 45 years old Luis from Spain and 58 years old Poul from Denmark:

I have been only at one gay destination, in Grand Canary, Playa del Inglés, and I think I won't come back because it is very boring. […] No fun in general, no parties, just sex. […] Never again, once was enough.

I think I was there [in Sitges] for two days or something like that. Because it was… no, now it sounds very prejudicial, but one also needs to have one's prejudices, right? But it was German guys with gold chains and so on and so on and that is simply not… that's not me.

Based on past experiences, both Luis and Poul dislike gay destinations (because they see them as boring, visited by unattractive tourists and/or characterized by too much focus on sex). This finding contradicts Hughes' (1997) claim that many gay men feel 'authentic' at gay destinations. Above we argued that gay destinations are only visited by a subset of gay tourists (and especially by singles and people in open relationships). On top of this, our study also suggests that some gay tourists do not like to visit gay destinations because of these destinations being 'just sex' and/or because they dislike the kind of gays that visit the destination (exemplified by Poul's attitude towards 'German guys with gold chains').

Loyal visitors to gay destinations

The fourth – and last - group of interviewees is comprised of people who have been to gay destinations many times and keep coming back. Concordantly, this group is the one that has the most in common with previous research on gay tourists and the group which seems to be most interesting for gay destination marketers. This group includes people like Manuel, who says that his best vacation ever took place in Montreal and that it was the best vacation because he loved the gay area. Patrick also speaks highly of his holiday experiences at a gay destination:

We are actually four boys who go to Grand Canary in the same week, in the same apartment, in the same car every year – and this is the way it has to be. And we go out, and we go to the beach, and we eat good food, and we laugh, and we laugh, and we laugh, and we really have a good time. There is no culture whatsoever because that's not what it is all about. There, we live in Playa del Inglés just next to the YOMBO Center and it is ugly and it is stupid but somehow… somehow it has its very own charm.

[Patrick, 33, Denmark]

Likewise, Robin tells that he would choose a gay destination where he would be sure to find leisure space for gays instead of going to an, otherwise similar, destination:

But if I'm weighting up, if I got two locations, two locations like West Palm Beach and Fort Lauderdale, then I would probably take Fort Lauderdale. Why? Because, okay, there is a couple of fun gay bars in Fort Lauderdale and I don't think there are any in West Palm Beach.

[Robin, 45, Australia]

This group of gay men relates gay destinations to sun, beach, shopping, gay bars and nightlife. However, there are different views among the interviewees on what a gay destination is. Some interviewees, like the ones quoted above, think that a gay destination offers nightlife, partying, and good weather whereas others think of gay destinations as big, cosmopolitan cities, such as Amsterdam, London, Barcelona, Berlin or San Francisco. In the literature, gay destinations have also been defined as beach destinations like Sitges, Ibiza, Mykonos, Lesvos and Grand Canary (Hughes, 1997, 1998; Puar, 2002; Johnston, 2007; Pritchard et al., 2002; Visser, 2007;) as well as urban areas like Manchester, Philadelphia, London, Sydney, Amsterdam, Copenhagen, New York and San Francisco (Pritchard et al., 2002; Hughes, 2002c; Guaracino, 2007). Hence, our study corroborates the idea that two separate sets of gay destinations (i.e. beach destinations and cosmopolitans) exist. Nevertheless, gay destinations are only visited by a subset of interviewees and consequently, gay destinations only seem to attract some gays whereas the other gays in our study prioritize other factors than their gay identity when they choose where to go on holiday.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

In conclusion, a series of different motivations pertaining to whether gays will visit gay destinations exist. Although we in the above tend to refer to these four sets of motivations as if they represent different groups *of gay tourists*, it is important to note that group 'membership' hinges on everyday life context, civil status of the gay in question and the, at the time, identity (or identities) that a specific holiday should reinforce. 'Group membership' is thus fluid and flexible and as a result, these groups do not align with the more static notion of segments. Instead these categories should be seen as the most prevalent motivations of gay tourists at specific points in their lives; motivations that are likely to influence destination choices at specific points in time.

Although it is hardly any surprise that choice of destination draws on personal interests, past experiences and wishes to experience something 'new', it is interesting that these factors often are more important than to experience 'gayness' and/or reinforce gay identities during the holidays. For example, if gays wish to experience gastronomy during one holiday this may be more important than being a 'gay tourist' – even if one has to conceal one's identity in order to experience the culinary delights of a specific region. Furthermore, although the gay tourist may choose to have both 'gay holidays' and other types of holidays, destination choice for most of our 53 interviewees is not very different from decision-making of straight tourists. This especially relates to the fact that only a few interviewees choose destinations on the basis of 'gayness'. On the other hand, though, gay tourists seem to reject/avoid certain destinations due to the perceived hostility of these destinations towards homosexuality. As such, gays may have fewer destinations to choose between than straight tourists *insofar* gays wish to be able to 'be' gay during the holidays. However, many of our interviewees are willing to conceal their sexuality during the holidays – particularly it a specific destination has things to offer that are 'worth' this concealment. Furthermore, whereas extant literature suggests that the issue of safety during the holidays is especially important to gay tourists most of our interviewees relate safety (and especially perceived lack of safety) to factors that are also important to straight tourists. As an example, 'being a woman' seems to raise more concerns for lesbian tourists than the issue of being a gay tourist.

Whereas extant research has emphasized the gays that actually visit gay destinations during the holidays, surprisingly few of our interviewees have visited gay destinations – and some of those, who have visited gay destinations in the past, have no inclinations to do so in future. As our finding pertaining to gays that have negative perceptions of gay destinations (regardless of whether this is based on actual experience or more anecdotal evidence) is not covered well in extant literature, this seems to be a topic that deserves further attention. Furthermore, the fact that many of the 53 gays have never visited gay destinations (albeit some are curious and would like to try to do this) is not well-researched either. However, as some of these 'no visitors' have no negative image of gay destinations and might even be rather curious, it is interesting that they have never, in the past, 'gotten around' to visiting gay destinations. One interpretation of this could be that 'gayness' during the holidays is simply not that important to many gays and as a result, whenever they engage in vacation decision-making, other types of experiences (e.g. visiting new places, seeing extra-ordinary places, experiencing other cultures and/or tasting local cuisine) are simply more important what a gay destination has to offer. However, further research is certainly needed in order to clarify this topic.

It ought to be emphasized that the gays, upon whom this paper draws have different travel motivations from one holiday to the next. Accordingly, apart from the group of people who have visited gay destinations and never wish to do so again, the rest of the interviewees might choose to, for example, go to a gay beach destination in summer and visit a nature destination in fall (as also suggested by Lowyck et al., 1992), thus suggesting that the identity as a 'gay tourist' is an identity that homosexuals, rather deliberately, may choose to emphasize during some holidays and suppress during other holidays. As a result, a key finding of the present study (albeit one that 'blurs' the picture of gay tourism more than it adds to clarity) is that there is no such thing as 'a gay tourist'; instead there are gay people who sometimes choose to be 'gay tourists' and who, during other holidays, choose to be cultural tourists, adventure tourists, mass tourists, gastronomy tourists etc.

Although the findings of our qualitative study may certainly not generalize across other gay tourists, it does point to a series of issues of interest to both gay destinations and future research. For example, our 53 interviewees argue that other factors than 'gayness' are more important when they choose where to spend the holidays and as a result, 'to be a gay destination' seems to be no more than one facet necessary in order to pull tourists to the destination. Furthermore, even those gays who do take 'gay holidays' sometimes (or often) also visit destinations that are not gay (and sometimes even visit destinations at which homosexuality is illegal). As such, gay destinations should be aware of the fact that they compete with non-gay destinations and not only with other gay destinations. In fact, it seems that gay destinations compete with each other for that subset of gays' holidays, the purpose of which is to, first and foremost, be 'a gay tourist'. Moreover, gay destinations seem to especially appeal to those, who are either single or in an 'open relationship'. This relates to the issue that many interviewees relate gay destinations to sex; thus making some gays have negative attitudes towards gay destinations (or at least make them think that gay destinations are 'not for me'). Accordingly, gay destinations do not appeal to all gays and perhaps even more importantly, gay destinations seem to only appeal to some gays *and* only in relation to those holiday projects, a critical element of which is to reinforce gay identity. Although this paper only deals with a subset of tourists, it points to a more general challenge of tourist studies; i.e. the challenge integral in any classification of tourists. If tourists have multiple identities and use different holidays to reinforce different identities (e.g. being gay during the summer holidays while being a 'footie' during another holiday), then the exact same tourist may be part of various groups of tourists at various points in time dependent on the identity and part(s) of the tourist's 'life project' most prevalent at a specific point in time. As a result, studies of various types of tourists may relate more to the question 'when and under which circumstances do people want to be this type of tourist' than to the kind of questions we traditionally ask (e.g. what is this group of tourists like). Accordingly, a prosperous future for the study of gay tourists seem to especially hinge on the answering of the question 'when and why do gays (not) want to be gay tourists' – a question this paper has hopefully made a contribution to the answering of; incremental as it is.

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What motivates visitors of a medieval fair?[1]

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ABSTRACT

Silves, located in the Algarve region of southern Portugal, has a great heritage that comes from the Muslim period during the medieval era. This paper aims to analyze the experience of those who visited the Silves Medieval Fair during the summer of 2008. This case study profiles visitors based on their socio-demographic characteristics and participation in the event. It also identifies patterns of motivation beyond the choice of the event. Finally, this study seeks to understand whether motivations differ among groups of visitors. This knowledge helps to promote this type of event, allowing the effective design of marketing strategies.

Keywords: Cultural event, visitors' profile, motivations

INTRODUCTION

Due to the globalization of economies and to the growth of competition to attract residents, tourists and entrepreneurs, cities are looking for new ways of differentiation in order to improve their attractiveness. Regardless of their dimension or location, the cities of today have become more similar due to the adoption of standardized urban models. This leads to a loss of attractiveness for tourists and residents. Events are important attractions to better position cities in the minds of visitors (Kotler *et al*., 2006). They can be offered in large and small communities and can reinforce the city image, attracting specific tourist segments (Ahmed, 1991; Getz, 1991, 1997). Events can also help to build up an identity for the community (Kotler *et al*., 2006) and increase the pride of local residents (Gartner, 1996). Knowing the visitors' profile and understanding the motivations that lead them to attend to events is of paramount importance in planning the event programme and the activities to be offered (Õzdemir, 2008).

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Silves, located in the Algarve region of southern Portugal, has a great heritage that comes from the Islamic period during the medieval era. This small city is, nowadays, one of the most attractive inland tourist places of the Algarve, whose most important tourist product is the *sun and beach*. During August, Silves stages a medieval fair that is inspired by the Islamic period. Numerous national and international tourists lodging at the seaside go to the beaches during the day and visit the Silves Medieval Fair at night. The same thing happens among the residents of the Algarve region. Residents in Silves are also present at the fair, not only as visitors, but also as the main performers.

This study intends to analyze the experience of those who visited this event during the summer of 2008 using a sample of visitors that fulfilled a self-administrated questionnaire. Firstly, this study aims to profile visitors based on their socio-demographic characteristics and participation in the Silves Medieval Fair. Secondly, it is intended to seek patterns of motivations beyond the participation in this cultural event. Thirdly, this study seeks to understand whether motivations differ among groups of visitors. This knowledge is important to understand the visitors' decision process of choosing this event, allowing a more effective design of future marketing strategies, including better-targeted communication campaigns and the offer of improved products or services during the event.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the global scenery, where competition is growing, culture has become one of the main means of consumption of cities and their differentiation (Griffiths, 2006; Herrero et al., 2006; Smith, 2005). Culture can be embodied in all dimensions of cities, from high culture (museums, theatres and concerts) to popular culture (pop music, fashion, etc.) and sports. Culture is also very important in the context of tourist cities. The existence of a cultural capital in urban places is a precondition of enhancing tourist demand (Richards, 1996; Zukin, 1995). Zukin (1995) adds that culture is an interesting euphemism to cities, and it appears to be a creative force in the context of the search for unforgettable experiences.

Cultural events are being stressed by destination marketers as relevant attractions to better position destinations (Õzdemir, 2008). A special case of connection between culture and tourism is *creative tourism*. In particular, creative tourism emphasizes the participation of the tourist in events with the local population with the aim of learning about the character of a place and its living culture (Boyle, 2004). As González (2008: 807) points out "the global world provides opportunities by which one can choose identity roots in different countries". Richards (2000) and Richards and Raymond (2000) define creative tourism as the type of tourism carried out by those who seek tourism experiences that contribute to personal development. UNESCO (2006) defines creative tourism as "travel directed towards an engaged and authentic experience, with participative learning in the arts, heritage, or special character of a place. It provides a connection with those who reside in this place and create this living culture". In this case, cultural resources are considered critical factors of success in the development of the *creative city* and the *creative class* (Landry, 2000). Within this context, cities can become a stage where events take place with great frequency. According to Deffner and Labrianidis (2005), this may lead to the creation of a festival city converted in markets or *theme parks*. In response to this tendency, cities often engage to renew their urban and heritage strategies, performing events that can enhance their cultural profile. In this case, marketing has a central role in attracting tourists, residents and investors to such events, contributing to the growth of competitiveness among cities (Hall and Hubbard, 1998).

The new tourist, nowadays a more informed selective and exigent person, is looking for new places whose tourist products include cultural attractions and events that make it a different and interesting place to visit (Valle *et al*., 2011). Special events, in spite of their short length, have long-term consequences for cities that host them (Getz, 1991; Roche, 1994). To Ritchie (1984: 2) special events are “major one-time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal, and profitability of the host location”. According to Getz (2008: 404), “planned events are spatial-temporal phenomenon, and each is unique because of interactions among the setting, people, and management systems. They can attract great flows of tourists, media coverage, prestige and impact the local economy” (Getz, 1997). Usually, events are also good triggers for urban renovation, which enhances the attractiveness of cities (García, 2004; Getz, 1991). Due to such events, cities have the opportunity to supply spectacular moments that add value to the brand and to the image of the cities. Events are seen as the new builders of a place’s image (Hall, 1989). They can be used as an interesting platform to reinforce the existing positioning of the city or, instead, to reposition it, to attract the attention of the media, to create employment, to attract tourists and to improve feelings of belonging and pride among residents (Deffner and Labrianidis, 2005; Richards and Wilson, 2004; Roche, 1994).

Research on event motivation is crucial to the development of products able to fulfil visitors’ desires and, at the same time, assure a competitive offer. Understanding motivations is also important to comprehend the visitors’ decision-making process and to monitor satisfaction (Crompton and McKay, 1997). To Richards (2000) and to Richards and Raymond (2000) some segments of tourists, mainly those that can be considered part of the ‘creative tourism’ domain, are searching for tourism experiences which may contribute to their personal enrichment. For example, the search for novelty and authenticity represents an interesting opportunity for places intending to promote themselves as rich and unique in terms of culture. Crompton (1979) identifies seven socio-psychological motivational domains to explain people’s motives for attending events: novelty, socialization, prestige/status, rest and relaxation, educational value/intellectual enrichment, enhancing kinship and relations/family togetherness, and regression. A special event like a festival implies that “visitors are likely to be seeking cultural enrichment, education, novelty, and socialization” (Crompton and McKay, 1997: 429). In particular, these authors achieve the following main reasons for attending to a festival: cultural exploration, novelty/regression, recover equilibrium, known-group socialization, external internal/socialization and gregariousness. Uysal *et al*. (1993) derive five motivation dimensions: escape, excitement/thrills, novelty, socialization, and family togetherness.

In the same year, Mohr *et al*. (1993) identify the same five dimensions, although measured by some different items. Since then, several studies have been dedicated to study why people attend to specific events (Formica and Murrmann, 1998; Getz and Cheyne, 2002; Lee *et al*., 2004; Neirotti *et al*., 2001; Robinson Nd Gammon, 2004; Schofield and Thompson, 2007). In their study, Schofield and Thompson (2007) find that novelty and culture are the most important motivation attributes to attend to the Naadam festival. Besides these attributes, they indentify togetherness and socialization. Li and Petrick (2006) provide a literature review about festivals and event motivation. This thematic is also approached in a more recent study conducted by Getz (2008). In this study, the author recognizes that "little has been done to examine cultural differences in event tourism demand, and much more is needed on constraints related to event-motivated travel" (Getz, 2008: 416). The main purpose of this study is to understand visitors' motivations, among the segment of Portuguese tourists who participate in Silves Medieval Fair adopting the framework developed by Crompton in 1979 and updated in 1997 as departure points.

SETTING

Introduced into a region whose central economic activity is coastal tourism, the Algarve is the cradle of Portuguese tourism. Silb, the name of the city of Silves during the Muslim occupation between the 11th and 13th centuries, is one of the most touristic cities in the Algarve region. Located inland, Silves was an important city during the Muslim occupation. The heritage and the urban profile of the city are great testimonies of the Muslim culture and Silves constitutes a great attraction to the tourists who visit the Algarve.

The Medieval Fair in Silves is the most important event in the city. It is staged during one week of August, the month with the biggest number of tourists who come to the Algarve, mainly motivated by the sun and the beach. However, during their stay, tourists also look for cultural experiences and the Medieval Fair in Silves is an excellent opportunity to get to know an important period of the history of the city in order to understand its present profile better. The aim of this event is to tell the story of a Moorish city that goes back to the 10th, 11th and 12th centuries of its history over a ten-day period. Residents dress in the clothes and adopt the spirit of the medieval period, the shops sell Moorish and local products and there are Moorish performers and gastronomy on the streets. With the Silves Medieval Fair, visitors have the opportunity of living a 'creative' experience, increasing their knowledge about the historical roots of the city and its heritage, and establishing a close contact with the local residents, who are simultaneously providers and consumers of the event.

METHODOLOGY

Questionnaire and data

A structured questionnaire was considered the best tool to collect data, rather than interviews, because it enables to get a large number of responses in a short time period and simplifies the data analysis (Hill and Hill, 2005). The questionnaire incorporates four sections. Section I encompassed questions about socio-demographic characteristics. Section II included questions about participation in the event. Section III looked to evaluate expectations and perceptions of the event. Finally, section IV comprised a list of 21 motives that could have influenced participation in the event. Motives were also assessed using a five-point Likert-type scale, with 1 = totally disagree to 5 = totally agree. Motives were selected based on the motivation scale proposed by Crompton (1979, 1997). Ten pre-tests were carried out in order to check the validity of the questionnaire. Portuguese tourists attending to Silves Medieval Fair during August 2008 represented the target population of the study. To collect data, all Portuguese tourists living the event during one evening (that is, after the visit) were invited to fulfil the questionnaire. Nonetheless, in the case of families, only one family member was asked to fulfil the questionnaire in order to avoid the risk of *quasi* doubling a specific answer. The questionnaires were distributed and received by two graduate students at the main street access to the event. 126 questionnaires were filled enough to be considered for analysis.

Data analysis and procedures

Since the questionnaire was structured around closed questions, a quantitative analysis was conducted to treat data. Data analysis was structured into three parts. The first part uses descriptive statistics of each variable in order to assess the attendees' profile in terms of socio-demographic characteristics, participation, expectations and perceptions about the event. The second part applies exploratory factor analysis to the set of motivation items in order to reduce the data dimensionality. In the thirst part, this analysis is complemented with statistical tests with the aim of identifying whether motivations are significantly different between visitors, considering the principal socio-demographic characteristics, participation in the event and perceptions.

RESULTS

Atendees' profile

Table 1 shows the main socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. Most of them were female (55%) and were aged between 25 and 44 years (52.6%). The average age is 35 years (standard deviation around 12 years). In most cases, the attendees had college or higher education (58.6%) and most were married (51.7%).

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Attendees' characteristics	Distribution of answers
Gender	Female: 55 %; male: 45%
Age	15 – 24: 24.6%; 25 – 44: 52.6%; 45 – 64: 22.8%; mean = 34.5 years; standard deviation = 11.96 years
Educational qualification	Elementary: 6.9%; secondary: 34.5%; college or higher: 58.6%
Marital status	Married: 51.7%; single: 41.4%; divorced: 6.9%

Besides the socio-demographic profile, respondents were described in terms of their participation in the Silves Medieval Fair. As Table 2 shows, visitors came with someone else (96.8%), especially with the family (including children) (53.4%) or friends (29.3%). In most cases, this was the first visit to this event (56.5%), even though 75.4% of attendees had visited other medieval fairs. In addition, 41.9% of attendees had participated in other similar events in the Algarve region. Outdoor posters and billboards in the Algarve or in the city, as well as friends' recommendations, stand out as the most important forms of communicating the event. Silves Medieval Fair influenced the decision to book holidays of 22% of attendees.

Table 2: Participation in the Event

Did you come with someone else?	Yes: 96.8%; no: 3.2%
Coming with …	Husband/wife: 17.2%; husband/wife + children: 53.4%; friends: 29.3%
First participation in *Silves Medieval Fair*?	Yes: 56.5%; no: 43.5%
Have you participated in other medieval fairs?	Yes: 75.4%; no: 24.6%
Have you ever participated in this kind of events in the Algarve?	Yes: 41.9%; no: 58.1%
Forms of knowledge about the *Silves Medieval Fair*	Outdoor posters and billboards in the Algarve: quoted as very important by 45.6% of tourists; friends recommendations: 45.1%; outdoor posters and billboards in the city: 43.1%; tourist guides: 32.7%; publicity/news in magazines: 32%; Internet: 31.4%; newspaper advertising: 23.4%; by chance: 11.6%
Feira Medieval de Silves influenced your decision to book holidays?	Yes: 22.0%; no: 88.0%

Expectations about the event were clearly exceeded (Table 3). Several indicators show that visitors feel a high level of satisfaction with the event: more than 75% of attendees declared satisfied or very satisfied with the medieval fair; around 90% said that they intend to repeat the visit and almost everyone intended to recommend the fair to friends or relatives (98%). In terms of specific attributes of the event, *animation, cleanliness, cultural program, promotion* and *residents*' welcome were strongly quoted as satisfactory or very satisfactory.

Table 3: Expectations and Perceptions about the Event

Expectations about Feira Medieval de Silves	Below: 5.1%; according to: 27.1%; exceeded: 49.2%; exceeded a lot: 18.6%
Overall Satisfaction with the event	Unsatisfied: 3.3%; not unsatisfied nor satisfied: 18.3%; satisfied: 33.3%; very satisfied: 45.1%
Attribute satisfaction	Heritage: quoted as "satisfied or very satisfied" by 93.1%; entertainment / animation: 78.9%; cleanliness: 77.2%; figurants (actors): 75.0%; promotion: 74.6%; merchandising: 74.1%; residents' welcome: 73.7%; residents' involvement: 67.9%; organization of the event: 67.8%; availability of help: 66.1%; accessibility: 62.5%; information: 61%; reception/welcome: 60.3%; authenticity: 60%; lodgings: 54.7%; urban planning: 52.7%; restaurants: 49.1%; signage in the city: 43.9%; local authorities/security: 41.8%; shopping areas: 27.6%; parking: 7%
Intention to come back	Yes: 88.3%; maybe: 11.7%; no: 0%
Intention to recommend	Yes: 98.3%; maybe: 1.7%; no: 0%
Intention to visit	The castle: quoted by 91.5% of tourists; the Archaeology Museum: 61%; the Cathedral: 57.6%; the streets: 52.5%; other churches and chapels: 49.2%; restaurants and bars: 47.5%; shopping areas: 44.1%; the river: 33.9%; the market: 30.5%; other: 6.8%

Motivations

Once applied to the 21 items used to measure motivations to visit the medieval fair, factor analysis identifies five factors that together account for 68.6% of the total variance (KMO = 0.81; Bartlett test: *p-value* = 0.00) (Table 4). By observing the items with higher loadings in each factor, the factors were labelled as *Socialization, Novelty, Intellectual enrichment, Rest and relaxation and City identity*. Cronbach's Alpha coefficients exceed 0.6 regarding the five factors, meaning that they report an internal consistency from moderate to high. Table 4 also shows that attendees feel strongly motivated in terms of all items (the mode, in almost all cases, is 5 'strongly agree'). Factors were sorted with respect to the mean score. In this analysis, Novelty stands out as the most important motivation followed by *City identity, Intellectual enrichment, Rest and relaxation and, lastly, Socialization*.

Table 4. Motivation items and factors from EFA

Items and factors	*Loading*	*Mode (*)*	*Mean*	*Standard deviation*
Socialization				
(Alpha = 0.87; explained variance = 19%)			3.69	0.959
I_1 – I like to participate in events with a group of people	0.878	5	3.89	1.107
I_2 – I enjoy making new friends here	0.778	5	3.41	1.318
I_3 – I come here so I can be with my friends	0.773	3	3.30	1.306
I_4 – It is more fun to come here with others than alone	0.742	5	4.25	0.919
I_5 – By going to these events, I have a chance to meet people who enjoy the same things I do	0.645	5	3.61	1.246
Novelty				
(Alpha = 0.87; explained variance = 14.8%)			4.44	0.848
I_6 – My ideal medieval fair includes looking at things I have never seen before	0.753	5	4.43	0.981
I_7 – I wish to see new things while I am here	0.698	5	4.50	0.770
I_8 – I like to be surprised during this kind of event	0.658	5	4.33	0.816
I_9 – I like to visit this kind of site	0.649	5	4.53	0.812
I_{10} – I like to explore new things here	0.624	5	4.45	0.832
I_{11} – To discover new things here is a precious experience for me	0.559	5	4.38	0.865
Intellectual enrichment				
(Alpha = 0.60; explained variance = 12.6%)			4.09	1.039
I_{12} – I come to this type of event to increase my understanding of Muslim culture	0.748	5	3.88	1.201
I_{13} – I come to this kind of event to learn more about local history	0.746	5	4.33	0.925
I_{14} – I come to this event to increase my knowledge of local culture	0.648	5	3.67	1.161
I_{15} – I like to experience new customs and cultures	0.537	5	4.50	0.822
Rest and relaxation				
(Alpha = 0.59; explained variance = 12.3%)			3.89	0.738
I_{16} – I like to be relaxed in order to participate in this kind of event	0.679	5	3.95	1.111
I_{17} – I like to participate in such events that are not easy for me to go to	0.647	5	4.37	0.938
I_{18} – I like to participate in this kind of event as a change in my routine	0.626	5	4.22	0.922
City identity				
(Alpha = 0.75; explained variance = 9.9%)			4.19	1.030
I_{19} – This kind of event is attached to the sense of the place	0.818	5	4.38	0.875
I_{20} – The atmosphere of this event is attached to my image of this city	0.775	5	3.84	1.225
I_{21} – I think that Silves needs more events like this to allow us to understand the cultural background of the city	0.598	5	4.34	0.965

(*) Legend: 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree

Next, *independent-samples t tests* and ANOVA tests were carried out in order to identify whether motivations differ among attendees' groups in terms of several independent variables. The results of these analyses indicate that *Socialization*, *Novelty and Rest and relaxation* are more important to women than to men (*independent-samples t tests*: p-values < 0.05). On the other hand, the factor *Intellectual enrichment* is strongly assessed by the attendees with higher education. *Socialization* is highly scored by the younger attendees, that is, those aged below 24 years (*ANOVA tests: p-values* < 0.03). No significant relationship was detected between the marital status or the frequency of participation in the event (first visit versus repeated visit) and the motivation factors. Another important finding is that *Intellectual enrichment* is more important to those attendees who are used to participating in this type of event, whereas *Rest and relaxation* is less important to this group of visitors (*independent-samples t tests: p-values* < 0.03). Finally, all motivation factors are strongly assessed by attendees who intend to repeat a visit to the event, although significant differences only arise in terms of *Intellectual enrichment* and *Rest and relaxation* (*independent-samples t tests: p-values* < 0.05).

CONCLUSION

If the traditional vision of cultural tourism was deeply related to a more elitist cultural product, popular culture is seen, nowadays, as an important tourist attraction (Richards, 1994). This is used as an important resource of differentiation and added value, mostly in mature tourist destinations deeply concentrating on the offer of the sun and the beach. The results of this study indicate that the cultural experience has an element of added value to the tourist offer of the Algarve region. Actually, in general terms, most of the Medieval Fair attributes produced a feeling of satisfaction to more than 75% of attendees. The success of this product may also be attested by the fact that almost 70% of the respondents pointed out that their initial expectations were exceeded and around 45% considered themselves very satisfied with this experience. Other revealing results are those related to loyalty to the event, since 88% of the respondents have a clear intention to come back in the future and nearby 100% intend to recommend it to friends or relatives.

In terms of the motivations, this study shows that attendees are strongly motivated by five groups of factors: *Socialization, Novelty, Intellectual enrichment, Rest and relaxation and City identity*. The search for novelty, to learn about the roots of the city and the contribution of this event to intellectual enrichment are the most important factors. As this study also shows, these factors are perceived differently by attendees, depending on some socio-demographic variables, the type of participation in the event and perceptions about it. These findings are not substantially different than those reported in other studies that have tried to understand the profiles and motivations of festival attendees. However, the search for novelty and the fact that this event shows the city identity seem to be the most relevant motivations to the Portuguese attendees of this medieval fair. For them it is relevant to understand the cultural background of this city, which is an important signal to the city planners.

Specifically, this study shows that the offer of cultural products in sun and beach destinations like the Algarve is a beneficial way to differentiate the destination and add value to the core product. Located in a mature tourism destination, which mostly concentrates on sun and beach products, Silves has great potential for attractiveness considering that tourists, nowadays, intend to enhance their cultural background through experiences which allow them to increase their knowledge about the local culture (Valle et al., 2011). Overall, these findings can be used by the management team to better plan and promote the event, to monitor satisfaction, to understand the visitors' decision processes, to identify strengths and opportunities for visitors' satisfaction, to introduce improvements in order to increase revenues and to improve the development of new product and services (Guzman et al., 2006). They can also help to better design the promotion strategy of the event and to decide on the claims in the advertising message.

One of the most relevant limitations of this study is the dimension of the sample. However, we consider that this kind of research, essentially exploratory, is important because it allows the research team and the professionals to have a deeper understanding of their publics' profile. It allows us to discuss how creativity should be faced (and performed) in tourist destinations in order to project a consistent image of the place and, simultaneously, to innovate in order to fulfil the search for novelty. In terms of future investigation concerning this theme it would be interesting to repeat this study with foreign tourists. It would also be interesting to understand how local residents experience the Silves Medieval Fair as they are, at the same time, performers and attendees. Another aspect that deserves research attention is whether visitors really return to the event and the motivations beyond the return behaviour.

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Perceptions about expanding a city's tourism economy through sport and culture: The case of Indianapolis' event tourism segment

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ABSTRACT

It is widely accepted that tourism is one of the fastest growing industries in the world and the sports and cultural tourism segments are a major and important contributor to that growth. These segments are often described in the literature using the term event tourism. The term refers to leisure oriented special events and is emerging as a large and growing market for the tourism industry. Activities that are attractive to special event attendees include: sports events, festivals or fairs, group tours, trade shows, and cultural attractions, such as museums, plays, concerts, etc. This paper attempts to measure differences in residents' perceptions of the importance of these two segments to a city's future and furthermore, explore the willingness of residents to sustain and grow each segment using public financing.

Keywords: tourism, sport, culture, events, development

INTRODUCTION

During the last two decades, city tourism has become an important tool in a city's efforts to promote economic development. Cultural and sports related activities in particular have attracted added attention for their contributions to economic prosperity and improvements to a city's overall quality of life. The objective of this study was to assess Indianapolis residents' perceptions of these two tourism segments and identify their perceived importance as generators of tourism.

The terms cultural tourism and sports tourism require definition. Cultural tourism is a broad category that includes music, arts, heritage, customs and traditions in which tourists participate in. Tourist activities may include attending a play or concert, or visiting an historic site, museum or art gallery. Sports tourism covers activities available to both residents and visitors who enjoy or participate in sporting events as spectators or participants, as well as those who take part in team sports. Tourist activities may include travel to see a professional football game or to participate in a baseball tournament.

Both cultural and sports tourists are a passionate, high profile, high-spending, adventure-seeking lot that often stimulate other tourism sectors. Their direct benefit to a city is cash that results from the visitor money they inject into the community and the money sports and cultural organizations expense. The indirect benefits have more lasting contributions that are felt long after the cultural and sports events are over. Examples of indirect benefits include the construction of new or improvements in existing venues, bridges, hotels, roads, arenas, theaters, concert halls, new jobs and other long term benefits to a city's residents.

Cultural and sports tourism has also become the new tool to help change cultural perceptions and the image of a city. In some cases culture and sports have been used to advance cultural and political interests. Think of apartheid in South Africa and how Cricket, rugby and football helped heal the racial divide that existed for decades. Another example is Belfast's Cultural Strategy used to change the city's image from that of violence to one of a modern vibrant European city (Neil, 2001).

When Richards and Wilson (2003), argued that the number of cultural attractions over the last two decades was estimated to have increased by over 100%, Indianapolis was embarking on its own cultural tourism initiative. The city-wide cultural tourism initiative set sights on positioning Indianapolis as a sports and cultural tourism destination. One of the initiative's overall objectives was to improve the quality of life for Indianapolis residents by capitalizing on the city's existing sports and cultural amenities and attributes. One of the first projects of the initiative was the creation of the Cultural Districts Program to facilitate the cultural development of six distinct neighborhoods or districts that offered a critical mass and unique mix of sports, arts, cultural and hospitality activities. The development of these six neighborhoods was designed to share the unique, authentic and diverse character of Indianapolis and its people with residents and visitors alike. The idea of the cultural districts has been popular in many other urban areas (Bell & Jayne, 2004). Judd and Fainstein (1999) offered city leaders and other public officials a recipe for prioritizing the needs of suburban tourists over the needs of urban residents. Specifically, the authors recommended the construction of 'tourist bubbles,' which could be promoted to the point of displacing the actual city as the 'principle signifier of a locality,' an area shield from urban ills (p. 36). The idea was to channel some of the urban city visitors to the more suburban areas to better manage tourism development.

Sports and cultural tourism activities present opportunities for Indianapolis to further leverage its existing cultural and sports venues to create added economic and community value by hosting more events that attract spectators and participants from outside the area. These events will bring new dollars into the Indianapolis economy, showcase the city's assets, and provide a growing repertoire of sports and cultural opportunities for residents and tourists alike. Depending on how it is calculated, tourism is already Indianapolis's third- or fourth-largest industry, with a total economic impact of about $3.56 billion a year.

The paper provides an overview of Indianapolis residents' perceptions on these two important tourism segments and offers suggestions on how other cities can replicate Indianapolis success by combining local resources to create competitive tourism strategies.

RELATED LITERATURE

Tourism has become one of the top three most rapidly developing industries in the 21st century global economy (Heath, 2003). Tourism driven economic impacts include balance of payments, income, employment, infrastructure, inter-regional development, economic diversification, and indirect effects on other industries (Bahar & Kozak, 2008; Pearce 1991). Cities rely on urban tourism for economic regeneration and strategic development (Ioannides & Peterson, 2003; Law, 2002; Rogerson, 2004). Tourism ranks as a top 5 economic driver in Indiana and approximately 20 million visitors arrive in Indianapolis annually.

A 2006 economic impact study for Indiana tourism showed that spending by travelers in the state totaled \$10.36 billion. This expenditure supported 257,785 jobs and \$6.74 billion in wages. The federal, state and local tax revenue proceeds from tourism infused another \$2.13 billion to the state's economy. One important consideration is that the biggest source of tourism revenue (95%) was generated by the domestic market, only 5% was generated by international visitors. (Global Insight, 2006)

The same report notes that 21.9 million visitors annually provide \$3.56 billion in total annual economic impact on the Indianapolis economy resulting in 66,621 full-time equivalent employment positions in the hospitality industry.

Event Tourism Based on Sport

Getz (1997) defined the event tourism segment as one consisting of individuals who travel to attend events or who can be motivated to attend events while away from home. For purposes of this study, sports and cultural event tourism is domestic or international travel which involves incidental or purposeful association (e.g. watching, volunteering, facilitating or active participation) in sports, arts, history and cultural events. Thus examples of sports or cultural events tourism can include soccer fans travelling extensively to support their teams (Kim & Chalip, 2004), volunteers traveling out of the country to assist with sports events (Fairley, Kellett, & Green, 2007), jazz music festival visitors spending on concerts and other arrangements (Thrane, 2002) or the serendipitous cultural tourists who seek deep cultural experiences while travelling for other purposes (McKercher, 2002).

Getz (1991) reported that cities bid for sports tourism related events to attract people into the area, minimize seasonality effects, improve visibility, minimize occupancy spare capacity, encourage repeat visits, and regenerate the economy. Since the 1980s, Indiana, and Indianapolis in particular, have actively promoted sports tourism. Rawn (1990) described the transition of Indianapolis from a manufacturing town to an international sports venue. The city is home to the Indianapolis Motor Speedway, the world's largest spectator sporting facility with more than 250,000 permanent seats. Currently, Indianapolis is home to professional sports teams such as Colts football, Pacers basketball, Indiana Baseball, and etc. The city is touted as the amateur sport capital of the United States because numerous national governing bodies such as the National Collegiate Athletic Association, USA Gymnastics, USA Diving, USA Track and Field are headquartered in Indianapolis. The economic impact of large sporting events is increasingly greater when compared to traditional sport tourism (Yoo & Weber, 2005). Example of mega sporting events include the annual Indianapolis 500 and the 2012 Superbowl and the unsuccessful bid for the 2022 World Cup.

