

TOURISM Today

A JOURNAL OF THE COLLEGE OF TOURISM AND HOTEL MANAGEMENT
AND DEPARTMENT OF FAMILY AND CONSUMER SCIENCES, BALL STATE UNIVERSITY

NUMBER 14
AUTUMN 2014



College of Tourism
and Hotel Management



BALL STATE
UNIVERSITY.

Tourism Today
Tourism Today
NUMBER 14 AUTUMN 2014
NUMBER 14 AUTUMN 2014

THE COLLEGE OF TOURISM
AND HOTEL MANAGEMENT

29, ONASAGOROU STREET
P.O.Box 21115, 1502 Nicosia, Cyprus
www.cothm.ac.cy

FAMILY AND CONSUMER SCIENCES
COLLEGE OF APPLIED SCIENCES AND TECHNOLOGY
BALL STATE UNIVERSITY

MUNCIE, INDIANA 47306, USA
<http://cms.bsu.edu/>

ISSN 1450-0906

EDITORIAL BOARD

Founder: Antonis Charalambides, College of Tourism and Hotel Management, Cyprus, dogsacad@spidernet.com.cy

Editor-in-Chief: Craig Webster, Ball State University, USA, cwebster3@bsu.edu

Editorial Assistant: Kelsey Shapiro, Ball State University, USA, keshapiro@bsu.edu

Editorial Board

- * Alexandros Paraskevas University of West London, UK, Alexandros.Paraskevas@uwl.ac.uk
- * Alexandru Nedelea, Stefan cel Mare University, Romania, alexandrun@seap.usv.ro
- * Alexis Saveriades, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus, alexis.saveriades@cut.ac.cy
- * Anastasios Zopiatis, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus, anastasios.zopiatis@cut.ac.cy
- * Anne-Marie d’Hauteserre, University of Waikato, New Zealand, adhautes@waikato.ac.nz
- * Atsuko Hashimoto, Brock University, Ontario, Canada, ahashimoto@brocku.ca
- * Aviad A. Israeli, Ben Gurion University of the Negev, Israel, and Kent State University, USA, aviad@som.bgu.ac.il
- * Bill Samenfink, Endicott College, USA, bsamenfi@endicott.edu
- * Bob Brotherton, NHTV Breda University of Applied Sciences, the Netherlands, bob_hospitality@yahoo.co.uk
- * C. Michael Hall, University of Canterbury, New Zealand, michael.hall@canterbury.ac.nz
- * Chih-Lun (Alan) Yen, Ball State University, USA, cyen@bsu.edu
- * Dimitri Tassiopoulos, Walter Sisulu University, South Africa, dtassiopoulos@wsu.ac.za
- * Enrique Cabanilla, Universidad Nacional del Sur, Argentina, ecabanillav@gmail.com
- * Emma Wood, Leeds Metropolitan University, e.wood@leedsmet.ac.uk
- * Evangelos Christou, Alexander Technological Institute of Thessaloniki, Greece, e.christou@aegean.gr
- * Fernando Jose Garrigos-Simon, Universitat Politècnica de València, Spain, fergars3@doe.upv.es
- * Geza M. Timcak, Technical University Košice, Slovakia, spjke@netkosice.sk
- * Gordana Reckoska, University of St. Kliment Ohridski, FYROM, reckoice@t-home.mk
- * Greg Richards, Tilburg University, Tilburg, the Netherlands, greg@tram-research.com
- * Ioannis S. Pantelidis, University of Brighton, UK, i.pantelidis@brighton.ac.uk
- * Jay Kandampully, The Ohio State University, USA, Kandampully.1@osu.edu
- * Jim Butcher, Canterbury Christ Church University, UK, Jim.Butcher@canterbury.ac.uk
- * Jim Wang, Liverpool John Moores University, UK, j.wang@ljmu.ac.uk
- * Kevin Meethan, Plymouth University, UK, K.Meethan@plymouth.ac.uk
- * Lóránt Dávid, Eszterházy Károly University College, Hungary, davidlo@karolyrobert.hu
- * Ludmila Novacka, University of Economics, Bratislava, Slovakia, novackaludmila@gmail.com
- * Marianna Sigala, University of the Aegean, Greece, m.sigala@aegean.gr
- * Maximiliano Korstanje, University of Palermo, Argentina, mkorst@palermo.edu
- * Paris Tsartas, University of the Aegean, Greece, ptsar@aegean.gr
- * Petros Lois, University of Nicosia, Cyprus, Lois.p@unic.ac.cy
- * Ray Youell, University of Wales, Aberystwyth, UK, ray@aber.ac.uk
- * Razaq Raj, Leeds Beckett University, UK, R.Raj@leedsbeckett.ac.uk
- * Richard Butler, University of Strathclyde, UK, Richard.butler@strath.ac.uk
- * Risto Rechkoski, University of St. Kliment Ohridski, FYROM, reckoice@t-home.mk
- * Sotiris Hji-Avgoustis, Ball State University, USA, shjiavgousti@bsu.edu
- * Stanislav Ivanov, International University College, Bulgaria, stanislav.ivanov@vumk.eu
- * Thomas Mavrodontis, Alexander Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki, Greece, mavrodon@gmail.com
- * Wesley S. Roehl, Temple University, USA, wroehl@temple.edu
- * Wojciech J. Cynarski, University of Rzeszow, Poland, sp_walki@univ.rzeszow.pl
- * Yao-Yi Fu, Indiana University, USA, yafu@iupui.edu

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 in Cyprus and Ball State University in the USA. The journal 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*, the College of Tourism and Hotel Management, nor Ball State University.

CONTENTS

Editorial Board	2
Aims & Scope	3
Note from the Editor	6

Full Papers

The importance of the past in explaining the present: the development of tourism in the Scottish highlands and islands from 1750 <i>R.W. Butler</i>	7 - 22
Eventfulness and the quality of life <i>Greg Richards</i>	23 - 36
Educational tourism - the case of Eastern European students: driving forces, consequences, and effects on the tourism industry <i>Iana Tashlai, Stanislav Ivanov</i>	37 - 54
Tourism career perceptions and implications, a case study of Chinese undergraduate students <i>Suosheng Wang</i>	55 - 67
Urban tourism and cultural identity in south-eastern Sicily <i>Elena Di Blasi, Alessandro Arangio</i>	68 - 90
Entrepreneurs' perspectives towards tourism and rural development in North Karelia, Finland <i>Parhad Keyim, Czesław Adamiak</i>	91 - 102
The safety of ships: The case of cruise vessel <i>Petros Lois</i>	103 - 130

Marketing cultural experience: a case study of a historical canal town
Yao-Yi Fu 131 - 142

Tourism and the application of environmental legislation: the case of Rhodes, Greece.
Christina Loi, Andreas Papatheodorou, Kyriaki Glyptou 143 - 163

CASE STUDIES/RESEARCH NOTES

Contemporary parish and pilgrimage travel: Preconditions and targeting
Nicos Rodosthenous, Manolis Varvounis 164 - 172

The impact of shift rotations on hotel staff performance: is it loss of concentration or stress that leads to involvement in critical incidents?
Mohamed Hany B. Moussa, Mahinour A. Fouad, Ashraf El Baroudy 173 - 186

Book REVIEWS

Dark tourism and crime.
Reviewed by Maximiliano K. 187 - 190

CALLS FOR PAPERS / ANNOUNCEMENTS

The European Journal of Tourism Research 191
Ecoforum 192

CONTRIBUTOR INFORMATION 193 - 195

NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS 196 - 198

PUBLICATION ETHICS AND PUBLICATION MALPRACTICE STATEMENT 199 - 200

NOTE FROM THE EDITOR

Welcome to the fourteenth edition of *Tourism Today*, a journal that has undergone a major change as it now has two institutions supporting it. Beginning with this edition, *Tourism Today* is now a journal of the College of Tourism and Hotel Management and Ball State University. The new cooperation between these two institutions on different sides of the Atlantic Ocean enables *Tourism Today* to continue to be a quality peer-reviewed journal. There have also been some additions to the Editorial Board, allowing the journal to have a more global reach, as a casual scanning of the members of the Editorial Board will show. Despite the changes in terms of the journal's patrons and some changes to the Editorial Board, the journal will remain available to anyone free of charge.

This edition is blessed with articles from top academics in the field. It showcases many different topics in tourism and highlights many different methodologies used in tourism research. One piece that stands out as being very different in terms of content, method, and style is Richard Butler's piece on the development of tourism in the Scottish Highlands. His historical discussion of tourism development in Scotland is thought provoking and interesting. Equally interesting and using a very different methodology is Greg Richards' article dealing with quality of life issues and events. There is substantial diversity in the topics in this edition of the journal, so almost anyone should find at least one article interesting, useful, and informative. Those that are interested in learning about such diverse topics as educational tourism, tourism career perceptions, safety issues on ships, and many other diverse topics, will find something in this issue to attract their attention.

As has been the case for nearly a decade and a half, comments that assist us in improving the journal are appreciated. We encourage readers to support the journal by submitting quality research for our consideration and spreading the word about the usefulness of the journal.

We wish you an enjoyable and interesting reading.

Craig Webster
Editor-in-Chief, *Tourism Today*

The importance of the past in explaining the present: the development of tourism in the Scottish Highlands and Islands from 1750

R.W. Butler

richard.butler@strath.ac.uk

ABSTRACT

The paper discusses the development of tourism in a major tourism region (the Scottish Highlands and Islands) and demonstrates how the tourism industry there today represents the result of technological innovation, social, economic and political changes in societies, and the perceptions of potential visitors. The region under discussion had a turbulent past and still has a difficult geography for travellers, and thus the development of tourism there has reflected the influence of a range of factors. The paper concentrates on the importance of transportation innovation and development in particular in opening up the region for tourism, and notes the importance of the transformation of the image of the region by artistic, literary and royal actors from an area of fear and disapproval to one of a romantic playground, which has continued to the present day.

Keywords: Scotland, transportation modes, image, development.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is very much an iterative form of development, reflecting in the present the many forces and factors which have changed the original image of and visitation to a region. What is seen in tourism in the present day, therefore, represents the latest stage of development, and it would be naïve to assume that tourism in any area will remain static in the future. However, it should be possible to understand how the present form of tourism has developed and to learn what is likely to happen in the future by examining earlier forms of tourism and the influences on these which have shaped the present patterns of development. In some locations, such as the example examined here, the Scottish Highlands and Islands, geographical factors alone can explain much of the present pattern of development because of the constraints which they impose on the region, in particular, how visitors can reach the area and move around within it. Other factors such as technological innovation and social and economic changes complicate this pattern, and reflect very much on the transportation forms which evolve in the region.

Tourism has always been unavoidably and inextricably linked with transportation, a relationship

that has become stronger as tourism has grown and become ever more global. All definitions of tourism have one thing, perhaps the only thing they do have in common, and that is that to be a tourist, an individual must travel. They must go to a location that is not their place of residence and ultimately return, normally in less than a year, thus necessitating the use of transportation. The pattern of tourism over centuries has been heavily influenced by the availability (cost, convenience, safety and speed) of transport available (Page 2005). Indeed, every form of transport except for rocket travel has not only been used in tourism, but has also become a form of leisure in its own right. We ride, cycle, drive, fly and sail for pleasure as well as to and from pleasure. This pattern and relationship is as old as tourism itself, and the vicissitudes of travel have been mirrored in the nature and scale of tourism.

The nature of transportation in terms of access from markets to tourism locations, or origin to destination, has great influence on the level and type of tourism that takes place in different locations. In Victorian times, the innovation and spread of the railway saw the establishment and popularity of many locations that previously had been relatively inaccessible or to which travel took a considerable time from most origin markets. While a few major seaside towns existed before the railway era, of which Brighton was the most well known and well developed (Gilbert 1939, 1954), following the mid 19th century railway construction boom, many communities of varying sizes emerged as significant holiday destinations around the British coast. The largest then, as now, was Blackpool, but others such as Rhyl, Weston Super Mare, Bournemouth, Skegness, and in Scotland, the Clyde coast resorts such as Largs, Helensburgh and Wemyss Bay began to grow rapidly. In many cases the railway companies played a significant role in this expansion, not only by providing access for markets, but also through publicity and the provision of facilities such as hotels, piers and entertainment areas (Pearson 1968; Pattison 1968)

The links between the railways and tourism development received a significant boost from the organised use of rail travel for moving groups of people engaged in leisure, was begun but not entirely monopolised by Thomas Cook (Cook 1861; Swinglehurst 1982). In the case of England, there were a number of large Industrial Revolution urban centres providing mass markets for railway travel (e.g. Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, Newcastle, Leeds, Sheffield). In Scotland, only Glasgow was of comparative size to those above, and when such development did occur, it was on a much smaller scale and involving fewer facilities than in England. In the context of this paper the attention is less on tourist resorts or specific destinations than it is on the role of transport in the tourism development of a broad region, the Highlands and Islands of Scotland, ranging from the Argyll coast at Mull of Kintyre in the south west, to Caithness and Sutherland in the north, and including the island groups of the Hebrides. It is acknowledged that this spatial division is possibly not easily defensible in the 21st century but it has validity in the period under discussion.

The paper will primarily review the development of tourism in this area from the mid 18th century to the end of the 19th century, illustrating the links between tourism and transport services during that period. In so doing it will draw on more than the tourism literature, little of which exists as such in this period, and include personal journals, gazetteers, landed estate

papers, records of transportation companies, and more general historical and travel publications, of which there are a considerable number (for example, Groome 1894; Thomas 1970; Vallance 1972). Dates of references refer to the editions consulted, not necessarily to the date of original publication or travel.

GEOGRAPHICAL FACTORS

To anyone at all familiar with Scotland, the relationship between the physical landscape and the resulting human settlement is immediately apparent. There are few natural routeways through the mainland of northern and western Scotland. Those that have existed for many years are the glens (valleys) containing the major river valleys and lochs such as the Great Glen, and the passes such as Drumochter that lie between them. The main traditional tracks and roads followed such routes, as inevitably, did the railway later. Even using these natural routeways, considerable engineering works were needed to traverse this area with some degree of reliability and confidence. The ancient “Drove Roads” of the Highlands and Islands (Haldane 1962; 1968) were of little use to travellers, particularly leisure travellers. Only after the work of the military under Wade in particular and remarkable engineers such as Thomas Telford, could the average traveller contemplate moving around the Highlands in any degree of comfort and safety at better than a slow march.

A similar situation existed with respect to access to the islands. The western seas are difficult and prone to strong winds and frequent storms, and those to the north, including the Pentland Firth, even harder to traverse. While intrepid travellers did visit this area and its island attractions such as Staffa, Iona and Skye, travel was hazardous and unpredictable and regular services almost non-existent. The “opening up” of the islands came with steam power and the development of the network of steamers operated by Burns, Hutchinson, and later Macbrayne (McCrorie 1987). Air travel, although of relatively little significance in terms of visitor numbers even today, has made the islands much more accessible to markets throughout the UK and Europe. It was, however, traditionally limited to very few people because of high costs per mile travelled and because of the limited capacity of the planes used. Air access to Scotland in general has increased significantly in the last two decades with the advent of budget airlines in particular but none of these fly to the islands. Private boats and planes are few although the former appear to have increased over the decades, but empirical evidence in terms of statistics is hard to find to confirm this.

EVOLUTION OF TOURISM

To researchers in tourism the fact that northern and western Scotland has been a destination for tourists for more than two and a half centuries is rather unusual. That a small, relatively insignificant country on the wet and relatively inaccessible western edge of Europe should attract any visitors, let alone international ones of considerable renown, in the 18th century

is puzzling, because the concept of the Grand Tour was still in vogue, and cultural centres in mainland Europe were the predominant tourist attractions (Hibbert 1969; Towner 1985). Before the “Romantic Revolution” in art, literature and scenic appreciation, the major attractions of this region, its scenery and heritage, were not appealing to the conventional travellers of that period. To understand why tourists came to this area in this period we need to turn to two unlikely bedfellows, mythology and science. Before that however, we should note that this part of Scotland was viewed with suspicion, fear and concern by many outsiders, particularly the English. For centuries the Scottish Highlands had nurtured cattle thieves and others who plundered the more affluent lowlands and thus highlanders such as Rob Roy McGregor were regarded with much less affection than his earlier southern counterpart, Robin Hood. As well, the highland clans had risen in rebellion against the Hanoverian crown three times between 1715 and 1745 and had been forcibly subdued through military occupation of the area after the defeat of Bonnie Prince Charlie at Culloden in 1746. Thus not only was the area unknown in detail, a “Terra Incognita” to those living distant from Scotland, it was also a “Terra Horribilis” in terms of its image.

The transformation of the image of Highland Scotland came about primarily because of four influences. One was the writing of the poet McPherson and his creation of the (later proven false) Ossian legends and supposed “epics” of the ancient Gaels (McPherson 1765). Trevor Roper’s published bemoaning of Scottish myths (Trevor Roper 1983) notwithstanding, McPherson created an image that has endured in different forms to this day, long after the Ossian name has disappeared from contemporary parlance (Gold and Gold 1995). Not unrelated to the image of the Highland warrior was the second factor, the military situation. The British Crown was forced to keep garrisons in the area because of fears of another Jacobite rising, thus settlements like Fort William, Fort George, Fort Augustus and Kingussie had a permanent military presence and needed speedy access to the surrounding countryside. A period of military road building began in the early 18th century which served to make the settlements and their vicinities much more accessible. The military presence in Scotland also attracted visitors, including writers, of various sorts, such as Daniel Defoe (1974).

A third influence was science, and the development of scientific curiosity before and following the “Scottish enlightenment”, which saw a small number of influential and well known scientists (such as Sir Joseph Banks) travel around the area on voyages of scientific exploration and discovery. They were geologists mostly, but also included physicists, geographers, chemists and agronomists, as well as clergy and philosophers. Their subsequent lecture tours and scientific publications drew attention to the wonders of this area just as the recounting of the discoveries of the Lewis and Clarke expedition led to tourism to the American west in the early 19th century (Butler and Boyd 2000). While the Giant’s Causeway in Ulster has always drawn similar tourists in greater numbers than its island counterpart in Scotland, Staffa (to which it is geologically related), the Causeway was somewhat maligned by Dr Johnston with his remark that it was worth seeing but not worth going to see (Boswell 1791 p. 912).

Finally, and perhaps above all, from the point of view of modern tourism, there was the influence of Sir Walter Scott, the “Wizard of the North”, whose writings built on those of

McPherson. Scott created through his poems and novels a powerful and attractive image of the Highlands from Shetland (*The Pirate*) through to the Borders (*Lay of the Last Minstrel*) via *The Trossachs* (*Rob Roy*), and tourists from George IV on have been following in his literary footsteps ever since. As will be shown, the pattern of tourism established by the 1830s has changed little over the intervening nearly two centuries and what are seen as the attractions of the area (mountains, lochs, bagpipers, tartan and heather), are the same as those popularised by Scott (Butler 1986). His writing drew other literary and artistic visitors to the area, as well as royalty, and “Balmorality” and the “shortbread tin” image of Scotland has survived and is still envied by many other countries because it is so well known and enduring (Butler and Russell 2012).

Thus from the mid 18th century on, the Scottish Highlands and Islands began to be visited by steadily increasing numbers of tourists of differing characteristics and with different motives and preferences. Initially they all faced the problem of not only getting to the area, but the even greater one of getting into and around the area. For that they were dependent on changing forms of transportation.

EARLY TRANSPORTATION- WIND, HORSES, AND FEET – 1750-1850

Travel in this area before the era of steam power was by foot or pony on land, and sailboat on water. In England the generally poor roads were being improved by conversion into Turnpikes by the mid 18th century (Towner 1996) and drastic improvements in speed and comfort of coach travel on the new road system saw significant reductions in travel time between those areas connected to this system. In Scotland there was little such development, and the writings of early travellers are replete with comments on the poor state of roads or tracks and the great difficulty in moving through the area (see Boswell 1852 and Burt 1974 for example). Defoe (1974) noted that travelling in the manner of a military expedition was to be advised, and while armed guards were not necessary as in some areas of Europe, good guides were essential. Making life for the traveller much worse was the absence of decent accommodation.

The provision of inns and hotels in the highlands and islands was limited and affected by the fact that unlike the situation in England, there was little need for coaching inns as there were no coach services. “King’s Houses” existed on some main routes, the one on Rannoch Moor being the best known, but these were limited in location and number. In some cases inns were established to serve the landowners, the Dukes of Argyll and Athol were influential in this regard, and thus there was a better provision of accommodation in Argyllshire and Perthshire along the military road (now the A9) than in most other Highland areas. Burt’s (1974) descriptions of some of the establishments at which he stayed capture the flavour of what was available at that time, including one at which he pushed straw into holes in the outside wall of his room to stop incoming winds, only to have a starving cow promptly eat it from the outside.

Compounding the problem of lack of accommodation and means of transport was the lack of information. It is hard in this day and age to realise that the spatial knowledge of local people might be limited to a range of a few miles from where they lived. Dorothy Wordsworth, when travelling with her brother, the poet William, on their 1833 tour in the Highlands was amazed that a local girl could not give them directions to the Trossachs (made famous by Scott's Rob Roy), which were less than ten miles from where she lived (Wordsworth 1941). The lack of bridges meant that any large river had to be crossed by ferry or traversed at its lowest ford, which might mean a detour of a considerable distance, a problem faced by David Balfour more than once in Stevenson's novel "Kidnapped". As a result, some inns, or at least accommodation for travellers, began to appear at important river and loch crossings, such as Loch Carron near Kyle of Lochalsh and Kylerhea near Glenelg. Towner (1985) found similar linkages emerging on the popular routes of the Grand Tour, with inns and hotels supplementing the monastic accommodation on some of the Alpine passes as the numbers of travellers began to increase.

The patterns of the early visitors to the area remained similar to those of today. On the east they followed the coast north to Aberdeen and then west to Inverness, sometimes cutting inland through Deeside or across Moray and Nairn. In the central highlands, the main route was Drumochter Pass but this was often blocked in bad weather. Further west, however, travellers could not follow the coast on land because of the indentations of the sea lochs, and travel was east/west rather than north/south, meaning that to visit several locations on the west coast the traveller had either to travel east inland and then west again, or take a boat. Outside of the main settlements there were major problems facing a traveller. Burt (1974) noted the importance of guides without which he was barely able to travel more than a few miles out of Inverness, and even these were far from infallible at finding the correct routes. Johnson (1876:44) remarked that

"in the islands there was no roads, nor any marks by which a stranger may find his way. The horseman has always at his side a native of the place.. A very few miles require several hours."

Travel was arduous and slow, and transport had to be arranged on the spot, and was dependent on what was available in that location at that time. This might result in delays or even complete failure to reach the next objective. Travel for pleasure certainly was not pleasurable, nor was the end of the journey necessarily the end of inconvenience and discomfort. Youngson (1974:13) reports that the few visitors then

"tended to speak of the country almost with horror, as a black howling wilderness, full of bogs and boulders, mostly treeless and nearly unfit for human habitation."

O'Dell and Walton (1962: 125-6) note that

"The roads which linked the townships and the burghs in the eighteenth century were little more than tracks used by foot and horse travellers. Few carts or coaches existed..."

(the roads) were simply narrow unmetalled tracks ... (and)...speedily became morasses in wet weather.”

Travel by boat in many ways was preferable. One had accommodation, food and drink provided, and some control, subject to weather, over timing and direction. Sailors were knowledgeable of the waters and the location of harbours and settlements, although charting of the western seas was not completed until 1750 (McCrorie 1987), thus many of the scientific expeditions favoured this form of transportation. As much of the focus of many scientific journeys were the western islands, particularly Staffa and Skye, a boat was essential for at least a part of the journey. Pennant (1772) travelled the area in 1772 and in the same year Sir Joseph Banks discovered Fingal’s Cave on Staffa, visited half a century later by Mendelssohn. On their first two trips to Scotland in 1842 and 1844 Queen Victoria and Prince Albert sailed by royal yacht to Granton and Dundee respectively, before proceeding inland by coach. In 1847 Victoria and Albert used the new royal yacht to visit the west of Scotland on their only trip to the islands, and to access some of the major sites (Millar 1985). On later trips the Royal visitors used the newly established rail services to reach Aberdeen and, when the line was extended, Ballater, en route to their summer home of Balmoral. The last few miles and travel around the area was by coach and horses, and particularly on shooting ponies which allowed access to far more locations than did horse drawn coaches.

Significant changes in transportation did not come about until after two periods of construction in the highlands. The first was the construction of military roads under the direction of Caulfield and Wade in the late 18th century, who improved almost a thousand miles of roads through previously barely accessible terrain in order to allow the quicker movement of troops. Wade’s efforts over the “Rest and be Thankful” pass in Argyll earning the accolade carved in a rock at the top of the hill,

“If you had seen these roads before they were made, you would lift up your arms and praise General Wade.”

Wade’s road over the Corriearrack Pass from Fort Augustus to Speyside was one of the few “new” routes opened up, most of the other military roads represented major improvements over existing routeways. To take full advantage of the new roads it was necessary to also bridge the many rivers and gorges that exist in the area, and “Wade’s” bridges are found throughout the Highlands.

The second wave of transportation improvements came at the end of the 18th century under the direction of Thomas Telford, who, perhaps more than Wade and Caulfield, can be said to have opened up the area for traffic of a non military nature. Telford’s extraordinary vision and accomplishments saw a significant expansion in water crossings, and the completion of major feats of engineering such as the Caledonian Canal (begun in 1803, completed in 1820) from Fort William to Inverness, utilising the lochs along the Great Glen. This provided an invaluable shorter and much safer boat route that avoided a long haul up the west coast, along the north coast and then south to reach Inverness and the surrounding area from anywhere on

the west coast. It was a route soon heavily used by tourists as well as commercial traffic, and is now almost exclusively a tourist routeway. The Crinan Canal which opened access from Loch Fyne to the west coast was instigated by the Duke of Argyll and engineered by Rennie. Most of Telford's contributions must be seen as improvements rather than innovations, with the exception of his canal construction, as they were essentially related to re-engineering existing roads and providing more convenient crossing points, than to opening completely new routes. In terms of tourism therefore, the effect was to concentrate tourist travel along the now more passable and considerable safer and quicker existing routeways, rather than allowing travel to previously inaccessible areas. He did not, for example, significantly improve the Corrieyarrack or provide new road links on a north south axis on the west coast. Indeed, the first "new" road in the west did not appear until the 1960s, although general road improvements continued throughout the period to the present.

THE STEAM ERA – 1819-1900

Steam power came to the area in the form of Bell's first steamboat, "Comet", in 1819 which traversed the Crinan Canal in that year and the use of steam powered, generally paddle wheel, boats increased rapidly. The use of steam power had immediate effects on tourism to and in Scotland. In terms of its application to boats, it provided a much safer and generally quicker and more reliable means of access to the island and many coastal settlements on the west in particular. Although Scott (1982) had made his tour (Northern Lights) a decade before steam powered boats entered these waters, travel by sail and row boat in the west remained hazardous and arduous for some time. When Victoria and Albert made their trip in the Royal George around the west in 1847, they had to rely on sail and oar to visit sites such as Fingal's Cave on Staffa. Once steamships were available, many more people tried to visit Staffa.

"Since the introduction of steam navigation, Staffa has enjoyed abundant celebrity and been visited by multitudes of admirers. The day's sail by swift steamer from Oban ...is now...one of the regular tourist trips during the summer months." (Groome, 1894, Vol 6: 375)

Johnson and Boswell and other travellers were subjected to the vicissitudes of the weather in trying to access Skye, Raasay and other islands, a situation which still occurs to a lesser degree even today.

The advent of steam powered vessels opened up the west coast, first the Clyde estuary, from the Broomielaw dock in Glasgow, and then rapidly from the eastern Clyde coast resorts such as Helensburgh, Gourock, Fairlie, Wemyss Bay, Largs and Ayr, across to the islands of Bute, Cumbrae, Arran, and the Argyll coast at Dunoon and as far south as Cambeltown, as well as the Kyles of Bute and Lochs Fyne, Goil and Long. The steamers began to traverse the Crinan Canal and serve the Inner Hebridean Islands, thus avoiding a long and sometimes rough journey around the Mull of Kintyre. The major beneficiary of steam boats in the area under discussion in terms of tourism was undoubtedly Oban, which became the primary gateway

to the islands and the west. Burns (from the 1820s to 1851), and then Hutchinson/Macbrayne (1851-1878), and finally MacBrayne (until 1972), all operated fleets of boats from Oban to the surrounding islands.

Steam powered boats also improved access to Scotland generally from the southern markets, both to Glasgow on the west and Edinburgh (Leith), Dundee and Aberdeen on the east. The Royal family sailed to Leith in the Royal Yacht to begin their later Scottish visits, and it was to Edinburgh that their predecessor, George IV had come in 1822 on the “King’s Jaunt” as Prebble (1988) described it. That was the first visit to Scotland by a reigning monarch since before the Jacobite rebellions, and Sir Walter Scott, as Master of Ceremonies, created a tartan vision which completed the rehabilitation of the warrior image of the Highlander, already partly restored by the performance of the Highland regiments in the Napoleonic and other wars. Although George did not venture beyond Edinburgh, his visit, its reception, and the image created by Scott all laid the way for the later annual visits of Victoria and her descendants and set the seal of approval on a Scottish highland holiday very firmly (Butler 2008). What royalty did, many aristocrats and others aspired to copy, and subsequently did, through their shooting and fishing holidays and purchasing of highland estates as grand summer homes as Balmoral (Scrope 1847; Thornton. 1896). The repeated annual visits by the Royal family to their Scottish second home have given both prestige and publicity to the Scottish Highlands for over a century and a half and continue to do so to the present day.

The advent of the railways to the Highlands came considerably later than in England, partly because of a smaller market, reflecting the dispersed, smaller and poorer population, and partly because of the difficulty of the terrain. Mountains rather than hills, fast flowing deeply incised rivers rather than slow moving rivers in flood plains, granite rather than chalk or clay, and bogs rather than meadows all made construction in this area difficult and costly. As in other areas, such as western Canada (Hart 1980), several of the railway companies saw tourism as source of revenue. While few resorts benefited directly or on the same scale as for example, had Blackpool or Skegness from railway involvement in construction and provision of facilities, the railways did invest in hotels, for example in Oban, and generally ran lines as close to harbours and piers as possible. No other had quite the rail/steamer links that Wemyss Bay did, where one stepped from the train onto the pier with but a short walk to the boat, but the distance from the station to the main boarding point for MacBrayne’s steamers in Oban was minimal, as is the case in Kyle of Lochalsh and Mallaig. Unfortunately timetables of rail and boat did not always match, a problem still today, but accommodation was being provided at an increasing rate as the railway arrived. Oban, some twelve years after the railway arrived, had 15 inns and hotels available, including some of the largest in the area.

The rail lines reached the west coast some time after they had gone as far north as Thurso (reached in 1974). Oban was the first western port in the area to be connected (1880), followed by Kyle of Lochalsh (1897) from Inverness, while Mallaig was not reached until 1901. The length of time (27 years) for the line to make the final connection between Lochcarron and Kyle of Lochalsh reflects the difficulty of finding an appropriate route and construction

of some of these lines. A further difficulty was the attitude of landowners towards the railway. Many of the highland landowners were either traditional clan chiefs or southern aristocracy who had purchased estates confiscated from Jacobite supporters after the 1745 rebellion. Some had no desire to have their deer forests and their privacy violated by the railway and what it would bring (Orr 1982). Others were strongly supportive and even insistent on the railway connecting through their lands as they saw it as a real improvement in reaching their summer estates (along with their retainers and families). Some of the small and never economic stations or halts were due entirely to the insistence of the local landowners (Vallance 1972: 32-33). The railways provided the means of access to the Highlands for many tourists as well as the landed gentry. Fishermen in particular came in abundance, often changing from rail to steamer at Oban or Kyle, or even Thurso to visit Orkney, to fish the remoter lochs.

“The railway holds an important place in the tourist routes throughout Scotland, many tours in conjunction with coaches, steamers on the Caledonian Canal etc. being organised” (Groome 1894 Vol 4:375)

Oban was described as “the headquarters of all who desire to visit the west highlands” (op cit Vol 5: 126), although Groome (op cit Vol 5: 124-5) also noted

“Tourists go to Oban simply for the purpose of getting somewhere else...its chief attraction to visitors is the ease with which from Oban they can reach other parts of the Highlands.”

Those wishing to visit the Isle of Skye, for example, found it infinitely easier to travel by rail to Inverness and south west to Kyle and across to Skye by ferry than earlier travellers had. Before the railway this had involved a long trip, either by road to Mallaig or Kyle, a most uncomfortable journey, or by longer boat trip from Oban. Plans for the development of locations such as Loch Coruisk on Skye (dramatised by Scott and painted by Turner) showed the potential envisaged for such areas once access by tourists was made quicker, safer and more comfortable and reliable.

“The landlord talks of mooring a floating hotel at the head of Loch Scavaig full of sleeping apartments, the best of meats and drinks, and a brass band to perform the newest operatic tunes on the summer evenings” (Smith 1865: 97)

The railways added greatly to the tourist potential of the area. First by providing a quicker means of access to Scotland, particularly from the main English markets, requiring only hours instead of days. Cook and others took advantage of the train to bring groups of tourists to Scotland, transporting them then by coach and by boat around the scenic spots. The routes they took and the sights they saw, however, had changed little since the explorations of Johnson and Boswell, Penant, or even Defoe. Scott’s writing had added the Trossachs, the Borders, including his own house at Abbotsford, and Edinburgh, but Inverness, Culloden Battlefield, the Great Glen, Ben Nevis, Glencoe, Oban, Staffa and Iona, and Skye remained

the foci of most tourist trips. As the new Balmoral was built and the Royal family's visits became annual, interest also grew in the eastern Grampians, particularly Deeside. The Queen regularly used the Royal Train to the railhead at Ballater, when visiting Balmoral, and from there she travelled widely within Deeside and adjoining glens by coach and pony.

The railway also opened up destinations on the east coast of the Highlands north of Inverness, an area previously ignored by many visitors. The small towns of Fortrose, Cromarty and Rosemarkie, even as far north as Dornoch, began to take advantage of their sandy beaches, drier climate and in some cases, the development of golf courses, to attract small but significant numbers of rail borne tourists. An indication of the effect of the train can be seen in the Census of 1921 when these burghs have markedly increased populations figures recorded, reflecting tourists rather than residents, a phenomenon noted elsewhere (Walton and O'Neill 1993). Also in the east was the only spa development in the Highlands at Strathpeffer, aided in its development by the Highland Railway hotel opening in 1915 and the running of the summer "Strathpeffer Express" until 1915 (Vallance 1972). In the west the railway failed to establish new resorts or destinations, but the improvements in access to its railheads alleviated the inaccessibility that Fontane (1965: 197) had remarked upon:

"One must realize how quite remarkably inhospitable and inaccessible this west coast of Scotland was."

By the end of the 19th century angling, and shooting on rented estates was another extremely popular Highland summer activity, the land under Deer Forest extending over three million acres early in the 20th Century (O'Dell and Walton 1962) and rents were several thousand pounds for a ten week season. As well as aristocratic sportsmen, the railways and steamers also began to serve a mass market. O'Dell and Walton (1962 335) note "congestion on the Highland Railway", and ramblers and hikers used the railway and steamers to gain access from the major central Scotland cities to the hills. Cumming, writing in 1886 (420), quoted an anonymous poet

"Strange to them the train, but stranger,
The mixed throng it bubbles forth,
Strand and Piccadilly emptied
On the much-enduring north."

By the early 20th century weekend trains were bringing upwards of one thousand people on a Sunday to Fort William and several excursion trains were leaving Glasgow and Edinburgh each weekend in the summer. Mass travel by the steamer from the Broomielaw and elsewhere was a common feature from the middle of the 19th century, although not many visitors ventured beyond the resorts of Dunoon or Rothesay.

COMBUSTION ENGINE DAYS – 1900-PRESENT

Roads still remained a problem well into the 20th century. While the “Devil’s Elbow” was notorious on the road in Glen Shee until the 1950s, in the north and west single track roads with passing places still exist. While improvements have been made in the last half century with new bridges over the Clyde, the Forth and at Inverness and Kyle, only one new road link was constructed in the west (in Wester Ross) in the 20th century. Improvements to many roads have been made, but the main access to the west, the A82 which follows the shore of Loch Lomond traversing Rannoch Moor and Glencoe, is a notorious bottleneck and dangerous route. Coach travel in the Highlands, nevertheless, has replaced group travel by train, although to mostly the same locations because of the limitations of the transport routes available, as discussed above. Roll-on roll-off car ferries to the islands have increased road traffic considerably (Brougham and Butler 1981) although tourist rail traffic generally has declined despite attempts to promote rail travel in winter to ski resorts in Speyside and Glen Nevis and the use of the Glenfinnan viaduct in the Harry Potter movies. The pattern of tourism that was reinforced by the railway system remains to this day, however, and is unlikely to change. Air travel, as noted earlier, has dramatically improved access to many of the islands but does not involve large numbers of people and only small numbers of tourists. Steam powered rail travel has disappeared from the Highlands except as a tourist attraction in the form of the Boat of Garten to Aviemore restored railway line. All of the traditional passenger steamers have disappeared from the west coast except for the occasional visits home to the Clyde by the paddle steamer Waverley, the only sea going paddle steamer in the world, being replaced by diesel powered car ferries.

CONCLUSION

Today, the pattern of tourism through the Highlands and Islands remains very similar to that which developed over two centuries ago. The main gateways (and railheads) to the islands, Oban, Fort William, Mallaig and Kyle have been joined by Ullapool (with car ferry service to Stornoway), while Inverness and the Spey Valley are still popular to the east, and the traditional routeways of the great north road (the current A9), the Great Glen and the Rest and Be Thankful remain the major tourist routes of the 21st century. Geography and transport still dictate thus. The perception of the region is still dominated by the images created by Scott and others, with the principal attractions being the scenery and the cultural heritage, along with more recent additions such as golf, skiing and whisky. Modern accommodations now exist and are widespread and travel is comfortable and safe, if a little slower than in some other regions because of the limitations imposed by the physical landscape. The complexities of its history and landscape explain why this region became and has remained a tourist destination for over two centuries despite its peripheral location and physical limitations, and the role of transportation through its history has clearly been of critical importance in explaining the present pattern of its development.

REFERENCES

- Boswell, J. (1852) *Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides with Samuel Johnson* National Illustrated Library, Random House: London
- Boswell, J. (1791) *Life of Samuel Johnson* Alfred A. Knopf: New York
- Brougham, J. E. and Butler, R.W. (1981) The Application of Segregation Analysis to Explain Resident Attitudes to Social Impacts of Tourism *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8(IV), 569-590.
- Burt, E. (1974) *Letters from a Gentleman in the North of Scotland Facsimile of 1754 edition*, Donaldson: Edinburgh
- Butler, R.W. (1975) The Development of the Tourist Industry of the Highlands and Islands in the 19th C., *Scottish Tradition*, Vol. V, 71-84
- Butler, R.W. (1985) The Evolution of Tourism in the Scottish Highlands in the 18th and 19th Centuries. *Annals of Tourism Research* 12(3), 371-391
- Butler, R. W. (1986) Literature as an Influence in Shaping the Image of Tourist Destinations: A Review and Case Study in J.S. Marsh ed. *Canadian Studies of Parks Recreation and Tourism in Foreign Lands*. Trent Univ., 111-132
- Butler, R.W. (1998) Tartan Mythology; the traditional tourist image of Scotland in G.Ringer ed *Destinations* London: Routledge, 121-139
- Butler, R.W. (2008) The History and Development of Royal Tourism in Scotland: Balmoral, the Ultimate Holiday Home? In Long, P. and Palmer, N.J. (eds) *Royal Tourism: Excursions around Monarchy* Channelview Publications: Clevedon 51-61
- Butler, R.W. and Boyd, S.W. (2000) *Tourism and National Parks* Chichester: Wiley
- Butler, R.W. and Russell, R. (2012) The Role of Individuals in the Development and Popularisation of Tourist Destinations in Hsu.C. and Gartner, W. eds. *The Routledge Handbook of Tourism Research* Routledge: London, 132-144
- Cook, T. (1861) *Cook's Scottish Tourist Official Directory*, T.Cook: Leicester
- Cooper, D. (1990) *Road to the Isles - Travellers in the Hebrides 1770-1914* Drew: Glasgow
- Defoe, D. (1774) *A tour Through the Whole Island of Great Britain* J.M.Dent: London

- Duff, D. (1983) *Queen Victoria's Highland Journals*, Webb and Bower: Exeter
- Eden, R. (1979) *Going to the Moors*, John Murray: London
- Gilbert, E. W. (1939) The growth of inland and seaside health resorts in England *Scottish Geographical Magazine* 55 16-35
- Gilbert, E.W. (1954) *Brighton, Old Ocean's Bauble* Methuen: London
- Gold, J. and Gold, M. (1995) *Imagining Scotland*, Gower Press: Aldershot
- Groome, F.H. (1794) *Ordinance Gazetteer of Scotland* (Volumes I-VI) Mackenzie: London
- Haldane, A.R.B. (1962) *New Ways Through the Glens* T.Nelson: Edinburgh
- Haldane, A.R.B. (1968) *The Drove Roads of Scotland* T. Nelson: Edinburgh
- Hart-Davis, D. (1978) *Monarchs of the Glen* J.Cape: London
- Hibbert, C. (1969) *The Grand Tour* Putnam: London
- Hill, J.B. (1973) *Landseer: An Illustrated Life of Sir Edwin Landseer 1802-1973*, Shire Publications: Buckinghamshire
- Irwin, F., and Wilton, A. (1982) *Turner in Scotland*, Aberdeen Art gallery: Aberdeen
- Johnson, S. (1876) *A Journey to the Western Islands of Scotland in 1773* Morrison: Glasgow
- McCrorie, I. (1987) *Steamers of the Highlands and Islands An Illustrated History* Orr, Pollock and Co.: Greenock
- McPherson, J. (1765) *The Works of Ossian, the Song of Fingal*, trans. J. McPherson, Edinburgh.
- Millar, D. (1985) *Queen Victoria's Life in the Scottish Highlands depicted by her water-colour artists* Phillip Wilson: London
- O'Dell, A.C. and Walton, K. (1962) *The Highlands and Islands of Scotland*, T.Nelson and Sons: London.
- Orr, W. (1982) *Deer Forests, Landlords and Crofters: the Western Highlands in Victorian and Edwardian Times*, John Donald: Edinburgh
- Page, S. (2005) *Transport and Tourism* Pearson Education: Harlow

- Pattison, D.A. (1968) *Tourism in the Firth of Clyde* Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Glasgow: Glasgow
- Penant, T. (1772) *A tour in Scotland and a Voyage to the Hebrides* Chester
- Prebble, J. (1989) *The King's Jaunt: George IV in Scotland 1822*, Fontana: London
- Scott, Sir W. (1805) *The Lay of the Last Minstrel: A Poem* James Ballantyne, Edinburgh.
- Scott, Sir W. (1810) *The Lady of the Lake; A Poem.* James Ballantyne and Co. Edinburgh
- Scott, Sir W. (1817) *Rob Roy*. Vol. I (II-III). Archibald Constable and Co. Edinburgh;
- Scott, Sir W. (1822) *The Pirate*. Vol. I (II-III). Archibald Constable and Co. Edinburgh
- Scott, W. Sir. (1982) *Northern Lights or a Voyage in the Lighthouse Yacht to Nova Zembla and the Lord knows where in the summer of 1814* W.F. Laughlin ed Byways: Hawick
- Scrope, W. (1847) *Days of Deer Stalking in the Forest of Atholl*, John Murray: London
- Smith, A. (1865) *A Summer in Skye* Ticknor and Fields: Boston
- Swinglehurst, E. (1974) *The Romantic Journey*, Harper and Row: New York
- Thomas, J. (1971) *The West Highland Railway* Pan Books: London
- Thornton, T. (1896) *A Sporting Tour Through the Northern Parts of England and a Great Part of the Highlands of Scotland, Including Remarks on English and Scottish Landscapes and General Observations on the State of Society and Manners.* Sportsmans's Library: London
- Towner, J. (1985) The Grand Tour: A Key Phase in the History of Tourism *Annals of Tourism Research* 12(3), 297-334
- Towner, J. (1996) *An Historical Geography of Recreation and Tourism in the Western World 1540-1940* Wiley: Chichester
- Trevor-Roper, H. (1983) The invention of tradition: The Highland tradition of Scotland in E. Hobsbawm and T. Ranger (eds) *The Invention of Tradition*, Cambridge University Press: Cambridge
- Vallance, H.A. (1971) *The Highland Railway* Pan Books: London

- Walton, J.K. and O'Neill, C. (1993) Numbering the Holidaymakers: The Problems and possibilities of the June Census of 1921 for historians of resorts *Local Historian* 23 (4) 205-216
- Wordsworth, D. (1941) *The Journals of Dorothy Wordsworth* E. De Selincourt ed. 2 vols Macmillan: London
- Youngson, A. (1974) *Beyond the Highland Line*, Collins: London

Eventfulness and the quality of life

Greg Richards

Richards.g@nhtv.nl

ABSTRACT

The subjective Quality of Life has often been related to leisure well-being, which depends on factors such as Arousal, Intrinsic satisfaction, Involvement, Mastery, Perceived freedom and Spontaneity (Unger and Kernan, 1983). Many of these elements are related to having a varied life pattern with diverse leisure activities. This paper explores how the development of ‘eventfulness’ can contribute to diverse time qualities, and therefore improve subjective well-being and quality of life. It presents a potential view of an event as a framing of time that enables us to appreciate the different qualities of time, therefore producing different qualities of experience. It draws on previous studies of cultural events of well-being, as well as data from the ATLAS Event Monitoring Project.

Keywords: Events, eventfulness, event time, quality of life, subjective well-being

INTRODUCTION

As the realisation has dawned that social well-being involves more than just economic factors or physical living conditions, more emphasis has come to rest on the overall ‘quality of life’ (QoL). In the past, QoL was related mainly to objective social indicators, such as income, access to education or healthcare, but research in the 1970s “showed that objective measures of life conditions accounted for only a modest proportion of individuals’ subjectively reported QOL and/or well-being.” (Scottish Executive, 2005:19).

Increasingly, there has been a shift away from purely quantitative and economic indicators of well-being towards more qualitative and socio-cultural factors. For example the World Health Organisation’s definition of quality of life is:

“An individual’s perception of their position in life, in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live, and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards, and concerns. It is a broad ranging concept, affected in a complex way by the person’s physical health, psychological state, level of independence, social relationships, and their relationship to salient features of their environment.”

(WHOQOL Group, 1995: 1404)

The implication is that not just ‘objective’ factors such as standard of living are important to QoL, but also perceived or subjective elements as well. The Encyclopaedia of Quality of Life and Well-being Research defines subjective well-being (SWB) as:

“The personal perception and experience of positive and negative emotional responses and global and specific cognitive evaluations of satisfaction with life. ... Simply, SWB [subjective well-being] is the individual evaluation of quality of life.”

(Michalos, 2014)

As Camfield and Skevington (2008) emphasise, the newfound emphasis on less tangible aspects of QoL are creating a certain level of convergence between QoL indicators and concepts of well-being. SWB includes basic factors such as Arousal, Intrinsic satisfaction, Involvement, Mastery, Perceived freedom and Spontaneity (Unger and Kernan, 1983), all of which alter our perceptions of our QoL. These SWB factors can also be related to the contexts or places that people live in, since the environment can add to or detract from our ability to benefit from feelings of arousal, intrinsic satisfaction, etc.

The convergence between SWB and QoL is also implied in new approaches to locational geography. For example, Richard Florida (2002) has emphasised the importance of subjective factors such as ‘atmosphere’ and ‘buzz’ in attracting the creative people who in turn are supposed to make places even more attractive. Cities and regions have therefore begun to emphasise the ‘soft factors’ of quality of life in their attempts to attract increasingly mobile populations, stimulate inward investment and increase the satisfaction levels of residents.

Recent research by Blessi et al. (2014) has also examined the important contribution of cultural participation (which also includes sports participation) to well-being. They argue that the non-instrumental character of cultural experience stimulates intrinsic motivation, leading to authentic personal engagement and social relationships, and thereby the production of relational goods. As interpersonal relationships are important to SWB, they argue, cultural (and sporting) participation should increase well-being.

The indications are that events, as part of the ‘soft infrastructure’ of places and as social spaces in which people can interact and express themselves, can make an important contribution to QoL and SWB. This paper examines the relationship between events, QoL and SWB, and specifically underlines the importance of ‘eventfulness’ as a quality of places that can improve QoL.

WHY EVENTS ARE IMPORTANT TO SWB

There are important reasons for assuming that events are important to people’s well-being. Firstly, events have an important social function, helping to bring people into face-to-face

contact in a world increasingly dominated by indirect contacts (e.g. via phone or social media). Events therefore stimulate the kinds of inter-personal contact that Blessi et al. (2014) argue is important to SWB. Secondly, events have an important time dimension, which is related to important aspects of SWB, such as mastery, involvement, freedom and spontaneity. Thirdly, events are an important element of ritual, which Collins (2004) argues are basic to our production of 'emotional energy', which in turn stimulates feelings of 'flow' and happiness (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

In terms of the social role of events, social interaction is considered by some to be the most important factor determining well-being (Diener and Seligman, 2002). The results of the 3rd European Quality of Life Survey (Eurofound, 2013) also emphasise that social contact is particularly important to SWB. Their study of SWB in Europe indicated that:

“Social aspects of deprivation, such as not being able to invite guests over, were the most important in the index of deprivation created using the EQLS. Face-to-face contact with friends had a strong impact on well-being, while indirect contact (by phone or email) had almost no positive impact.”

In EQLS, “social and leisure variables explain 13% of the variation in individual life satisfaction. Across countries, 46% of the variation in life satisfaction can be explained by social and leisure factors.” (Eurofound, 2013:62). In contrast, three sets of variables describing the local neighbourhood and environment were available in the survey – level of urbanisation, accessibility of various amenities and services, and a set of six neighbourhood problems. Together, they explained only 4% of the variation in life satisfaction. (Eurofound, 2013:69). This indicates that it is not so much the physical environment that affects QoL, but the soft factors that are related to the places and communities that people live in.

Arguably events can make an important contribution to the 'soft infrastructure' of places that supports a higher SWB. Most of the research on the relationship between events and SWB, however, is focussed on the quantitative aspects of attendance at or participation in events. Relatively little attention has so far been focussed on the qualities of events themselves as tools for increasing SWB or QoL. One reason for this seems to be the complex relationships between events and SWB and QoL. Liburd and Derkzen (2009) in their qualitative study of a Danish festival found the links between well-being and the event to be multi-layered and complex, requiring an emic approach to unravel. However, Kruger et al. (2013) attempted quantitative modelling of the relationships, and identified a number of concrete psychological domains that are linked to QoL, namely social life, leisure and recreation life, culinary life, intellectual life and travel life. These in turn can be significantly impacted by attendance at events. It is clear that the relationship between individual events and QoL is complex to investigate. To date, most research on the effect of events has tended to be undertaken from the perspective of single events, but this makes it difficult to analyse the effect of events in themselves as sources of SWB and QoL. This paper makes an initial contribution to tracing the relationship between events as containers of time qualities and QoL.

