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SOLIDARITY ECONOMY AS A COUNTERPOINT TO CLASSICAL ECONOMICS: POSSIBILITIES OF CHANGES
Coriolano, Luzianeide Menezes Teixeira, Tavares, Jean Max, Ateljevic, Irena

In the current context of social arrhythmia promoted by the culture of excess, consumerism and individualism the purpose of this article is to discuss the need to promote changes in tourism and society towards a more human development, based on the pillars of the solidarity economy. The article extends discussions on the solidarity economy into the context of classical economics, with new offers and demands that are focused not on capital accumulation only, but on the rights and development of human beings. To achieve this goal, we analyse four key foundations of the solidarity economy - solidarity, social equality, cooperation and sharing. The original contribution of the paper is to present cutting-edge ideas that show a counterpoint to capitalism and consumerism; one that is excluded from global tourism’s contradictory path by a form of production that values social relations, and quality of life in community experiences and community tourism.
This paper investigates the cause and effect of crises on tourism destination image and the international tourists’ travel motivation. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) procedures were performed to achieve the research goals. Through series of empirical analyses, some useful insights on the issue investigated were obtained. The findings revealed that there are three types of crises; sustained, an immediate and emerging crisis which affect the image of a tourism destination and subsequently influence the tourist travel motivation. In fact, the immediate and emerging crises, although was found to negatively affecting the image of tourism destination, does not inhibit the international tourists travel motivation. The result of this study shows varying consequences and implications of crises to individual tourist, tourism intermediaries, tourism agencies, government authorities and any parties related to tourism industry.

WE DO MORE THAN WE CAN TELL. PERSPECTIVES OF TACIT KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER IN TOURISM ACCOMMODATION ESTABLISHMENTS
Spyros Avdimiotis

Tacit knowledge is a concept developed in connection with knowledge management research field. It is acknowledged as the cornerstone of competitive advantage; however, merely its possession does not guarantee an edge in fierce competition. Even though tacit knowledge holds a dominative role towards labor efficiency, productivity and innovation, the subject of tacit knowledge acquisition and transfer has been rather unexploited, mostly due to its intrinsic, highly personal and seamlessly bonded to holder’s personality, attributes. The purpose of the article is to contribute to the exploitation of the embedded tacit knowledge of employees in hospitality establishments, a sector where the employment of tacit knowledge has to be extensive and foremost, capitalizing the maximum of personnel competences. Towards this goal, research hypotheses were built and tested, using SEM Methodology. The final outcome of the study revealed that task assignment customized to employees’ personality and emotions is directly and positively correlated with tacit knowledge transfer.
UNDERSTANDING THE ROLE OF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND VACATION MOTIVES IN VACATIONER’S DECISION MAKING PROCESS: A CASE OF LANGKAWI ISLAND
Lee Heng Wei, Zarul Fitri Zaaba, Mohd Azam Osman, Tarmiji Masron

This study was designed to identify the relative importance vacation motives as perceived by the tourist visiting Langkawi Island, Kedah, Malaysia. In addition, this study also explored the underlying dimensions of the vacation motives and determinants factors. Questionnaires were distributed using convenient sampling utilizing 252 tourists and were analyzed using SPSS program. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was deployed to determine whether the derived vacation motives and determinants varied among groups of socio-demographic and travelling characteristics. The findings indicated that the social-demographic factors placed a great influence on the perception of tourist towards Langkawi Island. Travel motivations and determinants were found to be significantly different in means when compared across different socio-demographic factors like age and income level. The findings also revealed the important segmentation variables in the context of consumer behavior literature where it became the contributing factors to develop appropriate marketing strategies to attract travelers.

ECONOMIC, SOCIAL, CULTURAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS ON TOURISM DEVELOPMENT OF PASİNLER
Cem İşik, Ali Ada, Ferhat Boztoprak

The purpose of this study is to investigate the levels of the local people’s tourism perception, depending on the present tourism potential in Pasinler and Erzurum. Also to investigate the ideas and suggestions of people about the necessities for tourism with an innovational approach in the district. In accordance with this aim, the public survey applied to a total of 400 people in 2015. The results show that the developing tourism activities will be able to increase the cultural activities in the region, the plateau tourism potential and thermal tourism of the region that focused on and more tourist can be entertained by means of making suitable investments concluded as a result of the public surveys. In addition, the local people explained
that tourism development can change the value and faith conformation of the people of the region have and can cause a negative effect on the customs as well. It means, that economic impacts of tourism (F=8.285 and p <0.05) and social impacts of tourism (F=9.762 and p <0.05) show differences depending on the participants' profession. It was also observed that the cultural impacts of tourism (F=5.759 and p <0.05) and environmental impacts of tourism (F=5.906 and p <0.05) show differences depending on the participants' profession.

WORSHIPING PILGRIMAGE AND RELIGIOUS TOURISM IN GREECE AND CYPRUS DURING ANCIENT TIMES
Nicos Rodosthenous

Pilgrimage travel is not a recent activity of modern civilization. It is a phenomenon, which has existed since ancient times. It has grown over time and evolved into Religious and Pilgrimage tourism, depending upon the various changes that were observed in the course of humanity. Pilgrimage along with the Religious tourism is usually considered the oldest form of non-economic travel and is one of the most understudied areas in tourism research. Every year it is estimated that approximately 240 million people travel to major pilgrimage destinations around the world both ancient, like Greece and Cyprus, as well as modern in origin. Increases in spiritually motivated travel in the modern era, have coincided with the growth of tourism in all eras, especially after the 19th century, where the development of tourism was generally based on the leisure time of people and on their movements to various countries.

PILGRIMAGE TOURIST’S PERCEPTION TOWARDS SERVICE QUALITY DIMENSIONS OF HOTELS IN KUMBAKONAM- THE TEMPLE CITY OF INDIA.
C.Vijayabanu, C.Therasa

Service quality is well thought-out to be a decisive accomplishment factor which is one of the outstanding accomplishment features that sway the core competencies of the hotel industry. The Hotel industry in Temple city of the old Cauvery delta Kumbakonam has been escalating
in recent years. In spite of the growth, the industry also countenances problems with regard to service quality. The most imperative rationale of this study is to examine the aspects that determine the service quality with reference to the physical environment, interaction and behavior quality of employees towards customer satisfaction, and brand image. The primary data have been collected by means of a questionnaire tool from the guests visiting Hotels in Temple city Kumbakonam. The data collected has been analyzed using SPSS software, and the tools used are frequency analysis, Correlation and Regression. The major findings of this study are Interaction and behavior quality of employees influences customer satisfaction by 21.6% and customer loyalty by 28% and brand image by 67.2%.

A MULTI-PORT CRUISE REGION: DYNAMICS AND HIERARCHIES IN THE MED
Athanasios A. Pallis, Kleopatra P. Arapi

The study generates knowledge on the patterns, structures, and geography of growth of the cruise port industry in the Mediterranean and its adjoining seas. The analysis of the passenger movements in the period 2005-2014, as provided by cruise port authorities, details the port hierarchy and reveals transformation of the region from a cluster of port destinations hosting a certain thousands of cruise passengers to a multi-port cruise region accommodating several millions of passenger movements. An adapted application of the ‘multi-port region’ concept, originally developed in cargo port studies extends research to intra-region dynamics and exposes previously unexplored imbalances that co-exist with the overall growth of a commonly seen and homogeneous single cruise region. The picture completes with the examination of the unbalanced trends in the major 20 cruise ports in the Med, and the levels of market concentration. The findings call for similar analyses, and not least comparisons, with other regions. With Asia appearing in the strategies of cruise lines as a deployment region and a source market, and the Med experiencing volatile trends, they are also practically helpful for those involved in the development and management of cruise ports.
DETERMINANTS OF TOURISM FLOWS TO GREECE: A GRAVITY MODEL APPROACH
Visar Malaj, Soultana Tania Kapiki

The purpose of this paper is to identify the main demand and supply determinants of international tourism flows to Greece, given the significant impact of tourism on the country’s economy. For the empirical analysis the authors estimated an original gravity equation in which tourism flows depend on classic as well as experimental factors. The used dataset includes tourist arrivals from 19 countries over the period 2005-2015. The resulting coefficient of determination of this model is relatively high and the considered variables are statistically significant. Tourism flows to Greece are negatively affected by the bilateral distance and climate similarity between Greece and the origin countries; furthermore, the response variable is positively affected by the investments in the transport infrastructure, the country’s stability, the incomes and the EU membership of the origin countries. The proposed recommendations to the Greek stakeholders include: creation of qualitative infrastructure; synergies with other sectors; boost of competitiveness; establishment of Greece as a safe destination; and, promotional campaigns.

AN OVERVIEW OF RURAL TOURISM IN CROATIA AND SERBIA
Damir Demonja, Vladimir Stojanović, Mirjana Penić

In the tourism development plans in Croatia and Serbia, rural tourism has a place of special importance. Taking into account the total population of rural areas, total surface area they occupy in these countries and the presence of diverse tourism potential (preserved nature and cultural heritage), rural tourism could become a powerful tool in achieving the goals of sustainable development of rural areas. Regardless of all social differences between Croatia and Serbia, it can be assumed that rural areas share common problems. They are exposed to depopulation, slow economic development and poorly developed infrastructure. There is a dilemma that raises the question of how much these two countries in their joint tourism development initiatives can contribute to resolving problems of rural areas, and in particular their border regions.
The year 2012 proved to be of great significance for the history of tourism education in Greece. The prevailing system of ‘State Schools for Tour Guides’ was to be paused by the Greek State, after, almost, sixty years of continuous presence. The government's decision to invite the university in initiating a new program of educating tour guides by hosting the “Intensive Courses for Professional Guides” has, arguably, greatly endorsed both the tour-guide’s profile and their achieved services. According to the new ministerial decision No. 18062/20.12.2012 (Φ.Ε.Κ. 3401 Β’), it is only graduates who have read archaeology, history, art history, ethnology and social anthropology, that are eligible to attend the course, and following its completion, start working as official state tour-guides. The background of the candidate is seen as crucial for the service they will be providing. Accessing contemporary cultural theories, visitor-oriented approaches and current museological practices and tools, as well as further educational methods and skills, they are building up on their former training, eventually becoming able to deliver new interpretations of the past. They are, therefore, given the opportunity to revisit and redefine the final product they come to communicate with their work, trained to approach the tangible and intangible aspects of Greek heritage from another angle. As Greece has a strong presence in the area of cultural tourism, a rapidly growing segment of the total tourist market, the newly established university program comes to provide an ideal professional expertise for guides to deliver fully updated experiential narratives. A smart tourism market willing to develop and improve its impact on economy should embody such a professional branch as a tool for a qualitatively profitable effect.
EDITORIAL

The issue comprises eleven (11) papers on various aspects of tourism. In the first paper, Coriolano, Tavares and Ateljevic discuss the importance of solidarity economy in the context of classical economics, with new offers and demands that are focused not only on capital accumulation, but also on the rights and development of human beings. To achieve this goal, the authors analyse four key foundations of the solidarity economy - solidarity, social equality, cooperation and sharing. Subsequently, Zahari, Dusi and Hanafiah investigate the cause and effect of crises on tourism destination image and the international tourists’ travel motivation. Using SEM analysis, they find varying consequences and implications of crises to individual tourists, tourism intermediaries, tourism agencies, government authorities and any parties related to tourism industry. In the third paper, Avdimiotis explores the embedded tacit knowledge of employees in hospitality establishments stressing that task assignment customized to employees’ personality and emotions is directly and positively correlated with tacit knowledge transfer.

Then, Wei, Zaaba, Osman and Masron identify the relative importance of vacation motives as perceived by tourists visiting Langkawi Island, Kedah, Malaysia. Travel motivations and determinants are found to be significantly different in means when compared across different socio-demographic factors like age and income level. In the fifth paper, Işık, Ada and Boztoprak investigate the levels of the local people’s tourism perception, depending on the present tourism potential in Pasinler and Erzurum, Turkey. The results show the potential to develop various forms of tourism in the areas under consideration especially if suitable
investments are undertaken. In what follows, Rodosthenous focuses on pilgrimage and religious tourism in Greece and Cyprus. Increases in spiritually motivated travel in the modern era, have coincided with the growth of tourism in all eras, especially after the 19th century, where the development of tourism was generally based on the leisure time of people and on their movements to various countries. In the seventh paper, Vijayabanu and Therasa stress the importance of service quality factors in hotels serving pilgrim tourists in Kumbakonam, the temple city of India. The study finds that interaction and behavior quality of employees influences customer satisfaction by 21.6% and customer loyalty by 28% and brand image by 67.2%.

Subsequently, Pallis and Arapi study dynamics and hierarchies in the Mediterranean cruise sector. An adapted application of the ‘multi-port region’ concept, originally developed in cargo port studies extends research to intra-region dynamics and exposes previously unexplored imbalances that co-exist with the overall growth of a commonly seen and homogeneous single cruise region. In the ninth paper, Malaj and Kapiki explore the determinants of tourism flows in Greece using a gravity model. They find that tourism flows to Greece are negatively affected by the bilateral distance and climate similarity between Greece and the origin countries; furthermore, the response variable is positively affected by the investments in the transport infrastructure, the country’s stability, the incomes and the EU membership of the origin countries.

In the tenth paper, Demonja, Stojanović and Penić review rural tourism in Croatia and Serbia. The main issue to explore is how much these two countries can contribute to resolving problems of rural areas in their joint tourism development initiatives, especially in border regions.
Finally, Scaltsa, Nitsiou and Georgaki discuss tour guiding education at the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki in Greece. As Greece has a strong presence in the area of cultural tourism, a rapidly growing segment of the total tourist market, the newly established university programme comes to provide an ideal professional expertise for guides to deliver fully updated experiential narratives.
SOLIDARITY ECONOMY AS A COUNTERPOINT TO CLASSICAL ECONOMICS: POSSIBILITIES OF CHANGES

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In the current context of social arrhythmia promoted by the culture of excess, consumerism and individualism the purpose of this article is to discuss the need to promote changes in tourism and society towards a more human development, based on the pillars of the solidarity economy. The article extends discussions on the solidarity economy into the context of classical economics, with new offers and demands that are focused not on capital accumulation only, but on the rights and development of human beings. To achieve this goal, we analyse four key foundations of the solidarity economy - solidarity, social equality, cooperation and sharing. The original contribution of the paper is to present cutting-edge ideas that show a counterpoint to capitalism and consumerism; one that is excluded from global tourism’s contradictory path by a form of production that values social relations, and quality of life in community experiences and community tourism.

Keywords: solidarity economy; tourism; transmodern society, human development.
INTRODUCTION

Contemporary society, while extending the ability of science and technology, accelerates the time needed to configure social rhythms and destroys human rights in a complex social arrhythmia promoted by the culture of excess, consumerism and individualism. Many countries’ development has been guided by the Eurocentric modernist thesis of profitability, focused on financial results for governments and businesses, and on benefiting elites while turning us all into consumers with branded identity (Klein, 2000). The global expansion of capitalism evidences the logic of exploitation and accumulation which serves the concentration of corporate capital, while impoverishing the general population, particularly in so-called developing countries. We are sickeningly aware that the phrase ‘the development of under-development’ still retains as much analytical and heuristic value today as it did when it became a popular slogan 40 years ago. This phrase related to simultaneous underdevelopment (or what we call ‘overexploitation’) in the so-called Third World, accompanied by massive social exclusion (Harvey, 2003). The reality of this is a questioning of the promotion of development that has a central focus on the individual emancipation (Rich, 1995; Cornwall, 2000; Bell, 2004); it should not just be a way of fighting inequality, but a means of personal achievement, enabling actions for conducting collective lives and supplying the real needs of the human condition (Sen, 2000).

The promotion of human scale development means finding paths that enable the transformation of an excessively consumerist and individualistic society, in order to put humankind as the centre of action and human happiness at its core. Increasingly complex social lives – mechanized and divided into classes and interest groups – raise uncomfortable issues, and make emerging movements a counterpoint to this culture. The modernity mantra of the ‘survival of the fittest’ makes each person independent of the lives of others, and forgetful of what completes and unites human beings and that is the collective spirit.

One of the ways to promote human development and meet at least some of the concerns of society is through a solidarity economy, which proposes making the economy an integral means of people’s development, and not an end in itself lacking the need for
direct government intervention (Nuñez, 1998). The market economy, competition and relations of domination may give place to relations of association, cooperation and solidarity. In principle, almost all economic activities are involved in the context of intense competition, where large groups determine trends and prevent the emergence of new small or medium-sized businesses. Among these activities is global tourism, which represents 9 per cent of the gross domestic product, is responsible for 1 in each 11 jobs and $1.3 trillion in exports (UNWTO, 2013). According to Higgins-Desbiolles (2006), tourism has succumbed to the effects of marketing, and has been dominated in popular destinations by neoliberal values. These decrease the power of tourism, while social forces act as promoters of peace and understanding between people. Although the majority of tourism literature promotes its role as a creator of employment and income, it still seems to be inconclusive about its ability to promote social development through inclusive actions that go far beyond economics.