Event Tourism Based on Culture

The idea of arts-led regeneration was explored in US cities since the 1970s and there is a growing interest in using culture as a tool for urban regeneration (Garcia, 2004). Cultural tourism can contribute to local economic regeneration and prosperity (MacDonald and Jolliffe, 2003; Rizzo and Throsby, 2006). In a study commissioned by the United States Cultural and Heritage Tourism Marketing Council on leisure travelers in the US, it was reported that cultural heritage travelers on average spend $383 more than leisure travelers, and $192.3 billion annually can be attributed to the cultural heritage traveler (Mandala Research, 2009). Throsby (2009) described cultural assets as those which have cultural value in addition to economic value and noted that such cultural assets can be tangible or intangible. Historic buildings are examples of tangible cultural assets while traditions and ways of life, usually celebrated during heritage festivals, can be considered intangible cultural assets.

"Livability" is a concept used to describe how attractive a place is to live in, and many rankings of "best cities or countries to live in" exist. Along similar veins, Throsby described livability as environments with tangible features such as public infrastructure (urban transit, efficient sanitation, etc.) and intangible features such as sense of place, distinctive local identity, established social networks, etc. He reported that both cultural assets and livability are relevant to the impacts of cultural tourism. Similarly, Bianchini (1993) reported that city governments view cultural tourism as an important tool that can result in improved quality of life for residents and visitors alike. The international violin competition of Indianapolis is an example of how a recurring cultural event can create opportunities for residents to appreciate world class live music performance and attract violinists and classical music supporters from all over the world.

Thus in addition to leveraging on sports tourism, Indianapolis has also focused on improving the arts and culture scene. In 2002, a cultural tourism initiative was launched to enhance visitors' cultural experiences and improve the quality of life of residents. To date, Indianapolis is home to the world's largest children's museum and boasts six Cultural Districts which offer public art, galleries, museums, ethnic eateries, uniquely local shops, theatres, performances, etc. A cultural trail, composed of urban bike and pedestrian paths, was conceived to connect neighborhoods, Cultural Districts and entertainment amenities, and serves as the downtown hub for the entire central Indiana greenway system. The Indianapolis examples may provide support for Coccossis (2009) remarks that cultural heritage tourism can enhance local values, contribute to positive social attitudes and strengthen sense of local identity.

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the study was to investigate residents' perceptions about both cultural tourism and sports tourism. This study specifically sought to identify if relationships existed between the attributes 'accomplishment awareness' (i.e. I am aware of the city's recent tourism accomplishments), and 'potential to succeed' (i.e. Indianapolis has the potential to succeed as a tourism destination), 'positive image creation' (i.e. tourism helps create a positive image of Indianapolis), and 'good for economy' (i.e. tourism is good for the Indianapolis economy) respectively.

The questionnaire examined the perceived value and awareness of both sports and cultural tourism development in Indianapolis. A total of 16 urban cultural tourism development attributes and 16 sports tourism development attributes were adapted from a study by Wang, Fu, Cecil, and Hji-Avgoustis (2008), given it was originally designed for an Indianapolis residents study. The 16 items were measured on a five-point scale ranging from strongly agree (1)" to "strongly disagree (5)." Questions regarding respondents' demographic characteristics, such as age, gender, ethnicity, household income, and length of residency were included to provide a demographic profile of the respondents. Data were collected via convenience sampling in eight pre-selected locations in Indianapolis. Several sports and cultural events such as the Irish festival and a canoe regatta had been held in those locations. Survey participants were Indianapolis residents who were 18 years and older. Data were collected over several weeks in September 2010. A total of 380 usable surveys were used for analysis. It should be noted that an annual study of Indianapolis residents perceptions has been conducted over the recent years and some of the methodology and sampling delimitations in this study were intended to maintain consistency for longitudinal tracking purposes.

Frequency and descriptive analyses were employed to examine the distribution of the values of all the demographic variables and the mean ratings of the 16 cultural tourism development items as well as the sport tourism development items. Comparing-mean techniques (t-test) were employed to explore the significant difference of residents' perceptions between the 16 paired cultural and sport tourism development items. Correlation analyses were employed to examine how some of the items were perceptually related. Significance level was set at 0.05 and SPSS was used.

RESULTS

Demographic Profile

As shown in Table 1, the gender ratio of respondents was slightly skewed towards males

(63.9%). The modal age group was relatively young (18-30 years old). The other two major age groups were 31-43 years old (26.1%) and 44-56 years old (28.2). Less than 15% of respondents were over 56 years old. With regards to ethnicity, most respondents were Caucasian (71.0%). Other ethnic groups were African Americans (6.4%), Hispanics (3.3%), and Asians (1.7%). The majority of the respondents had lived in Indianapolis for at least 4 years (81.0%). Among them, about 58.3% have lived in Indianapolis for 10 years or more. About 60% of the respondents' household income is equal to or below $60,000 while 40% had household income greater than $60,000.

Table 1: Respondents' Demographic Profile (2010)

Characteristics	*n*	%
Age		
18-30	197	51.8
31-43	121	31.8
44-56	49	12.9
57-	13	3.5
Gender		
Male	242	63.9
Female	137	36.1
Ethnicity		
Hispanics	10	2.7
African American	34	9.0
Caucasian	272	72.3
Asian/Pacific Islanders	24	6.4
Native American	0	0
Others	30	8.0
Household income		
$0-$30,000	118	31.4
$30,001-$60,000	108	28.7
$60,001-$90,000	79	21.0
$90,001-$120,000	35	9.3
$120,001-	36	9.6
Residency		
< 1 year	13	3.4
< 2 years	22	5.8
< 4 years	37	9.8
< 10 years	86	22.7
> 10 years	221	58.3

Mean Ratings of the Cultural Tourism and Sport Tourism Development Items

As indicated in Table 2, the means of the cultural tourism development related items ranged from 1.81 to 2.66 and all the items were positively worded in the same direction. All the means were less than 3 hence all the items were positively perceived by the residents. The most favor able items were 'cultural tourism is good for the Indianapolis economy' (1.81) and 'I enjoy the city wide events and festivals'(1.83). The items with highest means (perceived positively but to a lesser degree) included 'I'm more aware of the city's culture because of cultural tourism promotion' (2.66), 'I am aware of the city's plans for developing the Cultural Trail' (2.61), and 'I am aware of the city's recent accomplishments in cultural tourism'(2. 49).

Table 2: Mean Ratings of the Cultural Tourism Development Items

Items	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Cultural tourism is good for the Indianapolis economy.	380	1.81	.711
I enjoy the city wide events and festivals.	380	1.83	.759
Meeting tourists from around the world is life enriching.	378	1.95	.761
Investing in cultural events and attractions for tourists is good for residents.	379	1.95	.747
Cultural tourism helps create a positive image of Indianapolis.	379	1.96	.711
Special events and festivals help create a community spirit across the city.	379	1.97	.734
Cultural tourism results in more attractions and events for the benefit of residents.	380	2.03	.730
More should be done to promote cultural tourism in Indianapolis.	379	2.08	.855
I enjoy the cultural attractions the city offers.	380	2.09	.797
Meeting and talking to tourists is a positive experience.	379	2.12	.787
Indianapolis has the potential to succeed as a cultural tourism destination.	380	2.21	.763
Promoting cultural tourism can raise the profile of Indianapolis in other parts of the world.	380	2.23	.796
I am aware of the city's recent accomplishments in cultural tourism.	380	2.49	.929
Funding of cultural tourism is the responsibility of local government	378	2.59	.938
I am aware of the city's plans for developing the Cultural Trail.	380	2.61	1.078
I'm more aware of the city's culture because of cultural tourism promotion.	379	2.66	.936

Scale: 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=disagree, 5= strongly disagree

Mean Ratings of the Sport Tourism Development Items

As indicated in Table 3, the means of the sports tourism development related items ranged from 1.61 to 2.91. Similar to the cultural tourism items, all the means were also less than 3 hence all the items were positively perceived by the residents. The most favorable items were 'I am aware of the city's recent accomplishments in sports tourism (Super Bowl 2012, 2011 Big Ten Football Title Game)' (1.61) and 'Sports tourism is good for the Indianapolis economy'(1.70). The items with highest means included 'Funding of sports tourism is the responsibility of local government'(2.91), 'I enjoy sports related activities that I can participate in'(2.39), and 'More should be done to promote sports tourism in Indianapolis'(2.26).

Table 3: Mean Ratings of the Sport Tourism Development Items

Items	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
I am aware of the city's recent accomplishments in sports tourism (Super Bowl 2012, 2011 Big Ten Football Title Game).	380	1.61	.651
Sports tourism is good for the Indianapolis economy.	379	1.70	.745
Indianapolis has the potential to succeed as a sports tourism destination.	379	1.80	.727
Meeting tourists from around the world is life enriching.	380	1.84	.773
Sports related events and activities help create a community spirit across the city.	380	1.84	.785
I enjoy sports related events that I can attend.	378	1.87	.890
Sports tourism results in more activities and events for the benefit of residents.	379	1.89	.786
Meeting and talking to tourists is a positive experience.	380	1.95	.776
Investing in sports is good for residents.	378	1.95	.808
Sports tourism helps create a positive image of Indianapolis.	379	1.98	.832
Promoting sports tourism can raise the profile of Indianapolis in other parts of the world.	377	2.07	.866
I am aware of the city's plans for attracting major sports events.	379	2.17	1.029
I'm more aware of the city's sports related offerings because of sports tourism promotion.	378	2.21	.894
More should be done to promote sports tourism in Indianapolis.	379	2.26	.928
I enjoy sports related activities that I can participate in.	380	2.39	1.140
Funding of sports tourism is the responsibility of local government.	379	2.91	1.072

Scale: 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=disagree, 5= strongly disagree

Results of Paired Sample t-tests

As shown in Table 4, 13 out of the 16 pairs were tested to be significant in residents' perceptual differences between the cultural tourism development items and the sports tourism items. All the 13 pairs were perceived to be different at the significance level of .05. The biggest discrepancies of mean ratings were found in pair 1 (accomplishment awareness), pair 10 (related offerings awareness), pair 2 (city plans awareness) and pair 3 (potential to succeed). For these four pairs, sport items' mean ratings were all smaller than the cultural items, indicating that these sport items were more positively perceived than cultural items. The three non-significant items include pair 4 (positive image creation), pair 9 (enjoyment of related events) and pair 14 (investment good for residents).

Table 4: Paired-sample t-test

Cultural items vs. sport items		Mean	Std. Dev.	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1	accomplishment awareness	.942	1.517	12.102	379	.000*
Pair 2	city plans awareness	.435	1.419	5.973	378	.000*
Pair 3	potential to succeed	.401	.930	8.394	378	.000*
Pair 4	positive image creation	-.032	.891	-.692	377	.489
Pair 5	city profile enhancement	.167	.870	3.730	376	.000*
Pair 6	more benefits to residents	.129	.849	2.964	378	.003*
Pair 7	good for economy	.103	.856	2.340	378	.020*
Pair 8	enjoyment of related activities	-.305	1.383	-4.304	379	.000*
Pair 9	enjoyment of related events	-.042	1.057	-.778	377	.437
Pair 10	related offerings awareness	.444	1.099	7.863	377	.000*
Pair 11	positive experience	.174	.635	5.337	378	.000*
Pair 12	life enrichment	.114	.618	3.577	377	.000*
Pair 13	community spirit	.132	.835	3.077	378	.002*
Pair 14	investment good for residents	-.005	.847	-.122	376	.903
Pair 15	more promotion needed	-.177	.965	-3.571	377	.000*
Pair 16	government responsibility	-.318	1.222	-5.056	376	.000*

* Significant at .05 level

Results of Correlation Analysis

Correlation analyses were conducted between the items of 'accomplishment awareness' and 'potential to succeed', 'positive image creation', and 'good for economy', respectively, in both cultural tourism and sport tourism (see Table 5). All the results were significant indicating that residents' perceptions of the city's potential to succeed, a successful creation of city image, and goodness for the city's economy are strongly related with their awareness of the city's recent accomplishments in both cultural tourism development and sports tourism development.

Table 5: Correlation Analysis

Cultural Tourism Items		Potential to succeed	Positive image creation	Good for economy
Accomplishment Awareness	Pearson Correlation	.476	.337	.338
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	380	379	380
Sport Tourism Items		Potential	image	economy
Accomplishment Awareness	Pearson Correlation	.414	.430	.361
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	379	379	379

DISCUSSION

According to IndyGov (2010) demographic profile report extracted from the US Census Bureau, the Indianapolis ethnic breakdown was approximately 70% white, 24% African Americans, 4% Latino and 1% Asian. Compared against the ethnicity of the respondents, the numbers are similar. There were more male respondents when compared to the Indianapolis population of 49% males. Less than 15% of respondents were over 56 years old. This somewhat corresponds with census data which reports that 11% of Indianapolis residents are 65 years and older. The respondents' income also did not differ vastly from census data, which put median household income at $40,000 in 1999 dollars. It can be concluded that the sample is fairly representative of Indianapolis residents. In addition, 80% of the respondents had lived in the community for more than 4 years so it is believed that they had a relatively good understanding of what the city. Compared to the median household income in the US, approximately 40% of the respondents were from households which are considered financially about average. This may suggests that the more wealthy residents were the one who participated more often, and were thus convenience sampled, in sports and cultural events.

Based on the mean ratings of perceptions about sport tourism and cultural tourism, residents were generally favorable towards both types of events tourism. The most favorable perception was that both sports tourism and cultural tourism were good for the local economy. With respect to cultural tourism, residents enjoyed participating in the cultural events and festivals and this finding concurs with Throsby's (2009) explanation that cultural tourism can have a positive economic impact and can improve the livability of an urban area.

Based on the paired sample t-tests, residents' perceptions about sports tourism vs. cultural tourism were significantly different on 13 of the 16 items. In general, awareness of sports tourism accomplishments, related offerings, plans for development, and promotional efforts were greater than that of cultural tourism. This may be due to the fact that the larger sporting events such as the 2012 Super Bowl received wider national news coverage compared to the more limited coverage for local cultural events. On a parallel note, residents felt that more needed to be done to promote cultural tourism, when compared to sports tourism.

In general, the benefits of sports tourism, when compared to cultural tourism, were also viewed as significantly more favorable. For example, residents perceived sports tourism as more beneficial in terms of meeting tourists for life enrichment, creating community spirit, and creating positive tourist-host experiences. It should be noted that the findings do not marginalize resident's perception about the socio-economic impact of cultural tourism. It merely suggests that perception is skewed more favorable towards sports tourism instead of cultural tourism. More needs to be done to identify why this sentiment exists. In presenting a place as a sports destination it is important to bear in mind that for many residents sporting related events are the main reason for travel while culture forms a décor against which other activities such as sightseeing, eating, drinking and lodging are undertaken. In their minds, culture plays an important, but very different role than sports.

Coccossis (2009) described a qualitative shift in tourist demand where education, culture and activities which engage the visitor in local events and lifestyle are gaining importance. Poon (1993) similarly indicated that travelers were searching for something different, such as the unexpected or new cultures. Hence in planning for the future, Indianapolis could preemptively provide a relatively richer diversity of cultural offerings in comparison to sports offerings, to carve a competitive edge to meet the evolving demands of visitor experiences. As a city in an agricultural state, Indianapolis can quickly leverage on the cottage industries that are within day-trip distances. Cultural tourism assets should be representative and authenticity should be maintained.

The results showed moderate correlations between 'accomplishment awareness' and 'potential to succeed', 'accomplishment awareness' and 'positive image creation', and 'accomplishment awareness' and 'good for economy' in terms of both cultural tourism and sport tourism. The results indicate that more accomplishments achieved by the city, either in cultural tourism or sport tourism, may more likely make residents feel and acknowledge the importance and benefit of cultural tourism and sport tourism development and thus become more positive in supporting tourism or sport-related initiatives. As for tourism or sport event planners and managers, one important task may be to make known to the public of every big achievement made in the areas of cultural and sports tourism.

A limitation of the study is that the responses clustered at the favorable end of the scale, with ratings less than three. This may suggest "inflated" positive responses and future measurements could be more sensitive to differences, possibly by transforming skewed responses. This is a case study and the generalizability of the findings is limited. Further analysis to investigate differences in demographic characteristics, such as different subsets of age or income groups, could be explored. The perception of city tourism administrators and tourism industry partners should be also included in future work. A future study would be to consider the net effects of both sports tourism and cultural tourism. For example, in the case of economic impact of sports tourism, the negative effects such as opportunity cost, leakages, and inflation, if large enough, could negate the positive impacts.

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Geotourists health risk management in the Balkan countries

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ABSTRACT

The paper deals with the current need to be informed about infectious threats Slovakian holiday makers may encounter in the Balkan area. The first part deals with information about infectious diseases tourists come across during their visits to Greece, Bulgaria. The second part of the paper targets the problem brought about by global warming and the related spread of tropical infectious diseases in countries of the Balkan area, where they had not occurred before. This may be an important factor regarding tourism in the countries around the Mediterranean Sea. The paper shows statistical data of the Public Health Council of Slovakia that give the number of the infected Slovakian tourists during outbound travel. The data show that some of the most frequent infectious diseases Slovakian tourists contracted are rabies, campylobateriosis, salmonelosis and bacterial dysentery. The threat of diseases such as dengue and parasitic malaria in the studied area is analyzed. These facts should concern health authorities, tourists, travel agencies as well as holiday destination managements. Finally, the paper hints at possible preventive measures against contracting infectious diseases.

Keywords: tourism, diseases, Balkan area, global warming

INTRODUCTION

Travelling to foreign countries has seen a significant increase among Slovakian citizens during the recent years. Travel allows experience of national cultures, customs, traditions, cuisines, and natural environment including geo-sites. The summer season is the best attended by tourists. A beautiful and affordable area for spending a holiday - for young people, families with children, as well as for seniors - is the Balkan Peninsula, which is one of the most popular European destinations of Slovakian tourists. There are many factors that directly contribute to high traffic to the Balkan countries such as Croatia, Bulgaria and Greece (see Table 1, Figures1-3). The location is probably one of the most important factors, due to the proximity of the Adriatic, Aegean and Black Sea. Several types and levels of services which ensure a pleasant holiday have now been fully developed at these destinations.

Table 1: Number of Slovakian visitors in the Balkan area (www.mhsr.sk/statisticke-informacie)

Country/Year	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Croatia	100 582	99 770	101 928	122 904	138 461
Greece	79 997	92 677	105 686	102 451	109 282
Bulgaria	44 353	45 103	40 686	63 745	51 318

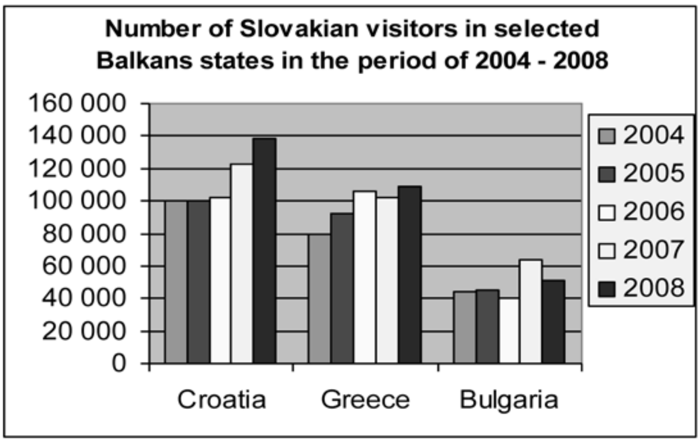


Figure 1: Frequency plot of visitor number for the most popular Balkan destinations (www.mhsr.sk/statisticke-informacie)

From the diagrams we can see that the number of tourists increases every year in Croatia and Greece. Bulgaria has a lower share of tourists, but attracts a steady clientele. Natural resources in all of these countries include sea, geological features, mountains, and attractive landscape. The most important of the nature areas are protected. Tab.2 shows the most important features of these protected areas.

Balkan tourist- and geo-tourist sites popular amongst Slovakian tourists

From geotourist point of view, the statistics is identical with those given above. In Tab.2 it can be seen that the sea, sea-shore and the islands offer a wealth of geotourist sites. The inland landscape is very varied and one can find suitable sites to fit nearly all needs. In case of Greece, islands like Crete or Rhodos have unique geotourist sites.

Table 2: Important tourist and geotourist localities in the most popular Balkan countries

Country	Croatia	Bulgaria	Greece
Nature	The western boundary of the country is formed by Adriatic sea. Dalmatia includes most of the seashore, which ends at Boka Kotorska. The coast is articulated and next to it are about 600 rocky islands. The Dinar Mts separates the inland from Dalmatia (Fridner et al, 2005; Schejbal 2005).	The northern border is formed by Danube, which is surrounded by the Danube plain. The south is mountainous, and the mountain ranges are: Stara planina, Rodope, Rila, Pirin. Together with the Vitosha plain they occupy about the surface of Bulgaria. The continental weather weakens the effect of the Black sea on the overall weather (Fridner, 2005).	Almost half of Greece is covered by deforested mountains The western coast is where the Pindos Mts are, the east is adorned by Olympus. The Peloponnesian peninsula and a number of islands in the Aegean sea are mountainous (Fridner, 2005).
The best known holiday resorts	Bashka, Pula, Rab, Rabac, Split, Slano, Shibeník, Zadar, Umag, Dubrovník, Bashka Voda (Schejbal, 2005; www.e-cestovka.sk].	Golden sand, Sunny beach, Primorsko, Pomorie, Kiten, Srebarna, Nessebar, Albena (www.aeolus.sk/bulharsko).	Athens, Epirus, Chalkidiki, Chios, Kalymnos, Karpathos, Kos, Crete, Korfu, Lesbos, Lefkáda, Rhodos, Hersonissos (www.e-cestovka.sk; Adam, 2006).
Selected National parks	Plitvice lakes, Kornati a Brijuni isladns, North Velebit Mts, Paklenica, The Risnyak massif, Krke waterfalls, Island of Mlyet (www.find-croatia.com).	Pirin, Rila, Central Balkan (www.bulgariannationalparks.org).	Parnitha, Vikos, Olympus, Parnassos, Samaria, Prespes, Pindos, Oeta, Sounio, Ainos (www.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_parks_of_Greece).
UNESCO heritage sites	Stari Grad Plain, Plitvice lakes, Dubrovnik, St. Jacob´s Cathedral in Sibenik, Historic city of Trogir, Basilica in Porec, Diocletian’s Palace in Split (www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lokalitiy_Svet).	Nessebar, Srebarna NR, Pirin NP, The Bojana church, stone churches near Ivanov, Thracian Royal tomb near Razgrad (www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lokalitiy_Svet).	Epidaurus, Apollon´s church in Bassa, Acropolis in Athens, Delphi, city of Rhodos, Meteora, Mt. Athos, Thessaloniki, Olympia, Dilos, Mystras, Mycenae, Vergina (www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lokalitiy_Svet].

The geo-tourist places of interests have a greater exposure to sources of infection found in nature (microorganisms, insects, invertebrate and vertebrate animals both on land and in water) than tourists visiting only urban locations. So their health risk can be said to be greater than average.

INFECTION-RELATED HEALTH RISKS IN THE BALKAN AREA

Main factors influencing the process of spread of diseases

Natural factors

Natural factors are the most significant causes of transfer of pathogenic germs. Geographical and climate factors directly influence the existence of certain biological species at a certain territory. For example malaria is present only at such places where there are suitable conditions for Anopheles mosquitoes (Bakoss et al, 2005; Bálint et al, 2007). As for the climate factors, the most influential are temperature changes, sun radiation and the air current dynamics. As for the microclimatic factors, the most significant are the air circulation or relative air humidity along with very high or very low air temperatures, presence of dust particles and gases. They can directly affect the defence ability of the organism and its vulnerability to infectious diseases (Juriš et al, 2009; Strajňák & Edilmar, 2011).

Socio-economic factors

These include industrialization and collectivisation of life, as well as increasing population and a significant weakening of immunity. Collectivism of life in the form of public transport and public and mass catering brings along increased risk of developing and spreading of respiratory and alimentary epidemics (Strajňák, 2010).

It is important to be aware, that tourism includes also different risks- thus e.g. potential health risks of infectious and non-infectious nature. According to the definition of human health, approved in Slovakia on 24 August1994, health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being, not merely the absence of disease and the result of the relationship between human body and the socio-economic, physical, chemical and biological environmental factors, working environment and lifestyle (Stanek, 2008). In tourism, it is important to maintain a positive psychic attitude supporting the psychosomatic well-being as well as to prevent infections of various types. There are many potential hazards that may threaten the health of a tourist on holiday in the Balkan Peninsula. In this article we consider more the infectious diseases that fall under public health hazard category. As mentioned, there are many natural factors that influence the appearance and spread of contagious diseases (microclimate, climate, vectors of causal agents, etc.) as well as socio-economic factors (mass transport, increased mobility of people, etc.). When choosing a holiday destination, information on potential health risks of different types in the target destination is very important as the risks may include viral, bacterial and parasitic infections. Another problem is the sexually transmitted diseases, which have seen a significant increase in the recent years (Around 174 million people are annually infected by trichomonas worldwide – see Tab.3) (Kolombo et al, 2007).

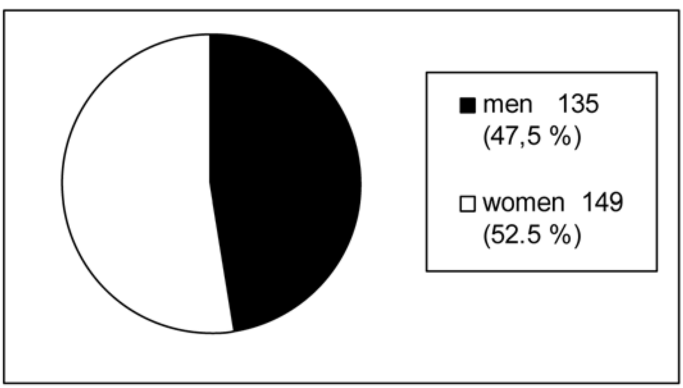
Table 3: Infection threats in the Balkan countries

Most frequent diseases in the Balkan area (Strajňák, 2010; Jančulová, 2009)	***Further possible diseases in Balkan area*** (Kochová, 2008; Eberhardt-Metzger & Ries, 1997; Strajňák, 2010).	***Most frequent sexually transmitted diseases (past years)*** (Kolombo, 2007; Strajňák, 2010, www.uvzsr.sk).
Contact with Rabies (see Fig. 3)	papatachi fever, type A hepatitis, Lyme disease, dirofilariosis	HPV
Campylobacteriosis (see Fig. 4)		Herpes genitalis
Salmonelosis (see Fig. 5)		Mycoplasmatic infections
Bacillary dysentery (see Fig. 6)		Chlamydia infection, Trichomonas vaginalis

Survey results

A survey was made in order to add more information to the basic statistical data. It was conducted on a sample of 284 respondents. The duration of survey was from 1st of August 2011 to 4th of September, 2011. The survey has shown that the most frequent infectious diseases that tourists have to face are caused by consumables. There were 135 male and 149 female respondents taking part in the survey. The information obtained by this survey was used to design measures that would contribute towards minimising of health risks associated with travelling. The travel agency within which the survey was conducted is Rebeka Travel agency, Bardejov, Slovakia[1]. The results of the survey are given in Fig. 3.a-h.

Figure 2a: Gender of respondents



[1] Contact person: Ing. Barbora Homzova, Phone: +421 904 358192)

Figure 2b: Age of respondents

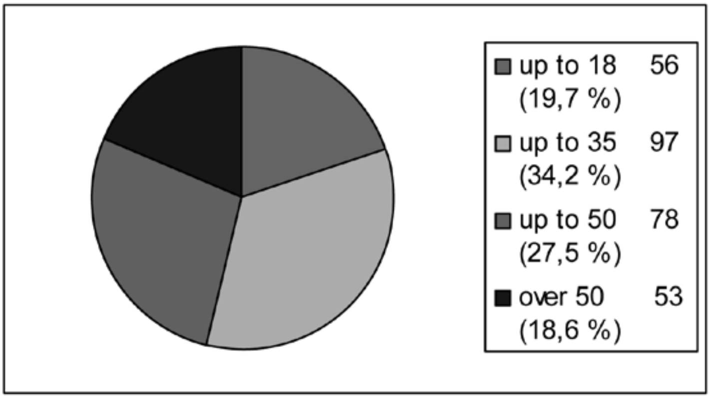


Figure 2c: Level of education of respondents

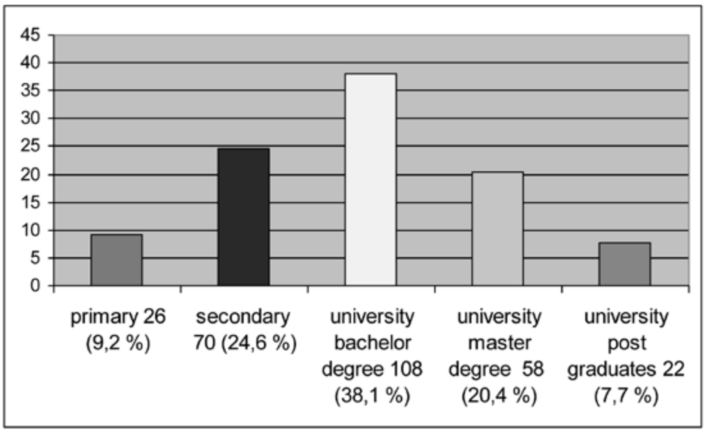


Figure 2d: Are you familiar with first aid?

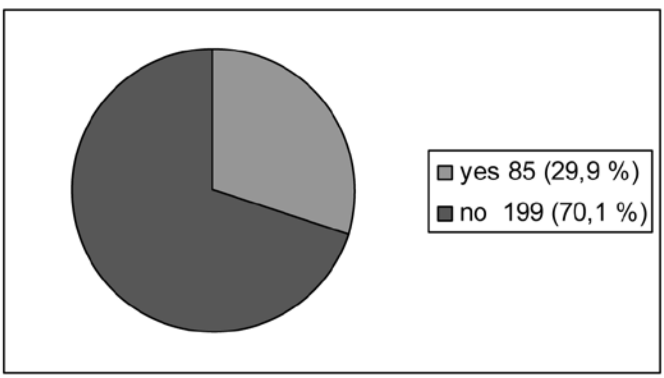


Figure 2e: Did you undergo vaccination before going on holiday?

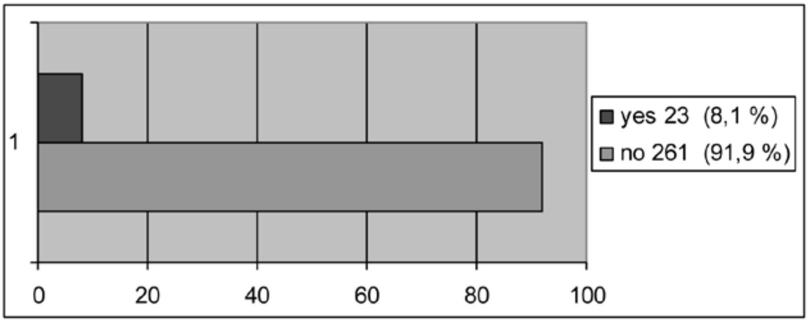


Figure 2f: Have you ever had any health issues while spending a holiday?

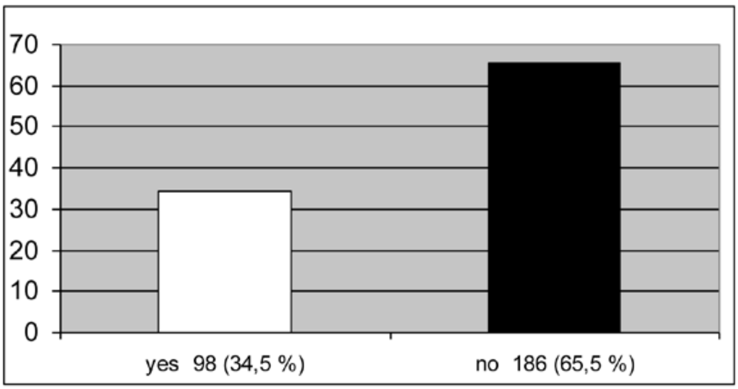


Figure 2g: If yes, what type of illness?

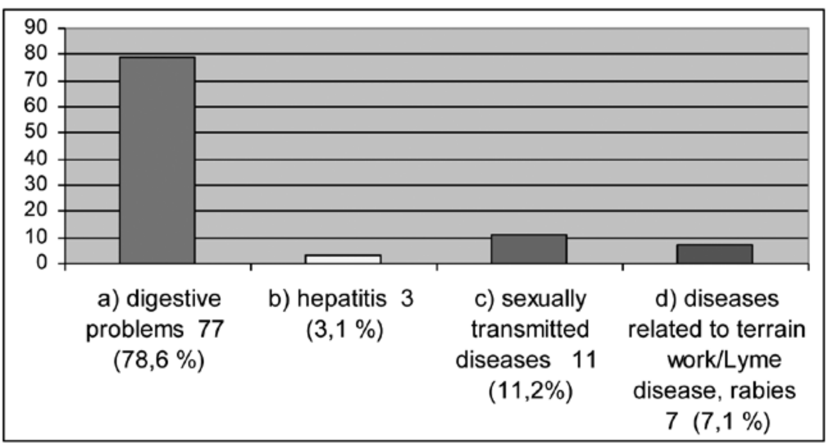
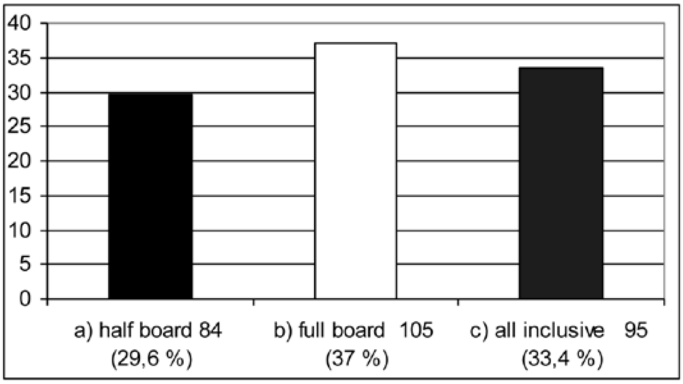


Figure 2h: What are your preferences regarding catering?



From the above data it follows that the gender equality of the sample was sufficiently maintained, the majority of the respondents were between 18-34 and 35-49 years, most of the respondents had university education, still, the majority (~70%) were not familiar with first aid procedures, 92% does not consider vaccination necessary, still ~66% did not contract any disease during holidays, the majority of the remaining ~34% of the respondents (~27%) had problems relating to the digestive system. The majority (~37%) takes all the meals in the hotel facilities. If we assume that the hotel catering facilities are safe, the problems could come from taking snacks or occasional dining out. Overall, the fact that only 66% of the sampled holiday makers did not contract at the given holiday seasons a health problem is a matter that should be given greater attention.

TOURIST HEALTH ISSUES IN LIGHT OF STATISICS

Contact with Rabies (Z203)

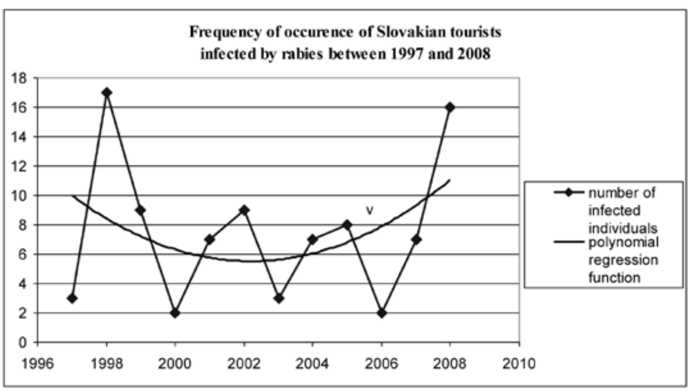


Figure 3: Incidence of rabies among Slovakian tourists (Strajňák, 2010; Jančulová, 2009)

From the total number of rabies infections, about 30% are contracted in the Balkan countries (Fig.4).

Infection pathways: Rabies is a grave viral disease of the CNS that is common in case of animals that can infect people. The infection is spread through bites by infected dog, cat, wolf, fox etc. The infection is carried by saliva. The closer the bite is to a nerve or the spinal chord, the more dangerous it is (Kopecká & Kopecký, 2007; Šramka et al, 2006; Strajňák, 2010).