MEASURING THE CONTRIBUTION OF EVENTS TO QoL

Given the relatively subjective nature of SWB and QoL, the question of how to measure these concepts is important. There is considerable literature dedicated to the measurement of QoL in general, in particular in the journal *Social Indicators Research*. In a recent review published in this journal, Diener, Inglehart and Tay (2013) argue that the quantitative scales developed to study QoL in recent decades have proved to provide relatively stable, reliable and valid measures of QoL. These scales usually ask individuals to evaluate different aspects of their lives on a scale from 'very satisfying' to 'very dissatisfying'. In general reliability measures for these scales are satisfactory, with Chronbach's alpha scores generally above 0.8.

Similar methodologies are also usually applied in studies relating to QoL and events. Events are not usually studied as an isolated influence on QoL, but rather as part of a raft of different indicators. One of the most common approaches, for example, is to view events as a contributor to cultural participation, which in turn affects QoL. This is for example the approach taken by Hill Strategies (2013) in their measurement of the arts and wellbeing in Canada. This study asked adults about participation in different cultural activities during the 12 months prior to the survey, and logistic regression analysis was used to determine the likelihood different groups having a high degree of self-reported satisfaction with their lives compared with others. The finding was that those who participated in arts activities such as visits to art galleries, theatre and cultural festivals, listening to classical music or pop music, or reading books were more likely to report good health and wellbeing than those who did not participate.

A similar quantitative approach was taken in the development of the standard questionnaire for the ATLAS Events Monitoring Project. An extensive literature review was undertaken to identify aspects of event experience that were important to measure, and these were translated into questions that formed part of a general event experience scale (de Geus, Richards and Toepoel, forthcoming). The QoL aspects of this scale related to memorable experiences, feeling part of a community and sensory engagement. These were measured on a seven point scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 7 (totally agree), with items such as 'this event engaged my senses' or 'this event made me feel part of bigger community'. To date, the ATLAS project has collected over 1800 surveys using this scale at different events in Portugal, Spain, Cyprus, Finland and the UK. Analyses of these data also indicate relative stability and reliability of the scales.

THE QUALITY OF EVENTS

A feeling often expressed in the events literature is that they can produce a wide range of intangible benefits for individuals and communities:

"Festivals influence people's idea of a city. They provide many points of identification and contribute to the birth of non-mainstream urban identities. They consolidate sub-cultures and create togetherness among amateurs of a common field. At their best fes-

tivals culminate in a 'festival moment', creating a momentum born of dramaturgical excellence and high quality content, a powerful experience bringing together audience and festival performers and organisers." (Silvanto and Hellman, 2005: 6)

This quote from Silvanto and Hellman's study of Helsinki as a 'festival city' makes some interesting points about the temporal qualities of events. They see festivals as events that can create a special 'moment' which is different from everyday life, and that moment can also be the catalyst for creating 'momentum'. These two related but contrasting ideas are also encapsulated in Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) work on 'flow', which underlines the contribution of time to our quality of experience. Under conditions of flow, where challenge and skill are in balance, time seems to pass more rapidly. This feeling of flow is produced by concentration on the moment, which in turn produces an effect of momentum, or of something happening. However, a lack of variation seems to have the opposite effect. A lack of stimuli, which is generally linked to a feeling that time is dragging and nothing is happening, leads to boredom. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) also notes that a constantly high level of stimulation (which leads to stress) or a constantly low level of stimulation (leading to boredom) are both experienced negatively. What seems to produce excitement and satisfaction, is a varying level of stimulation – in other words, a perception of different tempos of time.

This is the feeling that we have linked to the concept of 'eventful cities' (Richards and Palmer, 2010) and which Batty also indirectly referred to in his (2002) call to 'conceive of cities as being clusters of "spatial events", events that take place in time and space, where event is characterised by duration, intensity, volatility and location'. These different dimensions of eventfulness again link to Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) concept of flow, since during periods of flow our perception of the duration of time is altered, and we experience things more intensely, particularly if there is volatility in the production of stimuli. These are the temporal factors that make a particular location interesting, and the location in turn provides the temporal cues that determine our perception of time (Lynch, 1972).

The Oxford Dictionary definition of 'eventful' is: 'marked by interesting or exciting events'. This marking of time is arguably an important factor in our feelings of SWB. This is also one of the important observations of Lefebvre (2004) in his collection of essays *Rhythmanalysis*. Lefebvre analyses the rhythms of urban spaces and outlines their effects on the users of that space. He contrasts the cyclical rhythms of the rural festival, with its dialectical relationship to the everyday, with the linear time imposed under modernity. These two forms of time, he argues, are in conflict, with linear time trying to annihilate cyclical rhythms. Linear time becomes the dominant form under capitalism, as time is commodified, and time becomes money.

"The linear time of capitalist modernity promises novelty and progress, but it delivers monotony and tedium. In this regard, Lefebvre maintains a crucial distinction between rhythm and repetition. Rhythms preserve difference and change within their recurring patterns, Lefebvre argues: "Although they are repetitive, rhythms and

cycles always have an appearance of novelty: the dawn always seems to be the first one. Rhythm does not prevent the desire for, and pleasure of, discovery: hunger and thirst always seem novel.” Linear time, on the other hand, annihilates these differences in the process of rendering all moments equivalent and interchangeable: “the formal and material identity of each ‘stroke’ is recognized, generating lassitude, boredom, and fatigue.” (Moore, 2013:43)

Where events (and the related duration, intensity and volatility of time) seem to be eradicated under the linear time structures of modernity, these structures in effect need to be recreated again in order to maintain the promise of novelty and change. This is the process that historian Daniel Boorstin (1963) described as the replacement of real historic events with a multiplication of ‘pseudo events’.

TURNING BACK TIME?

The events literature is strongly influenced by the idea that modernity has heralded the commercialisation and commodification of events, particularly in urban settings. For example Johansson and Kociatkiewicz (1999) examine the tension between controlled image production and carnivalesque celebration in cities, and conclude that the instrumental use of events reduces their meaning. Waterman (1998:54) argues that ‘cyclical arts festivals transform places from being everyday settings into temporary environments that contribute to the production, processing and consumption of culture, concentrated in time and place’, but that such festivals become related to place promotion, which favours the use of ‘safe’ artforms. Such arguments are also reflected in Harcup’s (2000) analysis of the creation of the St Valentine’s Fair as a ‘civic spectacle’, designed to re-position Leeds as a ‘city of culture’. Such top-down strategies are related to linear notions of time, which have arguably removed the ability of events to be transformational.

Increasingly, as George Hughes (2000) notes, time is one of the qualities of space that politicians and planners seek to utilise in their attempts to make the city more attractive:

“In the marketing of night-time, and seasonal programmes of festivity, cities are explicitly engaged in the social configuration of their central spaces – in, as Lefebvre puts it, temporalizing their centres. But these exhortations to play though the night, and party in the New Year, also reach back, in their temporal rhythms, to seasonal and daily patterns that have been tuned to farming and religious calendars of much earlier times.”

This underlines the challenges involved in trying to re-establish the time structures and practices of cyclical events. As these are replaced by the commodified events of linear time, many commentators decry the loss of innocence and authenticity linked to the concept of ‘event time’ (Levine, 1990).

Although restoring festivals and events to some former state may be out of the question, there may still be opportunities to recuperate some aspects of the practices that surround them. For example, the sense of being in a different rhythm or quality of time, may be possible if events are structured in a certain way. 'Going back in time' was literally practiced by the Oeral Festival held on the Dutch island of Terschelling in 2008, when the clocks on the island were turned back two hours to Greenwich Mean Time, which had been used on the island in the 19th century (Richards and Palmer, 2010).

Events, as a form of ritual, offer good opportunities for such creative use of time, because they are by definition bounded and separated from everyday life. They have the ability to create 'small spaces' (Friedman, 1999) in which creativity can flourish. This approach also focusses our attention on the issue of 'time in events' as opposed to simply seeing 'events in time', as Adam (1990) expressed it.

By concentrating on the time stored in and created by events, we can also consider how events can be used to develop a feeling of flow, which stems from our ability to control events, rather than our actions being dictated by the linear flow of time. Events framed in this way can become another place, another time. In essence we can travel to an event to savour a different quality of time – a 'moment' or radical break. As J. B. Priestly remarked: "A good holiday is one spent among people whose notions of time are vaguer than yours". As Sorokin and Merton (1937) also explained, the relative values of time durations depend not only on their absolute length but also on the nature and intensity of their qualities. In other words, our perception of time, and therefore also our perceptions of different attributes of well-being, depend on the way in which time is socially defined – through the use of events.

This brings us to a potential view of an event as a framing of time that enables us to appreciate the different qualities of time. There are many different qualities that have been analysed by different commentators, such as Levine's (1990) duality of tempo and duration, Moran's (2014) emphasis on duration, access and inevitability or Batty's (2002) structure of duration, intensity, volatility and location.

The combination of these different qualities of time alter our subjective well-being, and therefore influence our quality of life. The vagueness of time common in Mediterranean culture, for example, can help to increase subjective well-being, and create resistance to the march of linear notions of time (Levebre, 2004). By living in a culture influenced by event time: 'scheduling is determined by activities. Events begin and end when, by mutual consensus, participants "feel" the time is right.' (Levine, 1990:84-85). As Levine notes, many Mediterranean Arab cultures define only three sets of time: 'no time at all, now (which is of varying duration), and forever (too long).' (p. 94). Levine argues that societies that run on event time are more flexible and they promote greater involvement and human interaction. However, event time societies tend to be less productive in economic terms. So Levine argues that 'the most fruitful approach of all' is to be able to shift between event time and clock time.

Even as temporary visitors, or tourists or event participants, the feeling of being in another time can be rapidly created through the process of entrainment. The concept of entrainment, originally borrowed from biology by Joseph McGrath, describes how one temporal rhythm can be ‘captured’ and modified by another. For example, a flock of birds

“becomes a flock through entrainment: each member using delicately tuned sensory machinery to detect and then adjust to environmental cues. Similarly, herding animals become a herd by synchronizing their rhythms to each other.” (Levine p. 217)

Events can become the pacers that help to stimulate entrainment of social groups, acting as the pacers (or zeitgebers) that help to synchronise action and mark the passage of time. The work of Collins (2004:64) has also shown that events, as ‘Interaction Rituals’ build up high levels of focused attention and emotional entrainment. Entrainment reaches higher levels through activity than passivity and it occurs especially through falling into shared rhythms. Events can help to develop a sense of collective entrainment – marked by zeitgebers, such as the chiming of the clock at New Year, which act as signals that lead to interaction and shared behaviour (in this case kissing, hugging, shouting).

This makes it clear that by creating rituals, we may also be able to achieve entrainment, and ensure that a particular experience or quality of time is shared by a social group. This may happen in the context of ‘natural rituals’, which build up mutual focus and emotional entrainment without formal procedures. (p. 50). But it may also be externally constructed through ‘micro-temporal coordination’, which ensures that the conditions for entrainment are present: physical density and barriers to outside involvement (Collins, 2004).

The development of eventfulness can therefore be seen as an attempt to vary the quality of time and provide a mix of zeitgebers that help to support social entrainment and interaction. Events have become coordination and entrainment mechanisms for modern societies in an environment increasingly dominated by linear or clock time. Although there is very little direct evidence relating to the link between eventfulness and quality of life, the following section attempts to review some of the intriguing clues to this emerging relationship.

EVENTS THAT INFLUENCE THE QUALITY OF LIFE

The development of events as time markers or ‘zeitgebers’ is a phenomenon that is emerging across the world. We are used to different days being identified as marking specific events, such as Earth Day or International Women’s Day, and these events can also be used as synchronising actions that make a difference to the QoL:

“This is especially evident when one considers the phenomenon known as Park(ing) Day, wherein for one day a year, tactical urbanism aficionados reclaim metered parking spaces in their cities, and transform them into temporary public spaces.... This is

often achieved by filling the spaces with furniture and other curiosities, designed to ensnare the interest of passers-by. It is a movement that was started by Rebar Group in 2005 in San Francisco, and has been carried out thereafter every year on the third Friday of September in cities across the globe.

The purpose of this event is not to permanently reclaim parking spaces for public use. This is not an Occupy movement, or a sit-in. Rather, it is a temporary project, the goals of which the organisers define as “to promote creativity, civic engagement, critical thinking, unscripted social interactions, generosity and play” (Barber, 2013: 21).

Such ‘tactical urbanism’ can help to improve the not just the physical quality of urban space, but also alter the way that we feel about those spaces.

Research at the Edinburgh Festivals also showed that events such as the Edinburgh Mela and the Edinburgh International Science Festival had a direct perceived impact on QoL. Over half the visitors surveyed at these events agreed or strongly agreed that the Festival event had ‘increased their well-being’. In addition, those who were more closely engaged with event activity, such as volunteers, were also more likely to agree that these events had increased their well-being.

In Canada, Hill Strategies (2013) showed that attendance at cultural festivals is associated with better health, volunteering, and strong satisfaction with life. Compared with those who did not attend a cultural festival in 2010, those who did attend:

- Are more likely to report that they have very good or excellent health (56% vs. 49%).
- Are somewhat more likely to report that they have very good or excellent mental health (64% vs. 60%).
- Are much more likely to volunteer (48% vs. 32%).
- Are more likely to have done a favour for a neighbour in the past month (70% vs. 62%).
- On the other hand, cultural festival attendees are slightly less likely than non-attendees to feel low levels of stress in their daily lives (35% vs. 40% feel not at all or not very stressed).

In a statistical model of health, cultural festival attendees have a 14% greater likelihood of reporting very good or excellent health than non-attendees, even after controlling for other factors. Festival attendees are twice as likely as non-attendees to have volunteered in the past year, even accounting for other factors. In a model of satisfaction with life, cultural festival attendees have a 25% greater likelihood of reporting very strong satisfaction with life than non-attendees, once other factors are taken into account.

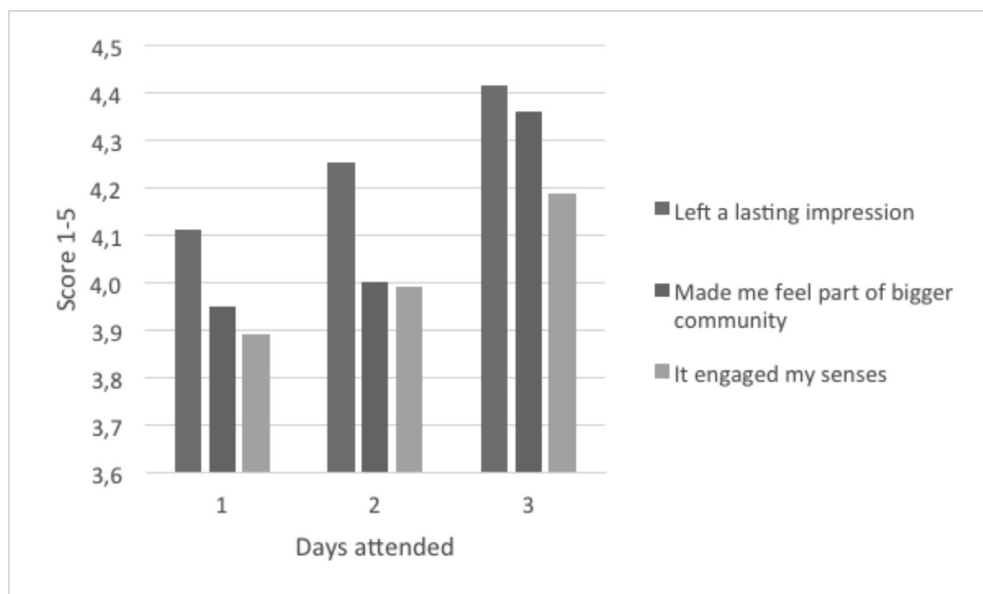
Ballantyne et al. (2014) argue that the music festival context potentially provides an environment that is conducive to positive psychological outcomes as attendees develop or reflect on their understanding of themselves, cultivate new expressions of self-identity, and learn about

music. Their respondents “reported feeling more positive about themselves, others, and life in general as a result of attending a music festival” and “for some participants the music festival experience was not only meaningful in itself, but gave meaning to the rest of their lives” (Packer and Ballantyne, 2011, p. 178).

Research on the impact of cultural engagement and sports participation on health and satisfaction with life in Scotland (2013) indicated that those who had attended a cultural place or event in the previous 12 months were almost 60% more likely to report good health compared to those who had not, and theatre-goers were almost 25% more likely to report good health. Participation in a creative or cultural activity shows similar benefits: those who had done this were 38% more likely to report good health compared to those who did not, but that figure rises to 62% for those who participate in dance. Those who read for pleasure were also 33% more likely to report good health. The research concluded that arts and culture has an impact on improved self-reported subjective wellbeing (e.g. life satisfaction) while controlling for other factors influencing wellbeing, such as age, background and socio-economic circumstances.

The research conducted by ATLAS at different events and festivals in Europe (Richards, 2014) indicates that there is a relationship between event attendance and aspects of SWB. At Portuguese Medieval festivals, for example, surveys of over 900 visitors indicated that those attending the event for more than one day experienced greater effects in terms of SWB factors, such as memorable experiences, feeling part of a community and sensory engagement (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Portuguese festivals – days of festival attendance vs experience dimensions



The same study also indicated that there was a significant relationship between the number of previous visits to the festival and the impact on sensory engagement and community attachment (Table 1).

Table 1: Number of previous visits to the festival and engagement and community feeling

Number of visits to the festival	It engaged my senses*	Made me feel part of bigger community**
More than one previous visit	4.1	4.2
One previous visit	4.0	4.1
First time visitors	3.8	3.8
Total	4.0	4.0

* F 10.7, significance level 0.000, ** F 4.9, significance level 0.002

CONCLUSION

This review indicates that there is a positive relationship between event participation and SWB and QoL elements. Arguably, the production of positive QoL benefits are related to the different qualities of time embedded in events. A lively events programme provides more opportunities for social interaction, which is shown to be an important support for SWB. The role of events as time markers or 'zeitgebers' and social entrainment mechanisms is important in marking different time qualities and breaking up the monotony of linear, or clock time. All of this evidence at least indirectly points to the importance of developing eventfulness as a support for high life quality and well-being in cities.

There is, however, a need to undertake more research on the specific links between events and QoL and SWB. Most of the research reported here relates to public cultural events, which only represent one segment of the total events market. There is a need to conduct research on other event types, such as sports events or business events, in order to isolate the specific effects of the event form itself from the event content. There also appears to be a need for more qualitative assessments of the QoL effects of events, as suggested by Liburd and Derkzen (2009), as such research could reveal far more about the contribution of events to subjective wellbeing. To date there tends to have been too much emphasis on large-scale quantitative surveys, particularly as QoL is an issue that tends to concern policymakers, and is therefore often taken up in national and regional studies of living conditions and participation. A challenge of undertaking more qualitative research will be finding ways to make the results comparable between different locations and types of events.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

A previous version of this paper was originally presented at the ATLAS Conference, Budapest, October 2014, Special Track on Events and the Quality of Life. Thanks is due to the reviewers from their critical comments on earlier drafts.

REFERENCES

- Adam, B. (1990). *Time and social theory*. Cambridge: Polity.
- Ballantyne, J., Ballantyne, R. and Packer, J. (2014). Designing and managing music festival experiences to enhance attendees' psychological and social benefits. *Musicae Scientiae*, 18(1), 65–83.
- Ballantyne, R. and Packer, J. (2011). Using tourism free-choice learning experiences to promote environmentally sustainable behaviour: the role of post-visit 'action resources'. *Environmental Education Research*, 17(2), 201-215.
- Barber, R. (2013). Making do: Tactical urbanism and creative placemaking in transitional Christchurch, New Zealand (Doctoral dissertation, Murdoch University).
- Batty, M. (2002). Thinking about cities as spatial events. *Environment and Planning B: Planning and Design*, 29, 1-2.
- Blessi, G.T., Grossi, E., Sacco, P.L., Pieretti, G. and Ferilli, G. (2014). Cultural Participation, Relational Goods and Individual Subjective Well-Being: Some Empirical Evidence. *Review of Economics & Finance*, 4, 33-46.
- Boorstin, D. J. (1963). *The image, or, what happened to the American dream*. Harmondsworth: Penguin books.
- Camfield, L. and Skevington, S.M. (2008). On Subjective Well-being and Quality of Life. *J. Health Psychology*, 13(6), 764-775.
- Chen, Lung Hung, Ye, Yun-Ci Chen, Mei-Yen and Tung, I-Wu (2010). Alegría! Flow in Leisure and Life Satisfaction: The Mediating Role of Event Satisfaction Using Data from an Acrobatics Show. *Social Indicators Research*, 99(2), 301-313.
- Collins, R. (2004). *Interaction Ritual Chains*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow: The Psychology of Optimal Experience*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Diener, E., Inglehart, R. and Tay, L. (2013). Theory and Validity of Life Satisfaction Scales. *Social Indicators Research*, 112, 497–527.

- Diener, E. and Seligman, M.E. (2002) Very happy people. *Psychol Sci.*,13(1), 81-4.
- Eurofound (2013). *Quality of life in Europe: Social inequalities*. Brussels: Eurofound.
- Florida, R. (2002). *The rise of the creative class*. New York: Basic Books.
- Friedmann, J. (1999). The city of everyday life: Knowledge/power and the problem of representation, *The Planning Review*, 35, (136-137), 4-11.
- Frey, B.S., Hotz, S. and Steiner, L. (2012). *European Capitals of Culture and life satisfaction*. Paper presented at ACEI 2012.
- Geus, S. de, Richards, G. and Toepoel, V. (forthcoming). conceptualisation and operationalisation of event and festival experiences: Creation of an event experience scale. *Scandinavian Journal of Tourism and Hospitality*.
- Harcup, Tony (2000). Re-imagining a Post-industrial City: the Leeds St Valentine's Fair as a Civic Spectacle, *City*, 4, 215-231.
- Hill Strategies (2013). The Arts and Individual Well-Being in Canada. Connections between Cultural Activities and Health, Volunteering, Satisfaction with Life, and Other Social Indicators in 2010. <http://www.hillstrategies.com/content/arts-and-individual-well-being-canada>
- Hughes, G. (1999). Urban revitalization: the use of festive time strategies. *Leisure Studies*, 18(2), 119-135.
- Ilies, R., Schwind, K., Wagner, D., Johnson, M.D., DeRue, S.D., & Ilgen, D.R. (2007). When can employees have a family life? The effects of daily workload and affect on work-family conflict and social behaviors at home. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 1368-1379.
- Johansson, M. and Kociatkiewicz, J. (1999). City festivals: creativity and control in staged urban experiences. *European Urban and Regional Studies*, 18, 392-405.
- Kruger, S. Rootenberg, C. and Ellis, S. (2013). Examining the Influence of the Wine Festival Experience on Tourists' Quality of Life. *Social Indicators Research*, 111(2), 435-452.
- Lefebvre, H. (2004). *Rhythmanalysis: Space, time and everyday life*. London: Continuum.
- Levine, R.V. (1990). *A geography of time*. New York: Basic Books.
- Liburd, J. J. and Derkzen, P. (2009). Emic Perspectives on Quality of Life: The Case of the Danish Wadden Sea Festival. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 9, 132-146.

- Chen, L.H., Ye, Y.C., Chen, M.-Y. and Tung I.-W. (2010). Alegría! Flow in Leisure and Life Satisfaction: The Mediating Role of Event Satisfaction Using Data from an Acrobatics Show. *Social Indicators Research*, 99(2), 301-313.
- Lynch, K. (1972) *What time is this place?*. Cambridge MA: MIT Press.
- Michalos, A. C. (2014). *Encyclopedia of Quality of Life and Well-Being Research*. Vienna: Springer.
- Moore, R. (2013). The beat of the city: Lefebvre and rhythmanalysis. *Situations: Project of the Radical Imagination*, 5(1), <http://ojs.gc.cuny.edu/index.php/situations/article/view/1293>
- Moran, C. (2014). Time as a social practice. *Time & Society*, doi:10.1177/0961463X13478051
- Richards, G. (2014). ATLAS Events Monitoring Project Overview. https://www.academia.edu/2333874/ATLAS_Events_Monitoring_Project_Overview
- Richards, G. and Palmer, R. (2010). *Eventful Cities: Cultural management and urban regeneration*. London: Routledge.
- Silvanto, S. and Hellman, T. (2005). Helsinki – the festival city. In Lankinen, L. (ed.) *Arts and Culture in Helsinki*. Helsinki: City of Helsinki, pp. 4-9.
- Scottish Executive (2005) *Well-being and quality of life: measuring the benefits of culture and sport - a literature review and thinkpiece*. Edinburgh: Scottish Executive.
- Scottish Government (2013). *Healthy attendance: The impact of cultural engagement and sports participation on health and satisfaction with life in Scotland 2013*. Edinburgh: Scottish Government.
- Sorokin, P. A. and Merton R. K. (1937). Social time: a methodological and functional analysis. *American Journal of Sociology*, 42(5), 615-629.
- Unger, L. S. and Kernan, J.B. (1983). On the Meaning of Leisure: An Investigation of Some Determinants of the Subjective Experience, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9 (March): 381-392.
- Waterman, S. (1998). Carnivals for Elites? The cultural politics of arts festivals. *Progress in Human Geography*, 22(1), 54-74.
- WHOQOL Group (1995). The World Health Organization Quality of Life assessment (WHOQOL): Position paper from the World Health Organization. *Soc. Sci. Med.*, 41(10), 1403-9.

Educational tourism - the case of Eastern European students: driving forces, consequences, and effects on the tourism industry

Iana Tashlai
Stanislav Ivanov

iana.tashlai@gmail.com
stanislav.ivanov@vumk.eu

ABSTRACT

This article gives an insight into the subject of educational tourism. The main focus of the paper is the identification and examination of the motives and reasons of Eastern European foreign students (educational tourists) to participate in different educational programmes and to continue their studying abroad, and determination of consequences of such decisions. Data collection took place during June-August 2014. Interview was chosen as a data collection instrument for this qualitative research, and further coding, categorization, and grounded theory approach were applied for data analysis. Stereotypes, seek of challenges, and personal reasons are identified as common motivational forces for the educational tourists. A wide range of benefits for both participants and destination countries are explored and relevant conclusions and recommendations are suggested.

Keywords: Educational Tourism; Eastern Europe; Qualitative Research, Motivation

INTRODUCTION

The emergence of different tourism services and products, various tourism attractions, and increased number of young travellers, has created a separate segment of educational tourism that involves aspects of both tourism and education industries. According to the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and The World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC), the tourism industry is one of the most profitable industries in the world – for instance, in 2012 international tourism generated US\$ 1.4 trillion in export earnings (UNWTO, 2014; WTTC, 2013). As it was stated by UNWTO, Europe account for 42% of all international tourism receipts (Risi, 2014). Despite the significant indicators, some tourism activities, are not examined well enough, e.g. educational tourism. According to the report of the World Youth Student and Educational Travel Confederation, young travellers represent 20% of international tourism, thereby making the group an important economic force – for example, in 2012 \$217 billion of the \$1.088 trillion tourism spending worldwide came from young travellers, an

increase that vastly outstripped that of other international travellers (Mohn, 2013; WYSE, 2013). Educational tourism involves such tourism services and products as different educational programmes, student exchange programmes, tours, excursions, and various types of tours that have a purpose of the study, and new types of educational tourism-related activities (e.g. ethnic workshops and field study trips). It can be stated that demand for the educational tourism products is enormous since, according to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the number of students enrolled in higher education outside their country of citizenship has more than doubled over past decades (between 2000 and 2011), and it is 4.5 million students at the present time (European international students account for 23% of all international students in 2011), representing an average annual growth rate of almost 6% (OECD, 2013: 1).

In accordance with the relevant data on the mobility of students regarding the countries of origin and the top destinations, provided by UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), Russian Federation accounts close to 50,000 mobile students, Ukraine has more than 35,000 students abroad, and Germany – almost 120,000. Other European countries have following indicators: Bulgaria – 24,000; Poland – 30,000; Slovakia – 30,000; Belarus – 40,000 (UIS, 2012). Taking into account such impressive figures, the study focuses on the Eastern European region, particularly on the outbound students (current and alumni).

The main aim of the research project is the identification and examination of the motives and reasons of international students from Eastern European countries to participate in different educational programmes and to continue their studying abroad, and determination of consequences of such decision. In order to achieve the mentioned goal of the research, the following smaller objectives are set:

- Examination of students' behaviour regarding studying in the higher education institutions abroad;
- Identification of the students' incentives and expectations from changing their regular environment and applying for one of the international educational programmes;
- Studying the challenges of students' adjustments (including psychological, cultural, and linguistic) to the living and education in the countries different from their origins;
- Definition of the outcomes for the future career and living choices of the international alumni caused by experience of studying abroad;
- Determination of the effects caused by the educational tourism on the tourism industry as a whole.

Five countries are chosen for this research project due to the significant number of mobile students, and they include Ukraine, Russia, Bulgaria, Belarus, and Poland. The findings could be valuable for the travel agents, tourism companies, and different educational institutions that are functioning on the international market.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Ritchie (2003: 18) defines educational tourism as a tourist activity undertaken by those who are undertaking an overnight vacation and those who are undertaking an excursion for whom education and learning is a primary or secondary part of their trip. Besides providing the insight into the educational tourism as a separate category of the contemporary tourism market, and presenting its managerial features, he also gives insight into the history of the educational tourism emergence as well as a small overview of the previous works on this subject, which emphasizes the need for the further study of such type of tourism due to their lack or incompleteness. The author suggests sub-segments of the educational tourism market, for instance, adults and seniors, schools, and university and college students, he mentions motivation issues, educational tourism impacts, and regional development.

Educational tourism has been discussed through the regional aspect. For example, some studies (Middleton & Lickorish, 2005; Reisinger & Dimanche, 2010) research historical development of the tourism industry and establishment of educational tourism as an individual market segment on British, American, and Australian markets. Moreover, the studies covered the issues of the future development of the tourism market and its diversification, which implies that such value as an education is going to create a demand for products that encourage learning experiences (books, guides, videos, educational tourism, cultural tourism, interpretation services, special interest tourism, food & wine tourism). Nevertheless, the studies were conducted for the specific countries and they do not allow relating the findings to the other parts of the world, they could be only used as a basis.

It is necessary to mention that the subject of the educational tourism is rarely discussed separately. It is mostly regarded as a sub-sector and it is briefly described in the tourism related books that are focused on the niche tourism types (Novelli, 2005; Robinson, 2012). Educational tourism is presented as one related to the various types of niche tourism. These works provide the information about the possibilities of future development, its economic efficiency, arising problems and trends; however, they do not present practical examples and do not cover possible consequences of the educational tourism activities (positive and negative) for the travellers themselves.

As it can be seen, there is not much literature available that is dedicated to the educational tourism industry and only recently researchers have focused much attention on the topic. Even though the literature covering the educational tourism subject is quite poor and limited (Abubakar, Shneikat, Oday, 2014; Lam, Ariffin, Ahmad, 2011; Lee, 2014; Lesjak, 2015; Ohe, 2012), the number of market researches is permanently growing (European Commission. Eurostat, 2013 & 2012; Mintel, 2011; OECD, 2012; UIS, 2012). These reports provide statistical data of the students' mobility around the world as well as overall situation on the educational tourism market. Furthermore, presented information allows to judge about the potential growth of this market segment and the necessity of the further research. To illustrate, the Mintel (2011) report mentions students' top-destinations (France and UK - 405,805

foreign students) and explains the significant growth of the students' mobility thanks to changes in the education system through initiatives, launched by European Commission (the Bologna Process and Erasmus programme) and the emergence of learning holidays as well as various offers (learning leisure activities) from language schools, and launch of educational elements into the cruise industry. The report covers not only EU-countries but also mentions Non-EU destinations. All the data was taken from official industry institutions, such as Eurostat, WTTC in association with Accenture and Oxford Economics, government departments, and other official publications. The report emphasises that is not easy to ascertain the exact number of the foreign students within Europe since not every country conducts surveys; however, she still defines the top-tree destinations for foreign students, which include UK (around 460 thousands students in 2007), Germany (around 260,000), and France (247,000 foreign students).

After reviewing the literature covering the educational tourism, it can be concluded that there is not enough information regarding the motivational aspects of its participants, particularly foreign students, since they are the largest group of consumers of educational tourism related products and services. In addition, available publications provide mostly regional information about the educational markets as well as only statistical data without further explanations. Moreover, no studies regarding Eastern Europe educational tourism are available, which justifies the further research covering this issue.

METHODOLOGY

Within the social sciences tourism research, research classification systems are commonly labelled as quantitative, qualitative, or mixed (Xin, Tribe, Chambers, 2013: 66). According to Vanderstoep & Johnson (2009: 7-8), quantitative research specifies numerical assignment to the phenomenon under the study, whereas qualitative research produces narrative or textual description of the phenomena under the study. The usage of mixed methods may be necessary and prudent sometimes for rigor or evaluative purposes. Since qualitative methods are used to understand people's beliefs, experiences, attitudes, behaviour, and interactions, they aim to address questions concerned with developing an understanding of the meaning and experience dimensions of humans' lives and social worlds, the qualitative methods were chosen for the research data collection (Fossey, Harvey, McDermott, Davidson, 2002: 717). Qualitative methods allow obtaining rich, in-depth information and narrative description of the sample but the sample can only be small, which means that findings are not valid for the generalizing to the population. Besides, qualitative research is recommended if a detailed narrative account of particular subgroup is desired, which was suitable for the present research project since the study is concentrated on one specific group – Eastern European foreign students.

Individual in-depth semi-structured interviews were selected as data collection method. Before the actual implementing of the interviews, the interview guide was designed by developing the set of questions that would be the most appropriate for the foreign students' case and

would allow obtaining as much information as possible. Interview guide included questions covering participant's age, the country of origin and destination, the level of education, type of educational programme, questions regarding participant's travel experience and interviewee's expectations related to that experience, and questions identifying participant's involvement into the tourism industry in the country of destination. After interview guide's completion, first individual in-depth interviews were conducted with the core group of participants that was created and listed according to the country of origin. Interviewing was conducted online by using such computer programs and mobile applications as Skype and Viber as well as free video calls made via social networks (facebook.com and vk.com). Interviews were decided to be conducted online due to the great number of their advantages such as immediately stored data (answers from the respondents), which are ready for the further processing, and reducing of time, costs, and errors arising from the transcription of paper notes (Vehovar & Manfrieda, 2008: 178). Average interview took 40 minutes and all necessary data could be collected during one interview session. Languages used included English, Russian, and Ukrainian due to the convenience of the respondents.

Before the interviewing process has actually started, sampling strategy, sample frame and sample size were considered since these three elements are extremely important for the reliability of the research study. The sample frame of the research included current foreign students and alumni, whose country of origin was one of the following countries: Ukraine, Russia, Bulgaria, Belarus, and Poland. These five countries have a great number of the out-bound students, they are located in the Eastern European region, and their representatives were easier to involve due to similar languages and established connections with potential respondents. The selectivity of the sample group of this research was based on the non-random (non-probability) sampling technique (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, 2011: 155). One of such non-random sampling techniques is a snowball method, which was chosen for the further application in the project. In accordance with the snowball technique, a small number of participants, who have the proper characteristics (the core group of interviewees that was created was created by convenience sampling), was identified and then the selected group was asked to involve other members that could be available for the study (Cohen et al., 2011: 158). The list of sampling criteria was developed and was comprised from the following elements: participant's age was over 18 years old, Eastern European country of origin, participation in any kind of educational tourism programme (studying abroad preferably) at the present time or in the past, and a voluntary desire to be involved in the research (including interviews, involvement of the other participants, and sharing a personal experience). The core group of respondents included foreign students from the same college, participants of the same travel and educational programmes, friends, and relatives, who were or still are related to the educational tourism industry. The sample size of the present research involved 75 participants – particularly, 15 interviewees from each country (10 students and 5 alumni). Such sample size was identified due to the short time-frames and big area of the study (5 countries). The sample size of the research was not going to represent the total youth population that is involved in the educational tourism. Nevertheless, the dataset, which was created thanks to data collected from the mentioned sample size, could give a deep insight into the current trends

on the Eastern European educational tourism market, especially among young students and alumni. Moreover, collected and analysed data as well as findings of the study could make an impact on the further deeper researches in the educational tourism area. Besides, obtained information could be used for additional investigations, in case those are needed.

After developing a sampling strategy for the research project and conducting 75 individual in-depth interviews, a large amount of data was collected. Due to the complexity of qualitative data, collected information had to be condensed (summarised), grouped (categorised) or restricted as a narrative to support meaningful analysis (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill, 2009: 482). Since the individual interviews were conducted mostly online (via various computer and mobile programmes as Skype and Viber as well as by using free social network video calls) they were recorded and the relevant notes were made for the further transcriptions (reproduced as a written account using the actual words) and interpretations (Saunders et al., 2009: 485). Regarding required interview transcriptions and interpretive purposes, a textual analysis was used: the most important points were selected from every single interview transcripts, which included various information regarding motivational aspects of mobile students and reasons that affected students' decisions to participate in the wide range of educational tourism programmes. Besides, the information concerning different types of students' tourism activity in the destination countries was also highlighted. All basic ideas were separated by the countries of origin of participating students, and they were saved as an individual dataset that could be used for the future theory development and final conclusions. Textual analysis allowed simplifying the big amount of information that was obtained from the interviews and understanding the basic viewpoints of the respondents as well as it encouraged the next stage of data analysis.

Moving forward, qualitative data analysis implies such stages as coding and categorizing processes in order to keep the information in the accessible and convenient form, to identify common ideas in the interviewees' responses, to establish connections between those ideas, to track the emergence of the possible theory and its elements. After conducting the coding of the interviews, the most relevant pieces were selected and the most important codes were grouped into the categories (themes), which were named later and connections between them were made. Labelling text according to its subject (topic coding) was used throughout the whole process. Moreover, memos were being kept throughout the whole coding process. Memo recording had started from the early beginning of the research and have been kept until the final conclusions were made. Memos have helped to analyse and to memorise the appearing ideas, to examine different ways of thinking and viewpoints, and to analyse the situation from different angles what eventually have led to the easier establishment of various connections between the identified codes. Recording all ideas and thoughts in forms of memos allowed to perceive obtained information in various ways and to raise the wide range of questions and concepts that could not be foreseen in advance. Written memos contributed to the higher quality of the conducted individual interviews and to the more detailed consideration of the important issues that had been permanently appearing during the interviewing.

In order to achieve the main goal of the research, the last stage of the conducted study included building a theory of the Eastern European students' motivational aspects and the consequences of their participation in the educational tourism research. Grounded theory approach was applied since it implies designing a theory based on the investigation of the collected data and its further analysis. Besides, the grounded theory approach includes identification of the emerging categories, and establishing connections between the main themes. Previously conducted coding process, including recorded memos and notes, had become a basis for designing a grounded theory, which has become a final stage of the research process and it serves as a result of the present study, which will be discussed in the further sections.

While analysing qualitative data collected by the individual in-depth interviews, the following criteria were taken into account (Flick, 2007: 74-75):

1. Accuracy – data analysis has been made systematically by using data analysis methods, explicit comparison took place rather than implicit comparison based on the personal judgments.
2. Fairness – the interpretation of data that come along with a devaluation of people was avoided as well as over-generalisation.
3. Confidentiality – field notes and transcripts did not include any concrete information about real persons and they were anonymised right away.
4. Limited period of data retention – collected data are going to be destroyed after specific length of time after being safely stored.

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

In order to obtain the required information that could be used for making the conclusions and building up the theory of the Eastern European foreign students' motives and affects caused by their participation in the educational tourism segment, all 75 individual in-depth interviews were transcribed. To keep the anonymity and privacy of the interviewees, every single interview and its transcript were named according to the ISO 3166 country code – UA, RU, PL, BY, BG, participants' level of education (students - S or alumni - A), and participants' number in the study (from 1 to 15). The interviews lasted for at least 40 minutes each and the transcripts are written in the form of interview guide with the filled out responses for the personal convenience and easier comparison. After transcribing the interviews, the coding process as well as memos recording took place, and the interview codes were identified for each country. Identified codes are not going to be presented due to the magnitude of their representation.

Completed general coding process allowed further categorisation of the defined interview codes. However, before the following categorisation, definition of the most important and the most essential codes was required since they these elements could affect the further development of the grounded theory and the subsequent conclusions. The categorisation was made

generally for the previously examined five Eastern European regions but not on individual basis. For the easier visual receptivity, the results of the categorisation process are presented in a tabular form, including codes of the individual in-depth interviews that are obtained from the antecedent coding process (Table 1).

Table 1: Categorization of the Interview Codes

Categorisation of the Interview Codes			
1. Financial elements			
Limited funds	Limited capabilities	Price range	Tuition fee
Dependence	Unexpected expenses	High cost of living	Economic stability
Savings	Programme fees	Family support	Increased money value
2. Emotional conditions			
Sharing problems	Remoteness of the family	Loneliness	Feelings of non-belonging
Mutual understanding	Missing friends	New friends	Emotionalism
Responsibility	Insecurity	Relationship	Uncertainty of the future
Lack of fun	Personal communication	Self-dependence	Stress
Home-sickness	Conflicts	Helplessness	Confusion
Pressure	Fears	Annoyance	Short apathy
3. Motives			
Quality of education	Future benefits	Interests	Change of life
Admiration of the country	Freehand	Independence	Thoughts about the future
Easy moving	Friends in the destination country	High living standards	Future opportunities
High goals	Scholarship	Practice availability	Social activity
Immigration	Hopes	Excitement	Ambitions

4. Benefits			
Deep knowledge	Tourism development	New hobbies	Life improvements
New experiences	New interests	Changed personality	Leaving of the comfort zone
Independence	Mutual understanding	Improved language knowledge	Self-improvement
5. Leisure time			
Off-campus life	Tourism	Living on campus	New local friendships
Shared accommodation	Free time	Visiting sights	Interaction with other international students
6. Culture and local habits			
Different mentality	Local standards	Foreign languages	Conflicts
Mixed cultures	Eating and drinking habits	Lifestyle	Education systems

As it can be seen from the table above, 6 basic categories of the interview codes were identified: financial elements, emotional conditions, motives, leisure time, and cultural and local habits. Not all identified codes were included in the presented table since many codes have the same or pretty similar meaning. Those 6 categories were chosen as the main ones since they allow answering asked questions of the research project, i.e. set objectives and aims. Hence, in order to achieve previously set goal and to build the grounded theory, regarding the research question, the connections between the identified categories have to be established and examined. To illustrate the relevant links, i.e. connections, they will be presented as figures in the form of charts and supported by the subsequent explanations (Figures 1 and 2).

Figure 1: Elements affecting the emotional condition of the foreign students

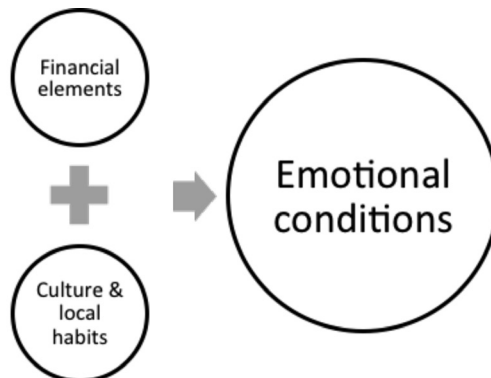
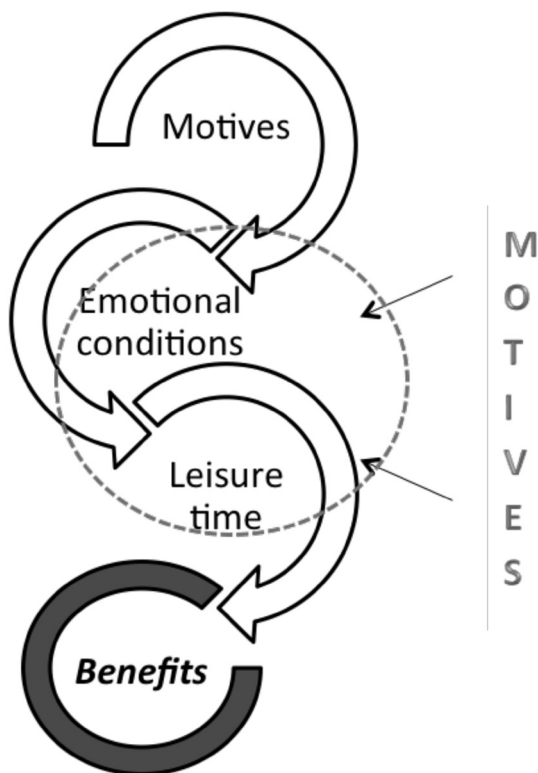


Figure 2: Connections between the main categories



As it can be seen from the above figures, previously identified codes that were included into two groups – financial elements and culture and local habits – are affecting an emotional state of the foreign students (participants of the tourism educational programmes) since they include a wide range of issues that were not important for the participants before. However, their appearance and presence are causing unstable emotional states, which are affecting participants’ future decision making as well as the level of satisfaction regarding the educational tourism. Moving forward, students’ motivational aspects and incentives are the basic reasons for their involvement in the educational tourism industry. These motives are transforming into the forms of new activities and changes in the students’ lives, which are causing emotional changes. These turns and their influences are reduced by the leisure time that educational tourists are experiencing during their participation in the educational programmes, and this stage is supported by the motivational aspects that took place in the beginning. As a conclusion, the combination of participants’ incentives, life changes in the form of new problems and changes of students’ perceptions, and the leisure time, is leading to the certain benefits for the educational tourists as well as for the educational tourism industry of the specific region.

While examining the interview transcripts and conducting the interviews with the educational tourism participants, 7 specific themes (the main points) have emerged. One of the first themes was that financial aspect of the educational tourism programmes is one of the basic criteria that affect the decision of the participation in such type of tourism activity. The level of financial costs and the possibility of their reduction as well as self-support (e.g. by providing scholarships or jobs at campus facilities) are extremely important during the selection process of the programme type and a destination country.

The next essential theme that was determined is that various personal reasons are creating a strong basis for the programme choice and a destination country. For instance, relationships and reunion with their family members are fairly common. Such reasons are becoming a pretty strong motivation for students' involvement in the educational tourism and it is strongly affecting their behaviour during the programmes as well as their expectations for the future. One more theme that covers the issue of the incentives and expectations of the educational tourists is that participants' motivates and expectations are based on the stereotypes regarding big opportunities and higher living standards abroad. A large number of the respondents have stated that they were motivated to participate in various programmes according to these reasons, even though they did not have an actual knowledge about the state of affairs in the destination country (economic situation, labour market, political conditions, and so on).

The last theme, which is connected to the motivational issues and expectations, includes that tourists, involved in the educational tourism programmes, are considering their participation as a challenge. Regarding such viewpoint, these tourists are stimulated by obtaining a set of adventurous tasks that will benefit them in the form of new knowledge (mostly, practical ones) and improved skills as well as increased moral endurance and stress resistance.

Moving forward, the next theme includes that strong motivational forces are helping the educational tourism participants to overcome the wide range of issues that take place during the adjustment period, and these forces make the educational tourists to be creative while looking for different ways of problems solving (e.g. visa application and documents preparation procedures, foreign language improvements, shared accommodations, and more).

One of the research objectives covers the issues of the students' expectations and the possible effects of the education tourism on the future decision-making process. The sixth emerged theme states that participation in the educational tourism programmes leads to the positive personal improvements and the formation of the personality.

The last theme that appeared after data analysis includes the statement that mostly all educational tourism participants perceive themselves as tourists in their final destinations and they spend lots of their free time for visiting tourist attractions and sights in the destination countries, which makes a positive impact of the regional tourism industry. It is necessary to mention that all the emerged themes were previously examined by different researchers but they have not been studied enough.

After analysing the interview transcripts, conducting coding and categorisation processes, the grounded theory could be designed and developed. Due to the grounded theory approach, the identified codes from the interview transcripts and emerged categories as well as the main points (themes) were linked to the main aim and the subsequent objectives of the present research project (Goulding, 2005). Thus, it was summarised that the Eastern European participants of the diverse educational tourism programmes are motivated to be involved in such type of tourism activity due to the previously established national stereotypes that are usually unjustified (e.g. better career opportunities for youth abroad and higher living standards), search of adventures and different challenges (such as first experience of living alone, self-funding, adjusting to the different living conditions, testing yourself), and personal incentives (for example, family reunion or relationships). The determined motives serve as driving forces for the further involvement into the educational tourism, and create a basis for the destination country choice. Nevertheless, the financial aspect of the educational tourism remains to be the main criterion that defines the choice of the education provider (either education institution or organising company) and the programme itself. Financial criterion includes such elements as tuition fee or programme fees, scholarship availability, financial aid from the education provider, and possibility of the self-support. Educational tourism participants are mostly strongly motivated what defines their behaviour and adjustments while staying abroad (for instance, expression of the creativity during the problems solving, taking extra classes and language courses, and working on the personal issues and skills). In addition, the arising challenges and problems for such travellers include the lack of foreign language knowledge, comparatively weak pre-academic preparation, the significant difference between the educational systems of the hosting country and the country of origin, changed living conditions, and inadequate psychological preparation for the life changes, which causes various negative feelings and their outcomes such as apathy and depression. In spite of the wide range of emerging problems and their complexity, the involvement in any kind of the educational tourism programme has positive affects for their participants as well as for the hosting countries. As for the foreign students, their positive outcomes includes self-development (e.g. self-confidence, self-respect, self-expression), personal growth (personal qualities), stress resistance, knowledge of few foreign languages, broad-mindedness and tolerance, improved professional skills, and increased number of interests and ambitions, and improved desire for discoveries. Regarding the hosting countries and their regional tourism industries, the educational tourism participants are spending their leisure time by sightseeing and traveling around the hosting countries with the regular frequency, even though not all the educational tourists perceive themselves as tourists at the destination countries. Hence, the benefits for the tourism industry of the hosting countries, caused by the inbound educational travellers, involve the increased number of the visitors to the national sights, tourism destinations within the country, the income growth of the various accommodation establishments and food and beverage outlets (F&B), and the intercultural interactions between locals and educational tourists (Jiyun & Jeonglyeol, 2014; Butcher, 2008). Moreover, after participating in the educational tourism programmes, the educational tourists are more interested in the tourism and travelling experiences, which stimulates them for the future trips to the other destinations or further involvement into the other type of the educational programmes, which will have create more advantages for the tourism market of the chosen destinations as well as for the educational tourism providers.

CONCLUSION

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The main aim of the study was the identification and examination of the motives and reasons of the Eastern European foreign students to participate in the educational tourism and to continue their studying abroad, and determination of consequences of such decision. In order to answer the set questions and to succeed with the stated intentions, the anonymous individual in-depth interviews were conducted with the students and alumni from Poland, Ukraine, Russia, Bulgaria, and Belarus, who are currently participating or have been involved in the educational tourism. The findings revealed that it was found that educational tourists are motivated either by personal motives, such as family reunion or partners in the destination country, by previously established stereotypes in home countries of better possibilities of life improvements as well as increased opportunities for professional growth abroad, or by needs of diverse life changes in the form of challenges during/after the moving process or participation in the educational programmes or in the form of self-testing during the adjustment time and the studying process itself. It was also identified that after such experience, these tourists have increased expectations of themselves and of their future/present professional life. Besides, these tourists are willing to travel and to participate in similar programmes more often since they find it extremely valuable.

