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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 the Department of Family and Consumer Sciences at 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.

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NOTE FROM THE EDITOR

Welcome to this edition of *Tourism Today*. Both the College of Tourism and Hotel Management and the Department of Family and Consumer Sciences at Ball State University continue to support *Tourism Today*. The cooperation between these two institutions on sides of the Atlantic enables *Tourism Today* to continue to be a quality journal as an outlet for academics as well as a resource for academics, students, and those in industry. The journal remains available to everyone free of charge online.

There have been some changes to the Editorial Board. We are glad to welcome a few new members. We are glad that have such representation from around the world. The members of the Editorial Board help to ensure the quality and reputation of the journal and we appreciate the assistance and support we have continued to have for years.

Tourism Today has a long history and has remained active for years. In 1999, Antonis Charalambides, then Director of the College of Tourism and Hotel Management, and I spoke about reviving a publication from years ago, *Tourism Today*. Since then, *Tourism Today* has continued to be come out each year. We have moved to a yearly format with this being the first annual issue. Previously, we had stated that we had an annual autumn issue. At present, we have a yearly issue. From now on, there will be no seasonal mention but, instead, just a yearly edition.

In this issue, we have a great variety of articles. One of the most interesting articles is Trihas' article on the travel motivations of Greek gay men and lesbians. There are some other interesting and insightful articles, such as Dinberu's article on tourism motivation to Christian sites in Ethiopia, Briel's article on cultural heritage in China, and Gobin et al.'s article on implications of eco-tourism in Nigeria. The articles represent research in many different countries and use very different methodologies. One of the most interesting articles is Wang's article on dark tourism, delving into interesting ideas about the classifications of dark tourists. All-in-all, there is a richness of the articles, highlighting interesting issues in tourism in many different countries.

As has been the case since the first edition of *Tourism Today*, comments that assist us in improving the journal are appreciated and welcome. We encourage readers to support the journal by submitting quality research for our consideration and spreading the word about the journal to friends and colleagues.

We wish you an enjoyable read.

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

Travel motivations, preferences and perceptions of Greek gay men and lesbians

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ABSTRACT

Gay and lesbian tourism has attracted the attention of the global tourism industry due to its enormous growth in recent years. This paper aims to explore Greek gay men and lesbians' travel behavior. Survey was conducted in a sample of 209 gay men and lesbians in Greece. The results of the study indicate that gays and lesbians are in many respects no different from other heterosexual tourists, with their main holiday motivations being the opportunities to see different cultures, to live new experiences, and the need for relaxation and recreation. On the other hand, other motivations which can be related to the participants' sexual identity such as the needs 'for escape from the oppressive environment I live in' and 'to be myself' were also found to be important. Findings and discussion of this study are useful to academic researchers and tourism stakeholders interested in engaging in gay and lesbian tourism.

Keywords: gay and lesbian tourism, travel motivations, destination choices, sexual identity, Greece

INTRODUCTION

LGBT (lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender) travel market has experienced a significant increase in recent years attracting the attention of the global tourism industry. Studies show that gay men and lesbians are, in many respects, desirable tourists: they are characterized as frequent and intensive holidaymakers, upscale, brand loyal, they tend to have greater disposable incomes and respectively large expenditures while in holidays, with few family commitments and thus more free time to travel (Hughes, 1997, 2003, 2006; Philipp, 1999; Pritchard, Morgan, Sedgley & Jenkins, 1998; Roth, 2004; Smith, Macleod & Robertson, 2010). According to UNWTO (2012), the acronym DINK – dual income, no kids – makes same-sex couples as the ultimate consumers. The global value of the LGBT travel market in 2016 was estimated to be worth over USD\$211 billion (Out Now Global, 2016). As a result, LGBT tourism is increasingly seen as a powerful and lucrative market segment and consequently as an attractive business opportunity for many enterprises and destinations which now recognize the benefits of attracting the so-called 'Pink Pound or Dollar' (Smith et al., 2010).

In order to successfully market or meet the demands of gay men and lesbian tourists, a deep understanding of this group's unique characteristics and their key motivations when visiting a

destination or accommodation business is crucial. While there is a growing volume of literature regarding gay men and lesbians' travel behaviour in a number of destinations worldwide, there is a lack of empirical studies focusing in the Greek context. This paper comes to partly fill this gap and contribute to the LGBT tourism literature, as one of the first attempts in Greece to explore the role and impact of sexual orientation in travel motivations, destination choices and tourism behaviour of Greek gay men and lesbians. In Greece, homosexuality is still considered by most of the population as a taboo issue and many people of the LGBT community face discrimination or intimidation. On the other hand, some areas of Greece are extremely popular destinations for gay and lesbian travelers. Mykonos and Skiathos can be found in the seventh place on Lonely Planet's list with the most gay-friendly places on the planet. Moreover, Athens has a busy gay scene, while Lesbos, birthplace of the lesbian poet Sappho, is considered a place of pilgrimage for lesbians (Lonely Planet, 2017).

LITERATURE REVIEW

A growing number of studies focus on gay and lesbian tourism. Compared to the existing literature about gay men's travel behavior, less research has been undertaken on lesbian women as tourists. One possible reason for this is the disinterest in targeting lesbian market, as lesbians have not been considered economically as powerful as gay men. Nevertheless, an important body of the available literature examines the travel motivations and destination choices of gay men and lesbians, and compares them to those of heterosexuals. Sexuality was found by several researchers to impact gays' travel behavior and holiday choices. For example, Casey (2009) suggests that sexual identity is a key holiday motivator for gay men, while Pritchard, Morgan, Sedgley, Khan, and Jenkins (2000) agree that sexuality has a critical impact on gays' holiday choices. More specifically, as key influences on their choice of holiday emerge the need to feel comfortable with like-minded people, along with the needs for safety and to escape from heterosexism. In their study, Ersoy, Ozer, and Tuzunkan (2012) found that gay men in Istanbul prefer destinations where they can feel themselves free, wouldn't encounter with prejudicial behavior and find high service quality for which they are ready to pay a high amount of money. Gay social life and sex were also identified by Clift and Forrest (1999) as one important dimension of gay tourist motivation. Weeden, Lester, and Jarvis (2016) found that sexuality is an important factor that influences gay men and lesbians' purchasing decisions when planning a cruise vacation.

In any case, the issue of identity seems to play a crucial role as a gay travel motivation (Apostolopoulou & Tsartas, 2015; Hughes, 1997), as tourism provides gay men with ample opportunities to escape from the heteronormative social constraints and be themselves – reinforcing as a result their sexual identity – and access sexual possibilities (Monterrubio, 2009). Similarly, Herrera and Scott (2005) found that gay men living in a small city pursued leisure experiences that affirmed their gay self-identities. They used to travel to larger cities in order to escape from the stifling, heteronormative community of their city, feeling comfortable exploring their homosexuality in a positive, affirming manner. Furthermore, leisure travel helped them make gay friends and, in the process, helped them to reinforce their gay identity.

Whilst these studies suggest that sexual identity and the desire to engage in sexual activities

while on holidays may be an important motivation for gays, other studies argue that gay men and lesbians are being driven by the same aspects as heterosexuals regarding their travel motivations. For example, Köllen and Lazar (2012) examined non-Hungarian gay travelers' motivations to visit Budapest and their experiences while in the city. They concluded that the main pull factors for choosing Budapest as a destination were the beauty of the city, its history, architecture and scenery – aspects that are also important for other 'mainstream tourists' – and not its gay life or gay scene. Visser's study (2003) on gay tourism in Cape Town, confirms that gay tourists do not differ from other heterosexual tourists, as they are travelling to South Africa mainly for its natural, cultural and historical attractions. Hughes (2002) also found that the main pull factors for gay men when planning their holidays are the sun and sea, culture, heritage, scenery, entertainment, sport and so on. Lubowiecki-Vikuk and Borzyszkowski (2016) examined the tourist activity of the Polish LGBT society, which they found to be similar to that of the Polish society in many aspects, i.e. the destinations and the influence of specified socio-demographic factors (education and place of residence) on tourist activity. The only clear and noticeable difference concerned the rate of tourist activity: in this case, a clear advantage of LGBT was observed over the total of the Polish society. In their study, Prat Forga and Canoves (2015) found that most of the tourists visiting Barcelona seek cultural experiences of different types, enjoy anonymity away from home, and are eager to feel the ambience of the city. In any case, Vorobjovas-Pinta and Hardy (2016) argue that the importance of sex as a factor in holidays has been potentially over-exaggerated as the presumed relationship between sex and gay holiday is not always equally appealing (i.e. lesbian travellers) or suitable (i.e. gay families) to every gay traveller.

Other studies focusing exclusively on lesbian tourists confirm that they have been driven by the same holiday motivations as their straight counterparts. For example, Therkelsen, Blichfeldt, Chor, and Ballegaard (2013) argue that despite the fact that lesbian tourists are a very heterogeneous group, it seems that they have in many ways more in common with other female tourists than with gay male tourists, as opposed to gay men it is less likely to visit gay destinations, gay spaces, and seek new sexual partners while on holiday. They are looking on their holidays for new cultural, nature-based and hedonistic experiences, while lesbian bars, events and communities appear only to be a supplement to the other more central holiday experiences. Cultural experiences were also highlighted by Monterrubio and Barrios-Ayala (2015) as a key travel motivation for lesbians, while sexuality is not as important for determining lesbian's holiday experiences as has been commonly argued. Overall, it seems that lesbians have the same needs and choose the same travel agents, tour operators, carriers, accommodations and destinations with other female travelers (Hughes, 2005).

Regarding an important sub niche in gay and lesbian tourism, that of gay families with children, Hughes and Southall (2012) suggest that these families tend to be judged usually negatively by the heterosexual norm and this gives rise to particular issues in holiday decision-making. Lucena, Jarvis, and Weeden (2015) believe that there are differences in lesbian and gay parents' holiday motivations compared to other gay and lesbian persons, e.g. for such families, gay space in terms on nightlife is unlikely to be such an important factor. Given the fact that holiday and

destination choices often can be explained by factors such as age (Hughes, 2002), another interesting sub niche is that of older gay men. In their study, Hughes and Deutsch (2010) examined the holiday profile of older gay men and found that holiday preferences were similar to those of other older people but at the same time older gay men were concerned to ensure access to gay space and gay-friendliness of the destination, avoiding potentially homophobic places and situations.

Over and above, Blichfeldt, Chor, and Milan (2011), point out that gays do not travel always for the same reasons and their motivations are different every time they go on holidays. They suggest that gay people sometimes choose to emphasize their sexual identity while they are on vacation and sometimes to suppress it. As a result, “there is no such thing as ‘a gay tourist’; instead there are gay people who sometimes choose to be ‘gay tourists’ and who, during other holidays, choose to be cultural tourists, adventure tourists, mass tourists, gastronomy tourists etc” (Blichfeldt et al., 2011, p. 22).

METHODOLOGY

As mentioned in the introductory section, this research aims to identify several aspects of Greek gay men and lesbians’ travel behavior. The research focuses exclusively on people who are gay or lesbian, not bisexual or transgender. For the purposes of the research, a self-completed structured questionnaire consisting of three sections and eighteen questions, based on literature review, was designed. In the first section, participants were asked to provide some basic information about their travel choices, such as the factors which motivate them for taking holidays, the type of vacation and the booking method they prefer, the destination and accommodation choice criteria, the type of accommodation they prefer and the destinations visited in the past three years. The second section focuses on the relation between their sexuality and their travel behavior. Participants were asked to indicate the factors that a destination and an accommodation must have in order to be characterised as ‘gay-friendly’. Moreover, they were asked if they have visited a city in the past in order to participate in a LGBT event (e.g. Pride festivals) and, finally, the second section asked respondents to indicate their level of agreement (using a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’) to twelve statements regarding gay tourism with a focus on its development in Greece. The last section contained questions about participants’ profile utilizing several demographic variables, i.e. sexual orientation, age, marital status, education, occupation and income. The questionnaire was prepared in Greek. To ensure that the questionnaire does not include any offensive or obscene language, it was checked by a psychologist and a lawyer. Moreover, to ensure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire, a pilot test was conducted with 10 members of a well known gay community in Athens, Greece, to test efficacy and clarity. Little modifications were then made based on their recommendations.

Given the challenges involved in researching potentially sensitive issues (Lee, 1993) there was a difficulty in accessing participants in the survey. According to UNWTO (2012), it never has been simple to conduct credible and scientific research about LGBT consumers, given stigma

and legal discrimination. Nevertheless, researchers now have online survey technologies at their disposal that are trusted and truly confidential, enabling them to mine far more valuable knowledge about LGBT travel identities, habits, attitudes and preferences (UNWTO, 2012). The Internet provides now the lesbian and gay community with a communication channel and an information source that supports anonymity and thus reduces social risk (Poria & Taylor, 2002). Utilizing this feature, a digital questionnaire ensuring absolute anonymity was prepared (on Google Docs) and distributed electronically to several Greek gay and lesbian clubs on Facebook. Their members were informed of the nature of the survey and were asked to complete the questionnaire, with a request to forward the questionnaire to other gays and lesbians outside their clubs who lived in Greece. Facebook was selected first because it is by far the most popular social network in Greece (Statista, 2017) and secondly as it is known that gays and lesbians today make extensive use of the online communication channels (social media, specialized apps, and specialized websites) (UNWTO, 2017).

The survey took place between September, 1st and November, 30th, 2017. A total of 209 questionnaires were collected. The collected data were statistically analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0.

FINDINGS

The demographic characteristics of the 209 respondents in total are presented in Table 1. The majority of the respondents (58.4%) identified themselves as lesbians, while 87 of them (41.6%) identified themselves as gay men. About half of the respondents (51.2%) were single at the time period where the research took place, followed by 87 persons with a partner (41.6%), 14 persons in an open relationship (6.7%), and just one married person (0.5%). More than half of the respondents (55%) were young people between 18-24 years old, in comparison to the minority (2.9%) for ages 45-54. It is notable to say that there were no participants above the age of 54. The educational level of the participants was remarkably high, with 120 of them (57.4%) to have graduated from a technical college or university, and 41 persons (19.6%) holding a Master's or PhD degree. Regarding their employment status, more than half of the respondents (56%) were students or pupils, while 64 of them (30.6%) were employed as private employees, freelancers, entrepreneurs or civil servants. 28 (13.4%) were unemployed the moment that the research was taking place. Finally, concerning the monthly income of the respondents, 89 of them (42.6%) stated that they have no personal income, which makes sense if we consider that many of them are still students or unemployed. Most of the other participants stated that they have a low income, which also sounds logical if we consider the economic crisis Greece is facing in the last eight years.

Table 1: Respondents' profile – demographic characteristics

		N	%
Sexual orientation / gender	Gay/male	87	41,6
	Lesbian/female	122	58,4
Marital status	Single	107	51,2
	In an open relationship	14	6,7
	Partnered	87	41,6
	Married	1	0,5
Age	<18	12	5,7
	18-24	115	55,0
	25-34	61	29,2
	35-44	15	7,2
	45-54	6	2,9
Education	High school degree	31	14,8
	Some post-secondary	17	8,1
	Graduated community/ technical college or university	120	57,4
	Post-graduate/ PhD degree	41	19,6
Employment status	Pupil/student	117	56,0
	Civil servant	2	1,0
	Private employee	45	21,5
	Freelance/ entrepreneur	17	8,1
	Unemployed	28	13,4
Monthly income	No personal income	89	42,6
	Under €500	31	14,8
	€501-1000	33	15,8
	€1001-1500	20	9,6
	€1501-2000	8	3,8
	€2001-3000	2	1,0
	€3001 or more	6	2,9
	No answer	20	9,6
TOTAL		209	100,0

Initially, participants were asked to indicate in a scale of 1 (unimportant) to 5 (extremely important) on how important are various selected motivations when considering taking a holiday (Table 2). As can be seen from their answers, the most important travel motivations for both gays and lesbians are the ‘opportunities to see different cultures’, the ‘chance for new experiences’, the ‘need for rest/relaxation’, the ‘need for fun/recreation’, but also the ‘need for escape from the oppressive environment I live in’ and the ‘need to be myself’. Other factors such as ‘socialize with other people’, ‘need to be acceptable’, ‘visit relatives/friends’ and the ‘need for anonymity’ are less important, while factors related to their sexuality and sexual behavior such as the ‘search for my sexual identity’ and the ‘opportunities to have casual sex’ are quite unimportant.

Table 2: Importance of various motivations when considering taking a holiday

	Mean			SD
	Gays	Lesbians	Total	
Need for rest / relaxation	3,80	3,52	3,64	1,135
Need for fun / recreation	3,80	3,52	3,64	1,033
Need for escape from the oppressive environment I live in	3,62	3,41	3,50	1,301
Need to be myself	3,09	3,16	3,13	1,380
Need to be acceptable	2,76	2,72	2,74	1,412
Need for anonymity	2,54	2,34	2,43	1,296
Socialize with other people	2,84	2,74	2,78	1,126
Search for my sexual identity	1,57	1,67	1,63	0,927
Opportunities to have casual sex	2,29	1,90	2,06	1,127
New experiences	3,95	3,43	3,65	1,180
Visit relatives / friends	2,77	2,26	2,47	1,264
Opportunities to see different cultures	4,14	3,64	3,85	1,063

Note: 1=Unimportant, 5=Extremely important

Application of T-test and ANOVA to investigate the significant effects of the demographic characteristics of the respondents (sexual orientation, marital status, age, education, occupation, monthly income) on their ratings on how important are various travel motivations (see Table 2), revealed some statistically significant effects in a number of cases. *Sexual orientation* appeared to have some influence on respondents’ perceptions about the importance of ‘need to be myself’ ($p=0.034$) and ‘opportunities to have casual sex’ ($p=0.000$). For the latter, the same goes for *marital status* ($p=0.000$), *age* ($p=0.000$) and *employment status* ($p=0.028$). The young, single

gay men tend to evaluate higher the importance of the opportunity to have casual sex as a travel motivation. Similarly, regarding the 'need for anonymity' some statistically significant effects are also revealed for *age* ($p=0.022$), *education* ($p=0.000$) and *employment status* ($p=0.004$). The age groups '25-34' and '35-44', with a Master's or PhD degree and the civil servants give greater importance to the 'need for anonymity' when considering taking a holiday.

Subsequently, a number of questions followed that shed light on other aspects of the travel choices and behavior of the respondents. The vast majority of both gays and lesbians (76.6%) prefer the 'do-it-yourself' option while planning a trip. Only a 3.8% of them choose to buy a package tour from a travel agent, and the other 19.6% travel both ways. In order to book their tickets and/or accommodation, the respondents use multiple ways. Most of them prefer to make their bookings online, as 133 visit travel websites (e.g. booking.com), 84 of them visit the websites of airlines and/or shipping companies and 41 of them visit hotel websites. 48 of the respondents still prefer the physical visit to a travel agency to buy their tickets. It is remarkable to say. It is remarkable to say that only three of the respondents visit online travel agents specialized on gay travel, and just two of them prefer to go to a physical travel agent specialized on gay travel. Of these five people, everyone is gay men and no one is a lesbian.

Then the respondents were asked to report the destinations they visited for leisure purposes in the last three years. Most of them reported places within Greece but many also traveled abroad. The ten most visited destinations within Greece are Crete, Thessaloniki, Athens, Santorini, Agistri, Chalkidiki, Rhodes, Mykonos, Skiathos and Lefkada. As we can see, most of the participants head for the big cities and of course the famous Greek islands, some of them being popular destinations for gay and lesbian travelers. Furthermore, the five most popular destinations abroad are London, Berlin, Rome, Paris and Amsterdam, all of them European capitals famous for their liberalism and their gay scene. On the contrary, some respondents have holidayed at destinations that are, in the literature, considered as being hostile towards homosexuals, such as Turkey, Russia, Malaysia, Morocco and more.

At this point it is interesting to examine the factors affecting the respondents' choice of holiday destination. The most important factors for gays and lesbians are the natural beauty/landscape/beaches, the prices of goods and services in the destination, the personal safety, the accessibility of destination and the sightseeing/culture/events (Table 3). The less important factors are the opportunities to have sex with other same-sex persons, shopping, previous experience at destination and the geographical proximity of destination. Once again, the Independent Samples T-test showed some statistically significant effects in the influence of *sexual orientation* on respondents' answers about the importance of 'prices' ($p=0,010$), 'accessibility of destination' ($p=0,041$), 'hospitality of residents' ($p=0,001$), 'opportunities to have sex with other same-sex persons' ($p=0,021$), and 'previous experience at destination' ($p=0,023$). In all cases, these factors seem to be more important for gays than for lesbians.

Table 3: Importance of various factors when selecting a holiday destination

	Mean			SD
	Gays	Lesbians	Total	
Good climate	3,36	2,98	3,14	1,076
Sightseeing / culture / events	3,51	3,07	3,25	1,068
Natural beauty / landscape / beaches	3,86	3,57	3,69	1,052
Prices / cost	3,83	3,56	3,67	1,001
Accessibility of destination	3,45	3,25	3,33	0,976
Nightlife	2,95	2,59	2,74	1,074
Local cuisine / gastronomy	3,15	2,85	2,98	1,085
Shopping	2,45	2,20	2,30	1,042
Personal safety	3,78	3,21	3,45	1,100
Hospitality of residents	3,33	2,79	3,01	1,146
Adequate infrastructures (roads, hospitals, etc)	3,02	2,70	2,84	1,039
Opportunities for multiple leisure activities	3,40	3,02	3,18	1,093
Geographical proximity of destination	2,59	2,36	2,45	1,217
Opportunities to socialize with other same-sex persons	2,86	2,51	2,66	1,269
Opportunities to have sex with other same-sex persons	2,41	2,10	2,23	1,269
Previous experience at destination	2,76	2,21	2,44	1,307

Note: 1=Unimportant, 5=Extremely important

Focusing on the accommodations the respondents choose to stay during their holidays, in most of the cases (53.6%), these are mainstream lodgings. Only 13 of them (6.2%) always choose to stay in gay-friendly accommodations, and just 4 of them (1.9%) in gay-exclusive accommodations. The rest 38.3% said they would choose to stay in any of the above depending on the circumstances. Continuing with the factors that are important in choosing an accommodation at the destination, as we can see in Table 4, it seems that most of these factors are not so important for gays and lesbians in Greece. The only factors that were rated above the average and seem to have some importance for the respondents when they choose their accommodation are the prices, location, on-line reviews and free wi-fi. The reputation also of the accommodation as gay-friendly seems to have some significance for the respondents, especially gay men. The less important hotel facilities for both gays and lesbians are parking, gym, spa/sauna/Jacuzzi and events/activities for customers. Some statistically significant effects in the influence of *sexual orientation* on respondents' answers were noticed for location ($p=0,035$), free wi-fi ($p=0,028$), in-house restaurant ($p=0,002$), gym ($p=0,002$), spa ($p=0,000$), decoration ($p=0,010$),

events (0,010), suggestion by friends/relatives ($p=0,008$), gay-friendly ($p=0,038$), gay-exclusive ($p=0,006$), and advertise on travel guides for gays ($p=0,001$). Once again, in all cases these factors are more important for gay men than for lesbians.

Table 4: Importance of various factors when selecting an accommodation

	Mean			SD
	Gays	Lesbians	Total	
Location	4,06	3,66	3,82	0,977
Prices	4,24	3,79	3,98	0,958
Breakfast	2,66	2,59	2,62	1,104
Hotel classification	2,56	2,46	2,50	1,010
Free wi-fi	3,48	2,92	3,15	1,303
Parking	1,83	1,62	1,71	1,095
Pool	1,92	1,87	1,89	1,084
In-house restaurant	2,39	1,98	2,15	1,183
Gym	1,87	1,66	1,75	1,069
Spa / sauna / Jacuzzi	2,10	1,70	1,77	1,180
Decoration	2,34	2,08	2,19	1,77
Events / activities for customers	1,86	1,70	1,77	1,021
All inclusive	2,39	2,10	2,22	1,252
Suggestion by friends / relatives (word-of-mouth)	2,71	2,59	2,64	1,169
Online reviews	3,28	3,10	3,17	1,201
Gay-friendly	3,29	2,80	3,00	1,133
Gay-exclusive	2,10	1,72	1,88	1,144
Advertise on travel guides for gays	2,54	2,05	2,25	1,188

Note: 1=Unimportant, 5=Extremely important

Another important point in this research was to identify which aspects must have a destination or an accommodation in order to be characterized as ‘gay-friendly’ (Table 5). Towards that direction and starting with the destinations, respondents believe that the most important aspects that a destination must have are first of all the gay-friendliness, followed by the friendly open-minded residents, the feeling of being welcomed, the gay-friendly hotels and the gay café/bars. Factors of less importance are the gay-exclusive hotels, the gay events and the same-sex marriages being allowed. Regarding gay events, participants were also asked if they have visited a city in the past in order to participate in an LGBT event, such as pride festivals. 60 of the

respondents (28.7%) answered that they have participated in such an event, while 62 of them (29.7%) responded that they have not, and the rest 87 (41.6%) said that they also have not participated but they are meant to do so in the near future. Application of T-test revealed that sexual orientation appear to have some influence on respondents' perceptions about the importance of 'gay-friendly environment' ($p=0.010$).

Table 5: Aspects considered important for a destination to be characterized as gay-friendly

	Mean			SD
	Gays	Lesbians	Total	
Gay friendly hotels	3,80	3,25	3,48	1,189
Gay exclusive hotels	2,63	2,38	2,48	1,217
Gay café/ bars	3,52	3,33	3,41	1,237
Gay-friendliness	4,20	3,67	3,89	1,006
Open-minded residents who do not react negatively to my sexuality	4,08	3,74	3,88	0,985
Gay events	3,02	2,75	2,87	1,165
Same-sex marriages are allowed	2,86	2,52	2,67	1,276
Gay / lesbians feel welcome	4,10	3,69	3,86	1,040
Opportunities to be with other gays/ lesbians	3,56	3,23	3,37	1,242

Note: 1=Unimportant, 5=Extremely important

Continuing with the accommodations and the aspects they must have according to the respondents to be characterized as gay-friendly, three aspects seem to be of particular importance (Table 6). The accommodation must implement a non-discrimination policy, be discreet, and would also be important to be located in a gay-friendly destination. The other aspects listed here seem to be of no importance for the respondents, especially the decoration of the rooms and the gay owner and/or manager. For the gay owner and the gay personnel, the application of T-test revealed some statistically significant effects of *sexual orientation* ($p=0,000$ and $p=0,001$ respectively). In both cases, gay men consider these two aspects more important than lesbians. Furthermore, participants were asked if they wish the behavior of personnel in the accommodations to be differentiated between homosexual and heterosexual clients. The vast majority (82.8%) answered that they do not wish a different behavior from the staff compared to other clients. Only two persons (1%) stated that they would like to be treated differently from the personnel, while 26 persons (12.4%) argued that they would like the personnel's behavior respond to the diversified needs and characteristics of gays and lesbians. Finally, eight participants (3.8%) said that they do not care about the behavior.

Table 6: Aspects considered important for an accommodation to be characterized as gay-friendly

	Mean			SD
	Gays	Lesbians	Total	
Gay owner and/or manager	2,33	1,87	2,06	1,136
Gay personnel	2,77	2,49	2,61	1,282
Discretion / Confidentiality	3,49	3,44	3,46	1,209
Anti-discrimination policy	4,32	3,85	4,05	1,147
Certified by a recognized gay tourism provider	2,84	2,67	2,74	1,267
IGLTA member (The International Gay & Lesbian Travel Association)	2,71	2,72	2,72	1,338
Advertise on travel guides for gays	2,70	2,43	2,54	1,248
Located in a gay-friendly destination	3,14	3,11	3,12	1,230
Provide specialized services for gays and lesbian	2,17	2,31	2,25	1,243
The decoration of the rooms differs from the other accommodation	1,80	1,75	1,78	1,001

Note: 1=Unimportant, 5=Extremely important

In the last part of the survey, the participants were asked to express whether they agree or disagree with a number of selected statements about gay tourism and its development in Greece (Table 7). Both gay men and lesbians tend to agree that they feel safer in a gay-friendly destination and/or accommodation. Two important issues seem to arise from this fact. The first is whether there is exploitation of this group of tourists, and the second relates to whether the destinations and lodgings advertised as gay-friendly are genuinely friendly. The results showed that respondents believe that more and more destinations are seeking to be characterized as gay-friendly aiming to the money of gays and lesbians. Although they don't agree that the services provided in gay-friendly accommodations are of an inferior quality and poor value-for-money, they believe that most gay-friendly lodgings are only euphemistically 'friendly' and aim primarily at attracting and exploiting these people without substantially differing from other accommodation. Moreover, they quite agree that the well publicized spending power of gays and lesbians had led to exploitation and higher prices. Respondents also quite disagree with the statement that a gay-friendly destination or lodging is ghettoizing homosexuals. On the other hand, they admit that there are destinations they do not want to travel because of their sexuality (e.g. places where homosexuality is illegal), while they are not willing to repress their sexuality in order to visit specific non-gay destinations.

Table 7: Level of agreement with selected perception statements about gay tourism

	Mean			SD
	Gays	Lesbians	Total	
I feel more safe in a gay-friendly destination/ lodging	3,66	3,23	3,41	1,034
Many times I am willing to repress my sexuality in order to visit specific non-gay destinations	2,75	2,38	2,53	1,271
I feel that a gay-friendly destination or lodging is ghettoizing homosexuals	2,85	2,95	2,91	1,262
The services provided in gay-friendly lodgings are of a inferior quality and poor value-for-money	2,51	2,54	2,53	0,899
The well publicized spending power of gays and lesbians had led to exploitation and higher prices	3,07	2,95	3,00	1,177
Most gay-friendly lodgings are only euphemistically 'friendly' and aim primarily at attracting and exploiting these people without substantially differing from other accommodation	3,25	3,03	3,12	1,040
More and more destinations are seeking to be characterized as 'gay-friendly' aiming to the money of gays and lesbians	3,61	3,41	3,49	1,075
There are destinations I do not want to travel because of my sexuality (e.g. places where homosexuality is illegal)	3,91	3,08	3,43	1,453
Gay tourism in Greece is well developed	2,38	2,13	2,23	0,853
The Greek state has taken important steps towards recognizing homosexual rights	2,95	2,93	2,94	1,027
Greek society is conservative and backward in accepting the sexuality of gays	3,92	3,84	3,87	1,032
In Greece there are a significant number of gay-friendly accommodation and other businesses	2,39	2,39	2,39	0,965

Note: 1=Strongly disagree, 5=Strongly agree

Focusing on Greece, participants believe that gay tourism in their country is not well developed yet. Although the Greek state has taken some steps towards recognizing homosexual rights, the major issue with the Greek society is its prevailing conservative structure and the backlash of accepting the sexuality of gays. There also seems to be a shortage of gay-friendly accommodations and other businesses. On these results, application of T-test revealed some statistically

significant effects of *sexual orientation* on respondents' perceptions about two statements, namely the 'There are destinations I do not want to travel because of my sexuality' ($p=0.004$), and 'The Greek state has taken important steps towards recognizing homosexual rights' ($p=0.015$). Overall, gay men tend to agree more than lesbians with the majority of the statements listed in Table 7.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This paper has been written to contribute to the body of knowledge on gay men and lesbians' travel behavior, and to stimulate further research in the field. As destinations and service providers around the world market themselves to gay and lesbian tourists, understanding the travel motivations and expectations of this group will be critical to their success.

First of all, the results of this study revealed some interesting information about Greek gay men and lesbians' holiday motivations. A range of such motivations seem to be common across the gays and lesbians, notably the opportunities to see different cultures, the chance for new experiences, and the need for relaxation and recreation. It seems that homosexual and heterosexual tourists share common travel motivations. Consequently, the findings of this research confirm those of previous studies which suggest that gay men and lesbians are being driven by the same aspects as other heterosexual tourists with regard to their travel motivations (Clift & Forrest, 1999; Köllen & Lazar, 2012; Lubowiecki-Vikuk & Borzyszkowski, 2016; Monterrubio & Barrios, 2016; Prat Forga & Canoves, 2015; Visser, 2003). Two more motivations that were found to be important and which can be related to the sexual identity of the participants are the needs 'for escape from the oppressive environment I live in' and 'to be myself'. The issue of identity was also found to play a crucial role as a travel reason in previous studies (Apostolopoulou & Tsartas, 2015; Herrera & Scott, 2005; Monterrubio, 2009; Pritchard et al., 2000). On the contrary, other motivations related to the sexual behavior in the destination such as the 'opportunities to have casual sex' were found to be rather unimportant, especially for lesbians. The latter confirms the findings of Therkelsen et al. (2013) and other researchers (Monterrubio & Barrios-Ayala, 2015; Vorobjovas-Pinta & Hardy, 2016), who argue that lesbian tourists are not interested in having sexual experiences with new partners while on holiday.

Moreover the participants in this research develop a tourist behavior that does not differ greatly from other holiday-makers. They are primarily booking their travel directly through online mainstream travel agencies or via airline and hotel websites, and stay at mainstream accommodations. This confirms the findings of Hughes (2005), Bömkes (2011) and Guaracino (2007) who argue that gay travelers are booking more online than their straight counterparts. Regarding destination choice, it was found that gays and lesbians select destinations largely that same way heterosexuals do. The most important pull factors reported are the natural beauty/landscape/beaches, the prices of goods and services in the destination, the personal safety, the accessibility of destination and the sightseeing/culture/events. If we overlook the prices/cost factor which significance can be justified due to the economic situation in Greece in the last years, the other aspects – especially culture – have been identified as pull factors by many authors

(Hughes, 2002; Köllen & Lazar, 2012; Monterrubio & Barrios-Ayala, 2015; Prat Forga & Canoves, 2015; Therkelsen et al., 2013; Visser, 2003).

The safety issue seems to be of particular importance when choosing a holiday destination. Gay men and lesbians are subject to discrimination and social disapproval in many parts of the world (Hughes, 2002). In most Muslim countries for example, it can be illegal to be openly gay; many parts of Africa have introduced new anti-homosexuality laws in recent years and much of the Caribbean is not gay friendly (Smith et al., 2010; Guaracino, 2007). According to UNWTO (2017) there are still more than 70 countries where homosexuality is criminalized, and in some instances punishable by death. Brunt and Brophy (2006) argue that the high levels of victimisation which gay tourists are experiencing while they are on vacation, influence their holiday choices. There are many places that are rejected by gay men for reasons that are related to their sexual identity (Hughes, 2002). Contrariwise, many destinations, especially large cities, have a firm standing as popular destinations for gay and lesbian tourists, such as San Francisco, Sydney, London, Madrid, Barcelona, New York, Amsterdam and, increasingly, the cities of South America such as Rio and Buenos Aires (Smith et al., 2010). Besides these cities, there are many upcoming destinations as the rights of the LGBT community are getting better around the world.

The results of this survey show that safety is an important factor while making travel decisions. It is clear that it is important for gays and lesbians to feel comfortable and safe when they travel – and this is happening mostly in gay-friendly destinations – while most of them refuse to travel somewhere with an unwelcoming attitude towards the gay community. Asked about the destinations they traveled over the last three years, they mentioned places both in Greece and abroad. In Greece the most popular destinations are the two largest cities (Athens and Thessaloniki) – Guaracino (2007) mention that typically major urban centers tend to be more naturally gay-friendly than their rural counterparts – and the famous islands, such as Crete, Santorini, Agistri, Rhodes, Skiathos and Mykonos. Outside Greece, the most visited destinations are some of the European capitals, such as London, Berlin, Rome, Paris and Amsterdam. Most of these destinations have a well-established reputation as gay-friendly. According to the participants in this study, a destination is considered as gay-friendly when it has a gay-friendly reputation with friendly open-minded residents who welcome gay and lesbians tourists regardless their sexual identity. These findings are consistent with those of Hodes, Vork, Gerritsma, and Bras (2007) who found that what makes a city in general gay-friendly it is not the infrastructure, such as gay bars, discos and restaurants, but mainly the intangible aspects of the city, such as a feeling of being welcome and tolerance and openness towards gays and lesbians. It is interesting though to note that some gays and lesbians in this study have visited destinations for holidays that are, in the literature, considered as being hostile towards homosexuals, such as Turkey, Russia, Malaysia, Morocco and more. This fact probably means that there are gays and lesbians who are willing to suppress or camouflage their sexuality when they are on holiday though the majority of them disagree with that.

Regarding accommodation, the most important choice criteria for Greek gays and lesbians are the prices, location, on-line reviews and free wi-fi. Furthermore, they wish to be treated in the

same way they believe heterosexuals are treated. This confirms the findings of Poria (2006) who examined the hotel experiences of gay men and lesbians. Critical elements of the gay-friendly lodgings focus on the non-discrimination policy, the discretion, and the location in a gay-friendly destination. In fact, being a gay-friendly accommodation means that the whole business attitude and operation embrace diversity and creates a feeling that everyone is welcome and that company policies do not 'punish' their gay customers or employees (Guaracino, 2007). Many of the participants believe that most gay-friendly accommodations are only euphemistically 'friendly' and aim primarily at attracting and exploiting these people without substantially differing from other accommodations. Gays and lesbians were also aware of being exploited by tourism providers because of the much noted spending power of the so-called 'Pink Pound or Dollar'. This information could be valuable for accommodation providers who are struggling to understand how to meet gay and lesbian consumers' needs.

Of course, the term LGBT encompasses a broad array of demographics. The LGBT population is not homogeneous and is as diverse and fragmented as the general population (Fugate, 1993; Stuber, 2002; UNWTO, 2017). Already sub niches are forming. These include men and women, urban and rural, families with children, young and senior citizens (Hughes and Deutsch, 2010). Although it is argued that there are differences which are particularly extreme between the sexes, as gay men and lesbians often share few of the same travel habits (UNWTO, 2017), in this research, crosstabulation of the results showed that in most cases, there were almost no significant differences between the perceptions of the gay male and lesbian respondents.

All the above findings should be considered taking into account the fact that this study conducted in Greece, a country where the church still plays a prominent role in shaping society's views on issues such as sexuality (Lonely Planet, 2017) and – as the participants in this study argue – where the society is conservative and backward in accepting the sexuality of gays. Greece is ranked 49th among 194 countries in Spartacus Gay Index, which categories countries based on criteria – ranging from gay-marriage to death penalty for homosexuals – that reflect both the legal provisions as well as the social conditions that homosexuals in each country are confronted with (Spartacus, 2017). In many cases, LGBT people in Greece experience a social environment that is less inclusive towards them and where they are likely to be victims of violence, harassment and discrimination. Conversely, it must be acknowledged that the Greek state has made some positive steps towards equality of LGBT people. In 2015 civil partnership for same-sex couples was introduced as a law. In addition, transgender people are now protected against hate crimes on the ground of gender identity.

Today, more and more people from the Greek gay community dare to get 'out of the closet' and be openly gay. The vast majority of the participants in this research (70.3%) stated that either they have already participated in a major gay event or are aiming to do so in the near future. In June 2005, the first pride parade took place in Athens, aiming to raise awareness on the issues that concern the LGBT community in Greece. Since then, the Athens Pride festival has grown and is held every June with the participation of many thousands of people. More pride parades followed, namely Thessaloniki Pride, Crete Pride and Patras Pride. These public celebrations of

gay and lesbian identity represent one of the most visible and dynamic components of the LGBT tourism system (Southall & Fallon, 2011). Besides the obvious considerable economic, social, and cultural benefits, they contribute significantly to the creation of cosmopolitan imagery for the cities in which they are held (Markwell & Tomsen, 2010).

It seems that Greece although it has some of the most popular destinations for gays and lesbians, namely Mykonos, Skiathos and Lesvos, does not consist yet a mature destination for the development of gay tourism. We have seen much change to the right direction but there remains much that needs to be done. It has to be fully understood that it is financially, ethically, and socio-politically beneficial for a destination to attract the LGBT market. This segment should represent a priority for mature 3S (sun, sand, sea) destinations (Melián-González, Moreno-Gil & Araña, 2011) such as Greece, especially in today's economic crisis. Destination Management Organizations and tourism companies based on the available research data are beginning to better understand the LGBT market, and to create more inclusive marketing strategies.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

There are some limitations to this study. The online questionnaire distributed to several Greek gay and lesbian clubs on Facebook. Although it is well known that today gay and lesbian tourists make an effective use of social media (UNWTO, 2017), this could have as a result a blocking from the research of people that are not Facebook users. The sample of this research consists mainly from young, well educated people with low income. Therefore, the results might not reflect the Greek gay market as a whole and may not be applicable to gay men and lesbians with different demographic characteristics. For example, other researchers suggest that age is a factor that affects gay men's choice of holiday and destination (Hughes, 2002; Hughes and Deutsch, 2010). Future studies should focus more on gay and lesbian market segmentation to better understand this type of tourists and the underlying dimensions of their preferences. Moreover, a study on bisexual, transgender people and other sexual and gender minority groups in Greece (queers, intersexual, asexual, etc.) is also desirable in order to examine their own motivations and travel behavior.

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Hospitality crisis management in Turkey: a comparative approach

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ABSTRACT

Political instability and terror events commonly occur in many countries. Since 2016, Turkey experienced a surge of political crises and terrorist activities which led to a marked decline in the country's tourism revenue, and, consequently, caused economic struggles. The study employs the Importance-Performance Analysis framework to evaluate the use and the importance that Turkish hotel managers assign to different crisis management practices. The analysis is based on a list of crisis management practices that belong to four categories: *human resources, marketing, hotel maintenance, and governmental assistance*. The results suggest that Turkish managers follow the main categories in their crisis management action and focus on marketing and cost-cutting practices. Comparison with previous studies in India and Israel highlight the common focus marketing and cost-cutting as significant crisis management practices to improve competitive position and manage crisis situations.