The economic model that is configured in tourist regions (mainly in developing countries) is a kind of “illusion of inclusion”, where the large enterprises make use of economies of scale to increase profitability, while the local community feels just a few benefits of contributions from this activity. The individual is part of the tourism supply chain, but only as a constitutive element away from decision-making and the positive externalities generated by it. For example, Steck, Wood and Bishop (2010) estimate that only 10.2% of the total tourism income in Zanzibar, Tanzania is directed to the poorest people.

The impact of the tourism development model encourages reflections on the need to make logical changes to improve development and society (Scheyvens & Momsen, 2008). In searching for the identification of problems (as well as any possible solutions), this work discusses progress that is geared to people seeking economic development, with reference to human rights, the solidarity economy and human scale development. Therefore, the rising question in this work is how to reconcile the demands of society – such as dignity, employment, fair wages and environmental protection, among others – with the interests of capitalism already so inherent in tourism activities. In addition,
another issue to be discussed is how the solidarity economy can contribute to the promotion of reconciling the interests mentioned above. Thus, the objective of this work is to discuss the need to promote changes in tourism and society towards a more human development, which can be based on the pillars of economic solidarity. A methodological and multidisciplinary character approach is used, covering areas of tourism, economy, sociology and geography.

The present work aims to provide two key contributions to the theoretical field of tourism studies. The first contribution is to point out new paths for the development of tourism and society from parameters that focus on the human being in all its dimensions. In doing so, it builds upon the latest debates of critical tourism studies and hopeful tourism efforts towards value transformations in our tourism education, research and critical practice (Pritchard, Morgan and Ateljevic, 2011; Ateljevic, Pritchard and Morgan, 2012). In the course of connecting with those critical social and human development debates, the second contribution of this paper is aimed to speak to tourism economics audience that still seems to be driven by the conceptual pillars of neoclassical economics and its modern, market economy model. These theoretical efforts are then directed towards the promotion of the shift towards transmodern society in which values of sharing, caring, collaborating and respecting (oneself, the others as well as all living beings on the planet) represent foundations of all our economic, social and political actions (Ateljevic, 2009; 2013). In the words of a key writer on transmodernity, Enrique Dussel (1996; 2004; 2006): ‘The three malaises of modernity (individualism, the primacy of instrumental reason or technological capitalism, and the despotism of the system), produce a loss of meaning, an eclipse of ends, and a loss of freedom in bureaucratised societies’ [1996, p. 142], and the capitalistic emphasis on ‘profit, private appropriations and personal benefits’ [2006, p. 491] needs to be replaced with transmodern planetary interconnectedness and mutuality.

We begin our paper by a critical overview of neoclassical economics perspective in relation to tourism industry, followed by a discussion on human rights and cultural diversity as a basis for human development. The third section represents the crux of the
article in which the association between solidarity economy and tourism is established.

NEOCLASSICAL ECONOMICS AND TOURISM MARKET ECONOMY

While the paradigm of neoclassical economics is admittingly a complex field it can be argued that there are three key assumptions on which it is based. Firstly, that humans have primarily rational preferences, which implies that individuals do not make systematic errors and generally do not exhibit inconsistent behavior. Secondly, it is assumed that people maximize their well being which is translated into the utmost satisfaction welfare through consumption of goods and services and the formation of businesses maximizing their profits. Finally, there is the assumption that individuals act independently, based on information distributed equally among all which entails that no information asymmetry exists (Dewan, 1995).

While we have somewhat moved forward from these basic assumptions, they remain deeply embedded in our collective psyche and business practices of many sectors, including tourism. Indeed, despite its many (positive and negative) socio-cultural impacts, the contribution of tourism to economic growth has been so heavily stressed that it still overshadows the whole field (Wilson, 1998; Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda, 2002; Dritsakis, 2004; Oh, 2005; Song et al. 2012). Yet, on the ground, challenges are many and they keep on rising.

Environmentally, tourism activities affect and are affected by the quality of environmental resources (Tribe, 2011). While in the manufacturing industries, the environment is mainly viewed as an input factor of production (Song et al. 2012), the environment is a key component of ‘tourism output’, such as national parks and agritourism (Razumova, Lozano, & Rey-Maquieira, 2009). Economically, the main problem faced by developing countries is the structure of the hotel chains - overall oligopolies and, in many cases, with all-inclusive system (Baum and Mudambi, 1995; Tung, Lin & Wang, 2010) – and in this structure, there is a relentless search for profit maximization. Given this, the tourism firms still are
still in the need of economic incentives to undertake voluntary environmental management (Blanco, Rey-Maqueireira and Lozano, 2009). Socially, the main issues that neoclassical economics is associated with tourism are the lack of property rights, public goods, and externalities. These problems are common explanations of the market failure associated with the environmental impacts of tourism (Rigall-I-Torrent & Fluvia, 2007; Dwyer et al., 2010; Rigall-I-Torrent & Fluvia, 2011).

**CRITICAL VIEWS**

The tourist activity disassociation of any element of social character has been widely discussed since the early years of its development to this date (Turner & Ash, 1975; Leiper, 1995; Cohen & Kennedy, 2000; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006; Hall, 2007; Deery et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2013). According to Turner and Ash (1976), conventional tourism has proven to be ineffective in promoting equality, or in positioning itself as an ally of the oppressed. For Wearing (2001), “tourism in a market economy could exploit natural resources as a means of accumulation of profit and the notion of unlimited gains has led to exploitation of communities, cultures and the environment” (p. 16). For Llewellyn, Watson and Kopachevsky (1994), “tourism as cultural complex dimension of modernity is subject to the same general principles of capitalist consumer culture” (p. 643). If all economic activities are primarily concerned with the accumulation of profit, why should tourism be different?

The effect of capitalism on the tourism development model is “inseparable of the spaces and places where the same is created, imagined, perceived and experienced” (Ateljevic, 2000). In this respect, Llewellyn, Watson and Kopachevsky (1994) claim that tourism promoters should take care not to make it an “extension of the commodification of modern social life under capitalism” which potentially could discourage de-characterization for immediate profits making the conditions for sustainability (Swarbrooke, 2000). Therefore, the relationship between the characteristics of capitalism and the development of tourism – with an emphasis on human and cultural diversity – are thought-provoking themes, which are discussed below.
HUMAN RIGHTS AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY IN THE DEVELOPMENT BASE

Education and knowledge are the pillars of development that confirm the productive transformation of equity and respect for human rights in society. In the view of modern economic theories, it is claimed that the value of cultural diversity increases when organized populations discover and become protagonists of the change process, which can occur through a community organization or by the formation of social capital (Turner, 1998; Fine, 2010; Shen, 2013). Social capital (Bourdieu, 1979) is attributed to individual and collective means of distinction, and of the members of privileged categories. It is supported by economic capital and material security in cultural capital. On the other hand, human scale development theory rejects the concept of social capital (Max-Neef, 1991), as well as of its ability to empower, seeing them as an elitist product of modern economic theories. When we know that power can corrupt and has the power to exercise authority and take over the other, it is understood that empowerment cannot be a guideline, nor can it be a socioeconomic development strategy (Labonte, 1990; Withmore, 1998).

Human-oriented development must focus on the human being, and makes the unfolding of potentialities of the subject to ensure subsistence, work, education and dignified living conditions for the citizens. Unlike the economy driven, human-oriented development must to create a culture of cooperation, solidarity and partnership. In the light of Foucault (1979) and Bourdier (1979) thoughts, it turns out that there is a play of forces in society between political, economic, social and military powers, when governments, entrepreneurs, militaries and organized social groups formulate differentiated conceptions of development that require them to give new meaning to expressions. Thus, culture becomes a dynamic array of ways of being, relating and realizing in the world. This would be a reason why development does not mean just generating wealth or increasing a country’s gross domestic product (GDP), although growth and less unequal distribution of material wealth are decisive for individuals’ quality of life.
With respect to the existing cultural policies, many of them do not have their own definition and agenda, but have an association with the implementation of the agendas of economic and social public policies. These associations may be detrimental to cultural policies, mitigating what would be the biggest contribution of culture: training for individuals who possess a critical conscience capable of proposing changes. Cultural policies increasingly establish actions based on the target audience, without concern for the human formation. When the new cultural policy agents are marketing and advertising departments, or large, private cultural foundations, this can represent a distant vision of culture as a means for development or as an instrument of democracy. In this case, a lack of public spirit and a critical view of government bureaucrats expand access policies that have a restricted vision. There should be a promotion of dialogue between social actors, valuing diversity and multiculturalism (Groschl and Doherty, 1999).

To understand the complex web of social processes, especially those of large scale, interests, institutions, agencies and subjects of various social fields should be considered (Arizpe, 2004). The networks on which we build relationships between culture and development have particular complexity in so-called developing countries of Asia, South America and Africa, where pré-modern and modern fusion occurs. While historically it is subject to developments in the economic matrix, an underestimation of the role of culture’s scope of production – myths, symbols and metaphors capable of producing categories – plays a strategic role in the re-signification of development. Therefore, it “is necessary to join the memory of culture with the most advanced science theories (…) to join the science of modernity with traditional knowledge” (Rocha Pitta, 2005, p. 62).

In this outlook, the respect and protection of human rights are essential bases for the promotion of social development; they are necessary for building a humane society that ensures a decent life, tranquil social relationships, the possibility of people exchange, and the building of reliable bases for promoting a social and sustainable society. These conditions are indispensable for the preservation of human dignity, and provide a solid foundation for developing an acceptance of the right to be, the right to work, to leisure, to a decent standard of living, to education, to freedom and to participation.
International legal standards are basic requirements for the respect of people, and states are responsible for ensuring these conditions. The idea of the state in the human community is to be at the service of human rights (Hemingway, 2004).

Any possibility of developing an economic policy for people refers to the need to respect the individual and social rights of the person. As such, directing human scale development is crucial. In this same logic, Dowbor (1998) admits that “the humanization of development, or their re-humanization, passes through the reconstitution of community spaces [... ] re-construction of the ethical dimension of development requirement going as for the other human being is a human being” (p. 44). Human rights have a historical composition; this means that, depending on the historical moment, the provisions are differentiated. So, since the historical changes generate a strong impact on understanding human rights (with regard to new technologies), it also extends this concept in the form of social inclusion via digital media, freedom of expression and possibilities of communication between cultures.

**HUMAN SCALE DEVELOPMENT**

Redirecting human scale development means adopting policies that initiate work, social protection and occupation for all, as well as activities that revalue place and people. When activities turn to social and cultural development, economic activities play a part in implementing this. Tourism can be a feasible way of reconciling the growth of labour and social welfare. Before examining the development of the human scale, Max-Neef (1994) states that the starting point for this question is not to be confused with the concept of a salaried job; ignoring the peasants, informal cooperatives and voluntary workers whose difficult statistical measurement could make them “invisible” (p. 10). However, what most often occurs is the distortion of the cooperatives and the corruption of voluntary community work, which belittles the tradition of solidarity (Boff, 1999).

For technical scientific rationality, human is a rational being; for economic development, she/he is a consumer; for development on a human scale, she/he is a historical subject endowed with inalienable
rights and duties, and a social subject capable of changing daily life and history. Thus, each development proposal has interjected a vision of man and society. Therefore there must be a change of mentality, in which the economy should be at the service of people and not the other way around, so as to return to one of its dimensions; namely, the narrowing of the social reality in politics, culture and education. Social development based on fundamental human needs generates increasing levels of individual independence, and the organic joining of humans with nature and technology in order to integrate them into global processes while respecting local values and behaviours (Max Neef, 1994). Social development needs should be geared toward human needs in order to make people independent and empowered to work. This implies the development of people as individuals and as a group, organized as a civil society so as to become an aspect of its development and place.

In relation to the development of the human scale, this means the growth of economic activities through ensuring that all work meets the needs and promotion of social welfare. It must be mentioned that the hegemonic economy and the development of economic activities do not depend on personal or collective decisions, but assume the relationship between basic components of social relations of production; namely, capital, labour and state. Thus, the development of the human scale demonstrates that social relations are more important than the relations of production, no matter the accumulation, distribution and wellbeing of all people. Even considering the utility of the qualitative growth indicators and not just economic ones, it is necessary to differentiate the “human scale development as economic growth by all individuals” (Gramsci, 2012, p. 21). The human scale would not be back to primitivism post overrun, but the break with the most capitalism perverse face, focusing on human needs and not just the surplus and profit.

Therefore, it requires the creation of indexes related to the realization of desires, of education, of solidarity, and of human achievement as the subject of history; this is because – despite people worldwide being led to believe that human needs are endless, ranging from one culture to another and every historical period (Max-Neef, 1994) – the basic needs are common to all and finite. The ways and means of satisfying these needs changes within time
and cultures. What is culturally determined is the way to meet these needs. Human needs are existential – to have, to do and to be; they are also axiological, such as the need for subsistence, protection, affection, understanding, participation, leisure, creation, identity, freedom and spirituality (Max-Neef, 1994). Cultures are defined by how they comply with these requirements. What is culturally determined is not required, but it does contribute to satisfaction. Poverty produces and feeds individual and collective pathologies such as anxiety, depression, violence, marginality, fear and isolation. Satisfaction of needs corresponds to the biological/psychological perspectives that seek to find the universal justifications of human behaviour.

The theory and discourse of satisfaction are linear and simplistic, with needs constructed out of the design of social actors, and without taking into account interests, dreams, utopias or strategies. It is true that there are people who do not reach the minimum level of satisfaction with their basic needs, or are “alienated” and against situations that social scientists must mobilize; but it is also true that it is not up to social scientists to define the minimum and maximum reasonable satisfaction of specific people or realities (Boff, 1999).

SOLIDARITY ECONOMY AND TOURISM

At the same time, many tourist regions – especially in developing countries – model themselves on urban, industrial ways of life, and quickly realign their economy to globalised capital; this usually causes adverse consequences for the poorest social strata (e.g. unemployment, poverty and violence). This scenario has certainly contributed to the genesis of the solidarity economy, which arose as one of the possible ways to mitigate social exclusion – not simply opposed to the dominant economic model, but creating its own space. The solidarity economy has attracted the attention of several researchers over the last decade (Laville & França Filho, 2004; Retolaza et al., 2008; Gutberlet, 2009; Lemaître & Helmsing, 2012), because it conciliates their theoretical marks with the human scale development theory, with strong emphasis on collective work and well-being of all (Buzek & Surde, 2012; Dacheux & Goujon, 2012).
Dacheux and Goujon (2012) state that “the solidarity economy is, initially, a way to bring people together in a specific place, once nature of the social fabric varies according to the location [...] the solidarity economy encourages the development of the individual through the development of community of which he is part” (p. 207). The “solidarity economy” (Vainer, 2000) is an attempt to add things that repel and oppose the economy and solidarity. To think of solidarity in a capitalist society would appear to be a contradiction, but it can also be an emblem of the postmodern world; a means of revolutionary design that injects subversion into the current economic model. What if the solidarity economy is not a defined and unique mode of organizing economic units, but a multifaceted process which can incorporate solidarity? The philosophy that animates and directs this vision of economic solidarity is the development of the human scale; one that focuses on capital without ignoring people.

Inhabitants of small towns, villages, neighbourhoods and communities may are able to interfere in economic reality, acquire increasingly strong roles in political, economic, social and cultural life, and create a mentality of collaboration and cooperation. As such, they organize themselves into groups active in forming socio-political movements in search of solutions to local issues, such as lack of work, residences, schools and environmental defence, and improvements to the local culture and livelihoods of local families (Fortunato, 2013; Hung Lee, 2013).

The solidarity economy is organized by friendly relations and based on companionship. It favours social relations of reciprocity, and adopts forms of community production and distribution. “Community experiences” (Gaiger, 1998) are similar to those of peasant economies or ancient communities. Although the legal formats and degrees of content innovation are variable and subject to reversal, self-management practices and cooperation give enterprises a unique nature, as they modify the principle and purpose of extracting surplus labour.

Therefore, the key differentiator of the solidarity economy is the collective search for solutions. According to Gadotti (2009), the “solidarity economy is a non-competitive and cooperative way to produce and reproduce our existence has an extraordinary educational component” (p. 35). Joint ventures are driven by
communities for the benefit of the collective. Zaoual (2008) adopts the concept of a “place of belonging”, showing that every person is territorialised, because they are allocated to places that are either urban, coastal or rural sites. Communities are places where humans exist more easily, because it is possible to achieve space knowledge and a coexistence with all people; however, there are citizens who exist in global spaces without major problems.