As for the students' behaviour and faced challenges, the results of the research showed that while moving to another country or staying abroad, educational tourism participants have been experiencing emotional problems due to the changed environments (such as loneliness, apathy, and depression), cultural shock because of the unfamiliar surroundings, languages, and interpersonal misunderstandings, and adjustment disorders due to the different and not always comfortable living conditions, educational systems, financial aspects, and personal qualities. However, since their involvement in the educational tourism was stimulated by the strong motives, these tourists solve the emerging problems quite fast and in various creative ways. In most cases, these ways imply establishing connections with other foreign and local students, taking extra classes, spending a quality leisure time outside the campus, advising with individuals of the same experience, and working on the self-motivation.

The findings also allow concluding that participation in the educational tourism programmes have a great number of positive effects for the education tourists' personal qualities and skills as well as it benefits to the tourism industries of the countries hosting the inbound international students. The advantages of such involvement are expressed in the form of different personal improvements, for example, increased self-respect and confidence, patience, independence, problem-solving skills, responsibility for the actions and decisions, and tolerance. Beside the mentioned human qualities, the education tourists improve their increase their interest and enthusiasm concerning discovering new cultures and countries, new acquaintances, tourism, and further education. It is also necessary to note that students with the experience of studying abroad become more ambitious about their personal and professional plans and goals.

Regarding the benefits for the tourism industry, it was found that participants perceive themselves as tourists in the hosting countries and they are involved in the regional tourist attractions and sightseeing as they consider tourism activity as an essential part of the programmes. Moreover, it was determined that the neighbouring countries benefit from the educational tourism as well since the participants of such programmes are visiting neighbouring regions in the meantime.

In addition to the interviews analysis, different publications and researches related to the educational tourism have been reviewed in order to justify or to disprove research findings and conclusions. Nevertheless, the conclusions of the study were reflected in the ideas presented in other studies (Findlay, King, Stam, Ruiz-Gelices, 2006; Pedersen, Neighbors, Larimer, Lee, 2011; Allen, 2010).

RECOMMENDATIONS

The suppliers of educational tourism services and products have to improve their performance according to the current motivational forces of the education tourists. To begin with, new educational tourism programmes have to be designed and launched on the market regarding the financial situation and expectations of that type of tourists. Since most of those programmes require significant material costs, more suitable programmes should be developed, i.e. existing educational tourism programmes could be improved by including more flexible systems of financial rewards, earning opportunities, variations in the timing of the programmes, and the development of additional discounts).

Besides improvements in the programmes, educational tourism suppliers and educational institutions are recommended to provide more information about the availability and various options of such programme since current students and their guardians are not even aware of possibility to travel abroad with education purposes during the studies, or they do not have any data about the whole process of such programmes, which increases their unawareness and assumptions, and leads to the neglect of this type of tourism activity.

Moreover, as it was mentioned before, educational tourism segment has to be more controlled and researched. Thus, it is recommended for the tourism companies to pay more attention to the market research since it can significantly improve business efficiency and the quality of the provided services and products, and to attract the attention of a greater number of tourists. As for the hosting countries, it would be recommended to provide potential educational tourism participants with the preliminary information about the educational process in the particular educational establishment or education system of the country as a whole. Such actions could significantly improve awareness of the potential education tourist and to dispel unreasonable expectations and established stereotypes which subsequently could help to reduce the level of immigration. Furthermore, the hosting educational establishments are suggested to provide psychological and practical assistance to the foreign students (off-campus meetings with other participants, informing about the local logistics, institutions, and other basic elements about the daily life at the new region).

In addition, Eastern European countries, which are not attracting for the educational tourism at the present time, are suggested to improve the education systems in their establishments, so that provided education would be able to meet international requirements. It is advised to concentrate the attention on the practical skills of their students by implementing mandatory internships and training, to transfer some of the classes to the real working environments, and to increase the number of the field trips and study trips during the studies. Besides, the use of modern technologies should be more frequent (increased number of the presentations, online communications between students and their professors, launched educational databases).

In case of successful implementation of the suggested recommendations, educational tourism market could experience valuable enhancements and expansion of the customer base. Furthermore, considering the findings of the research project, particularly, motivational forces and incentives of the education tourists, challenges experienced during participation in the various tourism educational programmes, and the positive outcomes for all stakeholders involved in the educational tourism as a whole (i.e. participants, educational tourism providers, and related industries), it can be assumed that this type of tourism has a great potential to become one of the most demanded travel activities on the tourism market, and it can easily reach leading positions among other tourism services and travel related products. Nevertheless, more detailed and deeper examination is required for the subject of the educational tourism and its related topics in order to establish well organised, stable, and efficiently-functioning tourism market.

LIMITATIONS

The main limitation of this research is the small sample size – only 75 current and former students from 5 Eastern European countries. The sample size was justified by the applied qualitative methodology, but limits the generalisability of the research results.

FUTURE RESEARCH

The first issue that needs further research refers to attracting foreign students to the various Eastern European educational institutions. As it was mentioned earlier, the number of the out-bound students is growing every single year, and, as it was founded, educational tourism has many advantages for the hosting countries. Taking into account the above, it can be assumed that further examination of this subject and the consequent inferences could be implemented by the Eastern European educational tourism providers followed by the future benefits.

Secondly, the importance of mandatory travel activities during the studying process as well as during the educational tourism programmes has to be researched. According to the findings of the present study, the tourism activities played an essential role as a motivational force to the faster adjustment to the changed environment, intercommunication with locals and other foreigners, academic success, and more frequent travels.

Thirdly, the interaction between locals and inbound education tourists needs to be studied more deeply. The fact that education tourists are staying in the hosting countries much longer than excursionists and other types of tourists has a great importance. Due to the long stay, these tourists have to interact with local residents not only as visitors but also at the household level what involves significantly increased number of issues.

Lastly, the problems on the educational tourism market and the ways for their resolutions have to be researched. Since educational tourism is the fast-growing segment, the need of understanding the emerging problems and questions, and possible options and solutions is crucial. However, as it was stated, the whole subject of the educational tourism has not been examined well enough yet, thus, the market problems are affecting the quality of the provided educational tourism services and industry related products, which could be significantly improved.

REFERENCES

- Abubakar, A.M., Shneikat, B.H.T., Oday, A. (2014). Motivational factors for educational tourism: A case study in Northern Cyprus. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 11, 58-62.
- Allen, H. (2010). Language-learning motivation during short-term study abroad: an activity theory perspective. *Foreign Language Annals*, 43(1), 27-49.
- Butcher, J. (2008). Good tourist, bad tourist. *Times higher education supplement*, (1826). Retrieved August 25, 2014 from Times Higher Education database.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education* [Electronic version]. Abingdon: Routledge
- European Commission. Eurostat. (2012). Tertiary education statistics. Retrieved August 21, 2014 from Eurostat official website: epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Tertiary_education_statistics
- European Commission. Eurostat. (2013). Education statistics at regional level. Retrieved August 21, 2014 from Eurostat official website: epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Education_statistics_at_regional_level
- Findlay, A., King, A., Stam, A., Ruiz-Gelices, E. (2006). Ever reluctant Europeans: The changing geographies of UK students studying and working abroad. *European Urban and Regional Studies*, 13(4), 291-318.
- Flick, U. (2007). *Designing qualitative research* [Electronic version]. London: SAGE Publications Ltd

- Fossey, E., Harvey, C., McDermott, F., Davidson, L. (2002). Understanding and evaluating qualitative research. *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*, 36(6), 717-732.
- Goulding, C. (2005). Grounded theory, ethnography and phenomenology: A comparative analysis of three qualitative strategies for marketing research. *European Journal of Marketing*, 39(3/4), 294-308.
- Jiyun, Y., Jeonglyeol, L. (2014). Impact of tourists' intercultural interactions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(2), 225-238.
- Lam, J.M.S., Ariffin, A.A.M., Ahmad, H.J.A. (2011). Edutourism: Exploring the push-pull factors in selecting a university. *International Journal of Business and Society*, 12(1), 63-78.
- Lee, C.-F. (2014). An investigation of factors determining the study abroad destination choice: A case study of Taiwan. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 18(4), 362-381.
- Lesjak, M., Juvan, E., Ineson, E.M., Yap, M.H.T., Axelsson, E.P. (2015). Erasmus student motivation: Why and where to go? *Higher Education* (forthcoming).
- Middleton, V. C., Lickorish, L. J. (2005). *British tourism: The remarkable story of growth* [Electronic version]. Oxford: Elsevier/Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Mintel (2011). *Educational tourism in Europe*. Retrieved August 21, 2014 from: academic.mintel.com.ezproxy.uwic.ac.uk/display/545393/#
- Mohn, T. (2013, July 10). Travel boom: young tourists spent \$217 billion last year, more growth than any other group. *Forbes*. Retrieved August 20, 2014 from: www.forbes.com/sites/tanyamohn/2013/10/07/the-new-young-traveler-boom/
- Novelli, M. (Ed.). (2005). *Niche tourism: Contemporary issues, trends, and cases* [Electronic version]. Oxford: Elsevier.
- OECD (2012). *Education indicators in focus*. Retrieved August 20, 2014 from OECD official website: www.oecd.org/edu/50495363.pdf
- Ohe, Y. (2012). Evaluating operators' attitudes to educational tourism in dairy farms: The case of Japan. *Tourism Economics*, 18 (3), 577-595.
- Pedersen, E. R., Neighbors, C., Larimer, M. E., Lee, C. M. (2011). Measuring sojourner adjustment among American students studying abroad. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 35(6). 881-889.

- Reisinger, Y., Dimanche, F. (2010). *International tourism: cultures and behavior* [Electronic version]. Oxford: Elsevier.
- Risi, M. (2014). *International tourism generates US\$ 1.4 trillion in export earnings*. Retrieved August 20, 2014 from UNWTO website: media.unwto.org/press-release/2014-05-13/international-tourism-generates-us-14-trillion-export-earnings
- Ritchie, B. W. (2003). *Managing educational tourism*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Robinson, P. (Ed.). (2012). *Tourism: the key concepts* [Electronic version]. Abingdon: Routledge
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., Thornhill, A. (2009) *Research methods for business students*. FT Prentice Hall
- UIS (2012). *Global flow of tertiary-level students*. (2012). Retrieved August 20, 2014 from UIS official website: www.uis.unesco.org/education/Pages/international-student-flow-viz.aspx
- UNWTO (2014). *Tourism – an economic and social phenomenon*. Retrieved August 20, 2014 from UNWTO website: www2.unwto.org/content/why-tourism
- Vanderstoep, S. W., Johnson, D. D. (2009). *Research methods for everyday life: blending qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Hoboken: Wiley
- Vehovar, V., Manfrieda, K.L. (2008). Overview: online surveys. In Fielding, N., Lee, R. M., Blank, G. (Eds.). *The SAGE Handbook of Online Research Methods* [Electronic version]. London: SAGE (pp. 177-194).
- WTTC. (2013). *The comparative impact of travel & tourism – benchmarking against other economic sectors 2013*. Retrieved August 20, 2014 from WTTC webpage: www.wttc.org/site_media/uploads/downloads/Exec_Summ_The_Comparative_Impact_of_Travel_Tourism.pdf
- WYSE (2013). *New Horizons III*. Retrieved August 20, 2014 from the WYSE Travel Confederation website: wysetc.org/research/consumer-data/new-horizons-III/
- Xin, S., Tribe, J., Chambers, D. (2013). Conceptual research in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 41, 66-88.

Tourism career perceptions and implications, a case study of Chinese undergraduate students

Suosheng Wang

suwang@iupui.edu

ABSTRACT

This study examines undergraduate students' perceptions of careers in tourism in the context of China. Based on the quantitative and qualitative approaches, this study examines the applicability of Kusluvan and Kusluvan's (2000) perceptual model by assessing Chinese students' career perceptions. Chinese students' perceptions of tourism careers, according to this study, are generally moderate, prompting tourism education providers in China to provide more accurate information about the status of tourism industry, and more custom-made advising to students. In addition, new factors which are important to Chinese students were identified, suggesting that, when examining students' perceptions in different countries, modifications of the perceptual model are necessary to reflect a country's specific features in tourism education.

Keywords: career perceptions, tourism undergraduate students, China

INTRODUCTION

The scope of tourism education has been expanding rapidly in terms of offerings of education and training programs, however, tourism education providers should not ignore the importance of understanding tourism students' perceptions of their career commitments in the tourism industry. For administrators of education and training programs, understanding students' perceptions of students is central for them to attract and recruit students, which would enable educators to design more interesting and effective courses, and to some extent, prevent them from future job dissatisfaction. Additionally, such understanding will make the tourism employers more conscientious of the industry's characteristics, which can either positively or negatively influence students' attitudes toward employment, and in turn, the attractiveness of the industry.

The literature review of tourism education indicates that studies of tourism students' career perceptions in the 1990s were mainly focused on high school or secondary school students (e.g. Ross, 1991; Ross, 1992a; Ross, 1992b; Ross, 1994; Getz, 1994; Airey & Frontistis, 1997). Since then, more attention has been paid to undergraduate students' career perceptions (Kusluvan and Kusluvan, 2000; Jenkins, 2001; Brien, 2004; Harkison, 2004; Akis Roney &

Öztin, 2007; Barron et al., 2007; Richardson, 2009; Sibson, 2011; King & Hang, 2011). To assess students' career perceptions, Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) develop the multi-dimensional and multi-item attitude scale, consisting of nine measurement dimensions. This scale has been since then applied by other scholars (e.g., Aksu & Koksall, 2005; Richardson, 2010). It is noted that most of the career-perception studies have been focused on undergraduate students studying tourism in European countries or Australia/New Zealand, however, few studies have been conducted in the other parts of the world. It is considered that more studies conducted in other countries are necessary to explore the complexity of this topic, as well as the compliance of Kusluvan and Kusluvan's perceptual model in the context of the other countries.

Prior to 1978, China's tourism education was non-existent. By 1986, there were only four-teen tertiary level institutes offering courses related to tourism, together with four tourism secondary schools, producing a total of 3,896 graduates (2,426 at tertiary level and 1,470 at secondary level) (Zhang, 1987). As of 2011, there were 2,208 institutes (1,115 tertiary level institutes and 1,049 secondary schools) offering tourism education, with a total enrollment of 1,083,300 (599,800 enrolled at tertiary level and 483,400 at secondary level) (CNTA, 2012). China's early tourism education studies have mainly introduced the overall situation of China's tourism higher education, and discussed some of the problems facing China's tourism education (Chen, 1990, Zhao, 1991, Lew & Yu, 1995, Xiao, 2000). Very few studies, especially empirical studies, however, have been conducted in terms of current Chinese students' career perceptions of tourism (Jiang & Tribe, 2009).

To better understand Chinese students' perceptions of industry commitment, this study adopts both quantitative and qualitative approaches to investigate how career choice in tourism is perceived by students in China guided by under the guideline of Kusluvan and Kusluvan's (2000) perceptual model.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The scale developed by Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) in the study of Turkish tourism students has been widely adopted by other researchers in exploring tourism students' career perceptions. Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) employed a multi-dimensional attitude scale in their study of Turkish tourism students, which addresses nine dimensions including nature of work, social status, industry-person congeniality, physical working conditions, pay/fringe benefits, promotion, co-workers, managers and commitment to the industry. Over the past several years, the multi-dimensional scale has been adopted by other researchers. For instance, Aksu and Koksall (2005) tested the scale in a study of tourism students' attitudes and perceptions; Akis Roney and Öztin's (2007) questionnaire was developed primarily by integrating questions and statements used in the previous studies (e.g. Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000; Aksu & Koksall, 2005); Richardson (2010a) tested and applied Kusluvan and Kusluvan's multi-dimensional attitude scale in an Australian context, however, only the Cronbach's alpha was used to test the dimensions' internal consistency and reliability. Among the

nine scales in Richardson's study, five dimensions' Cronbach's alphas did not reach the adequate level of 0.70 as suggested by Nunnally (1978), the lowest .388 for the scale of 'physical working conditions.' Some other studies applied the scales used in the studies of career perceptions of teaching and nursing. For instance, Richardson (2010b) used a questionnaire which was adapted from Kyriacou and Coulthard's (2000), which examined undergraduates' views of teaching as a career choice. Richardson (2010b, p. 3) argued that whilst this instrument analyzed the teaching profession, it was seen as the best instrument to obtain this data as no such instrument was found for investigating important career factors in the tourism and hospitality industry.

Some tourism scholars also tried from different perspectives to explore tourism students' career perceptions. For instance, in studying the event and sport tourism students' career perceptions, Sibson (2011) introduced the career perception measurement scale originally applied in the disciplines of nursing and teaching, meanwhile generating some extra items perceived to be specific only in the context of event, sport and recreation industries. Items developed in studying career perceptions of teaching and nursing, according to Sibson (2011), were grouped into three categories: extrinsic (referring to aspects such as job market, security, money and incentives), intrinsic (reflecting themes of personal satisfaction and having an interest in the career itself), and altruistic (concerning and influencing others and improving society).

The review of literature indicates that, for one thing, tourism scholars are exploring ways to comprehensively assess students' perceptions of careers in tourism; for the other, while Kuslivan and Kuslivan's (2000) perceptual model is considered a popular tool in the field of tourism education, it is suggested that the vitality of the model relies on its openness for modifications and adaptations when applied in different cultural contexts. This case study is designed to explore and assess students' career perceptions in China based on the dimensions defined by Kuslivan and Kuslivan (2000).

RESEARCH METHODS

To assess Chinese students' perceptions of tourism careers, a questionnaire was designed which contains three sections. One section is about students' characteristics such as gender, work experience, year of study, place of origin, study major, and willingness of major. The second section asks students about their career perceptions, based on the 32 items mainly based on Kuslivan and Kuslivan's measurement scale (Kuslivan & Kuslivan, 2000; Aksu & Koksak, 2005; Richard, 2010a & 2010b). Responses to the 32 items are measured with a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree, 3 = neutral, and 5 = strongly agree. The third section is composed of three open-ended questions: One question asks respondents to list three important factors motivating them to choose the career, the second question asks respondents to list three negative factors, which may impact them not to choose the career after graduation, and the last question asks the respondents to express and explain their special concerns about future career choice in tourism.

The survey was conducted in a tourism college of a popular university in South China. The survey was conducted in September and October, 2012; a total of 645 usable surveys were collected, indicating a high response rate of 94%. The data were put into SPSS for data analysis; descriptive statistics (i.e., frequency and mean, dispersion of data) on the 32 items was run to obtain the basic descriptive information of the career perception items. Content analysis was employed to analyze the students' all responses to the open-ended questions; basically, it is the method used in analyzing documents, records, or anything in textual form (Henderson, 2006). The content analysis followed the steps as suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1998) and Boyatzis (1998), include creating interview transcription, reducing raw information, identifying patterns within participants, comparing patterns across participants, creating a code, developing a selective code and determining the reliability of the code.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF TOURISM CAREERS

As shown in Table 1, overall, the mean ratings of the items range from 2.29 to 4.01. The item with the biggest mean is 'tourism career provides good opportunity to contact foreigners and cultures' (4.01), which is the only one with its mean exceeding or equal to 4.0. The second most positively rated item is 'career provides intellectual challenge' (3.83), followed by 'tourism employees are generally uneducated (R)' (3.74).

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. dev.	Rank
Personal interest						
Tourism provides good opportunity to contact foreigners and cultures	643	1.00	5.00	4.0124	.77329	1
Career provides intellectual challenge	645	1.00	5.00	3.8372	.85239	2
Meeting new people is pleasant experience	643	1.00	5.00	3.6967	.86994	4
Tourism jobs are enjoyable	645	1.00	5.00	3.5597	.840504	9
I can have many opportunities to take more overseas trips	644	1.00	5.00	3.4674	.90128	11
I get pleasure by working in tourism	644	1.00	5.00	3.4550	.80791	12
Tourism jobs are interesting to me	645	1.00	5.00	3.4264	.92729	14
Social status						
I talk to my relatives/friends with pride	644	1.00	5.00	2.9922	.97795	22
Working in tourism is respected	644	1.00	5.00	2.9037	.89237	23
People working in tourism are not valued in society (R)*	642	1.00	5.00	2.8925	.95743	25

TOURISM CAREER PERCEPTIONS AMONG CHINESE UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS

Sense of contribution to society						
Will be able to contribute to society	644	1.00	5.00	3.5885	.84577	7
Provides good opportunity to influence other people	645	1.00	5.00	3.4837	.86789	10
I can care for others by working in tourism	645	1.00	5.00	3.3271	.84145	15
Working in tourism is regarded as an important and beneficial service	642	1.00	5.00	3.3255	.93882	16
Working condition and environment						
<i>Nature of work</i>						
Tourism employees are generally uneducated (R)	642	1	5	3.7400	.939	3
Working skills in tourism are transferable	645	1.00	5.00	3.6512	.84746	6
A variety of job opportunities	644	1.00	5.00	3.4317	.85677	13
Most tourism jobs are low skilled (R)	639	1.00	5.00	3.2926	1.05957	17
It will be easy to get a tourism job anywhere	640	1.00	5.00	2.8984	.82640	24
Working hours are too long in tourism (R)	643	1.00	5.00	2.8336	.84573	27
Working in tourism does not provide a secure future (R)	643	1.00	5.00	2.8149	.93810	28
Working environment in tourism is pleasant	644	1.00	5.00	2.7624	.87886	29
<i>Pay/benefits</i>						
One can make good money by working in tourism	645	1.00	5.00	2.8558	.83925	26
There is a good starting salary	643	1.00	5.00	2.5568	.82095	31
<i>Promotion opportunities</i>						
Good opportunity for promotion/ advancement in tourism	645	1.00	5.00	3.0992	.82813	20
<i>Co-workers</i>						
No team spirit among tourism staff (R)	642	1.00	5.00	3.6900	.90700	5
<i>Relations between managers and staff</i>						
Relationship between managers and staff is poor (R)	642	1.00	5.00	3.5794	.86033	8
Commitment to industry						
Generally, advantages outweigh disadvantages	642	1.00	5.00	3.2461	.84077	18
I am happy to choose tourism as a career	641	1.00	5.00	3.2106	.95571	19
Would like to work in tourism after graduation	643	1.00	5.00	3.0886	.94716	21
Definitely I will work in tourism after graduation	641	1.00	5.00	2.6537	.82832	30
May think of working in a different industry after graduation (R)	640	1.00	5.00	2.2922	.72552	32

*(R): Values of the item are reversely coded before calculations.

Eleven out of the 32 items receive means which are below 3.0, indicating that students' perceptions of these items are negative. Specifically, perceptions of all the three 'social status' items are negative, showing a low perceived value of social status of tourism careers; several other negatively perceived items are related to the dimensions of 'nature of work' and 'pay/benefits', implying students may not be satisfied with the working conditions and be concerned about the low payment and benefit; the other two negatively-perceived items are related to students' commitment to tourism careers. The three most negatively perceived items are 'I may think of working in a different industry after graduation (R)' (2.29), 'there is a good starting salary' (2.55), and 'definitely I will work in tourism after graduation' (2.65)', implying that the students are very uncertain whether they will pursue a career in tourism after graduation and are very disappointed with the low-paid entry-level jobs.

The dimensions' means were calculated by summing up the items' mean ratings under each category and divided by the number of the items. The dimension with the biggest mean is 'co-workers' (3.69), followed by 'personal interest' (3.64), 'relations between managers and staff' (one-item factor) (3.58), 'sense of contribution to society' (3.42), 'nature of work' (3.18), and 'promotion opportunities' (one-item factor) (3.10). The other three dimensions' means are below the middle point of 3.0, i.e. 'social status' (2.93), 'commitment to industry' (2.9), and 'pay/benefits' (2.71).

Overall, it is found that the students' perceptions of tourism careers in China are moderate or even negative. The low ratings of the Kusluvan and Kusluvan's (2000) scales obtained are found to be consistent with the previous studies conducted in the other countries as mentioned above.

POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE CHINESE STUDENTS' CAREER CHOICES

To better understand how the students perceive the tourism industry and tourism careers, three open-ended questions were asked to the students participating in the survey: One question asked students to list three factors deemed most important in motivating them to work in the tourism industry after graduation; the second was for the students to list three key factors which might impact them not to work in the tourism industry after graduation; and the third question asked students to explain in detail about what made them specifically concerned about their future career in tourism.

Results of the content analysis on the first two questions are displayed in Table 2. As a result, this study identified ten positive and nine negative factors which were frequently mentioned by the students. (Factors mentioned less than 10 times were arbitrarily excluded from the list). With regards to the positive factors motivating students to choose a career in tourism, the most frequently mentioned factors include 'working environment and atmosphere' (161), 'salary and benefits' (124 counts), 'travel and go-abroad opportunities' (108 counties) and 'support for family' (82 counties). These highly-registered factors indicate that the students hope to improve their economic conditions and support their families by working in the

prospective tourism industry. The most-frequently-mentioned factors which have negative impacts on students' choosing tourism careers include 'poor prospects for the industry' (141 counties), 'low level of social status or recognition' (140 counties), 'concern of unhealthy development, low quality of employees and irregular working hours' (131 counties), and 'low salary and benefits' (118 counties). These factors may reflect a fact that the students were disappointed at the low social status and/or low economic value of the industry, which, in turn, led to their negative prospects for the future of the industry.

Table 2. Positive and Negative Factors Influencing Students' Career Choice

	Positive Factors	Counts		Negative Factors	Counts
1)	Working environment, atmosphere	161	1)	Poor prospects for the industry	141
2)	Salary and benefits	124	2)	Low level of social status or recognition	140
3)	Travel and go-abroad opportunities	108	3)	Concern of unhealthy development, low quality of employees and irregular working hours	131
4)	Support for family	82	4)	Low salary and benefits	118
5)	Advantages of one's own major and working experience from internship	56	5)	No interest	48
6)	Social recognition	43	6)	Few job openings or limited job choices	39
7)	Development of social network	34	7)	Already having one's own career plan, preferring other professions more	36
8)	Taking challenges, self-actualization	35	8)	Family opposition	26
9)	Good prospect of the industry	25	9)	Lack of self-competence or professional knowledge, high pressure	20
10)	Personal interest	20			

Notably, as shown in Table 2, some factors were dually listed as both positive and negative factors. These factors are 'salary and benefits', 'social recognition', 'prospects of the industry' and 'personal interest'. This result may imply that, on one hand, these may be fundamental factors, commonly shared and concerned by the students when thinking of tourism careers; on the other hand, a perceptual discrepancy may exist among the students in understanding which factors are really positive and which are really negative, which may further indicate that students' knowledge about the industry may be limited and ambiguous. More information about the career and industry should be provided and made readily available to

students, in order to minimize the perceptual gap caused by misunderstandings due to a limited source of information. In particular, tourism educators and employers should examine to what extent the negative impacts may be perceived by the students, so as to take remedial measures accordingly; career advising should address students' concern about these negative factors as well, to enhance students' interest and confidence in pursuing tourism careers.

TOP CONCERNS ABOUT TOURISM CAREERS BY CHINESE

The third open-ended question asked students to express and explain their main concerns about career choice in tourism. Students' responses to this question provide an insightful view of what are deeply concerned by the students in terms of career choice. Through content analysis, students' responses are categorized into six major concerns:

- a. One major concern is 'poor prospects for the industry'. Specifically, students are concerned about the insecure and unstable tourism development in China, and the saturation of the job market, and hitherto hold a wait-and-see attitude. One example of such comments is "Current tourism development is relatively topsy-turvy." One student expressed concerns about China's unethical tour guides who pressed customers to buy stuff in designated souvenir shops. Thinking of such negative images existing in the industry, students don't feel proud of choosing tourism as a career.
- b. The second concern is found to be related with students' lack of confidence due to limited training opportunities, and lack of work experience or high pressure of competition. One such comment is "The tourism job market is very competitive; but what I learned from class is very limited." These comments show that the students found themselves in a somewhat embarrassing dilemma – on one hand, the students feel 'prejudiced' if working in the industry due to lowly-perceived social value of tourism; on the other hand, the students feel highly pressured when thinking of working in the industry due to lack of training opportunities or working experience while studying at school. One implication for tourism education providers in China is that orientations as well as curricular design should incorporate contents closely related with the social status of tourism industry and availability of interesting internships and job opportunities.
- c. The third expressed concern is students' lack of interest or disappointment with their choice of tourism major. One typical comment is "I currently don't see the attractiveness of this career, so I'm still on the loose." These comments show that students' lack of interest in tourism may result from the perceptual gap between their unrealistic expectations of tourism careers and the actual conditions and reputations of the industry.
- d. The fourth concern is related to students' obscure feeling of an unclear career path of tourism. One typical example is "Many students are puzzled about tourism's career paths." According to Walmsley (2004), being devoid of a clear career structure is considered to be one of the eight characteristics of 'short-lived professions' in tourism. It is important to note that a talented tourism-major student can become very frustrated in school without

a clear understanding of the career path in tourism. Not included in Kusluvan and Kusluvan's (2000) perceptual model, the concern of lack of career path in tourism should be brought to the attention of Chinese tourism education providers' attention; further studies are recommended to examine to what extent and how this concern may hinder Chinese students' career choice in tourism.

- e. Not surprisingly, one concern is about the negative image of 'tourism - low paid industry', with typical comments such as "The salary is very low in tourism" and "Tourism is the country's important tertiary industry, but employees' salaries are too low!" This may have placed an urgent need and a big challenge for tourism education providers to clarify the difference between the general-perceived low pay in the industry on average and the well-paid but maybe challenging jobs and positions available to the students, and in turn, justify the tourism education programs which can qualify the students with the required qualities.
- f. Last but not least, one major concern is about students' high expectation of helpful advice and assistance provided by the college. Similar comments are like - "I am a second-year student and very much like to know my future plan. However, I don't know much about the tourism industry yet and thus it's beyond my ability to make a decision at this moment. I hope the school can provide me with some guidelines in this respect." These comments reflect students' feel of uncertainty toward future careers and expectation of more guidelines and assistance from school. One implication is for tourism education providers to be able to provide custom-made advising and up-to-date industrial information to each specific student.

Some of the listed concerns are echoed by the important positive and negative factors illustrated in Table 2, which are deemed to be influential to students' career choice and should be well addressed by the education institutions and the industry, in order to attract and retain talented graduates and professionals; the other concerns such as lack of work experience, lack of career paths' and lack of helpful academic advice should be considered as some of the critical areas, where tourism education providers should work hard to improve these areas and find out effective solutions. These are the factors, found to be additional to the ones highlighted by Kusluvan and Lusluvan's (2000), implying that students' perceptions of career commitment is linked with and affected by their perceptions of how tourism education has prepared them for the careers. The identified factors should make Chinese tourism educators and employers become more aware of the areas for improvement when stipulating policies and strategies in attracting talented tourism graduates. The factors recommended by Kusluvan and Kusluvan are more tourism-industry-focused, while the factors revealed from the qualitative data indicate that students are also concerned with the quality of tourism education. More studies are necessary to prove whether these factors are applied to China's situation only, or also applicable to other countries' tourism education. It is recommended that a more comprehensive assessment of students' perceptions of tourism careers involve both the industry and education related factors perceived by the students.

CONCLUSION

This study introduced Kuslivan and Kuslivan's (2000) multi-dimensional and multi-item scale and examined this perceptual model's aptness in measuring undergraduate students' perceptions of Careers in tourism in the context of China. Seemingly foreseeable, but still surprisingly, one third of the items were perceived negatively by the students. The average means of the dimensions range from 2.71 to 3.69, indicating that Chinese undergraduate students hold moderate or even negative perceptions of tourism careers. The findings from the survey based on Kuslivan and Kuslivan's multi dimensions and multi items show to be consistent to the results of the previous studies conducted in the other countries as mentioned in the chapter of literature.

Analyses of the motivating factors as well as students' top concerns about tourism careers discovered some key factors which should be ignored in studying students' perceptions of careers in tourism; these factors include poor prospects for the industry, family opposition, lack of self-competence or knowledge, lack of career path or direction, and education providers' important role in providing students with all the necessary knowledge, consultations and placement opportunities. As suggested by Murphy, Blustein, Bohlig and Platt (2010), teaching and counseling undergraduate students of the career development responsibilities and expectations, before they enter the job force, may be integral in career success.

The results of this study, especially the unique dimensions revealed in this study, indicate that, when assessing students' career perceptions, scholars should consider and apply Kuslivan and Kuslivan's career-perceptual model in an open and dynamic way, such that the factors, which reflect the features of a specific place's tourism education and industry, should be identified and integrated into the existing measurement model; a modified model with the inclusion of each place's tourism education and industry features will work best in examining the students' perceptions of career in tourism. This study hence recommends that, in examining students' career perceptions, Kuslivan and Kuslivan's model can be used as a good foundation but meanwhile should also incorporate the components which reflect the characteristics of a specific country's tourism education and industry.

From the perspective of the industry, given the moderate-to-negative career perceptions, this study stresses need for provision of more accurate information and awareness of the tourism and hospitality industry, as well as attractive career opportunities available to tourism college graduates. Tourism employers should work closely with tourism education providers, in establishing a more favorable image of the industry, supplying reliable and positive information about the industry, as well as internship opportunities attractive to challenging and talented students. The evolution of the tourism industry and recognition for the need of tourism in higher education provide opportunities for substantial development within the industry, such opportunities may elude with the continuous loss of talented college graduates, who are confused and disappointed at the tourism education and industry. Besides, tourism educators and administrators must take care to ensure courses provide direction towards careers that are pre-conceived by both students and the industry, or to educate students on precisely what career path options they will be prepared for upon graduating with a tourism degree.

In summary, this study suggests that the multi-dimensional and multi-item scale developed by Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) has been useful and effective in capturing students' perceptions of tourism industry, and this perceptual model would be more comprehensive in assessing a country's tourism career perceptions with modifications which reflect the features of the country's tourism education and industry. To better understand how the industry factors and education features are working together influencing students' career commitment, future studies are recommended to further examine the structural relations of these factors and features. In addition, it is suggested that, to better understand if and how the perceptions may vary with students' increasing schooling years and work experience, the moderating impacts of the categorical variables such as year of study and work experience should be considered and included in the study. One caution when interpreting the findings of this study may be that, the data were collected from one university in China, because of which the results may not be representative in China. However, given that this university is a national tier-one university in China, with students coming from all the different provinces of the country who will look for jobs nation-wide after graduation, the results are considered to be representative at least to all the tier-one universities in China. As a result, the findings will have significant implications not only for the university, but for the whole country's tourism education as well. The findings of this study tend to be a good supplement to the other tourism-career-perception studies in China, as such perceptual studies on China's tourism education and careers have been scarcely reported in literature.

REFERENCES

- Airey, D., and Frontistis, A. (1997). Attitudes to careers in tourism: An Anglo Greek comparison. *Tourism Management*, 18, 149-158.
- Akis Roney, S. A., and Öztin, P. (2007). Career perceptions of undergraduate tourism students: A case study in Turkey. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport, & Tourism Education*, 6(1), 4-18.
- Aksu, A. A., and Koksul, D. C. (2005). Perceptions and attitudes of tourism students in Turkey. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 17(5), 436-447.
- Barron, P., Maxwell, G., Broadbridge, A., and Ogden, S. (2007). Careers in hospitality management; Generation Y's experiences and perceptions. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 14, 119-128.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information*. London: Sage.
- Brien, A. (2004). Do I want a job in hospitality? Only till I get a real job! In K.A. Smith & C. Schott (Eds.), *Proceedings of the New Zealand Tourism and Hospitality Research Conference*, Wellington, New Zealand.

- Chen, S. (1990), The outline of higher-level education in tourism in China. *Tourism Review*, 45(4), 24-27.
- CNTA (2012), *China's Tourism Statistics Bulletin, 2011*, retrieved on 2012/10/25, from: <http://www.cnta.org.cn/html/2012-10/2012-10-25-9-0-71726.html>.
- Getz, D. (1994). Students' work experiences, perceptions and attitudes towards careers in hospitality and tourism: A longitudinal case study in Spey Valley, Scotland. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 13(1), 25-37.
- Harkison, T. (2004), *Hospitality Degrees in New Zealand: Exploratory Research*. Published Masters Thesis the Master of Education (Adult Education), Massey University, Wellington.
- Henderson, K. A. (2006), *Dimensions of choice: Qualitative approaches to parks, recreation, tourism, sport, and leisure research* (2nd ed.), State College, PA: Venture.
- Jenkins, A. K. (2001). Making a career of it? Hospitality students' future perspective: An Anglo-Dutch study. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 13(1), 13-20.
- Jiang, B. and Tribe, J. (2009), 'Tourism jobs – short lived professions': Student attitudes towards tourism careers in China. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 8(1), 4-19.
- King, P. W.Y., and Hang, F. K. W. (2011). Career Perceptions of Undergraduate Gaming Management Students. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 11, 367-391.
- Kusluvan, S., and Kusluvan, Z. (2000). Perceptions and attitudes of undergraduate tourism students towards working in the tourism industry in Turkey. *Tourism Management*, 21, 251-269.
- Lew, A., and Yu, L. (1995), *Tourism in China: Geographic, political, and economic perspective*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press Inc.
- Murphy, K. A., Blustein, D. L., Bohlig, A. J., & Platt, M. G. (2010). The College-to-Career Transition: An Exploration of Emerging Adulthood. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 88(2), 174-181.
- Richardson, S. (2009). Undergraduates' perceptions of tourism and hospitality as a career choice. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28, 382-388.
- Richardson, S. (2010a). Generation Y's Perceptions and Attitudes towards a Career in Tourism and Hospitality. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism*, 9, 179-199.

- Richardson, S. (2010b). Tourism and Hospitality Students' Perceptions of a Career in the Industry: A Comparison of Domestic (Australian) Students and International Students Studying in Australia. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 1-11.
- Ross, G. F. (1991). School-leavers and their perceptions of employment in the tourism/hospitality industry. *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 2(2), 28-35.
- Ross, G. F. (1992a). Tourism management as a career path: Vocational perceptions of Australian school leavers. *Tourism Management*, 13, 242-247.
- Ross, G. F. (1992b). Tourism and hospitality industry job-attainment beliefs and work values among Australian school leavers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*.
- Ross, G. F. (1994). What do Australian school leavers want of the industry? *Tourism Management*, 15, 62-66.
- Sibson, R. (2011). Career choice perceptions of undergraduate event, sport and recreation management students: An Australian case study, *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 10(2), 50-60.
- Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- WTO (2001), *Tourism 2020 vision: Volume 3, East Asia and Pacific*, Madrid, Spain: WTO.
- Xiao, H. (2000), Tourism education in China: past and present, *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 4(2), 68-72.
- Zhang, G. (1987), Tourism Education in P. R. China. *Tourism Management*, 8(3), 263-266.
- Zhao, J. L. (1991), A current look at hospitality and tourism education in China's colleges and universities, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 10, 357-67.

Urban tourism and cultural identity in South-eastern Sicily¹

Elena Di Blasi

Alessandro Arangio

edibiasi@unime.it
aarangio@unime.it

ABSTRACT

The present paper aims to show by means of a comparative analysis of the local tourist market and town planning how two events in the early 1990s (the dramatic earthquake of 1990 and the administrative reform of 1993 in Italy which established the direct election of mayors) have gradually transformed South-eastern Sicily into a cultural tourist region. In the early 2000s, after the recovery of some historic centres, six towns of the area were included in the World Heritage List by UNESCO. From 1994 to 2013 tourist fluxes have doubled in the Province of Syracuse and grown by 65% in the Province of Ragusa. The feeling of the ‘tourist destiny’ has changed the economic attitudes of the inhabitants and the perceptions itself they have of the place where they live. Since the second half of the 2000s because of the economic crisis and local political conflict, the planning dynamism of this region has come to an end.

Keywords: Cultural Tourism; South-eastern Sicily; Urban Redevelopment.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is not a phenomenon easily defined – although attempts have been made – because the term ‘tourism’ does not have a monosemic value. It is a headword which, today, gives expression to at least two different human needs sharing the same assumption: the need for regenerating rest from the usual condition of ‘normality’ – recreational or productive relaxation, such as the *otium* according to the high concept of the Latins – and the ancestral need to travel, with its laborious cathartic and religious function of reconciling the self with the external reality (nature and the world as they are perceived from the inside). Yet, for this crave for reconciliation, for this satisfying pacification, for this painful rebirth to take place, the

¹ Despite common reflections: “Introduction” and “Urban redevelopment and cultural tourism” are attributable to Alessandro Arangio; “General features of south-eastern Sicily”, “Arrivals and overnight stays in south-eastern Sicily”, “Accommodation supply” and “Conclusions” to Elena Di Blasi.

traveller, first, must be able to conquer, domesticate and ‘devour’ the outside. Only through the consumption of the places and the ‘cannibalization’ of the old self, can the individual truly experience the journey (Chambers: 2010, pp. 1-26; Arangio: 2013, p. 121).

Travelling is, thus, a paraphrase of life, since, like life, it is knowledge and, therefore, self-creation, a circular dialectical process of constant enrichment. It is a *periegesis* since the travellers always return through new routes, which are not the same as the ones they set out on. Between life and travelling, in this dialectic-cognitive process, what changes is intensity. When travelling, *autopoiesis* becomes stronger, more intense, and it is for this reason that happiness and good always prevail over the pain, fear and difficulties of travelling. In Homer’s Ulysses, in Marco Polo, in Christopher Columbus, in Ishmael who escaped from Moby Dick, in the Anabasis, in the long wandering of Alexander in Asia and, also, in Apollo 11, in the epilogue of Dostoevskij’s Raskolnikov, up to Dante’s epic, travelling – like a book – always brings with it an invaluable gift: knowledge, which is liberating and pacifying, and the consequent transformation of the self. And, since appropriating the outside cannot be but appropriating the shadows cast by the fire on the cave wall, every journey is an archetype, a unique and one-time experience (*ibidem*).

Also, what has been defined as ‘regenerating rest’ aims at the development of the individual, despite being characterised by lesser emotional intensity and ‘passion’. The break from ordinary life is a common assumption for the satisfaction of both these needs, but the feelings behind them are profoundly different. Regenerating rest does not cause any pain and does not involve passing any tests (Krippendorf: 1987, pp. 13-29; Battilani: 2009, pp. 53-92).

It is, thus, for this inextricable ambivalence, for this double interpretation of the headword, that tourism appears to have many facets; it shows a great variety of forms, which makes it a flexible subject matter and a research area shared by many scientific fields of study.

Hence, while social sciences concentrate both on the motivational aspects which cause tourists to travel and on the (social, cultural and psychic) effects of their travelling (Cohen: 1984, p. 373), economics observes modern tourism from a less intimate point of view, through the categories of the market, although marketing experts are well aware of tourists’ most hidden desires. So economics analyses the comparison between the supply and demand of tourist goods and services, the demand being that presented by the tourists in relation to their income, their free time and their diverse motives, and the supply being that generated by the host territory. This latter can provide accommodation, culture, recreation, handicrafts, food and wine, and other goods and services.

Geography, being a science which examines, describes, and creates the world, is interested in all of these aspects. Above all, it is interested in how tourism changes, modifies and rearranges the territories and in how these changes, these rearrangements are perceived. Tourism, like everything which deals with the human beings, modifies, adapts, and creates – disorganised – representations of the world which the geographer tries to put in order. The starting

point for the geographer is, therefore, a quantitative analysis. For this purpose, there are various methods of measurement, which are commonly used for the geo-economic analysis of the fluxes. The indicators that are usually surveyed and processed refer to the 'arrivals' of tourists and their 'stays', that is, the overnight stays recorded in both hotel and other accommodation facilities. They are, obviously, 'simple' tools whose value as informative data is limited but which give an – extremely approximate – idea of the quantity and quality of the tourist demand aimed at a territory (Arangio: 2013, pp. 122-123).

In Sicily these data were collected and processed by the local offices for tourist development, before they were eliminated by the regional law no. 10 of 2005. They are now managed by the nine Sicilian provinces and the regional tourist services. They are sent to the Tourist Observatory of the Sicilian Regional Authority, which processes them when drawing up the annual report². The tourist services have, de facto, replaced the tourist offices, which were also eliminated by the regional Law no. 10 of 2005, and refer to the Sicilian Regional Authority. This was a centralist turning point, which caused delays and serious inefficiencies, above all at the beginning, after the termination of the old organizations when the confusion created by the changes determined a loss of information. These deficiencies are, of course, a negative element since they slow down tourist planning and a possible well-timed adoption of remedial actions. Not being able to use wide statistical surveys, given the difficulties the industry has met over these last few years, is an element of weakness. In this respect the abolition of the nine regional provinces in Sicily paves the way for uncertain scenarios which are difficult to predict as well as combining with the difficult effects of the economic crisis and with the possible (and consequential) cuts on statistics (*Ibidem*).

But then again the geo-economic analysis of the data takes the geographer back to the forms, to the transformations, to how the city and its 'outside' modify themselves in relation to tourism – as well as manufacturing, agriculture, and commerce. Sicilian tourism is, in fact, a mainly urban – and, therefore, coastal (or almost coastal) – phenomenon since the most important centres of the island are to be found along its coastline or, in any case, not far from it. The Hyblean region, which mainly corresponds to the south-eastern provinces of Syracuse and Ragusa, is the territory with the oldest anthropization in the island and has a remarkable urban-cultural heritage. This study aims to analyse the recent tourist dynamism in this area.

GENERAL FEATURES OF SOUTH-EASTERN SICILY

In the south-easternmost end of Sicily there are the Hyblean Mountains, a calcareous-marlstone mountain system mainly lying in the territories of Syracuse, Ragusa and, to a lesser extent, Catania. This area of the island, with well-defined geo-morphological features, is

² Annual reports, some data and studies of the Tourist Observatory of the Sicilian Regional Authority are available on: http://pti.regione.sicilia.it/portal/page/portal/PIR_PORTALE/PIR_LaStrutturaRegionale/PIR_TurismoSportSpettacolo/PIR_Turismo.

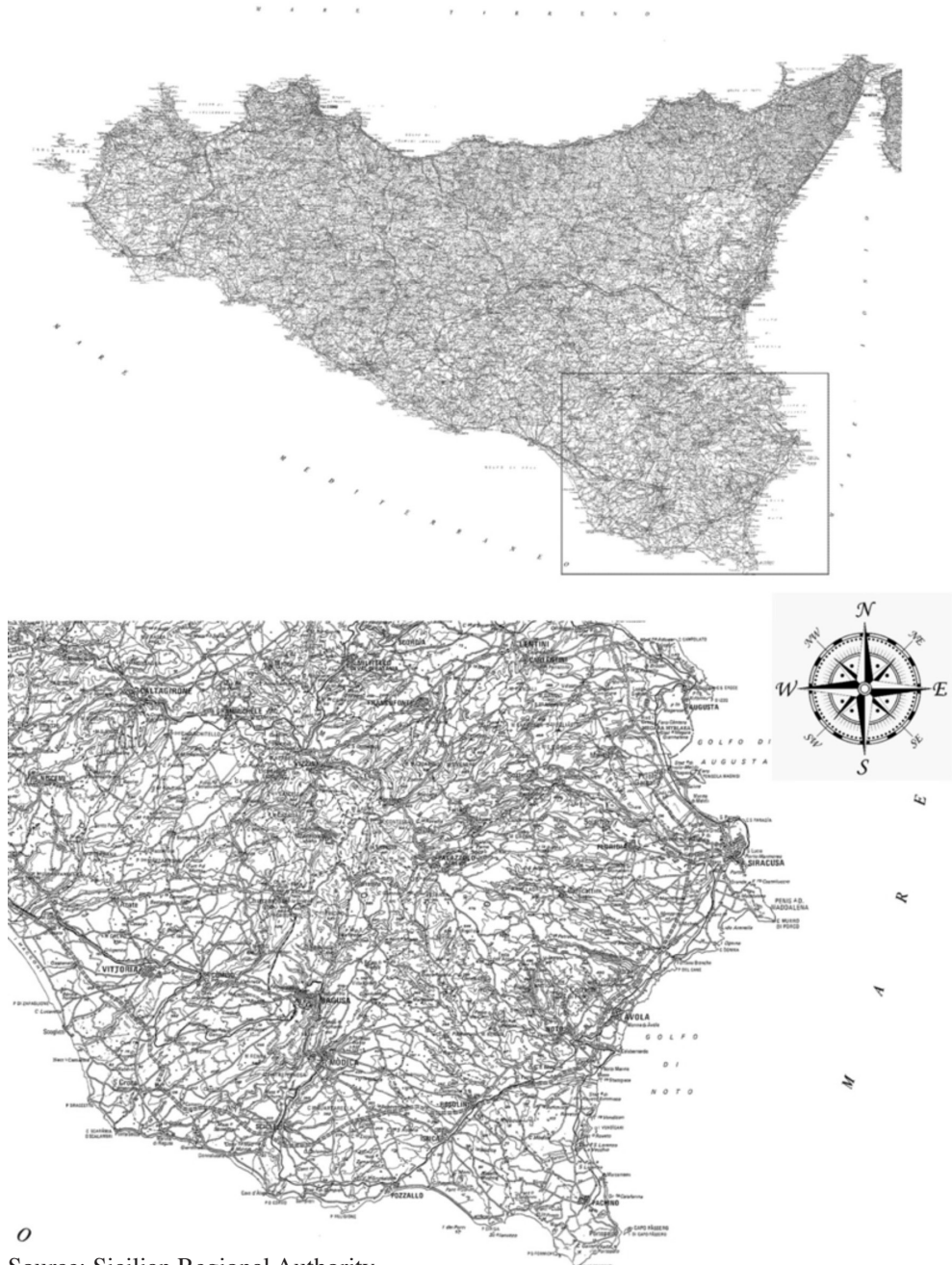
called the 'Hyblean region' (Pecora: 1968, p. 189). According to recent geological studies, this territory lies on the 'Siculo-Hyblean' microplate, since it is wedged between the large Eurasian and African Plates, which is amongst the main causes of the numerous earthquakes that have hit and plagued eastern Sicily over the centuries. In the whole area the seismic risk is high as the land is vulnerable to the strong deformation caused by the opening of the Ionian Sea. It is not, however, only geology which defines these areas.

During the ancient times, a thick network of urban centres distributed between the sea and the hinterland controlled the territorial organization. It was a region facing east so the centres of power were those lying along the coastline. Syracuse ruled over all of them. It was the supremacy of this town, which created and shaped the whole territory of eastern Sicily, at least until the Roman conquest of the island.

In the Middle Ages, due to the insecurity of sea commerce and the constant threats coming from the sea, various functions, fluxes and many human activities were moved back towards the hill and mountain areas. As a consequence the phenomenon of encastellation and a new – no longer stretching out towards the sea – territorial organization took place. South-eastern Sicily was now delimited and defined by domestic trade. New towns such as Noto and, above all, Modica emerged and, gradually, history has made this territory polycentric and balanced. From the Modern Age certain historical and territorial transformations of south-eastern Sicily appeared typical, unique and different from the predominant developments in the island as a whole. Hence, by the end of the nineteenth century the latifundum would hardly appear on the cadastral maps of the province of Syracuse, which until 1926 included the territories of the province of Ragusa³, and the mafia, which had already stabbed to death Emanuele Notarbartolo in Termini Imerese, was totally missing.

³ The province of Ragusa was born out of the division from the province of Syracuse in 1927.