Keywords: Crisis Management, Hospitality, Importance-Performance Analysis, Turkey

INTRODUCTION

This study aims at expanding knowledge about crisis management in the hospitality industry. The study concentrates on the managers of Turkish hotels and investigates their beliefs and actions about crisis management. This study is of prime importance because tourism and hospitality are significant business sectors in the Turkish economy. Beginning from the 1980s, tourist arrivals, revenues, the share of tourism revenues in export and GDP, and contribution to the

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national trade deficits have been constantly increasing. In addition to its direct impact to economic growth, tourism in Turkey has a crucial role in stimulating the growth of other related sectors, generating employment, ensuring equal income distribution, and contributing to the progress of underdeveloped regions within the country (Gokovali, 2010; Istanbulu-Dincer et al., 2015).

Turkey has also been among the top visited countries in the world over the past decade (UNWTO, 2006; UNWTO, 2017). The country has been attracting over 20 million international tourists since 2005, and tourism receipts have been increasing on a yearly basis. The hotel industry has been on an expansion path, and many local brands, as well as national and international chain hotels, operate in the country. The number of hotels was 2,547 in 2005 and currently increased to about 3,641. Bed capacity increased by 90% during the same period and reached nearly one million in 2016 (TURSAB, 2018).

National and international tourism activities, on the other hand, face different threats of terrorism all over the world. Terror events have severely been affecting tourism industry worldwide increasingly since the 9/11 attacks in the USA, which was followed by major terror events in Bali, Indonesia, Egypt, Mumbai, London, Paris, and recently in Turkey. ISIS terrorist attacks in European locations, such as Belgium, France, Germany, and Turkey; terror events in the US, in Asian and Middle Eastern countries; the Syrian civil war; ongoing conflicts in the Middle East; and worldwide political instability had significant effects on tourism in recent years (UNWTO, 2016; UNWTO, 2017).

Recently, Turkey has been subjected to different terror attacks in major cities (i.e., Istanbul and Ankara) and the southeastern part of the country. There have also been some political issues with Russia, one of the primary source markets for Turkey. Because of those problematic issues, tourism demand has dropped drastically. The number of tourist arrivals from Russia declined by 76% in 2016, while the overall number of tourist arrivals declined by 25% compared to the previous year (KTB, 2017). Occupancy rates of foreign tourists also decreased by 35% compared to 2015 (TURSAB, 2018).

Due to the frequency of crisis events in Turkey, coping with crisis, crisis readiness, and crisis management have become central managerial requirements. However, research on crisis readiness and management is still emerging. Just a few studies have focused on hotel managers and examined their daily struggle with crisis situations in their business (Israeli, 2007; Parnell et al., 2016). This study aims to investigate Turkish hotel managers' beliefs and actions during or shortly after a crisis to understand their crisis management practices. The study, then, compares the findings of crisis management to previous observations of crisis management in Israel and India. The study replicates the methods used by Israeli and Reichel's (2003) crisis management study in Israel and by Israeli, Mohsin, and Kumar's (2011) study in India. The study bases the analysis on data collected by Kirlar-Can, Ertas, Sel, and Tutuncu (2018).

THEORY AND MODELS OF CRISIS MANAGEMENT

Different research directions can be explored in the study of crisis management. For example, identification and characterization of crisis environments (Pizam & Smith, 2000) or the processes organizations pursue to address crisis situations (Parnell et al., 2016). Roux-Dufort (2007) suggests that the theoretical framework of crisis management should not only focus on the management of exceptions generated by crisis events. Instead, crisis management theory should focus on how managers structure decision situations to fit their view of the world (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). This view suggests that crisis management is a process that is based on identifying the gap between the complexity of situations and what managers retain of those situations. Essentially, the focus is on two elements. First, how managers define what is important and what is not. Second, considering the expectation that managers will be effective and efficient (Israeli, 2007), the focus is what actions they elect to take in order to combat crisis situations (Roux-Dufort, 2007).

Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) (Martilla & James, 1977) is a well-founded framework that corresponds with the above-mentioned view of crisis management. When employed to study crisis management IPA is capable of evaluating what managers define as important crisis management practices and also what practices managers elect to take in crisis situations (Israeli et al., 2011; Israeli & Reichel, 2003).

IPA two main dimensions, importance and performance, are used to evaluate managerial actions. Importance evaluates managerial practices by ranking them from slightly important to extremely important, and performance evaluates the same practices by ranking managerial performance (or usage) of these practices using a scale ranging from fair to excellent. The results may be graphically displayed on a two-dimensional grid yielding four quadrants that list the main categories and provide specific managerial recommendations. “Concentrate here” identifies important practices in which performance is insufficient and highlights recommended courses of actions. “Keep up with the good work” refers to important practices in which performance is excellent. The “low priority” category identifies low importance practices in which performance is fair and, therefore, additional managerial attention is probably not needed. Lastly, “possible overkill” refers to low importance practices in which performance is excellent, suggesting that additional managerial attention may be excessive.

The relevant crisis management practices were initially determined in accordance with the previous research in the existing literature (Aziz, 1995; Leslie, 1996; Pizam, 1999; Pizam & Mansfeld, 1996) with specific focus on terror-related crises (Anson, 1999; Butler & Baum, 1999) and general implications for crisis preparations (Sonmez et al., 1999). The initial comprehensive list of crisis management practices was offered by Israeli and Reichel (2003). Okumus and Karamustafa (2005) were based on similar crisis management practices that are accepted as macro-level. Israeli and Reichel’s (2003) list was replicated by Israeli et al. (2011).

The hospitality crisis management practices were clustered into four main categories including

human resources, marketing, maintenance, and government (assistance). Relevant practices were listed in each category. The *human resources* category included common practice that hotel managers would consider to limit the number of employees or to limit the amount of time that employees work. Practices aimed at modifying the labor force by replacing older employees with younger employees, and outsourcing some labor were also included. The *marketing* category included practices of increasing marketing to domestic tourists by offering them specific incentives and marketing to foreign tourists by highlighting specific features or by emphasizing the location's relative safety. In the *maintenance* category, practices included postponement of scheduled building and less-visible engineering systems maintenance. Financial practices of maintaining debt were also included. Finally, in the *government* category, practices included requests for government support through tax deferral or extending grace periods on certain payments. Another potential practice may include noticeable protests as a tool for gaining the interest of the government. Protests against the government, therefore, was included in the practices list (Table 1 shows the list of practices by category).

Table 1: Practices in crisis management

Practice	
<i>Human resources</i>	
1	Firing employees to reduce labor force
2	Using unpaid vacation to reduce labor force
3	Decreasing number of working days per week
4	Freezing pay rates
5	Replacing highly paid employees with new low paid employees
6	Increased reliance on temporary workers through external agencies
<i>Marketing</i>	
7	Marketing to domestic tourists in joint campaigns with local merchants (such as Visa, MasterCard)
8	Marketing to domestic tourists with focus on specific attributes of the location
9	Offering special deals (e.g., free Wi-Fi; free breakfast; free parking)
10	Reducing room rate
11	Marketing to foreign tourists with specific focus on the location's distinctive features
12	Marketing to foreign tourists with specific focus on the location's relative safety
13	Marketing and promoting new products or services (free spa entrance, admission to attractions, shuttle service)
14	Marketing to new geographic segments

<i>Maintenance</i>	
15	Cost cuts by limiting hotel services
16	Cost cuts by postponing general upkeep and maintenance to the hotel's exterior, public spaces, and guestrooms
17	Cost cuts by postponing maintenance to the engineering systems
18	Extending credit or postponing scheduled payments
<i>Government</i>	
19	Organized protest against the lack of government support
20	Industry-wide demand for governmental assistance with current expenses
21	Industry-wide demand for a grace period on tax payments
22	Industry-wide demand for a grace period on local tax payments

METHODOLOGY

Research propositions

This study is based on two propositions. *Proposition 1* posits the assumption of a strong positive correlation between the importance managers assign to a certain practice and the level of usage of this practice. In general, this is the basis of IPA (Martilla & James, 1977), and specifically, in the context of this study, it is a required condition for effective crisis management because it assumes that managers carry out the practices that they perceive to be important (Duke & Persia, 1996; Israeli et al., 2011; Israeli & Reichel, 2003). *Proposition 2* posits that factors of importance and usage of practices will demonstrate consistency with the original groups of *human resources, marketing, maintenance, and government* thus providing construct validity to the crisis management categories. The observed factors of practices' importance and usage will be compared to the original categories to assess the observed themes of crisis management. These themes can resemble the traditional categories. Alternatively, the grouping of these practices can unveil a different set of categories for crisis management.

The hospitality crisis management questionnaire

The questionnaire was comprised of three major sections. The first section comprised of questions related to the level of importance managers assigned to each of the 22 practices using a Likert scale of 1 – least important to 7 – most important. The second section contained questions related to the level of usage for each of the 22 crisis management practices using the same Likert scale ranging from 1 – extensively used to 7 – rarely used. Lastly, there were questions about demographic information of the respondents in the third section.

The questionnaire was pre-tested by 4 and 5-star hotel managers in Antalya. Twenty-five hotel managers participated in the questionnaire from June 1 to June 15 in 2017. Only minor

revisions were needed and applied (for example the original practice “Marketing to foreign tourists with a specific focus on the location’s distinctive features and relative safety” was consisted of two different conditions and broken into two separate statements).

Data collection

Data collection was performed between June 2017 and March 2018. The survey was delivered to 985 participants, including middle and top level managers of 4 and 5-star hotels in Antalya, Mugla, Istanbul, and Izmir. The reason for using purposeful sampling is because most of the hotels in Turkey operate in these cities. The list of hotels was acquired from the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Culture and Tourism. There was no contact information on this list, therefore, the researchers collected contact information for these hotels from the Internet. The questionnaire was created via online forms. The questionnaire was initially sent to hotels via e-mail. If no response was received, the researchers individually called each hotel, attempting to contact senior executives and asked them to fill out the questionnaire. Some hotels were closed or not willing to participate in the survey, therefore, the researchers contacted 657 hotels. The process generated 228 usable questionnaires. Participants included human resources, front office, finance, food and beverage, and housekeeping directors, executives of sales and marketing, and general managers. Table 2 presents the sample group demographics.

Table 2: Sample descriptive statistics

Gender	
Male	172
Female	56
Age	
18-29	23
30-39	109
40-49	85
50-59	11
Tenure in the industry	
0-2 years	13
3-5 years	48
Above 6 years	167
Star rating	
4 stars	95
5 stars	133
Location	
Antalya	94
İstanbul	56
Muğla	51
İzmir	27
n=228	

RESULTS

Table 3 shows the list of usage of crisis management practices and their importance based on the average rankings. Pearson correlation tests were applied to test Proposition 1, and results revealed that the correlations between the level of importance to each practice and the level of usage of that practice were all positive and statistically significant (Table 4) suggesting that proposition 1 received support. The findings show a significant relationship between the importance and usage of a certain crisis management practice.

Table 3: Mean and standard deviation for practices' importance and use in crisis management

		Importance		Usage	
		Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
Human resources					
1	Firing employees to reduce labor force	4.26	1.82	4.00	1.94
2	Using unpaid vacation to reduce labor force	3.95	1.97	3.37	2.04
3	Decreasing number of working days per week	2.49	1.75	2.29	1.70
4	Freezing pay rates	3.79	2.10	3.51	2.15
5	Replacing highly paid employees with new low paid employees	2.62	1.80	2.57	1.80
6	Increased reliance on temporary workers through external agencies	3.30	1.93	3.18	2.03
Marketing					
7	Marketing to domestic tourists in joint campaigns with local merchants (such as Visa, MasterCard)	5.50	1.76	5.25	1.89
8	Marketing to domestic tourists with focus on specific attributes of the location	5.79	1.52	5.61	1.78
9	Offering special deals (e.g. free Wi-Fi; free breakfast; free parking)	5.70	1.78	5.59	1.79
10	Reducing room rate	4.63	1.69	4.60	1.86
11	Marketing to foreign tourists with specific focus on the location's distinctive features	6.06	1.35	5.71	1.64
12	Marketing to foreign tourists with specific focus on the location's relative safety	6.40	1.26	5.92	1.58

13	Marketing and promoting new products or services (free spa entrance, admission to attractions, shuttle service)	5.41	1.71	5.16	1.94
14	Marketing to new geographic segments	5.71	1.72	5.53	1.83
Maintenance					
15	Cost cuts by limiting hotel services	3.81	2.09	3.65	2.00
16	Cost cuts by postponing general upkeep and maintenance to the hotel's exterior, public spaces, and guestrooms	4.04	2.01	4.00	2.00
17	Cost cuts by postponing maintenance to the engineering systems	3.53	2.00	3.68	1.96
18	Extending credit or postponing scheduled payments.	3.84	1.90	3.73	1.97
Government					
19	Organized protest against the lack of government support	2.32	1.85	2.17	1.88
20	Industry-wide demand for governmental assistance with current expenses	5.10	1.91	4.35	2.20
21	Industry-wide demand for a grace period on tax payments.	5.19	1.91	4.37	2.17
22	Industry-wide demand for a grace period on local tax payments	5.09	1.90	4.36	2.20

(n=228)

The practices ranking the highest on the correlation between importance and usage included two *human resources* practices and one practice from marketing: Practice 2 – using unpaid vacation to reduce labor force (.72), Practice 1 – Firing employees to reduce labor force (.72), Practice 9 – Offering special deals (e.g., free Wi-Fi; free breakfast; free parking) (.70). The lowest correlation was observed in the *marketing*, *human resources*, and *government* categories including Practice 7 – marketing to domestic tourists in joint campaigns with local merchants (such as Visa, MasterCard) (.60), Practice 19 – organized protests against the lack of government support (.60), and Practice 5 – replacing highly paid employees with new low paid employees (.59).

Table 4: Correlation among practices' importance and usage in crisis management

	Practice	Correlation	Sig.
1	Firing employees to reduce labor force	0.72	0.00
2	Using unpaid vacation to reduce labor force	0.72	0.00
9	Offering special deals (e.g., free Wi-Fi; free breakfast; free parking)	0.70	0.00
18	Extending credit or postponing scheduled payments	0.69	0.00
12	Marketing to foreign tourists with specific focus on the location's relative safety	0.68	0.00
16	Cost cuts by postponing general upkeep and maintenance to the hotel's exterior, public spaces, and guestrooms	0.68	0.00
6	Increased reliance on temporary workers through external agencies	0.67	0.00
17	Cost cuts by postponing maintenance to the engineering systems	0.67	0.00
14	Marketing to new geographic segments	0.66	0.00
10	Reducing room rate	0.65	0.00
13	Marketing and promoting new products or services (free spa entrance, admission to attractions, shuttle service)	0.65	0.00
15	Cost cuts by limiting hotel services	0.65	0.00
22	Industry-wide demand for a grace period on local tax payments	0.65	0.00
20	Industry-wide demand for governmental assistance with current expenses	0.64	0.00
21	Industry-wide demand for a grace period on tax payments	0.64	0.00
4	Freezing pay rates	0.62	0.00
8	Marketing to domestic tourists with focus on specific attributes of the location	0.62	0.00
3	Decreasing number of working days per week	0.61	0.00
11	Marketing to foreign tourists with specific focus on the location's distinctive features	0.61	0.00
7	Marketing to domestic tourists in joint campaigns with local merchants (such as Visa, MasterCard)	0.60	0.00
19	Organized protest against the lack of government support	0.60	0.00
5	Replacing highly paid employees with new low paid employees	0.59	0.00

The findings of practices' importance and usage were considered in terms of construct validity in order to find out if Proposition 2 could be supported. Orthogonal Varimax Rotated Factor Analysis was applied for four factors to define which practices were grouped for hospitality

crisis management. The reason for using this analysis was to find out if the results have similar findings with the original factors in crisis management practices (*human resources, marketing, maintenance, and government*).

Dimensions of practice importance

At the first stage, the analysis was employed to evaluate the importance of crisis management practices. The Factor Analysis (Principle Component Analysis and Varimax Rotation method) for importance (Table 5) pointed out that the four factors explain 56.32 percent of the variance. The minimum factor loading for each practice exceeded 0.50, except one of the practices (0.45).

Table 5: Rotated Component Matrix for practice importance

Practice	Component			
	1	2	3	4
11) Marketing to foreign tourists with specific focus on the location's distinctive features.	0.834			-0.227
12) Marketing to foreign tourists with specific focus on the location's relative safety.	0.778			-0.208
8) Marketing to domestic tourists with focus on specific attributes of the location.	0.752			
13) Marketing and promoting new products or services (free spa entrance, admission to attractions, shuttle service).	0.721			
9) Offering special deals (e.g., free wifi; free breakfast; free parking)	0.681			
7) Marketing to domestic tourists in joint campaigns with local merchants (such as Visa, MasterCard).	0.634			0.230
14) Marketing to new geographic segments.	0.589			
16) Cost cuts by postponing general upkeep and maintenance to the hotel's exterior, public spaces, and guestrooms.		0.852		
17) Cost cuts by postponing maintenance to the engineering systems.		0.814		
18) Extending credit or postponing scheduled payments.		0.576	0.349	
15) Cost cuts by limiting hotel services.		0.576		0.385
10) Reducing room rate		0.511		0.240
22) Industry-wide demand for a grace period on local tax payments.			0.911	
21) Industry-wide demand for a grace period on tax payments.			0.911	

20) Industry-wide demand for governmental assistance with current expenses.	0.256		0.840	
19) Organized protest against the lack of government support.			0.452	
2) Using unpaid vacation to reduce labor force.		0.292		0.659
3) Decreasing number of working days per week.				0.629
4) Freezing pay rates.		0.456		0.577
6) Increased reliance on temporary workers through external agencies				0.576
5) Replacing highly paid employees with new low paid employees.		0.396		0.551
1) Firing employees to reduce labor force.		0.516		0.547
Percent of explained variance	17.35%	14.52%	12.93%	11.53%

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. 4 components extracted. A Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

The first factor consisted of Practice 11 – marketing to foreign tourist with specific focus on the location distinctive features; Practice 12 – marketing to foreign tourists with specific focus on the location’s relative safety; Practice 8 – marketing to domestic tourists with focus on specific attributes of the location; Practice 13 – marketing and promoting new products or services; Practice 9 – offering special deal; Practice 7 – marketing to domestic tourists in joint campaigns with local merchants; and Practice 14 – marketing to new geographic segments. This factor explained 17.35 percent of the variance. The factor consisted of practices only from the *marketing* category and was, therefore, titled “marketing actions.”

The second factor was comprised of Practice 16 – cost cuts by postponing general upkeep and maintenance to the hotel’s exterior, public spaces, and guestrooms; Practice 17 – cost cuts by postponing maintenance to the engineering systems; Practice 18 – extending credit or postponing scheduled payments; Practice 15 – cost cuts by limiting hotel services; and Practice 10 – Reducing room rate. Most of the practices were from the *maintenance* category and focused on cost-cutting. One practice, from the marketing category, focused on price cuts. This factor explained 14.52 percent of the variance and was defined as “cost and price cuts.”

The third factor consisted of Practice 22 – industry-wide demand for a grace period on local tax payments, Practice 21 – industry-wide demand for a grace period on tax payments, Practice 20 – industry-wide demand for governmental assistance with current expenses, and Practice 19 – organized protests against the lack of government support. This factor included all the practices from the *government* category. The factor explained 12.93 percent of the variance and was named “government support.”

The fourth factor, finally, included Practice 2 – using unpaid vacation to reduce labor force; Practice 3 – decreasing the number of working days per week; Practice 4 – freezing pay rate; Practice 6 – increased reliance on temporary workers through external agencies; Practice 5 – replacing highly paid employees with new low paid employees; and Practice 1 – firing employees to reduce labor force. The factor consisted of all the the *human resources* practices. The factor explained 11.53 percent of the variance and was defined as “human resource actions.”

The factors of importance revealed substantial similarity with the original categories of *human resources*, *marketing*, *maintenance*, and *government* and, therefore, Proposition 2 was supported.

Dimensions of practice usage

The Factor Analysis was also applied to reveal managers’ usage of crisis management practices. Table 6 shows that the 22 practices, clustered into four factors, per the Principle Component Analysis and Varimax Rotation method, explained 59.64 percent of the variance. The minimum factor loading for each usage practice was over 0.50.

Table 6: Rotated Component Matrix for practice usage

Practice	Component			
	1	2	3	4
11) Marketing to foreign tourists with specific focus on the location’s distinctive features.	0.877			
8) Marketing to domestic tourists with focus on specific attributes of the location.	0.869			
12) Marketing to foreign tourists with specific focus on the location’s relative safety.	0.808			
9) Offering special deals (e.g., free wifi; free breakfast; free parking)	0.776			
7) Marketing to domestic tourists in joint campaigns with local merchants (such as Visa, MasterCard)	0.734		0.208	
13) Marketing and promoting new products or services (free spa entrance, admission to attractions, shuttle service).	0.715			
14) Marketing to new geographic segments.	0.644			
16) Cost cuts by postponing general upkeep and maintenance to the hotel’s exterior, public spaces, and guestrooms.		0.841		

17) Cost cuts by postponing maintenance to the engineering systems.		0.839		
15) Cost cuts by limiting hotel services.		0.657	0.211	
10) Reducing room rate		0.586		
4) Freezing pay rates.		0.585		0.354
1) Firing employees to reduce labor force.		0.584		0.345
8) Extending credit or postponing scheduled payments.		0.502	0.344	
21) Industry-wide demand for a grace period on tax payments.	0.216		0.904	
22) Industry-wide demand for a grace period on local tax payments.			0.885	
20) Industry-wide demand for governmental assistance with current expenses.	0.223		0.878	
19) Organized protest against the lack of government support.			0.590	
3) Decreasing number of working days per week.				0.782
5) Replacing highly paid employees with new low paid employees.		0.423		0.619
6) Increased reliance on temporary workers through external agencies				0.523
2) Using unpaid vacation to reduce labor force.		0.474		0.509
Percent of explained variance	20.05%	16.39%	14.32%	8.87%

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. 4 components extracted. A Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

The first factor included Practice 11 – marketing to foreign tourists with specific focus on the location’s distinctive features; Practice 8 – marketing to domestic tourists with focus on specific attributes of the location; Practice 12 – marketing to foreign tourists with specific focus on the location’s relative safety; Practice 9 – offering special deals; Practice 7 – marketing to domestic tourists in joint campaigns with local merchants; Practice 13 – marketing and promoting new products or services; and Practice 14 – marketing to new geographic segments. The factor accounted for 20.05 percent of the variance and included all the practices from the *marketing* category, except for Practice 10, and was named “marketing actions.”

Factor 2 included Practice 16 – cost cuts by postponing general upkeep and maintenance to the hotel’s exterior, public spaces, and guestrooms; Practice 17 – cost cuts by postponing

maintenance to the engineering systems; Practice 15 – cost cuts by limiting hotel services; Practice 10 – reducing room rate; Practice 4 – reducing pay rate; Practice 1 – firing employees to reduce labor force; and Practice 8 – Marketing to domestic tourists with focus on specific attributes of the location. Factor 2 explained 16.39 percent of the variance and consisted of practices from the *maintenance*, *human resource*, and *marketing* categories. The practices were consistent with cutting costs and, at the same time, cutting prices. The emerging theme and the title of this factor was “cost and price cuts.”

Factor 3 consisted of Practice 21 – industry-wide demand for a grace period on tax payments; Practice 22 – industry-wide demand for a grace period on local tax payments; Practice 20 – industry-wide demand for governmental assistance with current expenses; and Practice 19 – organized protests against the lack of government support. The factor explained 14.32 percent of the variance, consisted of all the practices from the *government* category, and therefore was named “government support”.

Factor 4, finally, was comprised of Practice 3 – decreasing number of working days per week; Practice 5 – replacing highly paid employees with new low paid employees; Practice 6 – increased reliance on temporary workers through external agencies; and Practice 2 – using unpaid vacation to reduce labor force. This factor included all the practices from the *human resources* category. The factor explained 8.87 percent of the variance and was titled “human resource actions.”

Similar to the findings of the factors of importance, the factors of usage also revealed substantial similarity with the traditional categories of *human resources*, *marketing*, *maintenance*, and *government* and, therefore, Proposition 2 was supported.

ANALYSIS OF THE CRISIS MANAGEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE FINDINGS

Previous studies used these 22 practices to measure crisis management by evaluating the importance and actual usage of each practice (Israeli et al., 2011; Israeli and Reichel, 2003). Practices were originally clustered into four main categories: *human resources*, *marketing*, *maintenance*, and *government* in terms of literature. According to the results, Turkish hotel managers’ crisis practices generally focus on these four main categories.

The first factor for both importance and usage focused primarily on *marketing* actions. Hosie and Pforr (2016) showed that marketing strategies which are carefully crafted by the major tourism stakeholders could be a useful tool in combating crisis situations.

The second factor for importance was quite like the second factor of usage. Both included cost and price cut practices. It is interesting to note that this factor, for both importance and usage, is not focused strictly on the *maintenance* category. Instead, it demonstrates managers’ insights that combine practices from *maintenance* and *marketing* that will support their organization’s competitiveness. Cost cutting and price cuts can provision competitiveness within the industry

by potentially increasing demand (due to price cuts) and profitability (due to cost cuts), which may further support long-term performance amid the challenges that crisis imposes on the industry (Sabatino, 2016). The combination of these practices in the second factor suggests that managers are aware of their company's competitiveness, business performance, and survival.

The third factor included only practices of government support for both importance and usage. This finding is consistent with the observations of Hosie and Pforr (2016) which highlight the significance of government support in funding and developing tourism and hospitality. The fourth factor was exclusively constructed from *human resources* practices for importance and usage. This is an expected crisis management practice because crisis situations are pressuring hospitality organizations to reduce costs and as labor intensive organizations, this includes human resources' costs.

A comparative view of crisis management

Few studies have concentrated upon hotel managers as a unit of analysis and discussed their perceptions about the importance and use of practices to combat crisis situations. The current results offer an insight into hotel managers' crisis management practices in Turkey, but this study is also a replication of two other studies of hospitality crisis management in India (Israeli et al., 2011) and in Israel (Israeli & Reichel, 2003). The previous studies were based on the same assumption of a strong positive correlation between the importance and usage of certain crisis management practices and that both importance and usage practices would cluster into the four main categories of *human resources*, *marketing*, *maintenance*, and *government*. Therefore, it will be beneficial to compare the three studies to evaluate similarities and differences.

Proposition 1 suggested that there would be a strong positive correlation between the importance and usage level of a practice. In general, this proposition was supported in all the studies (Turkey, India, and Israel) and for all practices (excluding one practice in India). The practices with the highest correlation shed light on managerial crisis management philosophies in the different countries. In the Turkish study, the highest correlated practices suggested that crisis management was based on management recognizing the importance and using the practices of reducing labor force by firing some employees and also using unpaid vacation to reduce labor force. Furthermore, they engaged in offering special deals to customers and focused on foreign tourists who did perceive the location as relatively safe. They also attempted to extend credit on scheduled payments. These managerial actions suggest that combating crisis situation is done by combining cost-cutting activities (primarily labor) and strengthening marketing activities. The findings from India and Israel are surprisingly similar, and managers in the two locations also focused on combining cost-cutting practices (focusing on labor) with marketing practices. These similar findings from three different locations suggest that there may be a preferred way to combat the crises. However, these crisis management strategies should be tested in the long run to determine their effectiveness. This is especially important because labor can be considered a strategic resource in the labor-intensive, service-oriented hospitality industry. It may be argued that imposing restrictions on human resources will limit organizations' ability to provide excellent service to their customers.

Proposition 2 stated that the obtained factors for importance and usage of practices would demonstrate consistency with the traditional groups of *human resources*, *marketing*, *maintenance*, and *government* thus providing construct validity to the crisis management categories. In the Indian case, the factor analysis for importance suggested that there was an only limited correspondence between the original categories and the Indian managers' crisis management categories. Factor one was titled "government support and cost reduction" and it included practices from the *government* category and different cost-reduction practices from the *human resources*, *marketing*, and *maintenance* categories. The second factor was titled "marketing efforts or cost reduction" and it combined *marketing* with cost-cutting efforts. The third factor was titled "finding segments for limited service or downsizing the labor force" and it demonstrated how managers combine practices to conduct their business while keeping costs down. The last factor included only one cost reduction practice.

The results for Indian managers' evaluation of usage included the first factor titled "cost-cutting practices" which comprised of various cost-cutting practices from the *maintenance*, *marketing*, and *human resources* themes. These practices were coupled with two practices of competitive pricing from the *marketing* category. The second factor was named "marketing practices" and consisted of practices from the *marketing* category. The third factor was comprised of one cost-cutting practice through outsourcing. The fourth factor was named "human resources" and it consisted of two practices from the *human resources* category.

Comparing the results from India and Turkey suggest that Turkish managers generally demonstrated a balanced crisis management perspective that combined practices in a traditional fashion from *marketing*, *maintenance*, *government*, and *human resources* categories with some focus on strengthening economic competitiveness by limiting costs and lowering prices. As a comparison, Indian managers focused on marketing practices as well. In a somewhat different fashion, Indian managers demonstrated more focus than their Turkish counterparts on combining a variety of cost-cutting practices as primary crisis management themes for both importance and usage.

In the Israeli case (Israeli & Reichel, 2003), the factor analysis for importance included factor one which was named "reliance on government and marketing". This factor included all the *government* practices plus *marketing* practices. The combination of *government* and *marketing* practices showed that managers assigned importance to government support which focuses on marketing campaigns (both national and international). The second factor of practices' importance was named "maintenance cost cuts". The third factor, titled "lowering prices through labor cutbacks" consisted of practices of lowering prices. Factor four was named "finding neglected segments and tightening employment terms" consisted of practices from the *marketing* and the *human resources* category.

The results of the factor analysis of usage included factor one titled "cost-cutting practices" including practices from the *maintenance* category. Factor 2 was named "recruiting government support" and was consisted of all of the *government* category practices. Factor 3 of usage was

named “massive marketing” and it included most of the practices from the *marketing* category. The fourth factor of usage was named “focused marketing and shorter workweek” and it included practices of *marketing* and *human resources*.

With some similarity to the crisis management philosophy of Indian managers, Israeli managers demonstrated a focus on marketing as a central theme of crisis management for both importance and usage. Also, Israeli managers highlight the importance of government support with marketing effort as a mean to combat crisis situations. Israeli managers demonstrated more focus than their Turkish counterparts on cost-cutting practices an essential theme of crisis management for both importance and usage.

Apparently, it may be challenging to compare crisis management in three different countries within three different time periods. However, it should be noted that these three cases all deal with the adversities imposed on the domestic hospitality and tourism industry by terror events. It is notable for recognizing that the common theme of crisis management for hospitality managers in Turkey, India, and Israel is about combining cost cutting (mainly from the *human resource* category) with *marketing*. This observation is consistent with previous studies which examined post-crisis communication efforts of tourism destinations after a major crisis. For example, Fall and Massey (2005) investigated post-crisis management following 9/11 and showed how managers in New York City modified their advertising, tourism marketing, public relations, and use of new media to construct promotional messages to consumers’ target markets. In all of these cases, managers demonstrate an ability to proactively craft plans to generate demand for their hospitality products. Another common theme that emerges from comparing the three studies highlights the use of cost-cutting practices. The tendency of managers in all three locations to use different cost-cutting practices demonstrate an effort to control the price associated with supplying their hospitality products.

Taken together, the analyses findings suggest that the focus of Turkish, Indian and Israeli management on marketing and cost control as central components of crisis management is potentially an effective plan. Marketing efforts can potentially boost demand, and cost control will allow them to serve this demand while being conscious about their profit margins. It is left for future research to determine if crisis management is effective and efficient.

LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study should be replicated in different countries who face different crises because the sample is limited. This replication will provide an opportunity for academic and practitioners to learn about the dominant management perspectives of crisis management. The study aimed to evaluate managers’ crisis management by focusing on their beliefs (importance) and actions (usage). The grouping of the practices (from the different categories) offered an opportunity to learn about management attitudes about crisis management in Turkey. Furthermore, the comparison of the Turkish case to India and Israel provided an opportunity to identify a common

theme. Thus far, it appears that marketing and cost cuts are dominant crisis management practices, deemed more important than other managerial activities such as postponing maintenance or protesting to the government.

Future research should identify more specifically how managers can develop post-crisis innovative marketing and how they should employ managerial practices to control costs. Moreover, future research will need to evaluate if the observed crisis management practices are effective and efficient, specifically, if the common tendency of managers to combat crises with intensified marketing and focus on cost cutting (specifically in human resources) is indeed the best practice in crisis management. This knowledge will potentially further improve crisis management in the hospitality industry.

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An examination of cultural influence on Muslim destination image and travel constraints

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ABSTRACT

The role of country culture in forming tourist behavior and motivations has been discussed in the literature. Additionally, different ethnic and/or racial groups vary in their travel preferences and behaviours due to different constraints also illustrated in numerous studies, as well as the Destination Image separately. However, there are few studies discussing whether the interaction existence on Destination Image and Travel Constraints from comparing different home country cultural influence. This study intends to explore the home country cultural influence on young international travelers' perception of a Muslim destination and Travel Constraints from cross-country perspectives. Hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) is adopted to delineate the home country cultural influence on individual and cross country (e.g. group) interaction contexts. The findings suggest that national culture plays a moderating role in the cross level model of HLM. Effective marketing and management strategies are recommended based on the research results. Future culture influence studies should choose the more complicated two level predictors of HLM analysis for further discovery of multilevel data embedded in the influence of cultural content.

Keywords: Travel Constraints, Muslim Destination Image, Brunei, Hierarchical Linear Mode (HLM)

INTRODUCTION

With the international marketplace penetrating throughout the globe, cross-cultural differences are increasingly perceived as the focus of successful marketing strategies (Lee & Harada, 2000). Funk and Bruun (2007) indicated that tourist behaviour influenced by cultural backgrounds is not new; further, it may be viewed in various contexts based on previous studies (Chen, 2000; Crotts & Erdmann, 2000; Litvin, Crotts, & Hefner, 2004; Litvin & Kar, 2003). Graburn (1995) and Pizam and Sussmann (1995) suggested that the divergence of travel behaviour from different countries can be explained through cultural factors. Thus, noting the cultural influence or impact or adopting nationality as a cultural influence detector mode is well accepted from past travel behaviour or leisure studies. Various studies have demonstrated this phenomenon. For example, in 1989, Richardson and Crompton found significant differences in vacation patterns between English- and French-speaking Canadians. Barham's (1989) study showed that Arab tourists preferred relaxation without physical activity. Ibrahim (1991) discovered that leisure

time significantly differed according to the distinct social value system of each country. Pizam and Sussmann (1995) ascertained American tourists to be significantly more interested in mingling with other tourists and less interested in artifacts than the Japanese and French; moreover, the French and Italians avoid local foods and prefer their own cuisine. Additionally, the Japanese are regarded as a special touring group, being less adventurous, visiting famous heritage sites, ignoring local food and interaction with other tourists, addicted to clicking photographs, and loving shopping more than other tourists. Koreans treat women as dependent and vulnerable, in consonance with their Asian sociocultural identity, while traveling (Cho, 1991:27; Graburn, 1995; Pizam & Sussmann, 1995:912; Ritter, 1987:4–7; Teo & Leong, 2006). Graburn (1995) compared Europeans, North Americans, and Japanese, concluding that Japanese have a low sense of cultural confidence; therefore, they prefer group travel. Muzaini (2006) stated that Asians are less broad-minded than white tourists, demonstrating different travel behaviours from other Westerners. Chen (2000) further proved the existence of cross-cultural differences in seeking external sources of information among Japanese, South Korean, and Australian tourists traveling to the USA. Litvin and Kar (2003) confirmed a difference in behaviour among German and Japanese tourists traveling to the USA. Palau-Saumell, Forgas-Coll, Amaya-Molinar, and Sánchez-García (2016) successfully proposed a model demonstrating that the country's image influences the destination's image in behavioural intention. Furthermore, Weber, Hsu, and Sparks (2016) found differences between Chinese–American and mainland Chinese consumers' perceptions of behaviour in a service failure situation.

Furthermore, different countries not only show cultural influence on travel and leisure behaviour but also act as barriers to leisure preferences and behaviours according to different ethnic or racial groups (e.g., Philipp, 1995; Shinew, Floyd, & Parry, 2004; Stodolska, 1998). For instance, Philipp (1995) found African–Americans to be less comfortable with certain activities, such as golf, skiing, and hunting, than white Americans. This is in consonance with Woodard's work (1988), which found African–Americans to be constrained by the fear of racial prejudice and discrimination and therefore chose activities to avoid such prejudice and discrimination. Tsai and Coleman (1999) stated that Chinese–Americans' leisure is limited by “resource constraints, interpersonal constraints, access constraints, affective constraints, social-cultural constraints, and physiological constraints.” These studies indicate that racial and ethnic groups' leisure may be constrained by numerous factors, which appear to be both (1) learned and (2) shared. However, as a constraining and affording factor in leisure, substantially less discussion has been conducted on culture, although often invoked implicitly (Chick & Dong, 2005). Examining these previous studies reveals that cross-cultural considerations play a role in the travel decision-making process.

Prebensen (2007) believed that different cultures combined with different geographical distances of destinations may lead to changes in knowledge, attitudes, and behaviour. Kozak (2002) asserted that previous cross-cultural studies examining travelers of different nationalities paralleled with different motivations. Thus, the importance of examining the differences from different countries' cultural perceptions representing destinations for understanding potential travelers' destination images and traveler constraints to choose the right attributes for a target market

was concluded. Alternatively, this study reflected that “nationality may have a moderating or intervening impact on tourist behaviour and would add significantly to one’s understanding of tourist behaviour if properly controlled and/or used with other variables,” as in Pizam and Sussmann’s (1995) study, quoted by Little (2007).

Chen and Chen (2013) cited Mansfield and Winckler’s (2008) study to report that the Arab countries’ tourism industry is still in the “infancy phase.” Chen and Chen (2013) also listed several studies describing the travel barrier existing in Arab countries accordingly. For example, Mansfield and Winckler (2008) created a case study on Bahrain by identifying several existing barriers, including over-dependence on a single market, religious opposition to tourism-related consumption, political unrest, strong competition, volatile oil prices, and short durations of stay. Mansfield and Winckler (2008) contended that due to religious behaviours, such as strict codes of conduct, potential non-Arab tourism markets may show negative perceptions of Islamic countries as destinations. Hashim, Murphy, and Hashim (2007) conducted a qualitative study examining the Web-based image of Malaysia. They concluded that images of Muslim tourism destinations are stimuli for visitors to form perceptions in the pleasure travel decision-making process, including the process of post-travel evaluation. According to Blanke and Mia (2005), creatively targeting new markets, “particularly in Asia and ‘untapped’ parts of Europe,” will be the strategy for Islamic tourism destinations. In addition to new geographic locations, the youth tourism market is considered a potential segment for Muslim tourism destinations. It is proved that from an economic, social, and cultural perspective the youth tourism market is significant.

Despite the importance of the above-mentioned issues, few studies have focused on different nationalities with different cultural influences affecting the perception of a Muslim destination. Though Chen, Chen, and Okumus (2013) successfully demonstrated the existence of a relationship between Muslim destination images and travel constraints, including the cultural constraint, there is still inadequate evidence confirming the degree of cultural influence resulting from the perspectives of different nationalities. In this paper, the concept of different nationalities refers to travel destinations where there are major cultural and religious differences between the traveler’s home country and the country destination of travel. To avoid a stereotypical image of Muslim culture, Brunei that combines ecotourism and cultural promotion, is chosen as the Muslim travel destination for comparison with travel constraints from the home country. Further, to investigate Muslim destination perceptions and travel constraints from a cross-cultural perspective, Taiwanese and American young travelers are treated as convenience samples for demonstrating the different opinions between West and East. Briefly, the Muslim destination image and travel constraints were shown to Taiwanese and American young travelers after they saw the official Brunei Chinese/English video to discover the change in Muslim destination image and travel constraints using cross-cultural comparison.

Thus, this study’s aim is threefold. First, this study identifies the perceptions of a Muslim destination image, represented by the official Brunei video, and associates travel constraints between both Taiwanese and American young travelers. Second, this study depicts the difference between the destination image and travel constraints as perceived by young Western and Eastern

travelers through a cross-country cultural comparison. Third, the study observes the effect of different countries' cultural influences, implied by nationality, on the Muslim destination image and travel constraints to propose appropriate marketing strategies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Destination image related to cultural influence

A review of the literature demonstrates that tourism is an image-driven industry and destination images have been a significant focus with a relatively large amount of research undertaken in the field of hospitality and tourism for more than 30 years (Tasci, Gartner, & Cavusgil, 2007). Tapachai and Waryszak (2000) concluded that destination image is one of the most explored fields in tourism research. In the 1970s, various key articles established the importance of image as an influencer of travel behaviour (Elliot, 2007). Hunt (1975) described that individual's perception of destination image in the travel market is as important to the success of tourism development as the variety of recreation and tourist resources. Many notable studies in the past were devoted to the measurement of destination image (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Phelps, 1986), destination image formation (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Gartner, 1993), levels of tourist experience satisfaction regarding destination image (Chon, 1992), the influence of destination image on traveler choice (Hunt, 1975; Pearce, 1982; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989), the travel decision-making process (Mayo, 1975; Goodrich, 1978; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989), and the various models of travel decision-making (Mayo, 1973; Crompton, 1979; Schmoll, 1977; Moutinho, 1984; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). Chen and Uysal (2002) outlined the necessity of recognizing the destination image perceived by tourists as a means of identifying strengths and weaknesses for efficient promotion of the marketplace (Leisen, 2001) and guaranteed competitive success (Telisman-Kosuta, 1994).