Clinical symptoms: In case the symptoms manifest – regardless the treatment – the outlook is unfavourable as it ends by death. The period of latency is 2-8 weeks, but can be 10 days to 12 months. The disease starts to manifest by a period of 2 to 4 days with increased body temperature, pain in the back of the head, nausea and sometimes vomiting. The wound is painful, there is a burning sensation, itching that spreads along the proximal course of the nerve and can spread to a whole half of the body. A local and overall hypersensitivity manifests. Thus a visual, auditive or tactile stimulus can cause severe pain. The patient becomes melancholic and his mood oscillates between optimism and suicidal behaviour (Bakoss et al, 2005; Sabolová, 2009).

Contact with Salmonelosis (A020)

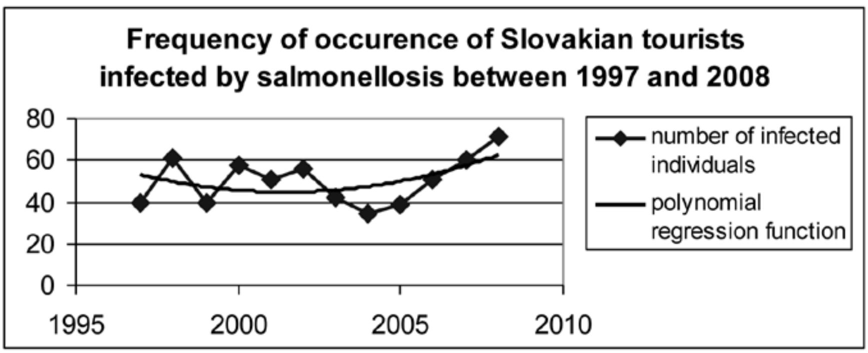


Figure 4: Enteritis caused by Salmonellas (Strajňák, 2010; Jančulová, 2009)

About half of the infections contracted by Slovak tourists come from the Balkan countries (Fig.5).

Infection pathways: The primary sources of infection are meat or eggs that were insufficiently thermally processed. Secondary sources of infections are transport or storage of the said foodstuff. So food like ice cream, mayonnaise, spreads, salami is frequent sources of infection (Juriš et al, 2008; Juriš & Sabolová, 2008; Miterpáková & Juriš, 2010).

Clinical symptoms: The disease starts by nausea, headache, feeling of cold, then fever reaching up to 40°C. Then vomiting, stomach ache, and diarrhoea follow. The stool is loose, then watery and green coloured. This lasts about 2-3 days. After that the health returns relatively quickly (Bálint et al, 2007; www.wikipedia.org).

Contact with Bacillary dysentery

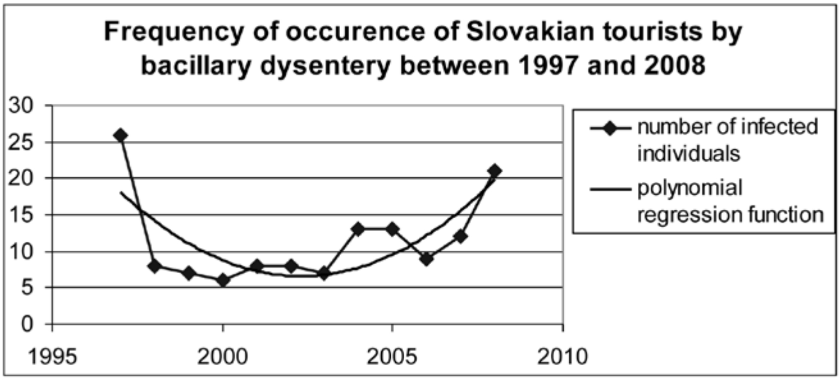


Figure 5: Trend of frequency of occurrence of bacillary dysentery (Strajňák, 2010; Jančulová, 2009)

About 30% of registered infections of Slovakian tourists come from the Balkan Peninsula (Fig.6).

Source of infection: The disease is caused by gram negative bacteria of the Shigella family, of which 4 subgroups are known (A- *Shigella dysenteriae*, B- *Shigella flexneri*, C- *Shigella boydii,* D- *Shigella sonnei*) (Bakoss et al, 2005; Čislákova et al, 2001).

Infection pathways: The infection is caught via faeces that get into contact with the mouth through contaminated hands, objects or foodstuff. The incubation time varies from a couple of hours to 7 days (Bálint et al, 2007, Juriš et al, 2009).

Clinical symptoms: Symptoms – increased body temperature, vomiting, diarrhoea where the stool contains traces of blood, mucus and pus (Čislákova et al, 2001; Juriš et al, 2009).

Contact with Campylobacteriosis

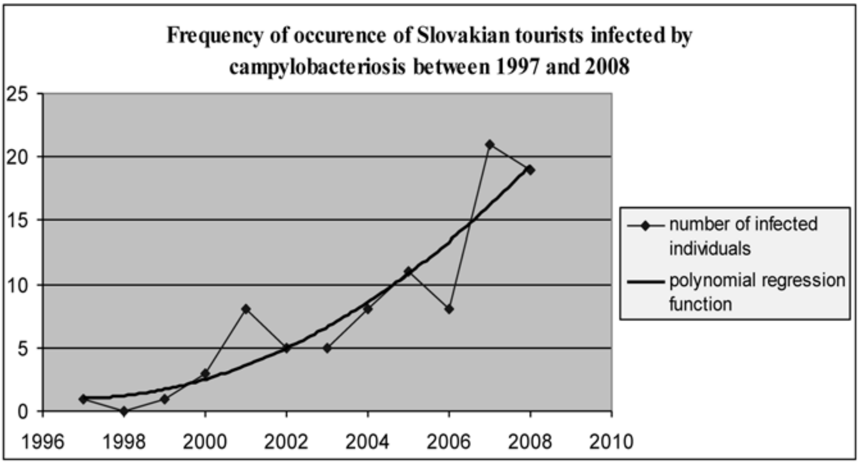


Figure 6: Trend of development of the frequency of incidence of campylobacteriosis (Strajňák, 2010; Jančulová, 2009)

About 40% of the infected Slovakian tourists were returning from the Balkan Peninsula (Fig.7).

Infection pathways: The infection comes from foodstuff like poultry, beef, raw milk if they are not sufficiently thermally processed, Infection is possible also through contaminated water, or contact with infected animals (Bakoss et al, 2005, Bálint et al, 2007).

Clinical symptoms: Campylobacteriosis is a zoonosis that in case of humans manifests through acute gastroenterocolitis with fevers. Complications may include appendicitis, urinary pathway infections, arthritis and others. The occurrence of this disease can be sporadic or as epidemics. Its greater incidence occurs in summer. It is a typical tourism related disease (Kopecký & Kopecká, 2007; Strajňák, 2010).

POSSIBLE FUTURE NEW DISEASES IN THE BALKAN AREA

The crucial problem of the 21st century is the problem of the impact of global warming on the tourist industry. An increase of temperature in any single country (not only in the area of the Mediterranean Sea) invokes the presence of diseases which had not endemically occurred in other countries. These diseases include e. g. dengue, malaria, dirophilariosis.

Contact with DENGUE

Dengue fever is related to the territories with the occurrence of Aedes mosquitoes. Epidemies are most frequent in the Southern and Eastern Asian countries, Indonesia, Philippines, islands in the Pacific Ocean and Northern Australia. Since 1972 there has been spread of diseases in the Caribbean and Columbia. The tropical parts of South America have also been affected by the fever since 1980. The hemorrhagic fever occurs mainly in the Eastern and Southern parts of Asia, the pacific and the Caribbean as well as in the Central and South Americas where the level of epidemics rises to dangerously affecting tourism there (Arismendi-Morillo et al, 2011; Bálint et al, 2007; Daneš, 2003; Peňa et al, 2010) as shown in Figs 8-9.

One of the typical examples showing the effects of global warming on spread of infectious diseases is the case of Taiwan. The hemorrhagic dengue fever was only sporadic on the island till 2002, but since then there has been multiple spread of this dangerous disease and this is assumed to be caused by the warming of our planet. While in winter season when the temperature descended below 20ºC, the spread of disease was almost insignificant, but when the temperature did not fall below 20ºC, the spread of this disease among local residents was significant (Arismendi-Morillo et al, 2011, Beran et al, 2008; Rifakis et al, 2005).

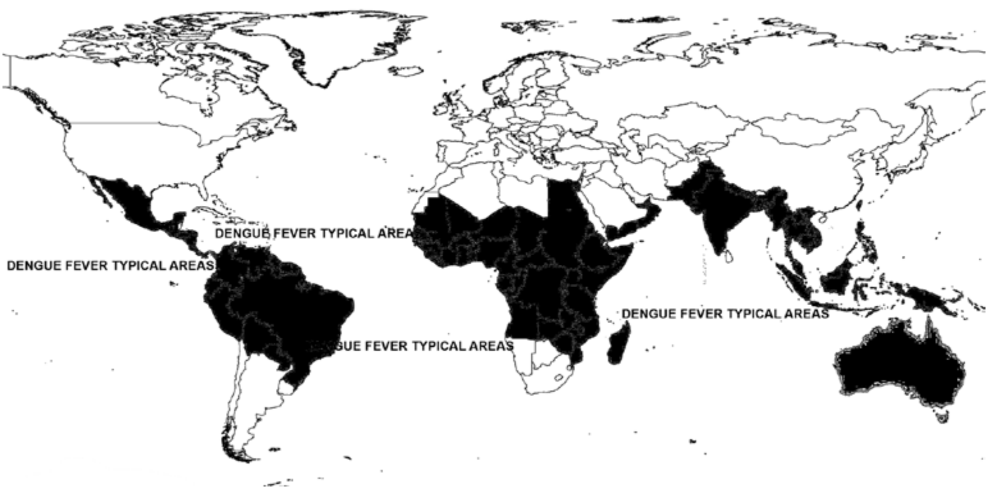


Figure 7: Dengue fever risk areas (Beran et al, 2006; Rifakis et al, 2005) (executed in ArcGIS 10)

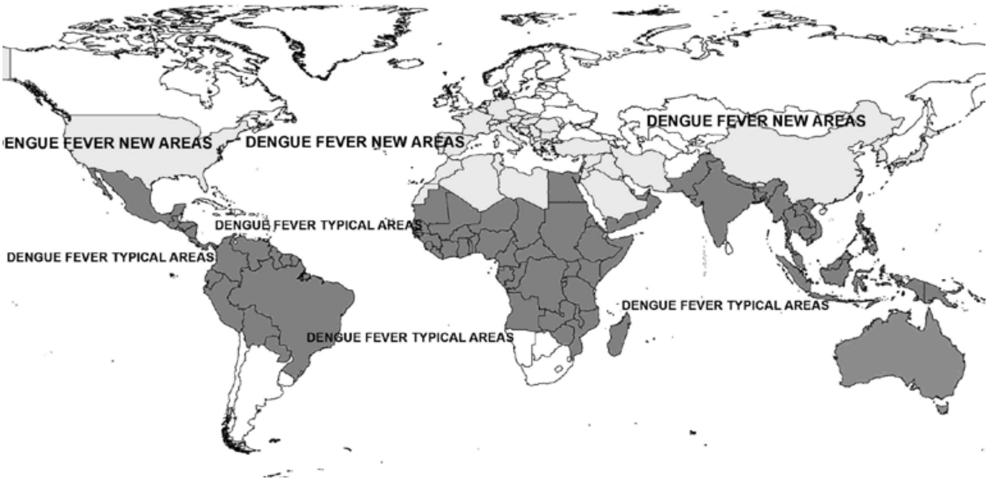


Figure 8: Future Dengue fever risk areas (Strajňák & Edilmar, 2011) (executed in ArcGIS 10)

Contact with MALARIA

One of the most serious problems tourism will have to face is malaria. Malaria is a serious and sometimes fatal disease caused by a microscopic parasite called plasmodium, which lives and breeds in the stomach of the mosquito. The severity of the disease can depend on the state of the immune system of the person infected. Anyone of any age can catch malaria, if an infected mosquito bites them (Borchert, 1970; Göpfertová & Vaništa, 1998; Llop Hernández et al, 2001; Miterpákova & Juriš, 2009; Nováková et al, 2006; Peňa et al, 1990).

Malaria can occur despite taking anti-malarial drugs and symptoms of malaria infection usually occur within 9 to 14 days. The general symptoms include: headache, nausea, fever, vomiting and flu-like symptoms. These symptoms can vary depending on the type of plasmodium that caused the infection. Plasmodium falciparum normally take 7 to 14 days to show symptoms while Plasmodium vivax and ovale normally take 8 to 14 days (but in some cases can survive for some months in the human horst) and Plasmodium malarias 7 to 30 days (Kochová, 2008; Strajňák, 2010; Strajňák & Edilmar, 2011). The risk areas are assessed in Figs. 10.a-b)

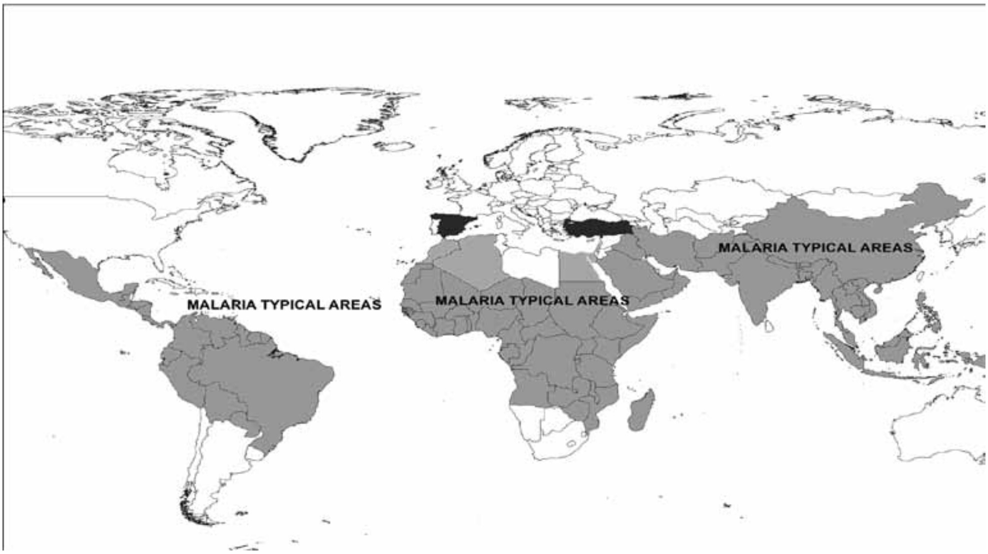


Figure 9: Malaria risk areas (year 2011) (Göpfertová & Vaništa, 1998; Peňa et al, 2010) executed in ArcGIS 10)

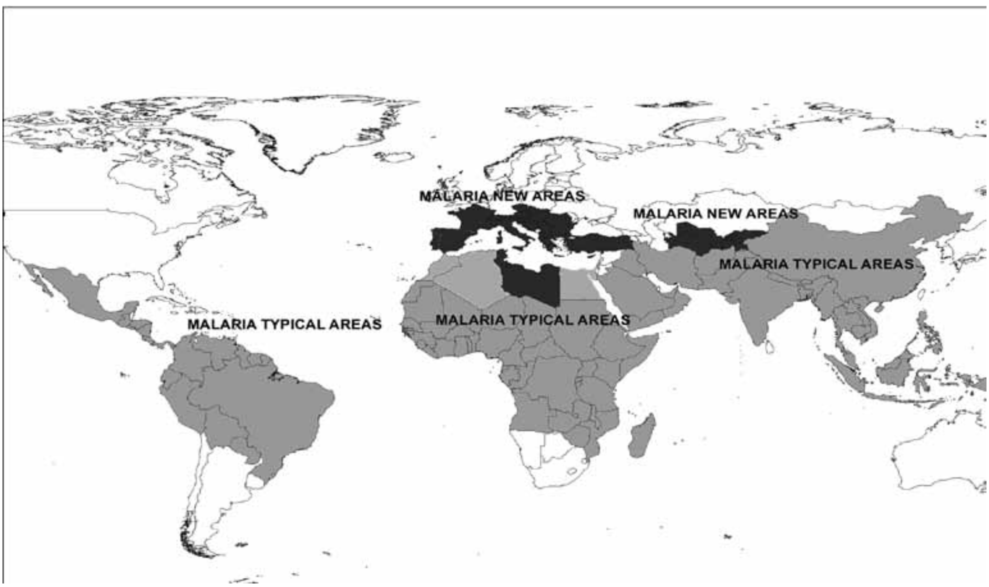


Figure 10: Future malaria risk areas (Strajňák & Edilmar, 2011) (executed in ArcGIS 10)

PROPOSED MEASURES TO MINIMISE HEALTH RISKS TO TOURISTS

Tourists partaking in city tourism, cultural or historical tourism are exposed to risks mainly through edibles and – in case of some tourist segments - through unprotected sexual contact. Geo-tourists have an increased risk of contracting some of the diseases due to their greater presence in natural environment, where contact with other infection sources has a greater probability. Many times, lack of information and of awareness is the main factor contributing to contracting illnesses. Thus the measures given below could help to lower the number of tourists contracting various infections or diseases. It should be mentioned that the statistical data reflect only those incidences that were treated after return of the tourist to Slovakia. Many infections get treated at the place of contracting the infection. These data get registered only in case the tourists come to health care institutions at home for a follow up. Thus the number of infections could be substantially greater. Still, prevention is only a part of preparing oneself for a visit of a foreign country. The active part is in maintaining good health and strengthening one's immune system.

Short courses on potential infection threats for tourists

The Slovak travel agencies sell approximately 500,000 holiday trips to foreign countries per annum. Most of the tourists do not have even the basic information about potential infectious threats (alimentary infection, diseases from contaminated water, sexually transmitted diseases). They also lack information regarding dangerous animals and plants, with which they may come into contact within the given destination. At present, as even intercontinental travel (and thus the dissemination of disease) is very easy, epidemics or pandemics may break out within a couple of days. Thus prevention is very important. Travel agencies should have a commitment to give objective information about infection threats to their clients prior to the travel. This could be best accomplished through this suggested course. To increase motivation for attending health care and risk prevention course, the price of the holiday should include courses shown in Tab.4).

Subpages of the Travel agencies´ web page with information on health precautions

The web pages of Travel agencies should have in their menu a subpage, where information on health precautions is given. The information should be arranged according to the countries, where the Travel agency sells holiday trips. The user should be able to navigate himself through an interactive map. The map should be enabled to be zoomed, so that the destinations, where the Travel agency sells holidays could be seen and clicked by the client. A double click should open a page with the relevant information that should be mostly visual – ideally animated. Apart from giving the health risks, the advices how to prevent the infection would be given.

Sexually transmitted diseases (STD) and their prevention guidelines for tourists

The increasing number of infections by STD calls for greater effort to inform tourists, but especially young people about the hazards of promiscuity. Apart from drinking, "easy sex" is gaining infamous popularity among young people. They travel by low cost air carriers to places, where alcohol is cheap and combine drinking with sexual contacts with people whom they know only casually, or with people providing sexual services. As they do not realize the risks of STD, they often are victims of very unpleasant diseases, some of which are lethal and in any case may adversely affect their life. Nevertheless, periodic mass-medial programmes should be devoted to this problem. The Slovakian health authorities have started providing information on these risks, but they often do not get the attention of tourists.

Extended course in first aid:	***Course in viral, bacterial and parasitic infections in tourism***	***Course in hygiene issues at selected destinations***
Detailed information about the first aid in critical situations at holidays.	Information about potential viral, bacterial and parasitic infections occurring in the most frequently visited countries of Europe and of the world and would also provide information how to avoid contracting infection.	Training in general knowledge of hygiene in cities, on the beach, at hotels and in nature.

Table 4: Suggested short courses for tourists before the commencement of holidays.

CONCLUSIONS

The problem of travel and its influence on spreading diseases has become urgent and calls for higher attention. The data given in the paper show a renewed increase of all the studied diseases that tourists are likely to contract. Part of the problem of increasing incidences of tourist infections and diseases is due to local conditions (either natural or related to services), and the other part seems to be due to the effects of climate shift. The threat of infectious diseases like malaria of dengue fever which have recently been observed in countries like Greece, Croatia and Bulgaria has to be given serious consideration. Failure to cope with such problems may result in loss of clients, which in countries where income from tourism forms a significant part of GDP, would be a serious blow to economic development. Thus there should be a closer and transparent cooperation between transnational, national and local authorities as well as service providers in order to minimize the risks to tourists. The strategy outlined in the paper for educating tourists on health risks in a proactive (courses) and also reactive way (web pages) should provide a first step in this direction.

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Socio-demographic determinants of eco-friendly tourist attitudes and behaviour

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ABSTRACT

While tourism provides considerable economic benefits for many countries, its rapid expansion has also had detrimental impacts on the natural environment. In times of increasing environmental degradation any tool to reduce the ecological footprint is valuable, and one way to do it is to attract the type of tourists who are more environmentally friendly than others. This study examines the variation of environmental concerns and behaviour of Swedish and Russian tourists in Cyprus and, following few previous studies, concludes that segments with different levels of pro-environmental behaviour differ in a range of socio-demographic characteristics as well. Specifically, the findings indicate that females, older, and more educated people leave a smaller ecological footprint as tourists. Implications for marketers and needs for further research are discussed.

Keywords: Environmentally friendly tourists; Market segmentation; Socio-demographic parameters.

INTRODUCTION

For decades, tourism has been treated favourably around the world due to its ability to generate new income and jobs (Choi and Sirakaya, 2005). However, the huge demands of the tourism industry resulted in adverse effects on the natural environment, such as soil erosion, increased pollution, discharges into the sea, natural habitat loss, and heightened vulnerability to forest fires. These negative consequences are already visible, and more dramatic developments are predicted in the nearest future (Gossling and Hall, 2006). In this light, it is not surprising that destination managers are increasingly trying to incorporate environmental issues in their corporate policies so as to reduce negative ecological consequences related to tourists (ecological footprint) (Dolnicar and Leisch, 2008).

The practitioners' concern about the ecological sustainability of tourism is actively supported by academic research. This issue has been extensively studied for the last decade, and many measures to increase ecological sustainability of tourism have been proposed by scholars. These measures can be roughly divided into 'supply-sided' and 'demand-sided' (Dolnicar, 2006). Supply-sided measures aim to influence tourist behaviour once at the destinations (for example, prohibitions and restrictions imposed on tourists), whereas demand-sided measures aim to attract such tourists who can already be characterized as environmentally friendly, and their ecological behaviour does not require significant changes. Demand-sided measures are based on the assumption that some tourists are more environmentally friendly than others, and for this reason it is wise to attract those tourists who respect the environment and are likely to behave in a way that leads to a smaller ecological footprint (Dolnicar, 2006). This approach seems to be less risky for the environment, as long as the destination managers are provided with the description of tourists who, in all probability, will demonstrate desirable behaviours. However, only a small number of studies have attempted to profile travellers, who can be assumed to be less environmentally destructive than others and could potentially be targeted (Crouch et al., 2005; Fairweather et al., 2005; Dolnicar and Leisch, 2008). Besides, although all these studies concluded that environmentally friendly tourists do have a distinct profile, almost none of them (except for Dolnicar and Leisch (2008)) considered pro-environmental behaviour in the past as the predictor of pro-environmental behaviour in the future. Mostly attitudinal judgements were addressed, while past ecological behaviour seems to be the most obvious predictor of future actions.

This paper aims to address this limitation in quantity and quality in an attempt to find out which characteristics of tourists are related to pro-environmental consciousness (if any), based on their environmental attitudes and past pro-environmental behaviour. More specifically, the objective of this study is to identify whether tourism-related environmental consciousness varies among individuals with different socio-demographic characteristics (nationality, gender, age, marital status, children, and education), using data collected from the foreign tourists in Cyprus. Our research considers the socio-demographic characteristics as possible causes of differences between environmental manners of individuals for two main reasons. Firstly, some of socio-demographic variables have been already found to be accountable for the differences in environmental friendliness of tourists, but these socio-demographic descriptors either produced inconsistent findings (e.g., age) or were included in a small number of studies (e. g., gender) (Dolnicar and Leisch (2008)), and therefore more empirical research is needed in this direction. Secondly, selective marketing techniques are feasible only if environmentally friendly tourists can be easily separated from the less environmentally friendly ones, and socio-demographic variables, compared to other segmentation measures, can be applied to segmentation problems with relative ease (Myers, 1996).

The remainder of this article is structured as follows. First, we review the extant literature on the environmental consciousness, focusing on tourism-related environmental concerns and behaviour. The literature review will lead us to the development of hypotheses. It is followed by the results of the analysis addressing the extent to which our findings show support for our hypotheses. Lastly, policy implications and future research needs of the study are discussed.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Over the last 20 years, there have been many attempts in general consumer research to define the construct of environmental consciousness of individuals. The instruments which have been used to measure it differ in their components or dimensions (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003). Some scholars have solely addressed environmental attitudes (e.g., Shrum et al., 1995; Wall, 1995), while others have focused on environmentally sensitive behaviour (e. g., Stisser, 1994; Widegren, 1998). Another component that was sometimes included in the domain of environmental consciousness appeared to be the environmental knowledge (Lyons and Breakwell, 1994; Meffert and Bruhn, 1996). In order to measure the aforementioned components, a number of different scales were developed by the previous researchers. One of the most commonly used scales is the NEP scale (New Environmental Paradigm), which was introduced by Dunlap and Van Liere (1978). For the purposes of this study the domain of tourism-related environmental consciousness was assumed to consist of two traditional components: environmental attitudes and environmental behaviour.

The studies on tourism-related environmental consciousness can be roughly divided into three groups. The first group combines the studies that proposed theories to explain the environmental behaviour of tourists, including the theory of planned behaviour (Wearing et al., 2002; Budeanu, 2007), the schematic model of environmental concern (Stern, Dietz and Guagnano, 1995; Wurzinger and Johanson, 2006), and the new environmental paradigm (NEP) ((Wearing et al., 2002; Luo and Deng, 2008). The second group of the studies looks at different reasons behind tourists' responsible and irresponsible ecological behaviour (Wearing et al., 2002; Lubbert, 2001). The third group tries to find a definition for environmentally friendly tourists and profile them: for instance, Wood and House (1991) define the 'good tourist' as the one who behaves responsibly towards the environment at the destination, while Fairweather et al. (2005) introduced the term 'biocentric segments', which they define as visitors with highly pro-environmental attitudes (vs. 'ambivalent segments' which they define as visitors who are comfortable using nature for economic purposes). The majority of studies in the third group, aiming to understand the profile of tourists with a low environmental footprint, focus too narrowly on ecotourism, which is usually limited to nature-based tourism. However, until it is empirically tested that nature-based tourists leave a smaller footprint, the entire population of tourists should be considered (Dolnicar and Leisch, 2008). Our study aims to contribute to the third group of research by making another attempt to identify distinct characteristics of environmentally friendly tourists among the entire population of visitors and possibly clarify the inconsistent findings of the previous research on the relationship between socio-demographic variables and individuals' environmental consciousness in both general and tourism research.

There has recently been a whole wealth of research that used socio-demographic variables, attempting to profile environmentally conscious members of the population in general. With regard to marketing, socio-demographic variables were mainly applied to explain consumers' green purchasing decisions (Schlegelmilch et al., 1994; Van Liere and Dunlap, 1980).

Following the review of the literature on general relationships between socio-demographic characteristics and different aspects of environmental consciousness domain, we will develop hypotheses concerning the links between tourism-related environmental consciousness and nationality, gender, age, marital status, children, and education. All these socio-demographic variables have been addressed in the previous studies, and despite early reports that they are not totally satisfactory for explaining different aspects of environmental consciousness (Schlegelmilch et al., 1994), they continue to play an important role in the segmentation research (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003).

Nationality

Many studies in the past addressed the differences between nationalities with regard to different aspects of tourist behaviour (e. g., Pizam and Sussman, 1995; Sheldon and Fox, 1988). However, very few scholars compared environmental consciousness of tourists from different countries (e. g., the research of Wehrli et al. (2011) identified what forms a sustainable tourism from a tourists' perspective in eight different countries), and this study aims to address this limitation. Specifically, our research looks into differences in environmental consciousness between Swedish and Russian tourists in Cyprus. Despite the fourth and fifth positions in the share of tourist arrivals in Cyprus, Swedish and Russians are still two important groups of tourists visiting this island (British account for more than 50% of all tourists, followed by Germans (6,4%), Greeks (5,3%), Russians (5%) and Swedish (5%). Besides, the highest per capita expenditure in 2009 came from Russian (1505.62 euros) and Swedish (1115.72 euros) tourists (Cyprus Tourism Organization: Statistics 2009). Despite the common preference for Cyprus as a tourist destination, Swedish and Russians represent two strikingly different cultures, and for this reason comparison of these two nations in terms of their tourism-related eco-friendliness is of particular interest.

Sweden is a developed country with the strict laws regulating the environmental issues, numerous and powerful environmental pressure groups, and well-established environmental culture, while Russia is a developing country where the environmental legislation is still at the infant stage and environmental pressure groups are almost totally deprived of the social influence. The latter can be explained by the fact these two societies have gone through a different evolutionary process and are therefore constituted by different value compositions. According to the post-materialism hypothesis of Ron Inglehart (1990), there is a correlation between the material environment of individuals during the formative years and the properties of his/her values. In other words, as society moves towards widespread material goods, the values of these are decreasing, while post-material values (self-realization, self-expression, etc.) are rising in demand. This thesis presupposes that the formation of pro-environmental values is closely related to post-materialism (Jorgensen, 2008). Thus, in Western post-war societies, such as Sweden, rapid economic development resulted in the prevalence of a generation characterized by post-material values, one of which is high environmental concern. Conversely, Russian society is dominated by materialistic values, such as security and safety, while post-material values are only at the beginning of their development (Jorgensen, 2008). The Inglehart-Welzel Cultural Map clearly indicates that Russia and Sweden are placed at the opposite positions on the survival-self expression values continuum, where ‘survival’ can be assumed to reflect material values and ‘self expression’ - post-material ones (Inglehart and Welzel, 2005; Jorgensen, 2008). So, it is not surprising that Sweden has recently become a world leader in initiatives for environmental education and education for sustainable development (Breiting and Wickenberg, 2010), while Russia has hardly put any effort into developing of such programs at any educational level. With regard to this research, the following hypotheses are therefore put forward:

HYPOTHESIS 1.1: Swedish are more concerned about tourism-related environmental quality than Russians.
HYPOTHESIS 1.2: While visiting foreign countries as tourists, Swedish exhibit more environmentally friendly behaviour than Russians.

Gender

Although all studies investigating the linkage between gender and environmental knowledge have found that males tend to have higher knowledge about green issues than females, the opposite is true for environmental attitudes and behaviour (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003). Females were reported to exhibit higher concern for the natural environment (Davidson and Freudenburg, 1996) and participate more frequently in green activities (Schahn and Holzer, 1990). Specifically, women are likely to undertake recycling activities and display greener purchasing decisions more often than their male counterparts (Banerjee and McKeage, 1994; McIntyre et al., 1993). Based on their exhaustive research overview, Davidson and Freudenburg (1996) concluded that women are especially concerned about risk-related environmental issues, such as nuclear energy, toxic contamination, and waste. The studies examined by these scholars generally support the idea that health and safety are more important to women, and therefore they have much higher levels of concern than men with regard to a given level of environmental risk. Davidson and Freudenburg (1996) used gender socialization theory to provide a theoretical explanation for more ecological behaviour of women. They stated that women are often still limited to the private sphere, focused on upbringing of children and housework, while man’s place, on the other hand, is in the public sphere, such as politics, business and science. Davidson and Freudenburg argued that men, having traditionally played the role of breadwinners as their primary responsibility, are more likely to show concern about economy and politics, rather than environment. Conversely, women, having traditionally played the role of ‘domestic goddess’ as their primary responsibility, are expected to express stronger concerns about environmental threats to health and safety, rather than economy or politics. Thus, based on the available theoretical explanation and empirical evidence, the following hypotheses can be postulated with regard to tourism-related environmental consciousness:

HYPOTHESIS 2.1: Females are more concerned about tourism-related environmental quality than males.
HYPOTHESIS 2.2: While visiting foreign countries as tourists, females exhibit more environmentally friendly behaviour than males.

Age

The previous research consistently reports the negative association between age and general environmental attitudes (Grunert and Kristensen, 1992; Scott and Willits, 1994). One possible explanation for this phenomenon could be that younger people are less integrated into political, economic, and social systems. Because pro-environmental ideologies often require essential changes in such systems and are usually viewed as threatening to traditional norms and values, younger people are more likely to support pro-environmental ideas than older ones (Van Liere and Dunlap, 1980). Besides, young people more readily accept the environmental reforms than their elders, since they have better information processing capabilities (Han et al., 2011; Evanschitzky and Wunderlich, 2006). Thus, the following finding is anticipated with regard to this research:

HYPOTHESIS 3.1: Younger people are more concerned about tourism-related environmental quality than older ones.

Regarding the relationship between age and environmentally friendly behaviour, the contradictory results have been found by the earlier research. Specifically, the studies using intentional commitment measures of behaviour (Jackson, 1983; Zeidner and Sheehter, 1988) found that age is negatively related to behaviour, while those employing indicators of actual behaviour have reported the opposite results (Schahn and Holzer, 1990; Scott and Willits, 1994). One explanation for such inconsistency is the lack of resources among younger people to support environmental protection. Several studies in the field of philanthropy, demonstrating that age has a positive effect on the amount of money given for the public good (Bekkers, 2003; Smith, Kehoe, and Cremer, 1995), also suggest that older people are more likely to contribute to environmental well-being. Hence, the following hypothesis can be posited:

HYPOTHESIS 3.2: While visiting foreign countries as tourists, older people exhibit more environmentally friendly behaviour than younger ones.

Marital Status and Children

The majority of previous studies found a positive relationship between martial status and environmental attitudes, showing that married people are more concerned about the environment and more committed to conservation (Laroche et al., 2001; Research 2000, 1990). Similarly, the previous studies reported that married people undertake higher levels of pro-environmental behaviour than those who are single (Neuman, 1986; Research 2000, 1990). As for the linkage between children and environmental consciousness, the past research also indicated a positive relationship between both number of children and environmental attitudes (Grunert, 1991) and number of children and pro-environmental behaviour (Jackson, 1983; Grunert, 1991). The observed relationships can be explained by differences in lifestyles of married people and people with children, where factors such as home ownership and support by other family members might facilitate the formation of pro-environmental views (Neuman, 1986). Besides, married people with children are likely to think of how environmental degradation may negatively affect their partner and their children's future. In this connection, the care for loved ones might become a strong motivation for them to behave in an environmentally friendly manner (Laroche et al., 2001). Hence, with regard to tourism-related environmental consciousness, the following hypotheses can be postulated:

HYPOTHESIS 4.1: Married people are more concerned about tourism-related environmental quality than single ones.
HYPOTHESIS 4.2: While visiting foreign countries as tourists, married people exhibit more environmentally friendly behaviour than single ones.

HYPOTHESIS 5.1: People with children are more concerned about tourism-related environmental quality than people without children.
HYPOTHESIS 5.2: While visiting foreign countries as tourists, people with children exhibit more environmentally friendly behaviour than people without children.

Education

Many studies have investigated the role of education in shaping consumers' environmental concerns and behaviour. Except for a few studies (e. g., Samdahl and Robertson, 1989; Diamantopoulos et al., 2003), the previous research consistently reported that the better-educated tend to be more eco-friendly as measured by different constructs of environmental consciousness (Meffert and Bruhn, 1996; Shrum et al., 1995; Laroche et al., 2001). These findings can be explained by Maslow's (1954) theory of the hierarchy of needs. According to this theory, lower order physiological needs must first be fulfilled before people can focus on higher order self-actualization needs. The closer one comes to being self-actualized, the freer he/she becomes of egoistic self-concerns and is more likely to take actions which will satisfy the needs of others at the same time that individuals' own needs are satisfied . More educated people are usually associated with higher social class that has more opportunities to solve its basic needs and get ready to focus on more social aspects. In this connection, with regard to environment, the better - educated people are more likely to be sensitive to ecological issues and treat the environment in a way that will benefit society as a whole as well as the user. Besides, the higher-educated should understand the detrimental effects of tourism more fully and therefore be more concerned about tourism-related environmental quality and be more willing to exhibit environmentally friendly behaviour. Thus, taking into consideration Maslow's theory and the findings of past studies, the following hypotheses can be postulated:

HYPOTHESIS 6.1: The better-educated tourists are more concerned about tourism-related environmental quality.
HYPOTHESIS 6.2: While visiting foreign countries as tourists, the better-educated exhibit more environmentally friendly behaviour.