Community participation projects are aware that those involved are responsible for the success of many enterprises. People participate effectively, and engage with and make happen what is thought to be the collective good. Communities grow as they find ways of developing actions that affect the growth of the group, such as increasing purchasing power and raising the local welfare level. Solidarity initiatives have expanded with the maturation of understanding processes and the conception of the solidarity economy – even as the economic model and the current political system try to co-opt the leaders of these initiatives – with various groups on the outskirts of cities, in the rural areas and coastlines.

The relationship between tourism and economic solidarity has been studied by several authors (Brohman, 1996; Ateljevic, 2000; Blackman, 2004; Dantas et al., 2010; Gard McGehee et al., 2012; Deery, 2012; Wu et al., 2013). Dan et al. (2010) state that “the insertion of solidarity economy in tourism can be a valuable tool to combat poverty, particularly through the craft, in so far as it is able to serve as a link between the benefits from tourism and the local community” (p. 67). The solidarity economy in tourism, in particular, is a different way of facing the contradictions of a hegemonic economy; that is, rather than to seek the maximum profit, it seeks to distribute what is produced, and improve the livelihoods of poorer groups by focusing on the human, cultural and environmental values. The collective understanding is that it mobilizes social groups who are able to change reality. Table 1 below provides an overview of published research in the area of solidarity tourism around the world (Table 1).
Table 1: Experiences with the solidarity economy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Experiences</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marques (2009)</td>
<td>Project of community-based solidarity tourism</td>
<td>Cape Verde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silva et al., (2011)</td>
<td>Tourism, economic solidarity and social inclusion in Porto de Galinhas</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wang et al. (2010)</td>
<td>Local tourism participation</td>
<td>China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hung Lee (2013)</td>
<td>Project for sustainable tourism development</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortunato (2013)</td>
<td>Project for solidarity tourism in Vale do Jequitinhonha</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iorio &amp; Wall (2012)</td>
<td>Project for locals’ participation in tourism development</td>
<td>Italy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coriolano et al. (2009)</td>
<td>Solidarity Economy Project - ConjuntoPalmeira, in Ceará</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sampaio (2004)</td>
<td>ComplexoCooperativo de Mondragón</td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ desk research.

Obviously, there are already good practices of tourist activities, with the most popular features aimed at social development and a greater distribution of wealth. They come under a variety of names: “community tourism”, “local tourism”, experiences of the “solidarity economy”, “alternative” tourism, and “tourism based on solidarity”, among others. But the important aspect of the experiment is to envision possibilities of learning and communication, and the inclusion of individuals and communities in positive actions that can boost more just tourism.

These several positive examples of enterprises, initiatives and developments linked to the tourist trade that have developed socially responsible actions and measures that not only promote tourism and their businesses, but also contribute to the human development of the population.
The community-based tourism presents evidence of changes in the tourism as a purely economic activity, becoming also sociocultural. The production of solidarity tourism is not an end in itself, but they are political practices beyond tourism, because the communities want ultimately is a fair society, equal opportunities and equal rights for all.

Beside the conventional tourism, the community tourism act in several countries - especially in Brazil - with the specificity of to be supportive (Silva et al., 2011). These communities try to fight for solidarity and cooperation among agents of the environmental protection and preservation of cultural identities.

Tourism allocated in communities deploys firms, produces territories tourist service with the logic of solidarity economy. So they adopt principles of flexible, solidarity economy and fair trade (Coriolano et al., 2009). These examples (table 1) are focused in the culture, environmental advocacy with not purely economic motivations and also in the integrated development with other economic sectors. Besides this, these experiences has great capacity promote or create local clusters such as handicrafts, agriculture, regional products, confections, beverages, candy, all that matters to tourists.

These experiences (table 1) are important, therefore, because its occurs through systematic exchanges of information, integration of skills in joint projects between social actors, economic, political, participating and interacting in the community, businesses, universities, research institutions, advisory bodies, technical assistance.

CONCLUSIONS

The discussion presented in this article helps to demonstrate that the solidarity economy can provide new ways to establish relationships between people’s self-esteem and production and consumption of tourism. Such relationships are visible through the organization of the social fabric, the formation of new networks and the establishment of relationships with the potential for self-management. The practice of human development (Max-Neef, 1994) is supported in human needs, in self-independency, in the organic
articulation of human beings with nature and technology, and civil society’s interaction with the state. The development of tourism is potentially beneficial to all areas around the world as a result of direct and indirect job creation and the expansion of income circuits. It has been possible to see growing tax revenues and a greater volume of resources transferred to municipalities, or even by the investments made during the initiative. Tourism can stimulate preservation recognition initiatives and the dissemination of historical, artistic, cultural and environmental heritage to produce a positive impact on the quality of life of residents. Utmost, it allows us to argue that the solidarity economy is supported by the satisfaction of basic human needs, generating increasing levels of individual independence, an organic connection of humans with nature and technology, and the integration of respect for local values and behaviours in global processes.

By providing an overview of the general human development theories and solidarity economy concept as applied to tourism, this article hopes to open up many new research possibilities to identify – through an analysis of diverse experiences with the solidarity economy in the tourism sector – the common factors present in the successful and failed examples, which are important for our understanding of the subject and its further promotion in the practice.

References


DO CRISES IMPEDE THE INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS TRAVEL MOTIVATION

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This paper investigates the cause and effect of crises on tourism destination image and the international tourists’ travel motivation. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) procedures were performed to achieve the research goals. Through series of empirical analyses, some useful insights on the issue investigated were obtained. The findings revealed that there are three types of crises; sustained, an immediate and emerging crisis which affect the image of a tourism destination and subsequently influence the tourist travel motivation. In fact, the immediate and emerging crises, although was found to negatively affecting the image of tourism destination, does not inhibit the international tourists travel motivation. The result of this study shows varying consequences and implications of crises to individual tourist, tourism intermediaries, tourism agencies, government authorities and any parties related to tourism industry.

Keywords: Crises, tourists, travel, motivation, destination, image
INTRODUCTION

Studying travel motivation has always been an important factor for tourism management. Travel motivation is related to a set of needs that cause a tourist to take part in any tourism activities (Jenkins, 1999; Pizam, Neumann, & Reichel, 1979) or travelers’ decision-making in choosing a destination (Crompton, 1979; Siri, Kennon, Josiam, & Spears, 2012).

In addition, Yoon and Uysal (2005) contend external, situational or cognitive aspects as full factors are closely associated with tourist travel motivation. In this context, pull factors are those that motivates tourist to travel based on a destination’s attractiveness such as beaches, recreation facilities, cultural attractions, entertainment, natural scenery, shopping, parks, and others (McGee et. al., 1996; Hafiz, Aminuddin, Jamaluddin, & Ismail, 2014). Pull factors is also associated with potential activities or key attributes offers at a destination like travel arrangements, environment quality, and safety (Kassean & Gassita, 2013). Scholars asserted that pull factors elements undoubtedly create and building the image of a destination. Destination image does not only influence tourists in making decision in choosing a particular holiday destination but one of the significant attributes in ensuring the long-term sustainability of any tourist destination and repeat visitation (Leisen, 2001; Hosany, Ekinci & Uysal, 2007). According to Yoon, & Uysal (2005) and Lee, Scott & Kim (2008), the positive image a destination has the highest chances for it to be chosen by the tourists and vice versa. This connotation has encouraged many countries, tourism authorities and tourism destinations to continually develop or sustain their image in the eye of tourists.

Despite that, destination images, without a doubt, are vulnerable and subject to change due to the predictable and unpredictable internal and external events like emergency, disaster, catastrophe, calamity and many others (Kim & Morrison, 2005). According to Campiranon (2006), tourism market is also sensitive and vulnerable
thus any incidences and crises will affect the level of tourists’ confidence toward a particular destination. Crises either immediate crisis, emerging crisis and sustained crisis may include the deteriorating of a destination physical conditions, on-going crime rates, and unemployment rates (Beirman, 2002).

Major crises like terrorist attacks, epidemics, assaults on tourists and natural disasters tend to have a greater impact on the images of the destination (Beirman, 2002; Avraham, 2004). The obvious example is the global famous terrorist attack on New York City and Washington on 11th September 2001. These incidences have caused the United States missed out about 78 million inbound travelers and $606 billion in tourism revenue (Madinitos & Vassiliadis, 2008). Similarly, the impact of the Bali bombings on 12th October 2002 has caused the deterioration of Indonesian economy and tourist arrival. Soon after the attack, the number of foreign tourists visiting the island is declined around 57 percent and reduced the hotel average occupancy rate, and approximately 2.7 million tourism workers were unemployed (Inside Indonesia, 2008). Not only the terrorist attacks lead to declining the economic and tourist arrival but health events such as the Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) epidemic in 2003 and the H5N1 Avian Influenza (Avian Flu) outbreak in 2004 have also dented the image of tourism in Asia as a safe tourist destination (Madinitos & Vassiliadis, 2008).

Malaysia as one of the leading tourism destination in the world with no exception is facing the immediate, emerging and sustained crises which directly affected the country economy as well as the tourism industry. The missing of Malaysian Airlines flight MH370, the intrusion and kidnapping at the east coast of Sabah, and the shot down of Malaysian Airlines flight MH17 are some of the examples. These incidences have affected the overall tourist arrival and receipt to the country. In fact, the tragic disappearance of the Malaysia Airlines flight MH370 has affected the number of Chinese visitors.
to Malaysia (Bernama, 2014). As reported, 30 percent of Chinese tourists immediately canceled their trips after the incident that cause Malaysia of losing around RM100 million (Bernama, 2014). Meanwhile, the intrusion of the east coast of Sabah by the Sulu militant has also dropped in tourist arrival (The Malaysian Insider, 2013). Also, the shot down of Boeing 777, flight MH17 from Amsterdam to Kuala Lumpur that killed all 298 passengers aboard worsens the situation.

Despite those incidences, it is worth mentioning that after a few months of mourning and the dreary period for the country including tourism industry, tourist arrivals to Malaysia showed a positive recovering. Except for Chinese and Taiwanese, tourists from other international markets like Japanese, Korean Australasian, Middle Eastern continues to provide the bulk of Malaysia’s inbound visitors (The Star Online, 2014). The ASEAN member countries are also contributing to tourist arrivals with Indonesia, Vietnam, Thailand, Cambodia, the Philippines and Singapore showing a positive increment (The Star Online, 2014; Tourism Malaysia, 2015). This overwhelming phenomenon has raised several critical questions. What motivate and the pulling factors that make the international tourists still visiting Malaysia in spite of the crises? In other words, what is the most significant destination attributes available in Malaysia that pulls the tourist to visit?

There must be the underlying reasons of this causation, and this proclivity needs to be researched and examined. In reality, many available studies on tourists pull factors have focused on the normal situation, absent or free from crises or disturbance. Research on cultural attractions (Zhang, Qu, & Tang, 2004; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999), natural attraction (Chen, 2001; Baloglu, 1997), historical sites (Truong & Foster, 2005), various activity (Crompton et al., 1992; Guthrie & Gale, 1991), new attraction (Zahari, Hanafiah, & Mahboob, 2016), climate (Truong & Foster, 2005; Ahmed, 1991), safety (Enright & Newton, 2004; Zhang, Qu, & Tang, 2004; Chen, 2001), local friendliness (Chen, 2001; Zhang,
Qu, & Tang, 2004), low travel cost (Chen, 2001; Huang, Tsai & Hsien, 2003) and value (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Baloglu, 1997; Schroeder, 1996; Maria, 2014) with less looking at the relationship between the types of crises, destination image and tourists travel motivation. This review shows a gap on empirical research on the cause and effect of different type of crises on destination image and international tourists’ travel motivation. The fundamental reasons of this causation need to be assessed, in been exhibited in the study framework.

**Figure 1. Study framework**

![Study framework diagram](image)

_Sources: Sausmarez (2007) and Parson (1996)_

Based on the study framework above, the primary objective is further supported with four hypotheses and six sub-hypotheses as reported below:

- **H1:** There is a significant relationship between the three types of crises and the international tourist travel motivation.
  - **H1a:** There is a relationship between immediate crisis and international tourist travel motivation.
  - **H1b:** There is a relationship between emerging crisis and international tourist travel motivation.
  - **H1c:** There is a relationship between sustained crisis and international tourist travel motivation.
H2: There is a significant relationship between the three types of crises and the destination image.

H2a: There is a relationship between immediate crisis and the destination image.

H2b: There is a relationship between emerging crisis and the destination image.

H2c: There is a relationship between sustained crisis and the destination image.

H3: There is a significant association between destination image and the international tourist travel motivation.

H4: Destination image mediates the relationship between the three types of crises and the international tourist travel motivation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Crisis Attributes

Crisis are events like an emergency, disaster, catastrophe, calamity, and something similar that pose threats to the capability and threatening life, reputation and the survival of a country, organization, industries, environment and community sustainability (Pearson & Mitroff, 1993). Some describe crises as unexpected challenges that affect the economic which might test the organizations and nation ability to cope with it (Faulkner, 2001; Elsubbaugh et al., 2004). Beirman (2003) classified five main events associated with crises that are relevant to tourism destination: a).International war or conflict and prolonged manifestations of the internal conflict; b).A particular act or acts of terrorism, especially those directed at or affecting tourists; c).A major criminal act or crime wave, especially when tourists are targeted; d).A natural disaster, such as an earthquake, storm or volcano, causing damage to urban areas or the natural environment and consequently impacting
on the tourism infrastructure; e). Health concerns related to epidemics and diseases; these may be diseases which affect humans directly or diseases affecting animals, which limit access to tourist attractions.

Seymour and Moore (2000) classified two types of crises namely “Cobra” which strikes suddenly and the “python” which occurs gradually. Crises are traditionally classified as either natural (earthquakes and hurricane) or man-made (plane crashes, industrial accidents, and terrorist events) (Sausmarez, 2007). On the other hand, Parson (1996) classified crises based or depending on the gestation of three different periods: immediate, emerging and sustained crises which are adopted in this study.

**Immediate Crisis**

Based on the literature search, Parsons (1996) was the only researcher looking at the immediate crises. He is referring to this type of crisis as an event that happens where little or no warning received whereby the organizations, government or any authority parties are unable to research the problem or prepare a plan before the crisis hits. Terrorism, minor natural disaster, aircraft crashes and missing airplane are some of the examples. Cambridge Dictionary (2015) associates the immediate crisis with events or incidences that never happened before. In this sense, the shocking attack by two heavily armed gunmen entered the Paris offices of satirical news magazine of Charlie Hebdo and killed 12 people including two police officers are the clear example of terrorism. The downed of German wings flight 9525 on 24 March 2015 (Cables News Network, 2015) and the missing Airline flight MH370 on March 2014 (The Malaysian Insider, 2014) are other examples of immediate crises. In sum, those given examples are suited with the definition and statement provided by Parsons (1996) that in the present of immediate crisis the likelihood of government or any
authority to prepare a plan to stop or minimize its impacts is slimmed.

**Emerging Crisis**

Emerging crisis denotes an incident or events that not instantly occurring or slowly developing, and it is able to be stopped or control by the government or any responsible parties (Parson, 1996). Dengue, malaria, severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) and influenza H1N1 are the examples of emerging crisis where when it is occurring the organization may still deal, stop or minimize its impact. Although SARS is a viral took place between November 2002 and July 2003 in multiple countries which caused an eventual 8,096 cases and some deaths, yet it was able to deal and controlled by many governments (World Health Organization, 2015). Similar to influenza H1N1, this epidemic which hit the African and Southeast Asian countries has caused some deaths but able to control and prevent from widely spreading (World Health Organization, 2010). Again, those incidences suit with characteristic given by Parson (1996) that emerging crisis although occurring deliberately but enable the government together with all parties minimizing the impacts.

**Sustained Crisis**

As the name implied, the sustained crisis is dealing with the longer time period and causes a bigger or long-term impact not only to the country and major industries such as agriculture, manufacture, health including the tourism sector. The hallmark of the sustained crisis in which Parson (1996) refers it as the incidences or events that may last for weeks, months or even years. The obvious example is the on-going conflicts in the Middle East (Syrian civil war; Islamist renaissance at Egypt) which have significantly disrupt the image and economy of the associated countries, and the
governments were not capable of finding a solution to control the crisis (Cables News Network, 2015). A similar example can be seen in Thailand as it faced 19 military coups since the country became a constitutional monarchy in 1932 but involved extending the period of time to prepare a plan or solve a solution. Parson (1996) concluded that the sustained crisis attributes can be fully stopped or may have a greater impact towards the image and economy of the country.