Crompton's (1979) definition of a tourist destination image, described as the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions of an individual person, is the most commonly cited. However, Lawson and Baud Bovy (1977) suggested that the perception of the destination image may be shaped by groups of people, encompassing both personal and stereotypical images from groups as the manifestation of all sharing knowledge, impressions, prejudice, imagination, and emotional thoughts. Therefore, Echtner and Ritchie (2003) proposed that destination images may be derived from a much wider range of information sources by linking the country's tourist image and national image (World Tourism Organization, 1980; Kotler, 1987). Pizam and Sussmann (1995) confirmed that nationality has a moderating or intervening impact on tourist behaviour and significantly influences tourist behaviour understanding, if properly controlled and/or used with other variables. Moreover, Whyne-Hammond (1985) stated that allowing non-commercial sources, such as historical, political, economic, social, and cultural factors, to be incorporated and focusing only on the perception of foreign countries and their inhabitants can make the destination image more widely accurate. Though numerous studies have discussed destination images, including for states, regions, and countries, there has been little effort to critically examine the destination image in terms of its effectiveness in defining and measuring a country's

cultural influence. Therefore, this paper designs more appropriate and rigorous techniques of measurement of the destination image for enhancing current understanding.

Bigné, Sánchez and Sánchez (2001) defined destination image as a subjective concept perceived by the tourist. Furthermore, other authors have suggested that psychological factors, including tourist motivations and cultural values, significantly influence the image of a tourist destination, even before visiting (San Martín & Rodríguez, 2008). Hawkins et al. (2003) confirmed the important factors of subjectivity and social and cultural influences affecting individuals' perceptions of destination image. Alternatively, culture can be considered a constitutive element deep within the individual (Howarth, 2001) that filters the individual's perception. As Martín and del Bosque (2008) completed a close observation on relationship between the origin country and culture from previous tourism studies, they stated that cultural values may significantly affect tourism and tourist behaviour in general. Crotts (2004) discovered that individuals' responses to cultural values are linked to nationality for countries considered to represent different cultural factors and attributes. Thus, we can conclude that the different perspective of travelers toward the same destination rises from different countries with heterogeneous cultural values.

Previous studies have analyzed how cognitive destination image is affected by an individual's image of the destination country; however, it is natural to emphasize more studies that aim to understand the influence of a home country's culture on destination preferences and traveler behaviours (Litvin, Crotts, & Hefner, 2004). Therefore, a deeper analysis of the role of cultural influence on destination image is required for an insightful perspective in tourism research.

Travel constraints with cultural influences

Prominent conceptual contributions by previous researchers have focused on leisure constraints (Alexandris & Carroll, 1997; Bialeschki & Hicks, 1999; Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Jackson, 2000; Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993; Jackson & Scott, 1999; Kay & Jackson, 1991; Samdahl, Hutchinson, & Jacobson, 1999; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997). Jackson and Scott (1999) assert that many leisure constraint studies provide a foundation for understanding individual leisure limits and the practical value of leisure constraints has already been well recorded (e.g., Howard & Crompton, 1984; Searle & Jackson, 1985; Godbey, 1985; Veal & Cushman, 1996). However, there is a possibility for improvements in conceptualization at the foundation of constraints research (Schneider & Stanis, 2007).

A quick review of the leisure constraint research will provide the basis for understanding its merits as well as improvement opportunities. Liechty, Freeman, and Zabriskie (2006) presented an overall picture of previous research in leisure constraints, in chronological order, as follows. Since the 1950s, it has been interesting to identify leisure constraints (Reeder & Linkowski, 1976; Thomas, 1956; Witt & Goodale, 1981; Wood, 1971). In 1987, Crawford and Godbey introduced a leisure constraints model to bridge existing constraints research and the foundations for future research. The proposed model presents the following three categories of leisure constraints: (a) interpersonal, (b) intrapersonal, and (c) structural. Interpersonal constraints

indicate individuals' relationships and interactions. Intrapersonal constraints define individuals' internal psychological states or attributes, such as fear, stress, or depression, and their related influence on specific activities. Structural constraints are obstacles such as geographic locations or financial resources. The three categories model followed by the advanced theoretical improvements helped to expand conceptual understanding linked to empirical leisure constraints research. While most of the literature discussed the leisure constraints of nonparticipants toward the interest or desire to participate, a new perspective appeared in the late 1980s, challenging the assumption that leisure constraints necessarily restricted participation (Kay & Jackson, 1991; Shaw, Bonen, & McCabe, 1991). Researchers showed that negotiation and actively engaged leisure experiences act to overcome some leisure constraints (Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993; Jackson & Rucks, 1995). In the 1990s, several more leisure constraints models and theories were presented and expanded (e.g., Hawkins, Peng, Hsieh, & Eklund, 1999; Henderson, 1997; Hultsman, 1995; Jackson, 1991, 1993) and social theory was also embraced in the "cultural turn" (Aitchison, 1999; Shogan, 2002; Parker, 2007). Furthermore, Shaw et al. (1991) noticed that leisure constraints may not necessarily have a role in decreasing participation but may lower enjoyment or even increase participation in some activities. The above studies provided a rich theoretical critique, alternative analyses, various methodological procedures, and new concepts related to leisure constraints. Since the 1990s, leisure research has examined how place and space affect leisure practices in different cultural contexts (Kay & Jackson, 1991; Rojek, 1995; Jackson, 1997, 2000; Aitchison, 1999, 2003; Crouch, 1999, 2000; Shogan, 2002). Therefore, the influence of cultural context has expanded to the conceptualization of experienced constraints.

Chick and Dong (2003) found that intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints are influenced by culture constraints that do not apparently belong to any category defined by Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991). Further, they believed that culture is an alternative type of constraint. Since culture is an unclear concept of "tradition," it is difficult to incorporate it in the intrapersonal, interpersonal, or structural category. Moreover, they argued that the constraints model developed in North America, regarded as monocultural by ignoring culture, belonged to the leisure constraint typology. Samdahl (2005) and Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997) also confirmed that the constraints model limits analysis by neglecting individuals' cultural context. Arab-Moghaddam, Henderson, and Sheikholeslami (2007) also agreed that a more appropriate methodology was a culturally based perception of ethnic groups' specific activities (e.g., Khan, 1997; Manrai & Manrai, 1995; Tirone & Pedlar, 2000; Tirone & Shaw, 1997). However, Godbey, Crawford, and Shen (2010) disagreed with using culture as another constraining attribute without empirical evidence, because intrapersonal constraint was already embedded into social macro-level influence. Therefore, it is assumed that both intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints should be subordinate to culture in any leisure constraint model. In 2013, Chen, Chen, and Okumus found "unfamiliar cultural constraints" to be a new dimension of travel constraints, via an empirical survey of young international travelers, demonstrating that the previously overlooked fourth dimension is uniquely applicable and worthy of study in the travel and tourism context. Briefly, this study asserts that culture is a constraining dimension, which increases the validity of the leisure constraint model when applied to other societies or whenever culture cannot be constant.

Since most research on leisure constraints has been conducted in North America and England (Alexandris & Carroll, 1997), Ap (2002) mentioned that developing Asia should not be regarded as the Westernization of Asia; for example, Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore have been modernized in an Asian way and have not necessarily embraced Western values. Tay (2001, p.74) confirmed that increasing links with the United States and West did not result in an abandonment of traditional Asian forms different from those of the West. Furthermore, cross-cultural data can expose the weakness of overlooking the cultural constraints perspective. However, there has been limited research in non-English speaking populations, and few attempts have been made to conduct cross-cultural comparisons (Harahousou-Kabitsi, 1991; Ehsani et al., 1996; Alexandris & Carroll, 1997). Though Chen, Chen, and Okumus (2013) confirmed existing cultural constraints by comparing the pre-travel decision-making of Taiwanese and American young international travelers, there remains a need to discover more about cultural influences on the constraints model. Further, though few studies have explored the application of the leisure constraints framework in the tourism context (Hinch & Jackson 2000), it has been proved that constraints exist in various recreation-related activities and population subgroups (Alexandris & Carroll, 1997). Nyaupane, Morais, and Graefe (2004) highlighted some noteworthy contributions on tourism constraints activities, including Fleischer and Pizam (2002), Gilbert and Hudson (2000), and Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002). Hinch and Jackson (2000) demonstrated that tourism researchers are taking advantage of previous studies in the leisure constraints literature by adopting relatively mature theoretical models in this area. Thus, the revised theoretical framework with cultural constraints supporting this study follows previous research on cultural influences in the travel context.

Hierarchical Linear Model (HLM)

Since Hofstede (1980) defined culture as “the collective sharing of beliefs, values and psychological attributes which distinguishes the members of one human group from another,” Cheung, Leung, and Au (2006) concluded that people and culture are to be considered on two separate levels as people are nested within cultures. Leung (1989) also recommended that cross-cultural research’s dominant approach should be to adopt the psychological processes diagnosis from both the individual level and the group across different cultural background comparisons of the culture-level of analysis. Cheung, Leung, and Au (2006) further noted that cross-cultural data sets provide abundant information because two-country comparisons permit multilevel analyses. Some researchers (e.g., Chan, 1998; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994; Smith, 2002) have outlined the benefits of properly delineating the non-independence of people within the influence of a cultural background while analyzing cross-cultural data sets, as well as analyzing individual- and country-level data simultaneously via multilevel models (Klein, Tosi, & Cannella, 1999; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Thus, multilevel models provide a more precise analytical and technical means of conceptualizing how cultural background influences people within cultures (Chao, 2000).

Rationale for Using HLM

Raudenbush and Bryk (1988) noted that traditionally used research models, such as ordinary least squares (OLS) and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), which are single-level models, are

not appropriate for analyzing data that are multilevel in nature. The term HLM first appeared in research by Strenio, Weisberg, and Bryk (1983). Other studies involving multilevel data use multilevel mixed linear models (Goldstein, 1986; Mason, Wong, & Entwistle, 1984), random coefficient models (DeLeeuw & Kreft, 1986), and HLM (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1987). Previous researchers have noted that simply aggregating or disaggregating individual data (e.g., this study's young traveler data) does not obtain a satisfactory outcome on the effect of variables at every level, so it is more appropriate to use HLM for researching this type of nested data context. In other words, HLM or multilevel growth models are more appropriate for multilevel analysis because they take the multilevel and nested nature of group-based data into account (Raudenbush, 1988; van der Leeden, 1998). Furthermore, HLM decomposes the dependent variable's variance into lower-level effects (i.e., individual data) after controlling for the effects of the higher level's characteristics (i.e., subdivision characteristics), in which each unit in the lower level is nested without violating an independent observation assumption. This kind of statistical modeling allows the study of a singular analysis of relationships at any level without ignoring the associated variability within each distinct level of hierarchy. According to Tabernik (2008), HLM is based on the assumptions of linearity and normality for providing information about within- and between-group variation. The application of HLM has become increasingly popular for nested data (Osborne, 2000), while the nesting of data means that lower-level units embedded in a higher-level unit share the same characteristics as the higher-level unit.

Although HLM's use is growing in several other fields, it is seldom used to evaluate various cultural influence effects and related group variables for individual travelers. There have been few papers in peer-reviewed tourism literature adopting HLM in travel behaviour research (Chen, 2000). This study investigates the cultural influence of different countries on the destination image and travel constraints. Specifically, the goal is to discover the influences of a country's culture by examining relationships or correlations between the combinations of Muslim destination image, travel constraints, travel intention to Brunei, and young traveler characteristics. Researchers have shown that it is difficult to partition the effects of a group or individual from the effects of individual characteristics (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). This study "nests" and groups data from individual young travelers with their countries. It is important not only to determine the variation in the destination image of young travelers but also the extent to which this variation in cultural background influence is due to individual traveler differences or country to country differences. Raudenbush and Bryk (2002) recommended that in considering young traveler data as nested in the different country classes, or as data structured on a hierarchical level, there is a need to use multilevel analysis analyzing variables from different levels.

This study uses a Level-2 HLM to determine the link between the hierarchical data set of young traveler destination image scores and travel constraints with a targeted travel intention to Brunei. This study focuses on the perception of young travelers regarding the Muslim destination image and travel constraints within the country cultural context of the class. HLM provides an insight into the relationships between variables, such as age, gender, marital status, education, and travel experiences along with familiarity of Muslim culture, accounting for traveler- and class-level variance with the intention to travel to Brunei by nationality. The model estimated

the regression within each young traveler's individual characteristics and travel experiences that may explain the variation among different country classes in an effort to explain the variation of outcomes in an individual young traveler's intention to travel to Brunei. The Level-2 HLM effectively examined the relationship of both levels of analyses while also examining each level's variability. The model provides insightful observation into the identified relationships, which is not limited to the statistical outcome.

Conducting an HLM Analysis

Lee (200) listed three steps in a typical HLM analysis, which are applied to the current study for group effects (e.g., class effects in this study) for individuals from different countries. In the first step, the researcher decomposes the variance into two parts in a dependent variable, including the proportion of individual and group variance, and the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that systematically lies among groups. There is only a proportion of variance in the dependent variable existing among groups with a value, making the model a function of group characteristics for the further analysis of within- and between-group variance discovering interaction influence. In the first step, the intra-class correlation (ICC) is the index determining the total proportion of variance that systematically lies between groups and indicates whether HLM is needed or whether a single-level analytical method is appropriate. This first step in the HLM analysis is termed the fully unconditional model, meaning no individual or group characteristics are considered. It is only when the ICC is more than trivial (i.e., greater than 10% of the total variance in the outcome) that the researcher can show that there is a further diagnosed need to consider multilevel methods. If this step is ignored (i.e., assuming an ICC of either 0 or 1), there is no appropriate reason to complete multilevel analysis on the research question (Lee, 2000).

The second step of HLM analysis is to estimate the within-group group effects or the Level-1 model. In this step, investigating the individual characteristics is associated with the dependent variables from the group perspective. Taking an example from this study, the outcomes of class effects at the secondary level includes the aggregated constructs of Brunei destination image and travel constraints and nationality. The young traveler characteristics are composed of traveler demographics (e.g., age, gender, marital status, and education) and travel experiences (e.g., overseas and domestic travel frequency and whether the person or their family and friends have ever traveled to Brunei). Furthermore, this study assumes those individual young traveler characteristics to be either statistical controls or social distribution parameters (e.g., the relation to the travel intention to Brunei). Subsequently, exploring the travel intention to Brunei presents future travel decision-making as a class function extending to the individual young traveler's characteristics. Briefly, a Level-1 HLM analysis can investigate whether the regression slopes of individual young travelers' intentions to travel to Brunei in each class systematically vary across classes.

The final step (i.e., adding the Level-2 model) is to discover whether class effects (i.e., country cultural influence) exist. At Level 2, the constructs of Muslim destination image, travel constraints, and nationality are considered as class characteristics to fulfill statistical control for studying the estimating class effects via nationality. Therefore, HLM's final model investigates the influence of class characteristics such as nationality on the intention to travel to Brunei.

RESEARCH DESIGN

This study also identifies the perception of the Muslim destination image and travel constraints among young Taiwanese and young American travelers. Thus, criteria sampling was applied to recruit Taiwanese and American participants aged 18–35 years who also travel. A convenience sampling was conducted in eight classes from one university in Taiwan and four classes from one university in the USA to fulfil this objective. Among the approximately 4,500 students queried, 512 valid samples (203 American and 309 Taiwanese) were successfully collected that met the required criteria in the data analysis process. This research's survey instrument design is shown in Table 1. Additionally, this study compares differences in perception between the Muslim destination image and travel constraints between young Taiwanese and American travelers. The participants were unaware of the official Brunei promotion video used to provide an organic image of Brunei and to assess initial travel constraints. This study mainly observed the implication of nationality in different levels of country cultural influence on the Muslim destination image and travel constraints. Therefore, HLM procedures were performed to empirically test the relationship's nature and magnitude. The research design and framework are shown in Figure 1.

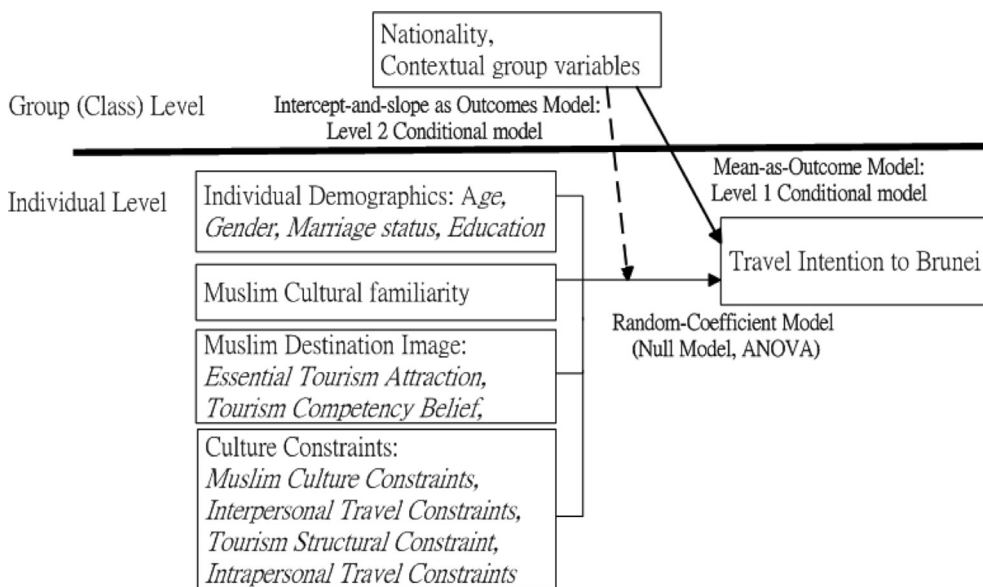


Figure 1: Research Design and Framework

This study adopts a two-level HLM to discover whether cross-cultural young traveler perspectives will be affected by the different perceptions of destination image and travel constraints under different country backgrounds of perceiving Muslim culture. HLM's first level included the

class code, young traveler demographics, travel experiences, Brunei destination image, travel constraints, and Muslim cultural familiarity. The second level provides a framework for assessing cross-cultural perspectives among different classes resulting from viewing the Brunei official promotion video. Therefore, level-2 indicates nationality and class-related contextual variables.

Table 1: Survey Instrument

Variables	Scale / Items	Level 1 (individual)	Level 2 (class)
Travel Intention to Brunei (DV)	7-point scale for the desire to travel to Brunei		
Brunei Cultural Familiarity (IV)	7-point scale for Brunei cultural familiarity	V	
Travel Experiences (IV)	(1) Frequency of overseas travel in the past five years (2) Frequency of domestic travel in the past five years (3) Have traveled to Brunei (4) Family and Friends have traveled to Brunei	V	
Age (IV)	Ratio	V	
Gender (IV)	Nominal	V	
Marriage status (IV)	Nominal	V	
Education (IV)	Nominal	V	
Brunei Destination Image (IV)	7-point scale of 19 items Mean of essential tourism attraction Mean of tourism competency belief	V V	
Travel Constraints(IV):	7-point scale of 20 items Mean of muslim cultural constraints Mean of interpersonal travel constraints Mean of tourism structural constraint Mean of intrapersonal travel constraints	V V V V	
Classes (IV)	Nominal: 8 classes from Taiwan; 4 from USA		V
Class Nationality (IV)	Nominal		V

Class Brunei	Class Mean of essential tourism attraction	V
Destination Image (IV)	Class Mean of tourism competency belief	V
Class Travel	Class Mean of Muslim cultural constraints	V
Constraints (IV)	Class Mean of interpersonal travel constraints	V
	Class Mean of tourism structural constraint	V
	Class Mean of intrapersonal travel constraints	V

The following hypotheses were derived based on the analytical framework:

- H1: Intention to travel to Brunei along with the Brunei destination image and travel constraints are significantly different between Taiwanese and American young travelers.
- H2: Different young traveler classes have significant variance in their intentions of traveling to Brunei.
- H3: Different young traveler classes have different intentions for traveling to Brunei.
- H4: Nationality indicates the different influence of country culture on the Level-2 class mean of the intention of traveling to Brunei.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Descriptive results

The Cronbach's alpha values for destination image and travel constraint for American and Taiwanese tourists are 0.98, 0.93 and 0.94, 0.89, respectively, with a satisfactory internal consistency of 0.7. The test demonstrates that all dimensions have high consistency and the survey has reliability. Regarding validity, the questionnaire design is adopted from available scale profiles in the related literature and has been revised based on the travel behaviour experts' opinions. Hence, this survey fulfills content validity.

Table 2 lists the sample demographics, travel experiences, and intention to travel to Brunei for each country. The result shows that young American travelers have more travel experience and a greater travel intention than Taiwanese travelers.

Table 2: The sample demographics, travel experiences, and travel intention to Brunei

Variables	Items	USA n=203	Taiwan n=309
		Mean % / scale	Mean % / scale
Demographics	Age (mean)	21.98	21.65
	Gender (female)	70.4%	71.8%
	Marital status (single)	90.6%	94.8%
	Education (above college)	98.5%	98.4%
Travel experiences	Traveled overseas over two times in the past five years	45.8%	21.7%
	Taken domestic vacations over two times in the past five years	94.6%	58.6%
	Have traveled to Brunei	19.2%	0.6%
	Family and Friends have traveled to Brunei	2.0%	1.0%
Travel Intention to Brunei	What is your desire to visit this travel destination in the future?	4.21 / 7	3.11 / 7
	How familiar are you with Brunei?	2.48 / 7	1.6 / 7
Familiarity			

Muslim Destination Image

Only one item of the destination image, appealing local food and beverage, is significantly different between young American and Taiwanese travelers. This means that no statistically significant evidence is provided that demonstrates young American travelers having a different destination image than young Taiwanese travelers (see Table 3).

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of Muslim Destination Image

Destination Image Attributes	N	USA n=203		Taiwan n=309		T test	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Appealing local food and beverages	201	4.46	1.64	305	3.30	1.24	15.30**
Unique heritage	200	5.65	1.26	305	3.61	1.38	2.48
Refreshing/relaxing atmosphere	201	5.46	1.34	305	3.79	1.38	0.02
Friendly local people	200	4.96	1.37	304	3.77	1.33	0.14
Pleasant weather	201	5.18	1.27	304	3.78	1.35	0.28
Unique natural attractions	200	5.55	1.34	305	3.81	1.40	0.02

CULTURAL INFLUENCE ON MUSLIM DESTINATION IMAGE AND TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS

Suitable accommodations (hotels, resorts, etc.)	201	4.95	1.42	303	3.69	1.34	0.01
Various recreational opportunities	201	4.90	1.40	303	3.66	1.37	0.16
Inexpensive travel	202	3.52	1.58	302	3.88	1.47	1.13
Variety of unique cultural attractions	200	5.36	1.24	305	3.73	1.42	2.22
Good value for money	202	4.48	1.26	304	3.62	1.38	2.32
High-tech	201	3.72	1.48	305	3.29	1.26	1.24
Safe	202	4.19	1.45	304	3.55	1.44	0.73
Diverse and unique ethnic groups and cultures	202	5.38	1.28	304	3.72	1.42	1.28
Socially and politically stable	202	4.33	1.31	305	3.57	1.39	3.62
Advanced tourism industry	201	4.34	1.35	305	3.69	1.43	1.10
Modern	201	4.06	1.50	305	3.44	1.36	0.05
Open and welcoming	199	4.86	1.42	305	3.72	1.43	0.11
Adequate tourism infrastructure (airport, highway, hotels, shopping, etc.)	201	4.36	1.35	303	3.64	1.41	1.51

Note: Values are the mean of reported scores on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). SD means Standard Deviation; * indicates a p-value lower than 0.05 with significant difference; ** indicates a p-value lower than 0.01 with strongly significant difference.

Since this study identified the underlying dimensions of a Muslim country's destination image and the associated travel constraints, exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation was applied to the attribute list. This resulted in a two-dimensional destination image of Brunei Darussalam (KMO = .962; 59.86% of variance explained by the solution): Essential Tourism Attraction and Competency Tourism Belief (Table 4).

Table 4: Factor Analysis of Muslim Destination Image

Attributes	Essential Tourism Attraction	Tourism Competency Belief
Unique heritage	1.498	
Unique natural attractions	1.412	
Refreshing/relaxing atmosphere	1.380	
Pleasant weather	1.243	
Variety of unique cultural attraction	1.296	
Friendly local people	1.147	
Diverse and unique ethnic groups and culture	1.180	
Various recreational opportunities	1.061	
Suitable accommodations (hotels, resorts, etc.)	1.041	
Appealing local food & beverage	.946	
Safe		1.128
Adequate tourism infrastructure (airport, highway, hotels, shopping, etc.)		1.075
Modern		1.085
High-tech		1.027
Inexpensive travel		1.126
Advanced tourism industry		1.024
Socially and politically stable		.970
Good value for money		.931
Open and welcoming		.969
Eigenvalues		
N	494	494
Mean (SD*)	4.27 (1.52)	3.83 (1.47)
Cronbach's Alpha	.96	.94

Note: * Standard Deviation

Travel Constraints for a Muslim destination

Thirteen of the 20 attributes of travel constraint were significantly different between young American and Taiwanese travelers. Cultural constraint has five attributes of significant difference, which means that Muslim culture involves travel constraint for young Taiwanese travelers but not for young American travelers. The young travelers indicated that they agreed with the statement, "I do not know much about this destination for vacation" based on an image from the official tourism promotion video. They disagreed with the statement "The extreme culture made me feel uninterested in visiting this destination." Table 5 lists the findings of frequency analysis performed on the 20 travel constraint attributes.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of Travel Constraints

		USA n=203		Taiwan n=309		T test	
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	T test
It is too far away.		4.72	1.73	302	3.80	1.46	5.15*
I do not have enough money to travel to this type of destination.	202	5.61	1.41	303	4.58	1.71	17.99**
Language is a major impediment to take a vacation to this destination.	202	4.58	1.60	303	3.85	1.51	1.44
Travel to this destination is unsafe.	201	3.98	1.50	301	3.64	1.22	2.01
My family and friends are disinterested in visiting this destination.	201	3.84	1.67	301	3.78	1.37	4.41*
My family and friends do not want to travel to this type of destination.	201	3.63	1.67	303	3.39	1.28	8.92**
My family and friends discourage me from traveling to this type of destination.	201	3.01	1.67	302	3.24	1.26	10.88**
My family and friends do not want to travel with me to this type of destination.	201	3.42	1.65	303	3.32	1.32	9.49**
The extreme culture makes me uncomfortable.	202	3.05	1.59	303	3.11	1.25	5.99*
The extreme culture disinterests me.	202	2.83	1.49	302	3.09	1.25	2.46
Unwelcome atmosphere due to religion.	202	3.17	1.59	303	3.06	1.22	10.19**
Religion makes me uncomfortable.	202	3.06	1.53	303	3.06	1.22	6.39*
The destination is a Muslim country.	201	3.72	1.70	301	3.47	1.29	6.63**
This destination appears expensive.	201	5.00	1.48	301	3.70	1.33	0.16
I am disinterested in visiting this destination.	202	3.49	1.85	300	3.45	1.38	16.88**
I do not have time to visit this destination.	200	4.54	1.59	303	3.78	1.51	0.33
My health is a concern for traveling to this type of destination.	201	3.21	1.77	302	3.25	1.25	18.46**
My work and family obligations keep me from visiting this destination.	201	4.74	1.68	303	3.32	1.35	3.57
It is not fun to travel to this destination alone.	203	5.14	1.75	303	3.95	1.62	1.33
I do not know much about this destination for vacation.	203	5.07	1.59	301	4.69	1.73	12.10**

Note: Values are the mean of reported scores on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). SD means Standard Deviation; * indicates a p-value lower than 0.05 with significant difference; ** indicates a p-value lower than 0.01 with strongly significant difference.

Exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation was used to identify four dimensions of travel constraints (KMO = .89; 61.46% of variance explained). The dimensions of travel constraints for Brunei Darussalam are Muslim cultural constraints, interpersonal travel constraints, tourism structural constraint, and intrapersonal travel constraints. The findings are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Factor Analysis of Travel Constraints

Attributes	Muslim cultural constraints	interpersonal travel constraints	tourism structural constraint	intrapersonal travel constraints
The religion makes me uncomfortable.	.821			
Unwelcome atmosphere due to the religion.	.805			
The extreme culture disinterested me.	.745			
The extreme culture makes me uncomfortable.	.700			
My health is a concern for traveling to this destination.	.598			
This destination is a Muslim country.	.597			
My family and friends do not want to travel to this type of destination.		.835		
My family and friends are disinterested in visiting this destination.		.810		
My family and friends do not want to travel with me to this type of destination.		.790		
My family and friends discourage me from traveling to this type of destination.		.702		
I am disinterested in visiting this destination.		.558		
I do not have enough money to travel to this type of destination.			.792	
It is too far away.			.779	
Language is a major impediment to take a vacation to this destination.			.744	
It looks expensive to travel to this destination.			.627	
It is not safe to travel to this destination.			.435	
I do not have enough knowledge about this destination that is required for a vacation.				.762
It is not fun to travel to this destination alone.				.614
I do not have time to visit this destination.				.601
My work and family obligations keep me from visiting this destination.				.522
Eigenvalues				
N	498	494	496	500
Mean (SD)	3.177(1.39)	3.453(1.48)	4.255(1.57)	4.311(1.67)
Cronbach's Alpha	.880	.885	.790	.754

Note: * Standard Deviation

HLM Results

In general, HLM simultaneously evaluates relationships within and across (or between) levels. Two models must be concurrently assessed for within- and between-level relationships. HLM accomplishes this procedure by conducting regressions of regressions (Hofmann, 1997). Conceptually, a two-step procedure is adopted, wherein two models are completed (Arnold, 1992). The first step is to build within-unit models. Accordingly, related regression models are estimated for each group to test relationships among variables within each of the lower-level units (i.e., groups) respectively, generating intercept and slope parameters linking the individual-level independent variable to the individual-level outcome variable (e.g., travel intention to Brunei in this study) for each group (e.g., classes in this study).

The second step is to estimate relationships between levels, by utilizing randomly varying intercept and slope parameters from the within-unit models as outcome variables and regressing them on a Level-2 or group-level predictor (i.e., travel intention to Brunei). These regression equations depict the between-unit models (Arnold, 1992). Therefore, the preceding sections described how travel intention to Brunei (this study's outcome of interest) was tested and validated and how relevant predictors were constructed across the two levels of data. Further, the two-level nesting of the data implies that variances in travel intention to Brunei exists within and between classes. Furthermore, this study's conceptual foundation suggests that the variability in the data can be explained or accounted for by predictors in the Level-1 variables. Therefore, the appropriate predictive methods employed in this study were two-level HLMs. The statistical program Hierarchical Linear Modeling, version 6 (Raudenbush, Bryk, Congdon, & Congdon Jr, 2004) was used to estimate all multilevel models.

Briefly, the following steps were followed to answer this study's research questions. First, the values of true variance across two levels of data were measured using a null model for each outcome. Second, a conditional model was specified and revised for each outcome. Third, a sequential approach to conditional model building across the two data levels was established. A detailed description of these three steps follows.

Random Effect Model (Zero Model; ANOVA)

Overall true variance in a given domain (outcome) was estimated via a null model with a random intercept. A null model is fully unconditional—that is, no predictor variables are specified at any level. The null models estimated how variations in an outcome measure were allocated into within class and between class. An additional statistic of importance, computed based on decomposition of variance was ICC, which represented the proportion of variance attributable to between-class variations. Estimating the overall variance and how it was partitioned across the two levels of data were crucial prerequisite pieces of information as these variance compartments served as baselines against which subsequent conditional models were compared. To the extent that a conditional model was able to reduce (i.e., explain) these variances, such a model had high significance.

In the process of HLM analysis, the intercept and slope coefficients are random variables that

vary across classes (Zero Model). HLM analysis examines whether there are differences in the travel intention to Brunei among young travelers along with examining the total variance as the percentage of within-class and between-class variance. This simplest HLM is equivalent to a one-way ANOVA with random effects (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). The random effects model (Zero Model) is described as follows:

$$\text{Level 1: Travel Intention to Brunei}_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + r_{ij}, r_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

$$\text{Level 2: } \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \mu_{0j}, \mu_{0j} \sim N(0, \tau_{00})$$

Travel Intention To Brunei_{ij} = the travel intention to Brunei of ith students belonged to jth class

β_{0j} = the Intercept of the travel intention to Brunei for jth class

r_{ij} = error

γ_{00} = grand mean of the travel intention to Brunei for all students

σ^2 = the within-class variance that captures students' travel intention to Brunei variance within their respective classes (within-group variation).

τ_{00} = the between-class variance of the 12 classes' mean of travel intention to Brunei (between-group variation).

In this study, the result obtained by the model of young travelers' intention to travel to Brunei for the average estimated coefficient is 3.40, with a standard error of 0.13, in the standard of significant variation. The ICC can be used to express group variation of the total variation percentage with the formula . The high and low ICC percentages can show whether the variation between classes affects the overall extent of variability; if it does not, then the researcher does not have to consider the use of HLM. This judgment is based on the criteria of Cheung, Leung, and Au (2006) that a value of 0.06–0.3 indicates worthiness for the discovery of further group variation influence. The null model of the ICC correlation coefficient in this study is 0.07 (class and the class of variance relative to the level of correlation coefficient $ICC = 0.16/0.16 + 2.22$), which means that the intention to travel to Brunei of the class level of variance accounted for the total variance of 7%. According to Cheung, Leung, and Au's (2006) criteria, the association of class effect cannot be ignored. These results can be explored further for the influence of class difference on the intention of traveling to Brunei. After estimating the null model for each outcome, multilevel regression models were estimated in two major stages: conditional models at Level 1 and an intercept and slope as outcomes model of the second stage's full model. Now, we must consider whether there is a difference across classes in travel intention, holding the first level on young travelers' characteristics as the random coefficient model, e.g., Level-1 conditional model.

B. Level-1 Conditional Model: Random Coefficient Model

This model investigates whether there is significant variance in intercepts and slopes across classes. Student characteristics were specified in a within-class model at level one. Specifying the within-class model enabled estimation of the adjusted within-class and between-class variance; i.e., these were the residual variances after controlling the characteristics of young travelers who expressed an intention to travel to Brunei in classes. Driven by concern about the bias due to a failure to specify a predictor, rather than the lack of efficiency that arises when the model is slightly over fit, the relatively liberal criterion of a t-ratio of 1.5 was adopted for a predictor to be retained in the model, as proposed by Raudenbush, Rowan, and Cheong (1993). Although young traveler-level predictors were not discussed in this study (rather, class characteristics of nationality were), young travelers' characteristics were potentially influential factors that needed to be controlled for, given the nested structure of the data. Thus, the refined conditional model at Level 1 served as the baseline model, in addition to the null models, against which conditional models at Level 2 were compared for the amount of variance explained by predictors of interest.

This model was used to understand whether there is any class difference in young travelers' intention to travel to Brunei in 12 classes on each other's intercept and slope. Moreover, the aim was to determine the average strength of familiarity with Muslim culture, the constructs of Brunei destination image and travel constraints, and travel intention to Brunei, along with strength across classes. Because there are no Level 2 predictors of either β_{0j} or β_{ij} , the Level 2 regression equation is simply equal to an intercept term and a residual. Similarly, given that β_{0j} and β_{ij} are regressed into constants, the variance of the level-2 residual terms (i.e., μ_{0j} and μ_{ij}) represents the between variance in the level-1 parameters. This study's first level is explained by the variables familiarity with Muslim culture, essential tourism attraction, tourism competency belief, cultural constraint, interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, and intrapersonal constraint scale, and the second level of regression model patterns is the same as for the zero model in the following manner:

Level 1:

$$\text{Travel Intention To Brunei}_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} \text{Familiarity}_{ij} + \beta_{2j} \text{Essential Attraction}_{ij} + \beta_{3j} \text{Competency Belief}_{ij} + \beta_{4j} \text{Cultural constraint}_{ij} + \beta_{5j} \text{Interpersonal constraint}_{ij} + \beta_{6j} \text{Structural constraint}_{ij} + \beta_{7j} \text{Intrapersonal constraint}_{ij} + r_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

Level 2: $\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \mu_{0j}$, $\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \mu_{1j}$, $\beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20} + \mu_{2j}$, $\beta_{3j} = \gamma_{30} + \mu_{3j}$, $\beta_{4j} = \gamma_{40} + \mu_{4j}$, $\beta_{5j} = \gamma_{50} + \mu_{5j}$,

$$\beta_{6j} = \gamma_{60} + \mu_{6j}$$
 , $\beta_{7j} = \gamma_{70} + \mu_{7j}$, $\mu_{ij} \sim N(0, \tau_{00})$

Travel Intention To Brunei_{ij} = the travel intention to Brunei of ith students belonged to jth class

β_{0j} = the intercept of the travel intention to Brunei for jth class.

β_{1j} = familiarity; β_{2j} = essential attraction; β_{3j} = competency belief; β_{4j} = cultural constraint;

β_{5j} = interpersonal constraint; β_{6j} = structural constraint; β_{7j} = intrapersonal constraint; = errors.

γ_{00} = grand mean of the travel intention to Brunei for all students.

σ^2 = the within-class variance that captures the variance of students' travel intention to Brunei within their respective classes (within-group variation).

τ_{00} = the between-class variance of the 12 classes' mean of travel intention to Brunei (between-group variation).

The overall average of travel intention to Brunei is 2.02, with a statistical significance level of 0.01 within classes, which provides evidence of whether the pooled Level-1 slopes between the independent variable and the dependent variable differ from the Zero Model. To test the cross-level hypotheses, the HLM process requires that there must be significant variance across classes in the Level-1 intercepts (b_{0j}). The intercept terms depict between-class variance in the dependent variable after controlling for the independent variable. Chi-square tests for the estimates of the intercept (t_{00}) and slopes (t_{11}) are conducted to ascertain that the variance in the intercepts and slopes for the dependent variable across groups is significant. The intercept terms represent the between-class variance in the dependent variable after controlling for the independent variable. The results demonstrate a significant between-class variance and the existence of a class effect. In the fixed effects, familiarity with Muslim culture, essential tourism attraction, competency tourism belief, and structural constraint show a statistically significant difference among classes but the others do not reach the standards. In the random effect, competency tourism belief and intrapersonal constraint affect the slope of travel intention to Brunei Scale variance by 0.31 and 0.05 with significance levels of 0.036 and 0.020, respectively. Thus, there is a statistically significant variation among classes in the slope of the travel intention score.

To estimate the variation contribution from this random effect model with the Zero Model, a variation comparison was calculated. The ANOVA result of the variance τ_{00} in the zero model is 2.21698, and the random coefficient model τ_{00} is 1.26245. This implies that the variation explanation of the random coefficient model increased by 43% ($(2.21698 - 1.26245) / 2.21698 * 100\%$) of the variation, which means the random coefficient model reduced the variance error rate of 43% by adopting the first level to explain the travel intention to Brunei. Briefly, this random coefficient model, adding the predictors on level 1, reduced within-class variation by 43%.

C. Level-2 Conditional Model: Intercept and Slope As Outcomes Model

This study hypothesized that nationality will affect the intention of young travelers to travel to Brunei. Specifically, this study aims to compare American and Taiwanese classes on travel intention to Brunei and the interaction relationship strength between young traveler characteristics and class mean of different nationality travel intention. Therefore, a "Nationality" variable is added to the second layer, and the individual-level regression equation is the same as the previous random coefficient model. Furthermore, the interaction between the student characteristics variables and nationality is a cross-level interaction because it involves explanatory variables from different levels.

The second-level formula is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Level 2: } \beta_{0j} &= \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} \text{Nationality}_j + \mu_{0j} \quad \beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11} \text{Nationality}_j + \mu_{1j} \quad \beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20} + \gamma_{21} \text{Nationality}_j + \mu_{2j} \quad \beta_{3j} = \gamma_{30} + \gamma_{31} \text{Nationality}_j + \mu_{3j} \\ \beta_{4j} &= \gamma_{40} + \gamma_{41} \text{Nationality}_j + \mu_{4j} \quad \beta_{5j} = \gamma_{50} + \gamma_{51} \text{Nationality}_j + \mu_{5j} \\ \beta_{6j} &= \gamma_{60} + \gamma_{61} \text{Nationality}_j + \mu_{6j} \quad \beta_{7j} = \gamma_{70} + \gamma_{71} \text{Nationality}_j + \mu_{7j} \quad \mu_{ij} \sim N(0, \tau_{00}) \end{aligned}$$

In the fixed effects, the result concludes that the average American class mean of travel intention to Brunei is 2.41, while the Taiwanese class mean of travel intention to Brunei is lower than that of the American at 0.63. In this model, adding “Nationality” as the moderator variable reveals that the factors familiarity with Muslim culture, essential tourism attraction, interpersonal constraint, and intrapersonal constraint have an effect, with a significant difference on the slope of travel intention to Brunei in the fixed effect. Specifically, Taiwanese classes have a statistically significant weaker travel intention slope on familiarity with Muslim culture (−0.05) and essential tourism attraction (0.22), but a steeper slope on interpersonal constraint (−0.08) and intrapersonal constraint (0.34) on average than American classes. Briefly, the Taiwanese within-class travel intention score slopes are substantially different than the American classes. Regarding the random effect, there is only tourism competency belief with a statistically significant variation on the slope remaining unexpected after controlling for Nationality, but there are other variables without statistically significant variation. Thus, there is no statistically significant difference on the random slope. This means that this model fully explained the effect after controlling for Nationality. To summarize, there is no need to add any explanatory variable to the second layer. The proportion of variation explained on the intercept of Nationality is 89% (0.04549 − 0.00520 / 0.004549 = 0.89); this identifies 89% of the between-class variations in the mean of travel intention to Brunei score accounting for Nationality, compared with the random coefficient model.