Figure 1: South-eastern Sicily



Source: Sicilian Regional Authority

Some socio-economic transformations, which appeared after the Second World War, have deeply modified the territorial hierarchies within the Hyblaean area, thus redefining a structure made up of cities of small and average dimensions as well as creating new strong, and almost always leading, extra-urban centres. At first, in fact, the creation of the petrochemical plant in the area consisting of Syracuse, Priolo and Augusta redefined the geography of the territory. This plant, thanks to its ability to attract resources and people, became a real landmark of the Hyblaean region. Later, beginning from the 1970s, when the main petrochemical plants were starting to experience a phase of recession, an agricultural system – highly dynamic and characterised by the use of greenhouses – developed in a wide area between Pachino and Vittoria. In all this territory, which includes the southernmost area of the territory of Syracuse and all the coastline of the territory of Ragusa, the countryside has become the central point of the economy (Di Blasi and Arangio: 2013, pp. 231-242). The cities, on the other hand, have experienced and supported the changes originated from their ‘outside’, but, since the 1990s, thanks to important policies for the urban renovation, which mainly aimed to develop tourism, they have regained their leading roles.

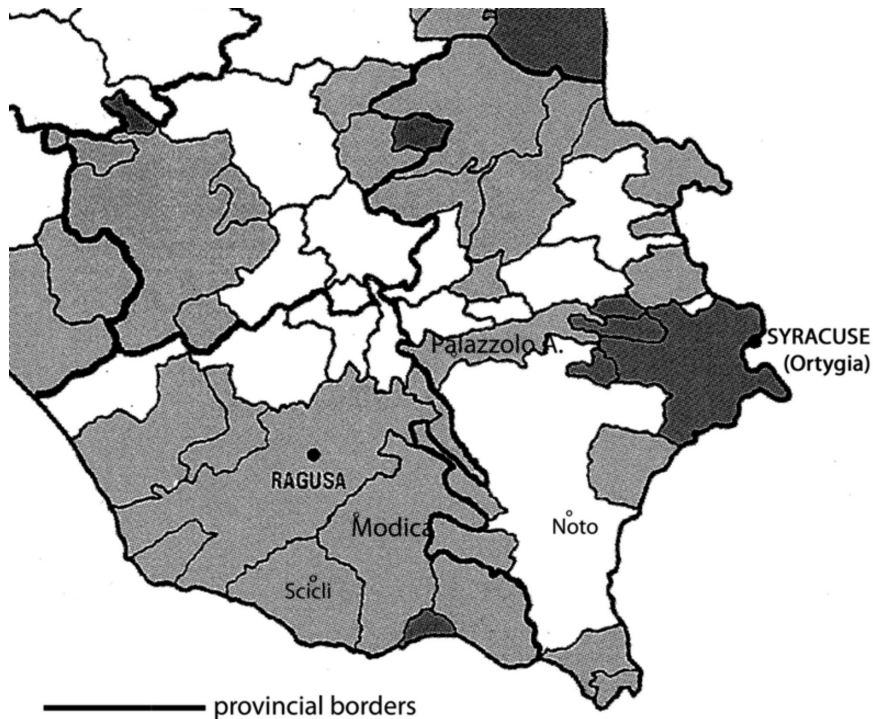
Table 1: Resident population in the municipalities of the provinces of Syracuse and Ragusa on 1st January 2014

Augusta	36,482	Acate	10,527
Avola	31,729	Chiaromonte Gulfi	8,225
Buccheri	2,062	Comiso	29,880
Buscemi	1,87	Giarratana	3,131
Canicattini Bagni	7,179	Ispica	15,768
Carlentini	18,049	Modica	54,854
Cassaro	815	Monterosso Almo	3,100
Ferla	2,547	Pozzallo	19,571
Floridia	22,655	Ragusa	72,812
Francofonte	12,929	Santacroce Camerina	10,411
Lentini	24,210	Scicli	27,033
Melilli	13,475	Vittoria	62,937
Noto	23,799	Province of Ragusa	318,249
Pachino	22,217		
Palazzolo Acreide	8,957		
Portopalo di C.P.	3,838		
Priolo	12,233		
Rosolini	21,469		
Syracuse	122,304		
Solarino	8,003		
Sortino	8,808		
Province of Syracuse	404,847		
Hyblean region			723,096

Source: Istat (Istituto Nazionale di Statistica), demo.istat.it

In this area the structure of the urban centres is, in fact, mainly of an eighteenth-century kind since the 1693 earthquake destroyed a large part of the built-up areas, which were rebuilt according to the principles of the Baroque culture. Over the eighteenth century, besides the reconstruction work, new centres were created in order to use the agricultural areas in a more efficient manner. Also for these centres the late Baroque urban planning criteria were used (Di Blasi: 2005, pp. 945-955). Among the towns, which have kept the existing structures from before 1693, the most relevant example is that of Syracuse where the historic centre of Ortygia has kept its original Greek urban plan of *strigas* and *scamnas* over the centuries. Five Baroque centres in the provinces of Syracuse and Ragusa (Noto, Palazzolo Acreide, Ragusa, Modica and Scicli), which were rebuilt after the 1693 earthquake, and the island of Ortygia were included in the List of UNESCO World Heritage Sites respectively in 2002 and 2005. There is no doubt that these Hyblaean cities had already identified tourism as their foremost economic resource, rather than concentrating on manufacturing or the greenhouse industry – which had itself entered a period of crisis starting from the second half of the 2000s.

Figure 2: Towns of the provinces of Syracuse and Ragusa included in the World Heritage List by UNESCO



Source: Ruggiero V. and Scrofani L. (2008), *Sistemi urbani, reti logistiche e distretti turistici in Sicilia*, Bologna: Pàtron, p.24 (our elaboration)

Finally, the white limestone, a unique element of the landscape, is very widespread in the area. It is resplendent in the Baroque architecture of the city, in the small dry-stone walls of the rural lands and among the natural areas of the mountains, hills and plains.

All of this gives the place a strong uniformity which has often made travellers and tourists describe it as a 'different' Sicily. Different from the stereotypical representations, which – whether rightly or wrongly – have been made of the island.

ARRIVALS AND OVERNIGHT STAYS IN SOUTH-EASTERN SICILY

The data analysed in the present paragraph and in the next one have been provided by the Tourist Observatory of the Sicilian Regional Authority, the tourist services, and the provincial authorities of Syracuse and Ragusa. Oldest data, concerning tourist fluxes from 1997 to 2011, have been provided by the Tourist Observatory, the most recent data by the provincial authorities of Syracuse and Ragusa and all the information (accommodation supply and tourist fluxes) concerning the two towns of Syracuse and Ragusa by the respective tourist services. In order to create tables and graphics we often have grouped data that were originally divided. So, for example, for graphical clarity we have added data concerning Italian fluxes and foreign fluxes in Tables 2 and 3 and in Figures 3 and 4.

Tourism demand has grown in south-eastern Sicily by the late 1990s. When analysing, in particular, the historical series of the arrivals and stays in the accommodation facilities of the provinces of Syracuse and Ragusa during the decade between 2004 and 2013, it is possible to notice that the trend of the fluxes substantially follows – with some differences – the national and Sicilian trends. Until 2006 there was, in fact, a good increase in both hotel and non-hotel arrivals, then from 2007 to 2009 a decrease (particularly important in 2008), and then a recovery until 2013. Almost the same observations can be made when examining the information about the stays in the accommodation facilities, although the historical series shows greater fluctuations. Also here the peak was reached in 2006, then an alternate trend followed until the end of the decade.

The worst year for Hyblean tourism, as for all Italy, was, then, 2008. However, already by 2007, when the national trend was still in a phase of growth, Sicily had entered a period of recession. Moreover, it must be said that the 2009 data related to the Hyblean region appear diminished because of a lack of information. Statistical data about the province of Ragusa never reached the Tourist Observatory of the Sicilian Regional Authority, and so figures related to the previous year were included in the table of the report. This means that the real data for 2008 were certainly worse than those recorded.

On the other hand, 2013 was extremely positive for the province of Syracuse, and a record year for world tourism. Compared with 2011, an increase of 89,293 arrivals (from 549,032 in 2011 to 638,325 in 2013) and 144,795 stays (from 1,908,594 in 2011 to 2,053,389 in 2013)

was recorded in south-eastern Sicily. Above all, overnight stays in the province of Syracuse and arrivals in the town of Syracuse increased. Conversely, in the province of Ragusa a decrease in the stays of 12,985 units took place between 2012 and 2013.

By dividing the fluxes into Italians and foreigners, it is easy to observe that the Hyblean tourist market, as can be expected, is mainly affected by the domestic demand, even though the gap between the two components seems to have been decreasing over the last few years. The Italian demand covered, in 2013, 60% of the arrivals and 56% of the stays. During the decade the overall trend of the foreign demand was basically fluctuating: from 28% to 40% of the arrivals and from 30% to 44% of the stays. The highest and lowest figures were recorded respectively in 2013 with about 252,245 arrivals and 907,064 stays, and in 2009 with 161,230 arrivals and 614,990 stays. Undoubtedly, the negative data of 2009, like the whole three years of crisis, are the result of factors external to the regional tourist market which determined the fall of the international demand as well as the national demand. Hence, if the positive results of 2012 and 2013 were to be confirmed also in the following years, the negative three-year parenthesis of 2007-2009 would be of little significance to the correct interpretation of the evolution of the demand.

Table 2: Arrivals and overnight stays in south-eastern Sicily. Time series data 1997-2013

Year	Arrivals			Overnight stays		
	Province of Syracuse	Province of Ragusa	Hyblean region	Province of Syracuse	Province of Ragusa	Hyblean region
1997	245,859	141,398	387,257	766,118	572,598	1,338,716
1998	283,347	149,194	432,541	844,546	612,710	1,457,256
1999	265,231	157,710	422,941	879,771	669,678	1,549,449
2000	299,398	172,297	471,695	1,032,314	766,658	1,798,972
2001	309,586	186,900	496,486	1,003,698	792,713	1,796,411
2002	328,601	184,335	512,936	1,100,594	792,633	1,893,227
2003	327,391	187,664	515,055	1,078,253	815,418	1,893,671
2004	340,640	197,714	538,354	1,037,502	873,837	1,911,339
2005	362,371	212,234	574,605	1,180,840	885,100	2,065,940
2006	386,832	222,049	608,881	1,292,722	927,814	2,220,536
2007	381,031	213,494	594,525	1,201,963	870,023	2,071,986
2008	319,041	201,194	520,235	1,278,412	836,628	2,115,040
2009	283,043			961,968		
2010	313,746	189,698	503,444	1,166,380	728,677	1,895,057
2011	331,527	198,549	530,076	1,095,509	756,325	1,851,834
2012	394,738	208,319	603,057	1,249,936	816,438	2,066,374
2013	437,418	200,907	638,325	1,361,487	691,902	2,053,389

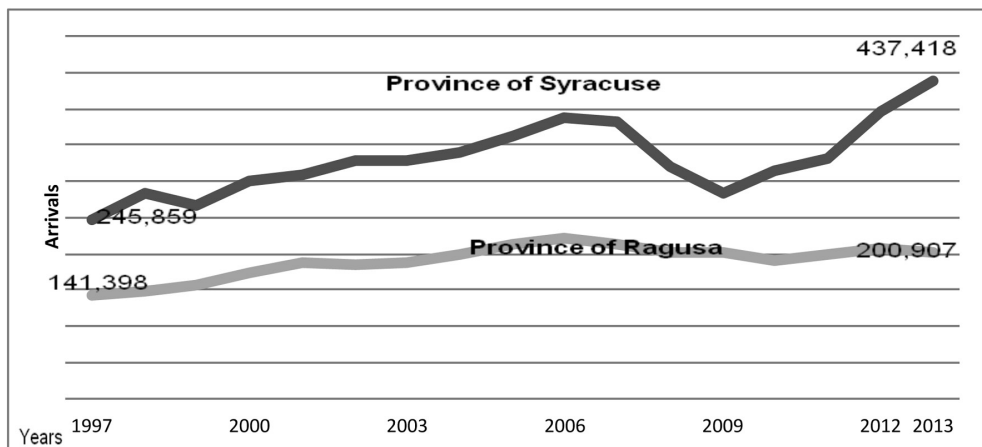
Source: Elaboration carried out on data provided by the provincial authorities of Syracuse and Ragusa and the Tourist Observatory of the Sicilian Regional Authority

It is necessary to underline the constant growth of non-hotel accommodation demand, which – almost non-existent fifteen years ago – covers, according to the official statistical surveys, 17% of the arrivals and 15% of the stays. In effect, since the underground economy concentrates on this type of supply, actual figures are much higher than those declared.

When comparing the two provinces we can see that Syracuse prevails. In 2013 69% of total arrivals and 66% of total stays concerned the province of Syracuse.

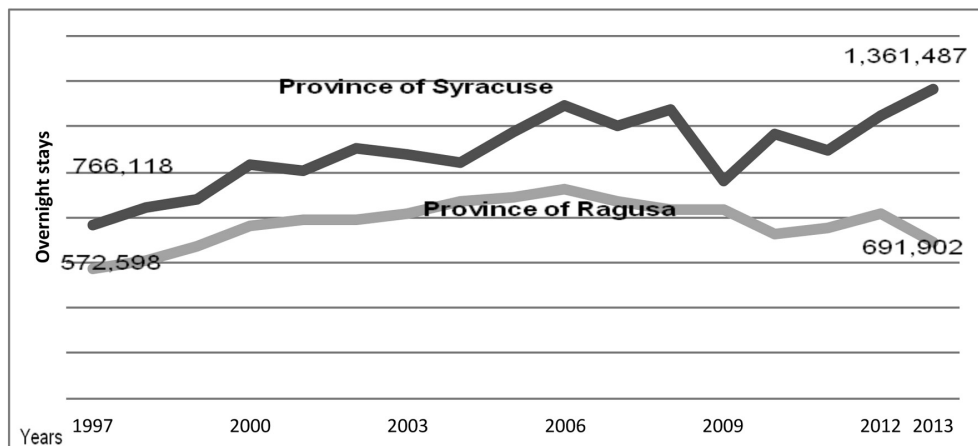
By separating the demand of each single town, it appears that the town of Syracuse is the centre which mainly attracts tourists in this south-eastern point of Sicily. About 44% of the arrivals and 41% of the stays concern, in fact, Syracuse. When taking into consideration only the international demand, figures increase further reaching 51% of the arrivals and 43% of overnight stays. The importance of Syracuse within the context of the local supply is crucial: it has gradually increased over the years, which confirms that, within this industry, the leading area is precisely this urban and cultural tourism. Moreover, the fact that tourism in this area is mainly an urban phenomenon is also confirmed by the importance of the town of Ragusa, which together with its historic centre of Ibla, represents the second tourist centre of south-eastern Sicily.

Figure 3: Arrivals in the provinces of Syracuse and Ragusa. Time series data 1997–2013.



Source: Elaboration carried out on data provided by the provincial authorities of Syracuse and Ragusa and the Tourist Observatory of the Sicilian Regional Authority

Figure 4: Overnight stays in the provinces of Syracuse and Ragusa. Time series data 1997–2013



Source: Elaboration carried out on data provided by the provincial authorities of Syracuse and Ragusa and the Tourist Observatory of the Sicilian Regional Authority

Table 3: Arrivals and overnight stays in the provinces of Syracuse and Ragusa. Year 2013

	Italian Tourists		Foreign Tourists		Total	
	Arrivals	Overnight stays	Arrivals	Overnight stays	Arrivals	Overnight stays
Municipality of Syracuse	150,351	460,396	129,791	388,888	280,142	849,284
Rest of the province of Syracuse	107,175	321,698	50,101	190,505	157,276	512,203
Municipality of Ragusa	78,111	231,234	52,213	253,934	130,324	485,168
Rest of the province of Ragusa	50,442	132,998	20,141	73,736	70,583	206,734
Total	386,079	1,146,326	252,246	907,063	638,325	2,053,389

Source: Elaboration carried out on data provided by the tourist services and the provincial authorities of Syracuse and Ragusa

Finally, as for the composition of the foreign fluxes, it is necessary to say that French and German tourists have been, already for decades, the foreigners who stay more regularly in the accommodation facilities of the Hyblean region. These two countries cover together about 50% of the overseas tourist demand of south-eastern Sicily. Immediately behind there are the United States, the United Kingdom, Switzerland and Spain.

In conclusion, it is necessary to clarify that, leaving aside delays and inefficiencies in the collection of data, statistical surveys are not generally able to show relevant actual figures. The fragmentation of the supply, which has been promoted since the end of the 1990s, has generated, in Sicily, a thriving underground economy which, since it is not interested in emerging, can only be perceived around the streets and among the public places of the historic centres, in the archaeological areas, and on the beaches in the summer. But, secretive and clandestine, it certainly does not appear within the figures in the official tables.

ACCOMMODATION SUPPLY

Although the cultural resources and the facilities are elements of primary importance in the organization of the local tourist supply, this is, very often, banally identified with the accommodation capacity of the area. Therefore, when the 'tourist industry' is mentioned, basically only the hotel and non-hotel services which are in a given area come to mind. Of course, this is not the reality, but it is difficult to overcome this limited concept, also because the analysis of the demand for accommodation is the simplest and most straightforward way to have a clear idea of the tourist fluxes which affect a given region (Montemagno: 1995, p. 48).

In Sicily, since 1985, the classification of the hotels has been reformulated according to the European model (five categories, from one to five stars). This adaptation had been foreseen by the 217/83 framework legislation for tourism which replaced an old legislation of 1937. In 2001, a new framework law (no. 135) abolished the 1983 regulation and transferred directly to the regional policy the responsibility for the criteria to be adopted for the classification of hotel facilities. However, since the regional authorities have not been able to find specific references in the new regulation, they still use the old defining principles of the 217/83 law to define the accommodation categories.

In the territories of south-eastern Sicily, 225 hotel structures were recorded in 2013. As many as 129 of them are in the province of Syracuse, and 96 are in the province of Ragusa. In total the number of beds available in the Hyblean region amounts to 21,491. Four-star and three-star hotels are in larger number, and they absorb over 80% of the accommodation capacity of the area. The relationship between the total number of beds and the number of hotel structures is equal to 95.5. In the last twenty years, from 1994 to 2013, the number of hotels and beds available in the Hyblean region has almost tripled.

As for complementary supply, the framework law no. 217 of 1983 also imposed a classification

of the main non-hotel structures available to the public which are represented by a wide range of facilities: camping sites, tourist resorts, youth hostels, guest houses, religious structures which rent rooms, summer camps, mountain shelters and private accommodation to let (Montemagno: 1995, p. 66). Finally, Bed & Breakfast hotels, which officially appeared in Sicily in 2000 (Regional Law no. 32/2000), and agritourism units, which are also regulated by their specific law (the Regional Law no. 3 of 2010), have to be included in this list of structures.

Table 4. Hotel supply in the provinces of Syracuse and Ragusa. Year 2013

Category	Structures			Number of beds		
	Province of Syracuse	Province of Ragusa	Total	Province of Syracuse	Province of Ragusa	Total
5 stars	4	3	7	827	495	1,322
4 stars	34	40	74	5,820	4,047	9,867
3 stars	49	33	82	3,004	4,570	7,574
2 stars	16	7	23	435	159	594
1 star	9	2	11	207	37	244
R.T.A. *	17	11	28	583	1,307	1,890
Hotel total	129	96	225	10,876	10,615	21,491

Source: Elaboration carried out on data provided by the tourist services and the provincial authorities of Syracuse and Ragusa

* R.T.A.: Tourist Hotel Residences.

The development of complementary structures in the two Hyblean provinces has increased considerably since the end of the 1990s. ISTAT (the National Statistics Institute) even recorded a 50% growth during the short interval between 2006 and 2010 (La Greca and La Rosa: 2012, p. 216). However, this growth did not take place in a consistent manner. It concerned, above all, the main towns and the seaside centres of the southern area. In the town of Syracuse one of the measures in the 'URBAN' development plan actually aimed to promote non-hotel accommodation supply in the houses of the historic centre of Ortygia. Such a measure was carried out through professional training of experts and professional advice to newly created companies. In Syracuse the non-hotel structures were fourteen in 1994, now there are more than two hundred.

There is, also, a territorial project within PRUSST (Programmes for Urban Redevelopment and Sustainable Development of the Territory), promoted by the provinces of Catania, Syra-

cuse and Ragusa and called *Le economie del turismo*, which aims to increase the number of beds, always favouring the development of widespread tourism and complementary accommodation capacity.

However, besides the plans and projects carried out by the political institutions, it is important, above all, to emphasise the human and economic dynamism caused by the growth of this light accommodation supply. Behind the expansion of the non-hotel structures – and, above all, of Bed and Breakfast hotels – there are not large groups, well-known airlines or important investments, there are, instead, small owners, young entrepreneurs, savers who see tourism as the main opportunity of development for their own country and – obviously – an opportunity to improve their financial condition. All of this is the sign of an economic and territorial identity in progress. The majority of the ‘Hyblean people’, that is, the men and women who live in these areas of south-eastern Sicily, feel their country, now more than ever, as a place with a tourist vocation. It is in tourism – not in the petrochemical industry and, perhaps not even in a too invasive agriculture, an enemy of the landscape – that they see their future.

Table 5. Non-hotel supply in the provinces of Syracuse and Ragusa. Year 2013

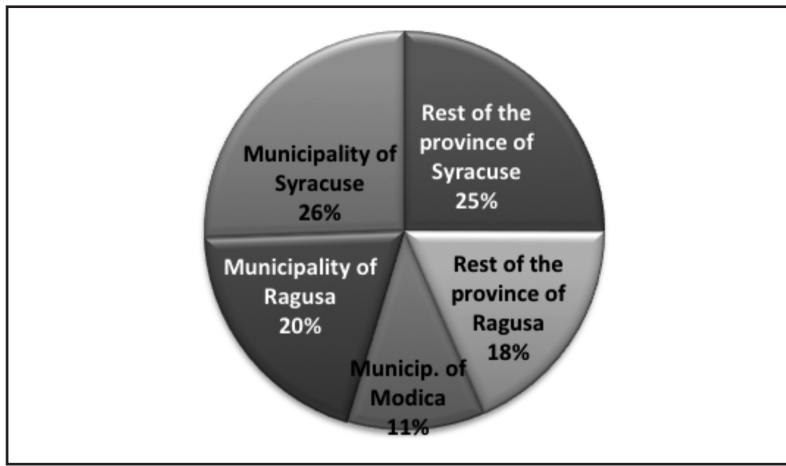
Category	Number of structures			Number of beds		
	Province of Syracuse	Province of Ragusa	Total	Province of Syracuse	Province of Ragusa	Total
Camping sites and Tourist resorts	12	10	22	2,376	2,514	4,890
Rental lodgings in the form of a commercial activity	64	138	202	936	1,399	2,335
Agritourism and Rural Tourism	68	26	94	1,397	524	1,921
Bed & breakfast	232	223	455	1,488	1,337	2,825
Other structures	6	6	12	288	132	420
Non-hotel total	382	403	785	6,485	5,906	12,391

Source: Elaboration carried out on data provided by the tourist services and the provincial authorities of Syracuse and Ragusa

The other side of the coin is that the increase in widespread accommodation capacity has never been easy to keep under control and regulate. The supply is certainly underestimated as statistical surveys do not seem to record a vast number of square metres of little attics, of little rooms, of little refurbished flats in the historic centres, of small villas waiting for authorizations

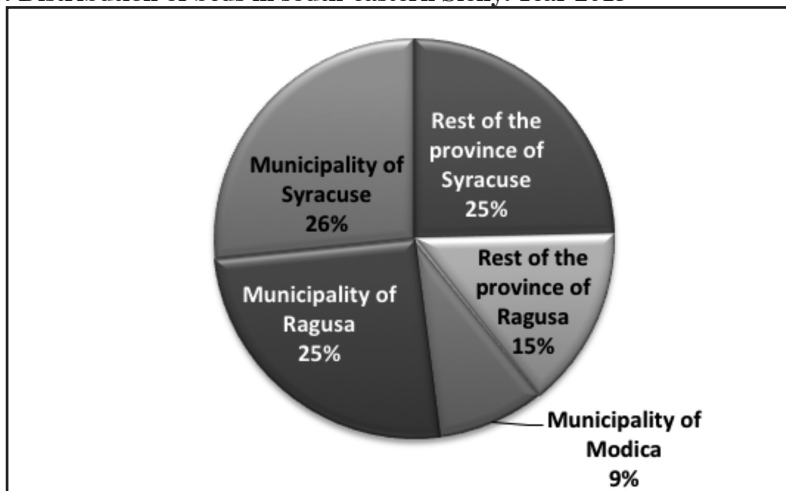
and licences which, meanwhile, are used, especially between May and October, to accommodate a non-surveyed number of tourists (Arangio: 2013, pp. 132-133). An inevitable consequence of the way the whole tourism industry develops, of the recent regulations, of the intolerable bureaucratic delay generated by the system and, obviously, of the economic crisis.

Figure 5: Distribution of hotel and non-hotel structures in south-eastern Sicily. Year 2013



Source: Elaboration carried out on data provided by the tourist services and the provincial authorities of Syracuse and Ragusa

Figure 6: Distribution of beds in south-eastern Sicily. Year 2013



Source: Elaboration carried out on data provided by the tourist services and the provincial authorities of Syracuse and Ragusa

URBAN REDEVELOPMENT AND CULTURAL TOURISM

Sicily is an ancestral, and, thus, fascinating, land. It is a part of that uneven Mediterranean womb within which the western embryo moulded its primeval forms. And thanks to its ancestral quality it is mythical since, like in Thessaly, Campania, Latium, Elis, Boeotia or other lands, past events, heroic feats and divine actions took place in it.

The Hyblean region has epitomised and exalted the historical complexity as well as the cultural depth of Sicily since its origins. Not only an intangible but also real and concrete wealth which is carved into its white limestone and has shaped history, the religious places, the archaeology of the territory. They are not solitary monuments but fascinating landscapes of stone encapsulated in the towns. And the evil caused by the distressing military invasions as well as the quaking nature of the subsoil has reshuffled everything and generated the good – or, at least, the beautiful. Here the skills of the man of the past have always been put to the test, and the first resort has been that of reuse, recycling, refunctionalizing. A remedy which modern man has sometimes forgotten, or has thought about forgetting.

The Hyblean cultural heritage is characterised by strikingly original features, even when this originality seems to remain hidden. Thus, the *sicelioti*⁴ archaeological landscapes are not an exact reproduction of the artistic and architectural principles of ‘inner’ Greece. They express their own ideas and concepts, and they express them using different materials (Corrias: 1996, pp. 3–5). Similar considerations can be made for the Baroque of south-eastern Sicily which shows undisputed elements of originality and appears more mature – also because it came later – than both the Spanish and the Roman Baroque. Very often the churches, behind the sumptuous and lavish eighteenth-century façades, hide their intimate medieval, or even more ancient, structures. The tragic calamities and the reconstruction work which followed determined a stratification of styles, a thick and dense co-existence of architectural models. These reconstructions would never start from nothing, they started from everything that was ‘re-usable’ and not yet damaged, and, for this reason, they added new forms to the old ones according to modernised artistic criteria. It is not an exaggeration to say that, so far, catastrophe in south-eastern Sicily has brought both mourning and blessing at the same time. The heavy presence of the petrochemical hub between Priolo and Augusta could, however, make less flattering the judgments on future earthquakes.

Many buildings testify to this very strong cultural stratification. The most emblematic example is, perhaps, that of the cathedral of Syracuse: a Doric temple, a Byzantine basilica, probably a mosque, and after that, first, a Norman, then, late-Renaissance and, finally, Baroque church. The ancient Doric columns of Athena’s sanctuary still support, firmly, the ceiling of the most important Christian temple of the town. A reminder for those who forget! To remind everybody that, after all, Lucy was still the virgin goddess with cerulean eyes, the

⁴ The art and architecture created by the Greek colonisers in Sicily are defined as *sicelioti*.

daughter of Zeus⁵. However, with the appearance of modern tourism, this historical depth and this archaeological and architectural wealth shaped between the Hyblean mountains and the Ionian and Mediterranean Seas have not always resulted in economic wealth for the local community.

As a general rule, quantifying the economic value of cultural heritage – whatever that may be – is an impossible task. It belongs to a class of *sui generis* goods which are considered as ‘out of the market’ by the economists. And this is because it is not possible to evaluate the individual and collective benefits coming from their use with the usual means of the price of the goods or service provided (Montemagno: 1985, p. 228). On the other hand, there is no doubt that these resources – when appropriately used – represent an added value for the territory which incorporates them. Hence, cultural heritage is also economic heritage but the high and recurrent management costs it involves require a special conceptual effort from the prevailing economic doctrine. In order to justify their maintenance and restoration costs, the economic sciences define, in fact, such goods as ‘merit goods’ (Peacock: 1969, pp. 323-335).

Their fruition thus becomes imperative both from the ethical and the economic points of view. Above all, because it supports research and protection and, then, because it gives back heritage and history to their legitimate owners, that is, the territory and its community. A community of men and women who identify themselves with that history since – it should not be forgotten – the value of material culture – a culture made up of stone and landscape – is, above all, symbolic (Le Galès: 2002, pp. 8-31). In order to enhance the value of cultural heritage is essential, thus, to re-contextualise it in the present time by giving it an active role. Unfortunately, in Italy, a passive view of cultural heritage as well as an authoritarian concept of its management have long prevailed. The negative spiral of restoration – museification – decline – restoration has revealed the limits of this interpretation (Formato: 1997, pp. 263-270). Therefore, the policies aimed at the safeguard of cultural heritage cannot but be policies for its enhancement and enjoyment. But, above all, since these resources are ‘disputed’ goods, they cannot but be shared policies. One of the possible forms of enhancement of the cultural territory is tourism. A tourism which should be able to co-exist with other usages and other needs. Thus, it has to be moderate, sensitive, able to accept and safeguard, above all, the needs of those who habitually live in the city. And, since the aim and sense of this urban tourism – a moderate, integrated and sustainable (in the widest meaning possible) tourism – is precisely the town with its historic landscape, its traditions, its metaphors to ‘be shown to the world’, cultural heritage cannot but take advantage of it.

However, being symbols and the basis of urban and territorial identity, the elements of tangible culture do not produce the same emotional impact. The town creates its own representations

⁵ Saint Lucy is the patron saint of Syracuse, and the people of Syracuse are profoundly devoted to her. In ancient times the town was greatly devoted to Athena but the cult of both the nymph Arethusa and the goddess Artemis was also strong. The close symbolic similarity between these four female figures as well as the iconographic similarity between Athena and Lucy are evident.

by selecting fragments of history from a unique repertoire: postcards which penetrate the imagination of the tourist and become expectations. Thus, in south-eastern Sicily, for many years, the tourist-cultural supply was short-sighted, based only on a few elements (not even all of them) of Greek archaeology and on that part of history considered more noble by both national and European culture and which had transformed south-eastern Sicily coasts into a geo-political centre (Arangio: 2000, pp. 42–44; 2008, pp. 221–234). Until the end of the twentieth century an important project for the tourist promotion of cultural heritage concerned, in fact, only Syracuse. It is the project for the creation of the archaeological park of the Neapolis, funded by the *Cassa di Sviluppo per il Mezzogiorno* between 1952 and 1955 (Voza: 1994, p. 98). This site which includes elements of an old historic district becomes the most powerful image of Syracuse and its territory. The architecture of the Greek theatre and the Ear of Dionysius become the main elements of a narrative which is the only possible story of the town.

The area of the Neapolis is the most visited archaeological site in Sicily after the Valley of the Temples in Agrigento. In 2011 about 487 thousand tourists visited the park but, in certain years, the number of visitors was much higher. The peak of visits is in the month of May when INDA (the National Institute of Ancient Drama) organises and stages classical plays at the Greek theatre. Besides the theatre, the site includes a group of *latomie* (old stone quarries within which there is the famous Ear of Dionysius), the Roman amphitheatre, a small early-Christian church and two temples of which there is hardly anything left to see. In effect, few areas provide enjoyment. A bucolic system of trees, carefully maintained and appealing to the eye, invades the *latomie*. Originally they were underground areas but, then, one of the many earthquakes brought them to the surface thus causing the collapse of the rocky roof which covered them. Ancient landscapes of fear and coercion as hard-labour convicts lived there until their death, today, the Syracuse *latomie* represent an entirely postcard-like image of the Greek culture. And the name of the only cave which can be visited, the *Latomia del Paradiso*, would almost seem to hide a sensation of secret *Schadenfreude*, were it not that the many past centuries have washed away the pain and the bloodshed. Clearly, the new contextualisation – a pacifying contextualisation for history and a reassuring contextualisation for the tourist – appeared, in the 1950s, more appropriate to modern tourism sensitivity. The question is whether – knowing the implications of post modernity and the release of mysterious drives as well as the underground impulses it involves – it would have been more profitable to recreate and exalt the gloomy landscape of the origins.

Instead, it took decades for another extremely important witness to the history of Syracuse to open its door to tourists and residents: the Castle of Maniace, a fortress dating back to the Norman age and built by Frederick II of Swabia. It is the building that, better than any other, symbolises the history of Syracuse – the military town which became the key to a kingdom⁶ – in the Middle Ages and in the Modern Age. Although refurbished many times, it remains one of the most significant products of the architecture of Frederick II in Sicily. Yet, until just over ten years ago, this site lay confined – prohibited and in a complete state of decline – within the military domain.

⁶ The celebrated definition by Charles V of Hapsburg.

Since the end of the twentieth century, in fact, the Hyblean towns have started to rethink themselves, to play again a main role in recent economic history, subtracting importance from the extra-urban manufacturing and agricultural industries which had led the territorial development of this part of Sicily since the post-war period. The selected means is, precisely, cultural tourism which has to be necessarily integrated, expanded and diversified in order to go beyond the narrow boundaries of classical culture. In addition, some projects for the redevelopment of the many historic centres – in a state of serious social and economic decline – already existed but, suddenly, everything accelerates, the political system becomes more efficient, everything becomes more hectic. The rebirth of Baroque has begun.

During the early 1990s the situation was still tragic. Noto and Modica were the towns in the worst state of decline. The historic centre of the first was in a serious state of neglect, an architectural desert which threatened to collapse in on itself. In Modica, where from 1977 the general urban plan was in force, the dangerous morphology of the territory, as well as the continuing negligence and lack of urban maintenance, threatened to destroy the town. In Palazzolo Acreide the procedures for the creation of the detailed plan were blocked. Whereas in Syracuse there was already a plan made by Giuseppe Pagnano in 1987. It was, indeed, a ‘super plan’, as Pier Luigi Cervellati defined it, but, strangled by the slowness of the political process, it could not get off the ground. The best situations seemed to be those of Ragusa and Caltagirone. In the first town, a special law of the Sicilian Regional Authority, law no. 61 of 1981 ‘for urban redevelopment and recovery’, produced its effects but progressed slowly. In Caltagirone the Framework Plan for the redevelopment of the town, drawn up by Nicola Giuliano Leone in 1984, was beginning to produce its first positive effects (Trigilia: 1993, pp. 29-75)

The awakening was sounded by two events – one national and the other local – which, in those years, concerned south-eastern Sicily. First of all, from 1993 the historical phase defined by Aurelio Musi as the ‘season of the mayors’ began. As a result of the approval of the 81/1993 law which established the direct election of mayors and provincial presidents, many Italian towns experienced a process of civil and cultural transformation. The political system had just been shaken by the corruption scandal known as *Tangentopoli*, and the general feeling really was that a longed for process of national rebirth could start from the towns. Many believed that Italy could rise from the ‘dark times’ by starting, once again, from its towns (Musi: 2004, pp. 7-8). The central role of many mayors led the urban recovery of Hyblean Sicily by unblocking contracts, accelerating procedures, kick-starting a system which already existed but that no one had taken responsibility for setting in motion. But, before all of this, another event had shaken the territorial conscience of south-eastern Sicily: the earthquake of 13 December 1990 which shook an already unstable heritage. It is peculiar how, once again, an earthquake – which generates anxiety and fear – restarted the Hyblean towns and made them feel responsible thus projecting the ancient Baroque architecture which had originated from the 1693 earthquake towards the future.

Slowly, also the symbolic value of these structures, as well as the feelings they aroused,

changed. Like the many archaeological areas spread across the territory, south-eastern Sicily began to take pride in its Baroque towns. Then, in 1998, an important marketing operation was carried out: the Hyblean region – and, particularly, the province of Ragusa – became the film set of the TV series *Il commissario Montalbano* based on the novels of Andrea Camilleri⁷. Some years later, in 2002, the Baroque of the Val di Noto (that is, the three provinces of Syracuse, Ragusa and Catania) was officially included in the List of World Heritage Sites by UNESCO after an intense work session held in Budapest. This is, undoubtedly, an even more important marketing operation which has made the south-eastern part of the island the most typical and sought-after Sicily in both the national and international tourist imagination. The towns included in the list of the World Heritage are Caltagirone, Militello in Val di Catania, Catania, Modica, Noto, Palazzolo, Ragusa and Scicli. The criteria adopted by UNESCO are important:

(i) This group of towns in south-eastern Sicily provides outstanding testimony to the exuberant genius of late Baroque art and architecture. (ii) The towns of the Val di Noto represent the culmination and final flowering of Baroque art in Europe. (iv) The exceptional quality of the late Baroque art and architecture in the Val di Noto lies in its geographical and chronological homogeneity, as well as its quantity, the result of the 1693 earthquake in this region. (v) The eight towns of south-eastern Sicily that make up this nomination, which are characteristic of the settlement pattern and urban form of this region, are permanently at risk from earthquakes and eruptions of Mount Etna (UNESCO, xxvi Session, Budapest, 27–06–2002).

Three years later, in 2005, also the island of Ortygia, the old historic centre of Syracuse, and the necropolis of Pantalica were included in the List of World Heritage Sites. The reasons provided are the following:

(ii) The sites and monuments which form the Syracuse/Pantalica ensemble constitute a unique accumulation, through the ages and in the same space, of remarkable testimonies to Mediterranean cultures. (iii) The Syracuse/Pantalica ensemble offers, through its remarkable cultural diversity, an exceptional testimony to the development of civilization over some three millennia. (iv) The group of monuments and archaeological sites situated in Syracuse (between the nucleus of Ortygia and the vestiges located throughout the urban area) is the finest example of outstanding architectural creation spanning several cultural aspects (Greek, Roman and Baroque). (vi) Ancient Syracuse was directly linked to events, ideas and literary works of outstanding universal significance (UNESCO, xix Session, Durban, 17–07–2005).

From the second half of the 2000s this phase of territorial dynamism came to an end. Policies, also due to the economic crisis have tended to be more ephemeral and addressed to build

⁷ At first the fiction should have been filmed in Porto Empedocle, Camilleri's birthplace, in the territory of Agrigento. Finally, it is above all Scicli which, with its Baroque landscape, became Montalbano's 'Vigata'.

political consensus (Lascoumes and Le Galès: 2007, pp. 1-21). Moreover, we have to say that, due to the increased political conflict, there is a strong discrepancy between planning ideas and plans which are carried out (Alessi M., Guglielmino S. and Randone S.: 2011, pp. 206-236). Nevertheless, the positive effects on urban tourism are still evident.

CONCLUSIONS

The development of urban tourism in south-eastern Sicily, with the expanded cultural offer, has given new lifeblood to the territory by renovating the urban look of various towns as well as reinforcing many elements of the local identity. However, the recovery in the flux of tourists after the three-year crisis of 2007-2009, hides a reduced effectiveness of the most recent territorial policies. After the dynamism of the 1990s and the first half of the 2000s culminating in the inclusion of the above mentioned Hyblean towns in the List of the World Heritage Sites, the territory – that is, individuals and organisations involved, ability to plan, groups of networks – seems to have definitely lost its liveliness. Over the last decade, policies, also due to insufficient financial resources, have tended to be more and more ephemeral.

An interesting initiative was the so-called *Distretto Culturale di Sud-est*, created in 2004 to foster the preservation of cultural heritage and boost tourist development in south-eastern Sicily (Le Blanc: 2010, pp. 905-917). This project promoted by the chambers of commerce and the provincial authorities of Syracuse, Ragusa and Catania, has never got off the ground because of the local political conflict increased since the mid-2000s. So the project has been relaunched in 2014. Moreover, we have to say that, although more than ten years have passed since UNESCO has included the six towns of the provinces of Syracuse and Ragusa in the World Heritage List, the Cultural Heritage Authority of Syracuse, responsible for the project, has not prepared yet the management plan. On the other hand many cultural initiatives, such as festivals, fairs, etc., which have economic repercussions in the short term and are useful to build political consensus, have been promoted (Le Galès: 1998, pp. 53-92).

Anyhow, the fact that, today, many ancient historic centres of south-eastern Sicily have come back to life is undeniable. Above all, Ortygia and Ibla can, once again, play a major role in the urban economy of, respectively, Syracuse and Ragusa. This is, obviously, demonstrated by the increased economic value of the land in these old districts. In particular, over the last few years various foreign (Russian, German, Swiss, American) buyers have turned their attention to the real estate market of Ortygia. At the moment the historic centre of Syracuse seems to be the most ‘international’ of the Sicilian historic centres. However, the many social problems which, until the 1980s, afflicted these old urban working-class districts have not been solved but rather they have been moved somewhere else. The re-centralisation of these historic districts has resulted in a further marginalisation of both the new working-class areas and the periphery.

In south-eastern Sicily a special event as the 1990 earthquake and a political event as the administrative reform of 1993, which established the direct election of mayors, have encouraged the policies for urban redevelopment, and these policies have, in turn, reinforced the tourist image of the territory by both enlarging the supply and favouring the increase in the demand.

REFERENCES

- ALESSI M., GUGLIELMINO S. and RANDONE S. (2011), “La città di Siracusa: strategie per la competitività turistica urbana”, in RUGGIERO L. and SCROFANI L., *Turismo e competitività urbana. Cagliari, Sassari, Salerno, Bari, Lecce, Catania, Palermo, Siracusa*, Milan: Franco Angeli.
- ARANGIO A. (2000), “Beni culturali sottoutilizzati”, *Prospettive Siracusa. Rivista economica della Camera di Commercio, Industria, Artigianato, Agricoltura di Siracusa*, Year XVIII, n. 4.
- ARANGIO A. (2008), “Identità urbana, beni culturali e sviluppo turistico. Il caso di Siracusa”, ADAMO F. (edited by), *Il turismo nello sviluppo e nella politica della città*, Bologna: Pàtron.
- ARANGIO A. (2013), *Geografie della città e del suo fuori. Narrazioni iblee contemporanee*, Roma: Aracne.
- BATTILANI P. (2009), *Vacanze di pochi, vacanze di tutti. L'evoluzione del turismo europeo*, Bologna: Il Mulino.
- CHAMBERS E. (2010), *Native Tours. The Anthropology of Travel and Tourism*, Long Grove: Waveland Press.
- COHEN E. (1984), “The sociology of tourism: approaches, issues and findings”, *Annual Review of Sociology*, vol. 10.
- CORRIAS A. (edited by) (1996), *I Greci in Occidente. Magna Grecia e Sicilia. Arte, pensiero e costumi d'una civiltà antica ancora viva nella nostra cultura*, Milan: Fabbri.
- DI BLASI E. (2005), “Il paesaggio culturale della Contea di Modica”, *Atti della 9 Conferenza Nazionale ASITA (Catania 15-18 novembre 2005)*, vol. I.
- DI BLASI E. and ARANGIO A. (2013), “Il sistema agricolo dell'area iblea: ascesa e declino di un modello di sviluppo” AMATO V. (edited by), *Innovazione, impresa e competitività territoriale nel Mezzogiorno*, Rome: Aracne.

- FORMATO R. (1997), “I prodotti–mercato: i beni culturali”, V.v. Aa., *Settimo rapporto sul turismo italiano*, Florence: Mercury.
- KRIPPENDORF J. (1987), *The Holiday Makers. Understanding the impact of leisure and travel*, Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- LA GRECA P. and LA ROSA D. (2012), “Val di Noto. Stanzialità turistica e trame insedia-tive”, LEONE N.G. (edited by), *Itatour. Visioni territoriali enuove mobilità. Progetti inte-grati per il turismo nella città enell’ambiente*, Milan: Franco Angeli.
- LASCOUMES P. and LE GALÈS P. (2007), “Introduction: understanding public policy through its instruments—from the nature of instruments to the sociology of public policy instrumentation”, *Governance* 20.1 (2007): 1-21.
- LE BLANC A. (2010), “Cultural districts, a new strategy for regional development? The South-East Cultural District in Sicily”, *Regional Studies* 44.7.
- LE GALÈS P. (1998), “La nuova ‘political economy’ delle città e delle regioni”, *Stato e mercato* 18.1.
- LE GALÈS P. (2002), ‘Government e governance urbana nelle città europee: argomenti per la discussione’, in *Culture Economie e Territori*, Rivista quadrimestrale, Foedus, 4, pp. 8-31.
- MONTEMAGNO G. (1985), *Ambiente e beni culturali in un’offerta turistica integrata*, Pal-ermo: ISIDA.
- MONTEMAGNO G. (1995), *Siracusa Step by step. Ipotesi di sviluppo turistico per Sira-cusa e provincia*, unpublished work.
- MUSI A. (2004), *La stagione dei sindaci*, Naples: Alfredo Guida.
- PEACOCK A. (1969), “Welfare Economics and Public Subsidies to the Arts”, *The Manches-ter School*.
- PECORA A. (1968), *Le regioni d’Italia*, Turin: Utet.
- RUGGIERO V. and SCROFANI L. (2008), *Sistemi urbani, reti logistiche e distretti turistici in Sicilia*, Bologna: Pàtron.
- TRIGILIA L. (1993), *La città in Sicilia. Degrado e problemi di conservazione*, Florence: Alinea.
- VOZA C. (1994), *Guida di Siracusa*, Syracuse: Erre.

Entrepreneurs' perspectives towards tourism and rural development in North Karelia, Finland

Parhad Keyim
Czesław Adamiak

keyimu.pahati@uef.fi
czeslaw.adamiak@umk.pl

ABSTRACT

In the context of changes and challenges that rural areas are encountering, tourism in rural areas is recognized as a useful development mechanism in terms of its socioeconomic contribution. In the Finnish context, the tourist industry is also recognized as an important source of rural development. Based on a survey of entrepreneurs' attitude on tourism activities in North Karelia, this paper examined the socioeconomic impact of (rural) tourism at the local level. Further it investigated the relationship between the perception of local tourism development policy and socioeconomic contribution of tourism. The results suggested that the entrepreneurs see more positive than negative socioeconomic impacts of tourism. It also suggests that the more positively the entrepreneurs evaluate local policy the more benefits they see from tourism to local area.

Keywords: Tourism, rural development, North Karelia

INTRODUCTION

Rural economies and societies in the Western countries have faced major changes and challenges during the recent decades (Ashley & Maxwell, 2001; OECD, 2006; Shortall & Shuckmith, 1998; Sharpley, 2007; Saarinen, 2007). These ongoing phenomena in rural areas have been manifested in socioeconomic problems such as the decline in employment in primary sectors (e.g. agriculture and forestry) and personal incomes, the deterioration of infrastructure and services, outmigration and population ageing. In this context, tourism in rural areas is recognized as a useful tool for mitigating these negative socioeconomic trends by providing alternative sources of livelihood for rural families, creating local incomes and employment, encouraging the development of other local economic sectors, contributing to the maintenance of local amenities and services for residents, and aiding local cultural resources conservation (Lane, 1994; Hall & Jenkins, 1998; Hall, Müller, & Saarinen, 2009).

The study is based on a survey about entrepreneurs' attitude on the role of tourism in rural development in North Karelia. The main purpose of this paper is to examine whether the (rural)

tourism industries are recognized as a local socioeconomic development tool in terms of economic and socio-cultural dimension. Further it investigates the relationship between the perception of local tourism development policy and socioeconomic contribution of tourism.

HOST PERCEPTION TOWARDS TOURISM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT: A SHORT REVIEW

Many researches have been carried out on the residents' perception towards the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of tourism (Harrill, 2004; Brida, Osti, & Barquet, 2010; Vareiro, Remoaldo, & Cadima Ribeiro, 2013). These researches are encouraged by the belief that understanding resident perceptions and responses is essential for efficient and sustainable tourism development planning (Sharpley, 2014).

Tourism is a multiple-stakeholder industry composed of 'guests' (e.g. tourists) and 'hosts' (e.g. the people and places that tourists encounter, and the organizations and businesses that provide tourism services). Balanced relationship between 'guests' and 'hosts', which largely depends on the 'hosts' who provide satisfying experiences for the tourists, is essential for the successful development of tourism destinations. Among 'hosts' (service providers), the tourism entrepreneurs understand most of the tourists' perception as they most frequently interact with tourists by regular commercially-based exchange. Thus, in order to effectively plan and manage tourism (destination) it is logical to focus on the entrepreneurs' perception towards tourism (Sharpley, 2014).

In the Finnish context, Komppula (2014) examined small rural tourism entrepreneurs' perception towards the role of entrepreneurs in enhancing the competitiveness of a rural tourism destination. She found that collaboration between small rural tourism entrepreneurs is essential in order to enhance destination competitiveness, and municipalities (public sectors) play a crucial role in creating favorable entrepreneurial environment. Puhakka, Sarkki, Cottrell, and Siikamäki (2009) explored local stakeholders' attitudes on tourism's sociocultural impact in a national park. They did not conclude whether the park facilitates sustainable development or not, yet their results show that local stakeholders have mostly positive perceptions of tourism in the park. The authors further imply that it is necessary to monitor the allocation of the benefits and burdens of park development holistically to multiple stakeholders.

STUDY AREA: RURAL TOURISM IN NORTH KARELIA, FINLAND

Major challenges in rural tourism development in the Nordic countries, including Finland, come from both outside and within of the tourism industry although it is impossible to classify these challenges exactly into the above two categories. On one hand, socioeconomic circumstances in the rural areas of the Nordic countries such as population decline, the crisis of public transport, high labor cost, the deterioration of rural amenities and services undermine the business development conditions of rural tourism. On the other hand, the shortcomings in the tourism industry itself such as high seasonality and high costs, lack of knowledge and entrepreneurial skills hinder the development of the industry.

In spite of the above shortages, rural tourism in the Nordic countries has developed over the past decade (Müller, 2013). This development has been driven both by the public sector's awareness of its role in encouraging regional development in the replacement of traditional productive activities, and private stakeholders' growing commitment to develop high-quality tourism products that meet international demand. However, it should be noted that despite the close connection between rural tourism and the concept of sustainable tourism, the development of rural tourism as any form of tourism brings certain impacts, also negative ones, to the local environment, society and other economy sectors. The planning of rural tourism development should thus also be adjusted in scale and forms to the local environments and socio-economic context to meet the sustainability criteria (Hall et al., 2009).

As in other Nordic countries, rural areas in Finland have suffered from socioeconomic problems (e.g. unemployment, outmigration, the deterioration of rural amenities and services) caused by rural restructuring: in particular the mechanization of primary productions and the 'harmonization' of agriculture by European Union policy (Saarinen, 2007). The accession of Finland to the European Union in 1994 dramatically intensified the decrease in family-based farming and pushed the farmers to search for new sources of income (Rinne & Saastamoinen, 2005). The rural depopulation mainly results from two factors: the continuous decline in primary sector employment, and the reorganization of the public (and private) service sectors (Tykkyläinen, 2006). In other words, continuing Finnish agricultural policy that aims at improving farm productivity encouraged agricultural mechanization, decline in labor demand in farming, and depopulation of rural areas, especially in the northern, north-eastern and eastern parts of the country. Shifting from a welfare state to a market-led system of service provision, which emphasis the efficiency, also leads to the decrease in public employment (Tykkyläinen, 2006).