### Destination Image

There are many definitions of destination image made by scholars. Baloglu and McCleary (1999) argue that the definition of destination image mostly focused on the multi-dimensional perspectives. Gallarza, Saura, and Garcia (2002) states destination image as an impression that a person holds about a place, and it is made up of three distinctively hierarchical interrelated components such as cognitive, affective and conative (Gartner, 1996). Cognitive component is conceptualized as the sum of beliefs and attitudes of the destination attributes. In this sense, the image of a destination is assessed by the attributes relate to its resources and attractions (Sabler, 1988) in which influence tourists to travel and experience it (Gallarza, Garcia & Saura, 2002; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Go & Govers, 2005). Affective component is related to the feelings and values of the individual place on destination based on travel benefits or motives (Balogulu & McCleary, 1999) while emotional dimensions or components strongly influence the motivations of tourists to travel (Beerli & Martin, 2004). Lastly, the conative component is referred to the action and decision of an individual of whether or not to travel to a particular destination (Gartner, 1996).

Since destination image is the psychological picture of the destination which influences tourist decision-making process, it is therefore considered as one of the vital factors in ensuring the long-
term sustainability success of the destination (Beerli & Martin, 2004). According to Jarumaneerat and Promsivapallop (2012), negative images can be the obstacles to the destination as tourists may be cautious to visit or return to the destination.

**Travel Motivation**

Travel motivation refers to a set of needs that cause a person to participate in a tourist activity (Pizam, Neumann, & Reichel, 1979; Hanafiah, Othman, Zulkifly, Ismail, & Jamaluddin, 2010) or travelers’ decision-making in choosing a destination that involves the concept of push and pull factors (Crompton, 1979). In this sense, tourists are pushed and pulled by some sources of inherent forces (Mohamad, Ismail, & Hanafiah, 2012). These forces explain how the internal variables push individuals, and how they are pulled by a travel destination (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). The push factors are socio-psychological motives such as the desire to escape, novelty seeking, adventure seeking, dream fulfillment, rest, health and fitness, prestige, and socialization (Huang, Tsai, & Hsien, 2003). The pull factors are motives aroused by the destination rather than emerging exclusively from within the travelers themselves (Crompton, 1979). Pull factors include tangible and intangible signs of a particular destination that draw people to travel, such as natural and historical attractions, food, people, recreation facilities, and marketed image of the destination (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). In short, significant researches have been undertaken on travel motivation attributes.

**METHODOLOGY**

This study is designed to examine the cause and effect of the three types of crises on destination image, and international tourists travel motivation. A quantitative approach through a cross-sectional
with a self-reported and self-administered survey questionnaire was applied. As the intention of this study to tap the experience of the international tourist regarding their motivational factors of visiting the Malaysia after the crises, the Kuala Lumpur International Airport is chosen as the venue for data collection.

The survey instrument is consisting four sections with Section A solicit the information about respondent demographic information. Section B is designed to measure the tourist view towards three types of crises that are an immediate crisis, emerging crisis, and sustained crisis. Section C is created to examine the impact of the three crises to the image of tourism destination, and Section D is designated to examine the impact of the three types of crises on the international tourists’ travel motivation. Most items in all dimensions were replicated from the previous related studies with a few minor modifications of wording made to address specific needs of the current research or fit the tourism context. A pilot study was initially conducted to verify and confirm the reliability and validity of the items used.

A total of 202 usable questionnaires were successfully distributed within 14-days of the survey period. From the survey data, the properties of the research variables were tested with a Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) procedure (Ullman & Bentler, 2003) using the two-stage testing process. First, a confirmatory analysis of the measurement model specifying the posited relations of the observed variables to the underlying constructs, with all constructs allowed to be inter-correlated freely, was tested. After the measurement model had been derived, the hypothetical model specifying the interrelation among impact constructs was investigated using the AMOS 20 software.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Respondent Profiles
The result of frequency test revealed that male respondents is less than the female with 47.5 percent (n=96) against 52.5 percent (n=106). The majority of the respondents were between 18 and 39 years of age (60.4 percent, n=122), followed by 40 to 59 years old (24.8 percent, n=50) and 60 years and above (14.9 percent, n=30). 54.5 percent (n=110) single compared to 42.6 percent (n=86) who were married and 3 percent (n=6) were others. 12.9 percent (n=26) obtained a secondary school qualification, 35.6 percent (n=72) with undergraduates degree and 51.5 percent (n=104) possessed a postgraduate qualification. This is evident with the highest proportion of the international tourists who visited Malaysia were in the category of professional/business person represent around 56.4 percent (n=114) followed student and retirees which accounted 28.7 percent (n=56). A small proportion of respondents were among administrative/clerk which accounted 8.9 percent (n=18) and semi-skilled, and others represent around 5.9 percent (n=12). 36.6 percent (n=74) of the respondents monthly household income is under USD5,000, 20.8 percent (n=42) is between USD5,000 to USD10,000 and 12.9 percent (n=26) between USD10,000 to USD25,000 and 29.7 percent (n=60) is above USD25,000.

The international tourists in the sample are from the European continent (47.5 percent, n=96), Asian region (25.7 percent, n=52), the Australasian region (16.8 percent, n=34), America continent (8.9 percent, n=18) and African region (1 percent, n=2). The average length of stayed is ranging from more than 10 nights (38.6 percent, n=78), 7-9 nights (30.7 percent, n=62), 4-6 nights (20.9 percent, n=46) and 3 nights and below (7.9 percent, n=16). 45.5 percent (n=92) of respondents visited Malaysia for the first time, 21.8 percent (n=44) for the second time, 13.9 percent (n=28) visited this country for third to fourth times, 11.0 percent (n=24) had visited more than six times. 34.7 percent (n=70) are traveling with their friends while 24.8 percent (n=50) with spouse or relatives, 22.8
percent (n=46) with their family and children and 17.8 percent (n=36) are by themselves.

The majority of the international tourists preferred to stay at high and mid-range hotel/resort. This is evident when 44.6 percent (n=90) stayed in high range hotel/resort or 4-5 star hotel/resort and 28.7 percent (n=58) in 3 star hotel/resort. A small proportion which is around 9.9 percent (n=20) chose to stay at low cost hotel/resort (1-2 star), 7.9 percent (n=16) at homestay, 4.0 percent (n=8) at guest houses, 3.0 percent (n=6) at others and 2.0 percent (n=4) at service apartment or condominium. 52.5 percent (n=106) of the international tourist are traveling because of attraction (nature, culture, marine, heritage) despite several crises, 26.7 percent (n=54) are traveling due to the economic value (affordability, cheap, worth spending money at Malaysia). Other than that, 20.8 percent (n=42) are traveling because of the fascinating atmosphere, friendly people, believe Malaysia till a safe destination.

**Descriptive Statistic**

Focusing on Sustained Crises, the magnitudes of the mean scores ranging from 2.00 to 2.26 indicate the international tourists disagree with all the items in this section analysis. They disagree that sustained crisis does not affect the tourism industry (M=2.05), giving temporary effect (M=2.11) thus does not change their traveling mood (M=2.16). Similarly, the international tourists disagree that the political instability is just temporarily reduced the number of international tourists (M=2.12), religion issue does not jeopardize tourism receipt (M=2.27) and war occurring at certain places does not affect the tourism industry (M=2.26). All in all, these results showed that the international tourists strongly perceive that sustained crisis is giving a tremendous impact on the tourism industry.
Meanwhile, on the Emerging Crisis, most of the international tourist felt that this type of crisis to some extent giving profound implications the tourism industry and impede their motivation to travel. As such they agree that this crisis somewhat affected the tourism industry (M=3.62). They decided that epidemic like influenza H1N1, HIV/Aids/ dengue/ malaria reduced the tourist arrival (M=3.50), tourism receipt (M=3.52) and their traveling mood (M=3.50). On the other hand, the mean score from the Immediate Crisis shows that the international tourists perceived that the immediate crisis although is dealing with unpredictable events or as an isolated case but still carrying subsequent effect on the tourism industry (M=3.25). They slightly agree on incidences like kidnapping cases (M=3.08), airplane crashes (3.35) and missing aircraft (3.58) no doubt is given an immediate effect on the international tourist arrival, receipt and motivation to travel (3.78) but the effect is gradually eased with time or just giving a temporal effect.

**Effect on Destination Image**

This analysis measures the impact of the three types of crises namely immediate, emerging and sustained crisis on destination image from international tourists’ viewpoint. Looking at the mean scores, the international tourists agree that sustained crisis such as religious riot does harm the image of the destination (M=3.50), and religious issues do tarnish the reputation of a tourist destination (M=3.52). They also agree political riot do badly damage the image of the destination (M=3.56). On the emerging crisis, the international tourists believed that epidemic disease such as the influenza H1N1 slightly contributes to negative image toward tourism industry (M=3.08). With that feeling, they somewhat felt that Malaria (M=3.27), dengue (M=2.89) and HIV/Aids (M=3.33) do not entirely tarnish reputation and image of the destination.
The international tourists on the other hand slightly agreed that the immediate crisis does not severely affect the image of the destination (M=3.31). Their response was in line with the evident when they believed airplane crashes (M=2.99) and missing plane incidents (M=3.10) does stain the reputation and image of the destination only for the short term. What could be said is that based on the perspective of international tourists, the emerging, and immediate crisis do posit a slight effect on the image of tourism destination compared to the sustained crisis.

Effect on Motivation to Travel

A descriptive analysis is further undertaken in measuring the international tourist's view on the effect of the three types of crises toward their travel motivation. They agree that the sustained crisis is giving a significant impact on the country (M=3.68) and tourism industry (M=3.65) thus clearly destruct their travel motivation during the crisis (M=3.75). On emerging crisis, the majority of the international tourists perceived this type of crisis is temporal in nature (M=3.71), could be controlled (3.68) hence do not entirely stop their travel motivation soon after the crisis (3.76). Based on it characteristic, the international tourist perceived that immediate crisis although giving the direct impact to the country (M=3.86) and its tourism industry (M= 3.84) but more on temporary basis thus do not inhibit their travel motivation soon after the incidence.
STRUCTURAL MODELING

Measurement Model

The data was initially submitted for assessment of the measurement model using a covariance matrix as input within the AMOS framework. The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) test the relationship between observed variables and the underlying latent construct (a type of crises, destination image, and travel motivation). A total of thirty-three items were identified among the study variables with fourteen items reflecting the type of crises, eleven items relating to the destination image, and eight items dealing with travel motivation. The goodness of fit indices for each independent, mediating and dependent construct was examined, and the result is summarized in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-Fit Statistics</th>
<th>Model 1 Types of Crisis</th>
<th>Model 2 Destination image</th>
<th>Model 3 Travel Motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor Loading range</td>
<td>0.72 – 0.89</td>
<td>0.73 – 0.92</td>
<td>0.70 – 0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$</td>
<td>378.229</td>
<td>203.668</td>
<td>219.923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of Freedom</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$/df</td>
<td>3.347</td>
<td>3.394</td>
<td>4.679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>0.852</td>
<td>0.854</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGFI</td>
<td>0.772</td>
<td>0.775</td>
<td>0.758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.847</td>
<td>0.960</td>
<td>0.901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.845</td>
<td>0.960</td>
<td>0.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>0.135</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Looking at the table above, the values of goodness fit indices somewhat adequate to produce a robust measurement model with the factor loading of all models is ranged from .92 to .70. Cronbach alpha coefficient, composite reliability, and variance extracted were calculated to measure the reliability of each factor. As Table 1 shows, the overall measurement model exhibits a good level of fit on all three types of model. Thus, the parsimonious model of the measurement model is accepted as the best model and adapted to test the hypotheses for this study.

Path Analysis

To assess the first three primary and six sub- hypotheses which are looking at direct relationships between independents and the dependent variable, path analysis using SEM was carried out. Next, to estimate the path coefficients, a standardized parameter with maximum likelihood estimation was used. Maximum likelihood has been the leading the estimation method used since the creation of contemporary structural equation methodology in the middle of the 1960s (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The results are illustrated in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>Standardized Estimate(β)</th>
<th>Critical Ratio (t-value)</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Label</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1:</td>
<td>Crises → Motivation</td>
<td>0.618</td>
<td>9.817</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1a:</td>
<td>Sustained → Motivation</td>
<td>0.305</td>
<td>6.394</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1b:</td>
<td>Emerging → Motivation</td>
<td>0.526</td>
<td>7.803</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1c:</td>
<td>Immediate → Motivation</td>
<td>0.452</td>
<td>8.526</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2:</td>
<td>Crises → Dest. Image</td>
<td>0.884</td>
<td>15.356</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2a:</td>
<td>Sustained → Dest.</td>
<td>0.498</td>
<td>6.411</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first main hypothesis or $H_1$ focuses on the causal relationships between crises and tourist motivation to travel after the crisis. The linkages between the crises and tourist motivation received strong support in a significant relationship ($\beta$: 0.618, $t$: 9.817, $p<0.001$). The result revealed that the crises are influencing the international tourist motivation to travel. Thus, $H_1$ was supported. The results illustrated in Table 5 showed that three sub-hypotheses $H_{1a}$, $H_{1b}$, and $H_{1c}$ are supported. The immediate crisis and international tourist motivation ($H_{1a}$) showed a significant relationship, in which the strength of the relationship is, $\beta$: 0.452, and at $t$-value of 8.526, $p<0.001$. Similarly, the relationship between emerging crisis and international tourist motivation ($H_{1b}$) portray almost identical result with $\beta$: 0.526, and at $t$-value of 7.803, $p<0.001$.

Next, the relationship between sustained crisis and international tourist motivation ($H_{1c}$) was assessed with the value of $\beta$: 0.305, and at $t$-value of 6.394, $p<0.001$. The output indicates that the international tourist motivation to travel after crises depends on the type of the crises itself. The emerging and the immediate crisis is showing slightly positive indication toward the international tourist motivation to travel compared to the sustained crisis. In other words, the international tourists are cautious in traveling after the sustained crisis compared to the immediate and emerging crisis.

The second main hypothesis or $H_2$ focuses on the causal relationships between crises and destination image. The linkages between these two variables received strong support in a significant relationship ($\beta$: 0.884, $t$: 15.356, $p<0.001$). Thus, $H_2$ was supported,
which indicates that the crises that occurred are giving negative impact towards the image of the tourist destination. The three sub-hypotheses $H_{2a}$, $H_{2b}$ and $H_{2c}$ are also supported. The immediate crisis and destination image ($H_{2a}$) showed a significant relationship, in which the strength of the relationship is, $\beta$: 0.614, and at t-value of 11.564, $p<0.001$. Assessment of the relationship between emerging crisis and destination image ($H_{2b}$) which showed a significant output with $\beta$: 0.574, and at t-value of 13.879, $p<0.001$. The relationship between sustained crisis and destination image ($H_{2c}$) is also established with the value of $\beta$: 0.498, and at t-value of 6.411, $p<0.001$. What could be said is that image of the destination is affected depending on the types of crises and with that sustained crisis is found to have a much longer negative impact towards destination image compare to the immediate and emerging crisis.

The third primary hypothesis or $H_3$ focuses on the causal relationships between destination image and the international tourist motivation. The linkages between the destination image and international tourist motivation received strong support in a significant relationship ($\beta$: 0.477, t: 8.829, $p<0.001$). Thus, $H_3$ was supported. The result indicates that the negative image caused by crises impedes the international tourist travel motivation.

**Mediation Test**

Hypothesis four ($H_4$) proposed that destination image mediates the relationship between crises and the international tourists’ travel motivation. To confirm the last hypothesis, the methodology suggested by Hair (2010) was employed which involved the four steps, as shown in Table 3.
Mohd Salehuddin Mohd Zahari, Devyn Daleowen Dusi & Mohd Hafiz Hanafiah*

Table 3. Results for Mediation Test (H₄)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mediation test</th>
<th>Standardized Estimates, p-value, Critical ratio</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1 IV-M</td>
<td>Crises $\rightarrow$ Destination Image</td>
<td>.884***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(t=15.418)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2 IV-DV</td>
<td>Crises $\rightarrow$ Motivation</td>
<td>.620***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(t=9.889)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3 M-DV</td>
<td>Destination Image $\rightarrow$ Motivation</td>
<td>.477***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(t=8.829)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 4 IV-M-DV</td>
<td>Crises + Destination Image $\rightarrow$ Motivation</td>
<td>$B_{IV}=.433***$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(t=4.763)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$B_{M}=.212$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(t=2.798)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Destination image mediates the relationship between crisis and international tourist motivation.</td>
<td>Since the step (4) value decreased and insignificant, full mediation is not confirmed (Hair, 2010).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ***Significant at p<0.01; Significant at 99%

On the first step, the path analysis is showing the relationship between crises and destination image is positive and significant with a standardized coefficient of 0.884 and a critical ratio of 15.418, p<.001. The second step explicitly shows the path between crises and tourist travel motivation with a standardized coefficient of 0.620 and the critical ratio of 9.889, p<.001. The path between destination image and international tourist motivation as the third step is also significant with a standardized coefficient of 0.477 and the critical ratio of 8.829, p<.001. The final step shows the path estimates for the bivariate relationship between crises, destination image, and international tourist motivation. The relationship were found not significant when destination image is included as an additional predictor $B_{IV}=.433**$ (t=4.763); $B_{M}=.212$ (t=2.798) (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The results reveal that destination image posits a direct effect on the relationship between immediate crisis and international tourist motivation. Since the step (4) value is decreased
and not significant, a full mediation cannot be confirmed (Hair, 2010).