Table 7: All Models Test Results

	Zero model	Random-coefficient model	Intercept-and-slope as outcomes model
Fixed effect	Coefficient (S.E.)	Coefficient (S.E.)	Coefficient (S.E.)
Intercept γ_{00}	3.40**(0.13)	2.02**(0.13)	2.41*(.77)
Intercept*Nationality γ_{01}			-0.63(.85)
Familiarity with Muslim culture slope			
Familiarity with Muslim culture γ_{10}		0.28**(0.04)	0.30**(0.08)
Familiarity*Nationality γ_{11}			-0.05(.12)

Essential tourism attraction slope				
	Essential tourism attraction γ_{20}		0.45**(.09)	0.38*(.15)
	Essential tourism attraction*nationality γ_{21}			0.22(.22)
Tourism competency belief slope				
	Tourism competency belief γ_{30}		0.30(.24)	0.25(.49)
	Tourism competency belief*nationality γ_{31}			0.12(.66)
Cultural constraint slope				
	Cultural constraint γ_{40}		-0.23(.24)	-0.04(.50)
	Cultural constraint*Nationality γ_{41}			-0.45(.66)
Interpersonal constraint slope				
	Interpersonal constraint γ_{50}		-0.38(.05)	-0.32**(.09)
	Interpersonal constraint*nationality γ_{51}			-0.08(.12)
Structural constraint slope				
	Structural constraint γ_{60}		0.01(.06)	-0.01(.11)
	Structural constraint*Nationality γ_{61}			0.05(.14)
Intrapersonal constraint slope				
	Intrapersonal constraint γ_{70}		-0.01(.08)	-0.24(.11)
	Intrapersonal constraint*nationality γ_{71}			0.34(.14*)
Random effect classes	Level 2 between Intercept τ_{00}	Variance component 0.16**	Variance component 0.04549	Variance component 0.00520
	Familiarity with Muslim culture slope τ_{11}		0.00428	0.00500
	Essential tourism attraction slope τ_{22}		0.02691	0.02106
	Tourism competency belief slope τ_{33}		0.31088*	0.63741*
	Cultural constraint slope τ_{44}		0.24598	0.57745
	Interpersonal constraint slope τ_{55}		0.00871	0.00685
	Structural constraint slope τ_{66}		0.00417	0.00632
	Intrapersonal constraint slope τ_{77}		0.04660*	0.01161
	Level 1 within classes δ^2	2.21698	1.26245	1.26843
Deviance		1838.254630	1420.809053	1425.213117

Note: * indicates a p-value < 0.05; ** indicates a p-value < 0.01.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

As this paper focuses on discovering the cultural influence on the perception of Muslim destination image and travel constraints of young Western and Eastern travelers via different nationalities, each item comparison of the questionnaire and the two-level model of HLM were adopted to delineate the picture of comparison. In the result of each item comparison, there is only one item of Muslim destination image, appealing local food and beverage, showing significant difference between young American and Taiwanese travelers. However, there are 13 items of travel constraint with significant differences between young American and Taiwanese travelers, the majority of which belonged to the constructs of Muslim culture constraints, interpersonal constraints, and intrapersonal travel constraints. Using this type of traditional item comparison cannot provide insight into the different influences of country culture on the perception of the Brunei destination image and travel constraints. This result is similar to that of Chen et al.'s (2012) study with limited findings. Therefore, HLM is used for further analysis to understand the cross-cultural influence from different country perspectives.

The HLM analysis' result shows that the single (e.g., individual young traveler) level does ignore the cross-level influence on the travel intention to Brunei with 7% variance derived from the null model. From the random coefficient model of HLM, the different American and Taiwanese views between classes on travel intention to Brunei show statistically significant differences of class intercepts on Muslim destination image constructs, structural constraint, and Muslim cultural familiarity and significant differences of class slopes on tourism competency belief and intrapersonal constraint. The second model explained 43% more class variation than the null model. While adding nationality to Level 2 to test the cross-level country cultural influence on the intercept and slope as outcomes model, the results demonstrated that American classes' intent to travel to Brunei is greater than Taiwanese classes; further, Nationality plays a cross-level country cultural influence moderator role, providing 89% of variance of travel intention to Brunei than the second model.

The HLM result does not sharply differentiate itself from previous research, which found that different country cultures lead to different motivations, preferences, and travel behaviours (Ritter, 1987; Richardson & Crompton, 1988; Barham, 1989; Cho, 1991; Ibrahim, 1991; Graburn, 1995; Pizam & Sussmann, 1995; Kozak, 2002; Teo & Leong, 2006; Muzaini, 2006). However, the HLM demonstrated precisely how nationality affected cross-cultural influence on the cross-class and cross-level from the within- and between-classes regression lines. Thus, HLM can expose more observed information from the individual to the cross-influence of country culture outcome. Such precise cross-level country cultural influence outcomes provide more scientific and objective evidence to discover cross-cultural influences. Specifically, the results of HLM clarify the strengths and weaknesses of different Muslim destination promotion strategies according to different cultural backgrounds for young travelers. This HLM result provides more marketing information clues that differ from those found in previous country travel behaviour findings. In the full HLM model, neither young American nor Taiwanese travelers differ in a statistically significant way in the Muslim culture constraint, which is different from the culture

constraints shown by the Chen et al. (2012) study. Based on the different influences of country culture, different promotion strategies for Muslim countries are proposed. For example, young American traveler classes have a stronger Muslim cultural familiarity slope (0.30) and essential tourism attraction (0.22) than Taiwanese classes in the fixed effect. Thus, a Brunei travel organizer could focus on Brunei and Muslim cultural attractions available to young American travelers to increase their intention to travel to Brunei. In contrast, decreasing interpersonal constraint and intrapersonal constraint would be the better policy for attracting more young Taiwanese travelers to Brunei.

Silbthorp et al. (2004) noted that “HLM can be applied in park, recreation research with nested or hierarchical structures.” Silbthorp et al. (2004) also verified that HLM provided an alternative way of avoiding the loss of important sources of variation by ignoring analysis units or violating statistical assumptions while decomposing variables or analyzing data at the individual level. Furthermore, they also concluded that HLM provides the researcher with a better understanding of a model of different levels of effects that can be applied to a growth model.

This study offered an example of research that investigates the specific context of intention to travel to Brunei defined by classes from different countries. The study explores how the different country culture of classes influences the intention to travel to Brunei. This study has implications for Muslim destination promotion strategies about how country culture defines the contexts in which the Brunei travel intention is formulated. This study has the following two contributions: to demonstrate that the country culture context is important—this finding along with strength and consistency benefits will convince future researchers to structure and organize country culture affecting young people’s travel intention— and the provision of a methodology, i.e. HLM, with some information and examples most appropriate for conducting studies of culture influence contexts. Thus, researchers interested in the country culture contexts study are encouraged to consider learning and using HLM in travel behaviour studies for further culture context studies. The culture contextual research argument, by its nature, is multilevel (i.e., individuals are nested in these contexts). It is inappropriate to analyze multilevel data and state multilevel research topics without adopting multilevel methods. To summarize, HLM is an invaluable technique available for the estimation of multilevel relationships in marketing research. There is a possibility that the employment of this technique of culture context analysis in this study will encourage researchers to employ it for expressing data within and across groups rather than other traditional techniques such as OLS.

Though most previous studies have already found that nationality has an important intrinsic cultural influencing role on travel behaviours, there is still a need to provide more fundamental insight on the multiple-level nature of country culture, both theoretically and empirically. This is the first empirical study that integrates the macro and micro views of country culture’s influence. To accomplish this integration, this study developed classes conceptualized as the group-level issue embedded with the individual young traveler and associated constructs of Brunei destination image and travel constraints. The study results support the two-level conceptualization and the suggestion that country culture must be considered as an important aspect of travel decision-

making. Additionally, this study also indicates that country culture influences the intention to travel to Brunei and is a link in an indirect relationship between Brunei destination image and travel constraints. This finding has important implications for further advancing travel decision theory and practice.

This study focuses only on the measurement instrument of structural and cross-level equivalence. Researchers might be interested in how group-level variables forecast or moderate the relationships with individual-level variables. For example, Oishi, Diener, Lucas, and Suh (1999) found a group-level associated variable (e.g., the wealth of nations) moderated the strength of the individual-level variables (e.g., wealth and life satisfaction). This alternative means of analysis considered culture-level variables as moderators from the perspective of multilevel models (Au & Cheung, 2004; de Leeuw & Hox, 2003; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002; van Hemert, 2003). Though the application of such complicated models in cross-cultural research is still not widespread, it is anticipated that this study will stimulate further cross-cultural research using multilevel models analysis in the future.

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Tourist motivation factors to Christian heritages to Lalibela (Ethiopia)

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ABSTRACT

Domestic tourists in Ethiopia make visits to religious and cultural heritage sites for different factors and on different social and economic status. The objective of this section is to explore the major motivation factors for local tourists to travel to one of the major religious and cultural sites of Amhara Region, Lalibela. Understanding tourists' behaviors, their motivation to a destination, perceptions about a destination are all considered essential inputs in the destination marketing, market segmentation, and destinations management efforts. Primary source for my research was collected by survey questionnaire from 280 respondents (domestic tourists) by a structured questionnaire at Lalibela 6-8 January 2016. Exploratory factor analysis was used to explore the intrinsic motives of travellers to Lalibela. The results indicated that spirituality, followed by curiosity and stimulation, are the most important factors in forming travel motivation, while escape, business and, nostalgia are the least important ones. The recommendations are directed to policy makers and governmental organizations at different levels; the private sector firms working in tourism related businesses and researchers, consultants to make note of the motivations of domestic tourists to religious/heritage sites in the region to satisfy the needs of tourists at destinations.

Keywords: Tourist Motivation, Lalibela, Religiosity, Christian Heritages, Domestic Tourists.

INTRODUCTION

Ethiopia, one of the oldest nations and center of early civilization had one of the oldest commercial, social and religious contacts with outside world. The material culture, wealth of intangible cultural heritages, history, multicultural society and diversified language, strategic geographical location for Europeans, East Europeans, Asians and the Middle East, unique colander and many other amenities make Ethiopia one of the favorable countries to benefit from tourism (Ayalew, 2009; Ayele, 2008; Bahiru, 2008). The marvellous potential value of its cultural heritage remained untapped for centuries and the country named as one of the poorest countries in the world. In its cultural heritages, it is more than many other African countries including Egypt which is one of the best competitors of tourist arrivals globally (Temesgen, 2013).

Bad image of the country due to recurrent wars and famine takes the lions share for poor performance of Ethiopia from the tourism industry. In the last few decades, however, the governance

in tourism at a federal level has been changed for the better. Partnership with various multilateral and bilateral actors has joined the country's effort of developing tourism. Government of Ethiopia is working with a number of international agencies that are focusing on the tourism potential of Ethiopia – the World Bank, UNWTO, United Nations Development Program and some bilateral agencies such as the Netherlands Development Organization (SNV), Department for International Development (DFID), German Technical Cooperation (GTZ) and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). There is an appealing opportunity for Ethiopia's tourism sector to benefit from a program of upgrading expansion and new construction of modern airports that meets international standards, road and communications networks, electricity generation and water supply which is currently underway in various parts of the country (Fenta & Mekonnen, 2009).

The condition of Ethiopian tourism is very worse when we compare the number of resources the country is having and the tourist arrival and income it is gaining. The country's rich culture, UNESCO registered world heritages, good climate and diversified population is found to be welcoming conditions for international tourists. However, the country is facing many challenges in improving many bad situations of the tourism scenario arising out of socio-economic, cultural and geological circumstances. Poor standards of accommodation and services for international tourists and poor image and visibility as a tourist destination have given a very weak demand among international tour operators and travel agencies that would have been a very rich source of international tourists (WB, June 2006, p. 62).

In the context of contemporary global tourist's demands, Ethiopia's rich cultural heritages are far less from being enough to be as competitive as it should be. "The traditional tourism resources" (Fayos-Solà, 2002, p. 6) or the comparative advantages like comfortable climate, beautiful landscape, unique tangible and intangible culture, unique history and multiculturalism and diversity are becoming less and less important compared with other factors in tourism competitiveness. Excellence in the strategic management of information, organizational innovative capacity in teams within tourism firms and a combination of technological skills and organizational culture make up a new asset in the competitiveness of tourism organizations. As far as tourism records are concerned, the most visited destinations of the world are areas where modern management system are employed and more technological resources are used to make tourist's stays more enjoyable as much as possible.

The trend also shows that the future of tourism does not rely only on the availability of cultural and natural resources but on how the resources are well managed customized to the interests of the tourists (Mengistu, 2008; Fayos-Solà, 2002; Ghimire, 2001). In addition, the need to depend on scientific and up-to-date strategies emanates from the fact that tourism development has its own advantages and costs on societies at destination. The decisions and tradeoffs in resource allocation for tourism infrastructure and the like should be on informed consent (Bailey & Richardson, 2010). The use of information technology and creation of internet accessibility is a must to do precondition to destination managers to increase the ease of tourists in accessing every detail of the destination amenities that has been done through tour guides and tour operators (Cottrell, Pearce, & Arntzen, 2008).

Tourist motivation as a field of tourism research has been the area of interest for scholars for the last four decades or so which gave the tourism industry a scientific foundation. Literary works on modern pilgrimage tourism and its relation with secular tourism and travelers motives attracted many researchers and led to the production of substantial body of literature. To begin from scientific theoretical foundations, this section is devoted for a thorough review of literary works on tourist motivation.

The issue of motivation in the tourism industry is now becoming a big deal. Researchers in the field also understand the fluidity and the necessity of studying it scientifically (Guha, 2009). Motivation is generally taken as the driving force behind all actions whatever the results may be. Though there are a number of efforts to study tourist motivation in different areas, there are no widely agreed theoretical or conceptual frameworks (Pearce & Lee, 2005).

Tourist motivations can be explained more conveniently with content and process theories of motivation. The content theory tries to explain the motivational factors that help individual to make decisions to travel to a certain destination under any circumstances. The process theory on the other hand tries to depict the interaction of different variables in the process of pilgrimage journey that may be explained in the satisfaction and other emotional and motivational elements of the traveler (Edward, 2005; Blackwell, 2007). The study of tourist motivation is a tough task. It goes beyond business and leisure which are commonly assumed to be the driving motivations of travelers. More than the expectations of many people, there are tremendous covert motives that are sometimes difficult to mention and explain (as they are embodied in the private needs and wants) which drives people to travel and make visits (Perace, 2005). Researches in the area also confirmed that motives are product or destination specific, which in turn implies that each destination has their own specific motivators. These motivators are useful in product development, as well as for developing marketing strategies in the tourism industry. Studies on tourist motivation, therefore, focuses on the driving factors to travel, the differences in motivation among different demographic groups, economic status, tourist experience and the difference in motivation induced by the resources available at destinations (Merwe, Slabbert, & Saayman, 2011).

Many of tourist motivation theories and concepts are different variants of the theories of “travel personality” (Plog, 1974); “travel career ladder” (Pearce, 1988) and “strangeness–familiarity” (Cohen, 1972). A more accurate pattern or image of tourists as tourist behavior patterns can be interpreted on an individual level by applying the travel personality, in a diachronic dimension by the travel career ladder, and from a holistic perspective by the concept of strangeness–familiarity (Chen, Mak, & McKercher, 2011). Elucidations, assumptions and assertions about factors that influence a tourist to travel are subjects of tourist motivation. Crompton (1979) treated motivation as one of many contributing factors which helps to explain tourist behavior. Dann (1997) argued that the desire to travel is more associated with socio-psychological needs of human beings to get love and affection and the desire to communicate with his/her fellows guided by demographic and social factors. Push and Pull factors have been widely accepted to explain tourist behavior and travel motivations for long period of time. The push factors are a combination

of psychological and other conditions around the place of origin whereas the push factors are inherent attractions of the destination which let travelers to decide for tour.

The push factors which encourage a person to travel are the socio-psychological needs of a person (Yoon & Uysal, 2005) and the pull factors are the motivations arousing a person to visit a particular destination (Chan & Baum, 2007). One of the prominent and leading scholars in tourist behavior Crompton (1979) distinguishes seven socio-psychological push motives, escape from a perceived mundane environment such as exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships and facilitation of social interaction; and two cultural motives, novelty and education. A significant number of research findings were reviewed to lay theoretical base to the empirical enquiries. The findings from previous researches have shown that similar motivation factor solutions have emerged from different festivals and events in a range of geographical and cultural settings, suggesting that there is a set of universal dimensions that explain the motivation behind visitor attendance. Additionally, significant differences in festival motivation factor scores have been found on the basis of geographic market segments and demographic groups.

Tourist Career Ladder by Pearce (1988) and latter Tourist Career Pattern by Pearce and Lee (2005) have been the leading theoretical explanation of tourist behavior in general and tourist motivation in particular. Tourist Career Ladder theorizes that the more experience a tourists gained their motives were more likely to change as compared to a tourist with little experience. However the theory was largely criticized as it was not evident that tourists indeed climbed a ladder. With more focus on tourist behaviors, Pearce & Lee (2005) developed a pattern rather than a ladder in which identified the core tourist motivations. Pearce (2005) tried to characterize what a tourist motivation theory should look like and elements and explanations.

Beard and Ragheb (1983) developed Leisure Motivation Scale based on the work of Abraham Maslow, hierarchy of human needs that sustained for a long time explaining why and how people are derived to a layer of human needs based on conditions. A core of this leisure motivation scale was formulated by the four motivation drives. These are intellectual motive which assesses the extent to which individuals are motivated to engage in leisure activities which involve mental activities such as learning, exploring, discovering, thought or imagining; the need for friendship and interpersonal relationships, the need for the esteem of others; the need to achieve, master, challenge, and compete and the drive to escape and get away from over-stimulating life situations (Beard and Ragheb 1983). On the other hand, Ryan & Glendon(1998) categorized travelers in to gently varying groupings by using the demographic and psychographic variables in a study conducted on UK holidaymakers.

The works of Pearce and Lee (2005) on tourist behaviour that examined the relationship between patterns of travel motivation and travel experience was a marker of sophistication of the study and conceptualization of tourist motivations. From intensive literature review, these authors selected seventy two motivation items and to identify the underlying dimensions of the seventy two selected motive items Principal Component Analysis was applied, and through

verification of the statistical validity from the produced results, varimax rotation was followed. By considering eigenvalues greater than 1, the procedure produced fourteen factors. The fourteen factors were found to be the motive behind tourism and a number of empirical tourist behaviour researches used these factors afterwards. The reliability alpha, mean values and the percent of variance explained are indicated and well argued by the researchers. The motivation factors are novelty, escape/relax, relationship, autonomy, nature, self-development, stimulation, self-development, relationship, self-actualize, recognition, isolation, romance, nostalgia.

Modern tourism is a result of long time practices of different activities starting in the communal life period of human beings. Merchants, pilgrims and scholars (explorers) take the second wave of traveling with advance of the human society. The first people to travel were associated with the Roman Empire with religious motives. The renaissance and the industrial revolutions were major events that motivate people for travel before modern tourism commenced. In addition to religious motives, pleasing whether, scenic attractions historical and cultural factors, and other amenities evolved as complementary impetus to tourism and leisure industry (Pourafkari, 2007; Bhatia, 1982).

Cultural tourism which includes religious tourism is still said to be the prime motive for travel worldwide. But at modern times, it is now becoming more difficult to clearly identify the typologies of sacred and secular tourism kinds. Customarily visitors to sacred sites are alternatively known to be religious tourists but may also include secular tourists and religious festival and religious event participants (Tomer, 2011; Blackwell, 2007). Pilgrimage as religious, social and cultural phenomena shares common characteristics across religions, cultures and regions. The place to be visited is assumed to be a place where people get the spirit of supernatural power and people get closer to God of gods. Pilgrimage tourism is still a fluid concept where we face a great array of difference.

The attempt of scholars to come to consensus relies on the issue of characterizing traits of a tourist and a pilgrim. The efforts seem to have been complicated with the dynamics of tourism itself (Nieminen, 2012). The way people travel, the services they use at destinations and traveling alone or in group can no more be used to differentiate a tourist from a pilgrim (Loveland, 2008). Customarily, individuals who undertook arduous and perilous journeys for religious causes, by way of putting their faith into practice are said to be typically pilgrims (Singh, 2005; Huh, 2002).

In a traditional religious pilgrimage, the pilgrim, driven by a strong religious or spiritual motivation accomplishes on foot, a long journey. But in modern time when mode of transport is fast and modern, is hard to make distinction based on the way people get in to a destination as tourists and pilgrims (Arokianathan A., 2006, Shinde, 2007; Sherwood, 2007).

RESEARCH PROBLEM

Tourism and its dynamism is the most unstudied and baffling sector of Ethiopian economy while it has for long been said to be one of the promising industries in the last two decades. In addition, the limited studies made so far on tourism development in Africa and Ethiopia is devoted for international tourism. The available literature on tourism and tourism development researched likewise overlooked domestic tourism as a sector. In Africa, the development of tourism and tourism entrepreneurship requires the attention of tourism scholar if the sector is to be competitive and play its role for poverty alleviation. Healthy small business sectors in tourism however require the joint efforts of policy makers, governments and researchers (Rogerson, 2008). In Ethiopia, domestic tourism is showing promising progress in type and volume only after 1991 (Yabibal, 2010; Gebreananya, 2011).

Regional and domestic tourism endeavors are at the lowest level of development globally. Much of the efforts in tourism development and promotion are focused on international tourism especially geared towards attracting tourists from the developed world. Studies in the regional efforts in Africa, Asia and Latin America show that regional tourism need attention in addition to the lure for international tourists (Ghimire, 2001). Likewise, domestic tourism in Ethiopia is very immature and is not contributing its share in the tourism industry. Compared to the international tourist flow, domestic tourism is insignificant. Among other things, the level of tourism development, promotion and marketing may be the main reasons for low level of domestic tourism. It needs a thorough study to know the underlying causes. Although there are many cultural and natural tourist attractions, very few people make visits. Majority of people do not know the historical sites that are frequently visited by people from abroad (Yemane, 2011).

However, the number of people who travel to the Christian heritage sites and Festivals is significant and worthy of study. Starting from the early years of Christianity in Ethiopia, pilgrimage is said to have been a major phenomena. Religion plays an important part of life in Ethiopia. The Orthodox *Tewahedo* Church ceremonies are unique and impressive. The Christian festivals include Enkutatash (New Year), Meskel (Finding of the True Cross), Debra Damo (Feast of Saint Aregawi), Kulubi (Feast of Saint Gabriel), Timket (Epiphany), *Ledet*, (Christmas) and *Fasika* (Easter). Some of the major festivals are specific to some geographical areas while others are common to all Christian areas of the country (Ermias, 2014).

The Northern Historic Route which includes the Obelisk of Axum, The rock Hewn Church of Lalibela, the Castle of Gondar and the Monasteries of Lake Tana (Bahir Dar Area) constitute the majority of the country's cultural tourist attractions. These sites are the most frequently visited Christian cultural heritage of Ethiopia by domestic and foreign visitors (Gebretinsae, 2011). Amhara region is one of the nine Regional States of Ethiopia. It is the third largest and second most populated Regional State of the country. It is found in the north western part of the country and borders Tigray in the north, Afar in the east, Benishangul Gumuz and the Sudan in the west, and Oromiya in the south.

The Amhara National Regional State, home of age-old monuments and other heritages situated on the "Historic Route" has the Lion's Share of the country's tourist attractions. Three of the nine world heritage sites of Ethiopia (the medieval castles of Gondar, the Simien Mountains National Park and the Rock Hewn Churches of Lalibela i.e. one of the eight wonders of the world) are housed here. The thunderous Blue Nile Falls, Ethiopia's largest lake, Lake Tana dotted with island monasteries, the endemic wild lives like Walia Ibex, Gelada Baboon, Simien Fox etc still adorn this gracious region (Sahile, 2011).

With regard to the domestic pilgrims' statistics, the Amhara National Regional State Tourism and Park Development Bureau report for 2012/13 shows that 1,534,809 visits were registered. The region's top religious destinations are the rock hewn churches of Lalibela, the Monateries of Lake Tana, Gondar and Debre Kerbe Gishen Maryam Church. Domestic tourists visit these sites in hundreds of thousands in festival time and very few people visit in non-festive times (ANRS-BTPD, 2013). Yet, the volume and trend, the demands and service qualitative at destinations, the motivations and behaviors of visitors and the dynamics of domestic tourism is not studied yet. On account of this, the identification of tourist motivation and behavior to get clear picture of tourism scenario and achieve maximum tourist satisfaction in the Northern Historic Route as a tourist destination become important aspects of tourism development efforts in Amhara Regional State (Alubel, 2011, Elene & Getu,2012). The present study lay its emphasis on three major gaps in the field. The first is that tourist a motivation has never been studied in Ethiopia and Amharra region. The second gap that initiates the researcher is that tourist motivations may different for people with different socio-cultural make up and it is worth study. The third gap is that domestic tourism as fields is very much marginalized and seeks relatively high priority for tourism sector in developing nations like Ethiopia.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

This study will be conducted with the purpose of exploring the domestic tourists' motivation by studying domestic tourists visiting the Northern Historic Route specifically the rock-hewn churches of Lalibela. The growth of domestic tourism since the last two decades, the current situation and its potentials growth will be discussed. Apart from contributing to the knowledge of tourists' behavior and dynamics of current domestic tourism Amhara Region, the study also aims at providing the relevant literary discussions about domestic tourists which can be useful input to the destination marketing efforts in the region. As a whole, the research intends to explore tourist motivation factors to visit the religious/cultural heritages at Lalibela and analyze demographic and economic factors as predictors of travel motivation for domestic tourists to the religious/cultural heritages of Ethiopia.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

The research is conducted in two stages. The first is a qualitative stage which was followed by

a quantitative stage. Exploratory focus groups were conducted in the first stage with a total of seven groups involved from different stakeholders of tourism in Amhara region. The group sessions included several different groups, such as groups of travellers, tourism and culture officers, tour agents, tour guides, transport companies, religious men and dwellers of Lalibela town. Data was transcribed to extract meanings out of the highlights of the sessions and to support key findings. The findings were then used to help guide the second stage of the research.

The second stage of this study considers domestic travellers to Christian heritages of Lalibela. The target population is, therefore, domestic tourists in the country from different walks of life. With regard to sampling unit, it includes all domestic tourists/pilgrims who visited Lalibela, from mid-December 2016 to mid-May 2017. Therefore, people who visited the study area within five months are taken as a population of the study. We cannot have a sample frame for a type of research conducted on people who are not sedentary in the study area. Therefore, the sampling frame is not defined for this study. To determine the sample size a scientific Sample Size Table sampling size determination procedure was employed (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). For population sizes more than 250,000, with a confidence of 95% and 5% margin error, the optimal sample size is taken to be 384 (Kothari, 2004). With expectation of discarding of questionnaires for different reasons, the sample size was increased to 490.

With regard to sampling method, a mix of convenience sampling, cluster sampling and random sampling methods was applied. In situations where researchers cannot use full advantage of random sampling, it is acceptable to use methods like cluster sampling which tries to retain some commitment to the principles of random selection and the laws of probability (Denscombe, 2003). At Lalibela, hotels and station camps were taken as separate strata. From 19 hotels, 6 hotels were randomly and respondents from each hotel were selected based on convenience as some people refused to participate in the survey. From 24 temporary stations, 8 stations were selected randomly and respondents were selected on voluntary basis. A total of 386 usable questionnaires were collected from respondents.

A self-administered questionnaire was developed for the quantitative research part. The motivation items of the questionnaire were generated based on a literature review and focus group interviews of the exploratory research. Based on the findings of the exploratory research, many factors were mentioned as motivations of travel to Lalibela. While most of the factors resembled to TCL (Travel Career Ladder) model, there are some factors that were not included in the TCL model but widely explained by other authors. The focus group discussion made in the exploratory section also clearly indicated the inclusion of six factors in addition to the factors used by TCL model. For this purpose, the items of the TCL model are adapted and more factors added from Ethiopian context based on literature and focus group discussion and considering the Ethiopian socio cultural perspectives. Some factors in the TCL cannot be explained in Ethiopian context and give little or no meaning if included in the study. Pearce and Lee (2005) examined the relationship between patterns of travel motivation and travel experience and from intensive literature review; these authors selected seventy two motivation items and run Principal Component Analysis to come up with fourteen groups of factors.

The survey questionnaire has three parts. The first part is about the tour characteristics of the respondents and general information related to their tour to the destination. The second part deals about the respondents' socio-demographic and economic details. The third part is devoted to get information about the motivations of travelers to destinations. Five scales Likert scale was used where respondents were asked to rate 1 for "Strongly disagree", 2 for "Disagree", 3 "Undecided", 4 for "Agree" and 5 for "Strongly Agree". This scale was developed based on the scales developed by Philip Pearce (2005) that had travel motivational statements to be ranked on a 9 point Likert-type scale ranging from "not important at all" to "very important" (Pearce P. , 2005).

Different statistical tools were used for analysis and interpretations of the findings. Descriptive outputs and statistics, Confirmatory Factorial Analysis (CFA), t test and ANOVA and linear regression were employed as required. It is known that the purpose of CFA is to validate the constructs and the evaluation of measurement similarities for specific research purpose by taking existing developed instruments (Brown & Moore, 2012). Factorial analysis was, therefore, used for two different objectives in this study. Descriptive statistics (specifically) mean values were frequently used in the analysis for tourist motivations, perceptions of respondents on the status of tourist facilities and other forms of cross tabulations. Distributions of respondents based on gender, employment status, age categories, marital status, monthly income levels and type of religion were also used in some ways to the realization of the research objectives. Comparison of means using independent samples t-test and one-way anova was the most widely used statistical tools in the inferential statistics section. It is only through the application of inferential statistics that we infer from the research findings based on samples to the larger population (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). One way ANOVA and linear regressions were used for fulfillment of some research objectives.

RESULTS

The analysis part deals with the major determinants and motivational factors of domestic tourists to the religious and cultural site of Lalibela, one of the major wealth of Amhara National Regional State of Ethiopia. This section treats the core question raised by the researcher as to why domestic travels make visit to this Christian cultural heritage site. Data was subjected to various statistical techniques in univariate, bivariate and multivariate analyses methods. Profile of the study sample was tabulated and explained based on socio-demographic, place of origin and some tour characteristics. The finding explained the motivational factors which let people travel to the destinations under study. The underlying motivations of travelers to the destinations were explained by using different statistical techniques based on data collected and interpretation of the results. The results and findings of these statistical analyses were crosschecked against existing theoretical and empirical research out puts by different authorities in different regions.

Sample profile

Primary data for the research was collected from 448 respondents through survey questionnaire

(from a total of 490 distributed questionnaires 448 were returned). The sample size was based on scientific Sample Size Table by Cohen, Manion, & Morrison (2007). From the total returned filled questionnaire, 62 papers were not usable with too much missing values and incorrect filling and excluded from further analysis and interpretation. The analysis was made based on 386 properly filled questionnaires. The issue of sample adequacy was checked by Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure on SPSS which yield an adequate result of .907 (KMO) value. KMO values greater than .70 allows researchers to run factor analysis (Ryan and Glendon 1998).

From a total of 386 respondents 2.3 percent did not identify themselves as either a male or a female. The proportion of males to females is somewhat unbalanced with males constituting 57.3 percent while females constitute only 40.4 percent. This may be because of refusal of females to take part in the survey than men who are in most cases willing to participate in filling questionnaires. With reference to marital status, there are more unmarried respondents with a proportion of 50 percent compared to 39.9 percent unmarried, 5.4 percent divorced and 2.6 percent widow. In the focus group discussion, participants hinted that the proportion of unmarried tourists is exceeding the other groups in recent years and it was associated with the growth of youth travelers to the cultural sites of Ethiopia.

As far as employment and occupation type is concerned, much of the respondents are employed and business (which may include a verity of jobs) has taken a lead. The proportion of farmers is low more than the expected proportion as many people are from the countryside and rural towns and their vicinity. Many of the respondents who categorized as businesspersons may do farming as a major jobs and small businesses (like trade), which is evident in many parts of the country, and as a result, respondents may prefer to categorize themselves as business people than farmers. Business constitute the largest proportion (26.7 percent) followed by civil servant and professionals constituting 21.0 and 17.1 percents respectively.

People with secondary education and above constitute more than 86 percent of the respondents. People with first degree educational status (27.7 percent) and people with secondary school educational level (26.4 percent) covered more than half of the respondents which implied that more educated people are represented in the sample. Tourism officials and tour organizers also explained that the proportion of travelers to the study sites is dominated by people who are educated at least to secondary level education. The dominant age category of the respondents is 30-39 Years with 27.2 percent of the total sample considered for analysis. The other age groups constituting second and third position in number are 40-49 Years (24.9 percent) and 20-29 Years (24.6 percent). The situation can be interpreted in terms of the new trends of young travelers to the religious and cultural Christian heritages of Ethiopia as opposed to the hitherto aged people dominated pilgrimage tours. One of the most important trip related characteristics used in the analysis is place of origin of the travelers. The majority of the respondents were from Addis Ababa, Bahir Dar and Gondar constituting 51.5 percent of the total population included in the study.

Tourist motivation attributes

Tourist motivation is one of the most widely researched areas of tourism dynamics yet it remained one of the most difficult aspects of tourist behaviors. Motivation to travel may depend on social, economic, demographic, cultural, and as well as the pull and the pull factors. The identification of variables in the study of travelers' motivation to a certain destination should involve the exploration of the above mentioned factors. Travelers motivation to the Christian cultural heritages of Amhara region, therefore, need to be studied based on defining variables generated from literature review and focus group discussion and experiences. The data for this quantitative part was specifically collected by using two pages self administered questionnaires designed to gather information on respondents' general motivations for travel to the destinations under study. The respondents were asked to express how *important* are the provided 75 motives when *generally* thinking about the travel they make to the destinations. A 5 scale Likert scale (from *not important at all* to *very important*) was provided for respondents to indicate the importance of each of the 75 general travel motivational statements.

Rated values for the selected 75 attributes ranged from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 5 in a scale of 1-5. The aggregate average rated value of the attributes is 3.26 with 1.76 minimum and 4.29 maximum average values of individual factors. Based on the average rated values of specific factors, it is logical to divide these variables in to low, average and above average rates. Therefore, attributes with an average value less than 3.2 are classified as below average rates, and attributes with an average values ranging from 3.2 to 3.5 are classified as average rates. The above average rates are those attributes with an average value equal to or greater than 3.5 rates.

Travel motivations-assessment using factor analysis

Tourists travelling to a destination or a chain of tour destinations may be motivated by specific or a number of interrelated factors. In my study as shown in the profile section above, the driving motives of travelers to cultural sites of Lalibela, Gondar and the Monasteries of Lake Tana range from pure religious affairs to pure recreation and enjoyment sentiment. This section, therefore, tries to identify the underlying causes of travelers' motives to the study area as major cultural sites of the Amhara region. Exploratory factor analysis is used for examination of interdependence and data reduction and ease of interpretation. Suitability of data for factor analysis was checked by Bartlett's test of values and KMO statistics (Table 12). For reliability concerns, Cronbach's Alpha check was made (Table 11). It is generally considered that if scores are less than .70, then factor analysis should not be undertaken (Ryan and Glendon 1998). The KMO score in this study resulted in .907, indicating a satisfactory sample size. Principle component and varimax rotation procedure were used to identify interrelated dimensions of travel motivation factors.

Table 1: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.945	.947	68

The loadings of the original variables with the factors are analyzed. Principle component factors with Eigen value of 1 or greater were rotated by varimax method (Aiken & West, 1991). Variables with loadings equal or greater than 0.30 were included in a given factor (Mahembe and Engelbrecht, 2013).

Table 2: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.907
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	14234.410
	df	2278
	Sig.	.000

From a total of sixty eight tourist motivation attribute items, after reduction by factor analysis, fourteen factors emerged. The fourteen factor grouping can explain more than 62 percent of the total variance where most of items are having more than 0.6 loading factor showing good correlation between items. The percentage of variance explained by the fourteen factors was 62.195 percent. Internal consistency between the items in the factors was measured using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. According to Baloglu and McCleary (1999), this is the most generally used reliability measure to estimate the degree to which the items on a measure are representative of the domain of the construct being measured. A coefficient alpha of at least .70 is usually considered reliable (Ryan 1995; Veal 1997). Four factors are found to be with low reliability alpha values (.672, .663, .639, and .610). The rest ten factors resulted in a Cronbach's coefficient alpha score greater than .70, which indicated strong consistency among the items in each factor.

The first factor which explained the highest value of variance (8.822 percent) of variance is *spirituality* and is made up of seven items by which respondents explained their reason to visit the destinations under study as *get closer to god, experience spiritual fulfillment, gain inspiration to my belief, understand my spiritual inner being, be in places sacred to my religion, working on my personal spiritual values and strengthen my belief*. These factors denote the other core dimension of festival visitors to the cultural and Christian religious festivities of Ethiopian cultural heritages in my study area.

The factors that are directly related to religious devotions and religious attachments are named as *spirituality* and the respondents rated high value for these factors (4.233) and the loading values are also found to be high for each factor (.937, .928, .927, .918, .912, .878 and .751). Spirituality, as one of the highly rated travel motivation to the cultural heritages, has significant

Spirituality, as one of the highly rated travel motivation to the cultural heritages, has significant similarity with the factor self actualization. The model TCL developed by Pearce and Lee(2005) does not include spirituality but some items which state spirituality are included in the self actualization factor groupings. The highest reliability alpha value (.960) is registered by the first factor as compared to average and least reliability alpha values for other factors. The second factor with the second higher value of variance explained(7.890 percent) is composed of eleven items where respondents rated base on perceptions for statements feeling inner harmony and peace, feeling that I belong, meeting people with similar values, gaining new perspective on life, feeling personally safe and secure, being with respectful people, being near considerate people, being with others if I need them, experiencing the thrills, experiencing the peace of calm and understanding more about myself.

This factors elaborate somewhat higher order of human needs and implied fulfillment of lower order human needs based on the hierarchy of needs theorized by Maslow (1970). The factors included in this group are all related to a stage when people are approaching to a stage of self actualization and need attention and respect from society at large and people around them in particular. Therefore, the interpretation may lead to an argument that respondents are more having a motivation closer to higher order needs far from simple recreation and relaxations. The other factor with a mean value of 3.521explaining 7.422 percent of the total variance is made of eight items. The items are stated in the form of statement as *experiencing different culture, learning new things, exploring the unknown, developing my knowledge of the area, sharing skill and knowledge with others, viewing the scenery,feeling excitement and having unpredictable experience* where respondents are required to rate them from 1 to 5. These items undoubtedly show a mix of novelty *inquiry* and a sort of *exploration* needs.

These types of motivations of travelers are more common to the average age groups and to the first time visitors as compared to aged and repeat visitors to the study area. This factor is again the third factor in order of importance in relation to the variance explained in percentages. Novelty and exploration to the unknown area, festival, culture, geographical scenery, people, vacation trip, and educational field trips constitute a lot in this factor. The desire and motive to explore the unknown and experience what you know at distance is the justifications for many travelers. The desire to know the unknown is exhibited more with the pull factors than to the push factors which start with a need to escape from the everyday life demands.

Yet, there are some degree of coincidence between the pull factors that make people develop interest to travel and the push factors that force people to escape. The other factors (the rest eleven factors) also contributed different values in explaining the dependent variable question, tourist motivation. But four factors are found to be with reliability lower than the recommended alpha value. The four factors with the lowest reliability value are *curiosity which includes two items stated as experiencing something different and feeling special atmosphere and is with a reliability alpha value of ($\alpha= 0.663$);adventure which includes three items stated as visiting places my interest, having daring experience and experiencing the risk involved and is with a reliability alpha value of ($\alpha= 0.610$);host site Involvement with four items stated as observing*

other people in the area, meeting the locals, meeting new varied people and contacting family/friend who live elsewhere and is with a reliability alpha value of ($\alpha= 0. 0.672$) and business with two items stated as doing things with companions and doing something with family/friend atmosphere and is with a reliability alpha value of ($\alpha= 0.639$) which indicate the degree to which these two items are consistent against each other.

Based on the results of mean score of the fourteen factors, it is possible to identify the underlying motivation factors of travelers to cultural heritage sites. The results indicated that *spirituality*, followed by *curiosity* and *stimulation*, are the most important factors in forming travel motivation, while *escape*, *business* and, *nostalgia* are the least important ones. Items of spirituality are all statements related to religion devotions and clearly geared to religious attachments without confusing with other secular intents. The ratings of the respondents on this item are taken as indications of religious endeavors and interpreted in such a way that, among other things and situation, the visitors are more motivated for religious and related concerns.