These socioeconomic problems in rural areas of Finland encouraged the authorities to initiate alternative rural development strategies that include tourism. Saarinen (2007) argues that tourism has the potential to positively contribute to the local economy, helping to improve the employment structure and maintain rural communities. Rural Policy Committee (2009) recognized tourist industry as an important source of rural development in Finland. In spite of many shortcomings in rural tourism of Finland (e.g. poor visibility and accessibility, high price and high seasonality), it has a development potential in clean and safe natural environment, stable political conditions, and distinct culture that combine the East and the West. There are approximately 5000 tourism micro companies in rural areas of Finland, and about 1600 farms offer tourism services (Pesonen, Vesterinen, & Taatinen, 2013). Visitors are mainly domestic tourists, while the foreigners make up about 20%, and mainly come from Russia, Germany, Sweden and Estonia. However, the strategy of rural tourism development in Finland has sometimes been criticized for pressing too much stress on the numerical development of tourist arrivals, which leads to setting unrealistic development goals, and may threaten the quality and sustainability of rural tourism (Hall et al., 2009).

North Karelia covers an area of 21.6 km² and shares 302 km border with Russia. It is located

in the easternmost region of Finland (VisitKarelia, 2014). Its 165.5 thousand populations (in 2013) are mainly distributed in the municipalities of Joensuu, Lieksa, Kitee, Nurmes and Outokumpu. With approximately two thousand lakes including the 4th largest lake of Finland (Pielinen), two thousand holiday cottages, and regional culture North Karelia has emerged as an important tourism and leisure region over the years. Well-known natural and cultural tourism destinations in the region include Koli, Petkeljärvi, Patvinsuo and Ruunaa, Pielinen Museum, Paateri, Bomba House, Valamo Monastery, Lintula Convent, Parppeinvaara Karelian village, Möhkö Village and Vuonislahti Village etc. Another tourist attraction is traditional cuisine based on local ingredients, and provided by the restaurants and country inns around these tourism sites.

North Karelia depends on its main economic sectors such as plastic, metal, stone and food industry, and consistently suffers high unemployment (Hyytiä & Kola, 2013). Thus, tourism industry in North Karelia has been considered as a future direction for regional development. Komppula and Reijonen (2006) claim that tourism industry in the region is dominated by private micro sized family businesses promoting rural tourism and nature based activities, and it is difficult to estimate the exact number of enterprises. They also point out that North Karelia's tourism industry is not 'visible' considering the numbers of tourists despite considerable investments (local and regional) have been made during the past few years. Between 450 and 490 thousands tourists visited North Karelia annually between 2000 and 2012, and their number increased during that period despite high fluctuations between the years (Table 1).

Table 1: Number of the tourists' visits in North Karelia

Year	No. of tourists (nights spend)	Change (%)
2000	462,157	--
2001	464,418	0.49
2002	453,673	-2.31
2003	456,711	0.67
2004	454,849	-0.41
2005	467,550	2.79
2006	468,481	0.20
2007	465,905	-0.55
2008	430,241	-7.65
2009	416,306	-3.24
2010	468,454	12.53
2011	461,059	-1.58
2012	490,603	6.41

Source: Statistics Finland 2013.

RESEARCH METHODS

In this case study, a web-based survey is utilized as a main source of data. In May, June and October of 2013, three rounds of the survey were distributed to 479 tourism entrepreneurs in North Karelia. Only 56 of them responded, so the response rate is very low (13.7%). The questionnaires included 26 attitude questions grouped into three themes: the economic and socio-cultural impacts of tourism, and the local development policy and the development-related capacities of local residents (see Table 2). The answers were measured by 5-item Likert scale, from 1 – ‘strongly disagree’, to 5 – ‘strongly agree’.

Table 2: Indicators of rural development through tourism in North Karelia

Themes	Survey indicators (5-item Likert scale)
Economic dimension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tourism increases available jobs • Tourism creates business opportunities for local rural residents • Tourism generates revenues for the local municipality • Tourism income concentrates on a small group of people • Tourism leads to the increase of the cost of living (e.g. goods, services, land and housing) • Tourism brings new customers to local products (e.g. agricultural and forestry products, handicrafts)
Socio-cultural dimension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tourism increases local people’s pride on their home area/place • Tourists are preferred at the cost of locals • Tourism increases traffic congestion and accidents • Tourism leads to the increase in noise and pollution in rural areas • Tourism has harmful impacts on local population by increasing crime and alcoholism • Tourism enhances maintenance and development of infrastructure • Tourism enhances the provision of public services (roads, recreation facilities, public transport) • Tourism helps to maintain local cultural heritage • Tourism helps to preserve and develop local unique skills and features (handicrafts, cuisine, festivals) • Tourism has negative impacts on local traditions and customs • Tourism product development and commercialization degrades local culture

Institutional dimension (Local development policy and development related capacities of local residents)

- Local rural residents can participate in the processes of rural tourism development decision making
- Local rural residents can participate in the rural tourism development planning
- Local rural residents can participate in the processes of rural tourism development implementing
- Information on rural tourism development is publicly available
- Local rural tourism development decision is jointly made by the public, private and the third sectors
- Local rural tourism development plan is jointly made by the public, private and the third sectors
- Local rural tourism development is jointly implemented by the public, private and the third sectors
- Local rural residents have financial resources to participate in rural tourism development
- Local rural residents have the vocational skills to participate in rural tourism development

To check the relations between variables, some of them were grouped and scaled by calculating the means of the groups. Before, correlation matrix and reliability analysis were performed to verify the validity of scaling. Correlation analysis between the new generalized variables was performed to identify the relations between respondents' perceptions on the tourism development, and attitudes towards local rural tourism development policy.

RESULTS

Table 3 shows entrepreneurs' attitudes towards the economic and socio-cultural impacts of tourism, and local tourism development policy.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics of answers to the questions measuring the perception of tourism impacts and attitudes towards local rural development policy

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Positive economic impacts:			
Tourism increases availability of jobs	4.45	0.63	56
Creates business opportunities for local rural residents	4.52	0.79	56
Tourism brings new customers to local products	4.59	0.63	56
Generates revenues for the local municipality	4.63	0.62	54

Negative economic impacts:

Leads to the increase of the cost of living (e.g. goods, services, land and housing)	2.93	1.15	54
Tourism income concentrates on a small group of people	2.78	1.05	55

Positive impacts on provision of infrastructure and services:

Tourism enhances maintenance and development of infrastructure	4.15	0.74	54
Tourism enhances the provision of public services	3.66	1.08	56

Positive socio-cultural impacts:

Tourism increases local people's pride on their home area/place	4.20	0.81	54
Tourism helps to maintain local cultural heritage	4.32	0.86	56
Tourism helps to preserve and develop local unique skills and features (handicrafts, cuisine, festivals)	4.42	0.75	53

Negative socio-cultural impacts:

Tourism increases traffic congestion and accidents	2.37	1.03	54
Leads to the increase in noise and pollution in rural areas	2.66	1.08	56
Tourists are preferred at the cost of locals	2.22	0.99	55
Tourism has negative impacts on local traditions and customs	2.07	0.91	56
Tourism product development and commercialization degrades local culture	2.02	1.05	53
Tourism has harmful impacts on local population by increasing crime and alcoholism	1.96	0.85	54

Opinion on development related capacities of local residents:

Local rural residents have financial resources to participate in rural tourism development	2.71	0.94	52
Local rural residents have the vocational skills to participate in rural tourism development	3.11	1.06	56

Attitude towards local rural development policy:

Local rural residents can participate in the processes of rural tourism development decision making	3.26	1.09	55
Local rural residents can participate in the rural tourism development planning	3.46	0.98	55
Local rural residents can participate in the processes of rural tourism development implementing	3.72	0.86	53
Information on rural tourism development is publicly available	3.53	1.03	53
Local rural tourism development decision is jointly made by the public, private and the third sectors	3.21	0.94	52
Local rural tourism development plan is jointly made by the public, private and the third sectors	3.26	0.96	53
Local rural tourism development is jointly implemented by the public, private and the third sectors	3.48	1.00	52

ATTITUDES TOWARD THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM

The impacts most often noticed by entrepreneurs are the positive economic impacts (profits to municipalities, new customers, business opportunities, and jobs). Positive impacts on the provision of infrastructure and positive cultural impacts were also noticed, especially maintaining local culture.

The negative economic and sociocultural impacts were not seen as important, all got answers below 3 (neutral answer) on average, relatively the most important negative impacts noticed by the entrepreneurs are the increase of the cost of living (mean 2.93), uneven income distribution (mean 2.78) and increase in noise and pollution (mean 2.66).

ATTITUDES TOWARD LOCAL DEVELOPMENT POLICY AND DEVELOPMENT RELATED CAPACITIES OF LOCAL RESIDENTS

The respondents have moderately positive opinion on the local (rural) tourism development policy: the participation of local residents in rural tourism development planning, decision making and implementing, cooperation between the public, private and third sectors in local rural tourism development, and public availability of information about rural tourism development.

The opinions whether the development related capacities of local residents (e.g. skills and financial resources) are sufficient for the local tourism development are mixed, neutral on average.

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN OPINIONS ABOUT LOCAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT POLICY AND PERCEPTIONS OF VARIOUS IMPACTS OF TOURISM

The correlations between the opinions about local tourism development policy and perceptions of various impacts of tourism are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Correlations between measures of perception of impacts of tourism and opinion about local rural development policy

Variable	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)
Positive economic impacts	+0.353	0.008
Local cost of living	-0.003	0.824
Local tourism income concentration	-0.216	0.109
Provision of infrastructure and services	+0.185	0.171
Positive cultural impacts	+0.342	0.010
Negative socio-cultural impacts	-0.224	0.097
Development related capacities of local residents	+0.434	0.001

Note: The variables were obtained by scaling answers on groups of questions enumerated in table 3.

Significant, moderately strong positive correlations were found between the opinions on local development policy, and the perception of the positive economic and cultural impacts of tourism, as well as the development related capacities of local residents. Also the correlation between the perception of local policy and the opinion on the positive impacts of tourism on the provision of infrastructure and services is positive, but not statistically significant. The relations between opinion on local policy and the perception of negative impacts: income concentration and negative socio-cultural impacts are negative, but not statistically significant.

DISCUSSION

Tourism in Finland has been seen as a potential rural development mechanism thanks to its positive socioeconomic contributions (Pesonen et al., 2013; Komppula & Reijonen, 2006; Saarinen, 2007). This study suggests that tourism in North Karelia is recognized (at least by

the entrepreneurs) as a mechanism to minimize socio-economic problems in the area. The local entrepreneurs notice more positive socio-economic impacts of tourism (e.g. profits to municipalities, demand for local products, business and job opportunities, a better provision of infrastructure and services, and maintaining local culture) than negative ones (e.g. the increase of living costs, uneven income distribution, and increase in noise and pollution).

Local entrepreneurs have moderately positive opinion on the local (rural) tourism development policy: securing community participation, ensuring the public availability of information, and encouraging cooperation between the public, private and third sectors in local rural tourism development. This finding implies that there may exist favorable rural development policies and practices, specifically 'tourism collaboration' approach (Keyim, 2014) in the North Karelia that seeks to maximize the socioeconomic contribution of tourism through the best use of existing local rural resources. Making full use of local comparative advantage of peripheral areas in Finland is economically more sustainable in the long term than any external intervention that aims to promote local employment (Tykkyläinen, 2006).

However, the entrepreneurs do not think that they have sufficient development related capacities (e.g. skills and financial resources) that are important ingredients of 'tourism collaboration' and that should be enhanced with the support of local authorities (Keyim, 2014). Stronger support (e.g. preferential tax policy, simplified license procedures etc.) is essential for small tourism enterprises in Finland (Pesonen et al, 2013).

Further, this study tries to investigate the relationship between the local tourism development policy and socioeconomic contribution of tourism. In general, the results indicate that the more positively the entrepreneurs evaluate the local policy the more benefits they see from tourism to local area. This result is partly similar to Hyytiä and Kola's (2013) findings that the policy of further strengthening local services, which includes tourism industry, would promote economic development in North Karelia. However, due to the limitation of sample size, these results might not be sufficiently supported. It is worth conducting more empirical research within differing socio-economic and institutional rural settings in order to clarify the relationship between the local development policy and socioeconomic contribution of tourism.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The first author thanks the Kyösti Haataja Foundation (project 201410017) for its financial support.

REFERENCES

- Ashley, C., & Maxwell, S. (2001). Rethinking rural development. *Development policy review*, 19(4), 395–425.
- Brida, J. G., Osti, L., Barquet, A. (2010). Segmenting Resident Perceptions towards Tourism – a Cluster Analysis with a Multinomial Logit Model of a Mountain Community. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 12, 591–602.
- Hall, C. M., & Jenkins, J. (1998). The policy dimensions of rural tourism and recreation. In R. Butler, C.M.Hall and J. Jenkins, (Eds.), *Tourism and Recreation in Rural Areas* (p. 19–42). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hall, C. M., Saarinen, J., & Müller, D. K. (2009). *Nordic Tourism: Issues and Cases*. Bristol: Channel View.
- Harrill, R. (2004). Residents' attitudes towards tourism development: a literature review with implications for tourism planning. *Journal of Planning Literature* 18(3), 251–266.
- Hyytiä, N., & Kola, J. (2013). Tourism Policy as a Tool for Rural Development. *Applied Economic Perspectives and Policy*, ppt025.
- Komppula, R. (2014). The role of individual entrepreneurs in the development of competitiveness for a rural tourism destination—A case study. *Tourism Management*, 40, 361–371.
- Komppula, R., & Reijonen, H. (2006). Performance determinants in small and micro tourism business. *Tourism Review*, 61(4), 13–20.
- Lane, B. (1994). What is rural tourism? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 2(1), 7–21.
- Müller, D. K. (2013) Rural Tourism in the Nordic Countries – A Short Assessment. In C. Fredricsson and L. Smas, (eds.). *Small-scale Tourism in Rural Areas - Trends and Research in the Nordic Countries* (p. 15–22). Stockholm: Nordregio Working Paper 2013:3.
- OECD. (2006). *The new rural paradigm: Policies and governance*. Paris: OECD.
- Parhad Keyim (2014). Collaboration and rural development in a tourism context. (Unpublished book chapter).
- Pesonen, J., Vesterinen, N., & Taatinen, T. (2013). National Trends in Rural Tourism – Finland. In C. Fredricsson and L. Smas, (eds.). *Small-scale Tourism in Rural Areas - Trends and Research in the Nordic Countries* (p.25-33). Stockholm: Nordregio Working Paper 2013:3.

- Puhakka, R., Sarkki, S., Cottrell, S. P., & Siikamäki, P. (2009). Local discourses and international initiatives: sociocultural sustainability of tourism in Oulanka National Park, Finland. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(5), 529–549.
- Rural Policy Committee. 2009. *Countryside for Vigorous Finland. Government Report to Parliament on Rural Policy*. Sastamala: Rural Policy Committee publications 10/2009.
- Rinne, P., & Saastamoinen, O. (2005). Local economic role of nature-based tourism in Kuhmo Municipality, Eastern Finland. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 5(2), 89–101.
- Saarinen, J. (2007). Contradictions of rural tourism initiatives in rural development contexts: Finnish rural tourism strategy case study. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 10(1), 96–105.
- Shortall, S., & Shucksmith, M. (1998). Integrated rural development: issues arising from the Scottish experience. *European Planning Studies*, 6(1), 73–88.
- Sharpley, R. (2007). Flagship attractions and sustainable rural tourism development: The case of the Alnwick Garden, England. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15(2), 125–143.
- Sharpley, R. (2014). Host perceptions of tourism: A review of the research. *Tourism Management*, 42, 37–49.
- Statistics Finland (2013) *Transport and Tourism*.
- Tykkyläinen, M. (2006). Dynamics of job creation, restructuring and industrialization in rural Finland. *Fennia–International Journal of Geography*, 184(2), 151–167.
- Vareiro, L. M. D. C., Remoaldo, P. C., & Cadima Ribeiro, J. A. (2013). Residents' perceptions of tourism impacts in Guimarães (Portugal): a cluster analysis. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 16(6), 535–551.
- VisitKarelia. (2014). *North Karelia*. < <http://www.visitkarelia.fi/en/Travelling/North-Karelia> > 06.10.2014.

The safety of ships: the case of cruise vessel

Petros Lois

lois.p@unic.ac.cy

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this case study is to critically evaluate the risk handling process as it applies to cruise passenger vessels. The case is designed for classroom discussion and application to understand the different phases of risk handling by identifying possible hazards, carrying out “Probability and Consequence Assignments”, calculating the relative risk, identifying measures to control risks, and carrying out cost and benefit assessment. A test case study is finally conducted in order to demonstrate the feasibility of the described approach.

Keywords: Cruise vessel; Risk Handling; Risk Assessment

INTRODUCTION

Since the end of the Second World War (1945) a number of renowned passenger ships have gone into service. During the past thirty years, scientific and technological advances have made tremendous improvements in the design, power supply, accommodation and catering facilities of a passenger ship. Such improvements contribute to the efficiency of the ship and make possible competition with the land-based holidays, including hotels. According to the O. E. C. D. (Organisation for Economic Co-operation Development) countries’ Maritime Transport (1970), there was a decline in sea travel (1957-1970), which reduced the need for passenger ships (OECD, 1970).

Although, in the first instance, it would appear arguable by maritime economists that cruising is a shipping activity that falls exclusively within the subject’s (i.e. shipping activity) classic framework, further consideration suggests that this is not the case (Wild & Dearing, 2000). Fundamentally, it would appear that the market structure for cruising is comprised of three basic elements. These are transport, typified by a cruise, tourism and leisure, which is attractive to the cruise tourist, passenger or guest and, finally, travel, that forms the cruise itinerary (Wild & Dearing, 2000).

Cruising is part of the market for maritime tourism and leisure and, conceptually it may be viewed as residing in this segment of the market somewhere in the mid-section where these three key elements overlap (Wild & Dearing, 2000).

The cruise industry is distinct from other forms of travel and tourism in that a cruise can be marketed both as a form of transportation and as a destination (Ahmed Z., et al, 2002). For total world cruise passenger volumes, after expanding from below 4.4 million to 5.9 million in 1995, 9 million in 1999 (Cruise Industry News, 2000; Peisley, 2003; Wild & Dearing, 1999, 2000) and then to 10 million and 9.8 million passengers in 2000 and 2001 respectively, the aggregate is expected to approximate 11.9 million passengers by 2005, 16 million by 2009, 15.5 million by 2010, and almost 19 million by 2015 (Ocean Shipping Consultants, 2003; Peisley, 2003). Cruise passengers carried worldwide in 2013 is forecast at 20.9 million, a 3.3% increase over 2012 (www.cruisemarketwatch.com). The cruise industry in the twenty-first century is characterized by diversity and positive growth (Dingle, 2003). Traditional cruises exist, and indeed this market is strong (Michaelides, 2003). The fastest growing sector of tourism (Cruise Line International Association, 2004; Dickinson & Vladimir, 1997; Hall, 2001; Toh, Rivers, & Ling, 2005), cruise shipping, is undergoing the most extensive period of development it has ever experienced. It has recorded a solid growth rate in the past 20 years, with this development being driven by corporate mergers and takeovers (Bjornsen, 2003), the launching of mega-ships, the opening up of new destinations, the offering of a wider range of cruise products in order to target new market segments (Barron & Greenwood, 2006), and the growing propensity of people who choose to cruise (Douglas and Douglas, 2004).

The trend is to build bigger ships. Bigger ships can exploit economies of scale and decreasing the operating costs and at the same time increasing the revenue on board due to additional amenities that can accommodate.

Cruising has proved to be a very safe method of taking a vacation (Cartwright & Baurd, 1999). “Although most critics acknowledge that the cruise industry in general has an excellent safety record, serious losses can and do occur. Fire may be the biggest danger to a cruise ship but collision and grounding may also have serious consequences. In most instances, the ship’s crew have responded professionally to the situations and have often prevented loss of the ship and lives” (Gossard, 1995).

For the international shipping community, the safety of ships has always been a priority. Disasters such as the ‘Titanic’ sinking in 1912 caused international concern. In the last fifteen years, more serious attention has been focused on marine safety on board cruise ships. This was due to serious cruise ship accidents (www.maritimematters.com) taking place during this period. Two major disasters that led to the major changes in existing regulations were the fires on board the ‘Scandinavian Star’ and ‘Moby Prince’ (Boisson, 1999). In particular, the requirements for fire protection have been extensively revised for new and existing passenger ships (ships built after or before 1 October 1994) under the pressure of two different necessities:

- a. To take into account the deficiencies highlighted by serious accidents.
- b. To cope with the new solutions brought in by designers, which were not considered at the time the SOLAS Convention was drafted.

The revisions are aimed at improving structural fire protection, protection of escape routes and the prompt detection and extinguishing of fires. They were contained in Resolution Marine Safety Committee (MSC) 24 (60) and 27 (61) adopted in April and December 1992, respectively for existing and new ships (Abbate & Fanciulli, 1999). The SOLAS regulations on fire protection contained in Chapter II-2 of the SOLAS Convention have been amended several times. In order to refine, simplify and modernise fire safety requirements, a comprehensive revision of SOLAS Chapter II-2 has been carried out, for new ships (ships constructed on or after 1 July 2002) (Abbate & Fanciulli, 1999). Moreover, the accidents highlighted the role of human error in marine casualties, and as a result, the new Standards for Training, Certificates and Watchkeeping (STCW) for seafarers were subsequently introduced (Wang, 2006).

Cruise ships are designed and operated in compliance with international and federal regulations specifically designed to maximize the safety of passengers and crew. The International Maritime Organization (IMO) – mandates global standards for the safety and operation of cruise ships. All cruise ships visiting ports, no matter where they are flagged, must comply with applicable regulations (www.clia.org).

THE GENERIC CRUISE VESSEL

The generic model of cruise vessel needs to be developed according to the IMO's Interim Guidelines (IMO, IMO/MSC Circular 829, 1997), taking into consideration the particular systems and characteristics required for the transportation of people. The relevant study carried out by the UK MCA on High Speed Passenger Craft (Maritime and Coastguard Agency, 1996), the studies on fishing vessels (Loughran et al., 2003) and liner shipping (Yang et al., 2005), and the study carried out on Containerships (Wang & Foinikis, 2001) offer a useful guide for formulating a generic cruise passenger model.

The generic cruise vessel consists of all technical, engineering, operational and environmental networks that interact during the transportation of cruise passengers. This generic model can be broken down to its component levels. Thus the generic cruise passenger ship can be taken the form shown in Figure 1. For a generic cruise passenger ship, the following assumptions are applied:

- The cruise vessel average lifetime: 30 years
- The average number of operational days per year: 330
- Operational hours per day: 24
- Average maintenance frequency per year: 1

Breaking down the model to the basic level of the cruise ship operation produces the “generic hotel function” and “generic ship function” (Figure 2). The “Hotel Functions” consist of the categories shown in Table 1, and the “Ship Functions” include the categories shown in Table 2.

Table 1: Hotel Facilities

FACILITIES					
<i>Passenger</i>	<i>Crew</i>	<i>Service</i>	<i>Task Related</i>	<i>Entertaining</i>	<i>Others</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Passenger cabins • Public spaces • Stairways and halls • Outdoor spaces 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Crew cabins • Common spaces • Service • Stairs and corridors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Passenger service • Catering facility • Hotel services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Car decks • Tender boats • Stern marina • Special attractions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Casino • Swimming pools • Cabaret shows • Game room • Disco • Shore-excursion office 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shops • Beauty saloon • Internet • Self-service laundrettes • Medical center • Photo shop • Sporting club

Table 2: Ship Facilities

FACILITIES				
Comfort System	Machinery	Tanks, Voids	Outdoor Decks	Safety systems
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Air conditioning • Water and sewage • Stores 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engine room • Pump room • Steering and thrusters 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fuel and lubricated oil • Water and sewage • Ballast and voids 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mooring • Crew 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Life boat • Life raft • Sprinkler system • Detectors and alarms • Low level lighting • Life jackets

Figure 1: Generic cruise vessel

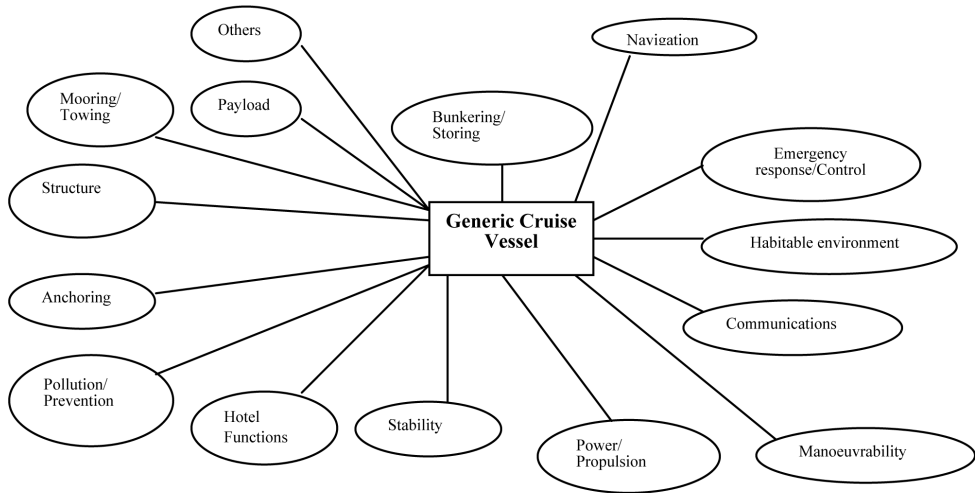
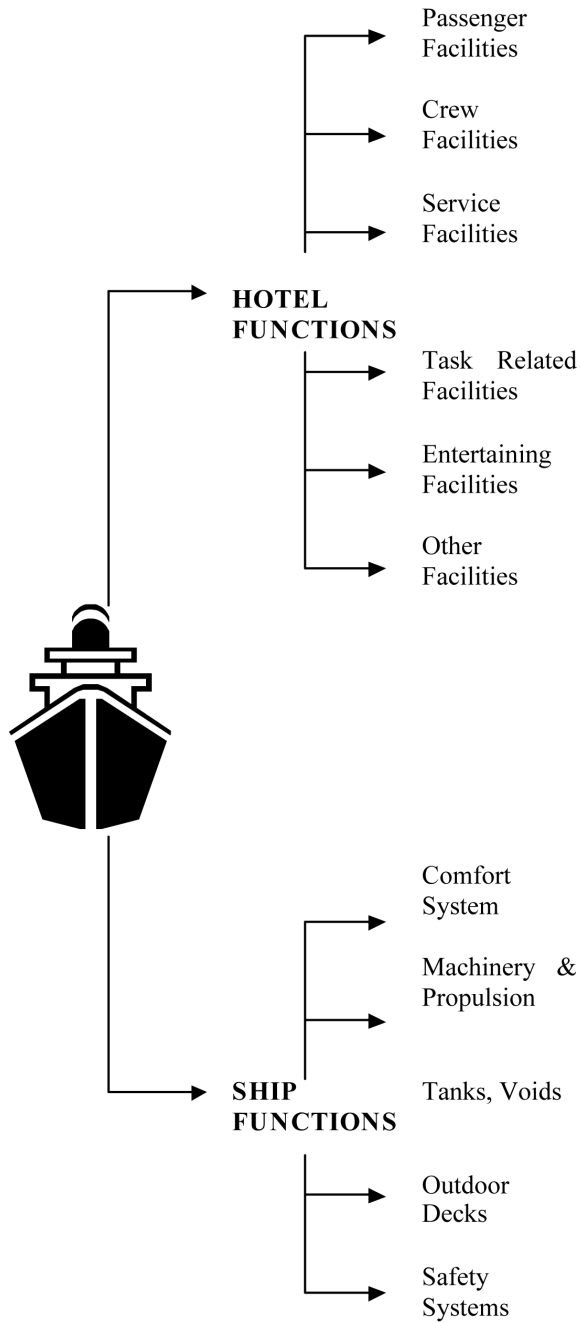


Figure 2: Generic cruise vessel functions



Cruise vessels follow the general legal pattern that all internationally trading ships do, but they differentiate in various aspects. The primary differences are described as follows:

(i) Structure

The structure of a cruise ship is divided into two main categories, hotel operation related and ship operation related functions. Hotel functions consist of passenger cabins, restaurants, lounges, bars and shops. Adequate 'traffic lanes' have to be provided between these spaces such as corridors, halls, stairways and lifts. Outdoor spaces must also be provided. The service personnel have separate corridors and stairways, because only crew members in uniform are allowed in passenger spaces.

The ship functions are related to carrying the hotel part safely from port to port. The propulsion machinery and different storage tanks are vital systems. The ship produces electricity, conditioned air, cold and hot water and has sewage treatment and waste handling for the hotel part.

(ii) Ship Support Facilities

This category is the one that most impacts upon the operations of a cruise ship and its ability to call at a given port. Before any other consideration can be made, cruise liners require decent and safe docking facilities, and/or launch or tender services, water, food, suppliers and possible waste handling facilities, repair services and refueling capacity. Catering and entertainment are of great importance and the cruise liners must be ready to meet and satisfy the needs of their passengers.

(iii) The Passengers and the Selling Point

Cruises are sold largely on the basis of media advertising and brochures, which generally promote a product or lifestyle experience, of which the ship and interiors are a part. These are chosen by prospective passengers for various reasons. Some passengers may wish to visit certain parts of the world. The choice may be made on the recommendations of others or to return to a favoured line, ship or destination. Design and the atmosphere may have the power to hold the passenger's interest and to sustain his continuing patronage on later cruises.

(iv) Ports and Terminals

Cruise ports and terminals follow a different path compared to container and bulk carrier terminals, as far as their general layout and organization are concerned. Container terminals have the ability to concurrently carry out loading and discharging operations, while terminals handling bulk cargoes tend to be specialized loading/ discharging ones (Wang & Foinikis, 2001). On the other hand, cruise terminals have the ability to accommodate a large number of passengers, enabling the ship's staff to embark the passengers and providing them with ashore facilities such as shops, foreign exchange bureau and tourism information office.

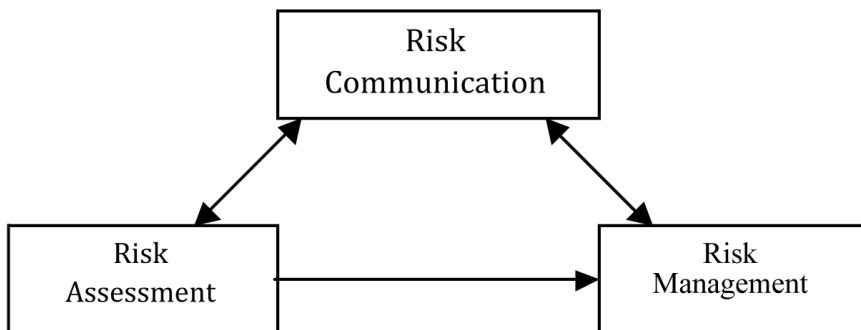
(v) Transport Links

Another different aspect is that of transport links to and from the cruise ship. Passengers have to travel from home to their cruise ship and return home after their cruise. The majority of the passengers will be making an air journey. Travel to and from the ship is arranged by the cruise companies. The vast majority of the ports of call worldwide offer transport links. Buses, taxis and trains are accessible to the passengers. They enable passengers, who do not buy a shore excursion, to use the links for their transport to the city or place of their interest. Information on transport links is given to passengers by the staff of the cruise ship.

RISK HANDLING

By considering the main characteristics of cruise ships, a risk handling process is proposed in detail in the context of cruise passenger ships. The steps of the proposed process for handling risk are described, in Figure 3, as follows:

Figure 3: Process for handling risk



- Step:
1. Hazard Identification
 2. Probability Assignment
 3. Consequence Assignment
 4. Calculation of Relative Risk
 9. Decision-making

- Step:
5. Risk Control Options
 6. Estimate of Benefit
 7. Estimate of Cost
 8. Cost/Benefit Analysis

STEP 1: HAZARD IDENTIFICATION

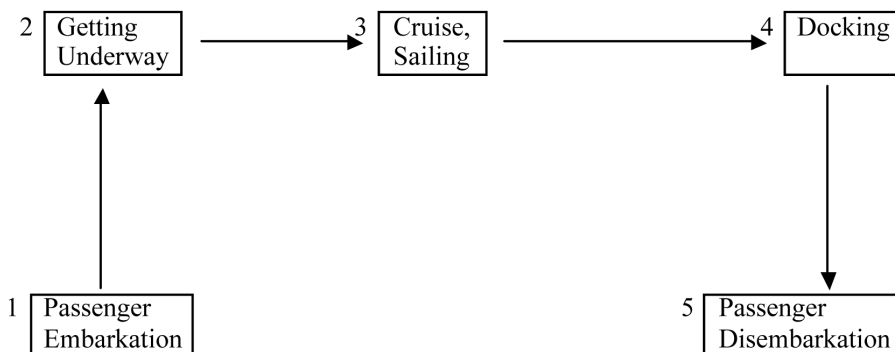
The term ‘hazard’ is defined as “an undesirable outcome in the process of meeting an objective, performing a task or engaging in an activity” (Kuo, 1998). The objective of this step is to derive a list of all relevant accident scenarios, together with their potential causes and outcomes. To achieve this, many typical techniques are employed to identify the hazards, which

might contribute to the occurrence or escalation of each accident scenario. These techniques include (Kuo, 1998):

- Brainstorming.
- Hazard and Operability Studies (HAZOP).
- Failure Mode and Effects Analysis (FMEA).

One way to identify hazards is to develop a flow chart of the operations that are decided to assess. To develop a flow chart, it is necessary to list each overall function or activity being performed (Peachey, 1999). This flowchart will give a broad picture of the operation. Suppose it is decided to examine only the situation from the time the passengers embark aboard to when they last depart. The flowchart is described in Figure 4. Figure 4 shows the five phases of the operation of the cruise ship.

Figure 4: Operation schedule



Each phase includes the following activities:

- 1) Passenger Embarkation
 - (i) Arrival of passengers at the base port.
 - (ii) Checking of passenger tickets.
 - (iii) Open-up an account for their expenses on-board the ship.
 - (iv) Passengers are given their cabin keys and any other necessary information.
 - (v) Obligatory photograph opportunity.
- 2) Getting Underway
 - (i) The staff on the gangway welcomes passengers.
 - (ii) Cruise staff direct passengers to their cabins.
 - (iii) Luggages are sent on for delivery to the cruiser's accommodation.
 - (iv) Passengers are given safety information and a life jacket drill.

- 3) Cruise
 - (i) While the ship sails, the passengers are free to visit all the public areas of the ship. It is necessary to make sure that they are aware of the daily programme and follow the safety instructions of the ship.

- 4) Docking
 - (i) Passengers who choose a shore excursion are required to disembark first.
 - (ii) Luggage will have been packed the night before the final disembarkation.
 - (iii) During the packing process, the cruiser will have been asked to place tags on their luggage indicating the time and method of the onward journey.
 - (iv) Passengers are required to wait in the public areas until the port authorities allow them to disembark.
 - (v) Passengers are also required to settle their accounts before disembarkation.

- 5) Disembarkation
 - (i) Passengers with the longest daytime journey are disembarked first and those whose onward journey requires a night flight or stay are disembarked last.
 - (ii) Passengers will collect their luggage in the port's terminal.
 - (iii) Ship staff is usually present at the main doors to say goodbye, and porters and assistance are provided quayside, where necessary.
 - (iv) Transport to the airport or package hotel will be provided for all those not making independent arrangements.

Table 3 describes the potential hazards identified with regard to the above operation.

Table 3: Potential hazards identified

CASUALTIES	DESCRIPTION
<i>Personnel</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Crew injury involving machinery. • Crew injury while alongside or getting underway. • Man overboard. • Medical emergency. • Passenger injury during embarkation and disembarkation. • Passenger violence. • Slips and falls while underway.
<i>Material - Ship</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Galley fire. • Fire/explosion on board. • Collision/grounding due to human error. • Collision/grounding due to mechanical/navigational failure. • Engine room/machinery space fire. • Collision due to other ship's fault. • Flooding and/or sinking due to hull failure.

<i>Material - Shore</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fire in terminal. • Explosion in terminal. • Structural damage to terminal.
<i>Environmental impacts</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exhaust emissions. • Noise. • Oil pollution due to vessel accident. • Pollution due to oil discharge.

STEPS 2 AND 3: PROBABILITY AND CONSEQUENCE

Once the hazards are identified with respect to each of the categories shown in Table 4, it is essential to carry out a “Probability Assignment” (Passenger Vessel Association, 1997) in order to rate the likelihood or frequency of that hazard occurring. After the examination of the frequency of each hazard occurring, it is also essential to carry out a “Consequence Assignment” (Passenger Vessel Association, 1997) in order to rate the impact of that hazard occurring. Five scales are used for the “Probability and Consequence Assignments” and are shown in Tables 4 and 5.

In Table 4, Rating 1 represents “remote”, which means that the hazard might occur once in a life-time of all passenger ships. Rating 2 represents “occasional” meaning that the hazard might occur every five years, and Rating 3 represents “likely”, which means that the hazard might occur every season. Ratings 4 and 5 represent “probable” and “frequent”, which mean that the hazard might occur monthly and weekly or daily, respectively.

Using the “Risk Matrix Approach” (Loughran, Pillay, Wang, Wall & Ruxton, 2003; Wang & Foinikis, 2001), the combination of frequency and consequence rankings is used in order to estimate the “Risk Ranking Number” (RRN), which is used to categorise risks according to their importance. An example of the “Risk Matrix Table” and its associated explanatory notes, as they can be applied to cruise ships, can be seen in Table 6.

The Risk Matrix approach employs a matrix to assess risk levels. RRN ranges from 1 (least frequent and least severe consequence - the lowest risk level) to 9 (most frequent and most severe consequence - the highest risk level).

Table 4: Frequency assignment

Assign a rating of:	If the frequency is:
1	REMOTE = Might occur once in a life time
2	OCCASSIONAL = Might occur every five years
3	LIKELY = Might occur every season
4	PROBABLE = Might occur monthly
5	FREQUENT = Might occur weekly or daily

Table 5: Consequence assignment

Assign a rating of:	If the impact could be:
1	NEGLIGIBLE = Injury not requiring first aid, no cosmetic vessel damage, no environmental impact, no missed voyages.
2	MINOR = Injury requiring first aid, cosmetic vessel damage, no environmental impact, no missed voyages.
3	SIGNIFICANT = Injury requiring more than first aid, vessel damage, some environmental damage, a few missed voyages or financial loss.
4	CRITICAL = Severe injury, major vessel damage, major environmental damage, missed voyages.
5	CATASTROPHIC = Loss of life, loss of vessel, extreme environmental impact.

Table 6: Risk Matrix Approach

	NEGLIGIBLE F1	MINOR F2	SIGNIFICANT F3	CRITICAL F4	CATASTROPHIC F5
REMOTE S1	1	2	3	4	5
OCCASSIONAL S2	2	3	4	5	6
LIKELY S3	3	4	5	6	7
PROBABLE S4	4	5	6	7	8
FREQUENT S5	5	6	7	8	9

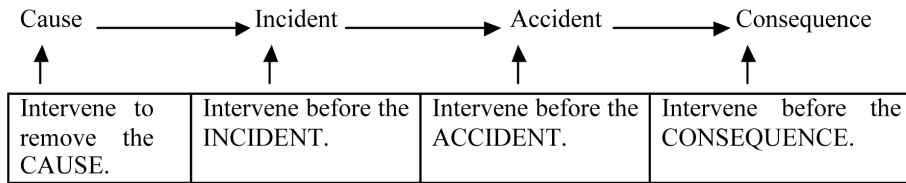
STEP 4: CALCULATION OF RELATIVE RISK

The objective of the fourth step is to evaluate the factors contributing to the risk associated with each hazard on the prioritized list. This step includes consideration of the various factors (such as training, design, communication, maintenance), which influence the level of risk. In determining the relative risk, it is essential to construct an “influence diagram” (Risk Contribution Tree, Figure 6) in order to study how the regulatory, commercial, technical and political/social environments influence each accident category and eventually quantify these influences with regard to human and hardware failures as well as external events (Wang & Foinikis, 2001). An “influence diagram” is a combination of fault trees and event trees. “Fault Tree Modelling” looks at the combinations of circumstances and failures that can lead to an accidental event (Tzifas, 1997), and “Event Tree Modelling” is a means of exploring the escalation potential of such an accidental event to establish all possible outcomes and their severity (Peachey, 1999; Tzifas, 1997).

STEP 5: RISK CONTROL OPTIONS

The purpose of this step is to derive regulatory measures to control and reduce the risks estimated in step 4. Attention is focused initially on the highest risk areas (Spouce, 1997). In order to address these risks, a list of countermeasures can be used to avoid or lessen the impact of the potential hazards. These countermeasures will be based on people, procedures, or equipment solutions. One way to do this is by breaking the potential hazard down into a chain of events. This is referred to as the “Causal Chain” (Passenger Vessel Association, 1997) and takes the form shown in Figure 7.

Figure 5: Causal chain



Generally, there are three main characteristics according to which risk control options are evaluated. Such characteristics can be summarized as follows (Wang & Foinikis, 2001):

- Those relating to the fundamental type of risk reduction like the preventative and mitigating measures.
- Those relating to the type of action required (i.e. engineering or procedural).
- Those relating to the confidence that can be placed in the measure (active, passive, redundant, auditable).

Figure 5 is used as a general guide for applying different countermeasures. A portion of potential countermeasures is well described in Table 7 and refers to the following interventions.

Table 7: Potential countermeasures

Intervention to remove Cause	Intervention before the Incident	Intervention before the Accident	Intervention before the Consequence
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proper equipment • Training • Detailed procedures • Preventative maintenance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhanced surveys • Communications equipment • Alarms • Remote sensors • Check-off lists for routine evolutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Drills to respond to common incidents • Special procedures for higher risk evolutions (vessel traffic and bad weather) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Response plans • Emergency drills • Lifesaving equipment • Emergency instructions • Crew training

- Intervention to remove Cause
 - Prevent conditions that can lead to lapses.
- Intervention before the Incident
- Intervention before the Accident
 - Prevent or avoid high risk situations where a small lapse can lead to an accident.
- Intervention before the Consequence
 - Reduce the harm caused by the accident.

STEPS 7, 8, AND 9: COST-BENEFIT ASSESSMENT

The costs of implementing each risk control option and the benefits from reduced risks by implementing risk reduction measures can be determined, using established cost-benefit assessment techniques. All cost categories are covered in the assessment including capital, operating, maintenance, training, etc. The cost effectiveness of each risk control option is compared with each other, and the options are then ranked in terms of their cost to achieve a unit reduction of risk (Spouce, 1997). It must be pointed out that Cost-Benefit Analysis, as suggested for use in FSA is not a precise science, but it is only a way of evaluation. Thus it cannot be used mechanistically, but only as a consulting instrument in decision-making (Wang & Foinikis, 2001).

The cost benefit assessment technique used in the case of North Ferry Company (Passenger Vessel Association, 1997) offers a useful tool for the development of our generic cost benefit analysis. This technique consists of the following three stages:

1. Estimate of Benefit [Table 8].
2. Cost Estimate [Table 9].
3. Combination of the above [Table 10].

After completing the cost benefit assessment, the measures with the highest overall score are chosen. These are the measures that reduce risks in a most cost-effective way.

After the development of a list of potential countermeasures for addressing each specific hazard, Table 8 gives a guidance to estimate the rating of potential benefits from taking such countermeasures. The benefit rating scale ranges from 1 (no benefit from reduced risks) to 5 (very high benefit from reduced risks).

Table 8: Estimate of benefit

Estimation of Benefit	Description
1	VERY LOW = No benefit from reduced risks
2	LOW = Small benefit from reduced risks
3	MEDIUM = Medium benefit from reduced risks
4	HIGH = High benefit from reduced risks
5	VERY HIGH = Very high benefit from reduced risks

Table 9 can be used as a tool to assess the cost of putting the countermeasures into operation. The cost of each countermeasure is estimated, whether it is rearranging work schedules/procedures, installing new equipment or providing additional training for the crew. The cost rating scale ranges from 1 (no cost for implementing countermeasure) to 5 (very high cost for implementing countermeasure).

Table 9: Estimate of Cost

Estimation of Cost	Description
1	VERY LOW = No cost for implementing countermeasure
2	LOW = Small cost for implementing countermeasure
3	MEDIUM = Medium cost for implementing countermeasure
4	HIGH = High cost for implementing countermeasure
5	VERY HIGH = Very high cost for implementing countermeasure

Table 10 is used to combine the results obtained from Tables 8 and 9. This will give an idea of which countermeasure is the best solution for the company. In order to receive the most out of the company’s safety investment, the measures with the highest overall score are chosen. These are the ones that reduce risks most cost-effectively.

Table 10: Cost-benefit analysis

Countermeasures	Estimate of Benefit	÷	Estimate of Cost	=	Overall Score
Causal chain – Figure 5	Table 8	÷	Table 9	=	Result

STEP 9: DECISION-MAKING

From the preceding steps of the methodology, information about the hazards, their associated risks, and the cost effectiveness of alternative risk control options is provided to the decision maker. It is suggested that in considering which risk control option to select, the decision maker should ensure that the choice is equitable and fair to all stakeholders (Spouce, 1997). This final step of the process aims at making decisions and giving recommendations for safety improvement. The information generated can be used to assist in the choice of cost-effective and equitable changes in design and operations and to select the best risk control option.

A TEST CASE STUDY

A test case is conducted in order to demonstrate the feasibility of the proposed methodology of cruise vessels. The test case is limited to one accident category only, namely ‘fire’. This is because a full-scale trial application would be too large in volume.

STEP 1: HAZARD IDENTIFICATION

Having identified the accidents, the causes are then grouped in terms of human error, hardware failures, etc. The ‘fire’ accident sub-categories are listed as follows:

- Navigation Bridge.
- Engine Room.
- Public Areas.
- Galley.
- Provisions’ Storage Spaces.
- Passengers’ Cabins.
- Crew Accommodation.

STEPS 2 AND 3: PROBABILITY AND CONSEQUENCE ASSIGNMENTS

The examination of the occurrence frequency of a hazard and its possible consequence is carried out using the “Probability and Consequence Scales” described in the previous section. The final ranking for the accident category of ‘fire’, takes the form as presented in Table 11.

Table 11: Fire rankings, using the “Risk Matrix Approach” - expert judgment

<i>Operation Accident Subcategory</i>	Passenger Embarkation	Getting Underway	Cruise, Sailing	Docking	Passenger Disembarkation
Navigation Bridge	F1/S1=1	F1/S1=1	F1/S1=1	F1/S1=1	F1/S1=1
Engine Room	F2/S2=3	F3/S3=5	F4/S4=7	F2/S2=3	F2/S2=3
Public Areas	F1/S2=2	F2/S3=4	F3/S3=5	F1/S2=2	F1/S2=2
Galley	F2/S3=4	F3/S3=5	F5/S4=8	F2/S3=4	F2/S3=4
Provision Storage Spaces	F2/S3=4	F2/S3=4	F3/S4=6	F1/S3=3	F1/S3=3
Passenger Cabins	F2/S2=3	F3/S3=5	F4/S3=6	F2/S2=3	F2/S2=3
Crew Accommodation	F2/S2=3	F4/S3=6	F4/S3=6	F2/S2=3	F2/S2=3

An RRN is assigned for each accident subcategory at different phases of the vessel operation. This figure is generated by analyzing the incident/accident data in terms of its occurrence and severity of consequences. Each accident category can be analysed and handled in a similar way to produce a ranking for each accident subcategory. Table 12 shows the number of times

each RRN appears within an accident sub-category. For example, RRN 5 appears 4 times (as shown in Table 11). Sub-categories with RRN values smaller than 4 are not investigated further since their level is considered to be acceptably low.

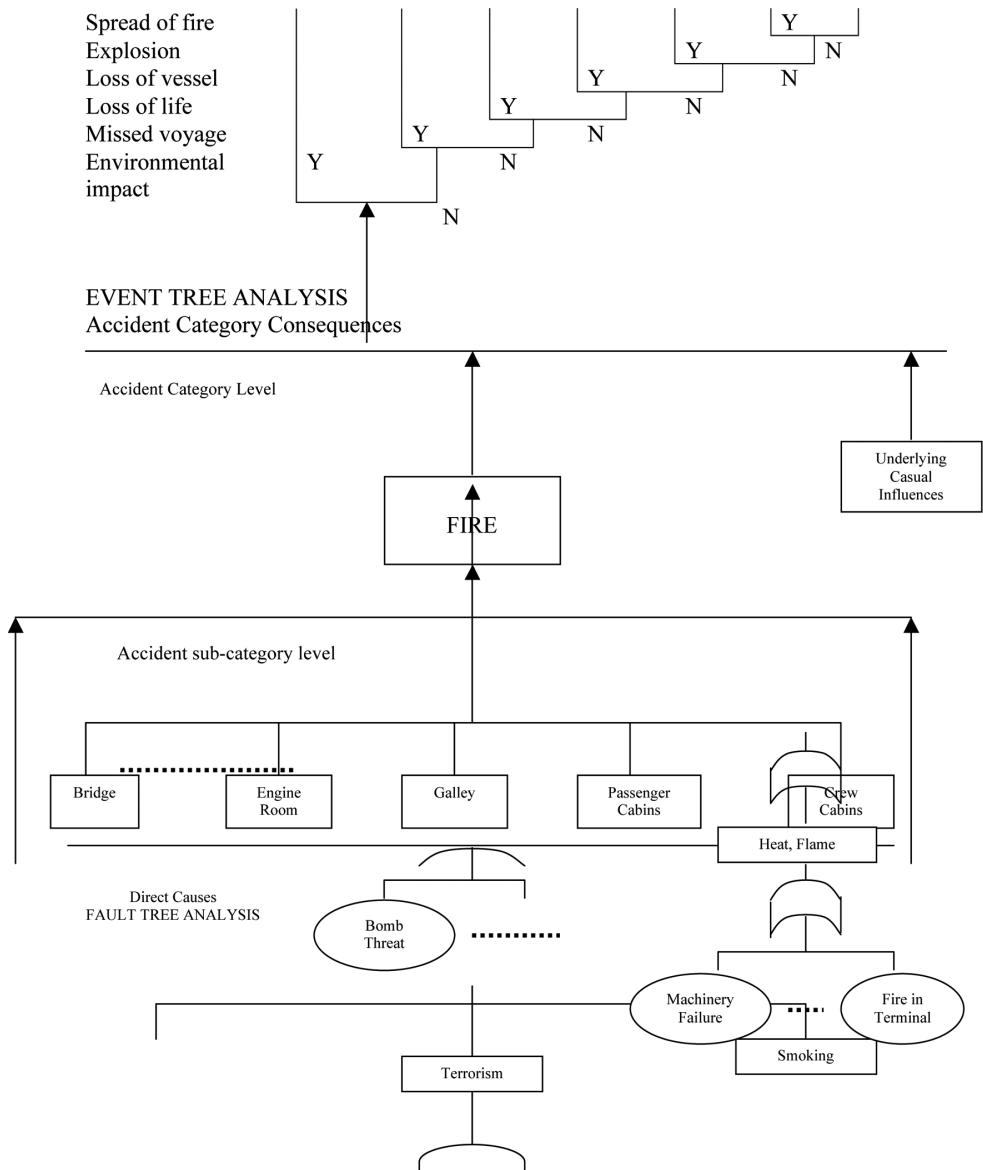
Table 12: Number of occurrences of risk ranking scores

RRN	No. of occurrence for accident sub-category
5	4
6	4
7	1
8	1

STEP 4: CALCULATION OF RELATIVE RISK

For all the sub-categories with RRN values larger than 4, the risk level will be studied in more detail. This can be achieved using an influence diagram. An illustration of the influence diagram for the accident category of “fire” can be seen in Figure 6. The top half above “fire” of Figure 6 is a graphical representation of the accident sub-category, including all the combinations of relevant contributing factors for each accident sub-category. The bottom half below “fire” is an event tree representation of the development of the accident category to its final outcome.