Final Model

To this point, the entire postulated hypothesis had been tested and discussed. The most essential part of this study and its main contribution to academic and practical knowledge is the testing of the hypothesis. In this study, the final structural model indicates that the model has a good fit to the data found to fall within the acceptable range. The final model of this study is estimated upon deletion of non-significant paths, as presented in Figure 2.

![Figure 2. Final Model](image)

Note: Indicator: Significant path; Non significant path; --

Model fit: CMIN/DF= 3.329, RMR= 0.182; GFI= 0.625; CFI= 0.782; RMSEA= 0.106
IMPLICATION AND CONCLUSION

This research finding showed that the three types of crises undoubtedly are giving impact to the image of a country or tourism destination as well tourist travel motivation. To be specific, the sustained crisis to have the higher and longer negative impact not only on a country and tourism destination image but tourist traveling motivation. On the other two type of crises that are immediate and emerging crisis although both of them are giving the direct negative impact of the country or tourism destination image because it is temporary in nature. Therefore it does not inhibit the international tourist travel motivation soon after the crisis. These scenarios, without a doubt, are giving varying consequences and implications to the individual tourist, tourism companies (tour operators and travel agencies), government authorities and many others.

It is also evident that fascinating tourism atmospheres, extraordinaire attraction, and economic values augur the international tourists to travel especially after the immediate and emerging crisis provided that the condition at the tourist destination is safe and secure. With this indicator, in any immediate and emerging crises occurring, the governments and in the context of this study the government of Malaysia should take quick and proactive action in combating, controlling and minimizing the crises which can at least reduced its impact on the tourism industry. During this situation or period, the government should tighten the security system in all aspects to ensuring the situation is safe and secure to travel.

Another implication is relating to the promotion. In the context Malaysia, it is important for the public and private agencies which are responsible for marketing like Tourism Malaysia soon after the crises to take necessary steps in regaining Malaysia image as a favorite destination by developing multiple promotional campaigns such as safety and discounted rates on various tourism packages.
Safety promotions such as the testimonial from the experienced tourists during the crises would provide means to attract visitors that situation at the tourism spots is under control from the safety risks. In supporting the safety promotion, the government should promptly be luring the international tourist by offering reasonable tourism packages including the flight fare and accommodation prices.

As a conclusion, the cooperation and collaboration between government and related authorities are therefore crucial and should be further strengthened to nurture the practical strategies by using safe and security together with other influential available pulling factors like fascinating tourism atmospheres, extraordinaire attraction, and worth economic values especially after the crises. In doing so, although the tourism industry will slightly be affected by the disasters, but it is not entirely losing the foreign exchange revenue in the extended period.

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WE DO MORE THAN WE CAN TELL. PERSPECTIVES OF TACIT KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER IN TOURISM ACCOMMODATION ESTABLISHMENTS

Spyros Avdimiotis®
Alexander Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki

Tacit knowledge is a concept developed in connection with knowledge management research field. It is acknowledged as the cornerstone of competitive advantage; however, merely its possession does not guarantee an edge in fierce competition. Even though tacit knowledge holds a dominative role towards labor efficiency, productivity and innovation, the subject of tacit knowledge acquisition and transfer has been rather unexploited, mostly due to its intrinsic, highly personal and seamlessly bonded to holder’s personality, attributes. The purpose of the article is to contribute to the exploitation of the embedded tacit knowledge of employees in hospitality establishments, a sector where the employment of tacit knowledge has to be extensive and foremost, capitalizing the maximum of personnel competences. Towards this goal, research hypotheses were built and tested, using SEM Methodology. The final outcome of the study revealed that task assignment customized to employees’ personality and emotions is directly and positively correlated with tacit knowledge transfer.

Keywords: Tacit Knowledge Transfer, customization of workflow, Employee Personality and emotions,
INTRODUCTION

Knowledge has been identified as an ongoing, dynamic process involving the overlapping actions of acquisition and transfer, stimulating growth and development in organizations (Davenport and Prusak, 2000; Haldin-Herrgard, 2000; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995).

During the last decades, there have been various attempts to classify the types of knowledge (Lemos and Joia, 2010; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995), an early and seminal distinction, though, has been made by Polanyi, (1962) who distinguish explicit and tacit knowledge.

Explicit is the type of knowledge which is possible to codify, therefore feasible to diffuse, discuss, prove and acquire (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1991, Davenport and Prusak 1998). On the contrary, tacit knowledge is almost impossible to codify and manage. Polanyi (1966), postulated “we know more than we can tell” implying that tacit knowledge, is quite difficult to manage and transfer (Joia, 2007; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1997). Tacit knowledge management and sharing has been the subject of many scientific researches during the last few decades, but, as Shaw and Williams (2009) argued, it is still an emerging agenda in tourism, even though in hotel management operations, the value of tacit knowledge was deemed by the researchers as highly significant (El-Sharkawy, 2007, Hallin and Marburg, 2007, Wang and Noe, 2010).

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Tacit knowledge widely, is considered to be the cornerstone of competitive advantage for a wide spectrum of organizations (e.g. Murray and Peyrefitte, 2007; BouLlusrar and Segarra-Ciprés, 2006; Becerra-Fernandez & Sabherwal, 2001 Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004) deriving from personal experience and filtered through
possessor’s personality and emotions. (O’Dell and Grayson 1998, Nonaka and Takeuchi 1996). Moreover, according to Hasher & Zacks, (1979), Dulani (1996) and Chilton & Bloodgood, (2008) tacit knowledge becomes a habit or a routine, frequently repeated and largely depended from intuition, feelings, emotions, insights and personality. In line with this, tacit knowledge has a highly personal nature, is subjective, thus difficult to formalize, manage, process, acquire, reutilize and transfer. Researchers such as Van der Spek & Spijkervert, (2007), Marquard (2006), Davenport and Prusak, (1998) Collins (1993), Hahn and Subramani (2000), Accenture (2000), Nonaka and Takeuchi (1996) Szulanski (2006), seem to agree on the basis that tacit knowledge is mainly subconscious and expressed, by “doing things” -individually or as a group-. Such behaviors could be the subject of observation, a story to remember, tell and discuss among the members of the personnel. In other words, tacit knowledge transfer success depends on the levels and ease of informal communication and relationship between the source and recipient.

Based on the preferences and value of tacit knowledge (Murray and Hanlon 2010), the initial scientific question was raised, focusing on “whether tacit knowledge can be successfully distributed among hotel employees and to what extent”. To answer this question, the research used as a basic instrument, behaviors, which according to Nonaka and Takeuchi (1996) is a valuable resource of tacit knowledge. In fact the research addresses the ability of any organization’s leadership to stimulate behaviors that could facilitate effective tacit knowledge management. Associating leadership styles and behaviors, Wagner and Hollenbeck (2005) and George and Jones (2011), support the argument that each leadership style falls into a particular set of workflow rules that exploit employee personal qualities, determining organizational behaviour and task performing methods.
Under the assumption of direct positive association between employees’ personality, emotions and behavior, in hotel establishments, the basic working hypothesis if formed, arguing that the adjustment of task assignment to personality, and emotions will grant to employees the ability to develop behaviors that will reveal tacit knowledge.

Taking into consideration the significance of job assignment flexibility and customization, the variable of Personality and Emotions (PE), was developed to observe integration with knowledge acquisition and transfer. The first two hypotheses were developed, to acknowledge the association between Personality and Emotions (PE) and tacit knowledge acquisition (TKA) and transfer (TKT) in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personality and emotions (PE).

\[ H1a: \text{Tacit knowledge acquisition process (TKA) is positively correlated with task assignment adjusted to employees’ personality and emotions (PE).} \]

\[ H1b: \text{Tacit knowledge transfer process (TKT) is positively correlated with task assignment adjusted to employees’ personality and emotions (PE).} \]

Nevertheless, the ability to comprehend the aspects of personality (Watson, 1989) and Emotions within the assigned task, requires trust, clear and thorough communication, commitment and appropriate organizational structures. Researching on the ability to value tacit knowledge, the variables interpersonal relationship, communication, trust, willingness to help and leadership style were observed and emphasized as significant. Roberts (2000) supports the argument that a stable, trustworthy and reliable Interpersonal relationship reduces the fear of knowledge sharing, while Grant (1996) stated that trust and socialization are equally important during the stage of knowledge share. Brachos et al (2007) highlights
the importance of social interaction and trust towards the effective knowledge transfer, while Lemos and Joia (2010) postulated that a personal relationship framework could be an ex ante precondition for knowledge diffusion, enabling the human factor to express their idiosyncratic characteristics.

The same argument on social interrelationship is supported by Wang and Noe (2010) who also highlight as catalytic factors of tacit knowledge transfer, the willingness to help, trust and communicate. Puusa and Eerikäinen (2011) argue that the transfer of the immaterial, subjective and abstractive nature of tacit knowledge depends on the extent of the learning culture, communication, trust and social network among the employees. Harvey (2012) support the argument of tacit knowledge transfer through the development of a knowledge grid based on mutual understanding and help, recognizing as enablers of transfer the experienced members of the staff. Hay (1995) and Argote et al (2003) also support the significance of employee behavior in correlation with the aforementioned factors of the Interpersonal relationship. Since the influence of social interaction and relationship between the staff members, was observed as significant, the consideration of the variable was required. Therefore, the parameter of Interpersonal relationship (IR) was observed, seeking to reveal the connection between IR and Tacit Knowledge Acquisition and Transfer. The assumption of tacit knowledge sub consciousness and synchronous expression of knowledge transfer and acquisition was also kept under consideration and for that reason the developed hypothesis seeks to directly associate the variable of SRN with TKA and TKT.

**H2a: Interpersonal relationship (IR) is positively correlated with tacit knowledge acquisition. (TKA) process, in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personality and emotions (PE)**
H2b: Interpersonal relationship (IR) is positively correlated with tacit knowledge transfer (TKT) process, in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personality and emotions (PE).

The literature review clearly indicates that tacit knowledge depends basically on the human factor and the elements that define and characterize it. The challenge for the leadership of the organization is to create the appropriate environment for individuals and groups to subconsciously expose through routines and behaviors their valuable knowledge to their fellow co-workers. Therefore, leadership style seems to be of conspicuous importance, providing the framework within which actions and behaviors of tacit knowledge transfer take place. Holsapple and Joshi (2000), Chan and Chau (2005) support the argument, that leadership is one of the most important factors of (tacit) knowledge transfer determining the manner and efficiency of the process, Jennex and Olfman (2006), linked leadership style and staff behavior with the development of effective knowledge transfer mechanisms, while several researchers (e.g. Fayol 1949, Hodgson 1995, Wagner and Hollenbeck, 2005, Ojo 2009) emphasized that the management under any leadership style, establish codified grids of rules distributing responsibilities and authorities to control employees’ behavior. The literature review also highlighted the importance of leadership style during the accomplishment of effective tacit knowledge management. As stated (Nonaka 1995) tacit knowledge is highly personal and quite difficult to distinguish, since it is mainly subconscious and substantially bonded with personal attributes qualities, for this reason the research focuses on the behavior of the staff members, as a reliable source and valuable mean of tacit knowledge transfer. Consequently, the effort to acknowledge the engagement of leadership and the establishment of customized task assignment towards the genesis of appropriate staff behaviours led to the development of specific research questions and hypotheses. Minding that Tacit Knowledge
Transfer and Acquisition are seamlessly and inseparably connected, a hypothesis was built associating the variable of Leadership (L), with the variable of tacit knowledge acquisition (TKA) and Transfer (TKT).

**H3a:** Leadership (L) is positively correlated Tacit Knowledge Acquisition (TKA) process, in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personality and emotions (PE).

**H3b:** Leadership (L) is positively correlated Tacit Knowledge Transfer (TKT) process, in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personality and emotions (PE).

The term Structured Communication refers to the state of mutual twofold interaction and information exchange between parts, using commonly understandable written or verbal code, in a commonly sensed reference scope, according to Feely and Harzing (2003). Verbal communication channels use words- symbols stimulating a reaction. Non verbal communication involves forms of non linguistic communication, which is perceived through senses, inducing the process of human interaction.

According to researchers, non verbal communication is subconscious, mainly signified and expressed using facial expression, hand and body moves (Fogel, 1981). Also, Rousseau (1985) supports the argument that in a non verbal communication phonetic instruments are utilized to express paralinguistic phenomena such as voice volume, tone, hue etc during the communication. Ellis and Beattie (1986), adhere the argument that interaction involves both manners of communication, also happening at the same time. For instance, a verbal communication is combined with non verbal signs, such as a shoulder or a head move.
Tacit knowledge being mainly subconscious refers mainly to nonverbal communication, which remains though, a unique but yet an integral part of the formal communication structure. Towards this direction, the developed hypothesis answers to the scientific inquiry, to what extent the formal communication structure (FCS) interacts with tacit knowledge acquisition (TKA) and transfer (TKT)

\[ \text{H4a: Formal communication structure (FCS) is positively correlated with tacit knowledge acquisition (TKA), in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personality and emotions (PE).} \]

\[ \text{H4b: Formal communication structure (FCS) is positively correlated with tacit knowledge transfer (TKT), in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personality and emotions (PE).} \]

In the demanding working environment of hospitality establishments, only seldom a person alone is fully capable to solve complex issues and problems faced in everyday working operations in hotel establishments. Cooperation and synergies are (needed to be) developed between employees, to obtain the critical mass of information and respond successfully to emerging issues. Employees are turning to each other- and not to manuals or other written material-simply because answers include beyond words, valuable pieces of tacit knowledge, usually expressed with gestures. According to Handy (1994), people are likely more possible to turn to friends and colleagues to exchange ideas and get answers, while they are implementing the specific task. This procedure of knowledge signals exchange and creation, occurs simultaneously among employees, who act as knowledge transmitters and receivers as well. This argument has been supported from many researchers, who considered acquisition and transfer as two different and distinct activities, but “inseparably related” as Grant (1996) indicated. As noted, Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1996, Szulanski 2006, Chilton and
Bloodgood 2008, Joia and Lemos, 2010, among a plethora of other academics, predicated that both transfer and acquisition may co exist chronologically, as the same person could receive and transfer knowledge signals simultaneously. Seeking to discover the association of Tacit Knowledge Transfer (TKT) and Tacit Knowledge Acquisition (TKA), within the working environment of customized task assignment- taking under consideration elements of personality and emotions- , the following hypothesis was built and tested.

H5: Tacit Knowledge Acquisition (TKA) is positively correlated with tacit knowledge transfer, in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personality and emotions (PE).

RESEARCH METHOD AND DESIGN

The primary objective of the study is to investigate the association of personality and emotions with the processes of tacit knowledge acquisition and transfer. The originality of the theory, in combination with lack of similar research models, led to the development of a theory building model, correlating the fixed variable of FCR with the variables of tacit knowledge acquisition and transfer and the latent variables of Interpersonal relationship, leadership style and formal communication.

To verify the validity of the model, a two phase, primary, qualitative and quantitative, research was contacted. The significant difficulty faced during the research design, was to acknowledge the extent of task customization according to personality and emotions in the hotels of the sample. To verify the extent of customization, interviews were contacted using semi structured questionnaires. In particular, the fixed (not random) variable of personality and emotions (PE) as categorical had to embed all hypothesized kinds of
customization: a) No customization at all b) partially customized and c) fully customized to personality and emotions. The challenging part of the research was to identify which type of task customization applied to each hotel separately and for that reason- in every hotel- two personal semi structured interviews were contacted, one with the general manager and one with the human resource division manager (first phase of the research). The items used for the semi structured interviews were obtained through a primary Delphi method research, between 5 members (3 academic staff members from the tourism management departments of the Cyprus University of Technology, and Alexander Technological Educational Institution 1 member of the industry and one member of the Cypriot Tourism Organization).