Sub-group comparisons for tourist motivation

In this subgroup analyses respondents' answers are used by splitting into subgroups with the intention of making comparisons among groups. Subgroup analyses are done for subsets of participants based on educational qualification which is one of the defining variables of socio demographic characteristics. The second subgroup analysis was made for tourists' place of origin. It was done based on the respondents' responses whether they belong to an urban area or a rural one from the survey conducted.

Table 3: Education Level Comparison for Tourist Motivation

Tourist Motivation Mean					
Education Level	N	Mean	Std. D	F value	Sign. value
Basic Literacy	15	3.6451	.38311	3.329	.003
Elementary	33	3.5152	.70666		
Secondary School	102	3.4758	.56842		
College Diploma	90	3.5423	.53326		
First Degree	107	3.2622	.64730		
Masters	30	3.2074	.51370		
PhD and Above	5	3.2529	.53261		
Total	382	3.4177	.59758		

One-way ANOVA was conducted to examine whether there were statistically significant differences among visitors with different education qualification level in relation to their travel motivation to the destinations. Significant difference is seen with reference to motivation to travel

to the destinations under study based on the level of education of the respondents. The contrast is clear between the respondents with a level of basic literacy on one side and the respondents with a level of Masters and PhD on the other side. The difference is significant and is supported by statistical values of (F value 3.329 and Significance value of .003). The result also shows that there were no significant differences for other groups with more or less similar mean values. With these statistical values and significance value satisfied, the hypothesis that the visitors' motivation to destinations varies based on socio-demographic variables (education levels being the major socio-demographic variable of this study) is accepted.

Sub-group comparisons for spirituality motives

With a run of Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with SPSS, spirituality is found to be the major motive of visitors to the Christian historical-cultural heritages of Amhara region, Lalibela, Gondar and Monasteries of Lake Tana. Next to spirituality, there are other motivation factors for cultural heritage visitors in the study area. Being the most influential motivating factor, spirituality attracts attention for further analysis against some other selected variables.

Therefore, here below are some selected subgroup comparisons with reference to spirituality by taking some selected variables such as type of visit, religion, religiosity, and levels of education. These issues deal with how the type of religion is related to a spiritual travel motivation; how education levels are related to the responses of the respondents with motives related to spirituality; how purpose of visit is related to spiritual motives to the destinations under study; and how respondents' ratings for "spirituality" is related to their religious motives.

Table 4: Tourist Motivation differences for Spirituality on Type of Visit (ANOVA)

Purpose of Visit	N	Mean	Std. D	df	F	Sig.
Pilgrim	230	4.5705	.56486	3	43.428	.000
Tourist	40	3.1250	1.32409			
Both	91	4.0612	.94836			
Other	17	3.4790	1.34766			
Total	378	4.2458	.94832			

One-way ANOVA was used to examine whether there were statistically significant differences among visitors with different purpose of visit in relation to their ratings to spirituality as motivation to the destinations. The results revealed statistically significant differences among the respondents with different purposes of visit, $F(3, 378) = 43.428, p = .000$ (Table 17).

Table 5: Tourist Motivation differences for Spirituality on Level of Education (ANOVA)

	N	Mean	Std. D	df	F	Sig.
Basic Literacy	15	4.5619	.45326	6	6.705	.000
Elementary	33	4.2316	.99248			
Secondary School	102	4.3838	.73147			
College Diploma	90	4.5317	.64211			
First Degree	107	3.8224	1.23591			
Masters	30	4.2476	.91890			
PhD and Above	5	3.2857	1.58758			
Total	382	4.2302	.96679			

The appropriate statistical test was found to be One-way ANOVA. The relation between respondents' ratings for visitors' motives to the destinations was checked against the level of educations of the respondents at time of filling the questionnaires. As shown on Table 15.18, the results revealed statistically significant differences among the respondents with different levels of education, $F(6, 382) = 6.705$, $p = .000$. First degree holders ($N=107$; $Mean=3.8224$ and $St.D=1.23591$) have low spiritual motives as compared to people with basic literacy ($N=15$; $Mean=4.5619$ and $St.D=.45326$).

Table 6: Tourist Motivation differences for Spirituality based on Religion (ANOVA)

Religion	N	Mean	Std. D	df	F	Sig.
Orthodox	332	4.4038	.73296	3	51.357	.000
Protestant	20	2.6714	1.23335	376		
Muslim	18	2.8095	1.32480	379		
Other	10	4.7286	.32611			
Total	380	4.2457	.93994			

With the objective of explaining the difference in tour motivation for spirituality based on the type of religion, one-way ANOVA was used. To check whether there were statistically significant differences among visitors with different religion in relation to their ratings to spirituality as motivation to the destinations, statistical values such as mean, standard deviation, degree of freedom, F value and p values were employed. The results revealed statistically significant differences among the respondents with different purposes of visit, $F(3, 380) = 51.357$, $p = .000$ (Table 18)

In summary, domestic visitors seem to be more obsessed with spiritual and religious concern than any other motivation. It is evident that tourist motivations varied based on the level of

education other variables being constant. Education as one of the major socio-demographic denominator affected visitors' motivation to the study area. One thing that comes against one of the hypotheses is the effect of place of origin on tourist motivation. The result shows that urban and rural visitors have no difference in motivations to the Christian –cultural heritages of Amhara Region.

Spirituality as the defining motive of domestic visitors was analyzed some selected tour characteristics. Motives for spirituality varied based on the purpose/type of visit based on the responses of respondents which yield a similar research finding to the findings of Collins-Kreiner & Kliot (2000). In addition, significant differences are shown on variables such as level of education, type of religion and self claimed spirituality levels of respondents.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The first recommendation is about the research gaps Ethiopian Tourism Resources in general and Amhara Region in particular. The Amhara Region, as part of the so called Historic Route, is rich in cultural tourist heritages with three UNESCO registered world heritages and many other tremendous, cultural, social, religious, and literary, music, and traditional ways of lives. Yet, these rich cultural and natural resources are not availed to the wider global community based on scientific researches and academic forums. In this regard, the responsibilities of scholars are found to be very indispensable. Researches and academic publications are the fastest ways of showing and revealing the tourist resources of the country and the region more than any other means. The results of this study show that the majority of visitors are motivated by religion causes and spirituality which connotes a special preparation on the tourism management sectors by government and private firms. Though the majority shows spirituality motives, there are still other thirteen types of tourist motives with significant level which again needs fluidity of tourist interests during travel and at destinations.

Tourism stakeholders in the region and the country need to work to motivating domestic travelers to the cultural heritages other than religion and spirituality. The general conditions under which visitors are entertained at destination could be more than satisfactory if the private stakeholders and public services are coordinated with planned moves and budgeted activities for festival and event tours. The types of activities/events at destinations must be diversified in proportion to the urban and rural visitors with affordable prices and more traditional cultural shows and performances.

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Community-led cultural heritage development: representations of Suzhou's cultural heritage

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ABSTRACT

The following is an analysis of data gained through an oral history project undertaken during the autumn of 2014 in the city of Suzhou, People's Republic of China. It consisted of interviews with 21 resident media managers and artists on their views of cultural heritage conservation, their art, and its relationship to the city in which it was and continues to be created. The project was informed by the following research questions: How does a prominent Chinese city situate itself between traditional culture and the innovation drive? How do its artists see themselves and the future of their arts? Should this process be managed and, if yes, how? The project elicited the following results: Art and culture managers, perhaps necessarily, see the arts as a product and at length discuss its monetarisation potentials. There seems to exist a common understanding of what Suzhou and its citizens' character is, namely 'gentle', 'cultured' and not 'money-driven'. As such, it is deemed by most a perfect environment for pursuing one's art. Most older artists recognised the need to train the next generation, but many have all but given up, as interest is low. Younger artists are lured by the new and see the old artistic and governmentally-led system (and concentration on a few arts) as too restrictive and either reclude themselves or direct their longing gaze toward Shanghai and other more metropolitan cities.

Keywords: Intangible heritage, Tourism, Community building, Arts education, Oral history, Historic memory

INTRODUCTION

'Is digital heritage a discipline? Does it need to be? And does it matter if it is not? There are, after all, no core sets of methodologies at the centre of digital heritage, no routine forms of evidence or data. Digital heritage scholars (most of the time) are not found in one place, and, in fact, are invariably located in an array of other subject disciplines across the arts and sciences.' (Ch'ng, 2013: v)

Since the rise of the art patron and the institutionalisation of public museums in 15th century Europe, museums have been charged with preserving tangible cultural heritage. It is important to remember though that the original concept of museum went further than that: the Greek word *mouseion*, meaning "seat of the Muses", was more of an interactive space where different arts were not preserved, but rather *practiced*. As such, it was originally a much more inclusive concept, comprising not just tangible cultural artefacts, but especially intangible ones.

The project presented here does hearken back to this original meaning of the word museum. In order to achieve its goal of preserving intangible cultural heritage, it concerned itself with interviewing makers, conservators and performers of intangible art and showcasing some of it. The quicker communities and geographic areas modernise, the greater the danger of losing at least part of their cultural heritage. Case in point is China, which over the last 30 years or so has undergone tremendous changes. While much material cultural heritage has been preserved, intangible cultural heritage has fared less well. It has always been the more delicate of the two, having to be performed and relying on the trading down of the craft or crafts throughout the centuries from practitioners to students. In the following, a project will be presented and analysed which attempted to provide a snapshot of the state of these arts. The project¹ was conducted from 2014-2016 in Suzhou to allow resident artists and culture workers to present themselves and discuss their close ties with living, creating and performing their art in Suzhou.

Interviewees came from a broad range of arts and their management available in Suzhou and included a Pingtan (a speaking /performance art native to Suzhou) performer; Guqin (an ancient Chinese string instrument indigenous to Suzhou) players and teachers; the manager of the Wave Livehouse, a Suzhou live music venue; members of the Surging Waves and ADN, both local Rock bands; a photographer; the Deputy Director of the Suzhou Culture and Exhibition Center; a Jade designer; the Vice Director of the Suzhou Tourism Administration; painters; a Lacquer artist; a wood seal and a Chinese seal cutter; a Kunqu singer; a Ming Dynasty furniture maker; a local culture researcher; a Persian-Finnish drummer and art activity organizer; a tattooist and a comic artist.

The video interview series was deliberately set up to achieve a broad spectrum of culture workers in Suzhou and to assure that many different arts, modern and ancient, were included. Age of the 21 interviewees also differed widely, from early twenties to late sixties. Most of the interviewees were Chinese, but a number of foreigners connected to Suzhou were also interviewed. Interviewees were found through the snowballing method and data collection was achieved through directed interviews. Interview questions were not set in stone, though, and at times interviewers and interviewees digressed rather happily from them. In general, they involved the following elements: a description of their work/artistic practice; an assessment of the present-day art scene in Suzhou and a comparison to earlier times; identifying elements of local culture informing their art; their analysis of the commercialisation of intangible heritage; and, lastly, how deeply they would be willing to be involved in promoting Suzhou as an artistic (and touristic) destination.

The initial reason for the project was that Suzhou is a historic city of culture and that this is an important revenue source for the local economy. In 2013, tourism brought in a total of RMB 152 billion of revenue for Suzhou (China Briefing, 2014). However, not all that much was known of Suzhou's status in the art and tourism world of today beyond the traditional top tourist destinations such as Tiger Hill, the gardens, or Pingjiang Road. The project proposed to remedy this

¹ <http://academic.xjtlu.edu.cn/ecc/SitePages/Pages.aspx?cc=Holger-1>

situation by contacting a variety of artists and gathering their opinion on what the relationship was between them, their art and the location of Suzhou. Following the recent addition of community-led tourism theory and video ethnography to the techniques of tourism studies, it was hoped that the artists' insights would allow for further and more targeted campaigns to make locals, but especially tourists, from inside and outside of China, more aware of the cultural and timely attractions the city of Suzhou holds today. The project's innovation lies in the fact that it included international, as well as local, artists, and that it allowed for a genuine rapport between city officials and artists and facilitated collaborations between the officials and the artists during the concluding events and beyond. As stated above, it also engaged a new breed of artists for Suzhou, such as tattooists and graphic designers, who are not usually included in Suzhou surveys. A website was created to introduce the project and house the videos.² The project aimed to answer the following questions: How does a prominent Chinese city situate itself between traditional culture and the innovation drive? How do its artists see themselves and the future of their arts? Should this process be managed? If yes, how?

METHODOLOGY: COMMUNITY DRIVEN TOURISM AND ORAL HISTORY

The project understood itself as a contribution to community driven tourism and heritage projects (Zou, 2014; Rocharungsat, 2005) and the Oral History (OH) movement (Abrams, 2010), creating individualised accounts of cultural activities taking place, one's engagement therein and the relationship between the past and present.

The decision to create video interviews was taken, because there did not seem to be any reason to forego the visual performance of the interviewees. Video interviews lend a whole new dimension to the interview process when compared to, until recently, typical audio-only ones. Furthermore, due to the relative ease with which online archives can be created today, this opportunity is open to more and more individuals interested in undertaking such projects. One of the foremost supporters of visual anthropology also stresses the importance of moving images archives: 'Deep reflexivity is possible when we use video (or film) as it represents the relationships that produced the video. In contrast explanatory reflexivity, which is more usual in ethnographic writing, takes the form of subsequent reflection upon these relationships' (Pink, 2004: 3); 'Hypermedia allows us to produce new anthropological texts that are multilinear, multimedia, interactive and reflexive.' (Pink 2004: 169-70) Thus, here exists good reason for making this effort, given the potential audiences for such work (cf. Sinatra, 1986; Wileman, 1993).

Interviews with participants (including interviewers and interviewees) hailing from different cultural backgrounds, intertextuality and possibly cultural interference are bound to be linguistically and conceptually present, be it consciously or unconsciously. This is certainly also true for the narrative created, which itself might have preconscious roots. In order to highlight the precarious relationships between individuals from different cultures, or, indeed between

² <http://academic.xjtlu.edu.cn/ecc/SitePages/Pages.aspx?cc=Holger-1>

interviewer and interviewee in culturally and politically diverse settings, Shanta Nair Venugopal has coined the term “interculturalities” (Nair-Venugopal, 2009: 76) for identities that are socially constructed through communicative and discursive practices, and/or mediated through technologies such as the internet and other media, for instance, the video recorder, as multimodal constructions of language use. This is a helpful construct for OH practitioners, as many of the projects are concerned with international life stories, especially those in which video techniques are used that allow for non-linguistics components such as gestures and body presence to come to the fore.

ANALYSIS OF THE INTERVIEWS

Cultural heritage management

To begin with, a number of culture managers and researchers were interviewed. It was felt that this would frame well the later interviews in providing a theoretical and functionalist model within which to discuss the artists’ statements. We therefore interviewed Lu Feng, the Deputy Director-in-Chief of the Suzhou Municipal Tourism Administration, Jiang Yiqiu, Deputy Director of the Suzhou Cultural Center, Zekrollah Aflatuni, a cultural events manager, Wang Guodong, a local cultural researcher, Jian Dao, the manager of the Wave Livehouse Music bar and Dr Andrew Manley (Bath University), who had just finished a collaboration with the Suzhou Tourism Authority. All concurred that main areas of heritage conservation and tourism were (or should be) linked and that it would be advantageous to involve local artists in this endeavour. But they also stated that there came some inherent challenges with this undertaking. Andrew Manley neatly summarised Suzhou’s dilemma as follows:

‘I placed a lot of value in the old town, and I think it is very important within these particular cities. You do as much as you can to protect the old town heritage and the architecture, I think it is really important. But what you can’t stop is the process of modernization in China and the processes of urbanization, so what Suzhou has to do is trying [sic] to find a way to I guess embrace both, if you like, and a lot was discussed in terms of brand identity, how do you brand the city that has two different sets almost if you like. For me, the issue with modernization is you start to become quite homogenized, and a bit generic, (yes) and if you are a city that is losing your heritage, then you are losing your core identity, and I think that’s something that has to be preserved.

While there is so much artistic work created in Suzhou, it is nevertheless threatened by its own success in that it reduces the city to a few expressions of art, no matter how good they are. Manley worries that the city of Suzhou might continue on this path, to the detriment of ancillary arts and the liveliness of its art scene. He also stressed that different groups, communities of tourists, are interested in different things. Broadly speaking, ‘[t]he Western market is clearly what they [the Tourism Administration] want to bring into Suzhou, but the Western market likes that individuality, so if you do pursue this “collective garden experience”, then they might just merge into one, and it doesn’t have that unique aspect or feel to it, which is a shame.’

While he admits that he does not have an overall solution, he does suggest some innovative ways of approaching community-led tourism, such as using vine video and/or photovoice to gather data. Another important managing figure on the Suzhou art scene is Jiang Yiqiu, The Deputy Director of the Suzhou Cultural and Exhibition Center. His role is made clear already in that he is responsible for the official Suzhou Culture Centre and the exhibition/fair complex. As such he is concerned with the commercial benefits a flourishing arts scene can have. During the interview, he stressed that there are invitations made to Suzhou artists, but mostly through official (government) channels. He stresses that he is aware of the dichotomy between old and new art in Suzhou, but finds this not a problem:

We should say that Suzhou is a successful city which blends ancient and modern culture. One aspect is that Suzhou Industrial Park cooperates with Singapore. Singapore itself is a country combining both Eastern and Western culture. Regarding the design concept of the whole park, it is more like a modern culture which is used as a carrier and as an environment to be designed. But some of the contents still include characteristics of eastern countries. Especially some elements contained in Suzhou. It perfectly blends in with the construction of the city.

The benefits of Suzhou Industrial Park are clear in terms of money generated for the city, but to take Singapore as an example of blending old and new is somewhat daring, as the old has almost completely disappeared from Singapore²; and while Suzhou architecture does attempt to combine the old and new (cf. of course I.M. Pei's Suzhou Museum), at least some of the artists interviewed did not imagine a rosy future for the smaller arts and crafts in Suzhou.

Someone with a somewhat different remit is Lu Feng, Deputy Director-in-Chief of the Suzhou Municipal Tourism Administration. He stressed that people still come to Suzhou mostly because of its reputation as a cultural and cultured hub, and that Chinese visitors are by far the majority of tourists. The number of foreigners has been decreasing, in part because of Visa regulations. Nevertheless, foreign tourists' custom and money is still sought. He promised that tourism infrastructure will be improved, with easier passage from site to site. This is of course something that Manley had warned against; here one runs up against the eternal dilemma of cultural preservation: the more accessible it gets, the greater the danger of it becoming co-opted, losing vitality. However, the live art scene is not to be overlooked. Lu takes up the example of the Edinburgh Fringe festival and states that this might be a bit too 'crazy' for Suzhou, but a festival is still something he would like to see installed:

It's a complex business and what we are doing now is improving our ability for holding the festivals. This is a general direction of us and we do hope there will be a holiday which can continue for one month. During this time, the holiday can attract amount of visitors. This is what we really want and where we are heading to. Whether within this festival Suzhou contemporary arts will be featured is something that remains to be seen.

² cf. <http://remembersingapore.org/2011/12/08/old-neighbourhood-redhill-close/>

Zekrollah Aflatuni, an Iranian-Finnish artist, bongo player and academic who has lived in Suzhou for sixteen years, runs an arts space along Pinjiang Lu, which is perhaps the number one of Suzhou's tourist attractions. He is somewhat of a local celebrity and at times has been interviewed by CCTV4 and other regional media outlets. He claimed an affinity for Chinese culture for the following reasons: 'There are a lot of common things also between these two cultures, the Iranian culture and Chinese culture, so for me it's easier even to understand this culture than maybe some Europeans or Americans.' He cites hospitality and the culture of *guanxi* (the slow building up of interdependent services between individuals or organisations) as examples, both of which are practiced in each of the two countries.

When it comes to the future, he is worried that younger people do not take up the old arts and that this leads to a dying out of some of these arts: 'You want the next generation to inherit something, but whether the people who are the heirs accept this or not is a problem.' He has therefore designated his art space as a drop-in space, where the young generation can come and learn and practice drumming, their English, and generally discuss artistic concerns. This he claims is very successful.

One other interviewee was Wang Guodong, a local cultural researcher. He is much concerned with the stories, the narratives Suzhou produces and highlights the fact that tourists come for these stories rather than just artefacts. He claims that artefacts cannot be understood without understanding their narratives first:

Actually, to have tourism, a place must have stories. And a kind of connotation. Because you do not learn architecture. You do not understand. [At first] Common people do not understand Suzhou traditional gardens. But, after understanding them, they become so interesting. Throughout its history, Suzhou is famous for its culture. The previous manifestations are printing, collecting and reading books. It is obvious in Suzhou. We, who love collecting and reading books, are inheriting traditional culture. So a city is boring without the tradition of reading.

Not surprisingly, as a cultural historian, he favours the art of the book, its transcendence and inheritance value. Just like most others, he stresses the ties that bind Suzhou to the past.

Lastly, Jian Dao, the manager of the Wave Livehouse, a/the music space in Suzhou was interviewed. He was considerably younger than the other interviewees so far and his emphasis lay not so much on preservation but rather on opening Suzhou to new cultural experiences. He started out by saying that while money was a concern, it was not everything, a sentiment repeated over and over again by most artists interviewed. Then he lamented the lack of other live music venues in Suzhou and is clearly looking abroad for further business and does not believe Suzhou should limit itself just to traditional music. But, and this is a recurrent theme throughout all interviews, he states that Suzhou is a conducive environment for creating art. When it comes to music, he believes that there are two kinds of bands in Suzhou, one kind consisting of Western musicians who perform music as a hobby, and another kind, Chinese bands, often formed by college students who have not excluded the possibility of making money with their music at

a later stage. But especially after graduating, they find it very hard to continue making music, as they are expected to find a 'real job'. Jian Dao does not like traditional music much, he is a 'metal guy', but he will allow for other musical styles as well. While he enjoys managing the Wave, his ideal would be the following:

However, he does have some reservations about the public administration of cultural events as he feels left alone. Asked whether he would be interested in participating in a governmentally sponsored culture event, he said: 'Sure, I'd love to. We actually do not reject anything related to official organization but, how to say it, it seems that officials abandon us on most occasions rather than that we do not want to cooperate with them. We are willing to cooperate with them.'

Artists

Differentiating between the artists and managers/researchers is difficult at times; thus Dao has a band himself, Zekrollah is a musician and furniture makers and Jiang Yiqiu practices calligraphy. But when it comes to the artists' responses, a different kind of weighting can be observed. True to their calling, the culture managers viewed art first and foremost as a sellable consumable good, whereas the artists did not see this facet of the art world as the most pressing. Except for one painter, not one of them mentioned commercial interests as an overarching motivation for their art. This might speak for the wealth of Suzhou that apparently many of its artists do not have to make a living from their art and can follow it without major restrictions. It might also mean that we had been given a very cohesive group of artists as interviewees who did not have to worry about money that much. Only the comic artist/graphic designer, Shen Yaqian, explicitly stated that she was mostly interested in making her art a commercial success. This might have to do with the fact that she is only at the beginning of her career and is keen on leaving a mark and making a living from it.

Due to space limitations, it will not be possible to present all artists in this space; rather, I would like to focus on two particular themes: one, the relationship between art and Suzhou and two, how to take its cultural history into the future.

All of the artists agreed that Suzhou, with its artistic heritage, is a place conducive to creating art. In the local Suzhou language, this attitude is called 'zuorenjia', an environment conducive to creating art.

This is clearly a nostalgic view of Suzhou and its inhabitants and in many ways conforms with the way Suzhou is 'sold' by its culture managers, as evidenced by the interview with the deputy director of the Suzhou Cultural Centre and of the Tourism authority. Artists are more worried about tourism as a deterrent for their art. Thus, also worried about what kind of tourism is being brought into the city and how this affects Suzhou traditions: 'The standardisation of tourism is a big problem.' (Jin Lisheng). Here as in many other interviews, the stylised view of an essential Suzhou character is brought out, notwithstanding the fact that the history of Suzhou was far from being as gentle as its inhabitants are claimed to be. Furthermore, if certain people do not behave like Suzhouites should, there is an easy explanation for this as well. The Pingtan teacher,

the painter Zhou Wenying and Huang Boyun all decry the fact that half of Suzhou's inhabitants today are not of local origin and do not exude local values.

This danger to the local character of art and its production is also not lost on Woodcutter Hu Jinbiao, another native Suzhouite, who gives it another weighting though and has the following explanation for Suzhou's draw for artists:

Because Suzhou has its unique environment. As we know that the southern Yangtze delta is a land flowing with milk and honey. Basically, any subsistence problem can definitely be solved here. So the pursuit of the arts has been developing in all its aspects in this environment in the long-term development and starting from long ago. Many literati and officials (in feudal China) spent their retirement in seclusion in Suzhou First, they brought a lot of things that had not existed here before. And then fused them with local culture. Secondly, the original things in existence were also developed further. That is the reason why culture here became richer and richer. And this in turn can be regarded as the root of Suzhou's profound cultural ancestry.

It is this aura that most artists believe to find in Suzhou and which allegedly informs their art. Guqin teacher Wu Meifang sees Suzhou's character in a very similar light: and rejects monetarisation (as do many of the other artists) and focuses on a pure art, 'on the things which have no connection with our daily [mundane] life.' He sees the benefit of tourism for heritage preservation, but is very clear on the fact that the Guqin music offered to tourists is not the real Guqin, which he likes to see promoted. 'So in general I never do commercial performances, because I cannot control the space.' Furthermore, he worries about intangible heritage, which he considers to be much more difficult to retain than the tangible one.

The Kunqu artist Gu Zhiqiang tells of her artistic upbringing by her parents who were members of a theatre troupe and acclimated her early on to the theatre so that she eventually became a performer and set designer herself. Echoing her fellow artists, her definition of the Suzhou art character is 'delicate'. She explains: 'I would summarize this link as "delicateness" and including its traditional handicraft and food, which are all very delicate. My point is that, if the essence of Suzhou is small bridges over flowing waters, or black roofs over white walls, then you could find just the same things in Suzhou's painters' creations.' She draws a comparison of her art to painting and prefers to see the local art scene as holistic. She is not worried about the future and just wants to make sure that art remains as pure as possible: 'Well, it's too delicate and refined to contain anything else [...]The commercial elements shouldn't outweigh the essential artwork under the disguise of commercial activities, although the two can be combined together in a friendly way.' Unlike her fellow artists, though, she is willing, even sees it as necessary, to experiment with new and also foreign forms.

The photographer Pan Yufeng, who has lived in Suzhou for 30 years, also allows modern motifs into his art and solves the problem of art and commerce by having two distinct line of photography, on the one hand, commercial photography and cultural, artistic one on the other. But he sees

these two as complimentary. He would appreciate more recognition by the city for his work, but finds official photographers' networks too 'traditional' for his aesthetics. He does differentiate Suzhou from Shanghai, whereby the former 'covers a lot of stuff, whereas the traditional handicraft and the details in Suzhou are more attractive.' His personal art is also steeped in traditional motifs but with a very modern twist to it.

Another Suzhou native, the painter Zhou Wenyong, stresses the leisurely life in Suzhou and states that this in reality is gone for good: 'Suzhou, especially the old Suzhou, stands for some kind of leisure, relaxation and satisfaction. These qualities are very important. Today's Suzhou has lost these traits it used to possess. Because today's Suzhou cannot be what it wants to be anymore. Now, it's an era with values of homogeneity and harmony. Originally, Suzhou was conservative.' 'Once again, the cliché of the self-sufficient and cultured artist is invoked who is not out for money but only to create the best art possible. He sees the attempts by the government to create artificial old towns as problematic: 'I would create it [an old town] in the way it was in the first place. Because now, those towns are seriously commercialized. Old towns are everywhere. In fact, most of them are only imitations. They are not the original old towns.'

The painter, Huang Boyun, perhaps offers the most astute assessment of the relationship between old and new art in Suzhou. Like the others, he faults today's young generation for being art illiterate, but says it's not their fault. He sees this as the fallout from the Cultural Revolution and his kind of painting is also an answer to this (anti-) cultural movement. 'The whole generation is deficient from a cultural aspect. This is mainly because they did not receive too much education.' Criticism of the destruction of the traditional arts during the Cultural Revolution is never openly discussed (except for a brief outburst by the Pingtan performer), but it is an important factor in the self-understanding of Suzhou artists. Huang Boyun chides his fellow painters as having 'a lack of self-awareness and a symbol of their arrogance' is their professed belief in ancient traditions: 'Many people just follow the mainstream and exclaim: "Ancient traditions are so great!'. The current state is that we can't understand traditions. Even some famous painters, said something like: We need to "get into" the ancient culture and "bring it out" with our full courage. Actually, this situation never existed in the first place. We could "bring out" these things very naturally if we could "get in". But we just can't.' This is a very shrewd comment and shows one of the main problems with trying to live in the past: We can't get in, it is imagined as Anderson (2003) would say. Huang stresses that elegance used to come naturally, and that now it is contrived, 'it is pursued deliberately. "I draw something more elegant because I am in Suzhou." Something deliberately pursued is a little hidebound. Now in Suzhou there are many old streets, renovated old streets, authentic and pseudo-old streets. Traditions have been lost in the process, though, when more people are noticing and working with traditions, then the "quality" of the atmosphere will be improved by building some pseudo-old streets.' The epitome of the art snob for him consists of Chinese commissioning paintings on a website.

The last word is reserved for a tattoo artist who wanted to be known by the name of Ray and who was one of the youngest interviewees. He speaks of his view of art: 'Art is a thing that can be seen in every field. We think it is really a very normal thing, but it merely has different

carrier-platforms. Some painting is done on paper, on walls, on scooters; it is also on skin, only the medium is different.' He goes on to describe not just his art, but his artistic lifestyle as consisting of tattooing, rock 'n' roll and scooter-riding. He also mentions the fact that Suzhou is full of non-natives, but contrary to the above mentioned negative viewpoints on this, he sees it as a manifestation of the dynamic Suzhou has developed and as a reason why he opened his business there. He also mentions the tolerance of Suzhou's inhabitants and hereby finds common ground with his colleagues. When asked, 'Do you think there is a conflict between tattooing and Suzhou's native culture?', he offers a surprising viewpoint: 'Conflict? Let me give you a quick example: It's about tattoos. We have received a lot of requests from foreign customers; some of them asked to have Chinese characters tattooed, some asked to have the latitude and longitude of Suzhou tattooed on their skin. Do you think this is conflict? No, it's a kind of a promotion. Yes! They are fusing, accommodating things. And this fusion may generate other things. [...] If you display the tattoo, to let people know it, understand it, people would not feel strange if they see it often. The cultural tradition would not be affected, it is still here.' While this view might not sit very well with the more traditional artists, it would certainly reverberate with some of the more indulgent literati and painters of the previous centuries. 'Actually it is traditions we preserved. In fact, it is a bit related to the differences between dynasties. Their coming and going always lead to the loss of at least some older traditions.' And he has accepted that.

CONCLUSION

When analysing the interviews, it becomes clear that all individuals interviewed seemed to enjoy the telling of their stories. Most of them were experienced narrators and had many elements of their stories were readily available. They view their speaking as empowerment and also as a bridge between their professional and private selves.

One might apply the theory of compartmentalisation of events into several modes to all interviewees. Portelli (1997: 4-27) stipulates that oral history narratives generally adopt three different modes: the institutional, the communal and the personal. Each one of these is characterised by the usage of a different personal pronoun: the third person singular 'it' for the institutional, the first person plural 'we' for the communal and the first person singular 'I' for the personal. In our sample, all three modes appear, but displayed as an agency which is mostly reduced to personal and communal and less to institutionalised interactions, which are often seen as exhausting and wrought with problems. All respondents were trying to make sense of their own identity vis-à-vis the general political situation in largely sticking to individualised events in their pasts and presents, retelling their stories apolitically and artistically.

Memories played an important part in the project, especially when it came to the older interviewees. While in the first instance memories are individual and events are experienced and remembered differently by different individuals, they are also social and communal in character. These collective memories can be based on shared experiences, on public events in the public sphere, as characterised by such symbols as the flag or a national anthem. They also stem from

and are perpetuated by the memory of significant communal events, even if those are centuries old. According to Kovacs (2006), there exists a chiasmic relationship between big history and personal memory: *The politics of history* is a source of political legitimisation. It is the attempt to justify political goals via “historical” narratives, whereas personal memory engenders personal identity and seeks to harmonize it with social identities. Both of them merge in the *social* or *collective memory*. As already mentioned, Kovacs proposes the method of *histoire croisée* to analyse these constructs further, focusing on the crossovers of different cultures, social groups, and historical events.

Interestingly enough, while childhood memories were often mentioned, only one interviewee thematised the Chinese Cultural Revolution which had wreaked havoc on the Chinese cultural landscape and on the lives of individual artists. While Suzhou was no exception, repercussions had been somewhat less severe than in the larger cities. It seems that the art scene has moved on and is concerning itself more with the future than the medium past, similar to the majority of the mainland Chinese. This is evidenced by new artists such as the tattooist and the graphic designer, but also by the commercially driven art sought by the deputy director of the Cultural and Exposition Centre and of the tourism Authority.

The project demonstrated that almost all artists had been exposed to media and were quite versed in availing themselves of such opportunities. But it also evidenced the fact that the artists were thankful for an opportunity not only to talk about their art, but also about what the city of Suzhou means to them (a lot) and how they would like to repay their debt to it via their art and community involvement. New media here truly played out its potential as a citizen medium, where ‘ordinary’ citizens can avail themselves of media and create beneficial content for all to access. Here academic value goes hand in hand with social impact, a fact not to be underestimated in today’s society of specialists.

Also, the project bridged the chasm between art or at least some people’s understanding of art, as a pure form which should not be meddled with lest Suzhou loses its traditional artistic character. It became clear that while artists did mostly look to the past for inspiration, for at least some of them the present featured prominently in their work; foreign influences and local traditions meet and together become responsible for the creation of new art. Overall, this is the kind of vibrancy in a city’s cultural landscape which attracts artists and tourists alike, the mixing of the old and the new.

The project revealed that most artists were very much in favour of community-led tourism projects and were eager to collaborate. They were excited to be involved in collaborations and co-creations of art and of giving back to their community. They acknowledged the need to further utilise new media (some in their art, some in advertisement strategies) and at the same time network with culture officials in order to increase audience and tourist numbers.

The main results and recommendations from the interviews made clear that Suzhou is a rapidly changing environment for artists and their self-representation. But unlike other cities such as

Shanghai and Hong Kong, Suzhou attempts the delicate act of maintaining the old and embracing the new at the same time. There is a clear distinction between what artists want and what art managers want: the former want to continue serving their craft, whereas the latter are more interested in monetarising such artistic creation. All agreed that more needs to be done to achieve both purposes and that festivals or open studios could be help to achieve such goals. New media would be a helpful tool in this endeavour. (Rusalić, 2009; van den Boomen, 2009). Other ways forward may include:

- Strengthen the bond between artists and the city departments of tourism and culture
- Apply and concentrate on more new media and on advertising cultural events (Rusalić, 2009; van den Boomen, 2009).
- Start a series of evenings for open studios
- Build on the strengths of Suzhou's art scene and create more inclusive events
- Appreciate and utilise the willingness of artists to work together with cultural and tourism offices of Suzhou
- Combine the new art with Suzhou's older established art circles
- Re-evaluate the role cultural heritage plays in local artistic communities

The project as such did not elicit major surprises but rather confirmed some of the views commonly thought to be held on Suzhou. What was surprising though, was the fervour with which some artists cling to a stylised and unquestioned narrative of the past and how willingly they would like to inscribe themselves into it. There is a clear demarcation between culture mangers and the artists; if the former by and large agree with the re-interpretation the 'cultural industries' since the 1980s have been exposed to (with the emphasis on the word 'industry'), the artists themselves do not so much as fear but perhaps worry about how their art fits into the future cultural cityscape of Suzhou if they do not partake of the officially sanctioned arts such as embroidery, silk or the garden culture. Guqin musicians did not feel that threatened as at least some of them are supported by the cultural arm of the government.

Others, most notably the middle-aged ones, like the lacquer artist and the furniture maker, take a different view in that they believe their art will never die out. This also has to do with their belief in eternal Suzhou as the backdrop for their artistic creation. Thus, Suzhou is viewed as a conservative, cultured place, and although some of the interviewees find its pace rather slow (e.g. the bands and the tattoo artist), even somebody as entrenched in contemporary music management as the music venue manager, appreciate the calm it can bestow upon its residents. Older and more traditional artists take a more historic viewpoint and see themselves in the (unbroken) tradition of Suzhou artists with the wish to continue along those lines. Most artists felt

that innovation is the wrong way to go about things, while at the same time acknowledging the problems that come with this view but being unable to resolve them.

As far as easy solutions to the gap between traditional and modern arts go, there aren't any. While the old arts are in danger of ossification, newer ones have a hard time establishing themselves. Suzhou is still behind other Chinese cities like Shanghai, Shenzhen and Hangzhou when it comes to the adaptation of new digital arts, but this could certainly also be a growth area and a counterweight to the sometimes overbearing feeling of history one might have in the city. At least the newer generation of artists sees this opportunity and wishes to embrace it.

Festivals might be a way forward, the biannual Jinji Lake Arts Festival is perhaps one of the best venues for initiating a meeting between the old and the new. It draws on art selected from Suzhou and other Chinese areas, but also includes local artists who have shops in the Li Gong Di Nan leisure and arts development area. As such, the location clearly does have economic matters at its heart, but with the influx of other artists and their art, these circumstances are somewhat mitigated and conducive to an intermingling of the inherited and the new.

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Inquiries about dark tourist classification and related sustainable issues of dark tourism

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ABSTRACT

Based on a case study of Yingxiu, China, this paper examines the sustainable issues of dark tourism from the demand perspective. Tourists' perceptions and attitudes towards dark tourism are examined through a qualitative approach. Four different types of dark tourists are identified in the context of disaster (dark) tourism - charitable tourist, supportive tourist, understanding tourist, and resistant tourist. Based on the results, it is suggested that the dynamic change of the typologies of tourists in the dark tourism market be the germane explanation to the sustainable challenges faced by Yingxiu's dark tourism. Managerial implications are discussed with regards to how the local government, tourism management organizations, and residents should react in facing the sustainable issues of dark tourism.

Keywords: dark tourism; dark tourist classification; sustainability; earthquake, China

BACKGROUND

The phenomenon of traveling to sites of death and disaster is not something new, which has drawn tourism scholars' attention since the 1980s. This type of tourism has got various terms such as "milking the macabre" (Dann, 1998b), the "dark side of tourism" (Dann, 1998a), "thanatourism" (Seaton, 1996), "tragedy tourism" (Richter, 1999), "black spots tourism" (Rojek, 1997), and "morbid tourism" (Blom, 2000). Among them, "dark tourism" is the most widely used term in academic research (Biran, Poria, & Oren, 2011; Stone & Sharpley, 2008) which was coined by Foley and Lennon (1996, p. 198), being referred to as 'these phenomena which encompass the presentation and consumption (by tourists) of real and commodified death and disaster sites'. Foley and Lennon (1996) introduced the concept of dark tourism as visits to sites associated with death, disaster and atrocity about two decades ago. These dark tourism sites are featured by Stone (2006) in a 'darkest—lightest' spectrum that offers insights into the diversity of the sites.

On May 12, 2008, one of the deadliest disaster in the world – the Great Wenchuan Earthquake - occurred in China's Sichuan province. In the quake, over 80,000 people died or were reportedly missing, and nearly half a million people were injured. Yingxiu, a small town of 12,000 people, located near the epicenter of the earthquake, suffered the most: Half of the town's population disappeared and almost the whole town was virtually leveled to the ground. Yingxiu used to be

a highly industrial town before the earthquake, however, the whole settlements were destroyed in the earthquake (Dunford & Li, 2011).

With three years' reconstruction, local residents were able to return home in 2011. Since then, several memorial sites were set up which are open to the public including the Ruins of Xuankou Middle School, Memorial Hall of Wenchuan Earthquake Epicenter, and the Cemetery of 5/12 Earthquake Victims. 'Earthquake tourism' was adopted as a primary driving force in the region's recovery plan by the government (Yang, Wang, & Chen, 2011), and tourists paid tributes to the victims and visited disaster relics and memorials (Biran, Liu, Li, & Eichhorn, 2014). The annual number of tourist arrivals to Yingxiu approximately reached 80,000 to 100,000.

Insofar, Yingxiu has been able to offer some dark tourist sites which seem to be the only tourism resources for the tourists. The government hopes to rely on the earthquake sites and memorials to promote tourism (Yang et al., 2011). Consequently, dark tourism becomes one of the major industries for the local residents. However, till recently, while there seems to be of no significant drop of the number of tourists, the local residents including the local merchants and vendors started to complain about the decline of the number of the tourists and the income from tourism. It is observed that the local residents are becoming more and more frustrated without seeing many tourists and uncertain of the future of the dark tourism.

This study is designed to examine the case of Yingxiu's dark tourism, aiming to explore the types of tourists who are visiting Yingxiu, their attitudes and perceptions of dark tourism, and the sustainable issues of dark tourism in Yingxiu from the perspective of the demand side.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In line with the purpose of this study, the following literature review of dark tourism focuses on three areas of topics: the ethical dilemma of dark tourism, types of dark tourism, and dark tourism studies from dark tourists' perspective.

Ethical dilemma of dark tourism

With the concept of dark tourism being widely adopted, increasingly aroused is tourism researchers' interest in the ethical ambiguity in the process of dark tourism development. Numerous dark tourism studies have focused on the ethical issues over the nature of objects, sites interpretation, political response and dark tourism experience by tourists and local residents in dark tourism (e.g., Lennon & Foley, 1999; Stone, 2009; Stone & Biran, 2013; Willis, 2014). Critics raise ethical questions about dark tourism arguing that dark tourism is commodifying the sufferings of the past for financial gains of the present (Lennon & Foley, 2000; Sarmiento, 2011).