METHODOLOGY

Scope of Research

This study was conducted in Cyprus in May 2010 among foreign tourists. Tourism occupies an important position in the economy of Cyprus. It is annually visited by more than 2 mln. tourists. The tourism industry in Cyprus was rapidly developing in 1980-2005, showing an increase in tourism arrivals from year to year. However, in year 2006, following the world economic recession, the first annual decrease in a number of tourists was recorded. Tourist arrivals in Cyprus remained stagnant in 2007, while 2008 and 2009 were characterised by further decrease (Cyprus Tourism Organization: Statistics 1980-2009). However, despite the recent problems experienced by tourism industry in Cyprus, the island is still a convenient and appropriate place for investigating environmental aspects of tourism.

Sampling Frame

The data for this research was obtained from 219 tourists in Cyprus. A total of 400 visitors were approached. Of this number, 219 were willing to participate (122 Russians and 97 Swedish), resulting in a response rate of 55%. Of the 219 respondents, 102 were males (47%) and 117 were females (53%). Almost half of them (107) were married and the rest were single, divorced or widowed. The majority of the respondents had a high level of education (126 people reported to be either university students or university graduates). The number of participants with children and without children was well-balanced and good variation was found for the age groups. Table B below summarizes socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents:

Table 1: Socio-demographic characteristics of 219 respondents.

Nationality	Swedish=97, Russian=122
Gender	males=94, females=126
Marital status	single=88, married=107, widow=5, divorced=19
Family status	with children=126, no children=93
Age range	15-24=29, 25-34=75, 35-44=53, 45-54=32, 55-64=25, >65=5
Education level	elementary=2, high school=20, college=71, undergraduate=29, university degree=97

Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire consisted of three sections. The first section measured tourism-related environmental attitudes. A pool of items reflecting attitudes toward eco-friendly tourism was based on the SUS-TAS scale (Choi and Sirakaya, 2005), which aims to capture resident attitudes towards sustainable tourism development by integrating six sustainability criteria. Specifically, the items for this research were taken from environmental sustainability section of the SUS-TAS scale. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree). Agreement with 10 carefully-worded statements indicated pro-environmental attitudes towards tourism. The second section measured eco-friendly tourism behaviour. A 10-item Behavior Scale was based on GEB Scale (General Ecological Behavior) (Kaiser 1998; Kaiser and Wilson 2004). Significant modifications were introduced to the wording of some statements due to the tourism specificity. In the third section tourists were asked to provide their personal information, including nationality, sex, age, education, marital status, and children.

The questionnaire was developed in English (for Swedish tourists who are generally fluent in English) and translated into Russian to be used in the interviews with Russian-speaking tourists. A special attempt was made to ensure a good command of English in case of Swedish respondents, since English is not their native language. Apart from the respondent's direct confirmation of his/her ability to have an interview in English, the eligibility of each candidate was assessed by the author or her assistants during the short pre-interview discussion. Except for very few cases, the Swedes spoke fluent English and consequently could easily answer the relevant questions. The questionnaires in English and Russian were pre-tested with two Swedish and two Russian tourists so as to evaluate the clarity and understanding of the items. Finally, all unclear statements were corrected.

Data Collection

Data for this study was collected through personal structured interviews conducted by the author and her assistants. The interviews were held in the hotels in all major districts of Cyprus and at the major airport of the country. Each interview lasted about 7 minutes. The statements were read out to the respondents who expressed their opinion with regard to each statement, choosing one of the options (from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree") written on the card given to them. The questionnaire was completed by the interviewer in accordance with the answers received from the respondents.

FINDINGS

The total results of the interviews conducted with 219 tourists in Cyprus are presented in Table 2. Examination of tourism-related environmental consciousness leads us to the conclusion that, in general, Swedish and Russian tourists visiting Cyprus show a high degree of eco-friendliness in terms of tourism attitudes (M=6.06) and a medium-to-low degree of eco-friendliness in terms of tourism behaviour (M=3.31).

Table 2: Tourism-related environmental consciousness of Swedish and Russian tourists as measured by eco-friendly tourism attitudes and eco-friendly tourism behaviour.

Constructs	Scale items	Item mean* (standard deviation)	Construct Mean* (standard deviation)
Eco-friendly Tourism Attitudes (α= .85)	Tourism must protect the environment now and for the future	**6,64 (0,64)**	**6.06 (0.62)**
	The diversity of nature must be valued and protected by tourism	**6,59 (0,78)**	
	I think that tourism should strengthen efforts for environmental conservation	**6,48 (0,71)**	
	Tourism needs to be developed in harmony with natural the environment	**6,52 (0,81)**	
	Proper tourism development requires that wildlife and natural habitats be protected at all times	**6,35 (0,83)**	
	Tourism development must promote positive environmental ethics among all parties that have a stake in tourism	**6,21 (0,87)**	
	Regulatory environmental standards are needed to reduce the negative impacts of tourism development	**6,23 (0,97)**	
	I believe that tourism must improve the environment for future generations	**6,07 (1,13)**	
	I believe that the quality of the environment is deteriorating because of tourism	**5,16 (1,24)**	
	As a tourist, I would be willing to reduce my consumption to help/protect the environment	**4,36 (1,74)**	
Eco-friendly Tourism Behaviour (α= .9)	During my visit to foreign countries as a tourist, I often talk with friends about problems related to the environment	**3,18 (1,73)**	**3.31 (1.05)**
	In the past, I have pointed out to someone his or her non-ecological behaviour in visiting foreign countries as a tourist	**3,08 (1,52)**	
	When I visit foreign countries as a tourist, I avoid buying goods with unnecessary packaging material	**3,51 (1,80)**	
	I sometimes contribute financially to environmental organizations, when I visit foreign countries as a tourist	**1,94 (1,09)**	

	When I visit foreign countries, I buy/read magazines and listen/watch news which focus on environmental issues in foreign countries	3,28 (1,55)	
	During my visit to foreign countries as a tourist, I buy environmentally friendly products, whenever possible	3,43 (1,68)	
	When I visit foreign countries as a tourist, I buy organic food, whenever possible	3,53 (1,50)	
	When I visit foreign countries as a tourist, I use products made from recycled	3,05 (1,62)	
	I reduce and recycle waste, whenever possible, during my visits to foreign countries as a tourist	3,53 (1,92)	
	As a tourist, I always like to visit environmentally friendly countries	4,41 (2,06)	

*Note: mean scores are based on a seven-point scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree.

The impact of socio-demographic characteristics (nationality, gender, age, marital status, children, and education) on tourism-related environmental consciousness is provided below.

Nationality

In the course of the data analysis we compared environmental consciousness of Swedish and Russian tourists. No statistically significant differences were identified between eco-friendly attitudes of Swedish and Russians, although the group of Swedish had a slightly higher mean (M=6.28 vs. M=5.89) (see Table 3). So, despite the distant positions on the materialism/post-materialism scale, both groups expressed almost equally high concern for tourism-related environmental quality, providing the rejection for Hypothesis 1.1. This finding indicates the discrepancy between the strong materialist inclination and the high environmental awareness of Russians. The surprisingly high level of environmental concern in Russia, when weighed against its predominantly materialist culture, was also reported by Jorgensen (2008), who partially explained this phenomenon by the thesis of Gunther and Finlay (1988). Having distinguished between human and non-human environment, these scholars tested and approved the hypothesis that the higher the threat to human environment in a certain society, the higher the environmental awareness of the population. Russia has enormous environmental problems of both small- and large-scale, which can be easily interpreted as threats to economic progress, safety, and security (threats to the human environment). In this context, pro-environmental attitudes could have ceased to be post-material values and turned into material values (Jorgensen, 2008). The high level of concern about the environmental situation in the home country might have urged Russians to adopt pro-environmental attitudes while abroad as well.

However, the perceived threat to the human environment in Russia did not influence the behavioural domain. In accordance with Inglehart's thesis, Swedish showed a notably higher mean score than Russians in terms of eco-friendly behaviour (M=3.89 vs. M=2.9), and the t-tests yielded statistically significant differences between these two nationalities, indicating the acceptance for Hypothesis 1.2 . Thus, the values of post-material society facilitate more eco-friendly behaviour among Swedish tourists than among Russian ones, while both nations have the same high level of environmentalism in terms of attitudes. Apart from the investigation of the whole sample, the difference in environmental behaviour between these nationalities also requires us to examine the groups of Swedish and Russian tourists independently and identify possible differences within each of these samples.

Gender

The t-tests did not reveal any association between gender and eco-friendly tourism attitudes. This finding is true for the general sample (see Table 3), as well as for the groups of Russian and Swedish tourists taken independently (see Tables 4 and 5), providing the rejection for Hypothesis 2.1. Still, with respect to eco-friendly tourism behaviour, the significant differences between scores of males and females were identified in both general and national samples (see Tables 3, 4, and 5). All these differences appeared to be in the hypothesized direction, thus suggesting the support for Hypothesis 2.2. Females overall exhibit medium levels of environmentally responsible behaviour (M=3.9), while males are characterised by relatively low levels of eco-friendly actions (M=2.63). The national groups provide similar results, with Swedish females behaving more environmentally friendly than Swedish males (M=4.25 vs. M=3.24), and Russian females behaving more environmentally friendly than Swedish males (M=3.56 vs. M=2.17). These results are consistent with the majority of the previous studies about gender differences in eco-friendly behaviours that suggested females are more likely to be ecologically conscious and more frequently take environmentally friendly decisions (Han et al., 2011; Laroche et al., 2001; Roberts, 1996). However, some scholars did not find any association between gender and environmental consciousness of individuals (Pickett et al., 1993; Widegren, 1998), indicating that we cannot assert that women would be different from males in terms of their concerns about the environment in all situations. The author of the current research could only suggest that gender, as an independent variable, should not be neglected by the future researchers in the field, since it is a major issue in terms of socialization of people and the nature of its influence over one's environmental behavior is still unclear.

Table 3: Socio-demographic differences in tourism-related environmental consciousness of Swedish and Russian tourists in Cyprus

	Eco-friendly tourism attitudes			Eco-friendly tourism behaviour		
	Mean(S.D.)	t-values	p-values	Mean(S.D.)	t-values	p-values
Swedish	**6,28**(0,27)	5,293	0,090	**3,89**(1,45)	5,078	0,000
Russians	**5,89**(0,69)			**2,90**(1,18)		
Males	**6,03**(0,65)	-0,704	0,737	**2,63**(1,36)	-7,535	0,000
Females	**6,09**(0,6)			**3,90**(1,1)		
<35 years	**6,13**(0,65)	1,661	0,098	**2,6**(1,14)	-8,368	0,000
>35 years	**6,0**(0,6)			**4,0**(1,25)		
Single	**6,05**(0,69)	-0,306	0,760	**3,32**(1,43)	0,115	0,909
Married	**6,07**(0,55)			**3,3**(1,33)		
With children	**6,00**(0,63)	-1,581	0,115	**3,35**(1,34)	0,585	0,559
Without children	**6,14**(0,62)			**3,24**(1,44)		
Without university degree	**6,09**(0,52)	0,728	0,485	**2,94**(1,26)	-3,463	0,001
University students and graduates	**6,03**(0,69)			**3,58**(1,14)		

Table 4: Socio-demographic differences of Swedish tourists with regard to tourism-related environmental consciousness

	Eco-friendly tourism attitudes			Eco-friendly tourism behaviour		
	Mean(S.D.)	t-values	p-values	Mean(S.D.)	t-values	p-values
Males	**6,20**(0,39)	-1,096	0,276	**3,24**(1,54)	-3,810	0,000
Females	**6,27**(0,27)			**4,25**(1,14)		
<35 years	**6,36**(0,29)	0,975	0,331	**2,78**(1,11)	-8,141	0,000
>35 years	**6,30**(0,34)			**4,58**(1,11)		
Single	**6,35**(0,31)	4,309	0,000	**3,71**(1,55)	-0,666	0,507
Married	**6,09**(0,3)			**3,9**(1,22)		
With children	**6,18**(0,32)	-1,903	0,060	**3,98**(1,40)	1,212	0,228
Without children	**6,3**(0,34)			**3,63**(1,44)		
Without university degree	**6,24**(0,28)	-0,347	0,729	**3,18**(1,28)	-6,441	0,000
University students and graduates	**6,26**(0,42)			**4,75**(1,08)		

Table 5: Socio-demographic differences of Russian tourists with regard to tourism-related environmental consciousness

	Eco-friendly tourism attitudes			Eco-friendly tourism behaviour		
	Mean(S.D.)	t-values	p-values	Mean(S.D.)	t-values	p-values
Males	**5,87**(0,79)	**-0,247**	**0,805**	**2,17**(0,97)	**-7,975**	**0,000**
Females	**5,9**(0,74)			**3,56**(0,95)		
<35 years	**5,96**(0,78)	**0,975**	**0,331**	**2,46**(1,15)	**-4,329**	**0,000**
>35 years	**5,92**(0,75)			**3,32**(1,06)		
Single	**5,66(0,81)**	**-2,921**	**0,004**	**2,84**(1,15)	**-1,063**	**0,290**
Married	**6,05**(0,67)			**3,07**(1,15)		
With children	**5,91**(0,73)	**0,540**	**0,590**	**3,13**(1,22)	**2,264**	**0,025**
Without children	**5,83**(0,83)			**2,6**(1,15)		
Without university degree	**5,8**(0,76)	**-0,749**	**0,455**	**2,46**(1,15)	**-4,329**	**0,000**
University students and graduates	**5,91**(0,76)			**3,32**(1,06)		

Age

In the process of the data analysis all the respondents were divided into two groups: below 35 years old and above 35 years old, and each group was evaluated in terms of environmental consciousness. Age did not have a significant impact on eco-friendly tourism attitudes neither in the general sample (see Table 3), nor in the national samples (see Tables 4 and 5). Hence, Hypothesis 3.1 is rejected. However, with regard to eco-friendly tourist behaviour, the t-tests indicated significant differences between the age groups in general and national samples. On the whole, mean scores for the older age group were much higher than for the younger group (M=4 vs. M=2.6), with Swedish older tourists exhibiting more environmentally friendly behaviour than Swedish younger tourists (M=4.58 vs. M=2.78) and Russian older travellers exhibiting more environmentally friendly behaviour than Russian younger travellers (M=3.32 vs. M=2.46). Apart from greater financial capabilities to support environmental protection, the higher degree of environmentalism among older tourists might be connected with the fact that they have a better understanding of what forms pro-environmental behaviour and they are more aware of the consequences of poor ecological behaviour. The findings of this study are consistent with Hypothesis 3.2 and are in line with earlier research about age differences in environmental consumer behaviour (Baldassare and Katz, 1992; Scott and Willits, 1994).

Marital Status and Children

In order to evaluate the influence of a marital status on tourism-related environmental consciousness, scores of married and single respondents were compared. Divorced and widowed participants were included into the group of single people. As for the general sample, no statistically significant differences were found between married and single respondents for any of the components of tourism-related environmental consciousness. Both single and married people are characterized by relatively high levels of eco-friendly tourism attitudes (M=6.05 vs. M=6.07 respectively) and medium levels of environmentally friendly behaviour (M=3.32 vs. M=3.3) (see Table 3). Comparison of tourists with children and without children did not show any significant differences either (see Table 3).

As for the national samples, mean scores for environmental attitudes were higher for single people in the group of Swedish tourists (M=6.35 vs. M=6.09) and higher for married people in the group of Russian tourists (M=5.66 vs. M=6.05). The statistical analysis revealed significant differences with regard to environmental attitudes of married and single people in both cases. Mean scores for eco-friendly attitudes and behaviour were higher for Russian tourists with children than for those without children (M=5.66 vs. M=6.05 for attitudes and M=3.13 vs. M=2.6 for behaviour), and the t-tests results indicated that there are significant differences between these groups (see tables 4 and 5). Thus, Hypotheses 4.1 and 5.2 are only partially accepted, while Hypothesis 5.1 is rejected. Regarding environmental behaviour, no statistically significant differences were found between single and married tourists, on the one hand, and tourists with children and without children, on the other hand, for either national sample. Hence, Hypothesis 4.2 is rejected. One possible explanation for these contradictory findings is the blurred meaning of "marriage" nowadays: while trying to investigate the environmental consciousness of married people, do we refer as married to those who have a marriage certificate or those who have been living together for a certain period of time? Another question is how we should treat the consciousness of those people who stayed married for many years and are now divorced/widowed (they might be de jure single, but de facto think and behave like married as a force of habit). As for the influence of children on environmental consciousness, rather than general existence of children, a more relevant variable could be the existence of children in the household.

Education

The level of education, similarly to the majority of previously tested demographic variables, did not have a statistically significant impact on environmental attitudes of the respondents in general and national samples, providing the rejection for Hypothesis 6.1 (see Tables 3, 4, and 5). However, with regard to tourism-related environmental behaviour, the t-tests results yielded statistically significant differences between more educated and less educated people for general and national samples. Hypothesis 6.2 is therefore accepted. On the whole, mean scores for more educated people were slightly higher than for less educated ones (M=3.58 vs. M=2.94), with Swedish more educated tourists exhibiting more environmentally friendly behaviour than Swedish less educated ones (M=4.75 vs. M=3.18) and Russian more educated tourists exhibiting more environmentally friendly behaviour than Russian less educated ones (M=3.32 vs. M=2.46). These results are consistent with the previous research about education differences in environmental behaviours, where educational levels have been linked to greater concern for the environment and greater likelihood of participation in environmental protection activities (e.g., Evanschitzky and Wunderlich, 2006; Roberts, 1996).

Lastly, regression analyses were performed to identify the differences between the demographic segments with regard to the attitude-behaviour link. As for the whole sample, the relationship between environmental attitudes and environmental behaviours was found to be statistically significant (see Table 6). This is in line with the majority of the studies in this area, which indicate that, although the association between attitudes and actions is weak, people with strong pro-environmental attitudes are more likely to engage in pro-environmental behaviour (Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002). However, the split samples yielded different results: environmental attitudes appeared to have a significant and positive impact on eco-friendly behaviours in case of females, older, single and more educated tourists as well as those without children, whereas in case of males, younger, married, less educated tourists and those with children environmental attitudes did not have significant relationships with behaviours (see Table 6). Numerous models (e. g., early US linear progression models or altruism, empathy and prosocial behavior models) have been developed and numerous factors (including demographic ones) have been found to explain the gap between eco-friendly attitudes and behaviors in the past studies (Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002). The author of the current research will not engage in the everlasting dispute over the reasons of attitude-behavior gap, but will only mention that, following the findings of the previous studies, the present work confirms a moderating role of demographics in this complicated relationship.

Table 6: Regression analysis: independent variable - environmental attitude, dependent variable- environmental behaviour

		ß	t	p-value
Whole sample		**0,176**	**2,636**	**0,009**
Nationality	Swedish	**-0,140**	**-1,376**	**0,172**
	Russian	**0,174**	**1,932**	**0,056**
Gender	Male	**0,009**	**0,085**	**0,932**
	Female	**0,387**	**4,495**	**0,000**
Age	Older	**0,424**	**4,972**	**0,000**
	Younger	**0,094**	**0,958**	**0,340**
Marital status	Single	**0,293**	**3,196**	**0,002**
	Married	**0,027**	**0,281**	**0,779**
Children	With children	**0,101**	**1,129**	**0,261**
	Without children	**0,286**	**2,849**	**0,005**
Education	Less educated	**0,024**	**0,230**	**0,818**
	More educated	**0,278**	**3,219**	**0,002**

In summary, our findings indicate that none of the attitudinal hypotheses were supported in this study: the high mean values for eco-friendly attitudes indicate equally strong commitment to environmental responsibility among all the respondents irrespective of nationality, gender, age, marital status, existence of children or level of education. It can be explained by the fact that environmental concern is becoming a social norm, and now, under heavy influence of increasing media coverage, all members of the society tend to claim a strong commitment to environmental responsibility so as to comply with such a norm. Unfortunately, these claims are not fully reflected in the respondents' behaviour: the means for pro-environmental behaviours are significantly lower than the means for ecological attitudes, and the regression analyses indicated non-significant relationships between attitudes and behaviours for certain demographic groups. It seems that being environmentally friendly is more popular in word than in deed. As opposed to attitudinal hypotheses, the majority of behavioural hypotheses were accepted: females, older and more educated people proved to exhibit more eco-friendly behaviour, while Swedish appeared to act in a more environmentally friendly manner than Russians. Therefore, socio-demographics can successfully be used for profiling green tourists with regard to their behaviour. Table 7 below summarises the findings of the present study in regards to the hypotheses stated.

Table 7: Results of testing of hypotheses

Hypothesis	Result
H1.1: Swedish are more concerned about tourism-related environmental quality than Russians.	Rejected
H1.2: While visiting foreign countries as tourists, Swedish exhibit more environmentally friendly behaviour than Russians.	Accepted
H2.1: Females are more concerned about tourism-related environmental quality than males.	Rejected
H2.2: While visiting foreign countries as tourists, females exhibit more environmentally friendly behaviour than males.	Accepted
H3.1: Younger people are more concerned about tourism-related environmental quality than older ones.	Rejected
H3.2: While visiting foreign countries as tourists, older people exhibit more environmentally friendly behaviour than younger ones.	Accepted
H4.1: Married people are more concerned about tourism-related environmental quality than single ones.	Partially accepted
H4.2: While visiting foreign countries as tourists, married people exhibit more environmentally friendly behaviour than single ones.	Rejected

H5.1: People with children are more concerned about tourism-related environmental quality than people without children.	Rejected
H5.2: While visiting foreign countries as tourists, people with children exhibit more environmentally friendly behaviour than people without children.	Partially accepted
H6.1: The better-educated tourists are more concerned about tourism-related environmental quality.	Rejected
H6.2: While visiting foreign countries as tourists, the better-educated exhibit more environmentally friendly behaviour.	Accepted

CONCLUSION

The results of our study suggest that Swedish and Russian tourists visiting Cyprus hold high levels of eco-friendly attitudes and medium-to-low levels of eco-friendly tourism behaviour. The research revealed the weak explanatory power of socio-demographic characteristics with regard to eco-friendly attitudes and relatively strong explanatory power - with regard to eco-friendly behaviour. According to our findings, females, older and more educated people leave a smaller ecological footprint as tourists. The same is true for Swedish travellers as compared to Russian ones. It is worth noting that the results of this study are in contrast to the findings of some previous researchers in the field who stated that socio-demographic variables play the minor role in environmental behaviour (Luo and Deng, 2008; Ross and Iso Ahola's, 1991).

The results obtained may be 'the food for thought' for destination managers, environmental policy officials and all those interested in protecting the environment and reducing the ecological footprint. In times of severe environmental degradation, to a significant extent caused by human irresponsible behaviour, any tool to reduce negative impacts on the natural environment should be taken into consideration. Our research suggests that one of such tools is selective marketing. In other words, the type of tourists a host community attracts may play a key role in determining environmental impact of tourism.The current study shows that segments with different levels of pro-environmental behaviour differ in a range of socio-demographic characteristics as well. Hence, differentiation between more and less environmentally friendly tourists is feasible before they reach the destinations, and demand-sided measures to reduce negative effects on the natural environment should seriously be considered by businesses who have traditionally tried to modify tourists at the destination rather than selectively inviting them.

Our research suggests several directions for future studies on eco-friendly tourism. Firstly, future researchers could examine the impact of other segmentation variables, e.g. personality variables, on tourism-related environmental consciousness and assess the feasibility of tourists' segmentation in that case. Secondly, findings of this research can be generalized to other countries only with great caution, and therefore more thorough studies of tourism-related eco-friendliness should be undertaken in different geographical locations to enhance the generalizability. Comparison of pro-environmental behaviours of tourists with different cultural backgrounds is of special interest (Europeans vs. Asians, Europeans vs. Americans, and Western Europeans vs. Eastern Europeans). Finally, the results of the current study, along with few other studies, only provide a starting point for more rigorous research about usage of selective marketing as a tool to reduce negative environmental impacts.

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Sports tourist destination brands: the case of Greece

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ABSTRACT

Destination branding is a new way to promote better your product / destination / sports. It is very important to know how to do it. A research of Beerli and Martin (2004), indicate that: (1) motivations influence the affective component of image; (2) the experience of vacation travel has a significant relationship with cognitive and affective images, and (3) the socio-demographic characteristics influence the cognitive and affective assessment of image. Image dimension is important in the brand equity model (Konecnik and Gartner, 2007). Also, Boo et al. (2009), support the important role of image in the brand equity model, in that destination brand image was identified as a key correlate of destination brand loyalty in the proposed model. The purpose of the study was to reveal the components (behavior, motivation, destination characteristics, socio-demographic data) for an affective and cognitive image for sports tourist destination branding.

Keywords: destination brands, tourist roles, behavior, motivation, sports tourism

INTRODUCTION

Destination branding is difficult to be approached and explained because of the complexity of concepts that are involved. Brand equity theory includes awareness, image, quality, and loyalty dimensions in the model. Many researches support the importance of the image dimension in the brand equity model. Therefore, in the competitive tourism market, tourist destinations must establish a positive and strong brand image, derived from: a) the cognitive, unique, and affective image associations, b) the increase of repeated visitors and c) the attraction of new tourists to the destination. The present study will reveal the components for an affective and cognitive image for sports tourist destination brands based on the research of Beerli and Martin (2004), who indicated that: (1) motivations influence the affective component of image; (2) the experience of vacation travel has a significant relationship with cognitive and affective images, and (3) the socio-demographic characteristics influence the cognitive and affective assessment of image. The tourists' level of experience of vacation travel has a positive and significant relationship with the cognitive image among first-time tourists and with the affective dimension of the image among repeat tourists.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Brand Equity

Destination branding is a chain of many concepts, but brand equity is the heart of this concept. Konecnik and Gartner (2007) support this idea with their research, in which they applied the concept of customer-based brand equity to evaluate the tourist destination of Slovenia for the German and Croatian markets. Finally, they included awareness, image, quality, and loyalty dimensions in the model, they applied the brand concept in the extension line of destination image studies. That is, the generally accepted three image types (i.e., cognitive, affective, and conative) were elaborated in creating brand equity for a destination brand in their study. They support the importance of an image dimension in the brand equity model. Another study supports also the important role of image in the brand equity model, in that destination brand image was identified as a key correlate of destination brand loyalty in the proposed model (Boo et al., 2009).

Destination Branding

The theory of destination branding could be explained by the study of Cai (2002), who proposed a conceptual model of destination branding. The proposal was founded on Anderson's (1983) psychological theory of adaptive control of thoughts, drawn on marketing and branding literature, and extended from Gartner's framework of destination image formation process. The model is recursive, centering on building destination identity through spreading activation, which results from dynamic linkages among brand element mix, image building, brand associations (3As), and marketing activities (3Ms). The model also specifies that spreading activation take place under the four conditions of existing organic image, existing induced image, destination size and composition, and positioning and target markets (4Cs). Some years later Cai et al. (2009), assert that academic research in destination branding has used the concept of image formation as synonymous with branding. Accordingly, image formation encapsulated by slogans is an operational approach to destination promotion whereas destination branding is a strategic management process.

If a discussion is opened about the main reason for practicing destination branding, only one conclusion will arrive; to build a desirable image that can attract tourists; to differentiate one's destination from competitors and position it to attract higher spending tourists; to manage image; and to make one's destination a better place to live by increasing the economic contribution of tourism (Park and Petrick, 2006).

Another opinion is that the destination branding is just one possible use of an event portfolio (Ziakas and Costa, 2010). Its uses may vary according to the policy foci a host community has for events. From this standpoint, the criteria for the creation and inclusion of events in a portfolio have yet to be identified and elaborated in the event management literature. However, it is clear that the criteria for including an event must coincide with the specific purposes the event was intended to serve as well as the role of the event portfolio as a whole.

But, why it is important to build a sport destination brand? The only reason is to sell better our product, so from a destination marketing perspective, the ways that sport events do and do not affect perceptions of the host destination are important. At the study of Xing and Chalip (2006), the level of a destination's perceived activity had an effect on intention to travel to the relatively leisurely destination, but not on intention to visit the relatively active destination.

Destination Image

The destination image exerts a mediating role between the three image components (cognitive, unique and affective) as the brand associations and the behavioral intentions (Qu et al., 2011). Strong and distinctive destination image should not only be a goal of branding practices in capturing consumers' minds but also as a mediator to influence consumer behaviors, directly related to the success of the tourist destinations. Therefore, in the competitive tourism market, tourist destinations must establish a positive and strong brand image, derived from the cognitive, unique, and affective image associations, to increase repeat visitors and to attract new tourists to the destination.

The research of Baloglu et al. (2001), between 4 destinations (Egypt, Turkey, Italy, Greece), highlights the importance of destination images by tour operators all over the world. They refer as strong images for Greece the historical and archaeological monuments, coasts, sun, islands and relax and on the other hand as negative images are referred the accuracy, noise, crowd, pollution and physical disasters (Baloglu et al., 2001).

But, also cognitive image has a significant relation with the tourists' experiences, which means their behavior, and the most famous tourist roles in Greece which reflect their behaviour are Sun lover, Anthropologist, Archaeologist, and Escapist. Particularly Sun Lover is interested in relaxing and sunbathing in warm places with lots of sun, sand and ocean. Sun Lover gathers 38.2% of the total tourism (17.2% men and 20.8% women, missing values 0.2%). They belong to generation 1 (17-39 years of age), single, graduates of university or students with medium income and full occupation (Yfantidou et al., 2011).

Tasci et al. (2007), underline that as destination image is a reciprocally dynamic system of affect and cognition where one influences and is influenced by the other, they can propose that the lack of a clear image of Turkey (neighbor country) leads to negative affective responses and thus a negative brand bias toward the cognition of the country's touristic attributes.

Brand image

Image could be approached by the self-congruity theory (the match between destination personality and tourist's self-concept) in the context of tourism destinations. Although self congruity has been studied widely in the consumer behavior literature, there is a lack of research in the tourism literature. Self-congruity is necessary for the influence on tourist's behavioral intentions and thus supports the self-congruity theory. Thus, the greater the match between destination personality and tourist's self-concept, the more likely is that the tourist will have a favorable attitude toward that destination, resulting in intention to return and word of mouth. Additionally, self-congruity is a partial mediator between destination personality and behavioral intentions. In other words, destination personality has a positive indirect effect on intention to return and intention to recommend through self-congruity (Usacli and Baloglu, 2011).

As far as the brand image attributes, eight clusters are identified: physical environment, economic activity, business tourism facilities, accessibility, social facilities, strength of reputation, people characteristics and destination size. Many of these attribute clusters are similar to those identified in the literature in the context of leisure tourism. For example, attributes relating to the physical environment, such as the overall attractiveness of the destination, its pace of life and feeling of security are relevant attributes of both leisure and business tourism images. Similarly, the role of people, the culture of the resident population, the character of the visitor market and accessibility are also brand image attributes common to both (Hankinson, 2005).

Brand associations

Lee and Back (2008), referred that associations should build their conference marketing (educational tourists) and management on brand loyalty by carefully incorporating brand associations attendees consider important. Persistent delivery of high quality education programs, staff training, venue selection, and networking would enable associations to obtain high attendee-based brand equity manifested by high differential effect of brand knowledge. Retention of brand loyal attendees would especially induce deep commitment to the conferences and great resistance to other conferences' marketing strategies, thereby contributing to high revenue and market share.

Brand positioning

Pike (2009), pointed that the objective of any brand positioning should be to reinforce the one or few determinant attributes for which the destination is already perceived positively and competitively. For example, while the emerging destination in his study, the Coral Coast, rated lowest in terms of previous visitation and decision set membership, a leadership position is held in the 'Escape' dimension (Escapist tourists enjoy taking it easy and getting away from it all in quiet and peaceful places, Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002). This represents a positioning approach that is not explicit in the brand launched in 2003, which is Take time to discover Bundaberg and Coral Coast (Australia). Politically however, justifying changes to a destination brand is challenging due to the complex nature of stakeholder relationships and Destination Marketing Organizations decision making at a governance level. DMOs are usually at the mercy of political masters for longterm funding, be it by way of government grants or bed taxes. Also, given the difficulties of membership-based funding schemes, alternative revenue sources are of interest (Bonham & Mak, 1996).

Sports tourism

Sport events represent the most fast developing sector of tourism market and the research of Funk et al. (2006), underline the importance of social-psychological motives concerning sport event and the cultural-educational motives concerning international travel. More specifically in order to increase tourism we should study ways of handling with respect the important experience of tourists, which is the behaviour that reflects the original motives (Foo, Mcguiggan and Yiannakis, 2004; Gibson and Yiannakis, 2002).

According to Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005), the motive for someone in order to travel or to participate in tourism can be determined as a total of needs and attitudes that predispose an individual to act with a concrete way. The motives that determine sports tourism are: a) the immense tendency to escape from the everyday routine, b) the sentiments, c) the wish for participation and d) the need for reward, the recognition and the prestige. Also, the decision to travel or to participate or to watch an athletic activity can be also influenced by other, exterior factors such as the family, friends, the socially similar group, as well as the television advertising campaign of companies of athletic activity.

The needs are not static, they increase or decrease and that explains why the same person adopts different kinds of behaviour at different time periods. If this idea is connected to the preference of tourist role, then the needs which are related to roles will provide a better knowledge of tourist behaviour and choices at sports tourism (Gibson, 2006). Gibson (2006), also reports the opinions of Pearce and Caltabiano concerning motives for sports tourism. According to them the satisfaction at vacation is related to satisfaction of core needs and this is an unbreakable relation. Gibson and Yiannakis (2002), described in a research about tourist behaviour that by 15 tourists roles the 3 concerned sports tourism: active sports tourist, explorer and thrill seeker.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

Data consisted of a stratified sample by age and gender of 1675 tourists from fifty countries who visited Greece in summer (June-July-August 2007). This method was used in order to have as many men as women at each age group.

Measurement tools

The questionnaire is based on the “Tourist Roles Preference Scale” of Gibson and Yiannakis (2002), and was translated in Greek, German and Russian. Having the questionnaire in four languages covered the majority of tourists who visited Greece. The questionnaire included 89 Likert Questions (5-scale) or closed-ended questions that recorded: (1) a description of tourist’s activities, (2) a description of vacation destination, (3) an examination of major human needs, (4) demographical and personal data and, (5) certain destination preference.

Procedure

The questionnaires were distributed at the two main airports in Greece: Eleftherios Venizelos at the city of Athens and Macedonia airport at the city of Thessaloniki. The questionnaires were distributed to the foreign tourists after check in at the airport when departing from Greece, and for Greek tourists in transit to their final destination in Greece after their vacation.

RESULTS

The results of the study revealed the components (behavior, motivation, destination characteristics, socio-demographic data) for an affective and cognitive image for sports tourist destination branding.

Socio-demographic data
The range of age was from 17 years old to 80 years old (Mean=36 years). The sex of the participants varied from 773 men and 845 women (missing values 57). Roughly half were married (45.1%), while singles/never married were (43.7%). The majority were employed full time (61.9%), while 18.9% were students. As far as education is concerned, the majority were graduates of university or a 4-year college (32%). Annual family income varied from 20.000-60.000$ for 48.1% of the participants.

Behavior
PCA and quartimax rotation was used to verify the validity of TRPS questionnaire of the 34 variables of the tourist roles, for the specific sample. Quartimax rotation was selected because behaviour differs and variables do not correlate significantly. For the verification of tourist roles Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used along with Multidimensional Scaling Analysis (MDS). The main dimensions of behavioral preferences of tourists were detected by MDS by transforming them to proximities at multidimensional space using the methods of similarities data preference data. In addition, the tourist roles (tourist typology) were identified depending on the distances between them at 3dimensional space. The pair that presented high loading at Principal Component Analysis and logical proximity at multidimensional space was accepted to measure the same tourist role. The pair of variables that satisfied the above criteria was sustained and a new variable/role was created through compute. PCA and MDS verified the 15 tourist roles of Gibson and Yiannakis (2002) and Sports tourism is defined by 3 out of 15 roles: Explorer (outdoor sports), Thrill Seeker (extreme sports) and Active Sport Tourist.

Destination characteristics
Crosstab analysis between the 3 sports tourist roles and the 23 statements that indicated the degree (6-5-4-3-2-1) to which each of the following pairs of words best describe the vacation destination showed the destination characteristics that each sports tourist role prefers.

Table 1: Degree % to which each of the following words best describe the vacation destination that each sports tourist role prefers.