Upon the completion of the interviews, at least ten employees at each hotel were asked to respond on the structured questionnaire realizing the second quantitative phase of the research. The structured questionnaire was a synthesis of six sections each one consisted of an adequate number of 5-point Likert scaled questions, with answers varying from 1=Absolutely Disagree to 5=Absolutely Agree.

To implement the designed research a multistage sample of 750 questionnaires, including the structured and the 107 semi structured ones, were administered during a 4 month period (March to June 2013) to individuals working full time in 3, 4 and 5 star hotels in Northern Greece. The criteria of selecting the hotels were a. the existing infrastructures and services, (regions of integrated tourism development, urban centers etc) b. the capacity, c. tourist arrivals, d. number of employees. Mindful of the typical low response rate in similar surveys, a mixed approach was used to increase the number of responses. This included a traditional mail followed by a telephone call to arrange an appointment with the managing director and proceed with the fulfilment of the questionnaire. The research implementation procedure in each hotel was the same, with duration of approximately 3 hours. Upon the
arrival in the hotel establishments, the interviews with the managing
director and the HR manager were contacted and afterwards, at least
ten employees were asked to fulfill the questionnaire. To avoid any
misunderstandings, the researcher had a close monitor of the
procedure. It was a quite facilitating coincidence the fact the author
was a member of the team who delivered the study of national
strategic spatial planning in the tourism sector in Greece and it was
quite convenient to inform the industry and contact the survey
simultaneously. The questionnaires were answered under the
discrete inspection of the researcher therefore, Out of 643
distributed questionnaires, 598 valid were gathered, along with 107
interviews in 56 hotels in northern Greece (Halkidiki, Thessaloniki
and Pieria).

The employed statistical method used to analyze the outcome
of the survey was Structural Equation Modelling. SEM is not merely
a single statistical technique, but a set of analytic tools that utilize
covariance matrices to address model hypotheses. Furthermore,
SEM provides a series of statistical methods that allow to
association between one or more independent variables and one or
more dependent variables. According to Valluzzi et al (2003) SEM
as a mathematical technique, enables the analyst to proceed to
quantitative estimates of model parameters and to estimate goodness
of fit of the theoretical model. In this research, Structural equation
modelling (SEM) was used to represent with reliable and convenient
way, the structure and the hypothesized relationships among the
observed variable of Task assignment to personality and emotions,
to the latent variables of Interpersonal relationship, Leadership,
Formal Communication Network.
RESULTS

The task assignment method followed in each organization can be one of the following categories: (a) Strict, (b) flexible according to the qualifications of the employee and (c) fully customized, adapted to the personality of the employee. In order to study the effect of assignment type on the transfer of tacit knowledge, it is desirable to introduce the variable Personality and Emotions (PE) as an exogenous variable in the SEM model and perform a single group analysis, rather than treating it as a grouping variable in a multi-group analysis. The variable *personality and emotions (PE)* is thus introduced in the main analysis as a fixed, observed exogenous variable. This is acceptable in SEM analysis (with e.g. Maximum
Likelihood estimation) independently from the distribution of the fixed variable, provided that the following conditions are true:

1. For any value of the fixed variable, the random variables in the model have a conditional normal distribution.
2. The conditional variance-covariance matrix of the random variables is the same for every pattern of the fixed variable.
3. The conditional expected values of the random variables depend linearly on the values of the fixed variable.

In order to check the above conditions, a multi-group analysis was performed for each group of hotels falling into the category of strict, flexible or customized task assignment, respectively.

The condition for normality was met, with some relaxed requirement regarding the deviation for normality. It is noted that also in the normality tests performed on the full sample, several variables were found as non-normal and, in the most severe cases, the corresponding items were rejected, however a moderate deviation from normal distribution was accepted. In order to check that the impact on the estimation of the model was not severe, the parameter estimation was verified with the Scale-Free Least Squares method, which is not sensitive to non-normal variables.

In order to check the equality of variances-covariances of all variables among different groups, a multi-group model has been specified in AMOS with the restriction of equal variances-covariances, according to the method proposed by Sörbom as an alternative to the analysis of covariance (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1978). This model was checked against the model itself, which allows variances-covariances to vary freely among groups and the difference in the resulting $\chi^2$ and in the degrees of freedom were used to check if the hypothesis of equal variances can be accepted.

The values of the variable Personality and emotions are considered as ordered regarding the adaptability of the task assignment method in each organization. The expected values of all
variables were indeed linearly dependent on the values of the variable (adjustment) to personality and emotions.

**MEASUREMENT AND MODEL EVALUATION**

The relevant statistics indicate acceptable fit of the measurement model. The model yielded a $\chi^2$ value of 2181.604 with 648 degrees of freedom ($p=0.000$). In response to chi-square’s inbuilt limitations, the CMIN/DF fit ($\chi^2$ divided by the degrees of freedom) surfaced as the more appropriate fit statistic with values less than 3 indicating an acceptable fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The final model revealed an acceptable CMIN/DF of 3.367. These values established acceptable fit according to the criteria suggested by (Bagozzi and Yi 1988, Hair et al. 1988, Fornell and Larcker 1981): $\chi^2$/df $<5$, CFI $> .9$, GFI $\geq .8$, AGFI $\geq .8$ and RMSEA $< .06$. In particular, the model achieved a Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) of 0.63, with a lower boundary of a two-sided 90% confidence interval for the population of 0.060 and an upper boundary of 0.066. Moreover, the model produced a CFI (Comparative Fit Index) score .941, and an IFI (Incremental Fit Index) score .936; all falling within the acceptable ranges ($> .90$) for acceptable fit (Hair, et al, 2010). PRATIO (.922) and PCFI (.867) were also within acceptable fit thresholds [Mulaik et al. 1989] Regarding CFI and IFI threshold of $> .95$, measurements were also acceptable.

A number of measurements were conducted with the aim of assessing the construct validity of the proposed theory. The construct validity, the extent to which the measured items actually reflect the theoretical latent construct proposed, was evaluated in terms of convergent validity. In this process, all latent variables were treated as exogenous, i.e. there were no paths pointing from one variable to another but there was provision for correlation paths between all combinations of variables. The criteria used were that all factor loadings for the observed variables were $>0.6$, the
Construct Reliability and Average Variance Extracted were CR>0.7 and AVE>0.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s a</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IR</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.939</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCS</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.852</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.959</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TKA</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.940</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TKT</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.965</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standardized path coefficients and the significance of the hypothesized relationships were utilized. The values extracted suggest that hypothesis H1a can be supported since positive associations were revealed between Personality and Emotions (PE) variable and tacit knowledge acquisition (TKA), (the standardized path coefficient was $\beta=0.090$, with $p<0.001$. H1b hypothesis was supported with $\beta=0.064$ and $p<0.003$. The H2a Hypothesis was also supported (the standardized path coefficient was $\beta=0.631$ with $p<0.001$). H3a hypothesis had standardized path coefficient $\beta=0.335$ with $p<0.009$, was also backed up. Hypothesis H4a was accepted, achieving a value of $\beta=0.197$ and $p<0.0001$ while H5 the final hypothesis had a value of $\beta=0.990$ ($p<0.001$).

The strong connection between Tacit Knowledge Acquisition and Tacit Knowledge Transfer (Hypothesis H5) indicates the indirect correlation of the (b) group hypothesis. That means that hypothesis H2b was supported achieving $\beta=0.316$, The H3b had an indirect value of $\beta=0.231$ and finally hypothesis H4b achieved $\beta=0.061$. Evidence for the association is provided through the AMOS
software (Amos Output, Estimates, Matrices, indirect effects), as shown in the table 2.

Taking into account the direct and indirect matrices of the model, the research postulates the positive connection between the variables of Leadership, Interpersonal relationship and Formal Communication Structure. Meaning that in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personal qualities and furthermore, the framework of job description is adjusted to labor skills and personal characteristics, the transfer of tacit knowledge is feasible.

**Table(2): Indirect correlations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PE</th>
<th>L</th>
<th>FSR</th>
<th>IR</th>
<th>TKA</th>
<th>TKT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acquisition</td>
<td>,000</td>
<td>,000</td>
<td>,000</td>
<td>,000</td>
<td>,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
<td>,097</td>
<td>,352</td>
<td>,207</td>
<td>,665</td>
<td>,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall, the analysis exhibited that 11 of the 11 postulated hypotheses can be accepted. The overall hypotheses research outcome is represented in the following table (3):

**Table (3): Hypotheses confirmation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1a Tacit knowledge acquisition process (TKA) is positively correlated with task assignment adjusted to employees’ Personality and Emotions (PE).</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1b Tacit knowledge transfer process (TKT) is positively correlated with task assignment adjusted to employees’ Personality and Emotions (PE).</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2a Interpersonal relationship (IR) is positively correlated with tacit knowledge acquisition. (TKA) process, in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ Personality and Emotions</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2b Interpersonal relationship (IR) is positively correlated with tacit knowledge transfer (TKT) process, in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
to employees’ personal qualities

H3a Leadership (L) is positively correlated Tacit Knowledge Acquisition (TKA) process, in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personal qualities

H3b Leadership (L) is positively correlated Tacit Knowledge Transfer (TKT) process, in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personal qualities.

H4a Formal communication structure (FCS) is positively correlated with tacit knowledge acquisition (TKA), in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personal qualities.

H4b Formal communication structure (FCS) is positively correlated with tacit knowledge transfer (TKT), in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personal qualities.

H5 Tacit Knowledge Acquisition (TKA) is positively correlated with tacit knowledge transfer, in a working environment where task assignment is adjusted to employees’ personal qualities.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

While undertaking the literature review, it became clear, that tacit knowledge management as research field in hotel management studies is still in its infancy, despite its critical significance charge and value. It was also strong evidenced, that tacit knowledge is strongly bonded with employee behaviors, communication, influences and interaction and therefore, since literature also supports the argument that behavior is determined by personal qualities. To support the theory building argument, a research was carried out to examine the association between task assignment customization to employee’s Personality and Emotions and tacit knowledge management, in the working environment of hotels, in Northern Greece. The utilization of structural equation modelling enabled us to gain an in-depth holistic perspective of the causal
linkages of the aforementioned constructs within the hospitality landscape.

The findings supported the basic hypothesis that the variable of Personality and Emotions was positively connected with tacit knowledge acquisition and transfer. Since the connection cannot be confirmed under total consistent (ceteris paribus) conditions, the variables of interpersonal relationship, leadership and formal communication were also included. The evidence that came through the research indicate that via holistic consideration of employee intrinsic and extrinsic traits they develop behaviors operating as tacit knowledge subconscious transmitters, reinforcing at the same time the intellectual capital of the hotel. This tacit knowledge tank is the subject of observation and discussion among other employees who capture and filter through their intrinsic scheme of values and beliefs. More analytically, within the variable of Interpersonal relationship (IR) the items of mutual trust was depicted, the extent of informal communication, interpersonal relationship, willingness to offer, and participation in social events were very well loaded. The research so far is affirmative to prior research as mentioned before, showing that socialization is one of the necessary and sufficient conditions of tacit knowledge flow. Being in line with literature in this argument also proves that socialization proximity tends to be one of the central pillars of tacit knowledge management process. Accordingly, the variable of Leadership comprised by the items of seeking alternative approaches to manage a problem, the ability of the leader to discern the personal characteristics of staff members, to encourage initiation, creativity, knowledge exchange, to care about their personal life, to have the ability to build friendly and co operation relationships. The loadings achieved and the positive connection with knowledge acquisition is consistent with the existing and aforementioned literature as well. The hypotheses regarding the communication framework were also supported, proving the accuracy of the research. Szulanski (2002), Nonaka and Takeuchi (1996), Disterer 2003, Malhorta (2005) Sun and Scott
2005, Murray and Peyrefitte 2007, Grant (1996), Brachos et al (2007), Lemos and Joia (2010) they all agree on the importance of formal and informal communication making quite clear the distinction between the two types of communication, who also are seamlessly related together. On this issue Malhotra (2005) implies that communication schemes and procedures surely exist, but the real knowledge transfer happen at the organization’s cafeteria, between the coffee machine and the water cooler. The acceptance of the hypothesis is in line with the existing literature proving that the formal communication framework may have a positive correlation with explicit (Sigala and Chalkiti, 2007) and tacit knowledge acquisition and transfer. Regarding the issue of weak connection between customized task assignment and Tacit Knowledge Acquisition and Transfer, the answer - and the contribution of the research in the field of tacit knowledge management- is that the findings are in line and confirm the existing literature pointing out that tacit knowledge is indeed difficult to transfer, but not impossible.

Another important issue that comes up in the surface is the connection between tacit knowledge acquisition and transfer. As it was stated earlier, tacit knowledge is mainly subconscious and simultaneously active. This parallel but yet, different processes, cannot be clearly separated. Being more specific, the variable of transfer was including the items (notions) of sharing knowledge and discussing, along with the items of experimentation. During the primary analysis of undimensionality, a Principal Components Analysis was contacted, revealing one factor with high loadings (>0.7), explaining the 77.18% of the variable. Based on that statistical element, there was no ground to split the transfer factor in to behavioral items (discuss, share, exchange ideas, express experiences etc) and knowledge experimentation and initiatives taken. The PCA analysis on Transfer and Acquisition also highlighted the very strong connection between them.
Tacit knowledge is a vital but thus far, less exploited part of knowledge mainly due to its subconscious and depended from personal characteristics and attributes, preferences. As noted, prior research appears to support the argument that social and direct communication, among employees, is conductive to knowledge sharing, leading to an organizational culture, positively subjected to knowledge acquisition and transfer (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005). Tacit knowledge management though, requires more than a positive organizational culture. Research suggests it is important management to adopt new strategies –shifting orientation from the object to the subject-, being able to design tacit knowledge transfer initiatives that are aligned with existing working habits and routines (McDermott and O Dell, 2001), insuring that employees are more involved, confident, less stressed, willing to share knowledge and work together and overall being satisfied with their working status quo. The adoption of a management strategy incorporating staff’s personal characteristics increases the effectiveness of tacit knowledge management initiatives, contributing at the same time the necessary social closeness, communication efficiency and knowledge sharing culture. It is management’s duty to acknowledge these qualities and adjust the working position to the person and not vice versa. Moreover, in a hotel working environment, where the final “product” is the acquired experience, management ought’s to synchronize the establishment of a learning and sharing culture with efficient management strategies and employees’ satisfaction. In more details, the contacted research proved that hotels incorporating the strategy of Personality and Emotions exploitation seem to keep their staff more satisfied and interested, giving the chance to express themselves, take initiatives and finally to conform the working position to their actual capabilities. Moving a step
forward, employees feel more comfortable, to communicate, trust, help, take successful initiatives and participate in a learning and knowledge transfer and acquisition environment.

The crucial point remains at the stage of evaluation and placement of each member to the right place. Task assignment, also based on personal characteristics and qualities, requires an adequate level of acquaintance with the employees, their skills and their personal attributes and psychological characteristics. Task customization to working and personal qualifications, provides the opportunity to integrate work with personal characteristics, increasing significantly the levels of satisfaction and commitment. In a hotel where task assignment takes under consideration personality elements and emotions, the research revealed a strong positive relationship between the factors of tacit knowledge acquisition, transfer and the factors of interpersonal relationship, communication and leadership. The strong association of all factors provides a stable ground for the leadership to acknowledge and utilize the whole range of employee capabilities achieving at the same time staff’s commitment towards the organizational goals.