In this context, the scholars question the tourists' motives and desires to visit places of death and suffering. Dark tourists are always criticized for consuming others' sufferings while inoculating against the tragedy of the past. Dark tourists look like casual or voyeuristic bystanders, who

stand alongside those mourning the loss of loved ones (Buda & McIntosh, 2013; Lisle, 2004), and they are often staying in luxurious hotels and eating fine food near the places of previous sufferings (Mosse, 1991). Seaton and Lennon (2004) suggest that there are two distinct origins in relation to dark tourism: Schadenfreude (i.e. the secret pleasure of seeing others' misfortune) and Thanatopsis (i.e. the contemplation of death). Such desires and interests addressed by dark tourism are supposed to have no legitimation with the moral discourse of modern society (Seaton, 1996).

Nevertheless, there are influxes of tourists trailing the sites of tragic disasters, such as people traveling to New Orleans to see the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina, or those visiting Holocaust sites in Poland or Cambodia. In addition, dark tourism is still a priority for many post-disaster sites aiming to develop a tourist industry, and has become a contemporary tourism economy's pervasive feature (Lennon & Foley, 2000; Stone, 2012). Dark tourism provides a significant tourism experience while at the same time raises new anxieties and ethical dilemmas (Kang et al., 2012). Doubtlessly, it is a challenging issue for tourism management organizations or local communities to develop dark tourism at dark sites.

Types of dark tourism

Dark tourism exists in different forms. Seaton (1996) points out that there exists a 'continuum of intensity' depending on tourist motivation and the extent to which the interest in death is general or person-specific. Therefore, visits to disaster sites are a 'purer' form of thanatourism (or dark tourism) than visiting a grave of a dead relative (Seaton, 1996). According to Seaton's argument, there exists various forms of dark tourism consumptions. Sharpley (2005, 2009) takes a more holistic view of dark tourism by categorizing dark tourism experiences into four specific quadrants. Depending on how the experience relates to the extent to which the interest in death is operationalized in link with the direction of the supply, Sharpley proposed four shades of dark tourism ranging from "pale" to "dark" (see Figure 1). Among them, 'Pale tourism' refers to minimal interest in death when visiting sites unintended to be tourist attractions. 'Grey tourism demand' describes visitation to dark sites motivated by a fascination with death with the sites not intentionally established to exploit death. 'Grey tourism supply' refers to visitation to sites developed to exploit death while the tourists have little inherent interest in death. 'Black tourism' describes a purer dark experience, i.e., the tourists are attracted by the death, and the sites' purposeful supply of dark experience is intended to satisfy this fascination.

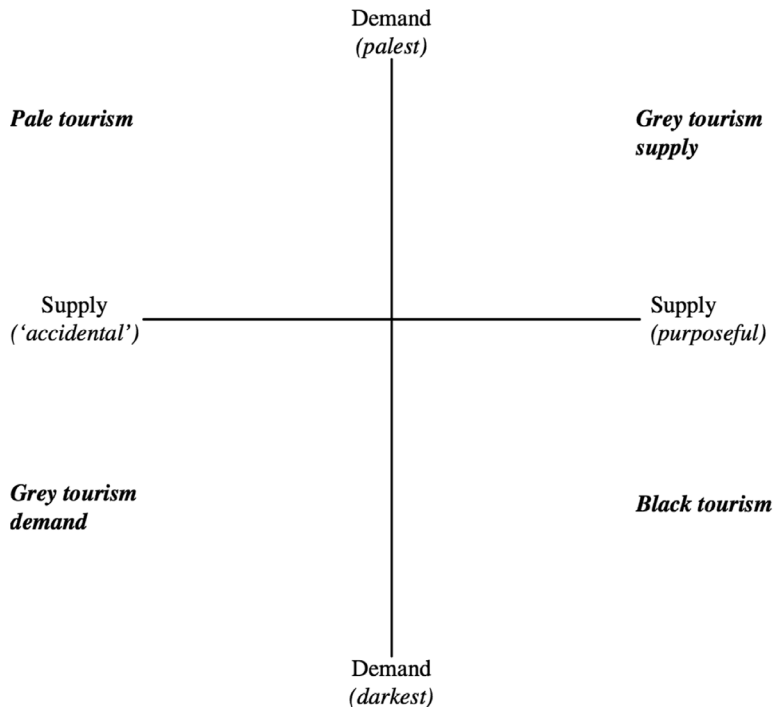


Figure 1: Sharpley's (2005) matrix of dark tourism

This theoretical framework offers insights into the variation patterns of dark tourists' perceptions and experiences in association with dark site attributes. Specifically, 'black tourism', the purer form of dark tourism, not only highlights the fascination in death on the part of the tourist, but also stresses "an attempt to exploit or profit from this fascination on the part of supplier" (Sharpley, 2005, p. 224). Considering the important balance between sensitivity and ethics on the one hand, and opportunities for economic renewal at dark sites on the other hand (Brown, 2013; Rofe, 2013), it is considered that a more significant dark tourism study should focus on the lower-right quadrant of the Sharpley's matrix, the 'black tourism'.

Dark tourism from the tourist perspective.

Previous studies on dark tourism have mainly adopted a supply-side perspective, exploring how the onsite interpretation is overshadowed by commercialized representations (Strange & Kempa, 2003), and how the past tragedy is commodified and becomes a site of commodity consumption (Foley & Lennon, 1996). For example, the dark attraction Auschwitz has "swelled with tourist numbers and catalyzed economic activity" (Lennon & Foley, 2000, p. 63), the tourist souvenirs around 9/11 Memorial in New York (US) risks the kitschification of dark tourism (Potts, 2012). Furthermore, Coats and Ferguson (2013) focused on residents' perceptions of the purposeful supply of dark tourism products.

In contrast, more recent studies have highlighted the importance of studying dark tourism from the demand perspective, arguing that more attention should be paid to the tourists (Muzaini, Teo, & Yeoh, 2007). However, only a handful of studies have examined dark tourism from the tourist perspective, such as why people visit dark tourism sites and how they experience such sites (Biran et al., 2011; Mowatt & Chancellor, 2011). For instance, Dark tourists' behaviors are considered different from regular tourists. Dark tourists seem to hold a kind of moral concern to dark sites and the victims in the sites. Lisle (2004) found out that gazing upon Ground Zero by most dark tourists just produced moments of silence and acute reflection. Some dark tourists refused to follow 'normal' tourist behavior (e.g. take photo) because it "just did not seem right" to do so (Henderson, 2000, p. 278). Dalton (2015) noted that dark tourists tend to behave more ethically than general tourists. Few empirical studies have examined tourists' perceptions and attitudes toward dark tourism. Moreover, Biran and Hyde (2013) argue that future research should explore the internal conflicts tourists may experience when visiting dark sites.

This study focused on the case of Yingxiu based on three considerations: First, the dark tourism in Yingxiu is considered to be at "the darkest edges of the dark tourism spectrum" (Stone, 2006, p. 157). Second, Yingxiu's dark tourism well fits into the 'black tourism' quadrant on Sharpley's matrix. Third, Yingxiu is now facing the sustainable issue of dark tourism development, which, to the best of the investigators' knowledge, has not been discussed in the literature of dark tourism.

RESEARCH METHOD

Data Collection

The field work was undertaken in Yingxiu from July 1 to 30, 2016. July is the peak travel season for Chinese and it is a good time to conduct interviews with a great variety of people. Qualitative research methods are adopted for the data collection. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 26 tourists (16 males and 10 females, among them seven attended tour groups and 19 were independent tourists) regarding their perceptions and attitudes toward dark tourism in Yingxiu. Interview is a powerful way to understand an individual or a group (Fontana & Frey, 1998) and is an important method of this study because interview involves interactions and understanding (Benney & Hughes, 1956). These one-on-one interviews were conducted in Mandarin, audio-recorded with interviewees' permissions, and fully transcribed afterwards. Tourists at the entrance of the Ruins of Xuankou Middle School and the shopping street of Dongcun were intercepted and invited for an interview. If a tourist declined the interview request, then the interviewer continued to look for the next available tourist. Given their short stay in Yingxiu, most of tourists chose not to be interviewed. Once a tourist accepted the invitation, the interview was then conducted in a quiet teahouse located in the shopping street. In addition, tourists staying in homestays were approached. The interviewer visited five homestays located in the shopping street in the evening when tourists returned to the homestays. Those who accepted the invitation were interviewed and each interview lasted for 40-60 minutes.

Data Analysis

After the data were collected, the investigators write down all the key information and main idea by reading the observational notes and the transcripts of the interview recordings. Then all the materials were analyzed and interpreted using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is a method of pattern recognition within the data, where emerging themes become the categories for analysis (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). According to Boyatzis (1998), a theme is “a pattern in the information that at minimum describes and organizes the possible observations and at maximum interprets aspects of the phenomenon” (p.161). In this study, thematic analysis can help the investigators identify the typologies of dark tourists in relation to their perceptions and attitudes toward dark tourism in Yingxiu. Thematic analysis includes six phases: familiarizing the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes and producing the report (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

FINDINGS

In the ‘black tourism’ destination of Yingxiu, tourists have various views about dark tourism. On the one hand, tourists show sympathy on the victims, being well aware of their loss in the earthquake; On the other hand, they are not negative consumers of the dark tourism ‘products’, instead, they consider Yingxiu as a sacred place (Rofe, 2013). Based on the interviews with the tourists, four types of the dark tourists are identified, who are charitable tourist, supportive tourist, understanding tourist and resistant tourist.

Charitable tourist -

Tourists of this type consider Yingxiu as a disaster site. They feel deeply sympathetic to the residents in Yingxiu and want to visit Yingxiu so they can help and care about the people living in the disaster-stricken area. As one tourist said:

“I don’t have a significant amount of money to help them like tycoons, but I have made my contributions. I have a principle: in any earthquake-stricken area, I don’t bargain in all the commercial activities; I will pay the amount as asked. I feel sympathetic for the residents in earthquake-stricken areas.”

Charitable tourists consider their mission to Yingxiu is to make donations to victims. They are in favor of developing dark tourism in Yingxiu, believing that tourists can make contributions through donations when visiting Yingxiu.

“In my opinion, tourism in disaster-stricken areas should be tapped and should be developed well, so that more local people can be taken care of. Tourists make their consumptions here through travel. Every little bit helps. In this way, on the one hand, tourists can receive education, and the future life of victims is to get improved effectively.”

“People in the disaster-stricken area have no stable source of income. If you are expecting to get their voluntary service related to tourism, I think this is immoral.”

Charitable tourists are visiting the dark sites to seek educative values, and at the same time, wish to help improve the local residents' living standards. They dislike the idea that the development of dark tourism is unethical, and think that being opponents of dark tourism is benighted and immoral.

Supportive tourist -

Different from charitable tourists, supportive tourists regard Yingxiu as a type of scenic spot, instead of a disaster-stricken site.

“As long as the expense is not exceeding a rational limit, I am absolutely willing to make payments which will be helpful to the local residents and local development.”

“I think it is very normal to commercialize the activity. Otherwise where can we have meals or purchase water? However, if I were charged RMB 1,000 for a meal here, I certainly can't stand up with that.”

Unlike charitable tourists who do not care much about price and consider their spending as a means of donation, supportive tourists prefer to treat dark tourism as a commodity just like any of the other tourism products, which are following and subject to market rules. With regards to dark tourism's ethical issues, two tourists said:

“The earthquake is gone, but how could the survivors make a better life? Merely depend on charitable assistance? They must rely on themselves by their own efforts. Tourism can be a means for them to earn money. Why can't it be?”

“I asked a tour guide to provide interpretive service to me and I paid the tour guide. What I did is very normal as I want to learn more about this place. The money I paid is not for his telling me his experience in the disaster, but for his interpretive service provided to me throughout the journey. This is normal.”

Supportive tourists are willing to accept and support this kind of commercial activity and consider dark tourism as a proper approach to supporting the residents living in the earth-stricken area. Supportive tourists accept the phenomenon of dark tourism and do not consider it immoral or unethical.

Understanding tourist -

Understanding tourists visiting Yingxiu accept dark tourism, but are not in favor of the role of dark tourism. A tourist said:

“I really feel it is immoral upon arrival, seeing that this place has turned into a scenic

spot from the disaster. But the past is gone, and I understand that this is the way to make the survivors self-reliant and improve their economic situations.”

Their acceptance of dark tourism is based on their understanding of the residents’ hard living conditions and limited options of economic development in Yingxiu. The tourists’ comments below show the difference between understanding and supportive tourists:

“The local people are doing business with the tourists, such as child vendors selling flowers, which is certainly not good. After all, it’s a disaster stricken site; but on the other hand, local residents need to make a better life, so what needs to be done is just to strengthen the management. I can understand this and think it’s very normal.”

“I think commercialization is a kind of destruction, which destroys the atmosphere that the place deserves. But after all, the original industries here are gone. So selling flowers is a normal phenomenon.”

Both the understanding and supportive tourists can accept the development of dark tourism, but the difference lies in the fact that understanding tourists do not like the idea of commodification of the suffering, thinking that the commodification will damage the image of Yingxiu as a sacred place and it is immoral to turn the disaster place into a tourist attraction and develop commercial activities on the site.

Resistant tourist -

Resistant tourists regard Yingxiu as a sacred place. They tend to care more about the meaning of the loss of life:

“When the earthquake sites are taken as a kind of marketing means and economic development strategy, don’t you think that they have lost their meanings? Don’t you think this is disrespectful to the dead? The local sufferings or the natural disaster are taken as a marketing tool for making money.”

“Once it’s commercialized, it’s connected with economic interests. All human lives are noble. Will it be appropriate to associate making money with the death in the quake? The lives who deceased in natural disasters should not be taken as an economic means to increase local income.”

In their opinions, earthquake sites carry the meaning of the disaster and the numerous lives of the victims. Resistant tourists attach high value to the sacred place. Because of this, any commercial tourism activities will just go against the type of value embraced by them.

“The disaster itself is a grief. Some people are making money and trying to live a good life by taking advantage of the disaster, but can the dead rest in peace? Is this moral? I visit this place in a melancholy mood, but what’s happening here means to rub salt into my wound and earn my money. Can they feel at ease?”

I really don't agree on this kind of commercial behavior. They charged me unscrupulously and then provided interpretive service. Is it right? How many victims are laying here around the sites? Even though they achieve their goal of making money, I can't accept that.

As indicated by the reviewees' comments, resistant tourists believe that it is quite immoral to commodify the disaster, the local people's grief and even the dead. They cannot accept commodification of the sacred site even if it somehow helps improve the living standards of the local residents.

It is noted however that, when engaging with dark tourism or commodification of the sufferings, a tourist may not necessarily be a 100% charitable, supportive, understanding or resistant tourist. In other words, the tourists of each type may all share some degree of charity or resistance.

DISCUSSIONS

The case study of Yingxiu's dark tourism indicates that, tourists' passion and sentiments toward a disaster site may change with the passage of time. Charitable tourists used to be the majority at the initial stage after the disaster, then the majority are resistant tourists and understanding tourists. With the time passing on, the dark tourism in Yingxiu is experiencing different stages, witnessing not only the changes of the landscape of the disaster-stricken area, but also the changes of tourists' motivations, the modes of host-guest encounters, and the types of tourists.

This study indicates that early visitors to the disaster sites are more willing to donate money and more likely to be charitable tourists. The same consumption style is also found by Coats and Ferguson (2013) who observed that a significant number of tourists were willing to pay more than the current price if a portion of their fund was donated to earthquake recovery. At the initial stage, the interactions between the tourists and residents were non-business and driven by sentiments – offering charitable assistance and expressing gratitude. With the reconstruction and restoration of the geomorphologic and urban landscapes, residents move into new houses and restart their normal life. This in turn signifies a shift for the visitors from charitable tourists to the other types of dark tourists. When the residents rely on dark tourism as a means of making a living, the relationships between tourists and residents turn into buyers and sellers. Not only does the number of charitable tourists decrease, but also there are more resistant tourists who dislike and resist the idea of commodification and do not want to see dark tourism in Yingxiu for the sake of the sanctity and ethicality of dark sites (Beech, 2000; Rofe, 2013). At this stage, commodification of the sufferings not only affects tourist experience but also causes ethical conflicts between the local residents and tourists.

Dark tourists' demand is a dynamic process that changes over time. Beech (2000) suggests that, with the progression of time, a contemporary dark tourist attraction will eventually become a more conventional tourist attraction as it moves from the category of contemporary heritage to more distant historical heritage. Based on and the case study of Yingxiu's dark tourism, a

modified model is developed (Figure 2) built on Sharpley's (2005) matrix of dark tourism (Figure 1). This modified model emphasizes the role of time as an important factor in the dynamic model, which makes it clear that the four shades of dark tourism proposed by Sharpley should not be considered static or separate from each other. For instance, as time moves on, the 'black' quadrant tends to become 'grey tourism supply', and 'the grey tourism demand' tends to move into the 'pale' quadrant.

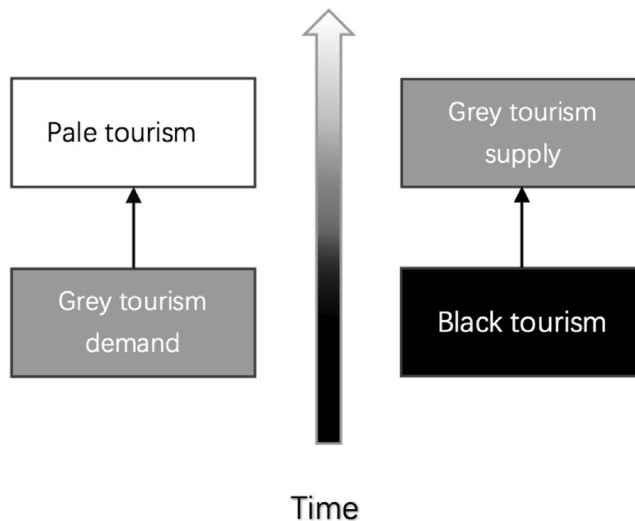


Figure 2: A modified dark tourism matrix from Sharpley (2005)

Yingxiu is located next to the golden tourism route of Southwest China—which is the transportation node connecting the World Natural Heritage Jiuzhaigou Valley, Huanglong and Siguniang Mountain and Wolong Panda Nature Reserve (which are altogether called the 'loop tour'). This makes Yingxiu a good location for tourists to stop by throughout the year. Most of tourists interviewed by the investigators were on the way to the 'loop tour'. An officer of local tourism bureau confirms that at least 60% of loop-route tourists will stop by Yingxiu nowadays. It is predictable that this will be the norm of Yingxiu's dark tourism as it enters its stagnation stage as most of the tourists visiting Yingxiu are stopping by. Interestingly, this finding echoes Isaac and Cakmak's (2014) study which reveals that visit to the dark site – Westerbork was not tourists' main purpose of their holiday, the majority of them were on a holiday in the surrounding areas.

This study indicates that the tourism management in Yingxiu should be aware of the sustainable challenges about its dark tourism. The "easy" money brought in by dark tourism at the initial stage is only temporary, which is just a kind of embodiment of caring and assistance contributed by the charitable people and society. Once the dark tourism enters the stage of a 'conventional' tourism, Yingxiu would tend to lose its appeal and attractiveness. Among the more than 6500 survivors of the earthquake in Yingxiu, except for over 1000 people who work outside as

migrant workers, all the rest of the Yingxiu residents rely on the development of dark tourism (Peng & You, 2016). Based on this study, the local government should not treat dark tourism as its pillar economy and should consider enriching its tourist resources such as its unique traditions and culture and diversifying its economic activities. Donor behavior is similar to philanthropy. Even though Coats and Ferguson (2013) suggest that dark tourism destinations may consider increasing tour prices to enable a contribution towards earthquake recovery initiatives, which in turn benefit the community and local residents, this idea does not seem a good fit for the case of dark tourism in Yingxiu.

Notably, on the sites where ‘black tourism’ is based, the original purpose is for visitors to memorize the victims and receive education to ensure the ‘never again’ hope (Beech, 2000). This is why most of these sites are frequently presented as sites of remembrance for heritage, education, or history (Seaton, 1996). Darkest or black tourism should be education oriented and commemoration centric (Stone, 2006). The people in Yingxiu as well as the local government and tourism management organization should observe this primary purpose of the dark sites when promoting Yingxiu and receiving dark tourists; the mission of black tourism should focus on the provision of convenient travel services to dark visitors, not the commodification of the sufferings or the tragic past.

CONCLUSION

In summary, based on the case study of Yingxiu and on the concept of black or darkest tourism (Sharpley, 2005; Stone, 2006), the dark tourist classification is explored and discussed in this study. Four categories of dark tourists based on their various perceptions and attitudes toward dark tourism are identified. This study indicates that a black tourism site may witness different types of dark tourists over time, who in order of time would be charitable tourists, supportive tourists, understanding tourists and resistant tourist. The findings will contribute to the body of knowledge in the literature of dark tourism in terms of dark tourists’ typology and their consumer behaviors.

This case study indicates that black tourism destinations like Yingxiu may encounter sustainable issues, which has a significant implication for the local residents, the government and destination management organizations: i.e., people living in dark tourism destinations should not become over dependent on dark tourism business, and the destination management organizations’ efforts should focus on strengthening the commemorative and educational functions of the dark sites. The government should provide more economic development opportunities for the local people other than dark tourism.

Finally, this case study was conducted in a Chinese town stricken by an earthquake. Being a case study, the findings may not be generalizable to the other types of dark tourism, or to a location with different living standards or culture. More studies are recommended to explore and compare other dark tourism destinations’ tourist typologies and their impacts on the sustainable issues of dark tourism.

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Determinants of the perception of beach quality: Chenang Beach, Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

This study highlights the essential factors in the quality of beach usage. A survey was conducted beach visitors to Chenang Beach, Malaysia, to assess the level of beach quality necessary for sustainable tourism development in beach areas. Hypotheses were tested using the second generation of SEM analysis, Partial Least Squares (PLS). The findings from the PLS approach confirmed that the beach's physical aspect and design had the most substantial and significant effect on the perception of beach quality. In contrast, environmental aspects and facilities and services do not determine the perception of beach quality due to the subjectivity of visitors' judgment and individuals' socioeconomic status. The existing tourism activities in the beach area conform to sustainable requirements in some of the cases. The findings have managerial implications for the use of local resources, and the content and upgrading of beach designs to meet visitors' needs and encourage their revisit intentions.

Keywords: Visitor's perception, beach quality, Chenang Beach, Malaysia

INTRODUCTION

For many tourism destinations, visiting beaches is the main attraction, and thus beach development is a prime consideration in coastal management, providing the primary source of income for some coastal communities, with beaches and the local economy closely correlated (Holden, 2003; Tudor & Williams, 2006). However, beaches are facing high usage with increasing pressure on local resources (Heller et al., 2011). Any future alterations, such as those regarding demographic shifts and regional environmental quality, might enhance beaches as tourist locations. The challenges that follow from such alterations prompt communities to take part in tourism development and strategic management. Ultimately, these management activities should assist in the development of networking beaches, which, in turn, should enhance the ability of coastal tourism stakeholders to pinpoint the most crucial potential challenges and identify ways to address them in a manner that is beneficial to all parties involved. Perceptions of beach usage can be shaped by socio-demographic factors and psychological variables, underlying needs, personal values, and personality (Galloway, 2002).

The last several decades have seen an increase in research into sustainable tourism, with beaches being considered in terms of tourist location, beach management, and resort evolution (Smith, 1992; James, 2000; Law et al., 2007) in increasing coastal tourism. However, with the increasing number of visits to tourist areas and worldwide competition, the importance of beach-user perception is relevant; for example, beach users' perceptions are another key variable in evaluating beach quality (Prati et al., 2016; Pena-Alonso et al., 2018a, 2018b). Beach certification schemes help outline this perception, enhance the facilities associated with beaches, and improve environmental quality. Even though beach management and its corresponding tools are not the main points of this work, they can be used in the study of the perception of beach quality, which is the major focus in this study. Similar research in the UK by Morgan et al. (1993) set a global precedent, and its translation into Spanish fostered significant progress in the study of beach quality as a tourist attraction (Barragán, 2003; Cendrero & Fischer, 1997; Cendrero et al., 2003; Cervantes & Espejel, 2008; Micallef & Williams, 2002; Nelson & Botterill, 2002; Roca & Villares, 2008, cited in Duvat, 2012, p. 1). Botero and Hurtado (2009) indicated that since 2000, according to the databases Science Direct and Scielo, 14 of the published works regarding the study of beaches as tourist destinations have contained the keywords 'beach management' while 7 papers have contained both 'beach' and 'classification'; most of these 21 papers were about geomorphology (19%), marine biology (19%) and tourist beaches (19%). Similarly, a review of the literature for the current study uncovered a connection between beach quality and tourism. However, previous research on tourism development has failed to incorporate factors influencing the perception of the quality of beaches and other tourist places. Therefore, while the study of the beach users' perceptions and priorities has been identified by different authors, few studies focus on beach users' diversity and the determining factors that affect them.

This study has some practical implications. Firstly, results from this study can encourage beach managers to maintain the beach environment; while tourist visitation is a function of health risk-free beaches (Marquez & Rosado, 2011), the deposition of oil and grease proceeding from industrial goods, leading to chemical contaminants, may negatively affect the quality of water and sand in beaches. The implication of the insignificance of environmental aspects in determining the beach quality of Chenang Beach may be due to ineffective environmental management programs to address the issues of beach litter and of the sand and water quality of the beach. Indeed, Torres-Bejarano et al. (2018, p.255) claimed that the quality of the beach water and sand have become important indicators of the worldwide competition of beach destinations.

Secondly, the significance of the physical aspects and the design of the beach implies that Chenang Beach tourists are concerned with the beauty, water quality, sand quality, and remoteness of the beach destination. Thus, it is equally important for beach regulators and managers to ensure that beaches are beautified with powder-soft white sand. The provision of such an environment for tourists will increase revisiting behaviour, as noted by the 632 travel journalists' decision on Grace Bay Beach (Kim, 2017).

Thirdly, our findings confirm the importance of beach managerial preferences in mitigating coastal erosion and meeting tourists' demands for the creation of high-value recreational

developments. It has been suggested that beach design and engineering structures serve as an effective tool to control erosion on beaches (Alvarez et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2010). In addition, our findings reveal that beach design is important to determine beach quality. This implies that beaches such as Chenang Beach in Malaysia have well-designed beach requirements and maintenance strategies, as meeting key beach requirements, such as swimming conditions, stability, slope, and surface, is important to improve the standard and quality of beaches and to minimize their related maintenance costs. Lastly, and crucially for tourism researchers, this study adds to and expands the current literature on beach quality determinants, and increases our understanding of sustainable tourism development. A holistic view of beach quality is important in the development and assessment of new tourism theories, and in providing a detailed look at what constitutes the service quality in beach usage.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As social and ecological systems, beaches provide an opportunity for interaction among ecological, physical, economic, and social dimensions, therefore offering numerous services and functions which are capable of improving human well-being (e.g., De Groot, 1992; Costanza et al., 1997; MEA, 2003; Farber et al., 2006; Beaumont et al., 2007; Brenner et al., 2010; Lozoya et al., 2014). Hence, Lozoya et al. (2014) compared both the expectations and the perceptions of users, which emphasised the importance of differential management. In addition to the apparent homogeneity, substantial differences were found between the two contrasting beaches examined in their research. Although specific preferences were found that were common to both beaches, in general terms, the priorities in the natural protected setting were natural characteristics, and in the urban setting were the facilities. Nonetheless, the traditional mass tourism model has an indisputable effect on users' expectations.

Consequently, a large number of studies have shown that beach visitors tend to express significant preferences for superior parking facilities and access. Conventionally, physical and biological characteristics have been incorporated into evaluating beach quality. Nevertheless, the growing importance of tourism and recreation necessitates new techniques for appraising beach quality. Thus, it is necessary to integrate social dimensions, such as the occupancy of the beach and users' perceptions, into management plans to ensure the satisfaction of beach users (Roca et al., 2008).

To improve beach quality, many studies have investigated users' perceptions or expectations of beach features (Tudor & Williams, 2006; Roca et al., 2009; Lozoya et al., 2014). Such studies have revealed that despite the proximity of the sample areas to each other, there can be numerous fundamental differences, such as the size or extension of the beach, the level of development, and so on. Moreover, Botero et al. (2014) highlighted that recreational parameters are an important criterion for appraising beach quality. However, an understanding of the importance of tourism to visitors along the coastal and beach areas in developing countries has not received adequate attention. Therefore, this study aims to measure visitors' perceptions using a range of

different variables covering physical and environmental dimensions, beach design, and services and facilities. Hence, in the preceding section, we have identified this research setting and described the conceptual model consistent with the extant literature regarding the perception of visitors and relational indicators. In the following sections, the conceptual framework will be formulated to describe the connection between the variables. After that, we will explain the research methods and discuss the determination of goodness of fit, construct validity, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and the reliability of the constructs. The results section analyses the findings and tests the hypotheses, and thereafter we conclude by discussing the implications of the study as well as the suggestions for future research (see Figure 1).

The hypotheses to be tested are as follows.

Physical Aspects

Some studies have utilised duration models in a tourism context. According to this perspective, the management of coastal resources should demonstrate the connections among all the components of the ecosystem, including humans, and the subsequent socio-economic impacts (Yáñez-Arancibia et al., 2013). Moreover, to achieve a consensus on coastal systems' and resources' sustainable management, it is essential to have the support of every sector of the administration (EC, 2007; Newton & Elliott, 2016). It is also necessary to engage different stakeholders including landowners, local communities, decision makers, and visitors, since they are the main actors in coastal planning and management (e.g., Bell et al., 2013; Borja et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2016; Petrosillo et al., 2013). Thus, while beaches can provide many natural, protective, and recreational functions, managers often give priority to the recreational activities, resulting in the homogenization of beach management practices that are inadequately adapted to beach settings and beach users (Lozoya et al., 2014). This led to the following hypothesis:

H1: Physical aspects are positively related to visitors' perception of beach quality.

Environmental aspects

While environmental degradation can affect the quality of visitors' experiences, visitors' perception of their impacts on the environment is not clearly understood. Moreover, the findings of previous studies are inconsistent regarding the degree of acceptability and the degree of satisfaction about the impacts from the visitors' viewpoint; visitors seem to demonstrate a greater concern about the impacts of issues such as tree damage, litter, and dangerously exposed tree roots (Leung & Marion, 2000). Hence, Hammitt and Cole (1998, p. 10) posited that the type of recreation provided by an area, the purposes of different user groups, as well as the goals of resource management influence visitors' judgments regarding good or bad impacts of tourism. The environmental dimensions differ between beaches and the physical aspects. Hence, to maintain the flow of tourists and sustain the tourism industry, it is fundamental for beach managers to have insights into the key factors that influence the beach environment. This is essential because beaches make substantial economic contributions to tourist destinations. Indeed, it is important that beaches should not be considered merely in physical terms since there are many concepts in the specialised literature on beaches in relation to the concept of environmental quality, for example, where the natural features of a beach depicted by chemical, physical, and

biological variables (Rocca et al., 2008; Vandermeulen and Cobb, 2004; Tudor & Williams, 2008). Thus, the universal connotation of environmental quality depends mostly on the inherent qualities of the area of the beach as well as its biological and physical parameters (Botero et al., 2015). However, such studies have not been conducted regarding the definition and assessment of the environmental quality of tourist beaches. Although significant efforts have been made to increase beach quality, few studies have been conducted in Asian countries. Moreover, it is fundamental for beach managers to have insights into the key factors relating to the beach environment (Chen & Bau, 2016). This led to the following hypothesis:

H2: Environmental aspects are positively related to visitors' perception of beach quality.

Facilities services

Regarding facilities, we evaluate the efforts made to improve the comfort, quality, and satisfaction of users, for example, the presence of lifeguards and the possibility of hiring various items (e.g., deckchairs, parasols, sailing and motor boats, tables, etc.), and we effectively assess this category (Roca et al., 2008). Morgan et al. (1993) noted that high socioeconomic status individuals often give low priority to visitor facilities, but are more critical of the inadequacy of facilities including a shortage of toilets. According to Tudor and Williams (2006), the issues that the public perceive as minor considerations when selecting a beach to visit include their perceptions of the availability of clean water, refreshment facilities, travelling distance to a beach, the existence of beach awards, and environmental quality. Furthermore, Ahmed, Azam, and Bose (2010) conducted an exploratory and empirical study where they examined tourist preferences regarding their tour's intentions in choosing diverse tour destinations based on their perceptions of beaches. The crucial factors to be considered when elucidating the intention to choose a tour destination in Bangladesh include service quality, security, natural beauty, and shopping facilities. Finally, Hau and Omar (2014, p. 1831) opined that service quality significantly and positively influences tourists' perceptions and satisfaction.

This led to the following hypothesis:

H3: Facilities services are positively related to visitors' perception of beach quality.

Beach design

Previous empirical studies have investigated the criteria of beach quality or users' perceptions and expectations regarding the features of the beach in order to improve beach quality. For instance, Phillips and House (2009), Ergin et al. (2004), and Philips et al. (2010) devised a scenic evaluation checklist system which should be utilised to rate coastal scenic quality. They posited that the identification of criteria or factors relating to the qualities of the beach is essential in ensuring beach quality. Similarly, Dahm (2003) conducted a review of the extant literature on the perceptions and values of beach users. They also investigated the perceptions of visitors regarding beach erosion, to which they attach high value and for which they utilize resources, the attitudes of beach users, and the preferences and perceptions of the community regarding beach erosion. According to the study, adequate consideration should be given to technical information

about hazardous interests and values of concerned parties including the general public, with a view to developing common solutions and developing an effective management of beach erosion. However, the identification of a unified technique for ascertaining the situation of a beach can be challenging because the parameters of the various quality schemes of beaches and coastal areas are significantly heterogeneous.

In addition to the above studies, there are other vital studies which deal with particular issues. For instance, Haller et al. (2011), in their post-technical review on beach management, identified five criteria for creating tourist beach types: beach quality, which depends on the beach-user density (BUD); beach services and infrastructure, which depend on the type of tourism; a particular code of conduct designed for every kind of beach; the influence on every beach of coastal practices and of the uses placed on it; and the distance from populated areas. All these issues can influence every kind of beach. Finally, of these five criteria four Tourist Beach Sorts (TBS) were highlighted: intensive, shared, ethnic, and conservative. The study also reported that the existing coastal communities are concerned regarding the loss of sand, which is caused by erosion, storm surges, and the accumulation of beach wreckage (Haller et al., 2011).

Furthermore, a review of the quality of beach awards indicated that several common codes of conduct are concerned with specific characteristics or hazards on the beach (Botero et al., 2014). This is consistent with the assertion that every kind of beach has a particular code of conduct. The empirical studies on coastal management have highlighted the conflicts among coastal activities as derived from many uses in a related area along the coast (Barragan, 2003; Cicin-Sain & Knecht, 1998; Kay & Alder, 2005). Consequently, it has been proved that coastal practices and the uses placed on the area influence the type of beach. Lastly, Nelson and Botterill (2002) reported an obvious and close relationship between rural beaches and the distance to urban centres, whereas Tudor and Williams (2006) also documented the effect on beaches of their corresponding distances to populated areas. Consequently, this discussion supports the view that ‘the distance from populated areas has an effect on the kind of beach’, since beaches for tourism have specific variables relating to their respective management (Botero & Hurtado, 2009). This led to the following hypothesis:

H4: Beach design is positively related to visitors’ perception of beach quality.

CONCEPTUAL RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

In order to address the issues highlighted above and to test the hypotheses, conceptual research framework was developed, based on the literature explained above, and this is illustrated in Figure 1. The conceptual framework has four independent variables, namely, physical aspects, environmental aspects, beach design, and facilities and services as independent variables (IVs), and perception of beach quality is included as a dependent variable (DV). The framework is used to study the direct effects of the relationships between independent variables on the perception of beach quality in Chenang Beach in Langkawi Island. The unit of analysis for the study

was individual visitors who were visiting Chenang Beach in Langkawi Island. To achieve the objective of this study, the authors collected the data from visitors to Chenang Beach.

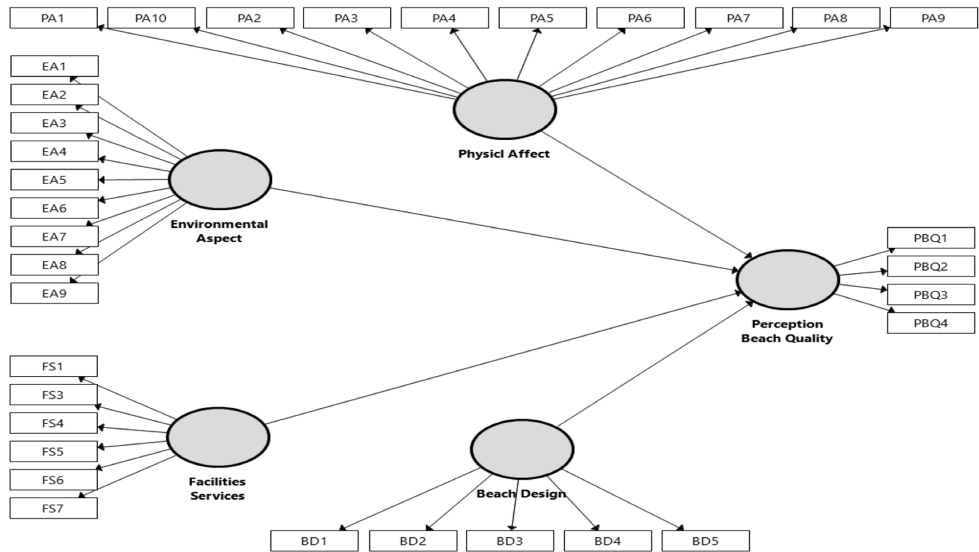


Figure 1: conceptual research framework

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The primary goal of the study is to present a methodology to assess beach quality based on user perception. Therefore, visitors' views of the relative importance of the physical aspects, environmental aspects, facilities and services, and beach design are the independent variables for visitors' perceptions regarding the beach quality at Chenang Beach of Langkawi Island, and the partial least square (PLS) technique is used to test the hypotheses. The framework also examined the factors that affected the visitors' perception of the good quality of a beach in the overall model. In this study, a questionnaire was used to collect the data. The questions for the questionnaire were derived from studies by Roca et al. (2008), Roca et al. (2009), and Villares et al. (2006). The questionnaire was divided into two sections. The first part comprised questions about the respondents' demographic characteristics. The second part was about the respondents' perceptions regarding the physical aspects, environmental aspects, facilities and services, and aspects related to beach design. In order to scrutinize the visitors' perceptions of Chenang Beach, the questions in each section were carefully planned and developed in such a way that they would maximize the respondents' understanding of the studied issues; this was further enhanced through the implementation of a Likert scale, the aim of which was to provide feedback of a higher quality and greater accuracy. The questionnaire for this research was developed in English, and was distributed among Chenang Beach visitors within the duration of their stay.

During the 1-month survey period, the researchers were able to administer 500 questionnaires, of which 425 questionnaires were returned. Out of these 425, 24 questionnaires were only partially completed, 11 respondents had given a constant scale measurement to all (or most of) the question items, and 12 were subsequently discarded during the data cleaning process. Hence, in total, 378 responses were received that were sufficiently complete to be suitable for analysis. The hypotheses of this study were tested using the second generation of structural equation modelling (SEM), known as Partial Least Squares (PLS), because it is more potent than the first generation. According to Ringle et al. (2005), using Smart PLS 3.2.7 tests the hypothesised relationship, which is a variance of the SEM technique for data analysis purposes.

Study area

Chenang Beach was selected to be the study area, as it is a significant tourist destination located on the southwest side of Langkawi Island in Malaysia. Chenang Beach is very popular during the peak season due to its strategic location, as it facilitates the exploration of nearby islands, such as Pulau Rebak Kecil and Pulau Rebak Besar. Thus, the construction of tourism facilities began when Chenang Beach was designated a coastal tourism destination in the early 1980s. Then, when Langkawi Island was designated a duty-free island in 1987, the development of tourist facilities increased exponentially, especially near the coastal areas and inlets. This growth subsequently resulted in the formation of a new type of coastal tourism, known as modern resort tourism (Marzuki et al., 2016).

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Assessment of the measurement model

The measurement model is used to assess the validity and reliability of the items used to measure the constructs. According to Hair et al. (2010), the cut-off value for loading factors at a minimum of 0.50 is significant. Measures may be considered valid if the loadings are more than 0.708 (Hair et al., 2017), the average variance extracted is more than 0.5 (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982), and the composite reliabilities are more than 0.7 (Chin, 2010). As seen in Table 1, all the measures for this study exceeded the cut-off values recommended in the literature. In addition, the study calculated the square root of the AVE, which exceeded the inter-correlations of the construct with the other constructs (Table 1); this ensured the discriminant validity of the study (Fornell & Larcker, 1981a). A systematic evaluation of PLS estimates reveals the measurement reliability and validity according to specific criteria associated with the reflective outer model. To assess the significance and the explanatory power of the measurement model, the criteria need to be evaluated. Furthermore, the reflective measurement of the model should be assessed to evaluate its reliability and validity. Table 1 shows the construct reliability of the variables and summarizes the results of the measurement model and provides the composite reliability index for all constructs that exceed the minimum acceptable value of 0.7 with Physical Aspects, which are at the maximum of 0.926, and a minimum of 0.804 for the perception of beach quality. The results indicate that all five constructs are valid measures according to the parameter estimates and statistical significance (Chow & Chan, 2008).