Figure 6: Risk contribution tree

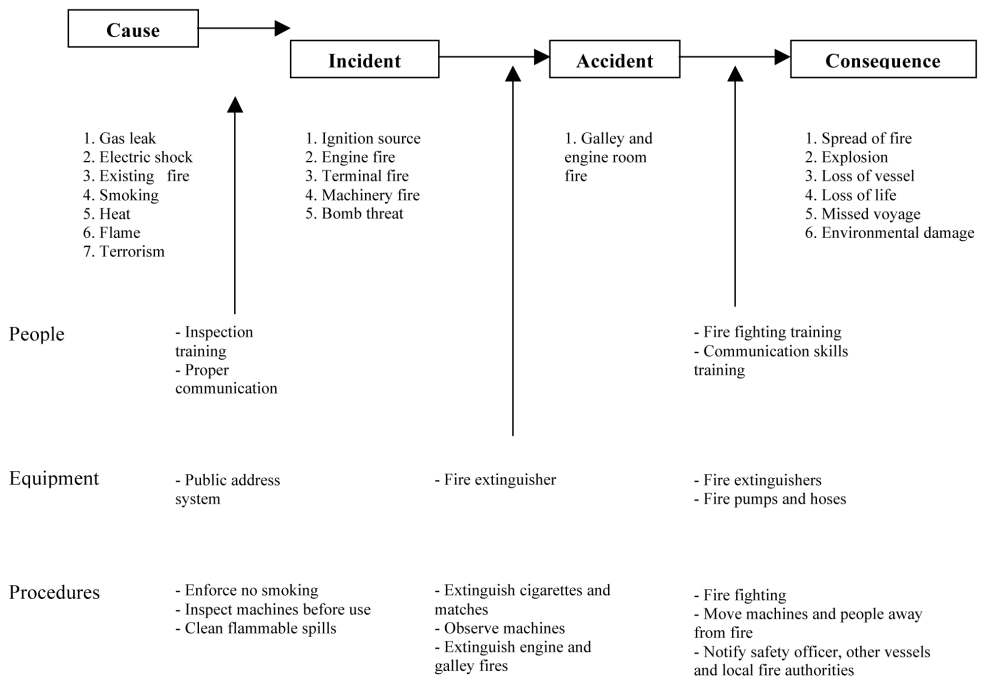


STEP 5: RISK CONTROL OPTIONS

From Table 11, it can be seen that the area requiring less consideration is clearly identifiable, and appears to be the “Navigation Bridge Area” (all RRN values are smaller than 4). For each of the remaining areas (sub-categories with RRN values equal to or larger than 4) causal chains need to be constructed and risk control options to be identified at the nodes of each chain. The areas requiring more consideration appear to be the “Galley” and “Engine Room Areas”, especially during the operation phase of cruising. For demonstration purposes, only these two areas are considered for risk reduction and causal chain analysis.

Figure 7 shows the countermeasures that can be used to reduce failure likelihood and/or mitigate possible consequences. The analysis has come up with a list of interventions that can be considered to avoid or lessen the impact of the potential hazards. The measures (i.e. interventions) are based on people, procedure and equipment solutions. These countermeasures can help to make the operation of a cruise vessel safer.

Figure 7: Causal chain (fire in galley and engine room)



The causal chain shown in Figure 7 came up with the following interventions:

1. After “Cause” and before “Incident”
 - Inspection training.
 - Proper communication.
 - Public address system.
 - Enforce no-smoking.
 - Inspect machines before use.
 - Clean flammable spills.
2. After “Incident” and before “Accident”
 - Fire extinguisher.
 - Extinguish cigarettes and matches.
 - Observe machines.
 - Extinguish engine and galley fires.
3. After “Accident” and before “Consequence”
 - Fire fighting training.
 - Communication skills training.
 - Fire extinguishers.
 - Fire pumps and hoses.
 - Sprinklers.
 - Fire fighting.
 - Move machines and people away from fire.
 - Notify safety officer, other vessels and local fire authorities.

STEPS 6, 7, AND 8: COST-BENEFIT ASSESSMENT

The countermeasures with the highest overall score show the best place for implementing risk reduction measures. Table 13 provides the cruise operators with the information of obtaining the most out of their safety investment, and attempt to reduce high risks cost-effectively. The most important countermeasures that will be taken into consideration for this purpose are those with the highest score, as shown in Table 13, and include the following:

- a. Extinguishing cigarettes and matches.

This can be achieved by installing high technology equipments for fire fighting. It would be also necessary to perform fire-fighting machine inspections and train people on the procedures and equipments used for such a purpose. Other policy might be to restrict the smoking areas on the cruise ship.

b. Observing machines.

The machines may be observed on a frequent basis in order to make sure that they work properly. The safety team may ensure that the crew are familiar with the use of such machines and impose strict procedures for those who will be authorized to use them.

c. Moving machines and people away from fire.

The importance of this countermeasure is that machines, crew and passengers might be moved away from fire quickly and safely in case of fire. This can be achieved by training the crew on a systematic way, and informing passengers, before and during the cruise, on the procedures being followed for the particular situation.

d. Notifying safety officer, other vessels and local fire authorities.

A safety officer, with the appropriate knowledge and experience, is needed to be employed in order to deal with safety and fire matters. The cruise ship may also be provided with the most necessary technology equipments in order to notify promptly other vessels and local authorities in case of emergency.

Another important countermeasure is to install a public address system to use for reminding passengers of the company’s and ship’s policies. The operators might heighten safety awareness among its crew and staff to make them more vigilant in detecting causes of fires.

Table 13: Cost-benefit analysis

Countermeasures		Estimate of Benefit	÷	Estimate of Cost	=	Overall Score
<i>People</i>	Inspection training	4	÷	3	=	1.33
	Proper communication	4	÷	4	=	1
	Fire fighting training	5	÷	3	=	1.67
	Communication skills training	3	÷	3	=	1
<i>Equipment</i>	Public address system	4	÷	2	=	2
	Fire extinguisher	5	÷	4	=	1.25
	Fire pumps and hoses	4	÷	4	=	1
	Sprinklers	4	÷	4	=	1

THE SAFETY OF SHIPS: THE CASE OF CRUISE VESSEL

Procedure	Enforce no-smoking	4	÷	2	=	2
	Extinguish cigarettes and matches	3	÷	1	=	3
	Fire fighting	5	÷	4	=	1.25
	Inspect machines before use	4	÷	2	=	2
	Observe machines	3	÷	1	=	3
	Move machines and people away from fire	5	÷	2	=	2.5
	Clean flammable spills	4	÷	2	=	2
	Extinguish engine and galley fires	5	÷	2	=	2.5
	Notify safety officer, other vessels and local fire authorities	5	÷	1	=	5

STEP 9: DECISION-MAKING

In the decision-making process, the information about risk levels before and after implementation of risk control would be recorded alongside justification in order to iterate any part of the process. Decision-making seeks to enhance the quality of information by considering the following:

- The cost effectiveness of the proposed option, as shown in Step 8.
- The examination of whether the effect on all interests involved is equitable.

This process can then proceed, by taking into consideration all the political, cultural and social influences that are necessary to obtain consensus on an international basis.

DISCUSSION

This paper has attempted a critical evaluation of the risk handling process as it applies to cruise passenger vessels. A test case study was conducted in order to demonstrate the feasibility of the described approach.

It becomes apparent that, although the cruise market has an excellent safety record, there is still space for improvement. Areas where such improvement can be achieved include the human reliability, fire-fighting, and people communication. Such areas are described as follows:

HUMAN ELEMENT

The fact that cruise ships carry large and diverse groups of people means that their officers, staff and crew need a clear understanding of human responses in emergencies and an ability to deal with crowds. The areas directly related to human behaviour and crowd control might include the ability of giving clear and reassuring order, dealing with passengers' special needs and keeping order, reducing or avoiding panic. In emergency situations, the key personnel (i.e. the safety officer) who has responsibility for the safety of passengers might lead and direct other people, assess the situation and provide an effective response and recognize specific behaviours of passengers and other personnel. The success of the above can be achieved by the adequate training, specializing on the proper communication with the passengers and the use of fire fighting equipment. All seafarers must be trained in accordance with the stringent International Maritime Organization (IMO) standards outlined in the International Convention on the Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers (STCW) (IMO, 2010). Confusion is often caused by poor or ineffective communication between the various parties involved, such as the misunderstanding arising from a range of native languages among the crew. To a large extent, this type of error can be reduced by careful selection and adequate training of crew.

INDUSTRY'S ACTION

It is obvious that the human element plays an important role, either negative or positive, in the safety of cruise ships. It would certainly appear that over the next few years, with the expansion of interest in cruise ships, new builds on order and new regulations to be issued, there will be two principal areas which need to be investigated, namely shortage of skilled crew and crew training. The cruise industry might explore new recruitment and training opportunities in order to enhance the passengers and cruise vessels' safety, including the following:

- Visiting colleges of further education and research groups.
- Producing better illustrated promotional material including videos.
- Increasing the training opportunities to acquire new skills, which will allow crew to progress their career with the cruise company.
- Providing more onboard training resources, including a specialist trainer to meet the arising needs.
- Exploring new and innovative training techniques.
- Liaising with universities and other professional establishments in order to develop training programmes for those wishing to work in the cruise industry.
- Providing management training, which introduces new values of leadership, motivation and team building.

INFORMATION AVAILABILITY, RELIABILITY, AND INTERCHANGE

Many of the weaknesses existing today in the shipping industry in general and the cruise market

in particular, are due to inadequate flow of information amongst the parties concerned. This may cause several problems in the course of operating safely a cruise ship, such as a lack of either knowledge or experience, or a combination of the two. An example in the cruise market would be that an officer might take incorrect decisions because he is not familiar with the ship or new technologies. Errors can also occur when there is too much conflicting information poorly presented. Information on safety should be given to the passengers during the embarkation time. It would also be important to provide the information during the cruise ship's sailing and train the passengers on a personal basis. For example, the cabin stewards can provide safety information while cleaning passengers' cabins and explaining them all the safety documentation and equipment located in the cabins.

CONCLUSION

One of the major goals of many international or national bodies, which deal with marine regulations, is the reduction of the total number of accidents. This is often felt to imperative even regardless of the extent of the cost of the accidents. It is hoped to find acceptable ways of estimating the cost and also reducing the cost of operating a cruise ship. This might enable the decision maker to choose the most cost-effective method that will improve ship safety, environmental protection, profitability and cope with the strong competition within the cruise industry.

Some important procedures and inputs/outputs of the application of risk handling process to cruise ship operations were presented. It is thought that more detailed descriptions and discussions are necessary on several works in the processes, including Causal Chains and Risk Control Options (RCOs). Causal Chains were developed to show the entire sequence from cause to fatality under consideration. The interventions can then be used to control risks. Developing risk control options can eventually be translated into the creation of strategic alternatives for probable reductions in risk.

As the public concern regarding maritime safety increases, more and more attention has been directed to the application of formal safety assessment (FSA) of ships as a regulatory tool (Wang, 2001). It is believed that the adoption of such a tool in cruise ship operation will reduce risks to a minimum level. FSA may be effectively used as the basis for further development of individual risk modeling. It can also be used as a tool to face the new challenges (e.g. technical standards and ship size) of the modern cruise vessels. More scientific research is required in the area of formal safety assessment of cruise ships. An effective way of assessing risks in cruise shipping may be a detailed study of potential hazardous events that could occur during each phase of cruise operation

REFERENCES

- Abbate C., Fanciulli F. (1999), "Enhancing fire protection systems and procedures onboard cruise vessels, ferries and high speed craft", Cruise and Ferry, Conference Papers, Grand Hall Olympia, London, 11-13 May, 2-3.
- Ahmed Z., Johnson J., Ling C. P., Fang T. W., & Hui A. k. (2002), Country-of-origin and brand effects on consumers' evaluations of cruise lines, *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 19, No. 3, pp. 279-302, Emerald.
- Barron P. & Greenwood A. B. (2006), Issues determining the development of cruise itineraries: A focus on the luxury market, *Tourism in Marine Environments*, Vol. 3, No. 2, pp. 89-99, Cognizant Communication Corporation.
- Bjornsen P. (2003), The growth of the market and global competition in the cruise industry, Cruise and Ferry Conference, Earls Court, London.
- Boisson P. (1999), Fire Protection, Fires on the Scandinavian Star and Moby Prince, Safety of Passengers Ships, Safety at Sea, Policies, Regulations and International Law, Edition Bureau Veritas, Paris, 215.
- Cartwright R. & Baird C. (1999), The development and growth of the cruise industry, Butterworth/Heinemann, Oxford, 47-49.
- Cruise Lines International Association [CLIA] (2004), CLIA: The overview, Spring, USA.
- Cruise Lines International Association [CLIA] (2014), Ship safety, USA, www.clia.org.
- Cruise Market Watch (2014), Cruise trends forecast, www.cruisemarketwatch.com
- Cruise Industry News (2000), International guide to the cruise industry, Annual Report, Thirteen Edition, New York.
- Dickinson B. & Vladimir A. (1997), Selling the sea: An inside look at the cruise industry, John Wiley & Sons, New York.
- Dingle D. (2003), Cruising in the 21st Century-New developments, Cruise and Ferry Conference, Earls Court, London.
- Douglas N. & Douglas N. (2004), Cruise ship passenger spending patterns, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, No. 6, pp. 251-261.
- Gossard H. W. (1995), Marine safety on board cruise ships, *World Cruise Industry Review*, Sterling Publication Ltd, London, 157.

- Hall C. M. (2001), Trends in ocean and coastal tourism: The end of the last frontier?, *Ocean & Coastal Management*, Vol. 44, pp. 601-618.
- IMO, IMO/MSC Circular 829 (1997), Interim guidelines for the application of formal safety assessment to the IMO rule-making process, IMO, London.
- IMO (2010), International Convention on the Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers (STCW), London.
- Internet Site (1994-2004), Maritime Casualties, www.maritimematters.com.
- Kuo C. (1998), *Managing Ship Safety*, LLP, London, Hong Kong, 51.
- Loughran C., Pillay A., Wang J., Wall A., Ruxton T. (2003), "A preliminary study of fishing vessel safety", *Journal of Risk Research*, Vol. 5, No. 1, 3-21.
- MAIB (2000), Statistics, Annual Report, <http://www.maib.detr.gov.uk>.
- Marine Safety Agency (1993), Formal safety assessment MSC66/14, Submitted by the United Kingdom to IMO Maritime Safety Committee.
- Maritime and Coastguard Agency (1996), Research project, FSA of shipping, Phase 2, Trial application to HSC, 6.
- Michaelides G. (2003), The latest developments in the Mediterranean Cruise Market, Challenges for the future, Cruise and Ferry Conference, Earls Court, London.
- O. E. C. D. (Organisation for Economic Co-operation Development) (1970), Trends in the transport sector 1957-1970, *Maritime Transport*, OECD, UK.
- Passenger Vessel Association (PVA) (1997), A guide to improving the safety of passenger vessel operations by addressing risk, Arlington, 1-28.
- Peachey J. H. (1999), Managing risk through legislation, *Managing risk in shipping, A Practical Guide*, The Nautical Institute's Publication, London, 93-100.
- Peisley T. (2003), Global changes in the cruise industry 2003-2010, A Seatrade Research Report, UK.
- Spouse J. (1997), "Risk criteria for use in ship safety assessment", *Proceeding of Marine Risk Assessment: A Better Way to Manage Your Business*, The Institute of Marine Engineers, London, 8-9 April.

- Toh R. S., Rivers M. J., & Ling T. W. (2005), Room occupancies: Cruise lines out-do the hotels, *Hospitality Management*, Vol. 24, pp. 121-135.
- Tzifas N. (1997), Risk assessment techniques, The FSA methodology, Formal Safety Assessment, MSc Dissertation, Liverpool John Moores University, 45.
- Wang J. (2001), "Current status of future aspects of formal safety assessment of ships", *Safety Science*, Vol. 38, 19-30.
- Wang J., Foinikis P. (2001), "Formal safety assessment of containerships", *Marine Policy*, Vol. 25, 143-157.
- Wang J., "A review of marine and offshore safety assessment", *Quality and Reliability Engineering International*, Vol.22, No.1, 2006, 3-19.
- Wild P., Dearing J. (1999), *Maritime tourism to the year 2004* (G. P. Wild International Limited), May, UK.
- Wild P., Dearing J. (2000), "Development of and prospects for cruising in Europe", *Maritime Policy & Management*, Vol. 27, Number 4, 315-337.
- Yang Z., Wang J., Bonsall S., Fang Q. (2005), "Formal safety assessment of container liner supply chains", *Proceeding of ESREL 2005, European Safety & Reliability Conference*, Tri City, Poland, 27-30 June 2005, 2061-2070 (ISBN: 0415383404).

Marketing cultural experience: a case study of a historical canal town

Yao-Yi Fu

yafu@iupui.edu

ABSTRACT

Metamora is a cultural destination where people can experience the 19th century of America. The destination positions itself as a historical canal town. The town's tourism volume peaked in the 1990s and has declined since then. In an effort to attract more visitors and to understand more about its visitors' demographics and perceptions, an on-site survey was conducted. The results of the survey identified several differences between first-time and repeat visitors in terms of their demographics, travel motivation, and perceptions of the destination. Although Metamora emphasizes its culture and history when promoting the destination, the survey revealed that culture is the weakest reason among other travel motives for visiting the destination. Suggestions for future marketing strategy are provided.

Keywords: cultural experience, positioning strategy, destination marketing, cultural tourism

INTRODUCTION

CULTURAL EXPERIENCES IN METAMORA

Metamora is a small historical town located in the southeastern part of Indiana, U.S.A. The town was established and used for the transportation of goods between many Indiana counties and the nearby state of Ohio. Metamora began construction on the historic canal in 1836, but soon the steam engine locomotive that was a new and improved form of transportation began to arise. The state decided to run the railroad track directly next to the canal as the trade routes were already established via the historic canals. Then as the years went on more new transportation innovations came along like the automobile and airplane, thus taking away the town's major revenue source. Their once booming town began to fizzle. Later in its history, Metamora built a water powered gristmill right next to the canal. The gristmill used the canal to power its wheel to grind wheat and corn into powder to be used for various recipes like bread.

Visitors in Metamora can journey through what it was like in the 19th century in the United States. Metamora positions itself as a historical canal town. Visitors can ride in the horse-drawn canal boat though the only existing wooden aqueduct left in the country. They can

ride on a local nostalgic train between Metamora and a nearby town, Connersville. Tourists can shop for antiques and handcrafts in numerous stores housed in historic buildings dated back to the early 1800s, visit a gristmill to see a water-powered mill grind cornmeal and flour. There are also restaurants that provide homemade food and several bed-and-breakfasts with Victorian charm. In addition, Metamora hosts special events during several months of the year. The Canal Days is the largest event which is held on the first weekend of October. Visitors of this event can enjoy live music and find hundreds of vendors and artists selling antiques, handcrafts, and collectibles. The second most popular event is the Christmas Walk. The town is transformed into a winter wonderland in December around the Christmas holiday. Tourists can enjoy Christmas decorations all over the town and hear the strolling carolers as they walk through Metamora.

CHALLENGES FACING METAMORA

There are many challenges facing Metamora. The number of visitors peaked in the 1990s and has declined since then. The organization that is in charge of tourism in Metamora is the Merchant Association of Metamora. Board members of the association are responsible for marketing the town, planning and organizing special events. The association had not conducted any marketing research and did not have information regarding the demographics and perceptions of its visitors. The association has a very limited budget for promoting Metamora. Due to lack of funding, resources, and manpower, Metamora has not done much advertising. The main advertising for Metamora is brochures and word-of-mouth from people who visited the destination. Therefore, the destination is not well known even in its region.

Another challenge is that most attractions, shops, and restaurants only open on weekends due to very low volume of visitors on weekdays. Some store owners do not live in Metamora and cannot be in Metamora on weekdays because they have other full-time jobs on weekdays in their hometowns. This also limits the number of shops that are open on weekdays. Due to the weather, Metamora is not a year round destination. Major attractions such as the canal boat ride and gristmill and most shops and restaurants open from April through December. There is hardly anything open for tourists between January and April.

PRELIMINARY MARKETING RESEARCH

Due to lack of information of its visitors, an on-site survey was conducted during the Christmas Walk event for several weekends in December. The questionnaire includes items regarding visitors' demographic information, their reasons for visiting Metamora, and their satisfaction with their visit. The questionnaires were distributed to visitors by several shop owners in their stores. A total of 144 useable questionnaires were collected.

This first survey revealed that 75% of their visitors were females, and 56.2% of the respondents aged between 36 and 55. The results show that close to 80% of respondents visited the destination before and 57.7% of participants visited Metamora for more than 5 times. This

indicates that Metamora received very high percentage of repeat visitors. More than half (60%) of respondents learned about the destination through word-of-mouth.

The survey participants were asked to indicate their motivation for visiting Metamora. The results found that the top three reasons for visiting are “to shop at local stores,” “to enjoy the scenery,” and “to get away from my normal routine.” Interestingly, although the town position and advertise itself as a historical canal town, “to learn about local culture and history” received the second lowest rating among all the reasons for visiting. The survey also measured visitors’ satisfaction with various attributes of Metamora. The top three items that received highest ratings are “to enjoy the small town atmosphere,” “to get away from my normal routine”, and “to enjoy the scenery.”

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The first survey was conducted during the Christmas Walk event in December. In order to learn more about people who visit the destination at different times of the year, a second on-site survey was conducted on every weekend in October in the following year. This survey period also included the Canal Days which is the most popular special event in Metamora that takes place annually on the first weekend of October.

One important finding from the first survey is that Metamora received a high percentage of repeat visitors. Both first-time and repeat visitors are vital to a destination. Every destination strives to increase its repeat visitors. It costs less to retain repeat visitors than to attract new ones. In addition, many repeat visitors help to spread positive word-of-mouth. However, a destination cannot solely rely on its repeat visitors. Therefore, in addition to increasing loyal visitors, it is equally important to attract new visitors. A decline of new visitors can be an indication of reduced interest in a destination or facing stronger competition. Hence, the Merchant Association of Metamora was also interested in learning if there is any difference between first-time visitors and repeat visitors in terms of demographics, travel motivation, travel behavior, and satisfaction.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to gain more information of Metamora’s visitors and to compare first-time visitors and repeat visitors. The findings will help to guide Metamora’s marketing strategy for new and repeat visitors. Additionally, the survey would also help to examine if visitors who visit the destination at different times of the year have different characteristics and opinions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There are several studies that compared first-time and repeat visitors. Lau and McKercher (2004) surveyed pleasure travelers in Hong Kong in order to compare their travel motives.

Their findings suggest that first-time and repeat visitors were motivated to visit Hong Kong for distinctly different reasons. First-time visitors were more on an adventuresome quest to explore a new destination and participate in a wide range of activities. Repeat visitors were more interested in satisfying their interpersonal needs and selective travel experiences such as visiting friends and family, shopping, and dining.

In Shanka and Taylor's (2004) study of a wine festival, they examined the differences between first-time and repeat visitors in terms of their demographic characteristics and their opinions about festival attributes. They found first-time and repeat visitors are significantly different in their age and place of residence. Their results also show that repeat visitors value food quality, location, parking, and service as more important than first-time visitors valued these attributes.

Anwar and Sohail (2004) compared first-time and repeat visitors in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). They concluded that first-time visitors found that the visit in UAE provided an exciting challenge compared to repeat visitors. They also found that a significant percentage of first-time visitors were attracted to UAE because of the shopping opportunities. This group of tourists also felt UAE to be an inexpensive destination compared to repeat visitors. In addition, Anwar and Sohail's (2004) results concluded that first-time visitors had higher satisfaction than repeat visitors did.

In a study of destination attachment and destination image, Morais and Lin (2010) surveyed 351 people who visited a popular hot spring destination in Taiwan. Their results indicated that the factors that influenced first-time and repeat visitors' intentions to visit a destination were different. Morais and Lin (2010) concluded that people's image of a destination is only important for first-time tourists. Therefore, destination marketing for attracting first-time visitors should focus on building a strong, positive image with a destination's attributes. Contrastingly, repeat visitors in their research were more driven by their emotional attachment to a destination. Hence, Morais and Lin (2010) suggested that promotional efforts for repeat visitors should emphasize people's personal bond with a destination and highlight repeat tourist's emotional meanings that they developed from their previous experiences.

Chi (2010) studied a group of people who visited a destination in the southern United States regarding their destination loyalty. This research found that satisfaction had significant influence on loyalty for first-time visitors but not for repeaters. Factors such as personal attachment, trust, and commitment are more important than satisfaction in influencing repeat visitors' intention to visit a destination again. For attracting repeat visitors, Chi (2010) provided strategies such as building clubs and online communities that foster repeat visitors' personal connections, trust, and commitment.

METHODOLOGY

This study included an on-site survey in Metamora on every weekend of October. A group of research assistants invited visitors to participate in the survey at various spots in Metamora throughout the days. The survey instrument was a self-administered questionnaire composed of questions regarding visitors’ travel decision making and travel behavior such as when they decided to visit Metamora and how long they planned to stay in the destination. The instrument also contains questions related to visitors’ reasons for visiting Metamora, satisfaction, perceptions of uniqueness of the destination, and visitors’ demographics. Items that measured reasons for visiting were based on previous travel motivation and destination marketing studies (Bieger & Laessar, 2002; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Lee, Lee, & Wicks, 2004; LeBlanc, 2004; Kerstetter & Mowrer, 1998; Snepenger, King, Marshall, & Uysal, 2006; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

RESULTS

A total of 449 completed questionnaires were collected. The characteristics of the respondents are shown in Table 1. For both first-time and repeat visitors, more than one half were female. The percentage of female is larger for the repeat visitor group than that of the first-time visitor group. The demographic results show that first-time visitors tend to be younger than repeat visitors. There is a 38% of first-time visitors aged 46 or above while 54.7% of repeat visitors aged 46 or above. These findings suggest that a significant percentage of people who visited Metamora were women aged 36 and above.

Table 1: Visitor demographics

Variable	First-time Visitors		Repeat Visitors	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Gender				
Male	43	37.4%	99	29.6%
Female	72	62.6%	235	70.4%
Age				
18-24	36	31.9%	25	7.4%
25-35	21	18.6%	49	14.6%
36-45	13	11.5%	78	23.2%
46-55	22	19.5%	67	19.9%
56-65	9	7.9%	68	20.2%
Above 65	12	10.6%	49	14.6%

There is a question on the survey that asked respondents when they decided to visit Metamora. The results are presented in Table 2. Among the first-time visitors, only 29.3 % of them

planned their visit more than two weeks ahead while a little more than half (51.7%) of repeat visitors planned their visit more than 2 weeks ahead. It is worth of noticing that there is a 22.2% of repeat visitors decided to visit Metamora more than two months prior to their trip while only 4.3% of first-time visitors did that.

Table 2: Travel planning

Variable	First-time Visitors		Repeat Visitors	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Today	12	10.3%	51	15.0%
Less than a week ago	30	25.9%	54	16.4%
A week ago	37	31.9%	52	15.8%
2 to 4 weeks ago	19	16.4%	56	17.0%
1 to 2 months ago	10	8.6%	41	12.5%
More than 2 months ago	5	4.3%	73	22.2%

Visitors' travel motivation was measured on a 5-point, Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) to indicate why they visited Metamora. Table 3 presents the mean scores of motivational items and rankings of them. Both first-time and repeat visitors rated "to enjoy the scenery" as the strongest reason for visiting the destination. Other items that were rated as strong motivation by both groups are "to enjoy company of friends and family", "to enjoy small town atmosphere", and "to shop at local stores." Surprisingly, given Metamora's positioning strategy that it is a historical destination, "to learn about local culture and history" was found to be the weakest travel motivation for both first-time and repeat visitors.

Table 3: Mean scores and rankings for travel motivation

Variable	First-time Visitors		Repeat Visitors		Significance*
	Mean	Ranking	Mean	Ranking	
To enjoy the small town atmosphere	4.06	3	4.35	3	.023
To shop at local stores	3.98	5	4.24	4	.078
To enjoy local restaurants/coffee shops	3.88	7	4.01	7	.339
To visit unique local attractions	4.07	2	4.14	6	.357
To enjoy the scenery	4.21	1	4.43	1	.004
To attend an event/festival	3.57	9	3.99	9	.009
To get away from my normal routine	3.90	6	4.19	5	.029
To learn about local culture and history	3.52	10	3.50	10	.622
To enjoy company of friends and family	4.02	4	4.38	2	.127
To support the community	3.59	8	4.00	8	.001

Note: Items were measured on a 5-point, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

*Level of significance using t-test

The survey results indicate that repeat visitors spent more time in Metamora than first-time visitors did. The statistics in Table 4 show that 59.1% of repeat visitors spent more than four hours in the destination while 38.0% of first-time visitors spent more than four hours.

Table 4: Length of stay in Metamora

	First-time Visitors		Repeat Visitors	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
0-2 hours	19	16.4%	38	11.4%
3-4 hours	52	44.8%	98	29.4%
5-6 hours	27	23.3%	117	35.1%
7-8 hours	9	7.8%	46	13.8%
Overnight stay	8	6.9%	34	10.2%

The study measured people’s perceived uniqueness of various attractions/activities in Metamora. Survey participants were given a list of things to see and to do in the destination and were asked to rate them on a 5-point, Likert-type scale ranging from not unique at all (1) to very unique (5). Scenery was rated as the most unique attribute of Metamora by both first-time and repeat visitors. The Canal Boat was ranked by both first-time and repeat visitors as the second most unique aspect of the destination. While first-time visitors ranked the gristmill as the third most unique thing in Metamora, this attraction was not ranked as high by repeat visitors. Instead, repeat visitors considered shopping as the third most unique aspect of the destination. Special events or festivals were thought as significantly more unique by repeat visitors than by first-time visitors. As discussed above, a good percentage of repeat visitors decided their visit more far ahead than repeat visitors did. When analyzing those findings together, it is likely that many repeat visitors were more interested in attending special events and thus planned their trip more far ahead given there are many annual events that take place at the same time of the year.

Table 5: Mean scores and rankings for uniqueness of Metamora

	First-time Visitors		Repeat Visitors		Significance*
	Mean	Ranking	Mean	Ranking	
The Canal Boat	4.15	2	4.26	2	.790
Grist Mill	4.02	3	4.04	6	.902
The Whitewater Valley Railroad Train Ride	3.98	4	4.12	4	.962
Horse and Carriage Ride	3.60	8	3.82	8	.049
Special Events/Festivals	3.69	7	4.11	5	.037
Shopping	3.87	5	4.13	3	.154
Restaurants	3.70	6	3.90	7	.422
Scenery	4.25	1	4.41	1	.069

Note: Items were measured on a 5-point, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not unique at all) to 5 (very unique).

*Level of significance using t-test

Survey participants' satisfaction with their visit was measured on a 5-point, Likert type scale ranging from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (5). Table 6 shows the mean scores and ranking of visitors' satisfaction with different tourist offerings in the destination. These results indicate that two groups of tourists have different satisfaction judgments. Both first-time and repeat visitors rated 'small town atmosphere' and 'friendly local people' as the top two satisfaction items. First-time visitors were quite satisfied with variety of outdoor recreational activities while it was not ranked as high by repeat visitors. Instead, repeat visitors rated "variety of shopping items" as the third most satisfying factor. Repeat visitors were more satisfied with special events/festivals than first-time visitors. Regarding the cultural experience, it was the weakest travel motivation for both first-time and repeat visitors. When it comes to their satisfaction, cultural experience was not ranked high by both groups of visitors either.

Table 6: Mean scores and rankings for visitor satisfaction

Variable	First-time Visitors		Repeat Visitors		Significance*
	Mean	Ranking	Mean	Ranking	
Small town atmosphere	4.21	1	4.49	1	.087
Variety of shopping items	3.98	5	4.26	3	.336
Quality of shopping items	3.92	6	4.15	7	.972
Variety of restaurants/coffee shops	3.88	7	4.02	9	.931
Interesting local attractions	4.02	4	4.22	4	.917
Special events/festivals	3.65	9	4.21	5	.030
Variety of things to see and to do	3.81	8	4.19	6	.214
Availability of tourist information	3.65	9	3.96	10	.020
Friendly local people	4.18	2	4.31	2	.232
Authentic cultural experience	3.98	5	4.15	7	.572
Variety of outdoor recreational activities	4.10	3	4.10	8	.402

Note: Items were measured on a 5-point, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied).

*Level of significance using t-test

Two items on the survey measured visitors' overall opinions about the destination. To measure their overall satisfaction, respondents were asked to answer one question: "How would you rank your overall experience in Metamora?" The question was measured on a 5-point, Likert type scale ranging from highly dissatisfaction to highly satisfied. Survey participants were also asked to answer another question: "After my experience in Metamora, I consider it to be a highly desirable destination." This question was measured on a 5-point, Likert type scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The results are presented in Table 7. Repeat visitors gave higher ratings on both items than first-time visitors did.

Table 7: Assessment of overall experience

Variable	First-time Visitors	Repeat Visitors	Significance*
	Mean	Mean	
How would you rank your overall experience in Metamora?	4.09	4.42	.063
After my experience in Metamora, I consider it to be a highly desirable destination.	3.76	4.41	.058

*Level of significance using t-test

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Some of the results from the second survey are similar to those from the first survey. Both surveys show that women of age between 36 and 55 represented a significant percentage of Metamora's visitors. Both surveys found the destination received a high percentage of repeat visitors. These findings imply that most people who visited the destination would return. However, the challenge is how to attract first-time visitors with very limited budget for advertising.

The results of this study echo previous research (Anwar & Sohail, 2004; Chi, 2010; Morais & Lin, 2010; Lau & McKercher, 2004; Shanka & Taylor, 2004) that first-time and repeat visitors differ in many ways. The second survey of this study identified many differences between first-time and repeat visitors. Regarding travel motivation, this study found similar phenomenon that Lau and McKercher (2004) discovered in their study. The first-time visitors were attracted to Metamora for its unique local attraction because they wanted to explore new and different experiences. However, the same motive was found not as important for repeat visitors. Instead, the repeat visitors return to the destination to satisfy their own interests. In this case, they wanted to shop and to spend time with their friends and family in a beautiful, relaxing place.

This study found that repeat visitors spent more time in Metamora than first-time visitors did. Repeat visitors also rated all Metamora attributes higher than first-time visitors did except "variety of outdoor recreational activities" which both groups gave the same rating. Furthermore, repeat visitors had better overall experience than first-time visitors did even though it was not significantly better. Overall, Metamora received better evaluations from repeat visitors in terms of uniqueness of Metamora, satisfaction with Metamora's tourism offerings, and overall experience.

Metamora prides itself for its history and culture and has been positioned as a historical canal town when attracting tourists. However, both surveys found that among many travel motives, culture is weakest reason for visiting the town. Both survey results point out the stronger reasons for visiting are scenery, shopping, spending time with friends and family, and to enjoy the small town atmosphere. Those travel motives remain strong for different groups of visitors and those who visited Metamora at different times of the year.

In a study of cultural tourists in Hong Kong, McKercher and du Cros (2002) identified several different types of cultural tourists ranging from people who travel primarily to visit cultural attractions for deep and authentic cultural experiences to those who do not travel mainly for cultural tourism reasons and are only interested in some shallow cultural experiences. They also suggested that only a very small percentage of tourists are really interested in learning culture and heritage. The majority of tourists are more interested in collecting a wide array of shallow, entertaining, and convenience-based cultural experiences rather than seeking in-depth knowledge of culture. Interestingly, the results of this study reflect McKercher and du Cros's (2002) findings. The majority of tourists did not visit Metamora to learn local culture and history. Instead, they wanted to spend time with their family and friends to enjoy a small American town and to shop for unique items. This important finding suggests that there is a need for Metamora to modify their positioning strategy. Although the horse-drawn canal boat ride, the gristmill, and the old train are unique cultural selling points for Metamora, these alone may not be enough to market the destination. McKercher and du Cros's (2002) stated that promoting culture as the main travel reason could be counterproductive because more people do not travel to learn about culture and history. Thus, depending solely on cultural and historical appeal may miss the bigger picture. Due to the decline of tourism volume, Metamora is in great need to attract more visitors. Therefore, perhaps the destination should position itself as a beautiful, small town getaway with cultural offerings and fun for the whole family. This positioning can help the destination to better portray itself to broader potential tourists that Metamora is more than just culture and history.

Furthermore, some of the cultural attractions such as the canal boat ride and the old train do not operate daily and are open from May through October only. Therefore, many visitors do not get to experience the culture and history as their current advertising claim they would. It is important that Metamora emphasize more on its scenery, shopping and outdoor recreational opportunities for people who cannot experience the cultural attractions when they are not available.

Some respondents commented on the second survey that Metamora is not as authentic as it used to be. Some repeat visitors mentioned on the second survey that the town used to have more local artists who made and sold unique handcrafts and art work. This is because many artists left Metamora over the years and there is only handful of artists left. Additionally, some survey participants felt that many items at many shops are repetitive and were not satisfied with "commercial" like souvenirs that can be found everywhere else.

As the survey results show, shopping can be a main reason why people visit Metamora. Although the destination promotes itself as a place where people can experience the American culture in the 19th century, visitors did not find too many store items that are related to the time period and culture. For people who visit the town when the major cultural and historical attractions are not open, there is very little left for them to see and to experience the 1800s of the U.S. This indicates another problem that visitors' real experience may not be what the destination claims in their marketing effort.

Shopping is one of the main activities for tourists in Metamora. Many visitors look for unique shopping items that are made by local people and something that are related to the history in the town such as the canal, the railroad, and the gristmill. Therefore, it is imperative for Metamora to provide more unique and authentic shopping items.

Lastly, in order to help visitors experience more of the culture in the 19th century in Metamora, demonstrations of food and handcraft making of that time period will make the experience more authentic and interactive. As the survey results indicate, many visitors brought their family and friends to the destination, Metamora needs to offer more special events, attractions, and activities in order to make it an enjoyable destination for the whole family and to be a more year-round destination.

REFERENCES

- Anwar, S., & Sohail, S. (2004). Festival tourism in the United Arab Emirates: First-time versus repeat visitor perceptions. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 10(2), 161 – 170.
- Bieger, T. & Laessar, C. (2002). Market segmentation by motivation: The case of Switzerland. *Journal of Travel Research*, 41, 68-76.
- Chi, C. G.-Q. (2010). An examination of destination loyalty: Differences between first-time and repeat visitors. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 1096348010382235.
- Fakeye, P. C. & Crompton, J. L. (1991). Image differences between prospective, First-time, and repeat visitors to the lower Rio Grande Valley, *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(2), 10-16.
- Kerstetter, D. L. & Mowrer, P. (1998). Individuals' reasons for attending first night: A unique cultural event, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 5, 139-146.
- LeBlanc, M. (2004). Tourist Characteristics and their interest in attending festivals and events: An Anglophone/Francophone case study of New Brunswick, Canada. *Event Management*, 8(4), 203-212.

- Lee, C, Lee, Y, & Wicks, B. (2004). Segmentation of festival motivation by nationality and satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, 25, 61-70.
- Lau, A. & McKercher, B., (2004). Exploration Versus Acquisition: A comparison of first-time and repeat visitors. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43, 279-285.
- McKercher, B. & du Cros, H. (2002). *Cultural tourism: The partnership between tourism and cultural heritage management*. New York: The Haworth Hospitality Press.
- Morais, D. B. & Lin, C. (2010). Why do first-time and repeat visitors patronize a destination? *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27, 193-210.
- Shanka, T., & Taylor, R. (2004). Discriminating factors of first-time and repeat visitors to wine festivals. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 7(2), 134 – 145.
- Snepenger, D., King, J., Marshall, E., & Uysal, M. (2006). Modeling Iso-Ahola's motivation theory in the tourism context. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45, 140-149.
- Tapachai, N. & Waryszak, R. (2000). An examination of the role of beneficial image in tourist destination selection. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39, 37-44.
- Yoon, Y. & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effect of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: A structural model. *Tourism Management*, 26, 45-56.

Tourism and the application of environmental legislation: the case of Rhodes, Greece.

Christina Loi
Andreas Papatheodorou
Kyriaki Glyptou

ch.loi.moustaka@hotmail.com
a.papatheodorou@aegean.gr
k.glyptou@fme.aegean.gr

ABSTRACT

Sustainable development is a strategic objective of the international tourism policy especially since the Earth Summit in 1992. Within the framework of policy for the sustainable tourism development, an international legal framework has been put in place, which in several ways seeks to harmonize the tourism development with the protection of the environment. The effectiveness of this legal framework depends on several factors, among which is its integrity, internal consistency, its applicability etc. At the same time, a particularly important parameter is the acceptance of this framework by the local communities and the realism in its application. This study examines the existing international and national legislative framework regarding sustainable tourism development and seeks to investigate especially for the island of Rhodes, a) whether the framework is rightfully applied, and b) in case that it is not or only partly applied, the reasons for this lack of compliance. The results of this study indicate that while the existing legal regime allows the regulation of the relations between tourism development and environmental protection, these laws largely do not apply to the island of Rhodes, either in terms of prevention and/or in terms of repression.

Keywords: island, environmental legislation, tourism development, Rhodes

INTRODUCTION

The coastal areas which have an abundance of natural resources have always been of considerable interest since significant economic activities took place in these areas, while the physical configuration of the coastline allowed the development of fisheries, trading and an extensive urban and industrial development (May & Vincent, 1994). Due to the importance of these areas, a large percentage of the population gathered around them, creating the need for developing infrastructure and facilities for their convenience. Thereby transportation facilities have been built in this environment such as airports, ports, roads and more (Coccosis & Mexa, 2002).

Tourism industry draws its power from fragile sources such as the environment, history and culture. On the one hand, that contributes to the economic vitality of a region, creating direct jobs and foreign exchange earnings, but on the other hand it creates environmental and social burdens which usually impede the smooth functioning of the local community and local tourism. There are plenty of examples in the universal reality which indicate that unbridled, unplanned or improper development of tourism brings quick financial benefits in the short-term, however, in long-terms, it leads to low quality of tourist activity (Barioulet, 2001).

At a very early stage people who study the phenomenon of tourism indicated the necessity for implementing policies concerning its controlled development (Miller & Ditton 1986). Tourism activities are conducted on specific tourism infrastructure, however the consequences of the poor and unplanned use of coastal areas, have an impact on the life-quality of the local populations (Smith, 1989).

The result of tourism development is the intense urbanization around the coastal areas and the commercialization of land which always inevitably lead to the environmental change and deterioration (Wilkinson, 1989).

The consequences of tourism in coastal areas are often extremely difficult to be identified because at the same areas, other human activities are developed which are not purely touristic (Zanetto & Soriani, 1996). The environmental issues resulting from tourism growth showed a great outbreak, mainly after 1980 and their causes can be attributed to both the physical presence of a large crowd and the activities in the areas of large aggregation (Logothetis, 2004). Several international organizations related to tourism, environment and culture (WCO, UNEP, UNESCO, etc.) in order to deal with these issues, suggest that any kind of tourism activity should be planned, managed and developed so that it can be environmentally-friendly in the long term, bring sustainable economic benefits to developed areas, be morally and socially compatible with local communities to ensure the conservation of natural and cultural assets for future generations (Farsari & Prastacos, 2005).

This is the meaning of serving the principles of sustainable development. Specifically, the term sustainable development, according to the text of the Commission, as it was agreed by the General Assembly of the UN Conference in Rio, is defined as the development that meets the needs of today without depriving the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). The concept of sustainable development illustrates an effort to reconcile or to provide a balance between economic, social, and environmental factors (Berke & Conroy, 2000).

Yet, one of the primary issues arising upon discussing on Sustainable Development is that the notion is rather concerned with processes rather than outcomes, As such international literature on the topic (UNWTO, 2004; UNEP and UNWTO, 2005; Frame and Cavanagh, 2009) relates primarily to how sustainable tourism might be achieved and what the implications may be instead of dictating explicitly how sustainable tourism development might look “on

the ground". In this regard, the notion allows for a plethora of interpretations and application approaches.

Nevertheless, what they all have in common is the simultaneous consideration for the three aforementioned pillars of sustainability (economic performance; social cohesion and environmental preservation) and the perception that despite the lack of explicit specification, Sustainability should be considered as a process of continuous improvements. Thus, Sustainable Tourism Development is primarily considered as a managerial process whose guidelines and principles are applicable to all forms of tourism in all types of destinations, aiming to establish the suitable balance between the different dimensions of the tourism system, the different actors involved (stakeholders) and as such, to guarantee its long-term viability.

Considering the accomplishment of Sustainable Tourism as a process of coordinated and continuous management, many scholars (Bramwell et al, 1996; Swarbrooke, 1999) and institutions (UNEP and UNWTO, 2007; EU ETIS 2013) along the years agree in a number of guiding principles. Initially, the approach sees planning and management as essential responses to effective policy and decision making on issues related to tourism sustainability. The above is very much related to the consideration that there are limitations to growth and that tourism must be managed within these limits in order to guarantee long-term viability of resources along the quality of the offered product implying a meaningful experience for the tourists. In this regard, long-term thinking is necessary rather than focusing on short-term benefits.

Moreover, what it is essential to keep in mind, particularly in insular destinations where the environment is subject to excess limitations and quality constraints (waste management; water provision; land use occupation etc.) is that while sustainable development should be a goal for all policies and actions, the pursuit of sustainable tourism in practice occasionally should pre-consider that in reality there will be limitations regarding what will be achieved in the short and medium term. As sustainability is a continuous process, it thus should be based on the constant monitoring of performances and impacts which enables the acute introduction of the necessary preventive or corrective measures whenever necessary.

Most importantly though, Sustainable Tourism Management is a process where all stakeholders need to be consulted and empowered in tourism planning and decision making. They all need to be informed and educated about sustainable development issues and a strong political leadership is necessary to ensure wide participation and consensus building among all the involved parties. This requires primarily an extensive understanding of the operational dynamics of Tourism System balance and market economies, and particularly of the culture and management procedures in order to deal effectively with conflicts and trade-offs that may frequently arise and to balancing of costs and benefits in decisions during the different courses of action. Finally, what appears to be a common misconception is that Sustainable Tourism merely prioritizes in the environmental dimension of tourism development. In reality though, the process simultaneously considers also the economic, social, cultural, political

and managerial dimensions of the phenomenon, and as such it entails a prominent concern for long-term equality and fairness. Nevertheless it should be stated here that both natural and cultural (man-made) environment are assigned particular importance in the framework of the Sustainability concept, since they compose the vital resource for tourism development, the element of differentiation and uniqueness and as such one of the most essential potential competitive advantages of a destination, not to mention their constrained capacity for rejuvenation and replacement in cases of inadequate preservation and management.

In light of the above, the balance between tourism development and the environment is guaranteed by international agreements and conventions signed by Greece as well, such as the Rio Convention (1992) on the environment, Agenda 21, which was incorporated into the Treaty of Maastricht (1992) concerning the sustainable development, the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism (1999) and others (Logothetis, 2004). It is expected that because of the existence of such a broad framework of legal rules, there would not be a problem of protection of the coastal areas from Greek tourism development. The reality is different.

Greece, with the highly attractive natural environment, the favourable weather conditions and the cultural heritage, is very attractive for tourists. The constant but imprudent development of tourism pressed hard in the long term the natural environment and the local culture, bringing the danger of serious degradation of these two elements. The most pressure-sensitive are coastal tourist areas where the main bulk of tourists are gathered along with a large proportion of the local population.

In the international literature, Greece often ranks between the Member States of the European Union with the largest deficit in the implementation of EU legislation on environment and sustainable development. Taking under consideration the above and in response to events indicating environmental degradation in the island of Rhodes, the aim of the present study is to investigate a) to what extent the legislation for the sustainable tourism development is applied in the island of Rhodes and b) in case that it is not or only partly applied, the reasons for this lack of compliance. The survey will focus on different stakeholders in the island of Rhodes: administrative bodies (state) and residents in order to consider the different perceptions of the involved actors.

In this regard, the study is in line with the aforementioned principles of Sustainable Tourism Management by first trying to establish and further analyse simultaneously the variations in stakeholders' perceptions over a common phenomenon, thus trying to pave the way for a common consensus over a topic of common interest. On a second stage, the study addresses the systemic nature of sustainability by employing different dimensions of the tourism phenomenon, in this case environmental, legislative, political, administrative and of course managerial into the planning and decision making process.

The paper is structured in the following sections: After this introductory part, a short section describes the specificities and the case study context in the island of Rhodes, Greece. A section

on the Methodology then explains the rationale applied during the process of collecting data and formulating the questionnaire. The next section presents the key findings of the statistical analysis performed and the perceptions expressed over some of the main evaluation statements. Finally, the paper concludes with a discussion on the main findings of the study.

CASE STUDY CONTEXT

This study starts with the observation that the environment in the island of Rhodes receives intense pressures due to the increased tourism development. These pressures are associated with traffic congestion, overcrowding in the organized beaches, water shortages, power cuts, noise, effects of aesthetic pollution, indiscriminate interventions in the landscape, unauthorized building and more.

The 1960s for the island of Rhodes was a period when environment balanced with tourism and territorial planning. The environment, natural and cultural structured, was hardly affected and tourism was of good quality, on controlled scale, while it has to be said that as far as the level of territorial planning is concerned there was on the one hand a good organization of space inherited from the Italian period and on the other hand a modest level of development which had not yet overturned the balance of the past. There followed a period which continues until today, which brought to the island of Rhodes changes that significantly disrupted the previous balance (Papachristodoulou, 2010)

Rhodes is currently one of the most popular international tourist destinations of the Eastern Mediterranean. The history, the natural environment, the widespread beaches, the favourable weather conditions, the cultural tradition and the high level of the hotel capacity contributed to its international recognition and reputation in the international tourist markets (Logothetis, 2013). In the recent years, Rhodes Island accommodates more than 1.6 million foreign tourists of who 90% comes with charter flights airplanes (charters) and 180,000 nationals. In addition to the tourists that stay for several days, the island annually receives approximately 680,000 one- day visitors from cruise ships. It features 90,000 hotel bed places with high specifications and 13,000 bed places in auxiliary tourist accommodations. According to the arrivals of foreign tourists with charters flights at Diagoras Airport of Rhodes, which is the most reliable indicator of tourist traffic, the arrivals in 2011 reached the number of 1,735,164. The guarantee of the balance between tourism and the environment of the island results from national legislation and international legislation. Nevertheless, despite the existence of the relevant legislation in Rhodes there is a range of environmental issues which have to do with traffic congestion, overcrowding in the organized beaches, water shortages, power cuts, noise, effects of aesthetic pollution, indiscriminate interventions in the landscape and unauthorized building. All these effects highlight the subject of applicability of the relevant environmental legislation.