Focusing on the functional level of administration, Srivastava, S. (2011) and Abrams et al (2003) support the argument that in a working environment of trust and social closeness, employees, act with discretion; they seem to be consistent between word and deed; they are willing to establish a sure and frequent communication; they are more willing to collaborate; they make decisions fair and transparent. Also according to Brachos (2007) there is a reduction of complexity on the working environment allowing staff members to solve easier any possible conflicts, while employees seem to acquire the appropriate flexibility to bypass bureaucracy, creating at the same time multiple channels of knowledge sharing and transfer mechanisms, reinforcing the culture of knowledge transfer, in the learning organization. According to the research findings in a working environment with close interpersonal relationships,
connections create a belief that each person has some level of concern for the other therefore employees are more willing to help, create synergies and work as a team. Regarding the HR policy determination level, Goleman (1998) argues that interpersonal relationship and trust strengthens the bond between administration and employees, creating a culture of co operation and mutual understanding. Nergiz et al (2011), Levin and Cross (2004) also support the argument that in an environment of trust and co operation, employees undertake initiatives, being innovative and active. In the level of strategic planning, organization tents to be able to ground on a strategic plan using innovative capabilities, commitment and cooperation, achieving at the same time high levels of employee satisfaction

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UNDERSTANDING THE ROLE OF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND VACATION MOTIVES IN VACATIONER’S DECISION MAKING PROCESS: A CASE OF LANGKAWI ISLAND

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Mohd Azam Osman
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Tarmiji Masron
Universiti Sains Malaysia

This study was designed to identify the relative importance vacation motives as perceived by the tourist visiting Langkawi Island, Kedah, Malaysia. In addition, this study also explored the underlying dimensions of the vacation motives and determinants factors. Questionnaires were distributed using convenient sampling utilizing 252 tourists and were analyzed using SPSS program. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was deployed to determine whether the derived vacation motives and determinants varied among groups of socio-demographic and travelling characteristics. The findings indicated that the social-demographic factors placed a great influence on the perception of tourist towards Langkawi Island. Travel motivations and determinants were found to be significantly different in means when compared across different socio-demographic factors like age and income level. The findings also revealed the important segmentation...
variables in the context of consumer behavior literature where it became the contributing factors to develop appropriate marketing strategies to attract travelers.

**Keywords:** Vacation motives; Vacation factors; Socio-demographic; Tourism marketing

**INTRODUCTION**

Vacation decision making is often regarded as a high-risk decision to be made because vacationer can neither directly observed what is being bought, nor try it out personally before the decision is made. In addition, vacation decision making is a multidimensional process which include the sub-decision making to be made on different attributes such as choice of destination, type of accommodation, mode of transportation, kinds of activities, price level, and others. Heung, Qu, and Chu (2001) defined vacation motives as a set of attributes that aggregated together and describe a place as a travel destination. Existing researches on the ther hand highlights that vacation decision making process is a function of the multi attributes vacationer perceived and of the importance of those attributes to the individual (Goodrich, 1978).

Collaboratively, many researches have been conducted to identify possible vacation motives that can be used to segment vacationer into homogenous groups. Many tourism literatures have proposed different segmentation criteria and the most widely used is socio-demographic criteria. With the increasing complexity in tourism products and competition, the need to classify vacationers is increasingly important. Such topologies can be used in day-to-day operations for tourism authorities that allows them to be better informed and understood on the inter-relationships between their offering and vacationer’s demand. Therefore, to further understand the relationship, Langkawi Island is chosen that suit the purpose as
one of the best tourism destination in Malaysia. This study determine to achieve the following research objectives:

a. To identify the relative importance of vacation motives perceived by vacationer when visiting Langkawi Island.

b. To examine how vacation motives change respectively to different socio-demographic factors for vacationers visiting Langkawi Island.

c. To examine the significant differences between demographic factors and vacation characteristics.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Vacation Motivation

An understanding of vacationer’s motivation is crucial to develop appropriate marketing strategies. Tourism marketers will be benefited if they are able to predict the likely choice of destination and the types of activities vacationers would like to engage. Therefore, there are corresponding needs to understand further the vacation motivation. Firstly, motivation drives vacationer’s behavior as it arouses, directs, and integrates behavior (Fodness, 1994). Secondly, motivation will determine vacationer’s choice of destination and help to explain their preference over certain vacation activities (Moscardo, Morrison, Pearce, Lang, & O’Leary, 1996). Thirdly, vacationer’s motivation varies across different individuals; failure in identifying this variation may hamper the design of vacation service offering to meet the vacationer’s demand (Beh & Bruyere, 2007).

Various theories and models have been introduced to explain about the motivations. One of the most widely cited model is the push-pull model (Crompton, 1979). This model decomposed
vacationer’s motivation to choose a vacation destination by largely depending on two factors which are the push-factor and the pull-factor respectively. The push-factor pushes vacationers away from home. This includes the internal or emotional aspects such as the desire for escape, rest and relaxation, adventure or social interaction (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996). On the other hand, the pull-factor is reinforced by the push-factor. Typical pull-factor includes external, situational or cognitive aspects associated with the destination itself (Devesa, Laguna, & Palacoi, 2010). Pull factors include leisure facilities, cultural or natural features, convenience, accessibility, and transportation (Devesa et al., 2010).

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VACATION MOTIVATION AND SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

Earlier researches showed that socio-demographic and trip variables affected perceptions of a destination image (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). Many researches also proved that socio-demographic factors such as age, income level, education level, and occupation are important factors in affecting vacationers’ perceptions towards a vacation destination (Zimmer, Brayley, & Searke, 1995; McCleary & Weaver, 1992; Goodall & Ashworth, 1988). Their findings are pretty much consistent in the recent studies where motivations may differ because of socio-demographic factors. For instance gender, age, BMI, education, occupation, and income were positively significant with the swimming activity (Biernat, 2012). Study also demonstrated that marital status affects the tourist activity (Biernat & Vikuk, 2012). On the other hand, nationality also positively correlate with the vacation motivations (Prayag & Ryan, 2011). In addition, O’Connell (2010) revealed that age, gender, and level experience affects the motivation to involve in sea kayak.
A structured questionnaire survey was conducted to understand the role of socio-demographic factors and vacation motives in vacationer’s decision making process among the vacationers visiting Langkawi Island. The data was gathered using convenient sampling approach in most of the tourist attraction points in Langkawi.

The questionnaire consisted of two sections. In the first section, respondents were asked to express their trip characteristics. For example, their experienced with Langkawi island (i.e. first time or frequent visitors), prior destination before coming to Langkawi and also next destination after this vacation, information about the island, mode of transportation and the reasons on choosing Langkawi at the specific time. In the second section, respondents were required to rate nine vacations motives and ten specialties of Langkawi Island for the leisure travel on a five-point Likert scale (1= extremely unimportant, and 5 = extremely important). Existing literatures stated that a total of 33 vacation motives had been identified in various studies (Zimmer et al., 1995; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Goodall & Ashworth, 1988). This study refined and condensed these 33 vacation motives to only 11 after a thorough discussion with a group of experts including tourism authority and agents. In the third section, the questionnaire was designed to capture respondents’ socio-demographic characteristics.

The data collection were then analysed using statistical package for social science version 18 (SPSS 18). One-way ANOVA (analysis of variance) test coupled with post hoc multiple comparison were used to test the significant difference among the vacations motives across different socio-demographic factors.
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 252 vacationers were surveyed in this study. The majority of the respondents were male (64.3%) and most of them were aged between 20 to 25 years old. 59.5% or the majority of them were single and 50% of them were employed. Besides that, 47.6% of them were vacationers from Malaysia. In regards to the education levels, 45.2% of them hold a university degree. There were three distinctive income group in this study. 35.7% of them having an annual income of below RM20,000, 26.2% of them having an annual income more than RM60,000, and 23.8% of them earning around RM30,001 to RM40,000 per year. The descriptive analysis of the vacationers’ socio demographic factors are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Socio-Demographic Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socio-Demographic Factors</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
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</thead>
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</table>
Based on Table 2, in regards to the vacation motives, significant differences were found on ‘peace and quiet’, ‘value for money’, and ‘promotion and publicity’ between genders. Age group
showed a great power in affecting the vacationer’s vacation motives in all contexts. Besides that, marital status also affected the vacationer’s rating decision on ‘clean and clear water’, ‘interesting activities’, and ‘promotion and publicity’. Moreover, employment status also affected the rating of ‘beautiful scenery’, ‘clean and clear water’, ‘good services’, ‘peace and quiet’, ‘abundance of coral and marine life’, and ‘promotion and publicity’. On the other hand, this result illustrated that vacationers coming from different countries will perceive the vacation motives differently and the results were significant across all the vacation motives. Education level was a powerful factor in shaping different rating on vacation motives. The analysis showed all the vacation motives were significant different across many vacation motives except ‘peace and quiet’. Lastly, different annual income levels also affect their rating on many vacation motives except ‘interesting activities’ and ‘good facilities’.

Referring to Table 3, vacationers’ perception toward Langkawi as a special vacation destination comparing to the other tourist destinations in Malaysia, gender and marital status were found to be insignificant factor to affect their perception. In spite of that, vacationers coming from different age groups were found to have significantly different perception of the specialty of Langkawi except ‘peace and quiet’ and ‘value for money’. Besides that, vacationers also rate ‘beautiful scenery’, ‘clean and clear water’, and ‘good services’ significantly difference across different employment status. Moreover, there was a significant difference of rating on the specialty of Langkawi across vacationers who come from different countries. On the other hand, education level was also proved to have an impact towards the rating on many Langkawi’s specialty, except ‘peace and quiet’ and ‘value for money’. Finally, vacationers with different annual income level rate the Langkawi’s specialty differently, expect ‘good facilities’.
Table 2. ANOVA analysis on mean differences of vacation motives

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Socio Demographic factors</th>
<th>Beautiful Scenery</th>
<th>Clean and Clear Water</th>
<th>Good Services</th>
<th>Interesting Activities</th>
<th>Good Facilities</th>
<th>Peace and Quiet</th>
<th>Value for Money</th>
<th>Abundance of Coral and Marine Life</th>
<th>Promotion and Publicity</th>
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** significant at 0.05 level
*** significant at 0.01 level
Table 3. ANOVA analysis of mean differences of specialty of Langkawi as compared to other tourist destination

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<tr>
<th>Socio Demographic factors</th>
<th>Specialty of Langkawi as compared to other tourist destination</th>
<th>t-test</th>
<th>p-value</th>
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<td>Gender</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Clean and Clear Water</td>
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<td>Good Services</td>
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<td>Interesting Activities</td>
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<td>Good Facilities</td>
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<td>Peace and Quiet</td>
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<td>Value for Money</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Abundance of Coral and Marine Life</td>
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<td>Well Organized Agency Tours Services</td>
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<td>Good Accessibility</td>
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**significant at 0.05 level

***significant at 0.01 level
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study examined the role of socio-demographic factors in affecting vacation motives and also vacationer’s perception of the specialty of Langkawi Island. Nine motivational factors were included: ‘beautiful scenery’, ‘clean and clear water’, ‘good services’, ‘interesting activities’, ‘good facilities’, ‘peace and quiet’, ‘value for money’, ‘abundance of coral and other marine life’, and ‘promotion and publicity’. Among all of the socio-demographic factors; age, country of origin, education level, and income level significantly posed a great impact on the importance of different vacation motivation. Meanwhile, vacationer’s perception of the specialty possessed by Langkawi Island were also analyzed in this study: ‘beautiful scenery’, ‘clean and clear water’, ‘good services’, ‘interesting activities’, ‘good facilities’, ‘peace and quiet’, ‘value for money’, abundance of coral and other marine life’, ‘well organized agency tours services’, and ‘good accessibility’. Again, the result was highly consistent with the result that has been gathered in vacation motivation where age, country of origin, education level, and income level significantly posed a great impact on the specialty of Langkawi Island as comparing to the other tourist destinations in Malaysia.

Referring back to Crompton’s (1979) push-pull model, the vacation motivations and perceived specialties of Langkawi Island used within this study were mainly categorized as the pull factors to attract vacationer to spend their holiday in Langkawi Island. The push factors were excluded in this study as it was highly out of the control of the tourism marketers. Therefore, tourism marketers can utilize these factors (i.e. vacation motivations and perceived specialties of Langkawi Island), which proven to have vacation pulling capabilities for their target vacationers. Although socio-demographic factors provide many segmentation methods for tourism markets but there are some which are obviously easier to
use, such as age, gender, and country of origin because all this information can be gathered during the first sight on the vacationers. Focal point of marketing should be emphasize on female vacationers because the majority are more attracted to a vacation destination which possessed following characteristics ‘peace and quiet’ and ‘value for money’.

Besides, female vacationers are more affected by publicity and promotions. In addition to that, tourism marketers should design a tourism package which include many interesting activities especially the adventurous and challenging versions for the young vacationer aged under 20. Vacationer aged 20 to 25 would prefer a tourism package which emphasized on privacy that can bring them to enjoy scenic views without any disturbance from the crowds. While, vacationer aged 26 to 30 and 40 and above will be delighted if the tourism marketer can provide them a tourism package that include beach activities that bring them to enjoy the scenic views, and clean and clear water. On the other hand, vacationer aged 31 to 35 would be enjoyed if the tour package can be a mixture of visitation to scenic destinations and having some interesting activities there.

Finally, vacationer aged 36 to 40 would prefer a relaxation oriented tour package where they emphasized on peace and quiet activities which can calm their minds and tired body. From country of origin perspective, scenic view is the main concern by the majority of vacationers regardless of their nationality. Anyway, other than beautiful scenery, other factors can be consider to further segment the vacationer. For instance, Malaysian vacationer would prefer clean water, East Asia vacationer prefer good facilities, Middle East and South-East Asia vacationer prefer interesting activities and European and Australian vacationer prefer peace and quiet, and other origin vacationers would prefer clean and clear water.
LIMITATION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Convenient sampling was used in this study and thus the ability to generalize the finding of this study is weakened. Future studies may use other probability sampling method to improve the generalizability of the findings. Secondly, the travel motivation recorded in this study may not be exhaustive. Future studies may be expanded the list of travel motivations by using qualitative approach such as interview to elicit some hidden travel motivation.

REFERENCES


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ECONOMIC, SOCIAL, CULTURAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS ON TOURISM DEVELOPMENT OF PASİNLER

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Atatürk University, Social Science Institute

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Atatürk University, Pasinler Vocational School

The purpose of this study is to investigate the levels of the local people’s tourism perception, depending on the present tourism potential in Pasinler and Erzurum. Also to investigate the ideas and suggestions of people about the necessities for tourism with an innovational approach in the district. In accordance with this aim, the public survey applied to a total of 400 people in 2015. The results show that the developing tourism activities will be able to increase the cultural activities in the region, the plateau tourism potential and thermal tourism of the region that focused on and more tourist can be entertained by means of making suitable investments concluded as a result of the public surveys. In addition, the local people explained that tourism development can change the value and faith conformation of the people of the region have and can cause a negative effect on the customs as well. It means, that economic impacts of tourism (F=8.285 and p <0.05) and social impacts of tourism (F=9.762 and p <0.05) show differences depending on the participants’ profession. It was also observed that the cultural

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impacts of tourism ($F=5.759$ and $p <0.05$) and environmental impacts of tourism ($F=5.906$ and $p <0.05$) show differences depending on the participants' profession.

**Keywords:** Local People; Tourism Perception; Tourism Effects; Economic, Social, Cultural and Environmental Impact

**INTRODUCTION**

Tourism, which is rapidly gaining importance for country economies, does not have only positive (foreign currency source, area of employment) but also negative effects. Especially, the negative effects reflected to the people of the region adopting tourists is avoided and tourism is developed with people’s being familiarized with tourism and the viewpoints about tourism is considerably important. To decrease the negative effects of tourism, besides the authorized public, institution and foundations aren’t sufficient; particularly the local people in the region of tourism during the planning studies aren’t included in these studies. The local people having no say in this matter causes the negative effects in the behaviors to the tourists. Therefore, the local people’s values and expectations should be taken into consideration, also the attitudes oriented to the development of tourism should be known (Johnson, Snepenger and Akis, 1994; Sheldon and Abenoje, 2001; Choi and Sirakaya, 2005; Jackson, 2008; Isik, 2012; Rosselló-Nadal; 2014; Isik, 2015; Omar, Abukhalifeh, and Mohamed, 2015; Dogru and Sirakaya, 2016; Turker, Selcuk and Ozyildirim, 2016).

Individuals have moved away from the environment they meet their daily needs with and are staying in different regions by abandoning their social, cultural and economic features for a while (Kısa-Ovalı, 2007; İşik and Serceoglu, 2015; Papageorgiou and Lytras, 2015). For this purpose; tourism is not just an economic fact, it is also a whole of the actions in the national and international platforms which take hold of the society and social structure and it
has social, cultural, geographical and political sides, as well. Besides, tourism having some economic effects; like yielding money and bringing foreign currency in terms of the effects to social structure has also different effects which are not economic, in terms of culture and environment (Berber, 2003).

Low income countries aim to improve with tourism and try to raise life standards of the local people in this way (Jurowski and Gursoy, 2004). While the investments which will be funded for the regions having tourism potential have been overcoming the deficiencies, the inter-zonal development differences have decreased (Cooke, 1982). However the development of tourism in a region is dependent upon the local people’s attitudes, support and participation towards it. In this context, by identifying the local people’s opinions towards tourism living in the region constitutes an important stage of planning and management of tourism (Johnson, et al., 1994; Sheldon and Abenoje, 2001).