Table 1: Measurement model of PLS (n=378)

Latent variable	Question Items	Main Loading	AVE	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha
Beach Design	BD1	0.843	0.624	0.891	0.848
	BD2	0.868			
	BD3	0.797			
	BD4	0.635			
	BD5	0.786			
Environmental Aspects	EA1	0.572	0.527	0.907	0.890
	EA2	0.606			
	EA3	0.845			
	EA4	0.861			
	EA5	0.873			
	EA6	0.827			
	EA7	0.714			
	EA8	0.580			
	EA9	0.548			
Facilities Services	FS1	0.723	0.528	0.870	0.823
	FS3	0.772			
	FS4	0.747			
	FS5	0.698			
	FS6	0.660			
	FS7	0.755			
Physical Aspects	PA1	0.721	0.558	0.926	0.912
	PA10	0.608			
	PA2	0.765			
	PA3	0.685			
	PA4	0.791			
	PA5	0.787			
	PA6	0.848			
	PA7	0.813			
	PA8	0.703			
	PA9	0.716			
Perception Beach Quality	PBQ1	0.736	0.510	0.804	0.674
	PBQ2	0.810			
	PBQ3	0.581			
	PBQ4	0.710			

Note: EA10 was deleted due to main loading less than 0.5. PBQ5, FS2 and FS8 were deleted due to AVE less than 0.5; AVE: Average Variance Extracted.

Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) is a new criterion used to assess discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modelling (VB-SEM), for instance, Smart PLS. Discriminant validity is assessed using the HTMT ratio of the correlations technique developed by Henseler et al. (2015), and it shows that the new approach, HTMT, has a more reliable performance than the outdated Fornell-Larcker criterion (1981b). Thus, the HTMT criterion is straighter and is considered a better method for assessing discriminant validity. As shown in Table 2, this study uses the HTMT.85 criterion, which reaches higher sensitivity rates associated with other threshold values. The value is lower than the required threshold value of the HTMT0.85 criterion (Kline, 2011), thus indicating that discriminant validity was not an issue in the present study (Table 2).

Table 2: Discriminant validity of Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) (n=378)

Latent Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1. Beach Design					
2. Environmental Aspects	0.153				
3. Facilities Services	0.396	0.527			
4. Perception Beach Quality	0.336	0.111	0.194		
5. Physical Aspects	0.553	0.213	0.271	0.262	

Assessment of the structural model

Next, the study looked at the inner model to test the hypotheses. Figure 2 shows the visual results while Table 3 shows the detailed results. According to the above statements, the relationships of all the variables were assessed in one conceptual model, which was composed completely of four relations with consideration of the hypotheses. Four major relations were discussed in this model, and from all those relations, only two hypotheses were significant. In this section, the process of the path analysis was used to test the hypotheses and the relationships of the study. Figure 2 and Table 3 present the results. The R² value of perception of beach quality was 0.083, which suggests that the variance regarding the perception of beach quality was positively related to physical aspects ($\beta= 0.110$, p-values=0.030, t-value<0.5) and beach design ($\beta= 0.192$, p-values=0.004, t-value<0.5), meaning that these are significant predictors of the extent of perception of beach quality, while environmental aspects ($\beta=0.023$, p-values=0.387, t-value>0.5), and facilities and services ($\beta= 0.043$, p-values=0.227, t-value >0.5) were not significant predictors of the extent of the perception of beach quality. Another major relationship identified in this study was the relationship between the reasons why visitors came to this beach; these ranged from a desire to swim and sunbathe, to enjoy the landscape and nature, to practise beach sports, to walk and stroll, to play with children, and to practise water sports. These all had a significant relationship with regard to the physical aspects of the beach and the design of the beach. These results provided support for H1 and H4 (see Table 3 & Figure 2).

The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) has been considered to test for probable issues of multicollinearity. The incidence of a VIF greater than 3.3 is proposed as an indication of collinearity. Hence, if all the VIFs resulting from a collinearity test are less than 3.3, the model can be

considered as free of Common Method Bias (CMB). Therefore, at the factor level model estimation, the VIF was assessed in the collinearity diagnostics for values more significant than the suggested threshold of 3.3 (Diamantopoulos & Sigouw, 2006). A VIF value of 3.3 or higher shows a probable collinearity issue. The results indicated that the VIF values for all the latent variables confirm sufficient validity by virtue of a lack of multicollinearity (Table 3). However, the authors should also report on metrics such as 95% confidence intervals to test their hypotheses. In summary, confidence intervals are preferred to point estimates because confidence intervals indicate (i) the precision of the estimates and (ii) the uncertainty of the estimate especially if the researchers use the bootstrapping technique to perform the inferential test (Ramayah et al., 2016).

Table 3: Significance of direct effects- Path coefficients (n=378)

Hypothesis	Path	Beta value	SE	t-value	p values	Result	VIF	Confidence Intervals	
								5.0%	95.0%
H1	PS → PBQ	0.110	0.059	1.884*	0.030	Supported	1.364	0.028	0.221
H2	EA → PBQ	0.023	0.081	0.286	0.387	Not Supported	1.269	-0.155	0.147
H3	FS → PBQ	0.043	0.057	0.749	0.227	Not Supported	1.358	-0.037	0.147
H4	BD → PBQ	0.192	0.073	2.650**	0.004	Supported	1.418	0.072	0.309

Note: *p<0.05, t>1.645, **p<0.01, t>2.33, ***p<0.001, t>3.33(one tailed); SE: Standard Error

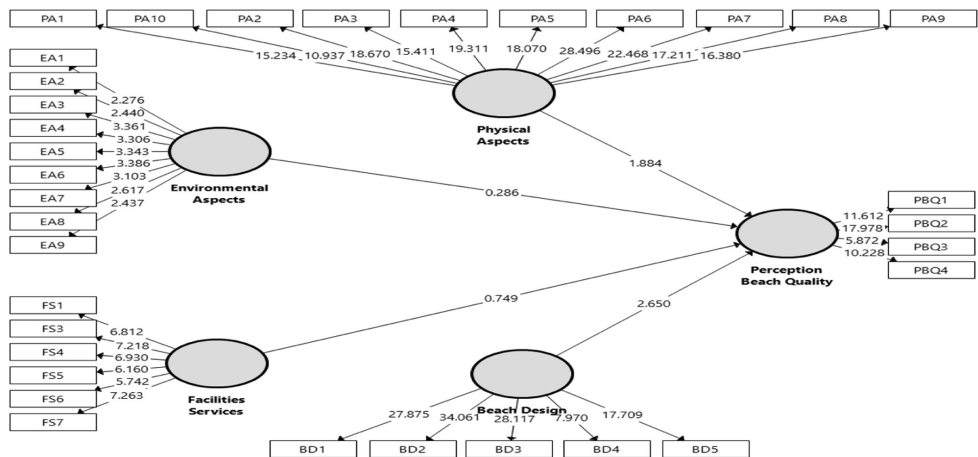


Figure 2: PLS-path analysis of t-values (n=378)

The assessment of the inner model (structural model) should be employed. Non-parametric

tests, like R^2 for dependent variables, the Q^2 cross-validation test (Stone-Geisser), and f^2 , explain the strength of effects used (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982). According to Cohen (1988), an R^2 value > 0.26 is a “substantial”, 0.13 is a “moderate” and 0.02 is a “weak” value, while according to Fassott (2003), a value of 0.083 for the perception of beach quality can be regarded as weak. Reliable and valid outer model estimations allow the inner path model to be evaluated. The predictive relevance (Q^2) reuse technique, popularly known as the Stone-Geisser’s Q^2 , can be applied as a criterion for predictive relevance and for examining the magnitude of the R^2 . Henseler et al. (2009) also utilised this measure to assess the research model’s ability to predict. Based on the blindfolding procedure, Q^2 evaluates the predictive validity of a model via PLS. Q^2 values larger than zero indicate that the exogenous constructs have a predictive relevance for the endogenous construct whereas Q^2 values less than zero represent a lack of predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2011). The Q^2 of perception of beach quality ($Q^2=0.034>0$) signifies that the research model has a good predictive relevance. Table 3 provides an overview of the typical criteria.

DISCUSSION

Although few studies in the extant literature have focused specifically on beaches (Micallef & Williams, 2002), evaluation of the different factors of recreational quality is essential for the management of beaches, especially in environments that experience an intensive occupation throughout the year, such as in the Canary Islands (Spain) (Ariza et al., 2010; Peña-Alonso et al., 2018). It was found in this study that at Chenang Beach, visitors’ perceptions were positively related to beach quality from a beach-user perspective. The factors in visitors’ perception (physical, environmental, facility and services, and beach design) were separately assessed with regard to the perception of beach quality.

Analysis of the relationship between the results obtained showed that physical aspects and beach design had the strongest effect on perception of beach quality (H1 and H4). This finding is consistent with the findings of previous studies (Roca & Villares, 2008; Roca et al., 2009). As Lozoya et al. (2014) indicate, the process of creating a system of indicators for the physical aspects of beaches can provide many natural, protective, and recreational functions, although managers frequently give priority to the recreation activities, resulting in the homogenization of beach management practices that are inadequately adapted to beach settings and beach users.

As well as the assumed environmental aspects of the perception of beach quality (H2), the results indicate that the time to revisit the beach and the persons accompanying the visitors to the beach have a direct negative effect on the perception of beach quality. However, in contrast to these results, Botero et al. (2015) claimed that the universal connotation of environmental quality depends significantly on the inherent qualities of the area of the beach as well as on its biological and physical parameters. Using a similar perspective, Peña-Alonso et al. (2018) conducted empirical research on beaches located in urban and semi-urban areas; their study revealed that environmental well-being on beaches is low due to the lack of appropriate

management and poor control of the microbiological quality of the bathing water; thus, it contradicts the requirements for frequented beaches. This concurs with the findings of other studies on the relationship between environmental aspects and the perception of beach quality. According to Tunstall and Penning-Rowsell (1998), local residents are aware of indigenous seaside conditions, tides, pollution sources, and the situation regarding currents. Therefore, residents' negative perception of environmental aspects may be due to their experiences of everyday life in the area, which makes them more attentive to the effects during the summer; for example, local people are not tolerant of litter, doubtless due to their understanding of its origins (visitors, tourism invasion, etc.). The justification of the final model is related to (H2); previously an idyllic local beauty spot and social hub, it has become the most congested beach in Langkawi with uncontrolled development, architectural pollution, traffic congestion, reduced public access to beach mark usual storyline of beach morphology. It is important that the authorities revise their strategies in order to keep this area sustainable.

In addition, in an attempt to examine the facilities and services influencing the perception of beach quality (H3), the results indicate that payment per day for the facilities and services, such as for the restaurant, leisure activities, supermarket, beach services, transport, etc. on the beach has a direct negative effect on the perception of beach quality. Consequently, this hypothesis should be rejected because, while the relationship was significant, the negative result was the opposite of what the authors had expected. In contrast to previous studies (Roca et al., 2009; Hau & Omar, 2014; Ariza et al., 2010; Williams & Micallef, 2009; Ahmed et al., 2010), it is opined that dimensions like services, facilities, and comfort are managed by local institutions which have significant and positive influences on the recreational beach quality. Furthermore, Ahmed et al. (2010) examined tourist preferences regarding their tour's intention when choosing diverse tour destinations based on their perceptions of beaches; the crucial factors for consideration when revealing the intention to choose a tour destination include service quality, security, natural beauty, and shopping facilities.

Another justification for the final model is related to (H3); the availability of areas equipped for recreational activities and sport are on the limit of acceptance. This situation highlights the problem of the surveillance beach which does not allow large developments on the sand surface. In this area, the aspects relating to life-saving were highly rated. These results suggest that any new design proposals for the beaches should meet the expectations of the beach users and be consistent with the activities carried out on the beaches, such as rentals of jet skis, windsurfing, restaurants and bars, car parking areas, and stalls/booths etc. Similarly, the activity areas should allow for a range of different uses, bearing in mind the preferences of the users, and these activities could be complemented by a plan for using the beach which should be in line with these activities (e.g. Villares et al., 2006; Roca et al., 2009).

The findings from the PLS approach confirmed that the beach's physical aspect and the beach design had the most substantial and significant effect on the perception of beach quality in Chenang Beach, Malaysia. In contrast, environmental aspects and facilities and services do not determine the perception of beach quality due to the subjective nature of visitors' judgment and

individuals' socioeconomic status. The existing tourism activities in the beach area conform to the sustainable requirements in some of the factors. The findings have managerial implications in the use of local resources and the upgrade of the beach design to meet visitors' needs and their revisit intention.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study provide some evidence to support the results of other studies regarding the relationship between beach users' perceptions of a range of aspects, such as the proximity of recreational facilities and natural settings in parks. These are an important influence on participation in physical activities, health, and well-being (Moore et al., 2010; Sugiyama et al., 2008). These factors mirror some of the factors this study has described as influencing beach usage. These findings have important implications and are of great value to industry (physical, environmental, facility and services, beach design). Furthermore, the study shows that the authorities, in addition delivering their responsibilities, need to ensure that residents have accessibility regarding information, actions, and programs that are taken and implemented about beach quality and tourism development. Thus, residents are equipped with the rationale for each operation, and this may influence their awareness level, which in return, helps shape residents' involvement and supportiveness. Additionally, academics may take this study to be a step towards continuing this field of research because there is scant literature regarding beach quality and visitors' perceptions. The authors are of the opinion that coastal managers and planners should use the results to meet the challenges of the increasing number of visits to beaches by considering how the values among visitors to beaches may be incorporated as part of their management strategy.

Conclusively, this study develops a more holistic approach to beach quality and design measurement regarding the procedures used to achieve sustainable tourism development in beach areas. This study also provides a guide for the development by SEM analysis; PLS provides a better explanation for visitors' perception of tourism and for identifying the factors related to beach quality and supporting tourism development. Conclusively, this study develops a more holistic approach to the measurement of beach quality and design within the procedures for sustainable tourism development in beach areas. This study also provides a guide for the development by SEM analysis; PLS provides a better explanation of visitors' perceptions of tourism and is more useful in identifying the factors related to the quality of the beach and the support for tourism development. It would be desirable if the results could be considered by the tourism-related authorities when designing and planning for Chenang Beach, mainly, and for other beaches, generally, in future tourism development. As a new approach, future research can offer a different analysis related to the nature and quality of a range of environments.

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Socio-economic implications of eco-tourism development in Taraba State, Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

Assessing the perceived tourism destination image of a place provides an important diagnostic insight into how tourists perceive the destination which is a very important marketing research tool for planning, development and promotion of her tourism industry. The tourism destination in Taraba State, Nigeria has witnessed tremendous attraction over the years from both domestic and international tourists. This research basically assesses the socio-economic implications of ecotourism development particularly as regards to resorts spots in the state such as the Gashaka Gunti National Park, the Rufu Rock and Water Falls, the Marmara Crocodile Pond and the scenic Mambilla Plateau. However, their socio-economic impacts were asses based on the level of international patronage and the level of integration of the people toward ecotourism development in the state. Data were collected by a combination of questionnaires, direct field observation and interview. Random sampling technique was adopted to verify the validity of the data collected in the field. Although findings reveal that between 2010 – 2016 there was a great variation in international patronage between the four resorts and also low level of awareness was another setback toward ecotourism development in the state. Nevertheless, ecotourism potentials in Taraba State has the capacity for job creation, poverty reduction, economic growth and general transformation of the entire state if all the stakeholders such as the government and private individual and the general public are committed toward the boosting and development of this laudable industry.

Keywords: Ecotourism, Socio-Economic, Destination, Development.

INTRODUCTION

The concept of ecotourism strives to harmonize and reconcile issues of intergenerational equity, and the goals of economic growth, environmental protection and social justice. It recognizes the need for fairness between local individuals and groups, and between hosts and guest (Ayodele, 2002) today ecotourism is an important engine of economic growth and job creation of most nation of the word (Prentice, 2007). However, in Taraba State a lots more are of vital natural and man-made capital stock(tourist attractions) bestowed upon the state that are required for the

development of any viable tourism product such as scenic; tours; cultural tourism; mountain climbing, biking and treks; ecotourism, religious or spiritual tourism, sports/recreation tourism and among others.

However, despite the state's position of comparative advantage over every other state in Nigeria in tourism attractions, the combined efforts of past government and the untiring efforts of private sectors, all geared towards ensuring that ecotourism gains its rightful place in the development process of the state, the situation on ground clearly shows that Taraba State is still far from claim of being Nigeria's "Nature's Gift to the Nation" and its "Foremost Tourist Destination". Besides, prominent factors have continued to re-echo the pace of development in this industry such as lack of measurable indices for periodic assessment, absence of proper database for effective planning, high level of ignorance, lack of holiday culture, absence of indigenous participation and so amongst others.

In the light of the above, this paper focuses on resort potentials as a vehicle for ecotourism development in Taraba State, with regards to its contribution to socio-economic development of Taraba States, level of international patronage, level of integration and participation of the people and the setbacks towards ecotourism development in the area. This paper is part of the growing effort to provide a theoretical framework for the analysis of the relationship between environmental, ecotourism conservation and tourism growth. The core of this analysis is the comprehension of the "sustainable tourism" concept, and the fact that clarity on the subject, and the values and premises that underlie it, is essential if sustainability aims are to be accomplished.

Towards sustainable tourism

The principle of sustainable tourism was proposed as early as 1988 by the World Tourism Organization, with sustainable tourism "envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems". Recalling previous declarations on tourism, such as the Manila Declaration on world tourism, the Hague Declaration and the Tourism Bill of rights and tourist Code, the Charter for sustainable tourism approved during the World Conference on sustainable tourism, held in Lanzarote in 1995, underlined the need to develop a kind of tourism that meets both economic expectations and environmental requirements, and respects not only the social and physical structure of its destination, but also the local population.

But what does such a way of understanding tourism development entail? Which are the major consequences of the adoption of a view aimed at ensuring the sustainable use of resources in tourism based on the diversity of opportunities offered by the local economy? From this perspective, it is useful to underline the principal aspects of sustainability when this is referred to the tourism sector (COOPERFLETCHER-GILBERT-WANHILL, 2000).

The concept of sustainability has a twin valence: on one hand there is the ecological aspect, that is the conservation of the natural equilibrium of all the components of the natural environment

(flora, fauna, water resources, etc), on the other hand there is the anthropological aspect, which could be expressed by the persistence of enjoyment of this environment in spite of growing tourist flows.

It is obvious, at least for the economist, that there is a strong relationship between the two characteristics (ecological and anthropological) of sustainability in tourist enterprise. In fact, the degradation of the weaker components of the natural environment, especially if it is irreversible, provokes, first of all, a slowdown in the development of tourist activity, with substantial consequences at a social and economic level. Such a situation of backwardness and impoverishment will subsequently result in a loss of interest in conservation and good use of natural and environmental resources, which are of great interest to tourists. Added to this there is also a substantial loss even in the financial profitability of the different commercial activities concerned.

For this sake it is worthwhile underlining how this interaction between environmental deterioration and economic profitability can be considered as the point which lies at the root of the well-known phenomenon of the life cycle of tourist businesses. In fact, this cycle starts off in areas of great value both in culture and in landscape, when the territory is characterized by environmental high quality. As natural, cultural and environmental resources are assaulted by tourist exploitation, sooner or later the territory concerned passes from “luxury tourism” to “cheap tourism”, appealing to the masses. The short-sightedness of the public authorities and of private operators induces us to assert that the loss in quality-both of the client-tourist and of the natural environment – may be compensated by the quantity, by growth in the number of tourist, hotels, complexes to host tourists and entertainment places in general.

Very soon the unsustainability of such a strategy oriented towards tourism for the masses, emerges in both its economic and environmental negative consequences. The elasticity of the demand for tourist services – when faced with a reduction in prices – beyond a certain level of decadence of these services and of environmental quality – shows a value which is inferior to the unit and shows a declining trend, with a consequential reduction in the profitability of the commercial tourist enterprises, in general.

At the same time, the congestion created by the influx of a greater number of tourists determines degradation in the environment, in the landscape, in the flora and fauna while transport and restaurant services reach levels which are incompatible with an efficient running of the businesses from and economic point of view. When such a situation reaches drastic limits, the whole region – from an initial situation of a sort of “heavenly isolated paradise” which justified “luxury tourism” – is hit by phenomena of tourist desertification, with serious situations of environmental deterioration, which are frequently irreversible, which are linked with bankruptcy and the flight of the more qualified tourist operators.

Sustainable tourism is not only a utopian choice, or anyway a privilege, only for the elite, as it was in the past centuries: even in the era of globalization and of tourist activities on a wide scale tourism sustainability is a realistic objective for economic and environmental policies.

However, it is worth underlining that the compatibility of the growth in supply of tourist services on one hand with environmental conservation on the other will be notably conditioned by the particular solution given for a series of complex problems, briefly stated hereunder:

LITERATURE REVIEW

Level of concentration of tourist business

The more the supply of tourist services – with both fixed and mobile infrastructures which condition it – is concentrated in the territory, the higher the risk of damages to the environmental equilibrium (Querini, 1999). Such damages will get worse, especially in developing countries, if the pressure of tourist services tends to add up to the pressure on environmental resources of other productive businesses (agriculture, mining, fishing), which already critical in those regions of a particular country, which are highly populated and industrialized. Generally speaking, these costs of congestion will result much higher than the possible economies of scale which can actually be reached in the services and in the infrastructures with the concentration and the spreading of the tourist business themselves. Therefore, both in those countries which are economically advanced, but above all in developing countries, usually it is to be hoped that a high level of decentralization of tourist activities is achieved through the utilization of advanced “clean” technologies, such as biological agriculture, solar energy and the recycling of wastes.

Integration with the local ambient

A rigorous conservation of the natural environment, thanks to the maintenance of technological, cultural and traditional values, which have sometimes been perpetuated for centuries in the local populations, which it usually seems hard to reconcile with an influx of a massive kind of tourism, inevitably oriented towards a cultural genocide with a show off of its hedonism and its capability of consumption. The defense of the natural environment, especially in poor countries, seems to be linked to the conservation of the traditional culture, in its various expressions: the use of agricultural land, water control, eating habits, social and housing architecture, use of free time. The creation of a new supply of tourist services should not only respect these local cultural customs but also increase their potentials with the aim of launching a fruitful dialogue between the various elements: the local resident, jealous of his own cultural originality, and the foreign tourist, who is keen on discovering new places and different life styles, in the hope of a tourism that is more responsible towards our common heritage.

The contribution that a far-sighted strategy of a growth in tourist supply can directly offer towards the conservation of the environment is not to be neglected, especially in developing countries, which are today the most threatened by an irreversible ecological degradation. Moreover, tourism can indirectly induce growth in the awareness of the public opinion on great ecological issues, having a worldwide dimension, both at an international and a national level. The solicitations coming from both the public opinion and the scientific community show that the task to draw out and accomplish the technological instruments which are necessary for the conservation of natural and environmental resources differ greatly from one country to another. From

various research projects carried out by international institutions one comes to the conclusion that major environmental problems crop up at a local level, and have to do mainly with the elimination of toxic or dangerous wastes, as well as water pollution. Instead, at a global level, public opinion is particularly worried by the progressive disappearance of forests and by sudden climatic changes.

Relationships between tourism activities and technological innovations

Any “ecological scenario” one may assume for the coming decades it is extremely probable that each country will have to face phenomena both of scarcity of certain natural resources (natural and forest resources) and above all, air and water pollution. This means that such problems will no longer be on a national scale but on a worldwide scale. At this point a crucial question crops up: will scientists and those involved in technology have enough common sense and motivations to solve the problems that the ecological scenario now offers in an urgent and undelayable manner? A historical analysis of technological changes does not reply to the worrying question if scientific progress should proceed in a completely independent manner with respect to the economical sphere –and only subsequently it could become a source of productive innovations – or if the casual process is actually moving in the opposite direction. In the sense that the autonomous evolution of the production of goods and services – to satisfy the necessities of mankind, expressed on the market through prices – is prosaically the real driving force of scientific and technological discoveries.

However, whatever the most probable interpretation of its role may have been in the past, it now seems ever more evident that, in the present situation, public opinion and economic agents put their trust especially in science to gain a tranquillizing solution for the emerging scarcity of natural and environmental resources. The performances of science – especially in the last decades – seem to be reassuring as far as its capacity of overcoming the challenge that such emerging scarcities present.

There is, however, an evident risk: that technological solutions, imposed at an international level, in the name of presumed cultural primates and arrogant political imperialisms – may lack in flexibility and the promptness necessary to be able to face situations which differ greatly on a world wide scale.

The general trust in the capability of the scientific community to overcome the scarcity of natural resources – above all if it is capable of overcoming the national and scientific perspectives – points out, however, the risk that at the end one meets another limit, the only one which it is really impossible to overcome for the survival of mankind: the lacking cultural and ethical capability of respect for the poor and those who are “different”, their dignity and their right to a creative and decent survival.

ECO-TOURISM IN THEORY AND PRACTICE

Eco-tourism has attracted increasing attention in recent years not only as an alternative to mass tourism but as a means of economic development and environmental conservation (Ceballos, 2004). Eco-tourism ventures have also sustained the economy of most nations e.g East-African countries like Kenya, Tanzania etc. Its global value for 1998 has been estimated to have as high as US\$1 trillion (Filion et al,1992). It has often proved to be a powerful incentive for conservation in many parts of the world. In Sri-Lanka, eco-tourism activities along the coast have remained the main stay of the economy. With about 80 percent of tourism infrastructure in coastal areas, it contributes about USD 200 million annually to the national economy. Ceballos, (2004) projected that this was going to double by the year 2000.

However, some travelers stay several months of swimming, surfing and the friendly ambience, with the average expenditure at USD 32 per day. This also applies to places like Sikkim Himalaya, an area of high biodiversity and cultural heterogeneity with distinctive ethnic groups, mountain peaks, sacred lakes and monasteries, making it a place of tourist attraction. The annual influx of visitors into Sikkim has increased by 155 percent over a span of 5 years (1988-1994). Trekking, nature and recreational tourism are growing very rapidly in the Sikkim Himalaya. The socio-economic conditions for people involved in the tourism businesses have also improved. The state has a rich tradition of nature conservation (Wallace, 2007). There is a vast scope for increased eco-tourism in Sikkim that must be viewed with response to environment preservation, and local communities, must be involved in such programs. Ecotourism has remained a high business for areas that have invested in it. It is estimated for instance that in 1988 there were between 157 and 236 million international eco-tourists worldwide. It is also estimated that between 79 and 157 million people could be considered wildlife oriented. In Costa Rica tourism values associated with visits by birds watching to observe the resplendent quetzal and the vanishing cloud forests of Monteverde. Yet contributions to the economy arising from bird watching are often under rated.

However, the financial benefits derived from nature tourism are only of value to the resources upon which they depend if used at least in part to maintain those resources. In the USA revenue regenerated by tourism in visits to national parks amounts to US\$3 billion a year. So far however, the proceeds have gone mainly to hoteliers, restaurants, and purveyors of gasoline, fishing gear and t-shirts. But this revenue could benefit the parks if those who currently receive it formed a lobby for improved protection of the parks. Of course, the same could be said of any country that is engaged in ecotourism development. As pointed out earlier, native tourism cannot be equated with tourism unless it directly produces better protection. This is one reason why the Australian government is seeking to ensure that tour operators who profit from the Great Barrier Reef contribute to its maintenance (Straisund, 2000).

Income, however, is only part of the park unless it helps resolve root causes of environmental degradation. Most threats to ecotourism resources arise from the need of local populations to use the natural resources for subsistence purposes (Ceballos, 2003). Yet traditional rural

activities such as agriculture and hunting may have to be limited or prohibited precisely because of protected area development. One of the challenges facing nature-based tourism then is to ensure that local communities earn an appropriate share of the profits derived from eco-tourism while at the same time conserving the natural and cultural heritage upon which these profits depend (Aremu, 2001).

METHODOLOGY

Study Area

Taraba State lies within the middle belt region of Nigeria and is located within 90.35° and 110.30° east of the Greenwich meridian and latitude 60.30° north of the equator. It has a land-mass of about 60,000sqkm which is about 6.6% of the nation land mass.

Taraba State is rightly tagged nature gift to the nation. It is an undeniable fact that there is no better natural gift to the nation in Nigeria than Taraba State. The state is criss-crossed with rivers, streams, waterfalls and springs. It is characterized by two types of climate – the temperate climate on the Mambilla Plateau and the tropical climate in other parts of the state. It is a state blessed with fertile farm land and abundant forest resources.

To preserve the forest and enormous resources therein, Taraba State government has forty-nine (49) forest reserves, ninety-eight (98) plantations and three (3) major game reserves including the famous Gashaka Gumti National Park. Other tourist attractions in the state are the Zing holiday resource, the Maihula mountain, the Waterfalls, Nwonyo fishing festival, the famous Mambilla plateau, Marmara crocodile pond, special rock features etc. such beautiful environment in Taraba State has encourage the establishment of these tourist resort which further reinforces the attractiveness of Taraba State to visitors.

The research was restricted to, four tourist resort in Taraba State; such as the Gashaka Gumti National Park, Rufu Rock and Water Falls, the Marmara Crocodile Pond and the Scenic Mambilla Plateau. Data were collected from management of each tourist resort through interviews, field observation and questionnaires. Three hundred and thirty-six questionnaires were administered to various respondents along the streets, attraction sites and residential areas within the study environment using random sampling technique which allow every member within the study area to have equal chance of been selected for this study. In addition, scheduled interviews and structured dialogue were conducted with selected private and public sector representatives, politicians and resort management. Random sampling technique was applied to ensure that every member have equal chances of being selected. The questionnaire was to probe the contribution of tourist resort to economic development, the level of international tourist patronage and integration or participation of the people in ecotourism development in Taraba State.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The data collected in the field were presented in tables. Table 1 basically to assess the contribution of Gashaka Gumti National Park, Rufu Rock and Water Falls, the Marmara Crocodile Pond and the Scenic Mambilla Plateau in the socio-economic development of Taraba State.

Table 1: Socio-economic impact of tourist resort in Taraba State

OPTION	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE (%)
A. Income generation	36	10.7
B. Transfer of Idea	16	4.8
C. Employment	18	5.4
D. Expansion	4	1.2
E Educational Advancement	18	5.4
F. Provision of infrastructure	8	1.2
G. All of the Above	236	70.2
Total	336	100%

Source: Field work (2016)

Table 1: it was observed that all the listed developmental variables were achieved in the area as the last option in the table has 70%. In spite of these, income generation was also notice to be high on individual note with a value of 10.7% as compared to other factors. With regards to patronage, data collected shows fluctuation in terms of tourists patronage between 2010 - 2016. Although 2012 recorded the highest tourist patronage in Gashaka Gumti National Park and the Scenic Mambilla Plateau with values 7032 and 737 respectively. The data also shows that there have been successive increase of international tourist in Gashaka Gumti National Park, the Rufu Rock and Waterfalls and the Scenic Mambilla Plateau in 2014-2016 even though Rufu Rock and Waterfalls suffered with regards to international tourist from 2011-2015. As compared to other resorts Marmara Crocodile pond, even though it had a fluctuation in international patronage between 2012-2015, the data collected still reveals high influx of international tourist between 2011-2015.

Table 2: International patronage of tourist resort between 2010-2015 in Taraba State.

YEAR	GASHAKA GUMTI NATIONAL PARK	RUFU ROCK AND WATER FALLS	MARMARA CROCODILE POND	THE SCENIC MAMBILLA PLATEAU
2010	6,100	1,051	581	2,564
2011	7,032	4,980	737	2,979
2012	5,382	216	409	3,391
2013	3,397	213	101	1,164
2014	2,979	1,679	811	2,204
2015	4,085	653	551	3,493
TOTAL	28,975	8,792	3,190	15,795

Source: Management of the resort (2016)

Table 2: Reveals that the level of international tourist patronage varies from year to another. Data in table 2 shows that a high level of international tourist 7,032 were recorded by the Gashaka Gumki National Park.

However, eco-tourism development in Taraba State suffered setbacks ranging from poverty, lack of facilities, lack of subsidies, low level of awareness, illiteracy and poor planning. The percentages from figure 2 were derived from the percentages of each variable.

Table 3: Setbacks towards resort development in Taraba State.

OPTION	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE (%)
A. Poverty	7	2.1
B. Lack of Facilities	3	0.9
C. Lack of Subsidies	2	0.9
D. Low level of awareness	120	35.7
E. Illiteracy	4	1.2
F. Poor Planning	5	1.4
G. All of the Above	195	58
Total	336	100.0

Source: Field Work (2016)

Eco-tourism development in Taraba State has suffered setbacks ranging from poverty, lack of facilities, lack of subsidies, low level of awareness, illiteracy and poor planning.

Table 3: Shows that all the above mentioned variables, constitute a major setback towards eco-tourism development in Taraba State as the last option had a value 58%. Table 3 reveals the remote and immediate constraints towards eco-tourism development in the area.

FUTURE CHALLENGES OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN TARABA STATE

1. In the future of tourism industry will face many challenges as it becomes increasingly important. Government and private enterprises will be required to work together advancing and developing the tourism industry. This requires a higher level of awareness and management skills and thus a greater need for education.
2. Attempting to develop tourism attractions encourages the government to enhance on physical development such as road construction, hotels and provision of our social amenities like energy and portable water supply. The development and promotion of tourism enhance the development of these auxiliary facilities needed for an efficient tourism operation.
3. The availability of human resources is perhaps the greatest issue facing tourism in developing countries. There is an inadequacy of skill labour at all levels and training facilities lacking in volume or quality in develop countries where tourism often has a poor image as an employer.
4. There is the absence of long term tourism work programme as well as the absence of well-articulated criteria for planning and development of tourism facilities.
5. The absence of functional instruments for tourism development and promotions and this has facilitated uncoordinated expenditure of the small financial allocation at the various level of the tourism industry resources are concentrated on building hotels (as if hotels hold the greatest attraction to foreign tourist) while other tourism segment are neglected. Infrastructural and other auxiliary services especially those needed in tourist centres or areas are persuasively lacking or poorly developed.

CONCLUSION

The unique tourism attraction in Taraba State and the appreciable climate has made the state one of the tourism haven in West Africa. Today the favourable climate conditions in Taraba State has attracted many tourist to her numerous tourist spots. Tourism, as a world-wide phenomenon, touches the highest and deepest aspirations of all people and it is also an important element of socio-economic and political development in many countries. Governments, other public authorities, public and private decision-makers whose activities are related to tourism, and tourists themselves, consider it a priority to protect and reinforce the human dignity of both local community and tourists themselves, consider it a priority to protect and reinforce the human dignity of both local community and tourists. Because of this all these agents have registered a growing

concern in sustainability as a guiding principle to allow the integration of economic development with environmental and social aspects within tourism policy and strategy.

But the incorporation of sustainability in tourism development is not a self-evident issue but a politically contested one, if the different interpretations of the concept which have been identified are taken into account. These differing, sometimes conflicting, interpretations are not accidental, but rather the outcome of particular ideologies, varied disciplinary backgrounds, value systems and vested interests. Despite the wide range of varying definitions, at its core tourism sustainability lies: strong emphasis to three simple concerns:

- The need to avoid the uncontrolled destructive degradation of the environment and the loss of local identity, while respecting the fragile balance that characterizes many tourist destinations, in particular environmentally sensitive areas;
- The need to actively pursue and strengthen the quality of life and equity between present generations;
- The exigency not to reduce the opportunities offered to future generation.

If the core elements of tourism sustainability – ecology, economy, and equity – are to be taken into consideration for balanced strategies, there are many gaps in our knowledge that need to be filled if we are to be successful in controlling tourism in a way that puts this important economic sector into a sustainable development path. Several analyses have emphasized this point. Nevertheless, there are no definitive answer, particularly in the field of fairness and distributional justice of tourism options. This paper has identified issues for future consideration, especially in view of making tourism become compatible with the conservation of major ecosystems and with the preservation and good use of historical – cultural heritage and ecotourism potentials in Taraba State.

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The impact of oil price fluctuations on tourism demands of OECD countries

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ABSTRACT

Oil as a raw material in the world for supplying energy is a great significance. Therefore, the role and checking the effects of fluctuations in the tourism industry is necessary. Dependence of industrialized countries to this substance and economic influence of oil price fluctuations reveals the significance of these developments. The main objective of this article is to evaluate the effect of oil price fluctuations on tourism demand, during the years “2000-2014”. The investigated patterns of this research were measured by panel data for 19 countries and have been estimated by using autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity. The results of estimation represent a significant and positive impact of oil price fluctuations of variables on income and tourism input, GDP (Gross domestic product), the real effective exchange rate, oil price, trade liberalization index and negative impact on the consumer price index. It is suggested that if a significant portion of oil revenues be spent on development of the base of the tourism industry we’ll see an increase in the number of tourists entering the country and an increase of countries’ revenues through the entering of tourists. The adoption of appropriate economic policies, in line with the tourism development policies, such as the appropriate rate of exchange, can help to reduce the travel costs and it enhances the competitive advantage of this industry.

Keywords: oil price, tourism demands, OECD countries.

INTRODUCTION

In modern times, the oil had the major role in shaping the economy, political and economic developments. (Hang & partners, 1996). Therefore, evaluation the impact of oil price fluctuations on demand in the world, especially OECD countries, which are the greatest consumers of oil, which mostly use imported oil, has a great importance. These countries that actually set to be included as developed countries with the free economy are still the greatest consumers of oil and energy. Although the share of these countries of energy consumption’s and world oil due to

rapid economic growth and energy demand in developing countries such as China and India is declining. But these countries in 2013 allocated 46 percent of global oil demand. According to the request of the concerned countries in 2025, percent of world oil demand will reach to about 48 percent. (The International Energy Agency, 2014). Oil price shocks due to the redistribution of income between oil exporting and importing countries are leading to changes in aggregate demand. In the wake of the oil shock in the 1970s, many studies on the relationship between oil prices and activities in sections such as agriculture s and services had been done. The first study in this field was conducted by Hamilton (1983). He claimed “the oil price fluctuations have a major role in determining the global economic cycle and is one of the America’s recessions in the industrial sector. The chart number 1 shows the process of petroleum price and the dependence rate of OECD countries to import petroleum. The sharp decline in oil prices increased fuel consumption and declining production caused growing dependence on imported oil. This trend continued until the Persian Gulf War from 1991 until 2002, oil prices decreased with a steady process and the reason for declining share price of imported petroleum was the lapse of petroleum production of OECD countries and the index in 1996 rose again to 60percent. One of the main reasons of the index increase could be the growth of OECD countries and the relative decline of petroleum production in the U.S and the relatively stable petroleum prices.

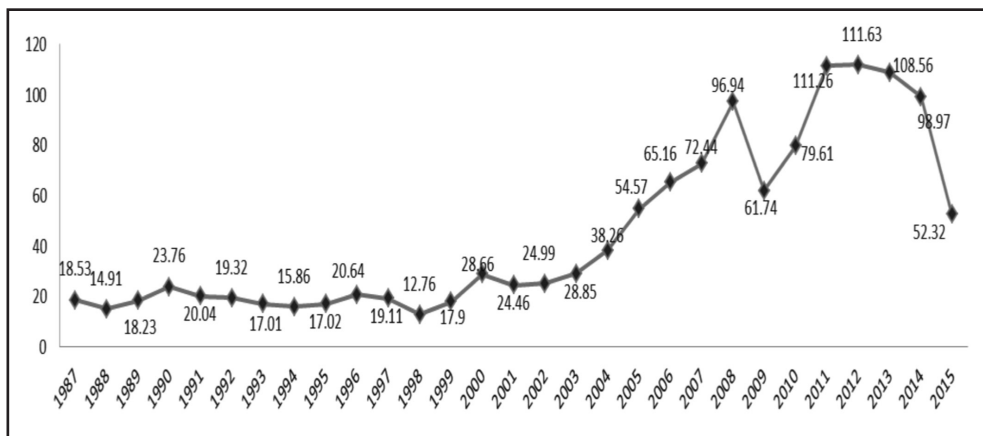


Figure 1: Oil yearly prices in 1987-2015

Reference: U.S. Energy Ministry available online at: <http://www.eia.gov/petroleum/>

With the difficulties in year 2000, in America and the world economic growth, prices continued their upward trend. With the beginning of the rise in crude oil prices from 2001, OECD countries dependence on imported crude oil fell to 51% at the beginning of the 2003, that it represents well the vulnerability of the oil shocks of the industrialized countries. Of course, the vulnerability and the degree of dependence on imported crude oil among OECD countries are different. In mid-2003 the over capacity was less than 2 million barrels per day and during 2004 and 2005 the empty capacity was less than 1 million barrels. In a world where consumers, consume more than 80 million barrels each day, the reduce of empty capacity creates high risk

to crude oil prices that lead to increase price to 40 or 50 dollars each day, the other reasons like dollar weakness or rapid growth of the Asian economy led to high prices. Available statistics indicate that some countries such as Japan, Swedish, South Coria, which import almost all their crude oil consumption, the amount of vulnerability is more, and in some other countries such as Netherland, Ireland which amount of the above indices (the share of imported oil of total consumption of crude oil) are less than the average of OECD countries, the vulnerability degree is less (Ghasemi, 1383). 2010 was faced with a drop in demand for oil that caused a decrease in oil prices, during 2010-2011 the oil price increased and from 79\$ a barrel reached to 111\$ a barrel and from 2012 onwards we have seen a downward trend in oil prices.