METHODOLOGY

The island of Rhodes is one of the most popular destinations in Greece and one of the most remarkable in European level. It successfully combines the medieval tradition with modern development and has become a modern cosmopolitan resort with a medieval culture.

However, the rise of tourism development in Rhodes, without the required planning, led to the appearance of a series of environmental issues which have to do with traffic congestion, overcrowding in the organized beaches, water shortages, power cuts, noise, effects of aesthetic pollution, indiscriminate interventions in the landscape, unauthorized building and more. All these effects highlight the subject of applicability of the relevant environmental legislation in the island of Rhodes.

This survey has the ultimate objective of investigating and analysing the subject in order to draw conclusions and create the conditions for the presentation of proposals on that must follow a specific methodological framework, that will define its development and ensure its validity (Pizam, 1994). It is likely that a survey may be affected by many factors which will affect its development, so it is necessary to mention these factors in order to protect the conduct of the survey and to ensure its conclusions (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

COLLECTION OF DATA

In order to reply to the above issues - survey objectives, it was chosen to collect as many as possible of the views of the administrative bodies which are called upon to apply the legislation and of the residents of the most tourist regions of the island.

An important tool in the stage of survey and data collection was the formulation and the sending of a specialized questionnaire. As far as the selection of the sample of the survey is concerned, we had to decide on two basic subjects. The first one was the number of questionnaires which would be completed and the second one was the professional, social, and geographical composition of the sample in order to be representative.

The administrative bodies of the island that were invited to contribute to the effort by filling out the questionnaire were the Directorate for Urban Planning of the Municipality of Rhodes, The Department of Hydro economy and Environment of the South Aegean Region, the Department of Environment and Physical Planning of the South Aegean Region, the Land Service of the State, the Greek National Tourism Organization (“EOT”) Tourist establishments – The Planning Department, the Directorate for Health of the South Aegean Region, the Forest Directorate of the Region, the Inspection Department of Fire Service, the Port Authority and the Police Department of Dodecanese.

The tourist regions which were selected to contribute to the effort by completing the questionnaire were the city of Rhodes, the tourist triangle “Cretika”, Ialysos, Faliraki and Kalathas,

Lardos, Lindos, Pefkoi, Gennadi, Kiotari and Lahania. According to the census of 2011, the population of these regions including the city of Rhodes amounts to 66 439 residents. Moreover, strong emphasis was placed on the representation of all social groups in the random sample. A rate of approximately 1% of these regions was considered as being satisfactory to express to a quite indicative level the views and assessments of the local population about the subject of the survey. In total, the survey involved 680 people.

Furthermore, a series of personal interviews took place with legal experts, scientific experts in environmental issues, officials, who did not complete the questionnaire and representatives of the Municipal Councils of the tourist regions of Rhodes. The semi structured or semi directed interview was chosen, which is widely used for qualitative research. This is an almost open approach, consisting of an interview plan, with an initial pronunciation / Directive and a list of issues / questions to be discussed, without exact order. (Dever, 1995). By this way, a two-way communication was established between the interviewer and the interviewee, allowing the exchange of clarifications and the better investigation of the issues in depth.

THE DESIGN OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire is a standard format for the collection and the recording of specific and relevant to the subject information with a reasonable degree of accuracy and completeness. In other words, it guides the process of data collection and promotes the recording of them in a systematic manner (Luck D.Rubi, R., 1987). It was decided to make use of the questionnaire of closed questions or questions with defined answers, which was constructed on three levels.

In the present paper, a five-point Likert scale (ranging from “not at all” to “very much”) was used, where the respondent is asked to state his/her view for the degree of validity of the proposal that we set (Komili, 1989, Kyriazis, 1999). The formulation of the questionnaire has been a difficult stage in the process, because we attempted to include questions formulated in such a way in order to lead to the objectives of the survey without complicating those involved. With these basic principles, a draft questionnaire was prepared that includes questions which are divided into four categories. The first category of questions concerns the identity of the sample. The second category concerns the views of the local population about the extent of the implementation of legislation on a) the natural environment, b) built environment, and c) the cultural environment of Rhodes. More specifically in this chapter of the questionnaire specific subcategories are included for forest law and planning legislation, the marine and coastal environment, because they are very important fields of the environment, affected by tourism. The third category of questions concerns the views of the respondents on the implementation of the principles of sustainable tourism development in Rhodes. As far as the application of the legislation in each field is concerned, the clarity of the legislation, the functioning of control mechanisms, the staffing of the competent services, the level of knowledge of the legislation by the authorities, the coordination between the services and the quality of legislation were examined. The fourth and final category aims to investigate, since the legislation is not applicable, the reason for this disapplication.

Several groups of people were contacted in every concerned region, for the geographical coverage of the sample of the survey. These were responsible for sending and collecting the questionnaires from their area of responsibility. These groups consisted of elected members of municipal councils of the concerned regions. The survey was conducted during the years 2012, 2013.

The analysis of the survey data was conducted with the use of the statistical program SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences), version 21.0. The survey data were codified and recorded into a data file in order to be possible to be analysed and processed. Data analysis began with the definition of variables and the inclusion in the program of any information relating to the variable. All data and information collected during the survey are confidential, in accordance with the Code Ethics and Deontology. For this reason, we made clear to the respondents that their answers are strictly confidential and will only be used for the purposes of the survey.

FINDINGS

From the assessment of the environmental problems in the island of Rhodes that was based on the available information and the usage of specific methodology which consisted of multiple indicators, it has been shown that within the study area there are significant problems that prevent the application of legislation on sustainable tourism development of the island. The most important problems are the misapplication of legislation on the protection of coastal areas by the competent public services, the lack of control and imposing fines mechanisms, the understaffing of the competent public services with sufficient and specialized staff and the lack of a comprehensive national strategy for the protection of the fragile coastal regions. The estimation of the average value of the survey results and the comparison of data concerning the average value from various groups or different properties are presented in the following ANOVA tables.

It is argued that the composition of the survey sample in relation to their profession largely corresponds to the objectives of the survey which is the recording of the views and evaluations of the economically active population of the island of Rhodes, focusing on the Administrative bodies responsible for the application of the legislation and on the residents of the most tourist regions of the island.

The geographical composition of the sample may seem to represent mostly the population of the city of Rhodes, but it has very satisfactorily geographically covered all the study regions as well.

Table 1: Do you believe that the State applies the regulations for the protection of the Valley of Butterflies as a region of outstanding natural beauty in Rhodes?

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	18.399	3	6.133	27.658	.000
	Within Groups	149.901	676	.222		
	Total	168.300	679			
Age	Between Groups	13.595	3	4.532	3.987	.008
	Within Groups	768.405	676	1.137		
	Total	782.000	679			
Family Situation	Between Groups	35.186	3	11.729	18.003	.000
	Within Groups	440.389	676	.651		
	Total	475.575	679			
Education Level	Between Groups	133.482	3	44.494	24.876	.000
	Within Groups	1209.093	676	1.789		
	Total	1342.575	679			
Employment	Between Groups	162.190	3	54.063	4.054	.007
	Within Groups	9013.985	676	13.334		
	Total	9176.175	679			
Place of residence	Between Groups	64.345	3	21.448	33.167	.000
	Within Groups	437.155	676	.647		
	Total	501.500	679			

As far as the application of the regulations of protection of the Valley of Butterflies is concerned, the vast majority of the respondents of the survey claim that legislation is either not applied at all or seldom applied (Table 1). While the State is responsible for the conservation of the biological diversity of Rhodes and should have developed national strategic projects and programs on the conservation and sustainable use of these biological resources (L.2204 / 1994), the majority of the survey sample considers that this is not applied, as the Valley of Butterflies is not protected, eventually, in breach of the relevant legislation.

Table 2: Do you believe that the solid waste management by the municipality of Rhodes is made in a way so that raw materials can be saved and reused (recycling)?

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	6.853	3	2.284	9.564	.000
	Within Groups	161.447	676	.239		
	Total	168.300	679			
Age	Between Groups	19.212	3	6.404	5.675	.001
	Within Groups	762.788	676	1.128		
	Total	782.000	679			
Family Situation	Between Groups	22.823	3	7.608	11.359	.000
	Within Groups	452.752	676	.670		
	Total	475.575	679			
Education Level	Between Groups	25.741	3	8.580	4.405	.004
	Within Groups	1316.834	676	1.948		
	Total	1342.575	679			
Employment	Between Groups	746.323	3	248.774	19.950	.000
	Within Groups	8429.852	676	12.470		
	Total	9176.175	679			
Place of Residence	Between Groups	26.671	3	8.890	12.657	.000
	Within Groups	474.829	676	.702		
	Total	501.500	679			

The solid waste management is not done in a proper way so that the raw materials can be saved and reused (Table 2). According to the majority of the survey sample, in Rhodes, it is obvious that articles of ministerial decisions and Presidential Decrees are infringed in the points which concern the organization of the state and the local authorities for the implementation of recycling programs and the information- awareness of citizens about the value of recycling which can be found only in some lectures of voluntary groups in elementary schools in the city of Rhodes.

The legislation for the noise protection of the Medieval City as a World Heritage monument is not applied according to a high percentage of the respondents of the survey, even though there is the relevant legislation which provides for the maximum permitted levels of sound and the timetable of music (Table 3). This is related to three facts; whether the owners of the

night-time entertainment venues do not apply the legislation, ignoring the fines imposed on them, either the fines imposed on them are not those which the law provides for, or that there is not an adequate control made by the competent authorities in order to stop them.

Table 3: Do you believe that the State applies the noise protection legislation in the case of the Medieval City of Rhodes?

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	14.306	4	3.577	15.677	.000
	Within Groups	153.994	675	.228		
	Total	168.300	679			
Age	Between Groups	128.505	4	32.126	33.184	.000
	Within Groups	653.495	675	.968		
	Total	782.000	679			
Family Situation	Between Groups	35.759	4	8.940	13.720	.000
	Within Groups	439.816	675	.652		
	Total	475.575	679			
Education Level	Between Groups	240.296	4	60.074	36.787	.000
	Within Groups	1102.279	675	1.633		
	Total	1342.575	679			
Employment	Between Groups	157.642	4	39.410	2.950	.020
	Within Groups	9018.533	675	13.361		
	Total	9176.175	679			
Place of Residence	Between Groups	116.707	4	29.177	51.182	.000
	Within Groups	384.793	675	.570		
	Total	501.500	679			

Moreover, the port authorities in Rhodes have not ensured the required facilities for the reception and accommodation of ships at the ports of Rhodes, according to the majority of the respondents of the survey (Table 4). It is very likely that the articles 5, 9 and 17 of the Presidential Decree, with the number 55/1998 titled 'on terrestrial facilities for the reception of ships' are infringed at the ports of Rhodes. However, it is noted that a low percentage of the respondents of the survey, declares that there are the required facilities for the reception and accommodation of ships at the ports of Rhodes. These people observe the general increase of tourism in Rhodes and the existence of the cruise ships at the ports of the island.

As far as the sufficient protection of the biological diversity of the island is concerned, the vast majority of the respondents replied that either there is no protection of biological diversity or there is little (Table 5). A small percentage of the sample responded that there is enough or much. The majority of the sample understands that the rapid development of tourism in Rhodes which was accompanied by the increase of infrastructure and overexploitation of natural resources, the forest fires, the free grazing of sheep and goats, the illegal hunting and fishing are effects that increase the danger of extinction for several species of flora and fauna, resulting to the reduction of biological diversity of the island. Judging from the fact that these effects apply to a greater or to a lesser extent, it is established that many parts of the law with the number 3937/2011 for the protection of biological diversity and the law with the number 2204 /19 94, which provides for mechanisms to conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity at national and global level, are infringed.

Table 4: Have the port authorities in Rhodes ensured the necessary facilities for the reception and accommodation of ships at the ports of the island?

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	8.774	3	2.925	12.393	.000
	Within Groups	159.526	676	.236		
	Total	168.300	679			
Age	Between Groups	90.699	3	30.233	29.564	.000
	Within Groups	691.301	676	1.023		
	Total	782.000	679			
Family Situation	Between Groups	41.210	3	13.737	21.378	.000
	Within Groups	434.365	676	.643		
	Total	475.575	679			
Education Level	Between Groups	136.712	3	45.571	25.547	.000
	Within Groups	1205.863	676	1.784		
	Total	1342.575	679			
Employment	Between Groups	899.603	3	299.868	24.492	.000
	Within Groups	8276.572	676	12.243		
	Total	9176.175	679			
Place of Residence	Between Groups	56.215	3	18.738	28.447	.000
	Within Groups	445.285	676	.659		
	Total	501.500	679			

Moreover, the vast majority of respondents answered that the law which prevents the construction of any building or construct in the foreshore and the beach is either not applied at all or seldom applied. Despite the existence of legislation (the law with the number 2971 / 2001, titled “on the foreshore, and the beach”) it is noted that the foreshore and the beach are trampled on by illegal constructions, both by individuals and professionals (table 6). Furthermore, contrary to the law in force, which imposes that all the buildings or constructions which have been erected without authorization in the foreshore or beach are demolished, eventually, those buildings are not demolished (table 7).

Table 5: Do you believe that there is an adequate protection of the biological diversity of the island from the state?

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	16.441	3	5.480	24.395	.000
	Within Groups	151.859	676	.225		
	Total	168.300	679			
Age	Between Groups	96.584	3	32.195	31.752	.000
	Within Groups	685.416	676	1.014		
	Total	782.000	679			
Family Situation	Between Groups	43.607	3	14.536	22.748	.000
	Within Groups	431.968	676	.639		
	Total	475.575	679			
Education Level	Between Groups	41.479	3	13.826	7.184	.000
	Within Groups	1301.096	676	1.925		
	Total	1342.575	679			
Employment	Between Groups	273.328	3	91.109	6.918	.000
	Within Groups	8902.847	676	13.170		
	Total	9176.175	679			
Place of Residence	Between Groups	38.018	3	12.673	18.484	.000
	Within Groups	463.482	676	.686		
	Total	501.500	679			

Table 6: According to the legislation, the construction is not allowed in the foreshore and on the beach. Is this applied by the authorities in charge in Rhodes?

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	8.811	4	2.203	9.323	.000
	Within Groups	159.489	675	.236		
	Total	168.300	679			
Age	Between Groups	63.359	4	15.840	14.878	.000
	Within Groups	718.641	675	1.065		
	Total	782.000	679			
Family Situation	Between Groups	86.481	4	21.620	37.507	.000
	Within Groups	389.094	675	.576		
	Total	475.575	679			
Education Level	Between Groups	180.035	4	45.009	26.133	.000
	Within Groups	1162.540	675	1.722		
	Total	1342.575	679			
Employment	Between Groups	485.729	4	121.432	9.432	.000
	Within Groups	8690.446	675	12.875		
	Total	9176.175	679			
Place of Residence	Between Groups	35.598	4	8.899	12.893	.000
	Within Groups	465.902	675	.690		
	Total	501.500	679			

Table 7: All the buildings or constructions which have been erected without authorization in the foreshore or beach have to be demolished. Is this applied by the authorities in charge in Rhodes?

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	4.358	3	1.453	5.989	.000
	Within Groups	163.942	676	.243		
	Total	168.300	679			
Age	Between Groups	27.554	3	9.185	8.230	.000
	Within Groups	754.446	676	1.116		
	Total	782.000	679			
Family Situation	Between Groups	33.978	3	11.326	17.338	.000
	Within Groups	441.597	676	.653		
	Total	475.575	679			
Education Level	Between Groups	209.269	3	69.756	41.609	.000
	Within Groups	1133.306	676	1.676		
	Total	1342.575	679			
Employment	Between Groups	689.268	3	229.756	18.301	.000
	Within Groups	8486.907	676	12.555		
	Total	9176.175	679			
Place of Residence	Between Groups	21.257	3	7.086	9.974	.000
	Within Groups	480.243	676	.710		
	Total	501.500	679			

The maximum limit of building coefficient for tourist activities is either not adhered at all or seldom adhered by individuals and professionals. Therefore, it is noted that the article 18, par.1 of the law 2508/97, entitled 'on sustainable urban development and the maximum of building coefficient for tourist activities' and the related to these Decrees are infringed (table 8).

Table 8: In every region of Rhodes there is a maximum limit of building coefficient for tourist activities. Do you think that this limit is observed by the authorities in charge in Rhodes?

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	1.147	3	.382	1.546	.201
	Within Groups	167.153	676	.247		
	Total	168.300	679			
Age	Between Groups	39.189	3	13.063	11.888	.000
	Within Groups	742.811	676	1.099		
	Total	782.000	679			
Family Situation	Between Groups	20.297	3	6.766	10.045	.000
	Within Groups	455.278	676	.673		
	Total	475.575	679			
Education Level	Between Groups	237.403	3	79.134	48.404	.000
	Within Groups	1105.172	676	1.635		
	Total	1342.575	679			
Employment	Between Groups	1113.592	3	371.197	31.123	.000
	Within Groups	8062.583	676	11.927		
	Total	9176.175	679			
Place of Residence	Between Groups	48.889	3	16.296	24.339	.000
	Within Groups	452.611	676	.670		
	Total	501.500	679			

According to the majority of the respondents, the required controls for the compliance with the environmental conditions are not made by the competent services (table 9). It can be said that the vast majority of respondents who answered negatively obviously has realized that the environment of Rhodes (fauna, flora, soil, water, air, landscape), is negatively affected by the projects and activities undertaken. Clearly if the required controls were made, the negative effects on the environment would be significantly decreased. It is worth observing the categories of professions from which the percentage that responded that the controls undertaken are many is derived. In this case, as well, we observe that the largest proportion is derived from the business sector (hotel owners, craftsmen, merchants, travel agents). This is the industry that makes use of Environmental Impact Studies (EIS) and should legally apply them.

The vast majority of the sample noted that the legislation on the protection of the environment of Rhodes, is not at all or only partly applied (table 10). Over the years and with the arrival of more tourists to the island, there was an urgent need for expansion of the existing facilities and the creation of new ones. This resulted in a constant negative influence on the environment of the island, because of the exploitation of land and natural resources. These influences would not be so extensive and it would not be a negative experience for permanent residents if the relevant legislation was applied. The effects of fires, the reduction in the water supplies, electricity cuts, illegal construction, traffic problems, the alienation from our folk culture and others to a greater or lesser extent, lead the residents to the view that the environmental legislation is not applicable.

Table 9: Do you believe that the competent services of Rhodes make all the required controls for the construction of a project or activity in order to comply with the environmental conditions?

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	5.258	3	1.753	7.267	.000
	Within Groups	163.042	676	.241		
	Total	168.300	679			
Age	Between Groups	41.159	3	13.720	12.519	.000
	Within Groups	740.841	676	1.096		
	Total	782.000	679			
Family Situation	Between Groups	40.401	3	13.467	20.920	.000
	Within Groups	435.174	676	.644		
	Total	475.575	679			
Education Level	Between Groups	174.086	3	58.029	33.571	.000
	Within Groups	1168.489	676	1.729		
	Total	1342.575	679			
Employment	Between Groups	923.899	3	307.966	25.228	.000
	Within Groups	8252.276	676	12.208		
	Total	9176.175	679			
Place of Residence	Between Groups	29.811	3	9.937	14.241	.000
	Within Groups	471.689	676	.698		
	Total	501.500	679			

Table 10: Do you believe that the environmental legislation is thoroughly applied by the authorities in charge in Rhodes?

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	7.806	4	1.951	8.207	.000
	Within Groups	160.494	675	.238		
	Total	168.300	679			
Age	Between Groups	47.324	4	11.831	10.870	.000
	Within Groups	734.676	675	1.088		
	Total	782.000	679			
Family Situation	Between Groups	42.759	4	10.690	16.671	.000
	Within Groups	432.816	675	.641		
	Total	475.575	679			
Education Level	Between Groups	177.888	4	44.472	25.774	.000
	Within Groups	1164.687	675	1.725		
	Total	1342.575	679			
Employment	Between Groups	694.832	4	173.708	13.825	.000
	Within Groups	8481.343	675	12.565		
	Total	9176.175	679			
Place of Residence	Between Groups	21.682	4	5.421	7.626	.000
	Within Groups	479.818	675	.711		
	Total	501.500	679			

DISCUSSION

The study presented here aimed to investigate the different perceptions of Rhodes stakeholders (administrative bodies and residents) regarding the applicability of the environmental legislation for sustainable tourism development in the island of Rhodes and the reasons for its disapplication. The study aimed to present the dynamics of sustainability regarding the multiple stakeholders involved and the different dimensions entailed.

The analysis of the survey data indicated that the existing legislative framework on the sustainable tourism development of the island, while it is considered to be adequate, it is

misapplied. For the misapplications, the State and the Administrative bodies (Public Services) are considered to be responsible. On one hand more specifically, the State has not provided for the organization of the general legal framework on the protection of the environment of coastal areas. The legislation is scattered, vague, with a number of supplementary provisions and presidential decrees that complicate its understanding and application.

Despite the existence of legislation that binds the state to define control mechanisms and mechanisms of repression of arbitrariness from tourist activities, the basic services such as The Hellenic Environmental Inspectorate and the Inspectors - Controllers Body for Public Administration, are understaffed. The absence of a systematic control mechanism multiplies the effects of unauthorized construction in the coastal area of the island mainly from the professionals of tourism. The main problem is the impunity of the offenders. The imposition of sanctions to those who break the law is a very time-consuming, bureaucratic process which is usually not completed. The survey further revealed that the state has not provided for the implementation of a comprehensive national strategy for the protection of fragile coastal areas of Greece, which mainly attract many tourist activities.

On the other hand, survey findings suggest that Public Services of Rhodes which are competent to carry out environmental controls face difficulties to implement the legislation and accept political pressure to omit certain controls. The majority of the respondents pointed the politicians as the main responsible for problems which have occurred in the coastal areas of the island.

Public services of Rhodes which are competent to carry out environmental controls, cannot apply the law, because of the lack of sufficient and qualified staff. Autopsies in new unauthorized structures in foreshore, beach and tourist resorts on the island, take place mostly after complaints and not on their own initiative in a scheduled annual basis. The same problem of understaffing faces the Environmental Inspectorate which was established by the Article 9 of Law 2947 / 2001.

The work of public services which are responsible for monitoring the implementation of environmental legislation becomes even more difficult because of the scattered and complex environmental legislation but also due to the existence of laws that contradict with each other because they were legislated by different Ministries.

Public services often do not comply with the judicial decisions for the demolition of unauthorized buildings which were resulted from unauthorized tourist buildings mainly to the foreshore and the beach, alleging the lack of the demolition crew.

In conclusion, nobody could deny that Rhodes is still an extremely attractive tourist destination that draws its prestige from its natural, cultural and built environment. However, it appears that the extreme increase of tourism in conjunction with the lack of application of environmental legislation, strongly press the island's environment resulting to the increasing danger of its serious deterioration.

Based on these facts, the study suggests specific directions, the implementation of which will pave the way for the identification and development of the appropriate measures to be taken. These guidelines are associated with the establishment of appropriate tools that will facilitate the implementation of legislation giving priority to the respect for the environment.

REFERENCES

- Barioulet H., (2001), *Matrix for Evaluating Tourism Projects on the Basis of Sustainable Tourism Indicators*, International Conference on Sustainable Hotels for Sustainable Destinations, Maspalomas, <http://www.islandsonline.org/pdf/shsd/Barioulet.pdf> accessed on 19/05/05.
- Berke and Conroy (2000), Are we Planning for Sustainable Development? An Evaluation of 30 Comprehensive Plans, *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 66 (1): 21-33.
- Bramwell, W., Henry, V., Jackson, G., Prat, A.G. Richards, G. and Van Der Straaten, J., (1996) *Sustainable tourism management: Principles and practice*, Tilburg: Tilburg University Press.
- Bryman & Bell, (2007), *Business Research Methods* (revised edition), Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cocossis, H., Mexa A., (2002), *The coastal zone*, Athens: Kapon.
- Dever, E. (1995). *Using Semi-Structured Interviews in Small-Scale Research. A Teacher's Guide*. Edinburgh: Scottish Council for Research in Education.
- European Tourism Indicators System (ETIS) for Sustainable Management at Destination Level (2013) [Available Online]: http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/sectors/tourism/sustainable-tourism/indicators/index_en.htm [Access: March 2015].
- Farsari, Y. Prastacos P. (2005) *Sustainable Tourism Indicators: Pilot Estimation for the Municipality of Hersonisos, Crete*, www.iacm.forth.gr/regional/papers/XIOS-englishversion.pdf accessed on 19/05/05
- Frame, B. and Cavanagh, J. (2009) Experiences of sustainability assessment: An awkward adolescence. *Accounting Forum*, 33(3): 195–208.
- Komili A. (1989). *Basic Principals and Methods of scientific research in Psychology*. Athens: Odysseus.
- Koutalakis C., (2003), Member State Compliance with EU Environmental Law as a Process of Administrative Bargaining (in Greek), *Nomos & Physis* (December).

- Logothetis M., (2004), “Dodecanese, a multifaceted model of sustainable development”. Rhodes: Art
- Logothetis M., (2013), *The development model of Dodecanese and tourism*, Shelter of Art and Literature of Dodecanese
- Luck, D. J. and Rubin, R. S. (1987) *Marketing Research*, 7th Edition, Engelwood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- May, V. (1994), “Coastal Tourism, geomorphology and geological conservation: The example of South Central England”, in Wong, P. (ed), *Tourism vs Environment: The Case for Coastal Areas*, Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 3-10.
- Miller, M.L. & Ditton, R.B. (1986). “Travel, Tourism and Marine Affairs”, *Coastal Zone Management Journal* 12(1/2): 1-19.
- Papachristodoulou G. (2008), *Rhodes: Environment, Tourism and Planning*. Rhodes: Rodiaki
- Pizam, A. (1994). “Planning a Tourism Research Investigation.” In J. R. Brent Ritchie and C. Goeldner (eds) *Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Research*. New York: John Wiley, 91-104.
- Swarbrooke, J. (1999). *Sustainable tourism management*. Wallingford, UK: CABI. University Press.
- UNEP & UNWTO (2005) *Making tourism more sustainable – a guide for policy makers*, Madrid: UNWTO.
- UNEP & UNWTO (2007) *A Practical Guide to Tourism Destination Management*. Madrid: UNWTO.
- UNWTO (2004) *Indicators of Sustainable Development for Tourism Destinations: A Guidebook*. Madrid: UNWTO.
- Wilkinson, P. (1989) “Strategies for island micro-states”. *Annals of Tourism Research* 16 (2), 153–177.
- World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987, *Our Common Future*, Oxford: Oxford
- Zanetto, G., Soriani, S., (1996), “Tourism and Environmental Degradation: The North Adriatic Sea” in G. Priestley, J.A. Edwards and H. Cocossis (eds) *Sustainable Tourism? European Experiences*, Wallingford: CAB International, 137-152.

Contemporary parish and pilgrimage travel: preconditions and targeting

Nicos Rodosthenous

Manolis Varvounis

nrodosthenous@hotmail.com

mvarv@otenet.gr

ABSTRACT

The present paper aims at the study of pilgrimage excursions or pilgrimage tourism in today's reality, based on both the Greek experience and the relevant foreign bibliography. The study of this issue highlights one aspect of this important matter, namely the afternoon or day excursions, and more rarely two-day tours, organized by parishes, a reality that is increasingly spreading and dominates the pastoral work of contemporary larger or smaller parishes. This paper seeks to provide a small contribution to this hitherto unstudied phenomenon of Modern Greek folk religiosity. It also aims to set the basic parameters of the targeting of these parish excursions, in order to create conditions conducive to the spiritual benefit of the pilgrims, through the process of preparation and arrival at the pilgrimage destination.

Keywords: parish, pastoral work, popular urban religiosity, pilgrimage excursion, pilgrimage tourism, holy places.

INTRODUCTION

While in older days a journey was an adventure, in which the traveler was risking life itself, in the modern world, what is called tourism is often seen as a kind of entertainment and an opportunity for relaxation, learning and therapy, recreation and spiritual exaltation, modern man's effort to escape from everyday life and its multiple problems. It is recognized that the modern man, more than ever, needs stimuli, which may guide him/her towards an outlet, in order to give life meaning. One such powerful stimulus is offered by visiting holy places, where miracle takes place, and where the visitor may savor mystery and divine grace. The ultimate goal of this visit is not to reduce man to a wandering and peering tourist, but to help him/her experience pilgrimage efforts, which will reveal authentic roots of identity and self-consciousness.

PILGRIMAGE THROUGH THE AGES

The change in the ways and conditions of the transport of pilgrims, as determined by contemporary technology, has changed both the substance and the frequency of pilgrimage. The same believer may now perform more than one pilgrimage tour a year to neighboring or distant destinations (Haller, 1995). According to Claudine Fabre-Vassa's (1995) apt observation, the passing from sacred emigration to pilgrimage excursion affected their frequency, and resulted in a progressive tendency towards desacralization, which is readily observed in contemporary tours of all kinds of pilgrims. These combine religion with recreation, solemnity with entertainment, and the possibility of the repetition of the pilgrimage appears easy, something which in earlier times was seen as forbidding, given the conditions and risk of distant travel (Fähnrich, 1996).

RELIGIOUS AND PILGRIMAGE TOURISM THROUGH PARISH PILGRIMAGE EXCURSIONS

Undoubtedly, religious tourism is an important part of Greek tourism. Sacred places or places of worship of the divine and of religious rituals were destinations for travelers since antiquity (Matthew, 2001). In these places (churches, monasteries, places of appearance or tombs of saints and sites of religious festivals), the faithful have always sought to communicate with the divine. In the framework of this timeless quest, pilgrimage tourism is greatly expanding nowadays, as it now combines the pilgrimage ritual of the older pilgrimage with the touristic options that are dominant as a way of entertainment in our modern society (Varvounis, 2009, Alexiades, 2006, Theilmann, 1987, Collins-Kreiner – Kliot, 2000, Tsartas, 1996). One aspect of this important matter, namely the organization of afternoon or day excursions, and more rarely of two-day tours, by parishes, is a reality that is increasingly spreading and dominates the work of contemporary parishes (A. Keeling, 2000, Andrew Church - Tim Coles, 2007, Stavropoulos, 2010, Rodosthenous, 2011).

These short trips started as a modern activity of the large and populous parishes of the cities, but they have now spread to smaller parishes in the villages. It should be noted here that Timothy (1997), in a relevant study, has identified a similar phenomenon in Europe. The initial aim of these visits was primarily economic and secondarily spiritual, given that city parishes, having been mostly established in the 1970s and '80s, when the ecclesiastical administrative arrangement of the large urban centers was consolidated, had many and diverse needs: they lacked resources, which mainly came from donations and bequests, they were located in areas whose residents came from the poorer and more popular classes and, at the same time, in their vast majority, they had churches that were newly-built or under construction, which should be completed and equipped, so that they would later become operable, ritually attractive and sufficiently lucrative.

The sense of travel and spiritual benefit from visiting a religious center, together with recrea-

tion and the strengthening of intra-parochial social and friendly relations, made these trips particularly popular among the parishioners. Besides, the above items are regarded as some of the main objectives of religious tourism, as they have been studied by J. McKelvie (2005) and Brice – Busby (2003). The short pilgrimage excursions of the parishes were used as a substitute for the great journey, while at the same time they were affordable and convenient in terms of time, as they did not require long-term absence from family, work and other daily obligations.

Gradually, by the late 1990s, these trip forms also spread to the parishes of provincial areas, including villages. The parishioners of these small parish centers sought to imitate the activity of the large city parishes, and at the same time, they also wanted to enjoy these short excursions, which offered opportunities for recreation and social coexistence (Duff, 2009). Additionally, it should be noted that, as a rule, those who participate in these excursions are elderly people, who lack the means of transport, or the possibility to travel outside of their cities or villages, in order to visit pilgrimage centers and monasteries in their broader area of residence, which they know of, but they find difficult to visit (Rotherham, 2007).

Based on the material collected, it appears that, in both in Greece and Cyprus, the etiquette of these short parish excursions usually moves around the same axes. We refer, of course, to the concept of “etiquette”, since in such parish activities appear specific and recurring regularities, so that we may clearly distinguish a certain typology and an established pattern in these trips. As such, we refer to the route and content of the excursions (Rinschede, 1992, Vitor, 2007), the types of folk religious art purchased at the pilgrimage sites by the visitors as “items of piety” (Varvounis, 2008, 2012), religious symbols with a special charge and signification for the believer (Wilkinson, 1989), etc. All the above are a kind of extension of the blessing of the pilgrimage, a material mark of memory and remembrance of religious emotions and experiences, a “memento” (Schweigert, 1996), with the deeper meaning of the word.

Primarily, excursions are organized either before Christmas Lent, which begins on November 15, or after the Carnival and during Lent, that is, after Shrove Monday and before Palm Sunday. More rarely, and depending on the timing of Easter in a given year, some trips are also organized between St. Thomas Sunday and Pentecost, given that they precede summer, which is the traditional holiday and vacation time for Greeks.

Usually the excursions are announced both by the priest, during the sermon of the Sunday Divine Liturgy, and by makeshift posters, which are placed at the entrance of the church and the surrounding area (Belisle–Hoy, 1980, Nolan–Nolan, 1992). Parishioners, who are usually voluntarily engaged in the conduct of parish work, undertake to sell tickets for these excursions, either to friendly persons and families, or at the entrance of the church, at the time of exit of the believers from Sunday liturgy or from sacraments, such as marriages or baptisms. In any case, timely communication, the special spiritual and ritual weight, which such an event carries in the consciences of the believers, as well as its recreational character, contribute to the large degree of participation of the parishioners, according to information

given by the priests (Olsen - Timothy, 2002). Sometimes the demand is so great, that extra buses are recruited, in addition to the scheduled ones, in order to give the opportunity to all parishioners to participate.

The time of conducting short excursions is usually Sunday afternoon, if it is an afternoon excursion, or Saturday, if it is a day trip. Rarely, in case of a two-day trip, it is organized predominantly on Monday and Tuesday, i.e. on days when there is no fasting and the pilgrims may also enjoy their lunch or dinner (Santos, 2002, Vukonic, 1996). There are exceptions to this rule, which confirm the regularity mentioned above. The church is the starting place, where the excursion buses pick up the parishioners and the priests who accompany them, and the trip also ends there. Through the parish priest, the parish usually assigns the practicalities of the organization of the excursion to a tourist office, with which it cooperates, and which takes care of transport, guides, etc.

A similar process is also noted by Gisbert Rinschede (1992), in similar parish excursions of other Christian peoples of Europe. In this case, the goal is clearly tourism and entertainment, and the trip cannot be described as pure pilgrimage. However, the priests who organize the excursion make sure that the program also includes visits to churches or monasteries of the region, so that the trip may serve, at least to a minimum degree, also a spiritual purpose (Smith – Robinson, 2006).

In these short parish excursions, the pilgrimage visit to the monastery or the church of the main destination is combined with the celebration of vespers there, and even of the solemn vespers on Lent Sundays, by the parish priests. Simon Woodward's (2004) observations on the relations between tourism and faith in similar forms of parish excursions, with a spiritual and recreational character also apply here. A tour of the monastery follows, while before or after vespers, according to the conditions of each transfer and the time needed to reach the destination, the tour is combined with the usual monastic treat, as well as with the visit to the monastery's shop, so that the pilgrims may buy the familiar objects of piety and souvenirs of each monastery (Varvounis, 2008, 2012).

PRECONDITIONS FOR THE ORGANIZATION OF PARISH PILGRIMAGE EXCURSIONS

However, speaking of the making of a pilgrimage trip or tour, three main basic elements should be taken into consideration: a) who are those who organize such excursion, b) what is the program of the excursions, and c) which places will host the pilgrims (Dositheos, 2009). The pastoral Church should pay particular attention to these three factors, because each man should be seen neither as a unit nor as an object of exploitation, but as a person, as an image of God, who is interested in confronting loneliness or in satisfying other internal and spiritual pursuits.

Within this context, and in light of the above, those who organize pilgrimage excursions and tours should prepare the group well, and inform its members about the purpose of the trip (Woodward, 2004, Hudman – Jackson, 1992). It is natural that every trip also has a recreational purpose, but the spiritual and existential pursuits of the participants should not be overlooked (Sharpley, 2009). Efforts should be made to achieve homogeneity among the pilgrims, because otherwise there will be problems. The person responsible for the pilgrimage tour, whether he is a priest or a layman, should be properly prepared and trained, in order to inform the pilgrims about history, culture, tradition, the religious and sacred monuments, the churches, the monasteries, the relationship of the holy places with the people who lived there, and to connect the place with contemporary life (Rodosthenous, 2011).

The people who welcome the pilgrims in various shrines and holy places should do their work with love and courtesy, and should offer what is best for the visitors (Keselopoulos, 2009). Also, they should be well prepared, with sufficient and appropriate knowledge and material, so that the pilgrims should benefit spiritually, bringing back with them, upon their return, blessing, benediction, strength and treatment of the ailments of soul and body (Dositheos, 2009).

Moreover, for the better organization, preparation and success of an excursion some other spiritual, physical and material conditions are required, like the choice of the appropriate travel agency and organizers, prior acquaintance and communication with the pilgrimage destination (Dositheos, 2009), the investigation of the motives of the pilgrims and the disclosure of the purpose of the trip, the desire to fulfill vows or the veneration of sacred and miraculous icons (Milman - Pizam, 1988), and generally the compilation of the entire program of the excursion, when the participants will reach their destination.

However, apart from the proper choice of organizers, the persons and the pilgrims who will form the group, it is essential, through the program of the tour, to carefully select the destination and the pilgrimage (Busby, 2002, Watson, 2007), as well as the means of transport to be used and the routes to be followed (Wilkinson, 1989). Generally, it has been observed that, when the program includes too many pilgrimages on the same day or if it covers long distances, it may become very difficult and tiring for the pilgrims; more importantly, however, the results and benefits expected from this excursion will not be achieved (Rodosthenous, 2011). There are also cases of various pilgrimages, mainly monasteries, which are located in remote and inaccessible areas, so that visiting them may be difficult and sometimes dangerous. Based on the above, the fewer the pilgrimages in the program, the better. This gives the opportunity to the pilgrims to see, and also to participate in the liturgical and sacramental life of the monastery, in vespers or matins, and especially in the Divine Liturgy. The atmosphere of devotion that will be created by the whole environment will help some of the pilgrims to confess (Stylianou, 1951).

CONCLUSIONS

The above illustrates clearly what should be the nature and role of these short parish tours, which form a rather recent phenomenon of our contemporary religious folklore. They are, basically, adaptations and transformations of earlier pilgrimage rituals, which continue to exist in the pilgrimage tours lasting many days (Swatos, 2002), which the parishes themselves organize once or twice a year.

As a novel religious phenomenon with widespread popular appeal, short parish excursions interest our modern religious folklore. They constitute a way of managing and giving meaning to older ritual and customary forms, in tune with the general developments of our time, as secularization constitutes a basic factor of expression of our contemporary folk religiosity (Nolan – Nolan, 1992, Tomasi in Swatos, 2002). And it is the touristic and recreational dimension of these excursions, with its bourgeois origins, which ultimately endears them to a large part of the parishioners, and contributes into making them into basic forms not only of the economic status and social intervention of the Orthodox Church today, but also of the parochial work itself, at its base and in its essence (Rodosthenous, 2011).

Each pilgrimage destination is a basic pole of attraction for gathering people, it activates forces in a society, and it makes use of all potentials for the overall development of the region to which it belongs. Above all, however, it should be a spiritual oasis for each visitor, a place of spiritual uplifting and benefit, a place dear and desirable for revisiting and spiritual regeneration in hard and turbulent times; a place where the soul seeks peace and the meaning of life through the Orthodox Christian tradition.

REFERENCES

- Alexiades, M. (2006), *Νεωτερική Ελληνική Λαογραφία. Συναγωγή Μελετών*, Athens, p. 9.
- Ambrosio, V. (2007), «Sacred pilgrimage and tourism as secular pilgrimage», in the volume *Religious tourism and pilgrimage festivals management*, New York, pp. 78-88.
- Belisle, F.J. – Hoy, D. R., (1980), «The perceived impact of tourism by residents a case study in Santa Marta, Colombia», *Annals of Tourism Research* 7 :1, pp. 83-101.
- Brice, J. – Busby, G. - Brunt, P. (2003), «English rural church tourism: a visitor typology», *Acta Turistica* 15 : 2, pp. 144-162.
- Busby, G. (2002), «The Cornish church heritage as destination component», *Tourism (Zagreb)* 50 : 4, pp. 371-381.

- Church A. - Coles T. (2007) (eds.), *Tourism, power and space*, Psychology Press.
- Coles T. – Church A. (2007), «Tourism, politics and the forgotten entanglements of power», in the volume *Tourism, power and space*, London, σ. 1-42.
- Collins-Kreiner N. (2006), *Christian tourism to the Holy Land: Pilgrimage during security crisis*, Ashgate Publishing, p. 156.
- Collins-Kreiner, N. – Klot, N. (2000), «Pilgrimage tourism in the Holy Land: the behavioural characteristics of Christian pilgrims», *GeoJournal*, 50 : 1, pp. 55-67.
- Dallen, T. J. (2007), «Empowerment and stakeholder participation in tourism destination communities», in the volume *Tourism, power and space*, London, pp. 199-216.
- Dositheos, Archimandrite (2009), *Οδηγός Ορθοδόξου Προσκυνητού*, εκδ. γ, Ιερός Μονής Παναγίας Τατάρνης Ευρυτανίας, p. 38.
- Fabre-Vassa, C. (1995), «Paraschiva-Vendredi. La sainte des femmes, des travaux, des jours», *Terrain* 24, pp. 62-64.
- Fähnrich, H. (1996), «Alter Herrgott. Zur Geschichte einer Waldkapelle», *Die Oderpfalz* 84:3, pp. 161-164.
- Haller, R. (1995), *Einmal im Leben auf den Heiligen Berg*. Grafenau, pp. 160-161.
- Hudman, L. E. – Jackson, R. H. (1992), «Mormon pilgrimage and tourism», *Annals of Tourism Research* 19 : 1, pp. 107-121.
- Kamil, J. (2000), «Religious tourism as big business», *Al Ahrām Weekly* 469, pp. 12-14.
- Keeling, A. (2002), «Church Tourism—providing a ministry of welcome to visitors», *English Tourism Council. Insights*, London, pp. 12 ff.
- Keselopoulos, A. G. (2009), *Προτάσεις Ποιμαντικής Θεολογίας*, P. Pournaras Publications, Thessaloniki, p. 201.
- Koltsidopoulos, G. (2000), Τουρισμός, θεωρητική προσέγγισή του, Έλλην, Athens.
- Matthew, D. (2001), *Προσκυνητές και ιερά προσκνήματα στην αρχαία Ελλάδα*, Enalios Publications, transl. Giorgos Kousounelos, Athens.
- McKelvie, J. (2005), «Religious tourism», *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 4, pp. 1-47.
- Milman, A. – Pizam, A. (1988), «Social impacts of tourism on central Florida», *Annals of Tourism Research* 15 : 2, pp. 191-204.

- Morpeth, N.D. (2011), «Church tourism and faith tourism initiatives in Northern England: implications for the management of religious tourism sites», *International Journal of Business and Globalisation* 7 : 1, pp. 93-101.
- Nolan M. L. – Nolan, S. (1992), «Religious sites as tourism attractions in Europe», *Annals of Tourism Research* 19 : 1, pp. 68-78.
- Olsen, D. H. – Timothy, D. J. (2002), «Contested religious heritage: differing views of Mormon heritage», *Tourism Recreation Research* 27 : 2, pp. 7-15.
- Rinschede, G. (1992), «Forms of religious tourism», *Annals of Tourism Research* 19 : 1, pp. 51-67.
- Rodosthenous, N. (2012), *Θρησκευτικός και προσκυνηματικός τουρισμός στην Κύπρο: ποιμαντική προσέγγιση*, Thessaloniki (Unpublished PhD Dissertation, Aristoteleion University Thessaloniki – School of Theology/Department of Theology).
- Rotherham, I. D. (2007), «Sustaining tourism infrastructures for religious tourists and pilgrims within the UK», in the volume *Religious tourism and pilgrimage festivals management*, New York, pp. 64-77.
- Santos, X. M. (2002), «Pilgrimage and tourism at Santiago de Compostela», *Tourism Recreation Research* 27 : 2, pp. 41-50.
- Schweigert, H. (1996), «Die Gnadenstatue und das “Schatzkammerbild” von Mariazell», in the volume *Schatz und Schicksal* 1. Graz, pp. 89-100.
- Sharpley, R. (2009), «Tourism, religion and spirituality», *The Sage* pp. 23-46.
- Smith, M.K. – Robinson, M. (2006), *Cultural tourism in a changing world: Politics, participation and (re) presentation*, Channel View Publications, pp. 123 ff.
- Stavropoulos, Al. (2010), «Η καλλιέργεια του προσκυνηματικού πνεύματος και οι σύγχρονοι ποιμαντικοί προβληματισμοί», *Εκκλησία* 87:2, p. 104.
- Stylianou, A. (1957), *Κυπριακαί Σπουδαί*, εκδ. Εταιρείας Κυπριακών Σπουδών, Nicosia, p. 61.
- Swatos, W.H. 2002, *From medieval pilgrimage to religious tourism: The social and cultural economics of piety*, Praeger Publishers, pp. 134-136.
- Temple, J. D. (2006), “‘Haiti Appeared At My Church’: Faith-Based Organizations, Transnational Activism, and Tourism in Sustainable Development”, *Urban Anthropology and Studies of Cultural Systems and World Economic Development*, pp. 155-181.

- Theilmann, J. M. (1987), «Medieval pilgrims and the origins of tourism», *The Journal of Popular Culture* 20 : 4, pp. 93-102
- Tilson, D. J. (2005), «Religious-spiritual tourism and promotional campaigning: a church-state partnership for St. James and Spain», *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing* 12 : 1-2, pp. 9-40.
- Timothy, D. J. (1997), «Tourism and the personal heritage experience», *Annals of Tourism Research* 24 : 3 pp. 751-754.
- Tomasi, L. (2002), «Homo Viator: from pilgrimage to religious tourism via the journey», in the volume William H. Swatos (ed.), *From medieval pilgrimage to religious tourism: The social and cultural economics of piety*, Praeger Publishers, pp. 1-24.
- Tsartas, P. (1996), *Τουρίστες, Ταξίδια, Τόποι: Κοινωνιολογικές Προσεγγίσεις στον Τουρισμό*, Exantas, Athens.
- Varvounis, M. G. (2008), «Προσκυνηματικός τουρισμός και ελληνική λαϊκή τέχνη», *Erytheia. Revista de Estudios Bizantinos y Neogriegos* 29, pp. 217-228.
- Varvounis, M. G. (2009), «Προσκυνηματικές εκδρομές και ιερές αποδημίες», *Θεολογία* 80: 1, pp. 191-211.
- Varvounis, M. G. (2012), «'Φάγονται πένητες και εμπλησθήσονται'. Λαογραφικές θεωρήσεις των εκκλησιαστικών συσσιτίων του ελληνικού αστικού χώρου», *Θεολογία* 83:4, *Θεολογία και οικονομία. Προσεγγίσεις στη σύγχρονη κρίση*. Part II, pp. 81-97.
- Varvounis, M. G. (2012), «Το 'κιτς' στη σύγχρονη ελληνική εκκλησιαστική και λαϊκή θρησκευτική τέχνη», *Θεολογία* 83 : 1, pp. 247-266.
- Vukonic, B. (1996), *Tourism and religion*, Oxford: Pergamon.
- Watson, S. (2007), *Church Tourism: Representation and Cultural Practice*, Diss. University of York.
- Wilkinson, P.F. (1989), «Strategies for tourism in island microstates», *Annals of Tourism Research* 16 : 2, pp. 153-177.
- Woodward, S. C. (2004), «Faith and tourism: planning tourism in relation to places of worship», *Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development* 1 : 2, pp. 173-186.

The impact of shift rotations on hotel staff performance: is it loss of concentration or stress that leads to involvement in critical incidents?

Mohamed Hany B. Moussa
Mahinour A. Fouad
Ashraf El Baroudy

drhanymousa@yahoo.com
mahinorf@yahoo.com
ashrafelbaroudy53@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

Night shift workers seek to ignore their diurnal nature and to work actively at times for sleeping. Needing to extend services or enable uninterrupted productivity, several million have to work in shifts. Interest in the effects of night shift on employees developed because many experts blame rotating shifts for human error, stress, alertless-ness, mal-performance, incidents and injuries, health problems and family and social life disorders. Thus, rotating shifts are in need to be examined to determine their linkages with those things that they are frequently blamed. This paper aims to investigate the impact of shift rotation on hotel staff performance. To achieve this, one main methodology was adopted; a self-administered questionnaire to hotel staff. Findings indicate that night shift adverse effects correlate with staff physical, psychological, family and social life from one side and performance levels and incidents and injuries from another. A set of recommendations to reduce these effects of shift rotation are concluded.

Keywords: night shift, circadian rhythms, sleep and fatigue, physic-psycho problems, critical incidents, SCL- 90R- SF36.

BACKGROUND

Shift work - especially night work- is a scenario that is increasing in modern society and is a major feature of work practices. It involves individuals working at times considered unconventional for most workers, such as at night. In addition, today, 24-hour (or 24/7) operations are necessary to meet the demands of society and the requirements of an industrialized global economy. These around-the-clock demands pose unique physiological challenges for humans who remain central to safe and productive operations. Optimal alertness and performance are critical factors that are increasingly challenged by work schedules (Browne, 2001, Folkard and Tucker 2003).

More than two and a half billion people are officially recognized as workers according to the most recent statistics of the International Labor Organization (ILO, 2008a). Reliable data on the numbers of workers employed in shift-work is not easy to collect due to the lack of robust statistics in many countries, and/or differences in methods of data collection not always being comparable (ILO, 2008b). Shift work is a reality for around 25% of North America's working population. Interest in the effect of shift work on people has developed because many experts have blamed rotating shifts for human error connected to a number of accidents and catastrophes related to disturbance of circadian rhythms which result in an increased risk of accidents and injury. Night shifts have a negative impact on the individual's health, ability to function, thus affecting the services provided (Coffey *et al*, 1998).

While work outside daytime hours is unavoidable in many industries, schedules which include night work and extended hours are unsuitable for some workers. In addition, night work and extended hours have often been introduced with little or no consideration of the risks to health and safety. Scientists say that working at nights can be proved dangerous as it disrupts the circadian rhythm (American Academy for Sleep Medicine, 2007, 2009). Many physical functions of humans follow a daily rhythmic 24-hour cycle, referred to as circadian rhythms. The term "circadian" comes from the Latin "circa dies," meaning "about a day." Many critical aspects of body functions and human behavior are synchronized by this natural 24-hour cycle. These rhythmical processes are synchronized to allow high levels of activity during the daytime and lower levels of activity at night. Therefore all have to cope with the fact that working at night causes sleep deprivation and fatigue. This is because the human body is designed to sleep at night (Akerstedt, 1990, Czeisler 1994). Impaired sleep quality is commonplace within industrialized societies, as evidenced by the increasing number of prescription sleep aids available. Certain herbal preparations have been suggested to provide a natural benefit to sleep; however, limited controlled data are available documenting this benefit (Cameron *et al*, 2012). Moreover, recent researches also suggest biochemical supplements for sleep deprived persons (Clinton *et al*, 2012).