Destination Characteristics	Thrill Seeker	Explorer	Active Sports Tourist
Developed	20,3	20,1	20,6
Undeveloped	**79,7**	**79,9**	**79,4**
Coastal	15,4	15,4	15,2
Inland	**84,6**	**84,6**	**84,8**
Familiar	31,3	31,4	31,6
Novel	**68,7**	**68,6**	**68,4**
Expensive	40,0	39,8	40,6
Inexpensive	**60,0**	**60,2**	**59,4**
Busy	41,4	41,1	41,2
Quiet	**58,6**	**58,9**	**58,8**
Hot	11,4	11,4	11,3
Cold	**88,6**	**88,6**	**88,7**
Popular	27,0	27,0	27,2
Exclusive	**73,0**	**73,0**	**72,8**
Domestic	43,5	43,6	43,5
Foreign	**56,5**	**56,4**	**56,5**
Group Oriented	50,1	50,4	50,1
Individualistic	49,9	49,6	49,9
Stimulating	39,0	38,9	38,8
Calming	**61,0**	**61,1**	**61,2**
New destination	46,9	46,8	46,9
Familiar destination	**53,1**	**53,2**	**53,1**
Structured place	48,6	48,8	48,9
Spontaneous place	51,4	51,2	51,1
Family Oriented	42,3	41,9	42,4
Adult Oriented	**57,7**	**58,1**	**57,6**
Safe	18,2	18,4	18,1
Risky	**81,8**	**81,6**	**81,9**
Close to Home	**70,0**	**69,9**	**69,8**
Far Away	30,0	30,1	30,2

Indoors/hotel	59,8	59,7	59,9
Outdoors/camp	40,2	40,3	40,1
Urban	60,6	60,9	60,6
Rural	39,4	39,1	39,4
Active	30,0	29,8	30,1
Passive	70,0	70,2	69,9
Artificial environment	74,3	74,5	74,7
Authentic environment	25,7	25,5	25,3
Deserted	61,6	61,8	61,5
Crowded	38,4	38,2	38,5
Natural place	28,6	28,7	28,9
Man Made place	71,4	71,3	71,1
Modern	36,6	36,4	36,9
Primitive	63,4	63,6	63,1
Inaccessible	72,6	72,9	72,5
Accessible	27,4	27,1	27,5

Motivation

For the examination of predicting sports' tourist role destination preference, binary logistic regression was used according to gender, age and 22 psychological needs that reflect their motives by step wise method (Yfantidou et al., 2010):

Explorer. Prefers adventure travel, exploring out of the way places and enjoys challenges involved in getting there (outdoor sports).
The needs that determine this tourist role preference for men 17 to 39 years of age are shown at the below figure.

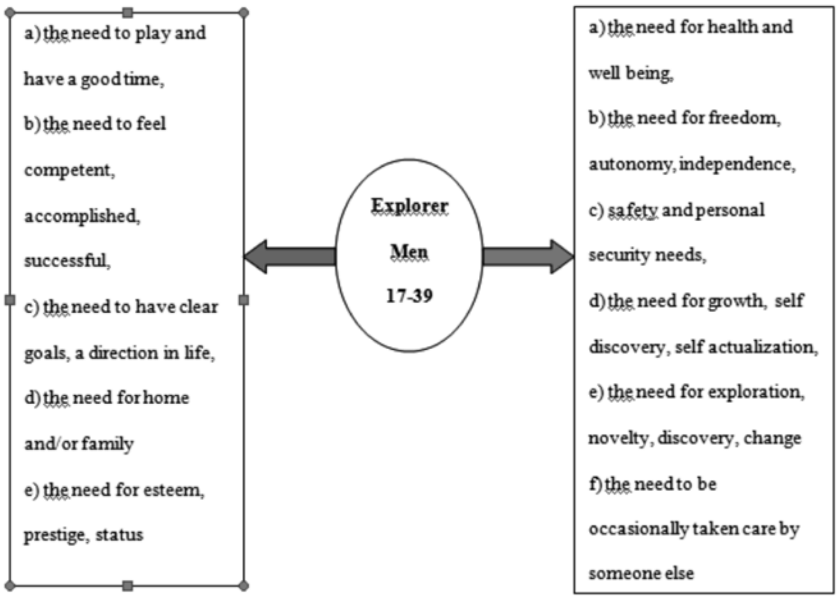

Figure 1. The needs that determine tourist role preference Explorer for men 17-39 years of age (green) and needs that force them back (red) from selecting this role.

For men 40-59 years of age the needs that determine this tourist role preference are: a) Sexual needs and b) the need for esteem, prestige, status. For men 60 years old and over no need seemed to contribute significantly in predicting this role.
The needs that determine this tourist role preference for women 17 to 39 years of age are: a) Sexual needs, b) the need for home and/or family, c) the need for growth, self discovery, self actualization and e) the need for creativity, self expression. For women 40-59 years old and 60 years old and over no need seemed to contribute significantly in predicting this role.

Thrill Seeker. Interested in risky, exhilarating activities which provide emotional highs (extreme sports).

The needs that determine this tourist role preference for men 17 to 39 years of age are: a) the need for freedom, autonomy, independence and b) sexual needs. But the need that keeps them back is the need for home and/or family. For men 40-59 years of age and 60 years old and over no need seemed to contribute significantly in predicting this role.

Figure 2 shows the needs that determine this tourist role preference for women 17 to 39 years of age.

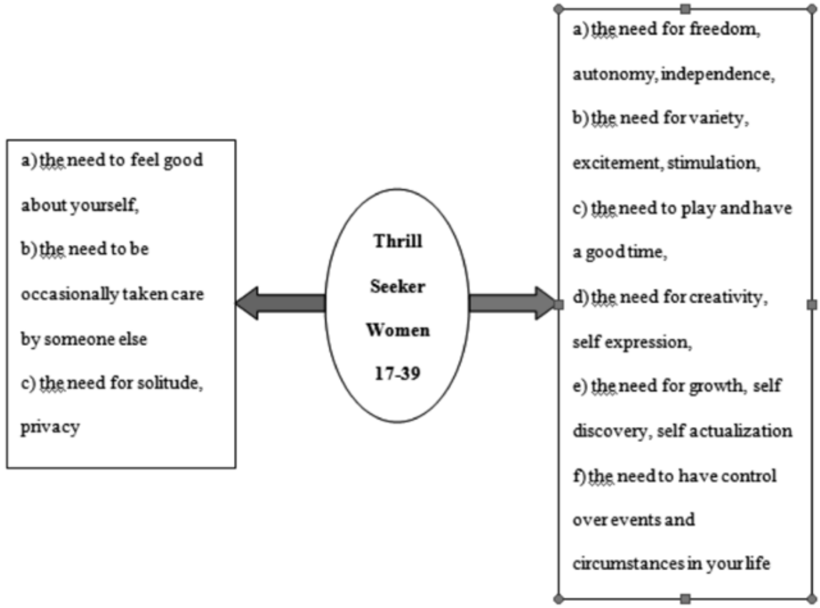

Figure 2: The needs that determine tourist role preference Thrill Seeker for women 17-39 years of age (green) and needs that force them back (red) from selecting this role.

For women 40-59 years of age no need seemed to contribute significantly in predicting this role. But for women 60 years old and over no tourists selected this role.

Active Sports Tourist. Primary emphasis while on vacation is to remain active engaging in favorite sports, attend events, even hunting or fishing.

Figure 3 shows the needs that determine this tourist role preference for men 17 to 39 years of age.

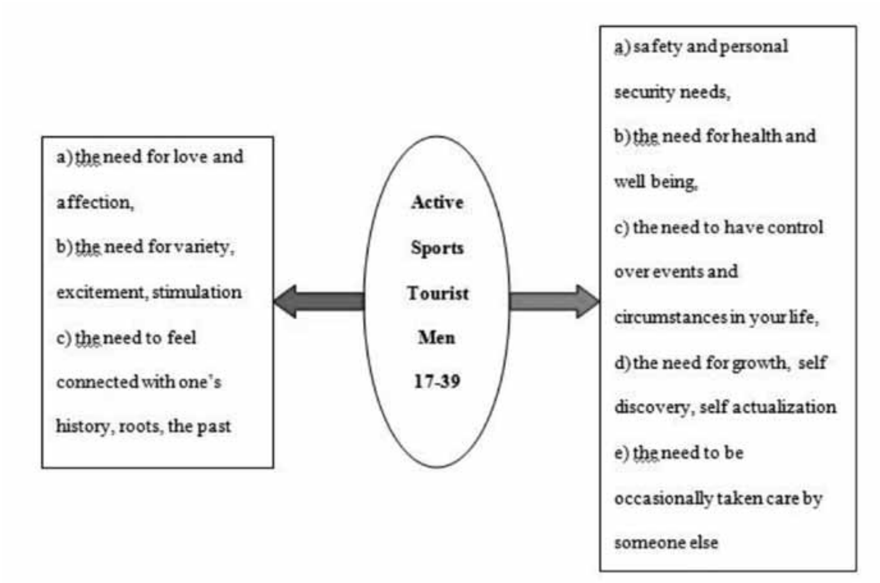

Figure 3. The needs that determine tourist role preference Active Sports Tourist for men 17-39 years of age (green) and needs that force them back (red) from selecting this role.

For men 40-59 years of age no need seemed to contribute significantly in predicting this role. But, for men 60 years old and over no tourists selected this role.

For women 17-39 years old and 40-59 years old no need seemed to contribute significantly in predicting this role. But, for women 60 years old and over no tourists selected this role.

CONCLUSION

This research revealed the components for sports tourist destination brands: roles / behavior, needs / motivation, destination characteristics, sports tourist profile / socio-demographic data. All three sports tourist roles have the same preferences at destination characteristics, that is undeveloped, inland, novel, inexpensive, quiet, cold, exclusive, foreign, calming, familiar destination, adult oriented, risky, close to home, indoors/hotel, urban, passive, artificial environment, deserted, man made place, primitive, inaccessible.

This is with accordance of the research of Cai et al. (2009), who assert that academic research in destination branding has used the concept of image formation as synonymous with branding.

Cai introduces a model that offers guidance to practical destination branding. His model elaborates the branding concepts from a sociological perspective through social exchange theory. Their approaches in the community-based perspective originated with the idea of community "participation" and "empowerment" within the peer-group-directed circle of communities (Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993).

The power has been exerted in the branding process in the form of persuasion and authority. Even though there is a fine line between considering persuasion to be a managerial tool or a form of power, results reveal that persuasion was used as a form of social power in the process in order to influence stakeholders' behavior without involving them in the creation of a negotiated order around the destination brand (Marzano and Scott, 2009).

If this is the case Greek tourism marketing authorities need to develop and deliver programs intended to increase the familiarity of Greece, especially in distant markets such as the US where the lack of knowledge regarding Greece, a country half way around the world, is both natural and inevitable.

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Social media and tourism: the use of Facebook by the European national tourism organizations

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ABSTRACT

User generated content, participation, sharing, online communities and so on respond both to the feeling of uncertainty embedded in the travelling process as well as to the need for change of the one-way communication models applied by the tourism industry so far. This research examines the way European National Tourism Organizations (NTOs) adopt this utterly different logic of social media; different not only in terms of content but also regarding the degree of interaction it fosters with tourists. Through a content analysis of their Facebook pages, it is more than clear that NTOs are struggling to fit in the new communication environment and to change their communication mentality.

Keywords: Facebook, social media, tourism, National Tourism Organizations, online communities, interaction.

INTRODUCTION

A paraphrase of the term Web 2.0 which includes social networks, blogs, P2P files sharing, user review portals and podcasts among others, 'Travel 2.0' promotes a many-to-many communication model and forces communication professionals to recognize and include these powerful tools in their promotion mix strategies. As such, marketers must have a solid understanding of the nature of social media pertaining to their target markets (Xiang, 2011). Marketing through social media requires a change of focus, re-allocation of resources, and deployment of new strategies (Sigala, 2009).

Facebook (Fb) is enormous and daunting, and everybody's still figuring out the best ways to market within it. The number of Fb users has been rising -with currently 800 million active users and nearly 300 thousands signing up each day- and the numbers are sure to get bigger from here (Facebook, 2011). Researches show that two-thirds of travellers who use the internet are also on Facebook, reaching 90 percent in the 18 to 24 age group and retaining an important presence in almost all age-groups. Facebook reaches an estimated 29.9% of the global internet user community and, in terms of usage, social networking is the third most popular computing activity now, ahead of using e-mail (Nielsen, 2009).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Social media: content and interaction

There is still not a unanimous definition for the term 'Travel 2.0', with authors arguing on the precise definition of '2.0' (O'Reilly, 2006; Hamill et al, 2008). For the purposes of this research, 'Travel 2.0' refers to any communication platform that aims at creating an active online community built around a destination or a tourism product/service and based on *content flow* and *interaction* between the members of the community.

Undoubtedly both terms – content and interaction – are interrelated and equally complex in their definition. Content in terms of information increases understanding and decreases uncertainty. This means that it is a message of a certain news value, one that brings the receiver something different, that contributes to his/her making a decision. The role of information is even higher in non-linear communication circuits, since processed outputs enter the circuit, functioning as a control tool. The crucial role of control would not have been possible or even conceivable without the concept of interaction. Through the constant sending and receiving of information, each system collects all the necessary data from its external environment in order to adapt to it more efficiently and achieve its primary goal; sustainability. Interaction, as the evolution of two-way communication, is probably the major innovation of this new era. In praxis, the end of communication monologues and the equation of producers and receivers in time and space, through the creation of new forms communities, based on a horizontal system of information organization and exchange (Kaitatzi-Whitlock, 2003:33-35). These new online communities seem to bear many common features with their respective offline such as the level of bonding between the members, issues of hierarchy and involvement, factors influencing participation, offline projects that can emerge etc. (Chung and Buhalis, 2008; Dwyer et al, 2007). In fact, the long term aim of creating an online community around a destination or a tourism product/service is to let it develop its own philosophy, its own rules and aims, and in doing so to engage its members in a process known as 'commons-based peer production', 'p2p production', or 'produsage' – a form of self-organising, community-driven content creation and development (Bruns and Bahnisch, 2009:7).

In the case of NTOs' Fb page, content refers to information about the destination or tourism product/service – whatever format it is held in i.e. text, audio, video, flash – that supports each phase of the decision making process, before, during and after the trip. Content takes the form of posts uploaded by the organisation and its fans. Interaction refers, among others, to the frequency of these posts, the number of 'likes' and comments they receive, the existence of tabs promoting interaction, i.e. discussions (Boyd and Ellison, 2007; Stankov et al, 2010; O'Connor, 2011).

Social media in tourism

While there is a growing body of research on social media in travel and tourism, it is argued that the role of social media is not well understood in terms of the way they affect tourism organizations, companies and travellers' access and use of travel-related information online (Xiang, 2011).

The literature regarding the adoption of the Web 2.0 logic by NTOs/DMOs, tourist companies and tourists, is gradually rising. A study regarding the response of DMOs to 'Travel 2.0' (Hamill et al, 2008), identifies three main clusters of the DMOs Web 2.0 adoption level: 'Non-Starters', that are DMOs with no or very limited use of Web 2.0 technologies, 'Cautious Adopters', representing some basic but limited progress and 'Progressive Adopters' that encourage interaction and user generated content (UGC) in the official portal site. Towards this direction, Stankov, Lazic and Dragivecic (2010) produced a primary assessment of the European NTOs Facebook activity, by examining their official presence on the network (nearly half of them had no Fb account) the number of their Fb fans, the NTOs Fb name and the use of standard Fb features i.e. info, photos, events. Their research showed that most of NTOs have been slow to respond to the marketing opportunities brought by Facebook, as they do not use all the advantages that are offered by this form of user-generated content.

Matloka and Buhalis (2010) explored in their study emerging destination marketing opportunities originating from the development of user personalised content (UPC) tools regarding customised information that addresses travellers' personal needs and preferences. According to Sigala (2009), many city destination organizations, nowadays, have incorporated social networking features into their e-business model and strategy in order to further enhance communication with customers and benefit from the electronic word-of-mouth. For example, Yayli, Bayram and Bayram (2011) examined the way European DMOs are leveraging Twitter to reach potential visitors by content analyzing their 'tweets'. Their main conclusion is that Twitter provides countless opportunities for DMOs to interact with customers first hand, and even tap on influential users who can create an even bigger impact for their brand. The current and potential use of twittering as a tourism marketing tool from the perspective of DMOs, hotels and consumers, was also investigated by Hay (2010).

On the micro-level of tourism businesses, according to Rheem (2010) social networks and the overwhelming buzz that accompanies them are being received with mixed enthusiasm by travel companies. While many are actively managing their brand presence on social networking sites, dedicating staff to monitor and engage with consumers on behalf of their brands, not few remain skeptical about social media's importance and ultimate impact on business. O' Connor (2011) investigated how Facebook is being exploited by hotel chains as a commercial tool and found that few hotel chains are making effective use of this new customer communications and sales channel. Although many are present on Facebook, most are practically invisible, presenting low levels of content activity and interaction. Slivar (2009) explored Facebook as a means of promotion of tourist agencies specialized for youth travel in Croatia and Serbia. Her research has shown that both Serbian and especially Croatian tourist agencies are still poorly aware of the need for promotion on the Facebook.

From the consumers' point of view, the value of using social media lies greatly in rich personal experiences and trustworthy electronic word-of-mouth (Xiang, 2011). According to Chiappa (2011), social media exert great influence in generating the idea of travelling, on the actual planning process, and during the post-travel phase. Sigala (2009) agrees that social networking websites have a tremendous impact on how tourists nowadays create, organize and consume tourism experiences. The growing importance of social media in travel information search is also confirmed by other studies (Xiang and Gretzel, 2010; Kim and Kim, 2011; Sood et al, 2011; McCarthy et al, 2010).

METHODOLOGY

The study focuses on the use of Facebook by the European NTOs and the research process included the following steps. Firstly all the official web pages of European NTOs were accessed in order to find if a Fb link was available. This was done because the sheer number of Fb pages using the name of the country or claiming to be the country's main representative page is overwhelming. Hence only through the Fb link of the NTOs' website one can ensure that the Fb page analyzed is the official one. In every Fb page all the elements of Tables 1, 2 and 3 were recorded in the two different, but in praxis overlapping, categories of content and interaction. Structural features are attributes of the community that are not necessarily reflected in the content of online discussion. The structural features we explored here include the requirements of membership, the number of fans, the page name, the frequency of the posts, the number of 'likes' and 'comments' they receive and the existence of tabs promoting interaction, i.e. discussions. Content features, on the other hand, are attributes of the actual words and phrases that comprise the discussion. In terms of content we attempted to categorize the most common content messages exchanged in a NTOs Fb page. The final step included cross-checking each Fb page against the assembled list of elements, in order to identify content and interaction elements that may contribute to the establishment of a successful or leading Fb page in the case of NTOs.

From the 49 official web pages of European NTOs, only 32 of them provided link to their Fb page (65%). From these, 31 official FB pages were valid and analyzed (96.8%). In the case a NTO provided different Fb pages in terms of language, only the English version was examined. The research took place in the period January-March 2011. A correlation statistical analysis was conducted via the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, version 16.0) using the Spearman's rho statistic, which is a measure of the relationship between two continuous variables, giving indications of both the direction (positive or negative) and the strength of the relationship.

FINDINGS

The results are structured according to the main features of 'Travel 2.0' online communities: content and interaction.

Online community

While it is crucial to retain a rather low threshold of participation and encourage fans to join in, by creating and sharing content with the community, it seems that quite a few web teams limit their fans' activities by not allowing them to upload their own content, i.e. comments or posts. The fear of 'losing control' is a mentality not strange to organizations that are used in one-way communication tactics, i.e. print advertising.

Undoubtedly, the number of fans in a Fb page defines the size of the online community build around a destination. In the case of the European NTOs this size varies from very small communities (69 fans) to larger ones (360,996 fans) (last measured in 12/04/11). The size of the community seems to negatively correlate with the date the Fb page was created (rho=-0.363, p=0.045). Although there is a correlation between number of fans and page date and although the smallest community belongs to the page of Slovakia created in March 2011, the highest number of fans doesn't correspond to the oldest Fb page. Consequently, the page date is not the only factor influencing the size of an Fb community.

In fact, the number of fans seems to negatively correlate with the page name (rho=-0.467, p=0.008). Regarding the name of the Fb page, it seems that people find it easier to make friends with a web team of people from 'Sweden' or 'Feel Slovenia' than with something alluding to an impersonal marketing department i.e. 'Visit Norway - official travel guide to Norway - visitnorway.com' or 'Liechtenstein Tourismus'. This is also proved by the fact that most pages which use exclusively their country name or a combination of the country name with words like 'love', 'discover', 'explore' have scored higher regarding their fans' number and are chronologically more recent pages (rho=0.490, p=0.005). The few cases of recent NTO pages accompanying their name with more official terms i.e. 'Poland Tourism', can be attributed to the fact that Facebook is still an unknown terrain for many tourism marketers, who are trying to grasp the do's and don'ts of the new trend. The research showed that 22.5% of NTOs use only the name of the country, 29% use the theme 'visit/travel to' i.e. Visit Greece, 29% different variations, i.e. 'Love UK' and 19.3% a clearly marketing approach (Table 3).

The initial hypothesis was that a NTO can influence the size of its Fb community both quantitatively and qualitatively. In terms of quantity, the number of posts by European NTOs varies from 0 to 1766 during the examined period, with an average post per day ranging from 0.07 (Switzerland) to 4.83 (Visit Portugal) (Table 3). However, research showed that the number of fans correlates neither with the number of NTO posts (rho=0.340, p=0.066) nor with their average daily frequency (rho=0.326, p=0.079). In addition, the number of fans correlates neither with the number of tourists arrivals (rho=0.327, p=0.072) nor with the destination's population (rho=0.138, p=0.460). Even in Table 3, it is evident that highly popular destinations such as France (4,440 fans) can have a significantly lower number of fans than less established ones such as Croatia (247,490 fans). In short, quantity doesn't secure a NTO more fans.

The size of a Fb community does, though, correlate with the number of ‘likes’ (rho=0.780, p=0.000) and the number of ‘comments’ (rho=0.691, p=0.000) made by fans, a result that could be read in two ways. The obvious way is to suggest that as the pool of fans increases it is fair to expect that the same post would be ‘liked’ and ‘commented’ by more people. The same goes with the number of NTO posts; more posts bring more ‘likes’ (rho=0.522, p=0.003) and ‘comments’ (rho=0.505, p=0.004). On the other hand, one could also claim that as the number of ‘likes’ and ‘comments’ increases so does the number of fans, meaning that what triggers page visitors to become fans is the mobility a page presents. This interesting finding redirects the focus from quantity to quality and leads us to the next feature of Travel 2.0: content.

Content

As far as the kind of information is concerned, qualitative notes by researchers during the count of the number of posts, likes and comments, seem to support the following claims (Table 1):

- ‘likes’ are triggered mainly through multimedia posts i.e. photos, videos.
- ‘comments’ are triggered mainly through posts that call for some kind of action, i.e. a question, a challenging statement, a common wish, an important cultural, athletic, political, natural, national etc. event.

Engaging fans into thinking, remembering or searching for something directly or indirectly relating to the destination in order to enter a competition, to express one’s opinion or just to go down the memory lain, seems to be the key to entice comments and strengthen page mobility. Although the number of ‘comments’ will always be lower than that of ‘likes’ (Table 3) these two variables are positively correlated (rho=0.843, p=0.000) - no page can have only one or the other, since both are indicators of interesting content. Despite not having content analyzed the NTOs posts, indicative examples of the most commented or liked posts are showed in Table 1.

Table 1: Indicative examples of posts that trigger ‘comments’ and ‘likes’

Question	Which was the most tasteful Greek dish you ever had? *(Visit Greece, 10 November 2010)*
Challenging statement	COMPLETE THE SENTENCE: Today I feel like eating some... *(Hungary Tourism, 20 January 2011)*
Common wish	Good morning everyone from sunny Cyprus. *(Cyprus, 7 February 2011)*
Cultural event	The Viking Ship Museum presents great Viking ship discoveries from Gokstad, Oseberg and Tune as well as other finds from Viking tombs around the Oslo Fjord... *(Visit Norway - official travel guide to Norway - visitnorway.com, 12 November 2010)*

Athletic event	What a game! Congrats to Spain but we are so proud of the boys in Orange. Thanks for the all the great games! *(Holland, 11 July 2010)*
Political event	Sweden prepares for Royal wedding ♥ On June 19th H.R.H Crown Princess Victoria and Daniel Westling will be married. Where will you watch the wedding? *(Sweden, 18 June 2010)*
Natural event	…is having a bit of a volcanic eruption at the moment. My airports have been closed, and many of my people have been evacuated, but nobody is hurt. Everything is going to be alright. *(Iceland, 21 March 2010)*
National event	Happy St. Patrick's day *(Ireland, 17 March 2010)*

At this point one should underline another qualitative but yet very important note. We do know that an online community cannot be considered as a homogenous sum of people. Although it is rather impossible to categorize page fans by nationality, researchers noted that a significant part of the NTO's community comes from the destination's residents, at least at an initial stage. With this in mind, three other findings can also be explained: 1) the significant number of posts that refer to the destination's everyday life i.e. 'ways to cope with this rainy Tuesday at work', 2) content posted in the NTOs national language i.e. Andorra, Estonia, and 3) bilingual posts (English plus national language), i.e. Spain, Portugal.

Lastly, it is important to mention that at this early phase of Fb adoption by NTOs, the content is primarily promotional, with the goal to raise brand awareness and thus aims at the pre-trip stage.

Interaction

User generated content (UGC) is the ultimate success measure of interaction in every online community and is found usually in larger communities - more fans results in more UGC (rho=0.853, p=0.000). Not only does UGC signifies the degree of engagement of fans but positively correlates with the number of 'likes' (rho=0.894, p=0.000) and 'comments' (rho=0.832, p=0.000), motivating thus even those comparatively less active users. It is interesting to note that the number of posts by fans is not related with the number of posts made by NTO (rho=0.248, p=0.204), partly confirming the view that in the course of time online communities start operating independently of the original community structure.

Table 2: Use of Facebook Interaction tools by NTOs

Interaction tools	Use by NTOs Fb page
Promotions page	9.6%
Contest page	12.9%
Polls	16.1%
Special pages	48.3%
Notes	51.6%
Events	41.9%
Discussions	51.6%
Applications	12.9%
Newsletter signup	12.9%
e-mail	32.2%
Offline contact details	29.0%
Info	96.7%
Welcome (landing) page	45.1%

Lastly, taken that the oldest NTO Fb page is created in June 2008 (Table 3), it is obvious that we are talking about a very recent trend that goes back no longer than 3 years. 2008 was the year that Facebook launched ‘pages’ for business in order to differentiate them from individual ‘profiles’. Taken that NTOs are organisations promoting their destination brand it follows that a ‘page’ is the right choice. To that end, only 3.2% of NTOs have not yet realized the difference and have chosen to use a Fb profile.

Apart from the indicators relating to the features of online community, interaction can also be measured against the use of interactive tools provided by the Fb page. The majority of the techniques included in Table 2 could easily be transformed in posts like in the case of Visit Austria (promotion) or Croatia (discussion) (Table 3). In fact, this is what happens in praxis, justifying the low percentage of these other alternatives. At this first phase, the Fb Wall is the main tool.

Table 3: Main features of Facebook pages of European NTOs (March 2010 – February 2011)

NTO's facebook page	NTO - No. of posts	Average No. of posts/day	No. of 'likes'	Average No. of likes/post	No. of comments	Average No. of comments/post	FANS - No. of posts	FANS - Average No. of posts/day	No. of fans (12/04/11)	First post by NTO
Belgian Tourist Office – North America	241	0.72	517	2.14	67	0.27	81	0.24	972	04/2010
Croatia	340	0.93	173112	509.15	14036	41.28	2519	6.90	247490	05/2009
Cyprus	208	0.56	4340	20.86	1325	6.37	190	0.52	14539	12/2008
Czech Republic	266	0.79	3426	12.87	362	1.36	183	0.54	60199	04/2010
Discover Ireland GB	217	0.07	8938	41.18	3805	17.53	719	1.96	59256	02/2010
ExploringMacedonia.com	83	0.30	93	1.12	3	0.03	0	0.00	371	06/2010
Feel Slovenia	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	193	0.52	18977	07/2009
Go Visit Denmark	126	0.34	404	3.20	110	0.87	39	0.10	2219	03/2010
Holland	271	0.74	23618	87.15	7609	28.07	1460	4.00	69567	04/2009
Hungary Tourism	238	0.71	2498	10.49	421	1.76	85	0.23	3426	07/2009
I wish I was in Finland	227	0.67	11196	49.32	3141	13.83	1173	3.51	18850	04/2010
Iceland	85	0.23	21606	254.18	4656	54.77	3623	9.92	61628	10/2009
Liechtenstein Tourismus	319	0.87	1282	4.01	300	0.94	40	0.10	3628	12/2008
Love UK	747	2.04	63800	85.40	28230	37.79	3051	8.35	121664	12/2009
Poland Tourism	8	0.28	3	0.37	0	0.00	0	0.00	167	02/2011
Puhka Eestis	222	0.60	5736	25.83	828	3.72	356	0.97	9634	03/2010
Serbia Travel	49	0.32	194	3.95	25	0.51	8	0.05	807	10/2010
Slovakia.travel	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	69	03/2011
Spain	279	0.76	40093	143.70	14505	51.98	11394	31.21	360996	11/2009
Sweden	79	0.21	5316	67.29	1443	18.26	715	1.95	19890	12/2008
Switzerland / Schweiz / Suisse / Svizzera	26	0.07	1133	43.57	278	10.64	781	2.13	57507	08/2009
Visit Austria	326	0.89	669	2.05	150	0.46	97	0.26	1382	12/2009
Visit Germany	134	0.36	2268	16.90	1072	8.00	171	0.46	5497	06/2008
Visit Greece	295	0.80	16213	54.95	2086	7.07	1122	3.07	19271	03/2010
Visit Monaco	832	2.27	11839	14.22	1544	1.85	151	0.41	6890	01/2009
Visit-Montenegro.com	56	0.16	93	1.66	16	0.28	-	-	774	04/2009
Visit Norway – official travel guide to Norway – visitnorway.com	377	1.03	12877	34.15	1746	4.63	951	2.60	14293	01/2010
Visitmalta	49	0.13	1023	20.87	263	5.36	-	-	5149	02/2010
Visitportugal	1766	4.83	34407	19.48	4492	2.54	746	2.04	55356	09/2009
www.andorra.ad	82	0.22	402	4.90	85	1.03	4	0.01	2068	10/2009
You know you love France when…	226	0.61	1702	7.53	1709	7.56	253	0.69	4440	02/2010

Hence, although promotions, quizzes and contests are growing to be a popular content for posts, the use of the respective pages/tabs presents very low percentages (9.6%-12.9%) and the same goes for polls (16.1%). Special pages, which are pages created for specific events i.e. the wedding of Prince Williams, the FIFA world cup etc. seem to be used more extensively (48.3%). It is truly encouraging that the Discussions tab is used by almost half of the NTOs (51.6%), still just having this tab is much different from achieving actual discussions. The majority of these tabs doesn't have an active constant flow of subjects/issues or conversations, while the discussions per se are usually short questions and answers. The low percentage of the e-mail and offline details options makes sense, since the Fb is in itself a communication platform, rendering this kind of information rather obsolete.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Undoubtedly European NTOs could be considered 'non starters' or 'reluctant adopters', taken that three years after Fb provided the 'page' option for organisations a little more than half of them have created a Fb page and of these pages only half were created during the first year 2008-2009. The degree of engagement is an indicator not only for fans (passive, likers, commentators, posterers) but also for NTOs. Focusing mainly on the Wall tab, NTO web teams seem to underutilize the possibilities for community interaction given by the various Fb tools. In addition, only 12.09% of the NTOs can claim to have a considerable pool of fans (>100.000) and hence their web teams are still the 'lifeblood' of the Fb community. It seems that truly interactive communication is still a challenge for promotional organisations, which obviously have not realized the crucial role of feedback for the sustainability of their page. This fact is directly reflected to the content, which is mainly focused on promotional information serving the pre-travel stage. In fact, there are no tabs for real time tourists visiting the destination, which they could look for and build on with their own input.

It's likely that 2011 will go down as 'the year of the real-time feed' and Facebook is an important real-time communication channel that organisations should use in order to augment their interactive options. Towards this direction, one could suggest offering in Fb pages the possibility of real time travel diaries to all those touring the country at any moment, responding to the already existing and rising trend of real time travel blogs. Providing actual tourists with the possibility to post their travel experience -positive or negative- at any stage of the trip, the NTO enables two kinds of real time interaction: tourists / NTO web team and tourists / page fans. Building a semi-independent community around the destination, tourism product or service means building a strong team of allies that will respond to unfair criticisms or to mounting questions by newcomers. Strengthening the bonds between fans and real time tourists provides fans with the opportunity to take up a truly active role, creating in the long run a truly active online community. In addition, this is a way that offers the web team input regarding good and bad practices in every part of the destination. In fact, with the future of social media being in the mobile marketing, similar real time options will be in great demand.

The authors acknowledge that research results on issues of such constantly changing nature become out of date sometimes even before they are published. Future research is therefore needed to address these points in a systematic way. At this first phase of social media use by the NTOs it should be interesting to study more thoroughly the content in their Fb pages, while an interaction related research direction would be to focus on studying the residents' perceptions and behaviour as fans of their NTOs Fb pages.

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Photo-based on-site study of urban landscape perception: Savonlinna as a tourism destination

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ABSTRACT

The main emphasis in this article is on seeing and feeling the cityscape of the Finnish city of Savonlinna. Four photographs are used to study the cityscape since in geographical research images produced through visual representations, such as photographs, have always been significant in data acquisition. Representation here refers to the description of reality. This research seeks answers to the following questions: 1) How do respondents perceive the good and bad sides of the Savonlinna cityscape and 2) How can the findings of the picture interview be used to further develop the destination by using photographs taken by a researcher. Findings based on saturated data show that respondents find the centre of Savonlinna an experiential and social space, a visual experience, a landscape experience and a landscape of intrinsic value, which was examined from the perspective of both insiders and outsiders.

Keywords: photo-based on-site study, photo elicitation, urban landscape perception, residents and tourists

INTRODUCTION

Urban tourism as a distinct phenomenon and area of research began to appear in the 1980s (Edwards et al. 2008) and during the 1990s it emerged as a significant and distinctive field of study (Pearce 2001, Ashworth 2003; Ashworth & Page 2011). Since the late 1990s questions pertaining to cities have gained prominence in social research (Äikäs 2001) and the academic interest in urban tourism is increasingly part of the culture of contemporary life (Selby 2004). The cities are moreover significant tourism destinations and many perceive this as an attraction factor from the perspective of the city's economic development (Wang et al. 2009). In addition, major urban areas perform important functions in tourism system and bring together both local people and tourists as users of attractions and infrastructure built for non-tourism purposes (Edwards et al. 2008). However, for the tourism point of view, the built-up and natural physical environment of a destination, its local culture and community spirit can be considered as the core resources (Middleton & Clarke 2001; Middleton 1997). In the case of Savonlinna the majority of visitors are drawn to the small city by its natural ambience. Proximity of rurality to the urban environment plays a crucial role in Savonlinna's tourism attractiveness as green space can be reached within less than five minutes all over the city (see Barbosa et al. 2007).

The development of the area around Savonlinna, one of the most important and popular tourism destinations in Finland, has been often discussed in the local press, focal points being the main thoroughfare known as Olavinkatu, the passenger harbour and the market square. The city administration has been active in this development through its own projects. The focus has been on top-down development in which the development work has chiefly been in the hands of officials.

The word 'scape', according to Hall (2010, 236), refers "*to a view or a scene as well as to realist and abstract representations of a view*". Yet an important part of the cityscape is that it should be a kind of experiencespace (Hall 2010, see also Selby 2004), i.e. it matters how users feel about the cityscape and how it opens up to them. Hence the purpose of this article is to provide in support of the development work on Savonlinna a users' impression of what elements should be included when the city centre is made a pleasant place for users and a tempting cityscape and environment. The research concerns not only the people of Savonlinna but also domestic and foreign visitors.

Geographically the town of Savonlinna is located in the Eastern Finland. The town is a vivid summer tourism destination, respectively in winter time the city is a lively student city. The centre is on an island and the lake and lake scenery as a waterscape (see Tuohino & Pitkänen 2004b) are an essential part of the cityscape. The city is small with 27,000 inhabitants. There is one main street (Olavinkatu) and the symbol of the city is Olavinlinna, a mediaval castle and the venue of the famous Opera festival in July. Casino Island is the main recreational area and the marketplace a lively summer destination for both locals and tourists. The places mentioned are also the main attractions of the city as well as the main places of leisure and tourism consumption (see Williams 2009).

As urban tourism brings together people, place and consumption, it provides an exciting landscape for exploration (Edwards et al. 2008), the main emphasis in this article is on seeing and feeling the cityscape. In this paper, the photos are seen as representations of space and place of Savonlinna town. Four photographs are presented to study the Savonlinna cityscape since in geographical research images produced through visual representations, such as photographs, have always been significant in data acquisition (Äikäs 2001). Representation here refers to the description of reality. In the geographical debate representation is the presentation and appearance of its object, space or event through various practices. Representation is the choice between presenting and not presenting and may be based on reality without being "real" (Aitken & Zonn 1994; Hopkins 1994; Tuohino & Pitkänen 2002; Saarinen 2001; Selby 2004.) This research seeks answers to the following questions through the gaze of locals and tourists (see e.g. Urry 1990; Selby 2004):

1) How do city centre users perceive the good and bad sides of the Savonlinna cityscape?
2) How can the findings of the picture interview be used to further develop the destination?