Due to the growing demand for new and renewal energy which have less environmental pollution, the OECD countries follow some plans for underpin the economy and their countries revenue on the basis of things other than oil. One of the industries that can be useful for non-oil revenue is tourism industry.

The tourism industry in the 21st century is one of the main pillars of the national economy of each country, and also as clean industry is one of the world's most thriving economic activities (Krozek, 2015). Now this industry with faster growth than other sectors of economy in many countries and with creating new jobs is seen as the leading industry, and nowadays it is so important in socio-economic development of countries that economists have called named it invisible export. 2015 was an evidence of the important developments of this industry in the global arena, that typically most members of the community could not imagine their lives without it. Despite local wars, terrorist attacks, epidemics and cataclysms such as the earthquake and tsunami, the tourism around the world has been developed dynamically (Krozek, 2016). According to the UN world tourism organization, more than 1 million tourists have traveled around the world in 2014, while domestic tourist movement is estimated 4 billion people

Tourism plays an important role in relation to international and nations in today's world and today after oil as a commercial commodity, it is a full International revenue And a large amount of the world's total GDP. So that during the past two decades has been the world's fastest growing economic sector (Sarah Jr., Rio, 2007).

Figure 1 shows the share of tourism in GDP in OECD countries, tourism plays a key role in the global economic activity, job creation, revenue from value-added exports and domestic. On average, 4.1% of GDP tourism directly contributed 5.9% of employment and devoted 21.3% of exports service to OECD countries. Also, about 80 percent of exports on domestic value added tourism sector with the highest average of the total economy.

OECD countries play a prominent role in international tourism. International inputs to OECD countries compared to global input estimate are 54% (compared to 57% in 2012). International tourist arrivals to the entry of the OECD average in 2014 increased 6.4% faster. This number is far ahead of the 3.6% growth recorded in 2012 is input to OECD countries (OECD Tourism Trends and Policies, 2016).

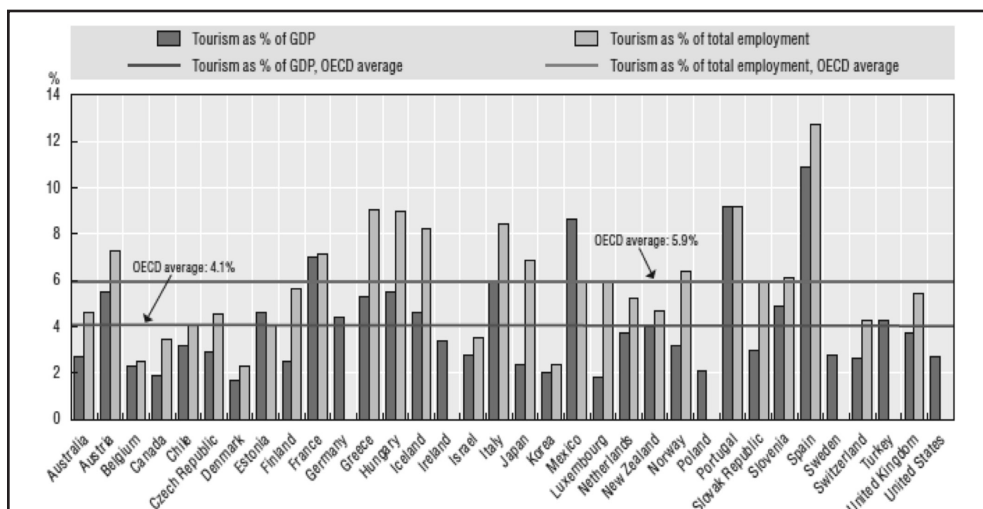


Figure 2: Tourism’s contribution to GDP OECD countries
Reference: Tourism Statistics OECD, 2016

As different countries are influenced by to oil market, fluctuations of the price of this valuable material have a great impact on economic growth of oil consumer countries. Moreover, oil price fluctuations have a direct effect on tourism of such countries. The global tourism is affected by economic growth of oil importing countries. The lower economic growth dampens consumption, including consumption associated tourism (Marian, 2006). Structural conditions in the economy of any country, the relationship between oil prices affect economic growth and oil consumption. Given that tourism is an energy intensive sector often travel (air and ground) are dependent on oil. Petroleum price changes in transportation (for example carfare and fuel prices) and the cost of production may cause damage to the tourism sector and economic activities as well as the economic uncertainty and the disposable income (Becken, 2008), developed countries tend to have higher ownership vehicle for this reason, the use of oil in transportation sector in OECD countries usually have play a larger share of total oil consumption in non-OECD countries.

The issue can be examined from different aspects. On the one hand, the increase in price caused by the scarcity of energy as a raw material for manufacturing firms.it is the factor of rising fuel costs and transport. Thus, reducing the tourists tend to go to these countries will follow in the long run this will lead to reduced revenues from tourism exchange and industrialized countries is declining (Manara et al., 2007).

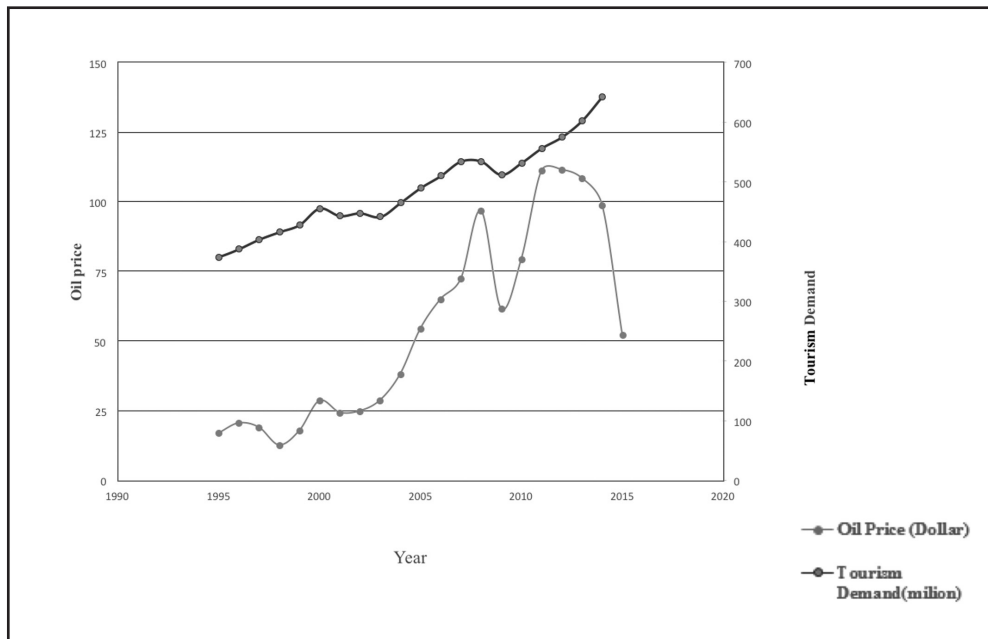


Figure 3: Tourism demand and oil prices

Fluctuations in oil prices, which have investigated, have essential needs the relationship between the development of the tourism sector, economic growth and oil. Especially for countries whose tourism is main industry.

Revenue from the tourism sector could potentially help them to achieve develop strategies and their goals. However, it should be stressed that the fact that countries with high dependence on oil, tourism activities, they are unevenly exposed to sudden fluctuations in oil prices (Becken, 2012). The aim of this paper is to examine the impact of oil price fluctuations on tourism demand in selected OECD countries.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Oil as an important commodity for the global economy and is a vital material for industrial countries and on the other hand the necessity of research on the relationship between oil price fluctuations and tourism development is necessary in this regard, several studies have been done on the outside and inside that can be pointed include oil as an important commodity for the global economy and a vital matter for industrialized countries and on the other hand the importance of tourism and the use of different instruments for its expansion and take advantage

of social and economic benefits for countries, research on the relationship between fluctuations in oil prices is necessary to develop tourism.

Some studies worked on the subject of the present paper are as following. Hunt et al. (2010), Asali (2007), and F. Murray (1983) to study the effects of fluctuations in oil prices. Brodastug and Han (2010) to study the effects of oil price to transportation prices in. Masada et al. (2010) Aslant et al. (2009), Mohammadzadeh (2010) and Estate et al. (2015) refers to tourism demand Fillips et al (2016) the relationship between oil price shocks and tourism variables and economic indicators in four Mediterranean countries have their results show that oil demand shocks simultaneously stock index and inflation affect tourism, while the shocks to It seems that interruptions are not effective compared with income affect aggregate demand shocks in oil prices to a standstill tourism and economic growth applied directly or indirectly. Eixles et al. (2013) examined the relationship between tourism revenue, according to construct oil prices and economic growth involved in VAR structure in Mediterranean countries. The results show that oil demand shock simultaneously affecting the tourism sector stock index and there is no evidence that supply-side shocks give any reaction to the remaining variables. Bekan et al. (2012) began examined the concept of rising oil prices for tourism.

Results indicate that global oil scarcity leads to higher prices they are generally negative on importing countries a strong negative effect on national tourism in long-range markets. Lennox (2012) the effect of increasing oil prices in tourism in New Zealand began using general equilibrium model. Their results suggest that fluctuations in oil prices due to a combination of price and income effects more impact on the tourism sector's exports section. Masyda and Itzu (2012) have been review the major determinants main flow two regions in Italy.

Researchers density of population variables into account as the proportion of capitation GDP conventional demand-side variables transportation infrastructure, culture and public safety as supply side factors introduced And using dynamic panel (GMM) and using 1998-2007 periodic data to estimate the demand for their tourism. The results show that local government protection of cultural activities had a positive impact on tourism. Statistical analysis of the supply side of tourism such as culture, public safety facilities, and transportation were low, however, all coefficients were significant and it opens proven economic and qualitative components of the supply side is effective in attracting tourists.

Lim and mac aler (2001) using data 1996-1975 review some important economic variables such as income, prices, tourism, transport costs of demands exchange rates from Australia's tourism between the two countries, Hong Kong and Singapore. According to estimates, per capita income source countries as the most important determinant of tourism demand. Tourism Australia also indicates that long-term relationship between income and the cost of living Transportation costs in Australia are foreign exchange rates.

Mohamadzadeh and Najafinasab (2010) causal relationship between the tourism industry and GDP in Muslim countries during the period have 1995-2005 Prdakhth. They used panel data

and Granger causality test. Their results showed that a one-sided relationship of GDP to the tourists. Mousavi et al. (1394) to assess the impact of oil price changes on demand asymmetric in OECD countries using structural time series models 1965-2012 Prdakhth years and results suggest that the hypothesis of equal coefficients that reflect the price Reversibility Morin total oil demand of OECD countries as a rule on oil consumer, and changes in oil prices have asymmetric effects on demand and also the results show that it is the underlying trend as a demand effective and smooth oil is non-linear in nature. Pazuki et al. (1392) examined the impact of oil price fluctuations explanation and analysis of oil-importing countries of OECD, OPEC demand 1970-2011 seasonally focused over the years. The results obtained in different countries show that the OPEC oil price, increasing effect of oil importing countries is not similar. According to an asymmetric effect of price volatility. Said the Prophet (1388) in the article appearing the interaction between the growth rate of oil prices and economic growth in the OECD countries over the period 1980 to 2005 using quarterly data began.

Results show that oil effect of price level of real GDP OECD countries is limited to the short term. In addition to Granger causality between the growth rates of gross domestic product growth rate of real oil price in each of the country but the reverse is not connected. Salehy et al. (1391) examined the impact of oil price shocks on returns stock Tehran's securities.

Results indicate that oil supply shocks have a significant effect on oil prices, but oil demand and aggregate demand shocks from factors affecting numerous stock returns in Tehran Stock Exchange.

Pour, Kazemi, and Rezai (1385), in a review article appearing in the tourism industry's performance using non-parametric methods (Iran and the region) and due to non-parametric methods based on mathematical programming methods based on evaluating the performance of the tourism industry in Iran, compared to other countries in the region focused.

The results show that according to the first method, the tourism industry in Bahrain, Turkey, and Syria had the greatest efficiency and with regard to the second method, the tourism industry in the United Arab Emirates and Azerbaijan also joined the Kara countries. Finally, according to the model of Turkey based on these findings, we can conclude that inefficient countries in order to increase their efficiency should be the role model for the Turkish tourism industry.

Syrian et al. (1389) present an analysis of the relationship between oil demand and economic growth in the Middle East began. OECD had According to the results of the factor related to positive changes in oil, and significant high coefficient of negative changes in oil and small and statistically is not significant. In other words, rising oil prices have had a negative effect on the growth of GDP if oil prices efficient GDP growth has been considerable.

Tayyebi et al. (1387) also study the causal relationship between tourism and economic growth in the period 1995-2004 using VAR Panel pattern in OECD countries have reviewed. Their results showed that the causal relationship between tourism and economic growth in Iran, plus China,

Hong Kong, Malaysia, Russia, and Thailand, is a two-way causal relationship between these two variables and between OECD countries, long-term equilibrium exists.

Abrishami et al. (2008) examined the asymmetric effects of oil on economic growth over the period 1960 to 2002 have OECD countries. Their results show that the effects of rising and falling oil prices on economic growth these countries is not similar. In these countries, oil prices had no effect on the growth of their GDP, while the rise in oil prices was significant in all cases. In addition to monetary shocks in the shock of oil price volatility and significant growth in Emami et al. (1390) examined the effect of oil shocks on economic growth during 1976-2008 paid some oil exporting and importing countries. The results indicate that the oil price shocks of the economic variables affected. The effect of oil shocks on economic growth in oil-exporting countries as well as positive and negative in oil-importing countries.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this study based on panel data, regression method is used. A sample of 19 countries including Australia, Austria, Germany, Ireland, Spain, Italy, England, America, Sweden, Switzerland, Japan, France, the Netherlands, Canada, Denmark, Portugal, Belgium, Norway, and Finland respectively. All data used relating to the period (2000-2014). The study of OECD countries is present.

All statistics from the World Bank (WDI) source energy data from the Energy Information Administration (EIA) and the Organization OECD. But also different ways to measure the volatility of a variable in this research is the method used to calculate the volatility of oil prices is GARCH. Many studies were carried out to measure tourism demand of parameters uses different addressing. Including the number of tourists entering the country, the real cost of travel, the number of beds booked hotel nights in years and numbers of tourists stay in the host country addressing. In studies in Steen's article (1988) analyzed the impact of oil price shocks on tourism that they have used the actual expenditures tourism for tourism demand. Santa et al. (2001) in their study investigating tourism and trade in OECD countries from the variable input and output tourists and Sayyah et al. (1392) in their model of variable intake tourists and honorable women et al. (1392) in their study of variable tourist arrivals have used. Also, Proença (2005), studied tourism in Portugal's demand that they took advantage of tourism expenditures as the dependent variable. In this paper, according to previous studies and to maintain expansion of the tourism industry of the country as dependent variable intake tourists have been used. Similar studies Abasinejad and Habibi (1384), Mohamdzadeh et al. (1389), Shahabad and coworker (1390) Vestannah (2009), explorer et al. (1392) and Proença (2005) The per capita income is used as nonincome. In this study, real per capita income based on purchasing power has been used. The population and number of landmarks, one of the factors affecting tourism development in Bangladesh that Mahbob (2008) in their paper is used since he considered synonymous development with the concentration of population.

Abrishami et al. (2008) and Sayyah et al. (1392) in their study of the real effective exchange rate has used. Ziyang (2008) study of the causes of underdevelopment in Africa to the low level of health tourism and the risks of diseases such as malaria pointed.

On the other hand, many tourists travel to take advantage of a variety of Health & Medical Services. This definitely enough has been expanded that now, as one of the branches of tourism is mentioned as health tourism care costs per capita selected as an indicator of health development in countries. The variables affecting tourism demand using previous studies were examined in studies of women and Sharifi et al. (1392) The role of good governance in attracting tourists: a case study countries, OECD, GDP and exchange rates and oil revenues voted placeholders the impact on tourism demand are used (equation 1).

$$LR_{it} = C + \alpha_1 LGDP_{it} + \alpha_2 LS_{it} + \alpha_3 LOR_{it} + \alpha_4 GG_{it} + U_{it} \quad (1)$$

Abrishami et al. (1387) in the study asymmetric effects of oil prices on economic growth in the OECD countries the following model using VAR have taken advantage of the six variable exchange rate function effectively, real oil prices and real GDP, inflation and interest rates on long-term used (Equation (2)).

$$y_t - C + \sum_{i=1}^p \phi_i y_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

Phyllis et al. (2013) studied the relationship between tourism income, economic growth and oil prices using the following model using, VAR variables real price of oil, tourism income, CPI, a level of world oil production and tourism sector took the stock index. (Equation (3))

$$A_0 y_t = c_0 + \sum_{i=1}^p A_i y_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t \quad (3)$$

Boroumand et al. (2015) of GDP, consumer price index, used in oil prices and the real exchange rate. Sayah et al. (1392) in their study of factors affecting tourism demand per capita income, population, exchange rate function effectively, transport infrastructure, education levels, are popular culture. (Equation 4).

$$\log Y_{it} = \alpha + \mu_1 + \beta_1 \log GDP_{it} + \beta_2 \log POP_{it} + \beta_3 \log ER_{it} + \beta_4 \log INST_{it} + \beta_5 \log ICT_{it} + \beta_6 \log EGDU_{it} + \beta_7 \log HEAL_{it} + \varepsilon_t \quad (4)$$

Mousavi et al. (1394) in studies investigating the effect of oil price fluctuations on demand from OECD countries GDP per capita, the real price of oil use (equation (5)).

$$A(L)D_t = \mu_t + B(L)GDP_t + C(L)P_{\max,t} + D(L)P_{\text{cut},t} + F(L)P_{\text{rec},t} + \varepsilon_t \quad (5)$$

And Proença 2005 studied tourism demand in Portugal and applied equation (6) using real income per capita and relative prices as factors affecting tourism demand.

$$\ln w_{i,t} = \alpha_i + \beta_1 \ln Y_{i,t} + \beta_2 \ln P_{i,t} + \beta_3 \ln A_t + \beta_4 \ln IP_t + \beta_5 D86_t + u_{i,t} \quad (6)$$

Lennox (2012) the effect of fluctuations in oil prices in New Zealand using the general equilibrium model of GDP, the volume of exports, tourism, real wages and were used as variables affecting tourism demand. According to studies on econometric model variables used in this research were evaluated as mentioned below.

In the present study, we applied Equation (7) in which T_{it} represents the tourism revenues of country i in the year t .

$$T_{it} = f(\text{prex}_{it}, \text{GDP}_{it}, \text{HEAL}_{it}, \text{POP}_{it}, \text{POil}_{it}, \text{Cpi}_{it}, \text{Topen}_{it}) \tag{7}$$

By taking logarithm of variable of equation (7), we can obtain equation (8).

$$\Delta \text{Litr}_{it} = C_{it} + \beta_1 \text{Lprex}_{it} + \beta_2 \Delta \text{GDP}_{it} + \beta_3 \Delta \text{HEAL}_{it} + \beta_4 \text{LPOP}_{it} + \beta_5 \text{LPOil}_{it} + \beta_6 \text{Cpi}_{it} + \beta_7 \text{Topen}_{it} + U_i \tag{8}$$

The variables of research model is introduced in table 1

Table 1: Variables of research model

Variable	Abbreviation
Litr	Logarithm of yield of tourism from origin countries to OECD countries
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
Lprex	Logarithm of the real exchange rate
HEAL	Health expenditure per capita
LPOil	Logarithm of oil price
LPOP	Logarithm of population
Topen	Trade liberalization
Cpi	Consumer Price Index

According to estimates done in different situations, was considered the best model to estimate the semi-logarithmic variables from tourists, the real effective exchange rate, the real price of oil and the logarithmic population and per capita health spending, GDP per capita GNP, trade liberalization and consumer price index are normally entered into the model.

Estimation of oil price fluctuations

The results of estimation of oil price fluctuation by GARCH model with different levels and selection of best model based on criteria Akaike information criterion (AIC) and Schwartz-Bayesian (SBC) which is represented in in Table 2. After choosing the best model, values of oil price fluctuations are calculated and applied in the main model.

Table 2: Results of estimation of oil price fluctuation

Garch(2,2)	Garch(2,1)	Garch(1,2)	Garch(1,1)	Criterion
0.29512	-0.4159	-0.3561	-0.2867	AIC
0.39766	-0.3518	-0.2920	-0.2355	Schwartz
Coefficients are not significant	All coefficients are significant.	Coefficients are significant	All coefficients are significant.	Significance

Reference: Research findings, Eviews software

Based on results represented in table (2) and criteria AIC and SBC, the model GARCH (2,1) is selected for uncertainty variable as equation (9).

$$\text{GARCH} = C(2) + C(3)*\text{RESID}(-1)^2 + C(4)*\text{RESID}(-2)^2 + C(5)*\text{GARCH}(-1) \quad (9)$$

Unit root test

Stationary test of model variables by Im, Pesaran and Shin (IPS) are presented in table (3), based on which, the logarithm of the real price of oil (Lpoil), the logarithm of population (LPOP), effective real exchange rate (Lflex), trade liberalization (TI) and consumer price index (Cpi) are stationary in level so that the null hypothesis of IMS is denied. On the other words, these variables have unit roots. In addition, logarithms of yield of tourism (Litr), gross domestic product (GDP), health spending per capital (Heal), are not stationary at the level (are not I(0)).

Table 3: Results of unit root tests of model variables

Variables	with intercept and trend	
	Im, Pesaran & Shin	
	Prob	test statistics
Litr	(-1.69)	0.0454
GDP	(-3.77)	0.000
Lflex	(-1.96)	0.0145
HEAL	(-2.104)	0.0175
LPOil	(-5.65)	0.0000
LPOP	(-3.34)	0.0000
Cpi	(-3.54)	0.0179
Topen	(-2.487)	0.0000

Reference: research findings, Stata software outputs

After the unit root tests, it is necessary that the relevant diagnostic tests done to determine the estimated model can be used for this test F. The null hypothesis is based on the opposite premise-based homogeneous and heterogeneous sections of the sections is If the null hypothesis to be accepted in this test method will be used to estimate the model; otherwise the compilation methods used panel data.

Table 4: Results of Chow test (F Limer)

Significance level	Test	Statistic
0.0000	125.46	Chow (F)

Reference: research findings, Stata software outputs

Significance level is 5%, as a result, the null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, we should apply Panel Data method. As heterogeneity found in cross-sections and there are significant differences, so the data combination methods do not work, because such methods do not specify that estimation errors are due to cross changes or time series. For such specification, there are two effects: consistent effect and stochastic effect. We use Husman Test in order to distinguish these two effects.

Table 5: Hausman test

Significance level	Statistic	Test
0.0000	44.87	hausman

Reference: research findings based on Stata software outputs

Hausman test is done using the X² statistical distribution that indicates that the significant level is less than 0.05, then hypothesis-that there is a stochastic effect is rejected and hypothesis that there are consistent effects is approved. Table (5) illustrates the results of Likelihood Ratio test. Since the assumption of heteroscedasticity of variance is rejected. In addition, the panel model with consistent effects is faced to the problem of heteroscedasticity of variances.

Table 6: Results of heteroskedasticity Test

Significance level	Statistic	Test
0.0000	555.94	Test LR chi2

In order to examine the autocorrelation in Panel Data, Wald test (2002) is employed, which suggests a simple autocorrelation in Panel Data used in this research. The null hypothesis indicates that there is no correlation; based on the research results, as the estimated statistic is less than 0.05, H₀ is rejected the null hypothesis and H₁ of the existence of correlation is confirmed.

Table 7: Results of autocorrelation test

F	P-VALU	Test
114.729	0.0000	Wald

Generalized least squares method (FGLS) is estimated in order to resolve the heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation problems, In addition, consistent effects are estimated by panel data method. As all tests suggest generalized least squares method, the final test results are listed in Table (7). In this test, chi-square statistics is employed and if the probability of this statistic is zero, the regression will be significant. The results of the estimates using GLS models can be seen in the following table:

Table 8: Results of final estimate for the model

P-Value	T statistic	coefficient	variable
0.000	11.06	0.9299	GDP
0.000	-5.41	0.9388	Exchange rate logarithm function effectively
0.037	-0.30	0.0702	Log of oil prices
0.01	2.36	1.190	Logarithm of population
0.15	1.43	0.0745	Health costs
0.31	-1.02	-0.534	Consumer Price Index
0.95	-0.93	4.601	Trade liberalization
0.016	-1.19	-5.657	Intercept
0.80			R2
0.000			Prob
105.28			χ^2 Wald
147.27			F-State

The findings based on the software stata

According to the results presented in Table 7, percentage of GDP in OECD countries has a positive impact on the tourist arrivals. If one unit of GDP increased, 0.92% increases in tourist arrivals income. The results Habibi and Abbasinejad (1384), Shah Abadi and Sayah(1392) , Vesta nah et al. (2011) also shows that GDP and per capital income has significant and positive impact on tourism.

On the other side the model findings indicate that population is an important key factor in the

tourism demand function. In other words, The more a country in terms of population is larger and more densely populated, The more tourism demand will be, because population increase pave the way to providing expertise in the provision of tourism services and also in the populous countries such as India and china we will see the attraction of more ethnicities because of variety of costumes. According to the results the effect of the population has a positive impact on demand for tourists' arrivals. If the population increases 1%, the tourist incoming revenue increases 1.1%. So that the travel incentive to this is due to benefit from tourism services, especially hotel services, leisure and entertainment.

The results also showed a significant and positive relationship between the real effective exchange rate and incoming tourism revenue. The real effective exchange rate has a positive effect on incoming tourism revenue of OECD countries. In other words, whatever the real effective exchange rate of the country if higher, its tourist's services will decrease and as a result the incoming revenue of tourist will increase. If the real effective exchange rate increases 1%, the incoming revenue of tourists will increase 0.93%. Based on the results there is a significant and positive correlation between the increase in health development and community health with the increase in tourists' arrival. The developed countries in the years due to the tremendous progress in the medical field and providing varied health services could obtain a good position to attract tourists in order to benefit from medical services, So that one unit increase in health care expenditure will cause 7% increase in tourists' incoming revenue.

Consumer price index (CPI) of destination country is considered as the relative price of tourism. Bawdy and Simon (2004) argue that reverse of this variable indicates the adequacy of the tourism goods basket price in a country to the same basket in destination country. Tourism product demand in a destination is likely to be negatively correlated with the relative price of tourism. As well as the cost of living in a destination increases; tourists will be less enthusiastic to enter that destination (Santana et al. 2011), because relative price can be influenced by the sharp exchange rate fluctuations. In this study, consumer price is negatively correlated with the tourists' revenue arrival. Each unit increases in the consumer price index causes 0.5% decrease in tourists' incoming revenue. Oil price, has a positive impact on the tourists incoming revenue that have entered to the studied countries. When oil price increases 1%, tourists' incoming revenue increase 7%. Rising oil price have a positive impact on incoming revenue of oil-producing countries, so makes the value of their money more and the relationship between real exchange rate changes in favor of oil exporting countries. The majority of tourists entered the OECD countries are from oil exporting countries. So the price of services due to the increasing value of currency of these countries (oil exporting countries) than OECD countries reduces for tourists. Hence, their demand for tourism increases. Commercial liberalization has a positive impact on tourism incoming revenue. A unit increases in commercial liberalization causes 4.6% tourists' incoming revenue. Liberal commercial is from effecting variables on economic growth, which increase the real national revenue. When it is said commercial liberalization it means the expansion of trade both in goods and services, and when commercial liberalization is determined as a strategy, it is as increase in trade capacity in services and consequently increase in tourism revenue.

CONCLUSION

According to the importance of tourism and high status of the tourism industry and the necessity of tourism industry development plans, the present study has addressed to the impact of oil price fluctuations on OECD countries tourism demand using date panel approach. In this study proper understanding of the tourism demand nature as a set of goods and services demanded by tourists as well as components and factors effecting it can enable policy- makers to make greater use of myriad benefits of the tourism industry. According to the model, which is presented, to specify the influencing factors of tourism demand, the following results and policies can be outlined:

Fluctuation in the price of oil in OECD countries has a positive and significant impact on tourists incoming and also the percentage of GDP, health expenditure per capital, population, the real price of oil, commercial liberalization, the real effective exchange rate, have positive impact and, consumer price index has negative impact on incoming tourism revenue to the OECD countries. According to results, the amount of GDP percentage has a positive impact on the amount of incoming tourism revenue to these countries. There for it is needed to accomplish appropriate targeting of the target markets, in a way that the countries are chosen for marketing advertising which have higher income level. In this way, it can be less costly to attract the tourists with higher spending and act purposefully. The oil price increase had a significant and positive impact on the tourism revenue arrival of these countries, it means oil price increase in chosen countries has increased the wealth in these countries and has made progress in infrastructure related to tourism and will attract the tourists and though this way the incoming revenue to these countries increases. On the other hand the real effective exchange rate as the power of the competitiveness of goods and tourism services should become in a way that tourism services of country have the global competition ability. This issue is very important and effective in expenses associated with the accommodation expanses. On the other hand, in addition to increasing health costs and improvement of the indicators related to it, development of health centers and health services, including hospitals is an effective step to attract tourists especially patients in using of country`s health cares. And also with increasing education costs and make the cost more efficient in order to increase the public education level and culture as well as establish international universities and attract foreign students as an educational opportunity is another effective step in this field.

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The importance of agritourism in socio-economic rural development in Poland

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the article was to present agritourism from the point of view of socio-economic development of rural areas. In addition, an important element was to draw attention to the attractiveness of agritourism in Poland and its impact on regional development. The study also draws attention to innovative solutions introduced by owners of agritourism farms. Achieving a satisfactory level of development of agritourism activity is made possible by innovations in the product and in the process of handling tourists. These include the services and material products available to tourists in accommodation, cuisine, transport, entertainment, health services, recreational activities, marketing and others.

Keywords: tourism, rural tourism, agritourism, Poland, rural development

INTRODUCTION

The growth in tourist activity, including agritourism, is comprehensive in rural areas today. The period of growth in Poland goes back to the beginning of the 1990s. Rural households are used not only as an accommodation base [Roman 2015, p. 136-137]. Agritourism is a form of rural tourism in which the tourist services provided are based around an active farm, enabling tourists to actively participate in rural life. It is „a form of tourism that provides adults with rest and psychological benefits, and children and young adults the opportunity to learn. Holiday and school vacation time is spent actively in rural areas directly on farms, which means participating in farm work and eating on the farm, to name two of the benefits” [Bednarek-Szczepańska, Bański 2014, p. 243]. Agritourism ranches include a product package of integrally related services including tourist accommodation, catering, transport, entertainment, healthcare and marketing, among others. The needs of tourists go beyond products in the literal sense, to include new sensations, emotions, adventures and the opportunity to deepen their own interests and hobbies. Durable, reliable, unlimited and dynamic development to meet the needs of agri-tourists can be achieved through innovation. For this, cluster initiatives are required to improve the competitiveness and innovations of rural tourism, including agritourism.

The article presents agritourism from the point of view of the economic and social development of rural areas. It examines the attractiveness of rural tourism in Poland and its influence on regional development. The information presented in the article comes from a literature review. Descriptive method was used for the article.

ROLE OF AGRITOURISM IN POLAND

Given its dynamic growth, tourism has become an important sector of the national economy and human activity. Effective state tourism policy should guarantee balanced growth and close correlation with other sectors of the national economy (agriculture and the natural environment, for example). Rural tourism in Poland, including agritourism, began in the 19th century, as did the first “holidays in the countryside”, “holiday villages” or “holiday under the pear tree” [Bednarek-Szczepańska 2010, p. 10]. People seeking to vacation at a low cost came to rural areas to stay in a new environment away from the unhealthy living conditions that prevailed in large cities [Drzewiecki 2002, p. 79]. Spending time in rural areas came into vogue and became popular before World War I. The rural towns at the outskirts of cities-suburban villages-also then became popular. Vacationing was done in rural developments and summer homes built by wealthier townspeople [Drzewiecki 1997, p. 23]. The first organised summer holidays occurred in 1959 in Krynica, and a year later in Muszyna. Summer activity began in 1962 in the Bory Tucholskie region. Until the middle of the 1960s, the mountain and seaside regions of Poland attracted the bulk of summer holiday-makers. Significant growth in national tourism in rural areas began in the second half of the 20th century [Sznajder, Przezbórska 2006, p. 15].

At present, rural tourism in Poland is characterised by a high rate of growth and attractiveness. There are a number of innovative ideas resulting from creativity and entrepreneurship stimulating competitive advantage. Human capital-in other words resource assets, potential, and employee capital-plays an important role in this regard. In addition to creating innovations, there is absorption, attracting that which is new in the form of innovation. Technical progress in agritourism is made at active farms. Rural tourism including agritourism guarantees peace and quiet and active vacationing in the natural environment [Nowakowski 2001, p. 13]. Figure 1 presents the factors necessary for the functioning of agritourism.

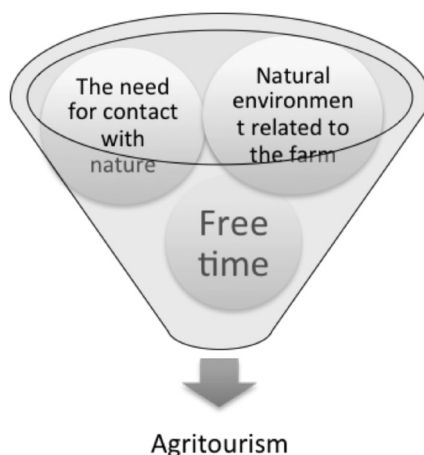


Figure 1: Factors necessary for the functioning of agritourism

Source: [Surdacka 2017, p. 1779]

In Poland, interest in agritourism has undergone dynamic growth due to its traditional character [Drzewiecki 1998, p. 2]). Though the term agritourism is often identified with rural tourism, it should be emphasised that they are not synonyms [Drzewiecki 1998, p. 25]. The development of this non-agricultural activities form contains the benefits for the farmer and tourists. The benefits of agritourism for the farmer and tourists was presented in table 1.

Table 1: Benefits of agritourism for the farmer and tourists

Benefits for the village and the farmer	Benefits for tourists
Usage of free resources	Direct contact with nature
Job creation, mobilization for professional activity outside agriculture, liquidation of inactivity and boredom in the countryside	Contact with farm animals
Achieving of new competences (knowledge, skills, experience, habits, new professions, enabling learning a foreign language, developing creativity and entrepreneurship)	Active rest in the rural area
Achieving additional income from non-agricultural activities by the farmer	Back to the roots (many people come from the village, were they born and raised)
Activation of the rural community in the direction of discovering history, tradition, culture in a given place and area, freeing social initiatives, new opportunities for rural women, reviving rural traditions, customs, customs, respect for tradition and folk creation	Relatively cheap accommodation with peace and quiet, in isolation from the everyday rush (using a relatively cheaper form of leisure)
Development of “vacant” (old, often unused buildings, including farm buildings or their parts, rooms, farmsteads, attics, windmills, castles, manors, palaces and their equipment, which contributes to preserving the material cultural wealth of the village)	Job introduction, the specificity of the farmer’s profession, getting respect for hard and difficult work (cognitive and educational function)
Enabling revitalization of rural areas and revalorisation of the rural environment	Access to fresh and healthy food
Taking care of the natural environment, protecting nature, creating the leisure-friendly environment	Understanding the life-cycle of rural food production
Diversification of activities in rural areas, creation of conditions and opportunities for development other than in the countryside on the basis of discovered intellectual capital	Participation in rural life and farmer’s work

Counteracting migrations of people from rural areas, mainly young, educated and enterprising people, including women	Direct contact with the rural community
Multifunctional development of rural areas (agricultural and non-agricultural activities)	The regions knowledge of culture, customs, beliefs, spiritual culture, literary creativity, folk songs and crafts
Development of rural infrastructure (water supply, sewage treatment plants, road and transport, tourist infrastructure)	Opportunity to develop hobbies
The development of old craft, folk culture	New knowledge, shaping skills, developing habits based on active participation in rural life
Improving the lives of rural families	
Integration of the rural environment, including the framework of operating agri-ecotourist clusters and rural housewives circles, establishing contacts and exchanging experiences	
Preservation and promotion of the village cultural life.	
Improvement of aesthetics in and around the house, greater care for aesthetics, land development and cleanliness in the countryside (aestheticization of the village)	
The development of village residents personality	

Source: own study based on [Kožuchowska 2000]

Existing negative aspects of agritourism:

- implementation of “small-town tourism”, or “urban tourism in the countryside”, incompatible with the rural climate,
- creating of so-called “Tidied heritage” (only the selected elements are taken into account from the whole possibilities and cultural heritage of the village to make the product offer more attractive, which causes its impoverishment and inauthenticity of the inhabitants of the village,
- cultural interference – the impact of tourists attitudes and behaviour on the rural residents life and the perception of the world, causing the tradition disappearance, life authenticity, culture devastation (language and costumes),
- passive acceptance and external culture uncritical imitation influence by rural community (building, extension and reconstruction of houses and farm buildings in disagreement with the local tradition),
- organizing events inconsistent with the spirit and authenticity of the village life,
- infection and spread of animal diseases,
- danger of fires.

INNOVATIVE SOLUTIONS IN AGRITOURISM

Huge interest of rest in agritourism come from willingness of environment changing especially tourists that live and work conditions in urbanized areas. That creates the possibility of contact with rural life, domestic animals, agricultural work, knowledge of folk crafts and rural folklore. Tourists can enjoy healthy food and relaxation surrounded by nature [Gaworecki 2003, p. 98-101]. There are listed the basic elements of a tourist product offered as part of innovative agritourism (tab, 2).

Table 2: Elements of tourist product offered as part of innovative agritourism

Elements of the tourist product offered as part of innovative agritourism	Specification
Accommodation base	Stay in a farm, use of a rural facility, self-service accommodation, camping, campsite, agri-hotels
Gastronomic base	Home-made meals, canteen, restaurant, picnic fields
Transport base	Bicycles, canoes, boats, rafts, carriages, sleighs
Sport, recreation and tourist equipment base	Balls, board games etc.
Household classes	Observation and participation in production process of plants (e.g. herbs cultivation), food (e.g. collecting mushrooms, berries or production of liqueurs and beer) and animals (breeding). Contact with animals and nature according to domestic ZOO or safari
Direct sales on the farm	“Collect alone” or “do it yourself” sale
Sports, recreational and tourist activities	Trainings, didactics walking paths, marches, cycling, horse riding, canoeing, raft, sports requiring a lot of space (e.g. golf, tennis, paintball, hunting) and fishing
Entertainment activities	Visiting the places (parks, gardens, corn or soy fields mazes, straw towns, old buildings fortifications), rural games, participation in weddings
Therapeutic classes (agritherapy, ecotherapy)	Hippotherapy, dogotherapy, ketotherapy, therapy using plants and animal, healing diets (slimming and prophylactic), herbal medicine, minisanatory, rehabilitation stays, kinesiotherapy
Ethnographic classes	Historical farms – old forms, workshops in rural houses of creative work, historical villages, historical areas, museums of folk art, folk costumes, souvenirs
Services at the tourist information point	Souvenirs, maps, guides and press sale, internet access, banking service, events

Source: own study

According to information in table 2 the innovations of agritourism results from the rich and varied tourist offer. The advantage of the rural environment is space and psychological comfort.

Agritourism is about active recreation in rural areas, organized by a farmer on the basis of an active farm. Recreation in the countryside is a complement to mass tourism. The development of rural tourism, including agritourism, determines:

- natural and landscape conditions,
- safety during rest in a rural area,
- effective promotion policy and the development of tourist area,
- tourist base in the countryside,
- educated staff in tourist facilities,
- local government kindness,
- spatial concentration of capital, cooperation, specialization, competition and development of the town, that means functioning of clusters.

In the agritourism the tourist is focused on rest, regeneration of strength, improvement of self-healthiness, knowledge, impressions, emotions, entertainment and adventure. The necessary becomes to restructure the tourist product to allow the contact with people, nature and culture, increasing the human body healthiness. A tourist in the countryside should “go back in time” to the old rites, old rural huts. Therefore, he should receive an innovative offer from the owner of an agritourism farm [Roman 2016, p. 183-184].

CONCLUSIONS

In both scientific work and practical activity there is a need to analyse the impact of agritourism on the socio-economic transformation of rural areas. Rural tourism cannot develop in the absence of systematic research analysing the basic problems of the agritourism market both from the point of view of tourists (demand/ the attractiveness of rural tourism) and those who offer this form of recreation (supply/the competitiveness of agritourism) [Puciato et al. 2010, p. 63-64]. It is therefore necessary to assess multiple aspects: customer contentedness and satisfaction with the offers they are presented and used, the promises made by the organizers of tourism in the country, the equipment of facilities offering agritourism, their standards and the cyclical monitoring of developments in this field. Changes in the management of agritourism should also be analysed.

Achieving a satisfactory level of development of agritourism activities is made possible by innovations in the product and in the process of handling tourists and the functioning of active farms. These include the services and material products available to tourists in accommodation, cuisine, transport, entertainment, health services, recreational activities, marketing and others. Creating new products can also be done in the framework of cluster initiatives. Tourists need not only products in the literal sense of the word, but the desire for new sensations, emotions, adventures and to deepen their own interests and hobbies.

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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.
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- 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.
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- 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.

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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).

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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)

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