A "night shift" is defined as work performed after 6 pm and before 6 am the next day, therefore, the activity at night will be out of phase with the body clock (Monk and Folhard , 1992; Meijman, 1994; www.ccohs.ca, 2005). Because individual biological clocks re-entrain to a time shift at dissimilar rates, each time the work schedule alternates, for a period of time after the time shift, the circadian system will be in a desynchronized state, and this disorientation can lead to errors in performance (Harrington, 1978; Bøggled and Knutsson, 1999; Akerstedt, 2003, Pati *et al*, 2001, Veasey *et al*, 2002, Smith *et al*, 2003, Stokowski, 2004, Suzuki *et al*, 2004, Rogers *et al*, 2004, Scot, 2006, Ganish, 2011).

Managing shift work systems requires a comprehensive approach looking into the interactions of phase-shifted work schedules with business performance and with safety, health and well-being of workers. Shift work is considered today as one of the most important work-related stress factors. It is therefore necessary to explore practical measures to improve the management of shift work learning from positive advances. In examining the influence of

day, afternoon, night and rotating shifts on job performance and stress on staff found that job performances and satisfaction was less on a rotating roster than on a fixed roster (Rosa & Bonnet, 1993, Kogi 2001, Carouso *et al*, 2004, McMenamin, 2007).

Night work can have substantial physiological, psychological, and social effects on shift workers, primarily due to the disruption of the normal sleep-wake cycle. The more shift work and extended working hours that people are exposed to per day, per week and so on, the greater the effect on the quality of off-duty periods. Human beings develop a diurnal rhythm (sleeping at night and staying awake during the day). With a consistent daily diurnal rhythm, human beings are the most productive and alert during daytime hours. However, if this diurnal rhythm is disrupted, the body undergoes substantial changes and sleep becomes difficult (Khaleque, 1982). The extent to which the circadian/biological rhythms of the shift worker adjusts to this new routine of work at night and sleep during the day may have a great influence on the harshness of the problems experienced (Smith *et al*, 2003, Fokard *et al*, 2005).

Furthermore, many studies related mood changes such as depression, stress and anxiety, somatization, hostility, obsessive compulsives and emotional and physical disorders to deprivation of sufficient sleep that is associated with working in night shifts (Frese, 1984, Coffey *et al*, 1988, Healy, 1990, David, 1991, Pressman, 1997, Biovin 1997, Binks, 1999, De Marco, 2000, Hartel, 2000, Perkins, 2001, Shield, 2002, Burton *et al*, 2004, Roman *et al*, 2005, Gil-mour and Patten, 2007). Previous researches concerning hospitality employees concluded that there is considerable evidence on occupational stress among hospitality and leisure industry employees (Buick and Thomas, 2001, Conte *et al*, 2001 and Rowley and Purcell, 2001). This goes along side with earlier study of Brymer *et al* (1991) on 440 employees across 22 organizations. Aligned with this are the conclusions that hospitality employees also suffer emotional exhaustion and burning out due to stress caused by loss of control (Ledgerwood *et al*, 1998, Buick and Thomas, 2001 and Conte *et al*, 2001).

To measure these physical and psychological impacts physicians and psychiatrist developed two scales for that purpose, i.e., SCL-90-R and SF-36. By definition The Symptom Checklist-90-Revised (SCL-90-R) is a 90-item self-report symptom inventory developed by Leonard R. Derogatis in the mid-1970s to measure psychological symptoms and distress. It is designed to be appropriate for use with individuals from the community, as well as individuals with either medical or psychiatric conditions. The SCL-90-R assesses psychological distress in terms of nine primary symptom dimensions and three summary scores termed global scores. The principal symptom dimensions are labeled Somatization (SOM), Obsessive-Compulsive (OBS), Interpersonal Sensitivity (INT), Depression (DEP), Anxiety (ANX), Hostility (HOS), Phobic Anxiety (PHOB), Paranoid Ideation (PAR), (PsycINFO Database Record (c), 2012 APA), whereas SF-36 stands for the short form that contains only 36 parameters for measurement. By definition The SF-36 health survey is a multipurpose, short-form health survey with only 36 questions. It yields an 8-scale profile of scores, as well as summary measures. It is a generic measure of health status as opposed to one that targets a specific age, disease, or treatment group. The SF-12 is the improvements reflected in Version 2.0 of the SF-36; psychometric studies of assumptions underlying scale construction and scoring; how they

have been translated in more than 40 countries as part of the International Quality of Life Assessment (IQOLA) Project; and studies of reliability and validity. (PsycINFO Database Record (c), 2012 APA). Scl-90 was widely used in medical researches to assess mental health symptoms (Amar *et al.*, 2005), correlation with Khat consumption (Warfa *et al.*, 2007), social support and coping styles among college students (Yao *et al.*, 2001) among nursing graduates (Anhui *et al.*, 2006) in patients with hepatic-lenticular degeneration (Wang *et al.*, 2009), on poverty stricken students (Yang *et al.*, 2001) on students with excessive internet use (Norbert *et al.*, 2005) and on sleep disorders (Olson *et al.*, 1998).

Sf-36 was also extensively adopted by medical researches to explore the impact of fear of falling on daily activities (Robert *et al.*, 1999) on patients with spinal cord injuries (Hill *et al.*, 2009), on stair climbing in older adults (Gill *et al.*, 1994), in rehabilitation medicine (Post *et al.*, 1996) on measures of general disability (Wade and Collin, 1988) and on quality of life among emphysema patients (Kaplan and Rise, 2008).

While many studies are available on this topic in the medical field for both staff and patients, very few are available for the hospitality field. Of these studies are those of Cleveland *et al.* (2007), that focused on work and family issues among hoteliers and concluded that there are clearly work–family trade-offs in each occupational category and that challenges may also underlie stress, burnout, and health problems for hoteliers. Lee *et al.* (2014), investigated fatigue and related factors among hotel workers focusing on the effect of emotional labor and non-standard working hours and was able to confirm the close association between hotel employees' emotional labor, non-standard work schedules (shift work, etc.), and fatigue. It is the goal of this paper to reveal whether night shifts are associated with the increase of critical incidents and injuries due to decreased attention or stress with the objective of discovering the real reason behind these incidents and the impacts of these probable reasons of physical and psychological health as well as social life of night shift employees in hospitality business.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

According to the Egyptian Hotel Guide (2013), there are 33 five–star hotels in Greater Cairo. Fifteen hotels were chosen for investigation, representing 45% of these hotels. A field study was conducted through telephone calls followed by field visits. The main aim of this survey is to recognize shift work systems, number of shifts, departments which operate around the clock, start and close times of each shift and length of shifts. A questionnaire was selected and designed as the data collection instrument for the current study and was based on the relevant review of literature.

A total of 375 questionnaire forms were distributed. Of these 310 completed forms were received, making an 82% valid response rate. Of this number 237 respondents were frequently and regularly scheduled for night shifts while 73 were rarely and accidentally scheduled at night. All respondents were male since Egyptian labor law bans females during night shifts.

The questionnaire focused over eight main headings i.e., demographic data, shift-work data, working environment, shift work scheduling, sleep and fatigue, effects of shift rotations on health, family and social life and finally the performance errors and involvement in incidents and injuries. The obtained data are analyzed using SPSS version 20; meanwhile, a Likert scale check list was selected as an appropriate tool to gather data during interviews. The tool designed required answers to closed- ended questions forwarded to shift work staff to explore how they feel towards and perform their work and the impact of work at night on their physiological and psychological health conditions.

The validity of the data collection instrument was checked for clarity and content by a panel of (20) academic scholars and experts of the industry, in the second stage the questionnaire was piloted by a sample of (30) survey respondents. The reliability coefficient Cranach's Alpha was calculated to investigate the reliability of data collection instrument and showed a value of 0.808 higher than acceptable cut point of 0.70. Scl-90-R and SF-36 scales were also partially adapted for measurement of such impacts. Correlations among symptoms suffered by night shift workers and performance errors and incidents and injuries are performed.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Based on data obtained from the 310 interviewed workers, many results were found, the following tables demonstrate these findings concerning the demographics of workers, the impact of night shifts on their concentration as well as stress and anxiety levels. It should be noted here that only male employees were interviewed since Egyptian labor law bans females from working night shifts. The psychological impacts of night shifts on employees also are demonstrated below together with tendency to indulge in crucial performance errors and critical incidents.

Table 1: Demographic Data of Interviewees

Gender		
Males*	100%	
Age		
	48.80%	< 25
	48.00%	26-50 years
	03.20%	>50
Marital status		
	74.50%	Married
	25.50%	Single
Education		
	78.70%	Graduates
	22.30%	High school

*according to Egyptian labor law the arbitration of females or night shifts is

Table 2: Night Shift Impacts on Employees

In general, working at night shift may cause a loss of concentration for some workers.	Freq.	%	In general, working at night shift may cause health problems.	Freq.	%
Strongly Disagree	45	14.5	Strongly Disagree	43	13.8
Disagree	75	24.2	Disagree	35	11.3
N. Agree nor Disagree	10	3.2	N. Agree nor Disagree	28	9.03
Agree	103	33.2	Agree	109	35.16
Strongly Agree	77	24.8	Strongly Agree	95	30.64
Total	310	100.0	Total	310	100.0
In general, working at night shift may cause stress for some workers.	Freq.	%	In general, working at night shift may cause family problem		
Strongly Disagree	54	17.4	Strongly Disagree	34	10.96
Disagree	56	18.1	Disagree	51	15.45
N. Agree nor Disagree	30	9.7	N. Agree nor Disagree	23	7.41
Agree	97	31.3	Agree	113	36.45
Strongly Agree	73	23.5	Strongly Agree	89	28.70
Total	310	100.0	Total	310	100.0
In general, working at night shift, in general, may cause increased perform errors	Freq.	%	In general, working at night shift, in general, may cause increased turn over		
Strongly Disagree	31	10.0	Strongly Disagree	18	5.80
Disagree	34	11.0	Disagree	38	12.25
N. Agree nor Disagree	43	13.9	N. Agree nor Disagree	71	22.90
Agree	121	39.0	Agree	86	27.74
Strongly Agree	81	26.1	Strongly Agree	97	31.29
Total	310	100.0	Total	310	100.0
In general, working at night shift, in general, may cause increased incidents and injuries	Freq.		In general working at night shift in general may cause increased absenteeism		
Strongly Disagree	41	13.2	Strongly Disagree	36	11.60
Disagree	38	12.3	Disagree	49	15.80
N. Agree nor Disagree	35	11.3	N. Agree nor Disagree	60	19.35
Agree	82	26.5	Agree	81	26.12
Strongly Agree	114	36.8	Strongly Agree	84	27.09
Total	310	100.0	Total	310	100.0

Obviously 58% of respondents strongly agree or agree that working night shift causes decreased concentration, 54.8% strongly agree or agree that this shift causes fatigue for them and moreover, 60% associate working at night with stress and anxiety very strongly or strongly. Moreover, 63.3% or almost two thirds of the sample investigated associate performance error and incidents with working particularly in the night shift. Correlating the previous results pointed out to some new findings. First is that there is a high correlation between employees losing their concentration during night shift and their stress levels. A positive correlation was shown between loss of concentration and feeling under stress ($r(df)=0.938, p=.005$). This finding looks to be within the normal course of action, however, the correlation between stress among those staff and their involvement in critical incidents ($r(df)=.860, p=.005$) was stronger than correlation between loss of concentration as related to these critical incidents ($r(df)=.702, p=.005$). This draws the attention to the main catalysts of critical incidents being stress other than loss of concentration. Moreover, when they lost concentration, employees working in night shifts were correlated positive also in reference to association with making erroneous performance ($r(df)=.614, p=.005$) whereas stress correlation to this flawed performance was higher ($r(df)=.707, p=.005$). These two findings support the conclusion that anxiety and stress during night shift is the main reason for both mal-performance and taking part in critical incidents. However, on correlating stress to turn over of employees this showed a weak positive relation ($r(df)=.434, p=.005$), meaning that employees working at night do not tend to quit their jobs despite being under stress. Nevertheless, on correlating stress to absenteeism the correlation proved to be stronger ($r(df)=.614, p=.005$). From a social perspective, on correlating stress to health and family problems values were very high ($r(df)=.921, p=.005$) and ($r(df)=.960, p=.005$). These values indicate a very positive strong correlation among stress and health as well as family problems; however these correlations do not cause employees to quit their jobs. Convincingly, it can be concluded that stress reflects in increased rates of absenteeism that translates into decreased productivity and eventually profitability.

From an operational perspective, workers in night shifts who suffered health problems showed a high positive correlation of involvement in incidents and injuries ($r(df)=.891, p=.005$) as well as family problems ($r(df)=.819, p=.005$) tended to increase absenteeism ($r(df)=.849, p=.005$) and to quit the job ($r(df)=.770, p=.005$). Moreover, deterioration in health among workers at night shift correlated positively and high ($r(df)=.701, p=.005$) whereas the correlation between health deterioration and family problems was slightly less ($r(df)=.658, p=.005$). This could be due to the stressing economic status of employees in Egypt generally since employees fear quitting their jobs lest they fail to get another. However, on correlating health deterioration of those employees to absenteeism ($r(df)=.826, p=.005$) a high positive strong association is found indicating once more that absenteeism can always be an important sign of how soon the employee will quit. It is also evident that the more workers suffer family problems because of night shifts the more they tend to be absent or even quit the job ($r(df)=.804, p=.005$) and ($r(df)=.659, p=.005$) consecutively.

For more robust findings a further analysis is carried using Sf-36 and SCL-90-R scales to pinpoint specific physical and psychological symptoms that workers at night shift may be exposed to. Two groups were assigned, i.e., 237 daytime workers were checked against 73 regularly scheduled for night shifts.

Table 3: Comparison of SF-36 sub-scale scores of daytime versus nighttime-workers

	Daytime Group (n=237)		N. Shift Group (n=73)		t	p
	Mean	±SS	mean	±SS		
General health perceptions	61.4	±17.2	62.8	±21.4	-0.33	0.74
Physical functioning	61.3	±30.3	49.4	±21.5	-2.11	0.03*
Role limitations due to physical health	50.0	±36.6	48.8	±36.5	0.14	0.88
Role limitations due to emotional problems	52.3	±25.6	42.9	±35.9	1.39	0.16
Bodily Pain	67.8	±20.0	58.5	±22.0	-2.05	0.04*
Mental health	64.9	±16.5	67.5	±15.3	-0.75	0.45
Vitality	54.2	±18.9	57.7	±21.5	-0.80	0.42
Social functioning	67.8	±26.6	75.5	±25.8	-1.36	0.17

T test, * p<0.05: Significant difference

Table 4: Comparison of SCL-90-R sub-scale scores of daytime versus night time- workers.

SCL-90-R	Daytime Group (n=237)		N. Shift Group (n=73)		t	p
	Mean	±SS	mean	±SS		
Sub-scales						
Somatization	0.68	±0.47	0.97	±0.65	-2.283	0.025*
Obsessive-compulsive	0.76	±0.65	1.07	±0.58	-2.318	0.023*
Interpersonal sensitivity	0.80	±0.59	1.09	±0.66	-2.146	0.035*
Depression	0.73	±0.51	0.94	±0.60	-1.729	0.088
Anxiety	0.69	±0.55	0.98	±0.71	-2.384	0.019*
Hostility	0.70	±0.71	0.99	±0.76	-1.801	0.075
Psychoticism	0.55	±0.62	0.62	±0.58	-0.499	0.619

T test, * p<0.05: Significant difference.

According to findings in Table Three, SF-36 scale workers working night shifts suffered impairment in physical functions together with bodily pains more than their counter parts at daytime shifts. Significant differences were detected among the two groups in regards to these two symptoms. Moreover, there is a significant difference among workers in nightshift compared to those in daytime shift in developing somatization (SOM), obsessive compulsive (OBS), inter-personal sensitivity (INT) and anxiety (ANX). This conforms to the previous finding that 55% of employees feel stressed when working at nightshifts and those of (Buick and Thomas, 2001, Conte et al, 2001 and Rowley and Purcell, 2001, Cleveland et al, 2007)

Conclusively, night shift employees are liable to develop serious physical and psychological symptoms that correlate strongly and positively to their involvement in critical incidents and mal performance from one side and to social problems that might negatively impact their quality of life. It is evident also that loosing concentration during night shifts -that might imply a state of laziness and apathy- is contradicted by employees feeling stresses and anxious at the same time. This gives evidence on how crucial stress and anxiety are related to mal-erroneous performance and critical incidents other than loss of concentration.

Decisively, it can be concluded that stress is the most serious product of working a night shift and that it is highly associated with loss of concentration and leads to health deterioration and family problems for workers. Symptoms are seen in increased performance errors and indulging in incidents and injuries. As a result, employees tend to increase absenteeism and finally quit their job. Evidence on decreased productivity and eventually profits are seen in increased absenteeism.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- There is a strong evidence that night shift is associated with a high risk of workplace accidents and injuries.
- Supplements might seem to be a good idea to be supplied to night shift workers. These supplements can be chemical (melatonin) or natural (food additives) or allowing night shift employees to take short naps could be the alternative.
- Absenteeism records have to be thoroughly scrutinized as an indicator for physical and psychological problems that may lead to increased turnover, thence, medical checks should incorporate psychological tests besides to medical ones.
- While many aspects of shift work have been explored in this study, there is still need for more detailed studies to provide empirical evidence on shift-work sequence effects on workers and how this relates to turnover, absenteeism and workplace violence. Moreover, the current research addresses jobs in hospitality but needs to be further applied to other industries where critical incidents may cause more serious situations. Thence, further researches are encouraged on this topic in reference to impacts on genders, impacts on singles and married employees and whether personal traits on personality index interact with these impacts in different industries.

REFERENCES

- Anhui X R., Wang W, Bi, Q.Q., and Hu, Y., (2006), Survey on the psychological health of nursing graduates; Journal of Anhui Health Vocational and Technical College; Anhui Medical Journal; -03, Anhui Medical University.
- Amar, A., Frederick, A. and Gennaro, S., (2005), Dating Violence in College Women: Associated Physical Injury, Healthcare Usage, and Mental Health Symptoms, Nursing Research, Volume 54 - Issue 4 - p 235-242.

- American Academy for Sleep Medicine, 2007.
- American Academy for Sleep Medicine, 2009.
- Akerstedt, T., (1990), Psychological and psycho-physiological effects of shift work, *Scandinavian Journal of Work Environment and Health*, 16(suppl.1).
- Akerstedt, T., (2003), Shift work and disturbed sleep/wakefulness, *Occupational Medicine*, 53 (4), pp. 89-94.
- Bøggild, H., Suadicani, P., Hein, H., O, and Gyntelberg, F., (1999), Shift work, social class and ischemic heart disease in middle-aged and elderly men; a 22 year follow up in the Copenhagen male study, *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 56 (1), pp. 640-645.
- Binks, P. G., (1999), Short-term total sleep deprivations does not selectively impair higher cortical functioning, *Sleep*, 22 (3), pp. 328-333.
- Boivin D., Czeisler CA., and Dijk DJ., (1997), Complex interaction of the sleep-wake cycle and circadian phase modulates mood in healthy subjects, *Arch Gen Psych*, (54), p.145.
- Browne R.C., (2001), the day and night performance of tele-printer switchboard operators, *Occupational Psychology* 23 (3), pp. 1-6.
- Brymer, A., Perrewer, P. and John, T. (1991), “Managerial job stress in the hotel industry”, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 10 (1), pp. 47-58.
- Buick, I. and Thomas, M. (2001), “Why do middle managers in hotels burn out?”, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 13 (6), pp. 304-9.
- Burton, W.N., Pransky, G., and Conti, D.J., (2004), the association of medical conditions and presenters, *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 46 (6), supplement S38-S45.
- Cameron G. M, Rick J. A., Zach W.B. and Richard J. B, (2012), A Dietary Supplement Containing Chlorophytum Borivilianum and Velvet Bean Improves Sleep Quality in Men and Women, *Integr Med Insights*, 7, pp7-14, doi: 10.4137/IMI.S9720
- Caruso, C.C., Hitchcock, E.M., Dick, R.B., Russo, J.M. and Schmidt, J.M. (2004), Over-time and Extended Work Shifts: Recent Findings on Illnesses, Injuries, and Health Behaviors Cincinnati, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH).
- Cleveland, J, N., O’Neill, J, W., Himelright, J, L., Harrison, M, M., Ann C. Crouter, A, C., and Drago, R., (2007), work and family issues in the hospitality industry: perspectives of entrants, managers and spouses, *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, pp293:294.

- Clinton, J.M, Davis, C.J, Zielinski, M.R., Jewett, K.A and Krueger, J.M., (2012), Biochemical Regulation of Sleep and Sleep Biomarkers, *Journal of clinical sleep medicine*, 7(5),pp 38-42, doi : 10.5664/jcsm .1360.
- Coffey, L., Skipper, J., and Jung, F., (1998), Nurses and Shift Work Effect on Job Performance and Job Related Stress, *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 13 (2), pp. 245-254.
- Czeisler, C., Carskadon, M., Gronfier, C., Roth, T., Mallis, M., and Wright, K., (2001), Consultation report: Mars exploration rover surface, Operations Human Factors Workshop, NASA Ames Research Center commissioned for the NASA Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology.
- Cohen D. A., Wang, W., Wyatt, J. K., Kronauer, R.E., Dijk, D-J., Czeisler, and C.A., and Klerman, E.B., (2010), “Uncovering Residual Effects of Chronic Sleep Loss on Human Performance.”, *Science Translational Medicine*, 2 (14), p. 143.
- Conte, J.M., Ringenbach, K.L., Moran, S.K. and Landy, F.J. (2001), “Criterion-validity evidence for time urgency: associations with burnout, organizational commitment, and job involvement in travel agents”, *Applied HRM Research*, 6(2), pp. 129-34.
- David, M. M., MacLean, AW., and Knowles, JE. (1991), Rapid eye movement latency and mood following a delay of bedtime in health subjects: do the effects mimic changes in depressive illness, *Acta Psychiatrica Scand* 84(1), p. 33.
- De Marco, R. R., (2000), the epidemiology of major depression: Implications of occurrence, recurrence, and stress in a *Canadian community sample*, *Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, 45 (1), pp. 67-74.
- Egyptian Hotel Guide (2013), Ministry of Tourism, Egypt.
- Folkard, S., and Tucker, P. (2003), Shift work, safety and pro-ductivity, *Occupy- Med*, (London), 53 (2), pp. 95-101.
- Folkard, S., (2005), Irregular and abnormal hours of work, *Readers Digest* April 2008, pp.33-38.
- Frese, M., Okonek, K., (1984), Reasons to leave shiftwork and psychological and psychosomatic complaints of former shift workers, *J Apple Psycho*, 69(3) pp. 509.
- Ganesh, C., (2011), Effective method of performance appraisal used by manager in an organization, ISSN 2231- 6671 1 (I), pp.122:123.
- Gill DL., Kelley BC., Williams K., Martin JJ, (1994), The relationship of self-efficacy and perceived well-being to physical activity and stair climbing in older adults. *Res Q Exercise Sport*, 65(3),pp. 367–371.

- Gilmore, H., and Patten, S.B., (2007), Depression and work impairment, *Health Reports*, 18, pp. 9-22.
- Lee, J.J., Moon, H.J., Lee, K.J., and Kim, J.J., (2012), fatigue and related factors among hotel workers : the effect of emotional labor and non-standard working hours, *Ann Occup Environ Med*, 26(1), pp. 113:116.
- Ledgerwood, C.E., Crotts, J.C. and Everett, A.M. (1998), “Antecedents of employee burnout in the hotel industry”, *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 4(2), pp. 31-44.
- Harrington, J. M., (1978), Shiftwork and Health: A Critical Review of the Literature, HMSO, London, pp214-215
- Hartel, C., (2000), the consequences and distinctiveness of shift work, *Journal of Occupational and organizational Psychology*, 42, pp. 168 –177.
- Healy, D., Waterhouse, JM., (1990), the circadian system and affective disorders: clocks or rhythms, *Chernobyl Intern*, 7(11), p. 5.
- Hill M.R, Noonan V.K, Sakakibara B.M and Miller W.C, (2010), Quality of life instruments and definitions in individuals with spinal cord injury: a systematic review, *Spinal Cord*, no.:48, 438–450; doi:10.1038/sc.2009.164.
- International Labor Organization, (1990a), Night Work Convention, C171, Geneva, ILO. [Online] .Available from: <http://www.ilo.org/ilolex/english/index.htm> [Accessed on 19-02-2015].
- International Labor Organization, (2008), *Working time: Its impact on health and safety*, Occupational Safety and Health.
- Kaplan RM., and Ries A.L, (2008), Health-related quality of life in emphysema, *Proc Am Thorac Soc*; 5, pp. 561–566.
- Khaleque, A., (1982), Sleep disturbances and health complaints of shiftworkers, *Journal of Human Ergol.* 11 (2), pp.155-164 .
- Kogi, K., (2001), Shift work. In W. Karwowski (Ed.), *International encyclopedia of ergonomics and human factors*, London: Taylor and Francis, pp. 1350 - 1354.
- McMenamin, T.M., (2007), A time to work: recent trends in shift work and flexible schedules, *Monthly Labor Review*, 130 (3), pp. 15.

- Meijman, T., and Thierry, H., (1994), Time and behavior at work. In Triandis H.C., Dunnette, M.D., and Hough, L.M., (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*, California: *Consulting Psychologists Press*, 4 (1), pp. 341 – 413.
- Monk, T. H., and Folkard, S., (1992), *Making shift work tolerable*, Taylor and Francis, London, Washington DC, p. 145.
- Norbert S., Norbert H., and Gabriele H. F., (2000), Assessing clinically significant change: application of the SCL-90-R., *Psychological Reports*: 86 (2), pp. 263-274. doi: 10.2466/pr0.2000.86.1.263.
- Olson L., Cole M., and Ambrogetti A. (1998), Correlations among Epworth Sleepiness Scale scores, multiple sleep latency tests and psychological symptoms, *Journal of sleep research*, 1 (7), pp. 248–253.
- Pati A. K., Chandrawanshi, A., and Reinberg, A., (2001), Shift work: Consequences and management, Ravishankar Shukla University, Raipur, India, pp. 217-224.
- Perkins, L., (2001), Occupational HAZARDS: Is the night shift worth the risk, *Emergency Nursing Journal*, 23 (2), pp. 602-609.
- Post, M.W., de Bruin, A., De Witte, L. and Schrijvers, A., (1996), The SIP68: a measure of health-related functional status in rehabilitation medicine, *Arch Phys Med Rehabil*, 77, pp. 440–445.
- Pressman, M. R., (1997), *Understanding sleep*, Washington, DC.
- PsycINFO Database Record (c), 2012 APA.
- Robert G. C. Salkeld G., Thomas M., and Szonyi G., (2010) Prospective Study of the Impact of Fear of Falling on Activities of Daily Living, SF-36 Scores, *Nursing Home Admission*, 48, pp. 312-316.
- Rogers, E., Hwang, W.T., Linda D., S., Linda. H. A., and David F. D., (2004), the Working Hours of Hospital Staff Nurses and Patient Safety, *Journal of Health Affairs*, 23 (4), pp. 202-212.
- Roman, V., Walstra, I., Luiten, P.G., and Meerlo, P., (2005), too little sleep gradually desensitizes the serotonin 1A receptor system. *Sleep*, pp. 1505–1510.
- Rosa, R. R., and Bonnet, M. H., (1993), Performance and alertness on 8 H and 12 H rotating shifts at a natural gas utility, *Ergonomics*, 36 (1), pp. 1177-1193.
- Rowley, G. and Purcell, K. (2001), “As cooks go, she went: is labour churn inevitable?”, *Hospitality Management*, 20, pp. 163-85.

- Smith, C. S., Folkard, S., and Fuller, J. A., (2003), Shiftwork and working hours. In Quick, J.C., (Ed.), *Handbook of Occupational Health Psychology*, Washington: American Psychological Association.
- Scott, L. H., (2006), the impact of multiple care giving roles on fatigue, stress, and work performance among hospital staff nurses. *The Journal of Nursing Administration*, 36 (2), pp.86-95.
- Shields N., Margot K., (2002), Shift work and health. Health Reports. *Statistics Canada Catalogue* ,82-003. 13(4), pp. 11-33.
- Smith, C.S., Folkard, S., and Fuller, J. A., (2003), Shift work and working hours. In Quick, J.C., (Ed.), *Handbook of Occupational Health Psychology*. Washington: American Psychological Association, pp1214-1223.
- Stokowski, L., (2004), A wake-up call for nurses: Sleep loss, safety, and health, *Medscap*, pp.113-117.
- Suzuki, K., Ohida, T., Kaneita, Y., Yokoyama, E., Miyake, T., Harano, S., Yagi, Y., Ibuka, E., Kanebo, A., Tsutsui, T. and Uchiyama, M., (2004), Mental health status, shift work, and occupational accidents among hospital nurses in Japan. *Journal of Occupational Health*, 46(6), pp. 448-454.
- Veasey T., Sigrid, S., Raymond R., Barbara B., Ilene R., and Judith O., (2002), "Sleep Loss and Fatigue in Residency Training: A Reappraisal, *The Journal of the American Medical Association*, 288 (9), pp. 1116 -1124.
- Warfa . N., Klein A., Bhui K. Leavy G., Craig T and Stansfeld S.A., (2007), Khat use and mental illness: a critical review, *Social science and medicine*, 65(2), pp.309–318, doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2007.04.038
- Wade D.T. and Collin C., (1988), The Barthel ADL Index: a standard measure of physical disability? *Int., Disabil Stud*; 10, pp. 64–67.
- Wang G S, Quan L, Han Y, ;Study on correlation between mental health status and social support in patients with hepatic lenticular degeneration ;*Anhui Medical Journal*;2009-12, Anhui Medical University. www.ccohs.ca, 2005, last accessed (18/04/2015).
- Yang C.K., Choe B.M., Baity M., , Lee J.H. and , Cho J.S, (2005), SCL-90-R and 16PF Profiles of Senior High School Students With Excessive Internet Use, *Canadian Psychiatric Association*, 50(1), 407-414.
- YAO S,WU Q 1, , HONG H, (2011), ;A Study on the Relationship Between Social Support, Coping Styles and Mental Health of College Students ;*Journal of Anhui Vocational & Technical College*; *Anhui Medical Journal* -01, Anhui Medical University.

Dark tourism and crime.

2015. Derek Dalton, Abingdon, Routledge, pp.211. ISBN 978-0-20308015-3

Reviewed by Maximiliano E Korstanje

Dark Tourism represents a more than interesting issue, which fascinated scholarship in recent decades. Although a great volume of books, theses and studies have been produced in this direction we still know little about the key factors that determine the attractiveness of dark tourism sites.

In this respect, Derek Dalton places the discussion of criminality and dark tourism under the lens of scrutiny with his book, *Dark Tourism & Crime*. However, to some extent this text turns 360 degrees regards to the classical literature. Tragedies, disasters and traumatic events are often memorialized because they jolt society, but paradoxically, there were some other (events) crimes that remain ignored. Those places characterized by the presence of mass-murders or atrocities such as ethnic cleansings and human right violations inspire curiosity in the global audience. The consolidation of dark tourism worldwide, as a new contemporary phenomenon, bespeaks of our curiosity for death. Not only are these places selected according to the shock it may produce, but the success to position in top-tiered international demand. Although much has been said about this issue, the role of competition to offer the most macabre landscape has been undermined by the specialized literature. Even though the proliferation of recent studies that take the “thanaptosis” as the source of dark-thana tourism has shed light on the connection of tourism and death, we face a dispersion of terms and meaning each author assign to the discussion, Derek adds. This book offers an all-encompassing view of what has been written adding a new element in the debate, the role played by the “selective memory” to draw the trauma-escape, even the places where dark tourism is widely practiced. As a good criminologist, Derek emphasizes on a subtype of Thana-tourism, spaces where a violent crime has been committed. It represents a fertile ground of research in the field of dark tourism, which exhibits a genuine attempt to understand death. Instead of associating this issue with voyeurism, Derek argues that dark tourism allows making sensory connections to a more nuanced form of what crime means for Occident.

Particularly interesting and provoking by the methodology this book provides, it is important not to lose sight that performativity orchestrates the role of ethnographer, or researchers to individual experience of visitors. Without this, researchers are unable to feel the embodiment between the histories of dark sites, and the derived feelings. Those who are concerned about dark tourism sites, not only have their own “baggage”, formed by emotions, fears and hopes about death, but also captivates events, which remained covered by other field-workers. To understand this, we have to delve into the role played by memory in the formation of trauma. Instead of focusing on what visitors feel, a technique which has been widely criticized by Korstanje in earlier studies, Derek innovates by exploring the literature about the quest for justice of victims, as well as the legal discourse of state about the crimes (Korstanje & Ivanov

2012; Korstanje 2011). Based on intense cases such as Dirty War in Argentina, or human rights violations in Cambodia, chapters forming this book may be interconnected in the same common thread argument; crime related dark tourism offers a good opportunity to expand the current understanding scholarship have on the “vicarious witnessing”.

The book is structured to deal with four major themes,

- a) Neglected dark tourism practices, which references the past of colonial violence such as the case of Australia. The interesting point of entry in the discussion rests on the violence exerted by colonial powers in the past, crimes which are not overtly acknowledged today.
- b) Undesirable crime dark tourism sites are where there was a bloody event or a crime that shocked the community.
- c) The online and technological trends to experience dark sites from websites, form what Derek dubbed “future trends in dark tourism”.
- d) The latent limitations around crime related places are given by the passage from non-crime related sites to a temporary crime related attraction. The acts of vandalism, this means graffiti, destruction of heritage or the attacks to museums in hands of terrorist groups are clear examples of this. Not surprisingly, it is very interesting to discuss to what an extent, our legal current conceptualization of crime is associated to death alone, or can be expanded to other deviant behavior.

Chapter 1 explores the context of concentration camps of genocide and those crimes perpetrated during Nazism, which changed the ways of making tourism. The rules of consumption in dark tourism appeal to a message, a discourse, an allegory, which mutually negotiated leaves a message to learn. Rather, the second chapter discusses the assassination of French civilians during WWII in the village of Oradour-sur-Glane. The crimes perpetrated by the bloody government of Pol Pot Khmer Rouge (in Cambodia) are an object of study for chapter three. The violations to human rights during the last dictatorships, in some cases associated to the theft of babies, in Argentina and Chile is brilliantly addressed in the fourth and fifth sections. The crimes perpetrated by Martin Bryant in Australia are the best chapter of the book. Tasmania, an island within Australian sovereignty, has been historically reserved to receive criminals, delivered from diverse geographical points of England. This paves the way for the creation of a previous heritage of suffering, which was part of penal system. Even earlier than Bryant, this zone represents a rich reservoir of trauma and suffering. The last chapter is fully dedicated to 9/11 and attacks to World Trade Centre in NY.

Once again, this book gives a fresh alternative viewpoint on the topic, combining interesting hypotheses of work for criminologists, anthropologists or sociologists and tourism scholars concerned by the roots of dark tourism. Its erudite framework as well as the innovative approach will very well usher readers in enjoying a nice experience at the time of reading the book.

Nonetheless, we would like to stress the fact that dark tourism exhibits a postmodern trend,

based on the imposition of “social Darwinism” as a main cultural value. To place this in other terms, dark tourism is not very different than “the reality show Big Brother”. In this mediated TV show, a considerable number of participants compete with others to be the only winner. What they ignore seems to be that only one of them will achieve success, which implies the collapse of the rest. The question whether these participants would be cognizant with their probabilities to fail, they will never take part of the game. They play this game thinking (hoping) in their own skills, and undermining the “Other”. This type of new social Darwinism, which may be traced at the labor market, not only is enrooted in the capitalist ethos that encourages the “survival of the fittest (strongest), but also have commonalities with Dark Tourism. A couple of decades ago, George H Mead, one of the founding parents of Symbolic interactionism, paid heed to those who consume bad news. Developing an uncanny attachment for the suffering of “Others”, the American audience is running into sharp contradictions. On one hand, the readership of most important newspapers manifested its reluctance for the atmosphere news creates. On another, they showed a fascination in read news like this on a daily basis. To make a long story short, Mead acknowledges that we feel a strange happiness for the suffering of others, because it represents another opportunity to keep our safety. The same happens in dark tourism consumption, in secular societies where death is frightened, we never think seriously in death, but devoting our efforts to expand our life. Modern societies are oriented to yield technological breakthroughs towards the expansion of life expectance; since we neglect death, because we are taught to be in a race (competitive, active, or with opportunities to reach the objective), we celebrate the end of the “Other”. The happiness for other death is equaled to exorcise the own death.

This review is underpinned in the proposition that the metaphor of trace explains with accuracy the ebbs and flows of life. In this respect, dark tourism sites not only remind our superiority over those who had left this life, but also nourish our hopes to live forever. Allegorically, we have been chosen by Gods in view of our moral superiority or physical strengths. Most likely, the founding myth of dark tourism was Noah’s ark, where God disposed to efface all humankind only saving one family (Korstanje 2015). As Weber puts it, we must think capitalism as a productive system that reserves the wealth for few, expanding the ruin to the whole. This was a result of the protestant logic that sees the world as chaotic, unjust, evil and corrupt. In this context, only few selected souls are inscribed in the book of life (Weber, 2002). This suggests a more than interesting relationship among social Darwinism, Protestantism, and dark tourism. Likely hints to unravel this connection should be continued in future approaches. With the benefits of hindsight, it gives a fertile explanation that illuminates why those Anglo-speaking countries are prone to develop dark tourism practices, while in Latin America it is still a marginal issue, which in some countries wakes up sharp contradictions and resistance. Our thesis is that at the time we feel more special we will pay attention to tragic events associated to death and mass-suffering.

REFERENCES

- Korstanje, M. E., & Ivanov, S. (2012). Tourism as a form of new psychological resilience: The inception of dark tourism. *CULTUR-Revista de Cultura e Turismo*, 6(4), 56-71.
- Korstanje, M. E. (2011). Detaching the elementary forms of dark-tourism. *Anatolia*, 22(3), 424-427.
- Korstanje, M. (2015). The anthropology of dark tourism. Working Paper # 22. CERS. Centre for Ethnicity & Racism Studies. University of Leeds UK.
- Weber, M. (2002). *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism: and other writings*. New York, Penguin.

The European Journal of Tourism Research

The **European Journal of Tourism Research** is an interdisciplinary scientific journal in the field of tourism, published by International University College, Bulgaria. Its aim is to provide a platform for discussion of theoretical and empirical problems in tourism. Publications from all fields, connected with tourism such as management, marketing, sociology, psychology, geography, political sciences, mathematics, statistics, anthropology, culture, information technologies and others are invited.

The journal is open to all researchers. Young researchers and authors from Central and Eastern Europe are encouraged to submit their contributions.

Regular Articles in the **European Journal of Tourism Research** should normally be between 4 000 and 20 000 words. Major research articles of between 10 000 and 20 000 are highly welcome. Longer or shorter papers will also be considered. The journal publishes also Research Notes of 1 500 – 2 000 words. Submitted papers must combine theoretical concepts with practical applications or empirical testing. **The European Journal of Tourism Research** includes also the following sections: *Book Reviews*, announcements for *Conferences and Seminars*, abstracts of successfully defended *Doctoral Dissertations in Tourism*, case studies of *Tourism Best Practices*.

The editorial team welcomes your submissions to the **European Journal of Tourism Research**.

Submissions should be addressed to Stanislav Ivanov, Ph. D., Editor-in-chief.
E-mail: stanislav.ivanov@vumk.eu

For Submission Guidelines visit: <http://ejtr.vumk.eu>

The **European Journal of Tourism Research** is published in two Volumes per year.

Ecoforum

ECOFORUM is an international, multi-disciplinary, refereed (peer-reviewed), print, online and open access journal aiming to promote and enhance research in all fields of Economics. Areas of research include, but are not limited to, the following: Global Business, Business Economics, Business Administration, Economic Growth and Development, Economics of Organizations and Industries, Marketing, Accounting, Sustainable development, Management, Finance and Investment. The journal is open to all researchers. Members of Editorial Board are professors from Europe, Asia, America and Africa.

The journal **ECOFORUM** is published (online and in hard cover) twice a year, in January and July. For the issues published in January, the manuscripts must be submitted online until 1st October and the ones for the number published in July, until 1st of May.

We invite you to visit: www.ecoforumjournal.ro

Contributors

Czesław Adamiak

Nicolaus Copernicus University
Toruń, Poland
czeslaw.adamiak@umk.pl

Alessandro Arangio

Department of Juridical Sciences and History of Institutions
University of Messina
Via Tommaso Cannizzaro 278
98122 Messina
Italy
aarangio@unime.it

Elena Di Blasi

Department of Juridical Sciences and History of Institutions
University of Messina
Via Tommaso Cannizzaro 278, 98122 Messina, Italy
edibiasi@unime.it

Richard Butler

Strathclyde Business School
Strathclyde University
Glasgow, Scotland
richard.butler@strath.ac.uk

Ashraf El Baroudy

Freelancer Consultant
Saudi Food And Beverage Consultants
Mob.01001428448
ashrafelbaroudy53@yahoo.com

Mahinour A. Fouad

Associate Professor
Faculty of Tourism and Hotel Management
Helwan University
Egypt
Mob. 01001426200
mahinorf@yahoo.com

Yao-Yi Fu

Department of Tourism, Conventions, and Event Management
Indiana University
Indiana University School of Physical Education & Tourism Management
901 West New York Street, PE 263
Indianapolis, Indiana 46202
USA
Tel: 317-278-1885
Fax: 317-278-2041
yafu@iupui.edu

Kyriaki Glyptou

Department of Business Administration
University of the Aegean
8, Michalon Street
Chios 82100
Greece
k.glyptou@fme.aegean.gr

Stanislav Ivanov

International University College
Bulgaria
stanislav.ivanov@vumk.eu

Parhad Keyim

Department of Geographical and Historical Studies
University of Eastern Finland, Finland
keyimu.pahati@uef.fi

Maximiliano Korstanje

Department of Economics
Universidad de Palermo
Larrea 1079 – 3 Floor, Argentina
Tel 00 54 11 4855 6754
mkorst@palermo.edu

Christina Loi

Head of Administrative Procedures Department
Region of South Aegean
10, Nikou Kazatzaki Street
Rhodes 85100
Greece
ch.loi.moustaka@hotmail.com

Petros Lois

PwC Chair in Business Research
School of Business
University of Nicosia, Cyprus
lois.p@unic.ac.cy

Mohamed Hany B. Moussa

Prof. Dr. Mohamed Hany
Head of hospitality management department,
Faculty of Tourism and Hotel Management
Helwan University
Egypt
Mob. 01227618819
drhanymousa@yahoo.com

Andreas Papatheodorou

Director, Laboratory for Tourism Research and Studies
Department of Business Administration
University of the Aegean
8, Michalon Street
Chios 82100
Greece
a.papatheodorou@aegean.gr

Greg Richards

NHTV Breda
The Netherlands
Richards.g@nhtv.nl

Nicos Rodosthenous

Cyprus University of Technology
nrodosthenous@hotmail.com

Iana Tashlai

Cardiff Metropolitan University / International University College, Bulgaria
iana.tashlai@gmail.com

Manolis Varvounis

School of Classics and Humanities
Department of History and Ethnology
Democritus University of Thrace, Greece
mvarv@otenet.gr

Suosheng Wang

Indiana University
Indiana University Department of Tourism, Conventions and Event Management
901 West New York Street
Indianapolis, IN 46202
USA
suwang@iupui.edu

NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS / SUBMISSION GUIDELINES

Manuscript Submission Procedure:

- Submit your paper, book reports and conference reports via e-mail to the Editor-in-Chief: Cwebster3@bsu.edu. Feedback regarding the submission will be returned to the author(s) within two months of the receipt of the manuscript.
- Submission of a manuscript to *Tourism Today* represents a certification on the part of the author(s) that it is an original work and has not been published elsewhere; manuscripts that are eventually published may not be reproduced for one year following publication in *Tourism Today*.
- Submission of a manuscript will be held to imply that it contains original unpublished work not being considered for publication elsewhere at the same time. Contributors can correct first proofs, if time permits it.
- Manuscripts should be written as understandably and concisely as possible with clarity and meaningfulness.
- Tourism Today publishes regular articles, research notes, case studies, conference reviews and book reviews in tourism. Manuscripts are accepted for publication only on basis of their scientific value and merits. No manuscript can be accepted or rejected because of the nationality, religion, race, gender, occupancy, age or other characteristics of the author(s).
- Every manuscript is subject to a double-blind review process, except for book reviews and conference reviews.
- Manuscripts should be submitted according the submission guidelines and must comply with the Publication Ethics and Publication Malpractice Statement of the journal.

Manuscript Length

Full papers should be between 6,000-9,000 words, excluding references. Research notes or case studies should be between 1,500-2,000 words long, excluding references. Commentaries should be about 1,200 words long. Book and conference reviews should be about 1,000 words long. Full papers and research notes must have up to six key words to indicate to readers the topic of the paper.

Manuscript style and preparation

- All submissions (full papers, research notes, case studies, commentaries, and book or conference reviews) must have a title of no more than 14 words.

- Manuscripts should be double-line spaced, and have at least a one-inch margin on all four sides. Pages should be numbered consecutively.
- The use of footnotes within the text is discouraged – use endnotes instead. Endnotes should be kept to a minimum, be used to provide additional comments and discussion and should be numbered consecutively in the text and typed on a separate sheet of paper at the end of the article.
- Quotations must be taken accurately from the original source. Alterations to the quotations must be noted. Quotation marks (“ ”) are to be used to denote direct quotes. Inverted commas (‘ ’) should denote a quote within a quotation.
- Include the name(s) of any sponsor(s) of the research contained in the manuscript.
- Tables, figures and illustrations are to be included in the text and to be numbered consecutively (in Arabic numbers) with the titles.
- Tables, figures and illustrations should be kept to a minimum.
- The text should be organized under appropriate section headings, which, ideally, should not be more than 500 words apart. Section headings should be marked as follows: primary headings should be typed in bold capitals and underlined; secondary headings should be typed with italic capital letters. Authors are urged to write as concisely as possible, but not at the expense of clarity.
- Author(s) are responsible for preparing manuscripts which are clearly written in acceptable, scholarly English, and which contain no errors of spelling, grammar, or punctuation. Neither the Editor nor the Publisher is responsible for correcting errors of spelling or grammar.
- Images should be supplied as files that can be opened and edited in Adobe Photoshop (bitmapped images) or Illustrator (vector images). Transparencies (up to 4x5”) and photo prints (up to A3 size) are also acceptable.

Manuscript Presentation

For submission, manuscripts of full papers, research notes and case studies should be arranged in the following order of presentation:

- *First page*: title, subtitle (if required), author’s name and surname, affiliation, full postal address, telephone and fax numbers, and e-mail address. Respective names, affiliations and addresses of co-authors should be clearly indicated. Also, include an abstract of not more than 150 words, acknowledgements (if any), and up to 6 keywords that identify article content.
- *Second page*: title, an abstract of not more than 150 words and up to 6 keywords that identify article content. Do not include the author(s) details and affiliation(s) in this page.
- *Subsequent pages*: main body of text (including tables, figures and illustrations); list of references; appendixes; and footnotes (numbered consecutively).

Reference Style

In the text, references should be cited with parentheses using the “author, date” style - for example (Ford, 2001; Jackson 1998, 2002). Page numbers for specific points or direct quotations must be given. The Reference list, placed at the end of the manuscript, must be typed in alphabetical order of authors. The specific format is:

- *For journals:* Tribe, J. (2002) The philosophic practitioner. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 338-357.
- *For books and monographs:* Teare, R. and Ingram, H. (1993) *Strategic Management: A Resource-Based Approach for the Hospitality and Tourism Industries*. London, Cassell.
- *For chapters in edited books:* Webster, C. and Ivanov, S. (2012) The Political Economy of Future Tourism. In J. Leigh, C. Webster, S. Ivanov (Eds.) *Future Tourism Political, Social and Economic Challenges*, London: Routledge.
- *For reports:* Edelstein, L. G. & Benini, C. (1994) *Meetings and Conventions*. Meetings market report (August), 60-82.
- *For Internet sources:* Wirtz, J., Kimes, S., Ho, J., Patterson, P. (2002) Revenue management: resolving potential customer conflicts. Working Paper Series. School of Hotel Administration. Cornell University. URL: <http://www.hotelschool.cornell.edu/chr/pdf/showpdf/chr/research/working/revenuemanage.pdf> (Accessed on 16.12.2005)

TOURISM Today: PUBLICATION ETHICS AND PUBLICATION MALPRACTICE STATEMENT

Tourism Today is a peer-reviewed journal committed to maintaining the highest standards of publication and research ethics. To ensure authors and readers with a high-quality and ethical product, Tourism Today states the following principles for this statement of Publication Ethics and Malpractice. Any article not in accordance with these standards will not be considered for publications in Tourism Today. Tourism Today is concerned about plagiarism, research fabrication, and the improper use of animals and humans in the research process. We reserve the right to use plagiarism detecting software for any submissions to the journal in order to screen out any attempted plagiarism. The Editor-in-Chief of Tourism Today will report any cases of suspected plagiarism or duplicate publishing. If the Editor-in-Chief of Tourism Today finds that an article submitted to Tourism Today contains falsified data, used humans or animals improperly in the research process, or contains plagiarism, the person(s) submitting said research will never again be considered for publication in Tourism Today as an author or co-author for a peer-reviewed article.

Authors submitting articles for consideration to Tourism Today have specific responsibilities.

- Authors must ensure that what they submit is original and has not been submitted elsewhere.
- All data sources and quotations must be appropriately credited and referenced.
- In addition, authors bear the responsibility for the editing of language before the article is submitted to Tourism Today.
- Authors are responsible upon submission to Tourism Today that what is submitted is original and that any parts that have been taken from other works are appropriately credited and referenced.
- Authors must also disclose financial or other conflicts of interest that may have a potential for influencing the interpretation of data.
- Any financial support for authors' projects must be disclosed.
- Any time an author discovers a significant error, she or he is obliged to immediately inform the Editor-in-Chief, so that remedial action may take place.
- Submitting an article to more than one publication at any one time is a breach of ethics and if Tourism Today discovers this breach, the article will not be published in Tourism Today.

The Editor-in-Chief of Tourism Today has specific responsibilities.

- The Editor-in-Chief must guarantee an impartial double-blind peer-review of all the articles submitted for publication, with the exception of conference reviews and book reviews.
- The Editor-in-Chief will endeavor to prevent any possible conflicts of interests between the authors or papers submitted for consideration to the journal and the people involved in the editorial/review process.

Tourism Today's Reviewers have specific responsibilities.

- Reviewers must evaluate manuscripts based solely on the content of what is submitted to Tourism Today, with no regard to gender, race, sexual orientation, ethnic origin, citizenship, religion, or political attitudes/opinions of the author(s).
- Reviewers must ensure that all information related to manuscripts submitted to Tourism Today is kept confidential.
- Additionally, reviewers are required to report to the Editor-in-Chief immediately any suspected copyright infringement and plagiarism.
- Reviewers are required to evaluate the submitted works objectively, presenting their objective assessments of submitted works in written reviews with criticisms explained in a clear way.
- A reviewer who feels, for whatever reason, that she/he cannot review a manuscript in an impartial way must notify the Editor-in-Chief to excuse herself/himself from the review process.