NATURE AND LANDSCAPE: ATTRACTION/ RESOURCE FOR SAVONLINNA

The physical environment of a tourism destination, built or natural, local culture and communality can be deemed core resources of a tourism destination (Ritchie & Crouch 2000, 2003, 2011). The resource, however, is not the product itself; it is rather the existing resources which make possible the tourism experience which constitutes the product. The attractiveness of a destination can be scrutinized in terms among other of natural surroundings, landscape, climate, culture, history, hobby facilities and accessibility (Middleton 1997; Middleton & Clarke 2001). In the case of Savonlinna the waterscape (see Tuohino & Pitkänen 2004b), the lake and the scenery are extremely important as attractiveness factors and as a setting for leisure activities for both locals and tourists.

Both landscape and place are concepts through which to analyse people's actions in relation to their environment. Landscape can be contemplated through both insider and outsider experience, whereas a place derives its significance from the individual's experience and interpretations (Meinig 1979; Tuohino & Pitkänen 2004a; Tuohino 2006) According to Raivo (1995) landscape is one's own interpretation - a landscape of the mind, which varies across people and groups of people. Factors with bearing on the birth of the mental landscape are both the environment perceived through experiences and senses and the indirect spatial representations, the products of culture. Representations of landscapes and places also express their essential, symbolic and cultural significance and a mental excursion by means of representations is, in fact, tourism in space, time and place (see Tuohino 2006, Tuohino 2008).

Space as an umbrella term refers to the geographical nature of the phenomena of nature and culture. In practice space takes the form of a landscape, a place and an environment (Häkli 1999). The landscape, area and place of humanist methodology correspondingly *"an environment felt to be important in human life, which is loved, admired and rejected, an environment which is interpreted and 'read'"* (Porteus 1990 in Häkli 1999:82). In the tourism context this implies the examination of place and area as a social space and from the perspective of the offering of tourist destinations (producing the space and the place breaking it up, area and landscape) and touristic demand (consumption of space) (Gottdiener 2000; Saarinen 2004; Williams 2009). Since in human geography the stress is on subjective experiences, what are at the core of social space are the socially constructed factors affecting the individual's subjective experience of space (Tuohino 2008).

In tourism the significance of the landscape increases as impressive natural landscapes are typical sights. Landscape can be conceived of as a concrete geographical area and as immaterial observation. This dichotomy entails the examination of both subject and object and the analysis of the relation between them. The landscape value can be considered to be the relationship of meaning between the individual observing the landscape and the object of observation (Jacobsen 2007).

Landscapes become touristic places through the meanings attached to them. In addition to meaning, tourism forms more extensive culture-bound processes of consumption and production among travellers and service producers (Squire 1994). Thus landscape is the object of the touristic gaze (Urry 1990). The gaze is emphatically representative, as an effort is made to distinguish from the landscape signs which specifically serve the purposes of tourism and matters which are detached from the mundane (Korhonen 2002).

In this article we scrutinize in more detail the definition of concepts through the cityscape. The observational basis of the (city)landscape is from the outset based on what is sensed, seen, heard or smelled. Yet the observation cannot be a purely physical, objective experience, but comes into being only through sensed interpretation and is thus inseparable from that interpretation (Tuohino & Pitkänen 2004a; Tuohino 2006). The cityscape assumes its concrete form in action, corporeal experience or sensual experience, for example, through a walk in the street or a trip to market in summer. As a landscape the cityscape offers the operating environment for living or leisure activity in which we find ourselves. As an experiential space the cityscape is defined among others as streets, business premises, parks, market squares, harbour and it is spoken of through experiences, recollections, feelings and activity. It can be laid claim to by walking, cruising or taking coffee on the market. As a social space and experiential experience the cityscape takes form among others as a source of subjective experiences.

In the scrutiny of cityscape in the article we see reflected both Karjalainen's (1995) three perspectives on the scientific research of landscape and its processing. The landscape of the photographs can be addressed not only externally as a landscape but also as a landscape for each of us or as a landscape in a photograph. The meanings of the landscape, the content of the mind and the forms of the land and the colours emerge. The landscape comes across to the beholder both visually – sensed and seen – and subjectively through subjective experiences, memories and interpretations.

The Savonlinna landscape can be contemplated through both outsiders and insiders. Outsiders and insiders "see" it in different ways. For insiders the landscape is a place, part of the self whereas an outsider sees it from a distance. The outsider notes those parts of the landscape which attract attention, but has no personal relationship to this unknown environment (Relph 1976; Meinig 1979). Relph (1976) distinguishes four types of insiders according to how their sensation of belonging to the place is formed. Experiencing the place through photographs can be deemed indirect insidership in Relph's definition, as there is no physical contact to it. Participation in the photograph interview can be considered behavioural as experiencing the place is accompanied by an immediate feeling – of being in the cityscape. For some there may also be an empathetic insidership, respect for values and feelings associated with the place.

RESEARCH METHODS

In social sciences and tourism research the photograph has previously meant a new and more unbiased way of capturing reality. The photograph is not problematized as a representation, but is seen as a tool for the acquisition of knowledge (see e.g. Äikäs 2001). Only with the so-called linguistic turn of social sciences in the late 1990s has attention been paid to the role of the photograph in the construction of reality. In tourism research the significance of the photograph has increased since the 1990s (for example Dann 1996; Echtner 1999; Jenkins 2003; Timothy & Groves 2001; Tuohino & Pitkänen 2004a; Tuohino 2006, 2008; Andersson Cederholm 2012; Scarles 2012). As Jacobsen (2007, pp. 247) states *"photo-based landscape perception and assessment methods are definitely applicable for the study of tourism-related landscapes."*

According to Seppänen (1997) the significance of the photograph as an object of social sciences research is justified. As a societal phenomenon the photograph has become one of mankind's main ways of depicting reality. Photographic representations do not merely present the object pictured, but also the images to be pursued or excluded and those meanings and values which photographer and viewer consider to belong to the pictures. Touristic representations are based on the symbols of places, cultures, activities and attractions and on meanings. These representations of space may be based on "reality" without being real or irrefutable on an objective level. The messages conveyed by the representations may contain various meanings and they can be interpreted in different ways using different interpretation strategies (Mackay 1997; Miller 1997; Morgan & Pritchard 1998; Saarinen 1998; Tuohino & Pitkänen 2004a).

Echtner and Ritchie (1993, 2003) claim that a structured questionnaire is efficient for measuring images based on attributions and general components, but is extremely ill suited to the scrutiny of unique, holistic components of images. There are many unstructured ways of gathering research data. This includes content analyses and both visual and written information, interactive individual, or group interviews, free elicitation, triad elicitation and photo elicitation (Jenkins 1999; Harper 2002; Shani & Wang 2011, Andersson Cederholm 2012). In the present study in connection with picture interviews the last-named method was used in which the researcher became the listener as the interviewee interpreted the photograph (Loeffler 2004; see also Harper 2002). In addition photo-based on-site enquiries in the case of a tourism study would be deemed an advantage because respondents would be near the landscapes in question and photographs cam be regarded as a valid surrogate for the real landscape in the context of sightseeing (Jacobsen 2007).

As an exception to the frequently used Visitor-Employed-Photography (VEP) method (see e.g. Stedman et al. 2004; MacKay & Couldwell 2004; Garrod 2008; Shani & Wang 2011) in the present study one of the authors took the photographs used as a tool of the analysis him/herself. The points of interest were chosen in public discussion, among others the bottlenecks to the further development of Savonlinna raised, for example, in the letters to the editor in local newspapers. The subjects photographed represent the so-called "pleasure zones" of Savonlinna, such as the public green space of Casino Island, the marketplace and the passenger harbour, which are all also aspects of the consumption of space (see Gottdiener 2000).

In consumer research it is possible to conduct qualitative research using open-ended questions. In this case the opinions of a small number of people are elicited on a given subject. The research can be implemented either as a focus group interview or individual interviews. (Middleton 2001) In the present study individual interviews were chosen because this has been found to be more appropriate given the resources available.

Data was collected in summer 2007 in the centre of Savonlinna. A few responses were also obtained through an electronic questionnaire in the Internet sent by links to email addresses. These email addresses were obtained from respondents who did not have time to respond to the questions in the interview situation but who were interested in participating later. The questionnaire was implemented in the centre of Savonlinna by showing respondents pictures of the Savonlinna area and writing down their responses on paper. Responses were collected by interviewing passers-by at random in an area less than one square kilometre in the centre of town in June and July. For each photograph we asked our interviewees three questions: What is good in this picture, what is bad and what things in your opinion need developing from the perspective of wellbeing tourism? The questionnaire was divided into two parts in such a way that the first part included three pictures and the second four pictures. This prevented the questionnaire from being too long. A total of 85 people responded to the questions on the first three pictures and 83 responded to the questions on the three last pictures. All in all there were 168 respondents, of whom 16 were foreigners. Not all respondents responded to all questions, thus there were some missing responses. In the present article we concentrate on four out of seven pictures and the data obtained on them. These four pictures were chosen because they represent most variability in the answers.

DATA ANALYSIS

The data were analyses in data-centred manner – i.e. the classification of the data took place in interaction with the interpretation of the data (see Finn et al. 2000; Veal 2006). According to Carlson (2008), content analysis is useful when the aim is to identify patterns, frequencies or potential categories. In this study the categories were known, but in order to identify frequencies content analysis was used to quantify answers.

The interview responses were gone through picture by picture and the responses fed into a computer, where they were colour-coded with an Excel table program and grouped according to background variables. These responses were quantified, that is, the frequencies were calculated to describe the structure of the data more precisely and to facilitate data analysis.

RESPONDENTS' PROFILE

The profiles of the respondents are presented in Table 1. Altogether 166 respondents provided their background information. Of the respondents (n = 166) among those resident in Savonlinna region 61.1 percent were women while 52.8 percent of tourists were women. Respondents were divided by age into young (under 30), middle-aged (30-55 years) and older people (over 55 years) in order to have enough respondents in all groups. The age profile of Savonlinna residents divided evenly into 28.6 percent young and 39.6 percent middle-aged. Among the tourists the age distribution favoured young people (42.5% and middle-aged 46.6%).

More than half the respondents (55.4%) were from the Savonlinna area. Less than one fifth were from elsewhere in eastern Finland (15.7%). The remaining Finnish respondents were from the administrative areas of western Finland, the metropolitan area (6.6% of both) and Oulu (1.2%) or from other parts of southern Finland. Foreigners accounted for 9.6 percent of all the respondents and 21.6 percent of tourists.

More than half (55.4%) of Savonlinna respondents lived in the centre. Of those from the Savonlinna area there were more suburban dwellers (38%) or housing estate residents than among the tourists. Only a small part of the Savonlinna respondents came from the sparsely populated areas or built-up areas/municipal centre (6.6%). From the tourists 47.9 percent reported living in a city centre, 19.2 percent in a municipal centre or built-up area and 17.8 percent in an urban suburb.

Table 1: Respondents' profile (N=166)

	Savonlinna area	Tourists
Gender		
Male	35 (38.9 %)	34 (47.2 %)
Female	55 (61.1 %)	38 (52.8 %)
Age		
Less than 30 years old	26 (28.6 %)	31 (42.5 %)
30 to 55 years old	35 (38.5 %)	34 (46.6 %)
More than 55 years old	30 (33.0 %)	8 (11.0 %)
Region		
Savonlinna region	92 (100.0 %)	
Other part of Eastern Finland		26 (35.1%)
Western Finland		11 (14.9%)
The metropolitan area (Helsinki)		11 (14.9 %)
Southern Finland		8 (10.8 %)
Oulu region		2 (2.7 %)
Foreign		16 (21.6%)
Living environment		
City centre	52 (56.5 %)	35 (47.9 %)
Urban suburb	34 (37.0 %)	13 (17.8 %)
Municipal centre	3 (3.3 %)	14 (19.2 %)
Rural area	3 (3.3 %)	11 (15.1 %)

RESULTS OF THE PHOTOGRAPH INTERVIEW

This section presents the main results of the photograph interviews for the four photographs included in the analysis. The pictures show the Savonlinna passenger harbour, the main thoroughfare called Olavinkatu, the recreation area Casino Island and the market square. All of these are within one square kilometre of the centre and are important regarding how the local population and visitors feel about Savonlinna.

Photo 1: Savonlinna passenger harbour

In total 78 respondents mentioned the good sides of Photograph 1. Of the elements it contained those pertaining to nature (n = 50) and landscape (n = 17) were most commonly mentioned. The old steamers were perceived to be good; likewise the landscape was deemed pretty, open, beautiful and good. The landscape was also called tidy, spacious, peaceful and wide. One of the respondents called the landscape *"easy on the eye"*. Many respondents mentioned the lake scenery as a good side in this photograph. The main attributes pertaining to nature were verdant, lake, water, trees and park. Opinions were divided on the big light-coloured Malmiranta building; some found that it fitted in the environment while other found it incongruous.

The landscape of the photograph was also perceived as a functional space. Good sides mentioned included the many potential uses: people can walk by the water, take a cruise or meet friends. The passenger harbour is also a place for socializing, drinking and dining.

In total 59 respondents mentioned bad sides. Some (n = 14) called the "high building" a bad side. The street and shore were found dismal, especially due to a lack of flowers. Some found the landscape colourless and dull, and would have wished for more than only forest and traffic. In addition to the traffic and cars the small number of benches and the poor condition of the asphalt and the shore area were also mentioned as bad sides (n = 11). The lack of car parks and the parking arrangements and large waste containers were a also negative aspects

Development proposals for the landscape were made by 63 respondents, mostly calling for more flowerbeds and greenery and pleasant surroundings. Several respondents (n=16) wanted the cars in the picture to be removed from the street passing the harbour. Others wanted the area to be developed for the use of pedestrians. There was also a call for more restaurants, bars, and cafés and ice-cream booths. Asphalt over the light traffic lane was deemed important and a facelift for the harbour area. A wooden jetty was proposed. People wanted more seating by the shore, information points and signposts to the castle of Olavinlinna. A few respondents proposed using the nearby islands for recreation and building shelters. One respondent proposed *"Renew the asphalt and structures, Move the pleasure boat moorings further along the shore. Get rid of the rocky islet in the harbour. Extend the marketplace and harbour towards the lake."*

Picture 2: The main street called Olavinkatu

In total 56 respondents mentioned good sides of the picture. The trees and greenery were most praised (n = 23). About a quarter of the respondents also liked the lively bustling picture of the town and the large number of people. Many perceived the large numbers of cars as tourists and liked the effect of tourists on the economy. Other good sides perceived were the shops and the number of these. The fish booth outside the picture and the traffic arrangements were also praised by individual respondents. According to one of these *"A typical picture of Savonlinna in summer"*.

Bad sides were mentioned by 70 respondents, most of them referred to the traffic, the congestion and cars. Many thought that little note had been taken of pedestrians and cyclists. The department store wall was considered ugly and the department store a monstrosity. Attitudes to this picture are exemplified in *"Too many cars and too little attention to pedestrians."*

In all 62 respondents made development proposals. These included less and more free flowing traffic. Some people proposed closing off the left turn to improve the traffic. A few wanted more greenery such as a row of trees on the other side of the street. Many assumed that the completion of the bypass would alleviate the traffic problem. Some called for a proper pedestrian mall in Savonlinna, with a lot of shops and no vehicular access. People wanted more light traffic lanes and better looking streets; more flowers and shrubs. More attention should be paid to facades and things would look better if these were renewed and made to look more alike.

Picture 3: The beach on Casino Island

A total of 78 respondents mentioned good sides. The landscape was called beautiful, fine, wonderful, splendid, peaceful, natural and clean, and even enjoyable. People found the natural surroundings, water, islands, rocky islets and in general the whole thing good. Some mentioned walking by the shore and others taking exercise there as good sides in this picture. The trails on the island were well liked. The picture shows a beach which many people said was good for swimming: *"A perfect place for relaxation and swimming"*.

Only 24 respondents mentioned what was bad in the picture, and four of these said “nothing”. Opinion was divided on the jetty and changing rooms – some people found them appropriate to the setting and others found them ugly. Two people considered rowdy behaviour by young people a bad thing on Casino Island. Another pointed out the lack of rescue equipment.

In all 48 respondents evinced ideas for the development of the island. Many called for services, ice-cream or other refreshments to be available, sauna or smoke sauna on the shore, the option to rent water transport – a boat and various services for tourists and children. Regarding the bathing facilities they wanted a raft to which one could swim out and calculate the distance swum. Respondents also wished to preserve the peaceful landscape and hoped that no cabins would be built on the island. People wanted signs as seen in the picture in more places. They also wanted seats by the shore.

Picture 4: Marketplace

Nearly all 65 respondents mentioned good sides in Picture 4. Most of them concerned the marketplace as a physical environment and, the image of the marketplace and the feeling there. It was described as fine, original, colourful, personal, ordinary, small tidy, manysided, good, pleasant, fairly enjoyable, restful, lively bustling and active. Individual respondents called the goods on sale sufficient and the stalls good. One respondent raised the cafés as a good thing. Many respondents praised the Osuuspankki bank clock and its flowerbeds, noting that it was a good meeting point. The bridge also received praise (not in the picture) the adverts for the opera festival and the wide light traffic lane. Many also like the location of the marketplace as they thought that the marketplace is centrally and uniquely situated. There was also praise for the benches and ramps by step around the marketplace, likewise for the well cared-for flowerbeds and tidiness. Some respondents also found the lake view opening from the marketplace a good thing. Some of the respondents found the marketplace a good place for locals while others thought it was good especially for tourists. According to one respondent *"The marketplace is the heart of the town"*.

On the negative side some aspects concerned the physical environment. A few people mentioned the pillars with adverts in this connection, and many mentioned the cramped space of the marketplace and the booths erected too close to each other. Some people mentioned the shortage of car parks in the centre and the cost of these. A few disliked the clock tower built by the bank and one respondent referred to it as a war memorial. There was some indication of a desire for more and better flowerbeds but others were content that there were any at all. Some people found the market too expensive and always offering the same products.

A total of 49 respondents had ideas for improving the marketplace. They wanted it operate year-round so as to have action not only in July. One respondent wanted to change the place as the present location is too cold in winter. Size was the main focus for improvement with over ten respondents wanting to enlarge it in the direction of the harbour and onto the lake. Some people called for new benches and new café seating. Other wanted more uniformity among the booths, for example by using the same canvas. The same applied to the coffee and fish booths. The tent for salmon roasted by an open fire (in Finnish liekkilohi) was felt to look incongruous. Respondents wanted terraces for the cafés, possibly built on the lake. One respondent called for more trees around the marketplace and two for more flowerbeds. More events were also requested and a few people wanted to have the clock made higher, while other wanted to have the bank logo removed.

FINDINGS AND FURTHER DISCUSSIONS

There has been lively discussion around Savonlinna in the past few years on improving the centre of town. The city administration has also initiated activities geared to improving the centre and these are intended to make it more pleasant and attractive. Against this background we conducted this research to find out how locals and tourists feel about the centre of Savonlinna - what is good and what could be better and on the other hand how the responses could be utilized as a tool in making that improvement. the most salient results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Most relevant findings

	Picture 1: Savonlinna passenger harbour	Picture 2: The main street	Picture 3: Casino Island	Picture 4: Marketplace
Positive sides	Nature Landscape Scenery Lake Water Trees Place for walking Taking a cruise Meeting friends	Trees and greenery Atmosphere Tourists Shops	Nature Water Islands Walking by the shore Swimming	Atmosphere Physical environment Goods for sale Stalls Cafés Central clock Bridge Location Benches and accessibility Lake view Tourist attraction
Negative sides	Some of the buildings Lack of flowers Colourless and dull landscape Traffic	Traffic Cars Buildings	Changing rooms Young people Lack of rescue equipment	Advertisements Cramped space Shortage of car parks Central clock More flowers Goods for sale
Development ideas	More flowers and greenery Cars removed Pedestrian area development More restaurants More seating and info points and signposts	Less traffic More greenery More light traffic lanes More flowers and shrubs Renovating buildings	Services A raft for calculating swimming distance Preserve landscape Seats	Year-round operation Location Enlarging market place More similarity and development between booths New benches More trees and flowers

The findings of the photograph interview show that respondents find the centre of Savonlinna an experiential and social space, a visual experience, a landscape experience and a landscape of intrinsic value, which was examined from the perspective of both insiders and outsiders. For some respondents the landscape pictured was more of a physical operating environment in which to sojourn and to spend time, while for others it was more of an object for observation and aesthetic contemplation. In this case the responses emphasized special features of the landscape, feeling, scenic elements and development suggestions. As a functional space the landscape was contemplated especially through activities, that is, one can take in the landscape by walking and cruising. It was perceived as a social space as a place to meet friends and spend time. Juvenile rowdiness on Casino Island can likewise be seen as an example of a negation of social norms and consumption of space. The representational dimension of the landscape pictured emerged in the way some respondents looked at it through touristic eyes. No direct subjective experiences of space consumption or empathy towards the place portrayed emerged.

As a whole the data served to invoke the comments in which the landscape photographs were pictured as a concrete area rather from the perspective of a resource than as immaterial observations. The last mentioned represent comments on how the marketplace is experienced as the heart of the town's life.

Photographic representations do not merely portray the object photographed, but also those images which are not included and those meanings and values which the viewer and photographer associate with the pictures. Natives of the Savonlinna area in particular mentioned what was not to be seen in the pictures. Such interpretations, for example the lack of benches or poor asphalt quality in relation to Picture 1 and the fish booth mentioned in connection with Picture 2 and the suggestions for improving the façade of the department store, the trails in connection with Picture 3 and the comments on rowdy young people, the car parks in connection with Picture 4 and the market offering and the high prices or Liekkilohi tent were based on respondents' own experiences and observations in a familiar cityscape. The same emerged in situations in which respondents analysed the local geography of the place and the relations of places through their own knowledge.

The significance of waterscapes, the lake and the lake scenery, was also stressed in respondents' views and mentioned invariably as good sides. This is no doubt because Savonlinna attracts tourists who like lakes. On the other hand the passenger harbour and the road by the lake were deemed dismal, which detracts from the charm of the lake. Lake activities also emerged, especially those on and around Casino Island. The sensual experience of the coldness of the marketplace in winter also emerged in an interesting way.

The data is saturated for the respective pictures; that is, the same responses recur. Yet the subject is so wide that each new picture raised some new aspect for this study. Three pictures not included in the study are also from popular tourist attractions in Savonlinna and the responses to them are very similar to those to the four pictures included in this study. All the pictures represent Savonlinna in summer, which is the peak tourism season in the region. Gathering new responses during other seasons would most definitely produce different kinds of answers. However, at this point respondents' views during summer were regarded as most important.

For tourism enterprises in the Savonlinna area the research findings raise many things to be improved on but also many things that are already positive. There was a certain amount of contradiction in the responses, as witnessed in the clock on the marketplace. Not everything can be changed, such as the appearance of a building, at least not in the short term. For the municipal decision-makers the findings provide grassroots information on how people perceive the town and how this could be improved to be pleasanter and more attractive. The responses also support those views and discussions emerging in the press.

From a methodological perspective the photograph interviews can be deemed successful due to their practicality and ease of use. As we planned to elicit locals' and visitors' views on various elements of the cityscape there is at this time no need for a more profound phenomenographic examination (see Selby 2004).

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Human nature and the cultural challenges of sustainability in geotourism

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ABSTRACT

Tourism has an ever increasing appeal to those societies or social strata, which can afford it. It temporarily relocates millions of people within the same cultural area or to areas of different cultures. Yet, this process is far from being sustainable or eco-friendly. To make tourism sustainable is the intention, hope and wish of a portion of human population, which makes effort in that direction. The other part of humanity is intent on pursuing pleasure through tourism (Hughes 1995) and exploiting (directly or indirectly) the gifts, which nature, a culture, or processes linked to tourism, can offer. In the present day tourism the landscape, people, culture or built environment are seen as resources for leisure (Wilson 1992). This makes tourism a process that can erode the visited sites and cultures. The paper discusses some of the value related issues related to achieving sustainable geotourism.

Keywords: geotourism, heritage, depletion, culture, value systems, sustainability

INTRODUCTION

Sustainability was a naturally occurring process, until human intervention into natural processes and resources became too intensive for the natural regulation systems to correct. Presently sustainability is a rediscovered state. The first widely known and acknowledged Report on sustainable development was done by the World Commission on Environment (the Brundtland Report), published in 1987. Subsequently countries defined their sustainability strategies (see e.g. the Slovakian sustainable development strategy of 2001). The Brundtland Report defines sustainable development as the one "which meets the needs of current generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs". There have been countless discussions about the merits and demerits of the Report, and criticisms have been voiced regarding its difficult-to-quantify formulation. Hughes (1996) showed that the drive to establish sustainability in our modern life has two lines. One is of value oriented and the other science oriented. Their relative merits will be discussed later.

In tourism, regulation towards sustainability is very difficult as it is an area with a great number of facets and stakeholders. The number of tourism related organizations that provide services to tourists is extensive. Some are large, some very small. Their institutional culture and value systems may differ radically. Similarly, service providers at various starting, transit and end destinations have different institutional cultures, too. Finally tourists coming from different cultures have different expectations and value systems (including different interaction types with natural or built environment). Problems stemming from cultural differences were defined also by the UNESCO Universal declaration on cultural diversity (2001) and projected into executable steps in Pedersen (2002). Nevertheless, there is still a great number of ambiguities and sources of conflict between hosting cultures and tourists. Some of them were assessed in Donohoe (2010).

In order to predict the characteristics of tourists and possible areas of conflicts, tourist typologies could be applied. Geotourists would belong to the *diversionary* (escapist), *experiential* (looking for meaning of life), *experimental* (experiencing different lifestyles) and less frequently *existential* (living like a native) types (Cohen 2004). Each of these types have a different approach to the visited environment.

From a “hard” point of view, sustainability has to be defined in terms of carrying capacity, limits of acceptable change and by a number of computable parameters (cf. Pederson 2002, Timčák et al. 2008). From the „soft” point of view, problems related to sustainability and the impact of tourism are centred mainly around human traits like carelessness, low degree of cultural adaptability and tendency to impose one’s own cultural value system on others, specific likes and dislikes, consumerism, hedonism, a thirst to own or to access even the inaccessible. The service providers usually try co comply with the client driven demands and thus may deepen the impact of tourism on nature and cultures (Pedersen 2002, Hughes 1995, Dowling, Newsome 2006).

TOURISTS INTERACTION WITH THE NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Erich Fromm, when he posed the question, what is more important to have or to be (Fromm 1976), connected unknowingly also to one of the main problems of tourism and thus also of geotourism. Ideally, tourism is an area, where the product is abstract, cannot be taken away, but can be enjoyed in real time. An enjoyable human environment, beautiful architecture, nice cultural programme, nice landscape, beautiful sea, wonderful view, or high adrenalin programmes - all can be enjoyed, but are bound to stay in place when the tourist leaves (cf. Pedersen 2002, Horner, Swarbroke 2003). Or is this not the complete truth?

Ideally, the tourists should be happy with taking home their impression from the environment they have been in, impressions of local culture, food, drinks, gifts, entertainment, as well as their photos or videos. They may also acquire local products. In addition, however, some tourists like to prove their presence by making graffiti or carvings on surfaces – be it man made or natural one. Others take home a handful of sand or rocks or a small stalactite or a twig, a conch, a sea star, flower or butterfly. Sometimes they take away fragments of artworks and archaeological artefacts. All this may be collected on site or purchased in shops. The bought items may be genuine or fake, legally or illegally owned. Such ownership is at times tolerated at other times legally forbidden (cf Dawling, Newsome 2006).

In geotourism, a part of the tourist is geologically oriented. They would chip away rock specimens or collect samples of minerals. If 500 000 tourists of this type visit an area and every one chips away 300g of rocks, it means that 150 tons of material was removed. It is not a randomly or evenly distributed depletion, but it concentrates along areas which are seen as geologically important. Thus the landscape will change year by year and will be depleted in its most valuable assets. Below are some examples of this type of tourist reflex:

A colleague of mine was writing a guide book for tourists (Dobra et al. 2004). When I saw the manuscript, I asked, whether he made a note of ancient flintstone tool workshops in the area. As he did not, he asked me to write a short note on it. I made it and mentioned that flint tools are often found near old trees in the area (op. cit. p.25). Some time after the book was published, I was trekking in the area. To my surprise I found that the surrounding of many old trees was pitted with holes made by wild collectors. So little did they think about the reason of the flint tools being near old trees that they did not venture to the nearby freshly tilled fields, where I could find tens of flint tools within a couple of minutes and without disturbing the roots of the trees.

In Slovakia, in the Herl'any area there have been abundant wood and flesh opal outcrops (Dobra et al. 2004, p. 24). Due to publications that gave their location, at present, all are depleted by wild collectors and only small fragments can be found in the creeks in the vicinity of the outcrops.

In Iceland, near Geyser, a skeleton of a huge whale was displayed. It had a nice set of teeth that we admired. In two weeks time, when we returned to the same spot, nearly all the teeth have been removed by some wild collectors. The skull now looked like a piece of garbage (Figure1). This of course can be written off or replaced, but it shows the careless or aggressive approach to values.

In the Krafla area (Iceland), beautiful lava formations could be observed. After about 10 years, the small craters had a different look – apart from weathering, many people took souvenirs from that place. The sight of broken rock faces decreases the aesthetic value of the locality (Figure 2).

Figure 1: The skull of a whale after a collector broke out its teeth

Figure 2: A small vent in the Krafla area. It is fragmented by weathering, collectors and tourists.

In the Petrified Forest National Park in N-E Arizona (USA), hundreds of thousands of visitors take away about 1 tonne of petrified wood annually (Dawling, Newsome 2006, p. 17)

Other geotourists are attracted to mountaineering (of whatever type). They usually chip away rocks during climbing (e.g. when driving bolts or developing stands), or when clearing loose rocks from their path. They also remove vegetation from their way. They tend to leave behind foreign substances (chalk, litter, excrements). Very often they are noisy and thus disturb animals. Even the most non-invasive geotourists leave their imprints behind and apart from disturbing animals, they compact the soil, produce noise pollution that is affecting all living forms, they leave there their litter, bacterial flora sample, seeds of plants, and imprints of their particular culture (Pederson 2002, Timcak et al. 2010).

At present rural tourism is considered to be “A sleeping giant” (cf. Froncova, Timcak 2009). Geological sites are usually in the countryside. Thus rural tourism and geotourism very often blend into one joint product. Clients of rural tourism usually go to countryside because they want a rest (escape from technical civilisation), to explore the local culture (wine, food, folklore, history etc.) or to have a base near the natural or geological features that are of interest to them. The client is most frequently the one, who determines to a great extent the type of service provided to him. His needs are met by adjusting little by little the local culture. His needs may change the local infrastructure and architecture. Due to tourism, the way of life of the local communities can change beyond recognition and becomes as consumer oriented as the one from which the clients have come. In fact mis-adjustment to consumer needs or purposely making say access more difficult to a site tends to decrease the number of visitors (cf. Pedersen 2002).

In the areas with tourist resorts all over the world, we can see that the local culture has changed or is undergoing significant changes. Tourism became a way of making living. The artefacts are no longer made for use, but for sale and thus underwent a process of commoditisation. Their functional side is giving way to affordable imitation. The local culture is gradually replaced by “international culture” and the local culture became a tourist attraction only (Barabas 2004). When the destination is worn out, the local culture may die out. The moment it happens, the very attractor has vanished and the destination may diversify, but the local flavour has ceased to exist. There may be efforts to revive it, but it may never be in its original form (Pedersen 2002). This happens also in Europe, where e.g. in Slovakia, due to structural changes in the last decades, farmers who knew the traditional farming technologies is almost impossible to find and rural tourism largely misses participation in traditional agricultural processes.

QUESTIONS OF HUMAN AGGRESSION

We observe a massive rise of children taking drugs, drinking alcohol, smoking, and above all a rising aggression and violence (Pfeiffer 1998, Drug use 2007, Youth violence 1994). Adults show a somewhat similar trend. This evoked in the EU a legislative response (Rules 2007). The tone of the media (written, verbal or visual) gets more and more close to the uncultured varieties of the “language of the street”. As reading is becoming less popular, the vocabulary and style gets more influenced by the visual media. From the media products, the ones full of aggression tend to be the most popular. Thus they exert an ever increasing influence directed towards aggressive ways of tackling problems. Such shift from non-violence to violence was observed e.g. in the remote Himalayan state of Mustang (Barabas 2001).

In case of children, many times it is the lack of “work-load” (the need to help parents, need to work, need to face challenge, need to cope with real problems) and “boredom” that brings the aggression forward. Another factor is that parents in developed countries – in order to support the level of welfare that they have – need to spend a lot of time at work-related activities. Thus they have less time to play, speak or do joint projects with their children (cf. Morgan 2009). By that, an incorrect model and role playing gets fixed in the mind (Freud called that part of the personality structure the “Superego”, cf. Drapela 1998) and in adulthood, they will continue to “play” according to that model, albeit enriched by patterns acquired later.
What is promising though is the surprising change of behaviour, when some trouble or catastrophe occurs. It was noted that in cities like Paris and Budapest, during public transport employee strikes, suddenly drivers gave lifts to unknown people going the same direction; people started talking to each other and became observant of the needs of others. In case of catastrophes, a part of the people exhibits a highly humane/altruistic behaviour, whereas others start looting. That was visible e.g., after the earthquake in Hawaii, in 2010. The co-operating mood stops unfortunately, after the problem gets resolved and people can rush in the habitual way. Nevertheless, it shows the effectiveness of the Jungian model of human personality (cf. Jung 1984, Drapela 1998).

The challenge is how to evoke in people (and thus in tourists, too) the supportive response and not the aggressive response. Human history indicates that without an ingrained ethical framework this is very difficult to achieve.

MINIMISING TOURISM IMPACT

The first tourists seem to have been explorers and merchants. When they travelled to areas, where the local cultures were maintained without much contact with the outer world, they usually discovered that indigenous people saw themselves as "managers" of the land/nature and their cultural system included also the spiritual sphere (gods or God, mythology, rituals, spiritual culture). Their relationship with this sphere was ruled by principles of spiritual culture. Such cultures can be found even at present (cf Bulík et al. 2011). Usually the spiritual sphere was placed above nature and humans. In this model, nature responded to the impulses from the spiritual realm and humans (as a special part of the nature) had to read the signs directly or indirectly and act accordingly. Reference to the realm of spirit created certain rules and barriers. As mentioned, humans did not consider themselves as "owners" and "masters" of nature like in modern civilisations. Thus e.g. in the Hindu culture, there is a term "rta" – which means a (universal) order that is to be kept at all times. Another interesting term is "dharma" – a way of behaving and acting that reflects the unique, just path of the individual through life. The implication of this aspect of social behaviour in tourism is discussed e.g. in Hughes (1995). Thus it is one of the aims of sustainable tourism to have responsible tourists, who care for the sites they visit.

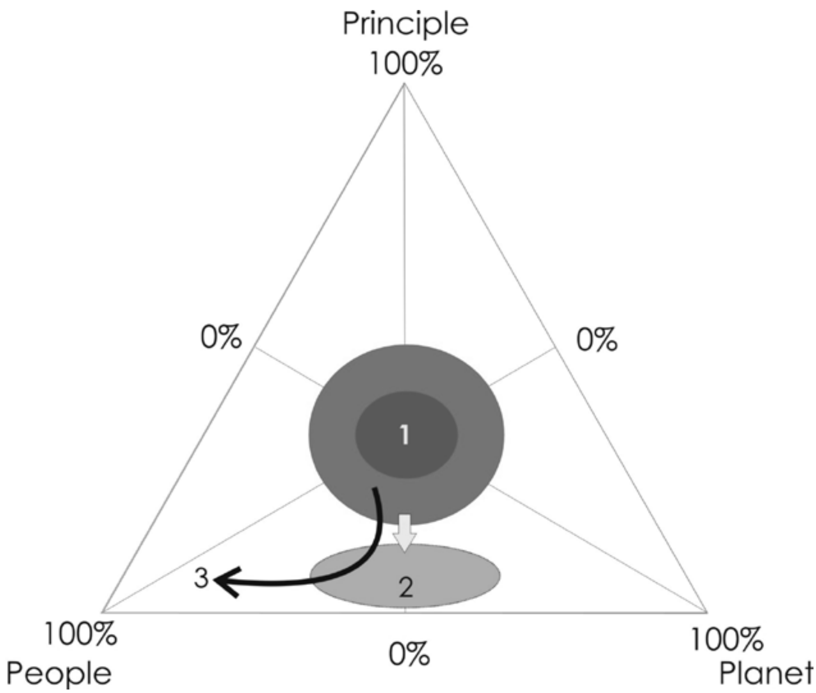

Figure 3: The PPP diagram (P+P+P=100%) of ancient cultures. The state of equilibrium is the "1" domain. When the "Principle" component - that stands for ethical, spiritual values or rta -diminishes (2), people tend to care only for their interest (3).

In India, where the concept of rta was developed, at present it is only some of the orthodox people, who seem to adhere to the principles of rta and dharma. In "natural cultures", such as some South American or African tribes (cf. Guenther 1999, Bulik 2011) behaviour of this type can still be found (see A. Ereira 1990, 1992). Thus e.g. the Kogi Indians cooperated with nature in a way different from the exploiting manner of the modern civilizations. They tried to maintain the integrity of nature. The Kogis, like other indigenous people also made "tourist" trips to surrounding areas, but left little carbon footprint behind (as given e.g. in Palmer, 1998). We can see in Fig.3 that in this model, when all the information and processes are in place, people and nature are in balance. When the concept of spiritual values and related principles disappear from the mind of the majority of people, the shift of balance results in nature being taken as a property (or a system) to be governed by momentary human needs (area 3 in Fig.3). This happens when humans start disassociate themselves from nature and embark the path of "mastering" the nature or "ruling" over it (cf. Lash, Urry 1994, Hughes 1995). Rivers were diverted, dams constructed, mountains mined away, ecosystems changed. The number of humans increased from about an estimated 5 million in 10 000BC to about 200 millions in 1AD, to 1 billion in 1800 and to 6 billions in 2000. Thus, the ecological load increased many thousand times, even without industrial activity.

The age of science and technology with its fascinating results has led people to believe that the rate of industrial and economic development can be increased infinitely. That was especially true in the COMECON countries, where people were indoctrinated to "rule nature". The development in the Western culture was similar, though less ideologically influenced. This resulted also in the change of attitude to tourism. The growth of tourism destinations brought Western and later global tourists in ever increasing numbers also to virgin areas. These areas attract especially because of the mystery of unknown around them (Grove-White 1993, Barabas et al. 2004). In 2008 globally, nearly 1 billion tourists travelled to their destinations.

Lash and Urry (1994) estimated that by the end of the 20th Century tourism will be the most important industry. This is not yet true, but as the service sector is strengthening, this may become true later in the 21st Century – provided that there are areas which are still attractive to tourists. Even though the concept of sustainable tourism has started to evolve in the 1970s, the education of tourists and service providers to the principles of sustainability, or "responsibility" is an ongoing, unfinished process even now. The Final Report of the World Eco-tourism Summit (2002) gives an awe inspiring list of problems and challenges to be met. Thus when tourists – due to ignorance of the impact of their deed, or through negligence - feel that there is no problem in carving or spraying inscriptions on natural or man made objects, chipping away rocks, collecting minerals or fossils, catching or buying animals or their body parts, collecting items from local flora or fauna, and bring it home, or they behaved in a way that indicated their cultural or technological superiority over the host culture, they contributed to the deterioration of that site or attraction.

In some cultures the local habits appear to be cruel by our standards (human fights to death, bull fight, dog fight, cock fight, etc.). In such situation tourists could contribute to a more considerate way of treating an attraction by refusing to participate on such activities.

In the Chinese culture peeling off the skin of living snakes is acceptable, even though it imposes deadly pain to the animal. This can be witnessed e.g. at Taipei bazaars. Some tourists try the snake blood and/or meat as there is a putative health benefit to it.

Killing or cutting still living whales, dolphins (e.g. in Japan, but also in other areas with whaling culture), clubbing seal cubs (e.g. in Canada) by locals or "tourists" evoke protests, but reflects the basic attitude that humans "are entitled" to torture or hunt animals in numbers far beyond the real needs (sometimes to extinction).

POINTING TOWARDS A SOLUTION

The concept of sustainable or responsible tourism has still a number of fuzzy areas (cf. e.g. Hughes 1995). From the point of view of host country, sustainable tourism should evolve around empowering the local people and make them feel (and adhere to) the value of their own culture. Simultaneously the aim is to uplift the welfare of the locals and to enable gaining education for the young generation. Such education should have a strong emphasis on local culture and values. However, the globally available models of educational content and format tend to distance the young generation from their traditional knowledge and philosophical system.

The requirement that tourists should enjoy the local culture but not to impose their own culture or value system on the locals is very difficult to implement as the relative affluence of tourists as well as the availability of the TV and Internet, soon "contaminates" the whole local culture and the indigenous people – instead of preferring Erik Fromm's "to be", would opt for the "to have". Further, as the media usually give the impression that Western civilisation is full of desirable items and processes, traditional principles, ethical principles and cultural frames are being weathered away. Subsequently, the indigenous people start abandoning their culture and adopt (in whatever way they can) the Western model of life (cf. Bulik 2011). The model of frugality is very difficult to upkeep if everyone around overuses resources.

Hughes (1995) argues that present day "natural" landscapes are already reworked by humans: "There is nothing 'natural' about the various landscapes valued by tourists since they are the result of the history of human intervention which has manipulated nature in ways conducive to economic growth" (p.53). This may be true in a great number of instances, but there are also areas, where only geological and biological processes formed the valuable landscape.

Nevertheless, humans, can greatly contribute to the aesthetic appeal of a landscape, as it is shown below:

A south Indian area that attracts tourists, spiritual tourist and geotourist alike – the Arunachala hill near Tiruvannamalai (cf Timcak 2011), was deforested by the early nineteen seventies due to the activity of a large number of poor people, who took advantage of the availability of wood on the hill. Due to their poverty and ignorance of the impact of their daily activity, the hill became deforested and from south and SE side covered with sparse, low vegetation and red dust. Then, since last decade of the 20th Century, various NGOs started reforestation programmes. The programme was successful, but from time to time – again due to ignorance – people set fire to dry grass and the whole new forest (at least the part which survived the wood collecting process) was badly burnt. Nevertheless, since 2005, the trees have become visible again and the Arunachala hill became as green as in the old times. It has to be protected and wood and grass gatherers as well as people in general should get more information about the value of the living forest on the hill (air temperature, humidity, precipitation, presence of animals, visual impression, etc.). Only in such case is there a hope for keeping the forest alive.

The tourism industry is striving to adopt the 3P[1] system (cf. Brundtland 1987) defined in order to achieve sustainability. The idea seems to be relatively clear, but when applied to real situation, it is open to countless interpretations (cf e.g. http://www.triplepundit.com/, Kambewa 2007). If we adopt a triangular representation of the 3P system (Figure 4), without strong ethical codes, the system tends to shift towards the profit peak. Therefore, emphasis on professional ethics and principles for protecting the natural and cultural environment is necessary, if geotourism is to become sustainable.

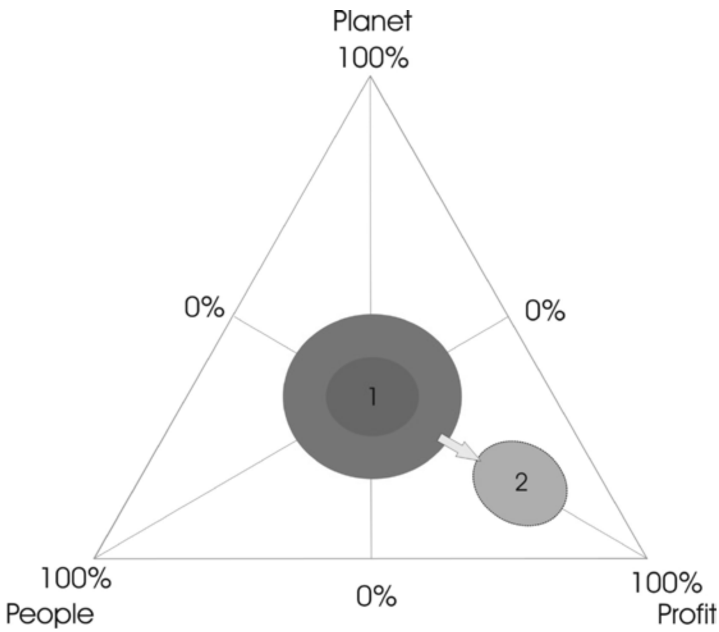

Figure 4: The principle of 3P depicted in a triangular diagram (P+P+P=100%). The central area (1) is the one, which ensures a balanced system. Without a strong ethical framework, the system tends to get shifted to the profit peak (2), with only small benefit left for people and planet/nature.

[1]People, planet, profit.

SUSTAINABLE GEO-TOURISM

When seeking a solution, which would preserve the biological and cultural diversity at geotourist destinations, the hard way would be to change client preferences (cf Hughes 1995). A less difficult solution would be to create a virtual representation of the most vulnerable object/s or process of interest. Elements of such solution were suggested also in Conway (2009). The degree of virtuality and interactivity is proportional to the cost and veracity of the solution. Other – simpler - technical solutions may appear to infringe on personal liberties (e.g. constant surveying of the areas in question or creating tourist quotas for the vulnerable regions). A communication based solution would make the tourists and service providers aware of the impact they make and to care for avoiding negative impacts.
The virtualized attraction would be visually presented in a 3D way at Tourist Welcome Centres. Such centres offer a variety of entertainment for adults and children, food and viewing the site through visual media. Within the Centre – depending on the character of the protected site – an ethnic dance, workshop for works of folk art, a small botanic garden, zoo or artificial rock outcrops and a guided tour through them as well as a restaurant, shop, etc. would keep the visitors occupied. Thus the probability that they will spend longer time at the protected part of the site, is lower.

Some Asian and African Nature parks often “sacrifice” a small part of the park for tourist activities and to finance the preservation of the park from this income. If the system is correctly set, it tends to function (e.g. http://step.unwto.org/en/news/2011-11-02/promoting-sustainable-tourism-development-periphery-w-regional-park-benin; http://www.tour-communautaire-parcw.net/spip.php?article32). This is also done in the Himalayan region, where trekkers, mountaineers or climbers are allowed only to certain parts of the mountain ranges. Further, they have liaison officers with them who are there to ensure that the rules are adhered to.

But if one would like to apply this approach to isolated cultural systems, that part of the population that is “sacrificed” to tourism has to interact with the rest of the people of the same culture. This part of the population will earn more and may have things not available for the rest of the community. Thus the rest will have the tendency to want to get the same items or proceedings. At that moment the given culture starts being threatened, even though there are models of resource share within communities (cf. Final Rept. 2002).

Another approach would be to find places, where Thematic Parks could be established. Here replicas of the site to be protected would be built, fitted with various attractions and thus the tourists would be diverted from going into the protected geotourist site.

CONCLUSIONS

It appears that sustainable tourism cannot be fully achieved in case of mass tourism due to the distributed character of the involved stakeholders and due to the different culture and behavioural patterns of tourists. To transform mass tourism, a global effort would have to be made, which is almost improbable to achieve, because in consumer culture, profit is the driving force behind tourism. Small scale tourism would satisfy only the local, not the global profit needs. Geotourists tend to avoid mass tourism, so in this case the probability of sustainable tourism seems to be greater. Introduction of tourist quotas (like in the Himalayas) could help to save the bio- and cultural diversity of the region.

It is difficult to predict the future decisions of the governments, tourist industry, international bodies (like UNESCO, WTO), the environmentally oriented NGOs and ecologically oriented groups as regards how to tackle the challenge of decrease of cultural and natural diversity. Implementing a global ethical and educational framework for sustainable tourism could help considerably. This would encourage people to implement general and specific ethical principles and to behave responsibly in life situations, including the tourism related ones.

Another possibility would be the dematerialization of the (geo) tourist attractions.

If the awareness of local people, tourists and service providers regarding the long term benefits of sustainability can be increased and if a resource pool (Hughes 1995, Dawling, Newsome 2006) for implementing the main processes needed for sustainable (geo)tourism would be established by the stakeholders, the diversity of nature and cultures could be upheld.

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Application of anamorphotic images in tourism geography research

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ABSTRACT

This article discusses the use of anamorphic images in tourism geography. A multivariable automated classification of countries by levels of international tourism development is presented. Anamorphic representation was useful in visualizing the results of the classification. This method facilitated the description of a spatial center-peripheral structure of the modern-day world tourism market.

Keywords: cartography, anamorphotic images, classification, center-peripheral structure, international tourism, tourist destination

INTRODUCTION

Scientific knowledge of tourism involves a continuous search for new methodological approaches and techniques. The current stage of development of tourism geography in Russia is mainly associated with systematization, classification, theoretical generalizations, and synthesis of accumulated knowledge. A systemic approach organically links different scientific methods applied to tourism in a general concept.

Currently, the methodology of the tourism geography is in a development stage with an abundance and variety of available methods (see for example, Lingyun Z., 1989; Boers B., Cottrell S., 2007; You J., Kim T.J., 2007; Al Kahtani S.J.H., Xia J., Veenendaal B., 2009; Baggio R., Scott N., Cooper C., 2010; Rakić T., Chambers D., 2010). In Russia, as in other countries, tourist-geographical researches are held using combination of methods of knowledge (see for example, Aleksandrova A.Y., Tikunova I.N., 2003; Kumova N.A., 2004; Basanets L.P., 2006; Alekseenko O.A. 2008; Stepchenkova S., Kirilenko A.P., Morrison A., 2009). Tourism geography borrowed and appropriately applied research methods and techniques from different scientific fields, such as natural, social, biomedical and technical, to specifically address a variety of issues of its different disciplines. Typology, comparative geography, and cartography are the most important among the traditional geographical methods. Sociological tourist surveys, clinical, physiological, and monitoring medical surveys (e.g., those that study influence of climatic factors and micro-climatic conditions, topography, vegetation, etc. on the human body), mathematical and mathematical-statistical methods (correlation, regression, and factor taxonomic models, linear programming models, and simulation), and other methods are used along with these traditional methods. Tourism geography also uses field and office methods (see for example Hartmann R., 1988; Ritchie B.W., Burns P.M., Palmer C.A., 2005; Brown G., 2006; Aleksandrova A.Y., 2006; Mazhar L.J., 2008; Astashin A.E., 2009; Ziryanov A.I., Korolev A.Y., 2009). In 1980s in the Soviet Union the recreation mission of the Institute of Geography of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR was constantly working, it provided reliable information on amateur informal recreation, suburban recreational flows, sustainability of natural systems to tourism pressures in the country (Pirozhnik I.I., 1985, p. 28). Currently recreational and geographical field researches are organized by universities, specialized consulting companies and other organizations.

Cartographic research methods have been widely used in tourism geography in Russia (Dolzhenko G.P., Dolzhenko E.G., 2010). The formation of tourism mapping began with the creation of plans of some resorts in the mid-19th century (Recreational Systems, 1986, p.52). Today, a tourist map is a model of a certain territory, which contains information on tourist attractions, routes of communication, means of accommodation, etc. This type of mapping emerged in the early 20th century. In 1908, P.A. Olenin published a handbook "Tourist - Guide to the Russian Waterways," which along with text, numerous photographs and drawings contained 45 mapped schemes of water or combined (river-lake-rail) routes (Olenin P.A., 1908). Later in the USSR, specialized tourist maps became a tool for geographical study of tourism territorial systems (Theorethic bases…, 1975). "Map acts not only as a way to reflect the spatial characteristics of recreational resources, tourism flows, material and technical base of tourism or the individual properties of territorial recreation systems (stability, comfort, etc.), but also it serves for obtaining new data and identifying patterns of their functioning" (Pirozhnik I. I., 1985, p. 29). Today, scientific recreational maps are widely used in territorial planning and forecasting. Thus, there are two main areas in tourism mapping: maps for tourists and sightseers (actually, hiking maps) and maps intended for research purposes, tourist business, and management bodies in the tourism sector.

Research tourism maps can be divided into the following types according to their content: analytical, comprehensive, and synthetic. Analytical maps contain details on tourist facilities based on a limited number of indicators (or a single indicator), e.g., locations of all hotels and data on their capacity. Comprehensive maps provide an overview of all objects that are important for tourists (tourist sites and tourism infrastructure). Synthetic maps reflect the results of the aggregation of a large volume of information and contain integral characteristics of a territory or phenomena. The most vivid example is the maps of tourism regionalization (Geography of Tourism, 2009, p. 253).

CREATING ANAMORPHOTIC IMAGES

The transition from traditional cartographic representation based on topographic surface matrix to a different representation of mapped phenomena matrix, i.e., construction of anamorphosises, aids in acquiring new knowledge, findings and conclusions, in particular in respect to tourism development. Anamorphosis is a graphic image, derived from a traditional map, in which scale is transformed and varies depending on characteristics of the phenomena on the original map.

There are a large number of numerical methods of constructing anamorphosises, but the algorithm proposed by S.M. Gusein-Zade and V.S. Tikunov (1992, 1993) deserves special attention. It has, in our opinion, a number of advantages over other methods described in detail by these authors (Gusein-Zade S.M. and Tikunov V.S., 1999). There are methods of creating linear, areal, and volumetric anamorphosises, and all three of these methods can be animated (which is useful in describing transgressive phenomena). In this article, we will use the areal anamorphic approach.

Anamorphic images are widely used in a variety of geographical research studies (Getis A., 1963; Forster F., 1966; Elsasser H., 1970; Skoda L. and Robertson J.C., 1972; Olson J., 1976; Sen A., 1976; Griffin T.L., 1980; Kadmon N., 1982; Selvin S., Merrill D., Sacks S., Wong L., Bedell L. and Schulman J., 1984; Kelly J.I. and Neville R.J.W., 1985; Tobler W.R., 1986; Tikunov V.S. and Yudin S.A., 1987; Hua Yi-xin, 1989; Tikunov V.S. and Pipkin J.S., 1990; Dorling D., 1993; Malkhazova S.M. and Tikunov V.S., 1994). Most often, they are used to represent populations of territories, electoral and medical geography, or environmental features, such as air pollution. This paper focuses on the use of anamorphosis in tourism geography. The aforementioned algorithm allowed us to construct anamorphic images for the world countries from data on international tourist arrivals (Figures 1 and 2; data and boundaries of the late 1980s and early 2000s, respectively). These data were chosen as an indicator that summarizes the development of international tourism.

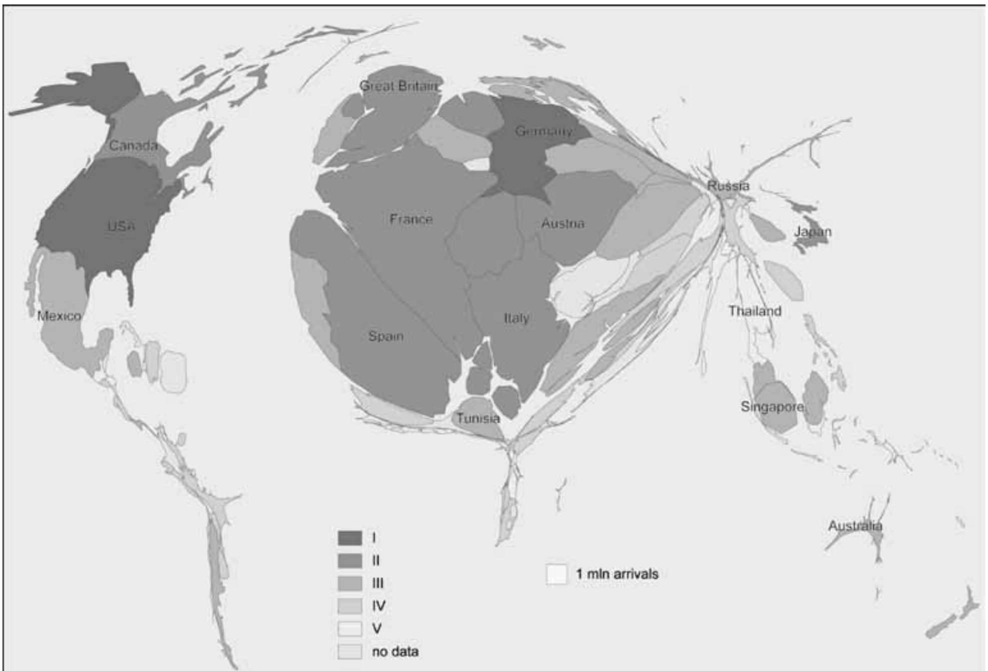

Figure. 1: Classification of countries into five groups (explained in the text) based on anamorphotic representation of the number of international tourist arrivals in the world (end of 1980s)

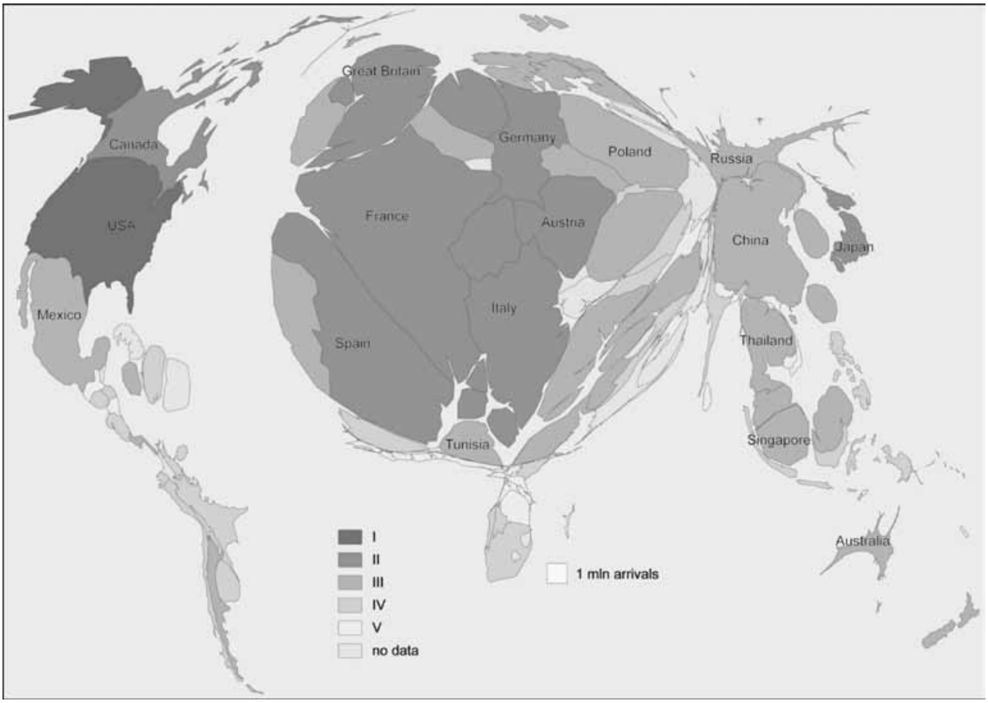

Figure 2: Classification of countries into five groups (explained in the text) based on anamorphotic representation of the number of international tourist arrivals in the world (end of 2000s)

USE OF ANAMORPHIC IMAGES IN TOURISM GEOGRAPHY RESEARCH

The constructed anamorphosises reflect the current stage of the world international tourism development, when tourist traffic has become truly massive and global, and the tourism industry has become a significant sector of the world economy. Today, hundreds of millions of people are engaged in the tourism activity. Tourists' values have been formed and they are changing human lifestyle. The scope of tourism becomes a focus of a growing number of social criteria and priorities for quality of life. Even in the most difficult times, people continue to travel and tourism itself has acquired the ability to adapt, survive, and rapidly overcome crises and has reached a remarkable resilience to adverse effects of various factors.

In 2008, the World Tourism Organization registered 922 million international tourist arrivals in the world. Receipts from international tourism amounted to 945 billion dollars without accounting for income from the international transportation sector [Tourism Highlights, 2009, p.2]. In total exports of goods and services, the share of international tourism accounts for more than 5%. In the product structure of the world exports, tourism services occupy the sixth position after fuel, office and telecommunications equipment, chemical and automotive production, and food sectors. The volume of exports of travel services exceeds the export of iron ore, steel, and clothes by a factor of two, and textiles by more than a factor of three. Among commercial services, tourism services have the greatest demand on the world market (World Trade Report – 2009).

The anamorphic maps presented above indicate a deepening globalization process in the tourism market in the late twentieth through early twenty-first century. The current stage of international tourism development is characterized by the formation of the global world tourism space. This process is expanding and enhancing through the inclusion of the new areas in tourism and the emergence of a spatially hierarchical center-periphery structure of the world tourism market. The development of new tourist areas is boosted by the development of the transportation system and new information technologies, as well as the trend to "transparency" of borders, which results in a weakening of remoteness factor and "contraction" of the world space.

Anamorphic mapping provides a visual representation of the scale of development of tourism in the world. As the number of international tourist arrivals grows, the reconfiguration of the country (territory) in anamorphosis occurs. A territory originally merged with another country (territory) may gradually turn into an independent narrow strip and continue to grow in size. Even such "points" on the traditional geographic maps, as Hong Kong and Singapore, appear as impressive areas on the tourism anamorphosises images.

The constructed anamorphosises vividly convey heterogeneity of the global tourism space. The contrasts are much better presented than on the traditional cartographic images. Three main tourist regions of the world, specifically, Europe, the Americas, and the Asian-Pacific attract attention. Other tourist areas of the world - Africa and Middle East - have more than modest contours on the anamorphosises, which corresponds to the low absolute values of international tourist arrivals (46.7 and 55.1 million in 2008, respectively) (Tourism Highlights, 2009, p.4).

The uneven growth of international tourism in the territorial aspect has led to a change in its regional structure in the beginning of the twenty-first century. The share of Europe and the Americas fell, while the share of Asian-Pacific region increased. The remaining regions of the world remained somewhat stable. The constructed anamorphosises provide an accurate illustration of the redistribution of power between the regions in the world tourist market in the 1990-s - early 2000-ies.
The anamorphosises are important from not only the illustrative standpoint, but are also a research tool. Analysis of the placement of tourist infrastructure, hotel chains, network of gas stations, and many other point objects can be done more correctly not in the Euclidean system (relative to the topographic surface of the Earth), but, for example, using the number of tourists visiting certain territories as the basis for the anamorphosis. This method allows one to analyze more clearly the relationships between the main characteristic events, such as

the number of arrivals by a country and value of tourism revenues, serving as background information and the basis for the anamorphosis. It is easier to analyze time-sensitive accessibility of tourist destinations using the anamorphosises compared to the traditional maps and other methods. Besides, it may be feasible to reflect not only simple analytical characteristics on the anamosphoses, but to also show results of classifications, typologies, and assessments obtained based on the entire array of initial parameters. One such example will be provided below.

Classification of countries based on international tourism development. Usage of the anamorphosises to displays classification results. Anamorphosises can be used to display the results of assessment classifications, in particular, assessment of the level of development of the world international tourism (Figs. 1 and 2).

The main sources of information in these classifications were data from statistical publications of several international and national organizations[1]. The collected data on international tourism are comparable, complete, reliable, necessary, and sufficient for the construction of the classification.

METHODOLOGY

The classification system was based on 12 parameters that give more or less complete representation of international tourism market in 117 world countries - 26 countries in Europe, 2 countries in North America, 24 Latin American countries, 24 countries in Asia, 34 African countries, and 7 countries of Australia and Oceania regions. The parameters of this classification system are composed of four groups, specifically indicators (table 1).

Table 1: Classification parameters

Groups of indicators	Indicators
socio-economic development	the index of human development
tourist demand	the coefficient of tourist arrivals; the coefficient of tourist departure; the shares of inbound tourism of the country in the world market; the shares of outbound tourism of the country in the world market; the proportion of expenditures on recreation in household budgets
tourism supply	the density of accommodation in the country; the country's share in the general world hotel pool
importance of international tourism in the economy	the share of value added in international tourism; the proportion of population employed in international tourism; the share of investment in international tourism; the share of tourism services in total exports of the country

[1]UN, World Bank, International Labor Organization, World Tourism Organization, World Council of Travel and Tourism, and national tourism administrations and statistical offices (Compendium of Tourism Statistics, Rapport mondial sur le development humain, Tourism Facts & Figures, Yearbook of Labor Statistics, Yearbook of Tourism Statistics, etc.).

The first group relates to the index of human development. This index reflects the most significant aspects of human development and provides a comprehensive assessment of the level and quality of life that influence tourist activity of people. Since the early 1990s, it is widely used by the UN Development Program (UNDP) in cross-national comparisons.

The second group of indicators is the largest and therefore has the greatest "weight" in the classification. This imbalance is not accidental: it reflects the character of the tourist market, specifically, its distinct anthropocentric character.

Tourism in general can be regarded as a form of population migration and tourist flows can be viewed as realized tourist demand. Classical parameters of population migration, namely, coefficients of arrivals and departures, describe the intensity of tourist migration. The coefficient of tourist arrivals represents the ratio between the annual number of arrivals of foreign tourists to a country and its average annual population. By analogy, the coefficient of departure is the ratio between the number of tourists leaving the country and its average annual population. Both indicators are expressed in per mille and characterize the level of the phenomenon per 1000 people. The assessment of the intensity of tourist migration that was obtained using these indices supplemented by two other parameters – the shares of inbound and outbound tourism of the country in the world market, which reflect the spatial concentration of tourist demand. The fifth parameter is the proportion of expenditures on recreation in household budgets, which characterizes consumer behavior of the population in the tourism market.

The third group includes parameters that relate to the quality of recreation amenities and is largely determined by the level of development of tourism infrastructure. These parameters are based on information only within existing accounting system of accommodation facilities and include two indexes: the density of accommodation in the country (number of beds in hotels and similar accommodations per 1 sq. km.) and the country's share in the general world hotel pool.

The forth group consists of four homotypic resulting parameters that allow assessing economic contribution of international tourism at the macro level. These parameters are the share of value added in international tourism (as % of GDP), proportion of population employed in international tourism (as % of total employment in the country), share of investment in international tourism (as % of total investment volume in the country's economy), and share of tourism services in total exports of the country (%).

It seems feasible to expand the list of indicators in order to reflect comprehensively the level and characteristics of market development of international tourism in the world. It may be difficult, however, to use new parameters in research because of sometimes weak theoretical basis, lack of universally accepted methodology for accounting, and narrowness of the information background.

Processing of the array of data obtained from 117 countries around the world was achieved using a modified algorithm of automatic classification (Tikunov V.S., 1997). This algorithm

includes the following components: 1) normalization of initial parameters, 2) orthogonalization and "convolution" of the initial information through the standard procedure of component analysis, and 3) calculation and mapping of similarity indices between the countries in the space of the orthogonalized system of initial parameters (x^1). The differences between the countries are expressed in integral form based on the full range of selected parameters.
The final ranking of the countries has been significantly improved after each of the initial parameters was given the "weight" determined by expert assessment. In the course of the experiment, 20 experts were interviewed. The experts were chosen among the leading academics of universities and institutes that are specialized in teaching personnel for the tourism industry, the media on tourism, the tourist business elite, the tourism authorities in Russia. These experts were asked to rate the importance of each indicator on a ten-point scale. The final "weight" was calculated as the arithmetical mean of the scores (table 2).

[1] To obtain quantitative deductive estimates of developmental levels of international tourism, all initial parameters were reduced to comparable form by normalizing using the following formula:

$$\hat{X}_{ij} = \frac{\left| x_{ij} - \overset{o}{x}_j \right|}{\left| {}_{\max/\min}x_j - \overset{o}{x}_j \right|}, \qquad i = 1,2,3 \ldots n; \quad j = 1,2,3 \ldots m$$

where n = the number of countries included in the analysis (117); m = the number of indicators used in calculations (12); $\overset{o}{x}$ - the worst assessment values for each indicator; ${}_{\max/\min}x$ - the extreme values most different from the values:

$${}_{\max/\min}x \equiv {}_{\min}x, \text{ if } \left| {}_{\min}x - \overset{o}{x} \right| \geq \left| {}_{\max}x - \overset{o}{x} \right|$$

$${}_{\max/\min}x \equiv {}_{\max}x, \text{ if } \left| {}_{\min}x - \overset{o}{x} \right| \leq \left| {}_{\max}x - \overset{o}{x} \right|$$

In this experiment, the ranking was based on Euclidean distances calculation (d^o) as a measure of closeness of the countries to a national country with the worst values ($\overset{o}{x}$) of all 12 parameters. The data were processed using principal component analysis for orthogonalization and "convolution" of the system parameters.
The values of the column-vector of integrated assessment characteristics were then normalized by the formula:

$$\hat{d}_i^o = \frac{d_i^o - {}_{\min}d^o}{{}_{\max}d^o - {}_{\min}d^o}, \qquad i = 1,2,3 \ldots n.$$

Parameter $\hat{d}^o$ takes on values from zero to one. Zero is the worst and "1" is the best-integrated value.

Table 2: Weights of the classification indicators

Indicator	Weight
the index of human development	8,9
the coefficient of tourist arrivals	6,8
the coefficient of tourist departure	7,3
the shares of inbound tourism of the country in the world market	3,1
the shares of outbound tourism of the country in the world market	3,5
the proportion of expenditures on recreation in household budgets	6,4
the density of accommodation in the country	4,3
the country’s share in the general world hotel pool	5,0
the share of value added in international tourism	7,2
the proportion of population employed in international tourism	5,8
the share of investment in international tourism	6,6
the share of tourism services in total exports of the country	8,3

The algorithm allowed not only the ranking the countries by the level of development of international tourism, but also grouping them. At the end of the diversification calculation based on special coefficients of heterogeneity with the number of groups from 2 to 12, the optimal scenario of dividing the countries into five groups was selected.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The selected five groups of countries are in a three-tier pyramid. The countries in the center of the world tourism space are at the top of the pyramid (first and second assessment groups), semi-peripheral countries are in the middle (third group), and peripheral countries are at the bottom (fourth and fifth groups).

The center of the world tourism space consists of economically developed countries of Europe, North America, and Asia with a very high level of development of international tourism. The United States and Germany occupy the top of the pyramid. Along with the United States and Germany, the “backbone” of the upper tier of the pyramid consists of France, Great Britain, Spain, Italy, Switzerland, Austria, Canada, and Japan. These countries are economically advanced and have high scientific-technical and tourism potential. They both generate and receive world tourist flows. Their markets of international tourism are diverse with high intensity of tourist exchanges and cover almost all known types of travel. On the one hand, these countries compete for the world leadership in international tourism, and on the other hand, they combine and coordinate the efforts to control markets. These countries have high levels of concentration of capital and their corporations play a leading role in global tourism and hotel industry generating innovations that are then spread throughout the world. All of these countries actively participate in international tourism organizations.

Quite a large and diverse third group, the semi-periphery of world tourism space, has significantly strengthened its position in the global tourism market over the past 20 years, and is approaching the countries of the center (table 3). If at the end of 1980s, the gap between these groups comprised 1,28 – Euclidean distance (the integrated estimate of the level of international tourism development in the second group of 4,51 minus the integral estimate for the third group of 3,23), in the early 2000s, this difference was equal to 0,90 (4,29 – 3,39).

Table 3: Ranking/grouping of countries by international tourism development level (late 1980's and early 2000's.)

№ Groups	Late 1980's		Early 2000's	
	Integration assessed characteristic	Country	Integration assessed characteristic	Country
1	2	3	4	5
I	1	USA	1	Germany
	0,9526	Germany		
II	0,8114	UK	0,8004	France
	0,7526	France	0,7646	UK
	0,7518	Italy	0,7302	USA
	0,6899	Switzerland	0,6627	Spain
	0,6461	Spain	0,6502	Italy
	0,6459	Austria	0,6007	Japan
	0,6448	Netherlands	0,5847	Switzerland
	0,6444	Canada	0,5735	Netherlands
	0,6431	Japan	0,5702	Canada
			0,5696	Austria
III	0,6031	Antigua and Barbuda	0,4995	Singapore
	0,6008	Bahamas	0,4992	Antigua and Barbuda
	0,5834	Singapore	0,4985	Bahamas
	0,5668	Malta	0,4980	Sweden
	0,5655	Maldives	0,4975	Malta
	0,5254	Sweden	0,4969	Maldives
	0,5213	Cyprus	0,4968	Malaysia
	0,5042	Norway	0,4959	Cyprus
	0,5040	Finland	0,4905	Ireland
	0,5024	Iceland	0,4866	Finland

	0,4984	Denmark	0,4861	Iceland
	0,4978	Ireland	0,4856	Norway
	0,4799	Belgium	0,4835	Czech Republic
	0,4722	Australia	0,4830	Greece
	0,4551	Saint Kitts and Nevis	0,4795	Belgium
	0,4536	Czech Republic	0,4765	Republic of Korea
	0,4494	Portugal	0,4628	Denmark
	0,4483	Malaysia	0,4622	Saint Kitts and Nevis
	0,4477	Greece	0.4552	Australia
	0,4325	Mexico	0,4550	Hungary
	0,4275	Bahrain	0,4530	Portugal
	0,4249	Israel	0,4514	Mexico
	0,4136	Hungary	0,4472	China
	0,4013	Brunei	0,4452	Poland
	0,3903	Fiji	0,4386	Brunei
	0,3830	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	0,4358	Russia
	0,3776	Republic of Korea	0,4312	New Zealand
	0,3716	New Zealand	0,4271	Bahrain
	0,3706	Jamaica	0,4249	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
	0,3596	Poland	0,4243	Jamaica
	0,3517	Russia	0,4201	Thailand
	0,3499	Tunisia	0,4195	Israel
	0,3471	Slovakia	0,4185	Fiji
	0,3458	Argentina	0,4153	Turkey
	0,3448	Panama	0,4143	Egypt
			0,4112	Tunisia
			0,3972	Argentina
			0,3916	Panama
IV	0,3304	Turkey	0,3703	South Africa
	0,3295	Uruguay	0,3670	Slovakia
	0,3261	Jordan	0,3563	Bulgaria
	0,3250	Bulgaria	0,3445	Kuwait

	0,3197	South Africa	0,3417	Uruguay
	0,3176	Kuwait	0,3410	Seychelles
	0,3172	Seychelles	0,3386	Jordan
	0,3126	Thailand	0,3298	Chile
	0,3038	Egypt	0,3207	Grenada
	0,3028	Romania	0,3157	Dominican Republic
	0,3020	China	0,3075	Dominica
	0,3001	Chile	0,3063	Costa Rica
	0,2973	Grenada	0,2979	Peru
	0,2973	Dominica	0,2941	Romania
	0,2952	Dominican Republic	0,2736	Brazil
	0,2944	Costa Rica	0,2726	Morocco
	0,2786	Botswana	0,2693	Mauritius
	0,2672	Peru	0,2684	Botswana
	0,2608	Morocco	0,2681	Ecuador
	0,2561	Brazil	0,2670	Kenya
	0,2555	Kenya	0,2630	Namibia
	0,2468	Mauritius	0,2592	Paraguay
	0,2444	Trinidad and Tobago	0,2566	Venezuela
	0,2433	Ecuador	0,2505	Trinidad and Tobago
	0,2427	Philippines	0,2407	Philippines
	0,2401	Paraguay	0,2394	India
	0,2397	Venezuela	0,2383	Salvador
	0,2384	Namibia	0,2372	Indonesia
	0,2381	Salvador	0,2219	Solomon Islands
	0,2360	Syria	0,2216	Syria
			0,2198	Bolivia
			0,2177	Honduras
			0,2114	Kiribati
V	0,2164	Kiribati	0,2057	Vietnam
	0,2159	Gabon	0,2025	Sri Lanka
	0,2138	Indonesia	0,1991	Nicaragua
	0,2059	Bolivia	0,1985	Tonga
	0,2047	Honduras	0,1966	Gabon
	0,1970	Solomon Islands	0,1766	Papua New Guinea

	0,1926	Vietnam	0,1717	Guatemala
	0,1877	India	0,1651	Ghana
	0,1763	Nicaragua	0,1636	Myanmar
	0,1736	Guatemala	0,1612	Cambodia
	0,1723	Tonga	0,1605	Nepal
	0,1704	Papua New Guinea	0,1604	Laos
	0,1679	Ghana	0,1434	Senegal
	0,1624	Zimbabwe	0,1419	Zimbabwe
	0,1452	Benin	0,1381	Benin
	0,1293	Myanmar	0,1354	Madagascar
	0,1164	Senegal	0,1349	Togo
	0,1126	Nepal	0,1270	Sudan
	0,1123	Congo	0,1227	Tanzania
	0,1102	Sri Lanka	0,1206	Nigeria
	0,1043	Nigeria	0,1124	Democratic Republic of the Congo (Zaire)
	0,0951	Sudan	0,1107	Zambia
	0,0944	Zambia	0,1068	Guinea
	0,0925	Democratic Republic of the Congo (Zaire)	0,1017	Congo
	0,0839	Togo	0,0931	Bangladesh
	0,0794	Madagascar	0,0890	Mali
	0,0700	Tanzania	0,0807	Uganda
	0,0630	Cambodia	0,0720	Côte d'Ivoire
	0,0551	Mali	0,0566	Central African Republic
	0,0457	Côte d'Ivoire	0,0533	Malawi
	0,0427	Ethiopia	0,0490	Niger
	0,0410	Bangladesh	0,0478	Rwanda
	0,0368	Central African Republic	0,0428	Burkina Faso
	0,0367	Laos	0,0415	Ethiopia
	0,0316	Malawi	0	Burundi
	0,0310	Niger		
	0,0291	Guinea		
	0,0225	Uganda		
	0,0145	Burkina Faso		
	0,0025	Rwanda		
	0	Burundi		

The semi-peripheral group is dominated by the newly industrialized countries of Asia and countries of Central and Eastern Europe. This group also includes almost all the countries of Northern Europe and some island states of the Mediterranean and Caribbean that specialize in tourism. A special place in this group is occupied by China. Large-scale international tourism development began in this country with the policy of reforms and reorientation from interregional to intraregional tourism and receiving tourist flows from its neighbors, i.e., Malaysia, Indonesia, Korea, Mongolia, Thailand, the Philippines, and Russia in the mid 1990s.

Compared to 1980s, Singapore and other newly industrialized Asian economies greatly improved their positions. For example, Malaysia moved from 29 to position 18 and Republic of Korea moved from 38 to position 27. Thailand transitioned from the periphery to semi-periphery. International tourism development in the newly industrializing countries of Asia is the result of their strategic vision for the creation of open society and economy. In the 1990s, accelerated growth of tourist flows was occurring primarily through the active involvement of local people in travel and increased intraregional tourism exchanges between neighboring countries. A rising standard of living altered the consumption patterns of the population and increased the share of expenses associated with tourism activities. Leisure time available for travel also increased. These factors played a crucial part in making tourism an important activity, which influenced overall international tourism development in the region. The number of tourist arrivals from other regions of the world also increased in the wake of interest of Europeans and Americans to Asian exoticism.

Another group of countries that determined the rapid development of international tourism in the semi-periphery in the 1990s are the states in Central-Eastern Europe, specifically, Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland. The fall of totalitarian regimes and the removal of the "Iron Curtain" had contributed to the involvement of these countries in the world tourism exchange.

Two countries that most recently, in the 1990s, added to the list of semi-periphery deserve special attention. These countries are Turkey that is undergoing a tourist boom, and Egypt, which in the mid 1980s, embarked on an ambitious national program to attract foreign tourists to the country. In general, the semi-peripheral countries are actively involved in the process of globalization and have entered into competition for the tourist market with the countries that are recognized leaders of international tourism demonstrating their competitiveness.

The fourth group of countries grouped in the course of classification - "advanced" periphery of the world tourist space - consists mainly of Latin American countries (over 45%). In the 1990s, they have strengthened their position through the expansion of intraregional tourism exchange.

The last group in the classification - "deep" periphery – is formed of economically backward nations of the world, consistently ranked last in the tourist roster. In the early 2000s, as in 1980s, 90% of this group were the countries in Africa and South Asia. Some countries, however, were able to improve their positions (Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos). However, in general, they are as far from the countries of the centre, as many decades ago and have very limited prospects for international tourism. Moreover, the gap between leaders and those trailing behind in tourism development continues to increase (3,71 in 1988, and 4,14 in 2008).

Meanwhile, the system "center-periphery" itself, as a rule, does not allow for the disastrous gap between developmental levels of both components. To maintain its integrity and stability, it requires their alignment through better integration of the periphery in the global economy. In our case, it is manifested in "deep" periphery reaching the level of "advanced" periphery in the tourist space (the gap between them has decreased from 1,15 in 1988 to 1,05 in 2008).

CONCLUSION

Analysis of the situation on the world tourism market in the late 1980s and early 2000s leads to the following conclusions. Tourism ranking of the countries based on 12 indicators mainly coincided with the classification of the countries according to their level of socio-economic development. It also reflected the specifics of tourism development in the states and regions in the world. The modern world tourism space is strongly polarized. It is dominated by economically highly developed countries that form its center, while most of the countries in Africa and Southern Asia are lagging behind ("deep" periphery). Semi-periphery of the world tourism space, which connects the two poles, provides greater stability for the entire structure.

The spatial structure of international tourism remains relatively stable. Over the past 20 years, the pattern of the countries' grouping (their number and composition) stayed the same in general. However, within selected classes, the position of some countries has changed. For example, Central and Eastern European countries, Russia, and the newly industrialized countries of Asia have improved their positions. During 1990s, only limited number of countries (Egypt, China, Thailand, Turkey, etc.) has transitioned to other groups (mostly from the "advanced" periphery to semi-periphery of the world tourism space).

Overall, in the course of international tourism development, the gap between the centre and semi-periphery is decreasing while the gap between the semi-periphery and periphery of the world tourism space is growing.

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Evaluating costs and benefits of a tourism project: a case study of the Indianapolis Cultural Trail

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ABSTRACT

The Indianapolis Cultural Trail is an eight-mile linear park connecting residents and visitors to every significant arts, cultural, heritage, sports, and entertainment venue in downtown Indianapolis. City planners expect the Trail to contribute to the city's ongoing efforts to position itself as an event tourism destination. Similar projects have already been developed in other American cities. Examples include the Delray Beach Florida's Cultural Loop that showcases the community's multicultural heritage, the Boston Freedom Trail that promotes Revolutionary War history and the Minneapolis' Midtown Greenway that promotes public art. Finally, New York's Battery Park Esplanade and Chicago's Lakefront Trail are urban bike and jogging trails.

Indianapolis' Cultural Trail ambitiously aspires to do all of these things. It presents public art, introduces visitors to community history, and encourages exercise and a healthier lifestyle. The project is expected to cost $55 million and is being funded entirely through private donations and federal transportation enhancement funds. No local taxes are being spent on the project. The Cultural Trail is planned to be completed by the end of 2011, in time for the 2012 Super Bowl in Indianapolis.

The study utilizes the cost-benefit analysis technique to examine all the major costs and benefits associated with the Cultural Trail project and determine if anticipated new tourism development because of the Trail will make the project cost-effective. The cost benefit analysis is a widely used technique for deciding the feasibility of a major project. As its name suggests, the use of the technique allows researchers to look at the anticipated value of the benefits that will be derived from a project and subtract all costs associated with it. The technique calculates a payback period, or the time it will take for the benefits of a project to repay the costs. Results of this study will be helpful in making the city government and tourism organizations more aware of the important role of the Cultural Trail in promoting the city as a successful event tourism destination

BACKGROUND

For about a decade, the Cultural Development Commission has been set up in the city aiming to position Indianapolis nationally and globally as an event tourism destination, with the ultimate goal of making Indianapolis a city of choice for the world's best talent when looking for a place to live and work (Payne, 2010).

One of the biggest and the most important campaigns, as suggested by the Cultural Development Commission, was to build a cultural trail in the downtown area of the city. Construction work began in 2007 with a completion date scheduled for December 2011. The Cultural Trail is designed to build into a world-class urban bike and pedestrian path connecting all six Indianapolis well-known cultural districts so as to bring trail users to the front door of nearly every arts, cultural, heritage, sports and entertainment venue downtown. The six cultural districts are: Massachusetts Avenue, Indiana Avenue, the Canal and White River State Park, the Wholesale District, Fountain Square and Broad Ripple Village.

The budget for constructing the project is estimated to be $50.35 million including $5 million maintenance. Most of the funding, approximately $35 million, will come from charitable contributions. The city is also using $15 million federal transportation funds. It is important to note that this major public project was initiated and charged by the city government in an era of great economic uncertainty.

The project has faced some opposition from local businesses and residents. According to Brian Payne, Cultural Trail founder and president of Central Indiana Community Foundation, typical concerns are excerpted as follows (Payne, 2010):

> *We must never forget that washington does not have the money it is now beginning to distribute. The federal government will be borrowing it, and our children will inherit the bill. Our duty to use it wisely and efficiently is therefore a very solemn one. We will use these dollars to put hoosiers to work quickly. We will use them carefully, making sure to protect education and other services in the years after these one-time funds stop coming. And whenever possible, we will use them to create assets of lasting value: roads, bridges, buildings, but also better prepared teachers, more energy efficient homes, and so on.*
>
> *The trail is a great idea, but is it truly creating sustainable jobs? Other things may be more important. Our economy needs more than sprinkling of the infield, an irrigation system is needed. Why don't our representatives come out and ask us what we think are the most important things for the federal government to spend money on?*
>
> *The cultural trail gets $15 million, while our local indianapolis public school educators report they need to cut $26 million from their budget. What is wrong with this picture!*
>
> *I would much rather have a couple billion dollar grants for high speed rail connecting Indianapolis to the mid-west hub or for federally mandated water/sewage upgrades than a few million for sidewalks.*

Given that the Cultural Trail as a major public good, any possible market failure may cause the public serious concerns and affect the quality of city life socially and economically. Before embarking on this project, city planners did not conduct a feasibility study on the necessity of the project and to explain to the city residents how this project will be cost-effective. This study is designed to compare and examine major actual and potential costs and benefits using the cost-benefit analysis technique.

A COST-BENEFIT ANALYSIS APPROACH

A cost benefit analysis allows for the evaluation of the overall impact of a project in terms of a monetary value using market information. It is a hypothetical experiment which evaluates whether investors will be better off after the implementation of the proposed project. (Smith, 1995). The technique allows researchers to determine the payback period, the number of years it will take before the project breaks even. The costs and benefits in every year of a project are also calculated and the costs are evaluated against the benefits. (Curry, 1994) Some of the cots and benefits will be known with reasonable accuracy, some will be "guesstimates," and others may be immeasurable (Goldman, Nakazawa and Taylor, 1994).

To run the cost-benefit analysis, one initial step is to identify the appropriate timeframe for analysis and list all the value inputs that need to be considered. This includes the perspective that will be used in the analysis. Once the framework is set up and all the inputs are correctly itemized, the next step is to identify and fix all the input values into the cost-benefit model to come up with the net effect. Cost-benefit analysis can be fine-tuned with sensitivity analysis. In conducting sensitivity analysis, any factors most likely to deviate from anticipated values need to be looked at creating and comparing a best case and worst case scenario.

There are several examples of tourism projects that were evaluated using the cost benefit technique. One such example is a study to measure the financial support by government organizations of small-scale tourism businesses in rural Israel. When compared to other types of small-business, support for tourism businesses was shown to be more cost effective. While both types of businesses generated positive cost-benefit results, tourism businesses scored consistently better. (Fleischer and Felsenstein, 2000) An earlier example was a study conducted to develop a profile of the Wisconsin portion of Lake Michigan's fishing industry. In 1978, the fishing industry spent $16.4 million to improve their business. Sixty percent of that amount was spent in coastal counties and another eleven percent in nearby counties. A cost-benefit analysis compared government spending to support the fishing industry with the additional consumer spending that resulted because of the original investment. The result was a return on government investment of $2.8 to every one dollar invested. (Samples and Bishop, 1981)

PERSPECTIVE, TIMEFRAME, SCOPE OF STUDY, AND ASSUMPTIONS

To ease the data collection and analysis and make the cost-benefit analysis model implementable in spite of the unavailability of some of the data, listed below are the perspectives, timeframe, scope and assumptions of this study:

The cost-benefit analysis will be conducted from the perspectives of creation of new construction jobs, new Indianapolis residents trail users' direct expenditures, as well as new non-Indianapolis residents trail users' direct expenditures.

Timeframe: Data analysis will be based on a 30-year timeframe assuming that the Cultural Trail will be in operation for at least 30 years.

Scope of study: All the costs and benefits included in the model will be only restricted to the city of Indianapolis and its urban residents.

Assumptions:

a. According to the Indianapolis Cultural Trail website (2011), the construction of the Cultural Trail is estimated to create 200 new jobs annually from 2007-2012;
b. The number of users newly generated by the Cultural Trail will be equivalent to the number of the users of Monon Trail which is Indianapolis' another major trail;
c. A discount reflects both the future value of money and the alternative uses for the money. The use of any social discount rate, however, is subject to controversy: the lower the discount rate the more favorable analysis will be to future benefits. The U. S. Office of Management and Budget recommends a 7% discount rate for most federally-funded projects which will also be applied in this project.
d. No variation of residents' expenditures in using trails is assumed over the next 30 years.
e. Per visitor spending in the city is estimated based on the ratio of the total spending of visitors over the total number of visitors in the year of 2008. About 22 million people visited Indianapolis in 2008 that spent $650 million as estimated by Indianapolis Convention and Visitors Association (ICVA, 2009). Thus the average spending is about $30.

Estimation of the number of new users of the Cultural Trail is based on the Indiana Trails Study (Indiana University, 2001), which reported the total monthly traffic count for each trail of the State of Indiana. The Indiana Trail Study indicates that significant users of each trail occurred in September, with reduced use in October. In that study, the trail counters reported 55,148 events on the Monon Trail in Indianapolis during September 2000. The study decided that it is unlikely that each event can translate into one person using the trails, more probably, about every 2 events translates into 1 person using the trail. Briefly, this study indicates that between 81% and 98% of trail users surveyed reported they entered and exited the trail at the same location. This would support the view that the number of trail users is between 50% and 60% of the total trail count for the specified time period. Based on these assumptions, the study stated that the best estimate of trail user visits was about 28,000 on the Monon Trail. This study assumes that the Cultural Trail is going to attract as many new users as the Monon Trail.

COST AND BENEFIT VALUE INPUTS

Costs

The biggest part will be the construction of the project and any demolition of current parking lots and buildings which will be one-time investment for constructing the trail. This investment represents a significant opportunity cost. The costs of this program include the costs of the actual project, such as surveying and planning, land clearing, infrastructure improvements, and administrative costs.

Support services might include police, sewer, water, rest rooms, streets, medical facilities, rescue systems, parks, solid waste arrangements, camp grounds, etc. These costs will not put into the model for analysis due to lack of the information.

Benefits

Construction workers will begin drawing salaries soon, a major reason the stimulus was passed in the first place. Residents pay taxes precisely to have attractive, functional, and long-lasting infrastructure, and this is what the trail provides. It also creates about 200 construction jobs (an estimated figure, the media, however, estimated about 1000 jobs). In addition, it has already encouraged developers to propose new projects along the trail, so it is leveraging private investment which creates more jobs and more long-term local tax revenue. Estimated 40 construction workers' total salaries from 2007-2011: 40*5*50000=$10 million
.
Revenues yielded from users' spending on greenway related activities helps support recreation oriented businesses and employment, as well as other businesses, which are patronized by greenway and trail users. A 2004 Study (Wang, et al., 2004) of The Washington & Old Dominion Trail (W&OD), a 45-mile long transportation and recreation corridor running from Arlington, Virginia west to Purcellville, found out that the estimated 1.6 million local visits accounted for about $5.3 million of spending directly related to the use of the W&OD. Based on the result of this study, it is construed that the annual expenditure by the new users of the Cultural Trail would be about $93,000 (formula: expenditure=5,300,000*28,000/1,600,000).

Besides these monetary benefits, the Cultural Trail consists of major infrastructure improvements, such as, sewers, sidewalks, reconstructed intersections, repaved roads, lighting, landscaping, etc. This is called public infrastructure. It is likely that transportation costs are reduced for these residents. This benefit is acquired in terms of both time and energy savings. There are also several benefits of urban revitalization: more efficient land use, increased values of nearby property, and value of new construction.

One benefit, which was mentioned by Weicher (1972) and Rothenberg (1967) was about the increased values of surrounding property. However, the benefit to surrounding property may be negative, i.e. it may represent a cost. For example, if the trail leads to greater nuisances such as increased pedestrian and street traffic or noise, the value of surrounding properties may fall. Thus, if the magnitude of this benefit is positive or negative remains uncertain. Moreover, while the construction is still underway, it is too early to assess the real estate market as to how the market will react to the appearance of the Cultural Trail. The 2000 study (Indiana University, 2001) also showed that specifically 86% to 95% of trail neighbors indicated they felt the trail had either no effect or a positive effect on their property value.

The magnitude of the benefit resulting from tourism depends on the number of tourists that visit annually and their total expenditure. Greenways are often major tourist attractions generating expenditures on lodging, food and recreation oriented services and improving the overall appeal of a community to tourists and new residents. Given that the Cultural Trail was still under construction during the duration of this study, predicting its impact on tourism is difficult. The cost benefit technique cannot be used to predict how many tourists will be attracted to the city by the Cultural Trail, but it will project the minimum increased number of visitors attributed to the construction of the Cultural Trail.

Other intangible benefits include the following: The 2000 Indiana Trail Study showed that, without exception, a large majority of trail users in each city indicated they were using the trail primarily for health and fitness (an average of 68%), with the second most frequent purpose being recreation. Roughly 95% or more of all responses fell into these two categories. It is notable that the percentage of trail users utilizing the trail for commuting was largest (5%) in the most urban community, Indianapolis. Besides, it's also adding significant green space in the downtown area. Along the first half-mile alone, 60 new trees, and 16,000 square feet in new shrubs, perennials and other plantings have replaced concrete and asphalt. These planters are dramatically reducing the amount of runoff and associated sediments and pollutants that eventually flow into the storm sewer system. Thus the project will make downtown more beautiful, green and create better air quality. Other intangible benefits may also include good time for the Super Bowl scheduled for 2012, reduction of transportation cost, safe exercise, less traffic accidents, corporate relocation and retention, etc. (Robinson 2010; Indiana Trails, 2010).

Based on the above discussion, a summary of all the cost and benefit items are listed in Table 1.

Table 1: Cost and benefit items

Costs (value inputs)	Other costs (not included in the model)
Construction: (1-time capital)	Public support services
Maintenance: (up to 30 years)	
Benefits (value inputs)	**Other benefits (not included in the model)**
Expenditures by residents (support recreation oriented business and employment)	Making the city beautiful
New construction jobs	infrastructure improvements beneath the surface
Tourism growth due to the Cultural Trail	Good timing for the Super Bowl
	Reduction of transportation cost
	Safe exercise, less traffic accidents
	Investment, corporate relocation and retention

To conduct the cost-benefit analysis, all the value inputs including breakdowns over the 30 years are demonstrated in the following table (see Table 3). To figure the total value to society of the Cultural Trail, all inputs were monetized. Inputs were drawn from several sources and cautions were taken to ensure that the figures used were the most conservative possible.

Table 2: Value inputs of cost and benefit items

Year:	1th	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th
cost:										
Construction	45.35	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Maintenance	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167
Benefit:										
Resident expenditures	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093
Construction workers' Salary	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Year:	11th	12th	13th	14th	15th	16th	17th	18th	19th	20th
Cost:										
Construction	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Maintenance	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167
Benefit:										
Resident expenditures	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093
Construction workers' salary	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Year:	21th	22th	23th	24th	25th	26th	27th	28th	29th	30th
Cost:										
Construction	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Maintenance	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167
Benefit:										
Resident expenditures	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093
Construction workers' salary	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total net benefit: -$37.55 million (Revenue from additional tourism growth not calculated).										

The total net benefit value for a period of 30 years will be -$37.55 million. This value did not count in the interest rate. If counting in the 7% interest rate, the total benefit will be -$285.84 million on the 30th year. To prove that the net effect will not be negative, theoretically, the Cultural Trail must be able to generate at least 41,700 visitors in the first year (the number of visitors needed to be generated equals the ratio of the net benefit, i.e. $37.55m/30 over $30 spending by each visitor). Likewise, there should be 300,000 more visitors generated by the construction of the Cultural Trail (see Table 3). Overall, at least a total of about 4 million more visitors should be generated for 30 years to make the costs and benefits equivalent. The more visitors being attracted, the more cost-effective will the city government be able to prove this plan to be.

Table 3: The number of visitors that the Cultural Trail should be able to generate

Year:	1th	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th
Visitors#	41700	44619	47742	51084	54660	58486	62580	66961	71648	76663
Year:	11th	12th	13th	14th	15th	16th	17th	18th	19th	20th
Visitors#	82030	87772	93916	100490	107524	115051	123105	131722	140943	150809
Year:	21th	22th	23th	24th	25th	26th	27th	28th	29th	30th
Visitors#	161365	172661	184747	197680	211517	226323	242166	259118	277256	296664
Total:	3,939,000									

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

With regards to the partial sensitivity analysis, the data analysis is based on the best scenario that all the users of the Cultural Trail are new users of trails in Indianapolis. Less new users means bigger deficit of the project and thus requires a bigger increase of visitors to the city. The worst scenario would be that there are no new trail users generated by the Cultural Trail.

This study shows a negative net effect without the item of tourism being counted. Given that the primary purpose of constructing the Cultural Trail is to enhance the status of the city's attractiveness as an urban tourism destination, it will be essential for the city government to educate the public what this project will mean to the city's tourism and, more importantly, how the Cultural Trail will be integrated into the city's tourism marketing strategy in making it a successful travel destination.

According to Wang et al. (2010), Indianapolis has made long efforts in promoting the city as a cultural tourism destination; however, there is no indication of remarkable changes of the status of its tourism as a result of these efforts. By introducing and applying Murphy and Broyles' (2006) successful urban destination model, Wang et al. concluded that the main reason for this is that the city lacks almost all the important factors which are important in making an urban destination successful. Moreover, among these factors, lack of a 'flagship' attraction in this city is considered critical as all the other factors are found to be strongly interrelated with and thus probably affected by this key factor. To compare the results of this study with the findings of Wang et al. (2010), a logical implication is to consider the Cultural Trail as the city's new impetus for becoming a successful cultural tourism destination. In other words, whether or not the construction of the Cultural Trail project is cost-effective or worthwhile depends on how successful the city can make the project a 'flagship' attraction of the city, therefore enhancing the whole image of the urban destination.

The result of the cost-benefit analysis provides evidence for the city government and tourism organizations and companies about the important role of the Cultural Trail in the initiative of cultural tourism. Given the city's continuous efforts in promoting cultural tourism, the city government and tourism marketers are bound to work together in making the Cultural Trail a great success in enhancing the status of the city's tourism as well as attracting more visitors.

Due to the nature of cost-benefit analysis, some limitations must be recognized for this study. Some costs and benefits were not included in the model, not because there are less important, but because there are no available values identified about them. Any interpretation of the results should also consider those factors even though they were not included for data analysis in the model. Also, to ensure a more reliable cost-benefit analysis, specific cost information such as labor fee, resident users' spending and visitors' spending should be collected systematically and up to date.

This study attempts to examine current urban tourism issues with a different approach, i.e. cost-benefit analysis. This study is case-based and should not be considered as generalizable. Results of the study will be helpful in making the city government and tourism organizations more aware of the important role of the Cultural Trail in promoting the city as an urban cultural tourism destination.

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PRISON: Cultural Memory and Dark Tourism.

Jacqueline Z. Wilson. 2008. Peter Lang Publishing, New York. Pp. 247. ISBN 978-14331-0279-0

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As a result of her doctoral thesis, Jacqueline Wilson has published an excellent book entitled *Prison: Cultural memory and Dark Tourism*. The main argument throughout this work is that mass-media plays a pivotal role in shaping an all-encompassed image of the history that engenders a specific narrative. This discourse appeals to an elaborated historicity which not always coincides with real facts. Based on the case of prison museums in Australia, she contends that dark tourism is a form of merging past, present and future into a one-sided discourse. This was the case of Australia, a nation seen as a site of prisoners and convicts who were in disagreement with Victorian norms in England. The narratives of inmates have been mingled with other narratives giving a countless variety of other sources.

She goes on to say *"my interest in the prisons as psychical entities, the study is not confined in its analytical scope to the sites themselves; nor it is any taxonomic sense a report on the content or modes of representation at the sites, although there is of course some reportage of that kind. Intrinsic to my over-all argument is an examination of certain broad historical and cultural aspects of the popular narratives that informs sites interpretations and which in turn influence tourist and general public perceptions of prison population in general, contemporary and historical (p. 3")*. Anthropological questions of identity are debated jointly to theories of self born from phenomenology of E. Goffman and J Brunner. By combining the auto-biography of self that characterizes the Brunner's project with Goffmanian dramaturgical model, Wilson argues that ethnography and qualitative methods are efficient instruments to research these types of issues because they captivate the deep-seated meaning of events. Unless otherwise resolved, ethnography allows understanding the complex relationship between the world of ideas and practices as well as it provides with a clear diagnosis of the phenomena. Based on the idea that ethnography visualizes the gap between people say and often do, Wilson considers that the institutionalized history weaved several connections which only qualitative approaches can surely unravel.

From Auschwitz to Alcatraz, prisons have wakened up the admiration and attention of social imaginary in west. The reason why former prisons in Australia attracts international tourists seems to be related to the stories narrated surrounding such sites. These places alternate two relevant aspects: a) emotions enrooted in the need of fleeting encounter and b) the opportunity to digest trauma and disgusting events. As the previous backdrop given, this work synthesizes a set of commotional personal narratives linked to the history of Australia as a land of prisons indentifying the social and psychological factors which determined to what a extent the prison is an consumable good for tourism and hospitality. International visitors have the ability to select, alternate and reject those narratives which do not match with their own psychological and cognitive profile. What in one point is permitted in other is hidden.

It is important not to loose the sight *"a study of social history of a former prison necessarily takes in the interwoven complex of personal experiences that comprise the collective memory of the institutions. This network of individual memories is in large part of a function of the relations between all the various stakeholders of the site – those, that is, with some interest in shaping the stories told by, about and within the historical prison"* (p. 17).

However, ethnography bespeaks of Wilson's feminity with advantages and disadvantages that entails. The prison system is drawn to give an absolute sense of security breaking out the boundaries with environment. Wilson discovered that in some extent, prisons prioritize the routine as a form of creating certain hegemony over inmates, but at the same time they represent an esoteric object of consumption that is present in Mass-media, movies and the culture of entertainment as a whole. Two important dimensions are found by Wilson in her development. "The Architecture of detention" refers to permanent elements as walls, corridors, and cells aimed to feature the prison as a violence-driven institution. Secondly, textual self expression as graffiti negotiates and speaks of the expectances and frustrations of inmates. The main findings of her research reveal that even if tourists are unfamiliar with the graffiti (uncharted site) it seems to be a practice which very well can be studied by sociology to expand the understanding how the day-to-day life in these places was. Following this, Wilson recognizes that methodologically she had serious limitations in her study because as woman there are some things that interviewees (ex prison officers) did not want to say.

Ultimately, the book presents a series of well-described chapters wherein Wilson delve into the interpretative response to question relating to thanatourism or darktourism. This valuable investigation is recommended not only for sociologists and anthropologists concerned about black-tourism issues but also give insight view in respect to the convergence between security or need of protection and curiosity. Wilson brilliantly describes how the realm of inmates and officers is outlined in sharp contrast to the civility beyond the walls of prisons. As previously explained, societies can be understood whereby their taboos which are no other thing than aspects of life that are strongly repressed. For example, if we dwell on the hierarchy of inmates we will realize how people who had committed a crime against the weaker, are placed on the bottom of the hierarchy while the crimes against the stronger as the State or Police are overtly over-valorized. Starting from the premise that in ordinary life stronger hunters eat weaker preys, in prison weaker preys are protected. Should we understand the message in another direction?

Quite aside, this intriguing point suggests that social and cultural values in prisons bolster a dialogue in opposition to civility. What in one world is allowed in the other is forbidden and vice-versa. Understanding the life of prisons is an alternative but much profound way to understand our own world. Wilson does not clarify to what extent dark tourism as a commoditized form of consumption which helps seeing crime and prisons as something else than an industry of entertainment. Perhaps, this is the primary question that Wilson does not clearly focus with further detail on but implicitly invites to continue.

Tourism and Regional Development at Lomonosov Conference in Sevastopol (Ukraine)

Anna Yu. Alexandrova
Vladimir S. Tikunov

The conference “Lomonosov Readings” has become a traditional one and this time it took place 25-26 April 2012 in Sebastopol. It was held by Black Sea Branch of Moscow State University with the support of Moscow State University named Lomonosov for the 11th time. This year’s Conference program has been expanded for the first time and included a round table on “Tourism and Regional Development”. The organizers aimed to make a round table as a consolidation area of all the participants concerned to discuss the following issues: the development of tourism in Crimea, and in particular in Sebastopol district, a common position and the implementation of worked out decisions. At present conditions, as world practice shows, the competitiveness of tourist destinations in the global travel market can be provided only by joint efforts. The round table was attended by representatives of governmental agencies, tourism and related business, institutions, science, education and culture of Russia, Ukraine and Belarus.

The work of round table included the following areas: 1) tourism and recreational potential of coastal areas (in particular Sebastopol district and the Crimea) and its management, 2) sustainable development of the area and tourism and 3) the problem of formation of tourist market of Sebastopol and management of tourist and recreational area, 4) innovative technology development and promotion of tourist products.

The round table discussion was lively around the content of the concept of tourist and recreational potential of the territory, its composition and structure. According to the participants, in the literature a narrow approach to the understanding of potential areas for tourism and recreation is widely used. It is reduced to the natural component and socio-economic perquisites for development of tourism and recreational complex. Founded in the late 60-70s of 20th century, it does not correspond the current state of tourism and recreation and requires revision. The proposed expansive interpretation of tourist and recreational potential of the territory concerns natural, historical, cultural, social, economic, institutional, innovation, investment and some other components. It was emphasized that the basic resources of production activities in tourism are of mutual substitution (e.g. labour and capital or nature resources and capital), that leads to a change in the structure of the resource potential of the tourism industry and the increase there of information resources.

Much attention there was paid to the issues of rational using of tourist-recreational potential of the territory, especially the natural and cultural history and its components. As it is emphasized in the speeches, the development of spontaneous mass tourism and recreation can lead to deterioration of soil and vegetation, water bodies and generally the loss aesthetic qualities of landscapes. Thus, the long-term studies of the steppes of Ai-Petri plateau indicate a change in the structure of the ecosystems and the decrease of biological productivity in areas with extremely intensive recreation load. Over 8 years of observation vegetative mass on a test area with a very intensive load on the ecosystems has declined in 2-6,5 times compared with a reference area. Organizing tourist-recreation activities it is necessary to take into account acceptable standards of recreation pressure. The features of the acceptable loads on the territorial-aquatic systems (depending on the class of object and the sort of recreational activity) were discussed during the round table. For the preservation of ecosystem the calculation of the limiting of recreational pressure is not enough. The organization of recreation monitoring is required for the effective management of the preserved territory. Its principles were regarded in relation to the territory of national landscape reserve "Baydarsky". It is recommended to monitor the state of ecosystems and their further changes under the influence of the mechanical impact recreation (trampling), that will adjust the duration of the excursion season and distribution of the load during the year.

The number of presentations at the round table touched sustainable development of the territory through the diversification of tourist activities. The questions on the organization of different types of tourism, that have their prospects in the Crimea were focused. In particular the development of ecotourism was paid much attention. The presence of unique nature and cultural potential and a large area of objects of natural reserve fund make the south-western Crimea a very promising territory for ecotourism activity. The development of ecotourism in the Crimea is within the boundaries of the protected areas of mountain-forest zone and the coast (the North American model), as well as on the bordering territories – agricultural landscapes (The mixed model). It was noted that the development of ecotourism should be held on a complex base, including the components of cultural, ethnographic, historical, wine, agriculture and other forms of niche tourism.

The speech on archaeological tourism in Ukraine, in the region of Crimea was specially noted. The world widespread practice of the participation of tourist-volunteers in archaeological excavations and archaeological studies in school is not so common in post-Soviet countries, so the information on the archaeological project framed to Artesian expedition in the Eastern Crimea under the aegis of Russian Foundation for Archaeology was of great value. This Foundation provides not only the involvement of the primary work for "tourists – archaeologists ", but also a broad program of scientific and popular lectures on the archaeology , guided tours to nearby archaeological sites. The development of archaeological tourism is regarded as a way to preserve historical and archaeological heritage of the Crimea.

One of the presentations at the round table touched the development of tourism in Ukraine, in particular in Volyn region, one of the most accessible types of tourism – cycling. The analysis of cycling at the local level by district of Volyn region has shown a variety of possible direction of its development – in conjunction with ecotourism based on reserved areas (national parks), special bicycle routes with puzzles, where the participants must find the keys, and international bicycle routes.

The development wine tourism has a great potential for the Crimea. And series of speeches covered that issue. Wine tourism is associated with the culture of wine consumption, restoring the traditions of viticulture. The possibilities of using speleological resources of Crimea for the development of tourism and recreation activities in the region were also considered.

The participants of round table were interested in the presentations of business projects in tourism recreation, based on innovative approaches. As a basis for sustainable development of the territory there were presented cluster models in tourism. Five such cluster models are regarded in details: agriculture-tourist cluster, tourist cluster in the coastal region, a cluster of urban tourism, a cluster of folk arts and crafts, health spa cluster implemented in the Crimea in the framework of international projects. All of them are based on general principles of cluster development – the territorial concentration of production units, competition, co-operation and competitiveness. But each of them uses specific resources that define cluster specialization and each of them has a specific structure and characteristic of the core. One of the promising models is a cluster of wine tourism.

The presented at the round table the results of scientific research is characterized by the integrated approach, a theoretical refinement and practical significance. The interest for the issues of regional development through tourism resulted to solution of regular holding the round table "Tourism and Regional Development" in the "Lomonosov Readings" in Sevastopol, on an interdisciplinary basis and use of the site in the form of the round table for promotion of the results of scientific research in the business environment.

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