According to Honey, Vargas, and Durham (2010) and Khoshkam, Marzuki, and Al-Mulali (2016) the planning and management models which have been generated for determining these stages show differences from region to region or even from country to country. Thereby the local people’s comprehension of the importance of tourism is essential for raising the effect of tourism on development. As a result, by analyzing the developments and effects of the Pasinler’s touristic supply sharing management and protection plan, understanding may be expanded into the link between local people and the development of the tourism.

In low income countries it is needed to focus on the role of achieving development in local tourism destinations and rural areas. The aim of this study is to determine the perception level of the residents and to investigate the resident’s ideas and suggestions for tourism planning within the framework of innovative tourism planning.

THE STUDY AREA
Pasinler district is located in Erzurum in the Northern East of Turkey. Pasinler district attracts wetland appeals to both national and international visitors alike. Pasinler district has one of the best quality thermal water in Turkey. At the same time, Meds, Persians and Parthias in between 8th and 9th centuries B.C.; Kimmers and Scythians in the 7th century B.C. and Roman suppression from 1st century A.D. lived in the region of Pasinler. Pasinler witnessed the domination of Byzantines and Sasanians in between 4th and 8th century A.D. It also witnessed the domination of Byzantines in between 7th and 10th centuries A.D. Turkish raids drew attention in 11th century A.D there. These raids influenced the Pasinler War which had been made with Byzantines in 1049 which was one of the important steps of the Turkish progression in Anatolia. Nevertheless, it is not confirmed when Pasinler was taken by the Turks exactly. Saltukians had maintained dominance there until 1202 and Seljukians had until 1230. Pasinler which was a pause for the Kayı clan in the migration to west until 8th century A.D stayed in the domination of İlkhanids until 1336 and Karakoyunlus and Akkoyunlus until the beginning of 16th century A.D. Pasinler which was taken in the political boundaries of Ottoman Empire by Suleyman the Magnificent served as a boundary town for some time. Pasinler in the 16th and 17th centuries was a stop for the armies of the Ottoman Empire who had been marching on to Nakhichevan and Tabriz. Pasinler which was affected from Abkhasian Mehmed Pasha’s riot in 1624 also sent off Murad IV to his Revan voyage in 1635. Iran’s siege of Kars in 1724 was an important event for 18th century Pasinler history. İbrahim Hakkı was an important person in this century. Kızıl Ali case also took place in this period. The 19th century brought very dark years for Erzurum and Pasinler. Pasinler which was invaded in the Ottoman-Russian Wars in 1829, 1855 and 1877 was exposed to the same thing in 1916 and acquired to Turkish land again in 1918 (Gul, 2009). Today these entire social, historical
and cultural heritages have made Pasinler an important location of tourism destination. (See. Fig. 1)

1. Location Map of Pasinler

In this study, tourism potential of Pasinler district of Erzurum is selected as the analysis subject is presented in Table 1.
Table 1. Tourism Potential of Pasinler

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hill Town</th>
<th>Altınbaşı I, Altınbaşı II, Beşiktepe, Büyüktyü, Bulamaç, Değirmentepe, Küçüktuy, Sakși, Sos, Tepecik I, Tepecik II, Tetikom, Tilktepe, Top Mezar, Yastıktepe, Danatepe.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fortress</td>
<td>Avnik, Cin, Harami, Karakale, Kavuşturan, Kurbançayır, Kuşakkaya, Pasinler (Hasankale), Topdağı, Uzunahmet, Demirdöven.</td>
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<td>Rock-cut tomb</td>
<td>Marifet, Sürbahan.</td>
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<td>Settlement</td>
<td>Kurbançayır, Ziyarettepe</td>
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<td>Hamamderesi</td>
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<td>Water Tunnel</td>
<td>SıfırınBoğazı</td>
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<td>Thermal Facilities</td>
<td>Big Hot Spring, Small Hot Spring, Kale Otel Hot Spring, Lalezar Hot Spring</td>
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<tr>
<td>Festivals</td>
<td>Çermik, Kızak</td>
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<td>Camp and Caravan Tourism</td>
<td>Bahçeler location</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mosques</td>
<td>Ulu Mosque, Sivaslı Mosque, Emir Şeyh Mosque, New Mosque</td>
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Source: It is compiled of these sources: Topaloğlu, 2009:256; www.pasinler.bel.tr/degerler.php

Research context and research models, research hypothesis and research methods were included for the continuation of this study; and various suggestions were also included for the conclusion and future research.
LITERATURE REVIEW

With the growing role of tourism in the local economy over the last couple of decades, as it would be expected, its growing presence in the research area has followed accordingly. In this study, the attitudes of the local people towards tourism development were examined in consideration of social, cultural and environmental factors. Accordingly, the correlation was tested with the help of developed conceptual models by taking into consideration available current literature. Doxey, (1975); Knopp, (1980); Maddox, (1985); Allen, Long, Perdue and Keiseland, (1988); Davis, Allen and Cosenza, (1988); Long and Richardson, (1989); Johnson et al., (1994); Williams and Lawson, (2001); Sheldon and Abenoja, (2001); Ayaz, Ertuger, and Turkmen, (2009); Isik, (2012); Rosselló-Nadal, (2014); Isik, (2015); Dogru and Sirakaya, (2016); Turker, Selcuk and Ozzyildirim, (2016); found out that the perspective of local people to tourism is derived from tourism’s perceived effects in the studies which are done for determining the attitude towards tourism development of local people. These perceived effects have also been concentrated on economic (Perdue, Long and Allen, 1990), environmental (Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987; Isik et al., 2017), social (Fesenmaier, O’Leary and Uysal, 1996) and cultural (Murphy, 1983) effects.

Every region has its own growth, dynamics and characteristic features. The features which have influenced the growth and failure to develop a region (industry, tourism, agriculture, redundancy or deficiency of public investment, political issues, etc.) direct the income sources of inhabitants there (Yavuz and Cicek, 2009; Isik, 2013). Accordingly, many segments have importance on the development of a country, region or province. After all, certain segments’ contribute more than others and indicate a pioneer feature with regards to this region’s features (Turkoglu, Govdere, and Meydan, 2005; Isik, Keskin and Serceoglu, 2015).

A region needs three main factors for attracting tourists: attractions, access and accommodation. Attractions are the geographical sources of the region for occurring tourism. The attractions of the region also build up passion for tourist’s visits
The other one, accommodation includes supplying not only the sheltering needs of tourist with high quality but also eating and drinking needs throughout the time of tourists’ stay in the region. Access also means the transportation to that region (Faulkner and Tideswell, 1997; Jurowski and Gursoy, 2004; Williams and Lawson, 2001).

METHODOLOGY

Research Hypothesis

The aim of this study is to determine the perspective of local people living in the Pasinler district to tourism and contribution to tourism planning of the region. An answer is sought to the hypotheses developed within this aim.

$H_1$: There is a meaningful relationship between local people’s opinions about the economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism and sexuality statistically.

$H_2$: There is a meaningful relationship between local people’s opinions about the economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism and age statistically.

$H_3$: There is a meaningful relationship between local people’s opinions about the economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism and educational background statistically.

$H_4$: There is a meaningful relationship between local people’s opinions about the economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism and their year of residence in the region statistically.

$H_5$: There is a meaningful relationship between local people’s opinions about the economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism and occupation statistically.

$H_6$: There is a meaningful relationship between local people’s opinions about the economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism and place of residence statistically.
Research Method

The questionnaire technique was used to the research methods in this study. The questionnaire form which is used in the study is composed of Pizam (1978); Liu et al., (1987); Perdue et al., (1990); Ap and Crompton, (1998); Andriotis, (2000); Kreag, (2001) by being adapted to the study. Six closed ended questions which were prepared with the purpose of determining the people’s personal info (gender, age, educational background, year of residence, occupation, place of residence) who participated in the questionnaire have taken part in the first part of the questionnaire form. Besides, three questions were asked for determining the priorities of local people for developing tourism in Pasinler district. Five factors in the first question, seven factors in the second question and five factors in the third question were indicated. Six questions related to economy, six questions related to social environment, five questions related to culture, four questions related to environment, three questions for determining the priorities of local people, six demographical questions, a total of thirty questions were asked in the second part of the questionnaire. The participants were selected randomly for the questionnaire. The participants were asked to mark their agreement degrees related to the questions in the direction of five-unit Likert scale by selecting these options “Strongly Disagree”, “Disagree”, “Partially Agree”, “Agree” and “Strongly Agree”.

The economic, social, cultural and environmental judgements in the questionnaire were subjected to reliability analysis and the Cronbach Alpha results are 0.82 for economic judgements, 0.49 for social judgements, 0.73 for cultural judgements and 0.66 for environmental judgements. In this context, the reliability of the questionnaire which was selected as a data collection tool in the study is considerably high.

Data Collection

100
Since the aim of the study is to determine the perspective of the local people living in the Pasinler district to tourism, the entirety of the study is the local people living there. According to the data of address-based population registration system of Turkish Statistical Institute in 2015, the population of the Pasinler district is 30,113 (TSI, 2016). The size of the sample which is occurring in the entirety were determined as 383 people with the + 0.05 sample error in the table X (Yazıcıoğlu and Erdoğan, 2004) 450 questionnaire were carried out to local people in total, 400 of them were evaluated and the rate of recycling of the questionnaire is %88.8.

Table 2: The size of sample for 0.05

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size</th>
<th>+0.03 sampling error</th>
<th>+0.05 sampling error</th>
<th>+0.10 sampling error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p=0.5 q=0.5</td>
<td>p=0.8 q=0.2</td>
<td>p=0.5 q=0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>750</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>516</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,500</td>
<td>748</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>880</td>
<td>601</td>
<td>760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>964</td>
<td>639</td>
<td>823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>1023</td>
<td>665</td>
<td>865</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>1045</td>
<td>674</td>
<td>881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>1056</td>
<td>678</td>
<td>888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>1066</td>
<td>682</td>
<td>896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000,000</td>
<td>1067</td>
<td>683</td>
<td>896</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Yazıcıoğlu and Erdoğan, (2004:50)

Measurement and assessment of goodness of measures

The necessary factors for the personal characteristics of local people who participated in the questionnaire and for developing tourism and constituting the innovative planning in Pasinler district were analyzed by using a percentage and frequency technique. In addition to this; the opinions about the six economic, social, environmental and cultural questions each, twenty-one judgements in total, which were offered for determining the perspective of the local people to tourism participating in the questionnaire were analyzed by the determining percentage, frequency and Cronbach Alpha values. Afterwards, the purpose of testing whether there is
any meaningful difference between the local people’s answers about the judgements and demographical features who participated in the questionnaire or not, one-way analysis of variance (One-Way ANOVA) was used for people’s sexuality, age, educational background, year of residence, occupation and place of residence. A significance level of 0.05 was used as a base in the test and Tukey test was made for the factors which determine meaningful differences between them. SPSS 21.0 program (Statistical Program for Social Scientists, SPSS) was used for the analysis of data which were obtained with the questionnaire method in the result of the study and all explained analysis was interpreted relevantly.

**Data Analysis**

**Demographic Tests**

First of all, the frequency and percentage of the results of the study with the purpose of determining demographical features of the answerers within the study are presented in Table 3.
The questionnaire form which were applied to local people living in the Pasinler district for determining their perspective to tourism has been filled in by people who live in the district and have different age groups, sexuality, educational background, year of residence, place of residence and occupations. The ranges on the demographical features of the participants of the study are shown in Table 3. 18.3% of the participants declared themselves as female and 81.7% of them as male. The second question directed to participants was about “age”. It is shown that people from all age groups answered the questionnaire. When examining the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic features</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woman</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>81.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 – 25</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>38.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 – 32</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 – 40</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 +</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle School</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>37.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational School</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Residency</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 4 year</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 – 19 year</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 + year</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>51.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employer</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmer</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worker</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Officer</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place of residence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Center</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>77.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
participants, it is shown that young people’s attention to the questionnaire is more intense. According to Table 3; it is seen that the participants between the 18-25 age range are the most frequent group with 38.8%. It is understood from the questionnaire that 21.5% of the participants are between the 26-32 age range, 18.5% of them are between the 35-40 age range and 21.2% of them are 41 or over the age of 41. It is seen that 11.3% of the participants are at a primary school degree, 27.4% of them are at a secondary school degree, 37.7% of them are at a high school degree, 17.3% of them are at an associate degree and 6.3% of them are at a bachelor’s degree. Additionally, it is seen that more than half of the participants (51.2%) are natives of the district. Nevertheless, 20.2% of the participants have been living in the district more than 20 years, 11.8% of them have been living there between 5-19 years and 16.8% of them have been living there between 1-4 years. When examined as occupational groups, 19.8% of the participants declared themselves as an employer, 8% of them declared themselves as a housewife, 11.8% of them declared themselves as a farmer, 4.5% of them declared themselves as retired, 23.7% of them declared themselves as a student, 16.3% of them declared themselves as a worker, 7.2% of them declared themselves as an officer, 5% of them declared themselves as unemployed and 3.7% of them declared themselves within other occupational groups. Besides, when it is looked in Table 3; the big majority of the participants (77.8%) have been living in the district centre and 22.2% of them have been living in the villages connected to the district centre.
The tourism perception of respondents

Table 4: The tourism perception of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The tourism perception</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local Job Opportunities</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earn a lot of money</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vacation</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental development</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental pollution</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this research, respondents were asked "Do you know what tourism means?" to measure the perceptions of local people on tourism and the options were included in Table 4, in which respondents were granted the possibility of choosing more than one option. In table 4, respectively 23.8% of respondents call tourism a local job and 23.0 of them call it earning much money. It is seen that the local people call tourism a holiday the most (27.5%). It is seen that 18.3% of respondents think that the environment will improve but 7.1 % of them think the environment will be polluted. Accordingly, it is seen that the first thing that comes to mind when mentioned of tourism is holiday. On the other hand, it is seen that tourism can create local jobs and it is perceived as a means of earning a lot of money.
The respondents perception for tourism development

Table 5: The respondents perception for tourism development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The respondents Perception</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New investments must be increased</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current investment must be completed</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training of the people</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Beauty protection</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement of transportation opportunities</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement of service quality</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism development is adequate</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The respondents were asked "What should be done for the development of tourism for the environment?" and while nearly half of respondents (42.8%) say that it should be given priority to the new investments, the proportion of those who say that the investments which began should be completed is 11.5%. While 17.8% of respondents think the people should be educated, 13.1% of them think natural beauties should be protected, 5.5% of them think transportation facilities should be improved, 5.8% of them think the quality of service should be improved, 3.5% of respondents think that the development of tourism is enough. Accordingly, the local people think that it should be given priority to the new investments and people should be educated. They think that the tourism investments made in the area is insufficient.
The respondent’s perception for the most important terms in tourism

Table 6: The respondent’s perception for the most important terms in tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The respondents perception for the most important terms in tourism</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thermal tourism</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>57.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural tourism</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plateau tourism</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faith tourism</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunt tourism</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the research, the respondents were asked "What kind of tourism should be in our district?" and more than half of the respondents (57.8%) selected thermal tourism. In addition, 6.5% of them selected rural tourism, 12.2% of them selected plateau tourism, 16.3% of them selected religious tourism and 7.2% of them selected hunting tourism. Accordingly, due to the dissolution of the healing thermal waters in the region, people are of the opinion that priority should be given to the thermal tourism. Moreover, they are of the opinion that religious tourism also need to be addressed because of the well-known clergies within the region.

Demographic features and model groups relations

Values achieved by performing correlation analysis in order to test hypothesis that are developed through research are shown in Table 7.
Table 7: Demographic features and model groups relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact of the Tourism</th>
<th>Economic Effect</th>
<th>Social Effect</th>
<th>Cultural Effect</th>
<th>Environmental Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.137**</td>
<td>.161*</td>
<td>.125*</td>
<td>.083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>-.019</td>
<td>.104*</td>
<td>.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residency year</td>
<td>.176**</td>
<td>.172*</td>
<td>.106*</td>
<td>.184**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p<0.01                     * p<0.05

There is a significant relationship at the level of 0.01 between social and economic effects with age and a significant and positive relationship at the level of 0.05 between cultural effects and age. The fact that age of participants increases the belief that tourism has economic, social and cultural effects. Accordingly, H2 hypothesis, which asserts that there is a statistically significant relationship between age and views of local people on economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism, has been adopted.

A significant and positive relationship at the level of 0.05 was found between educational background and cultural effects. It can be said that the respondents with higher education have an opinion that the growing tourism in the region would cause the interaction between tourists and local people, provide a better understanding of the cultures and lifestyles of tourists who will come from other regions and countries, create a positive impact on cultural identity and contribute to the diversification of cultural activities. There is also increasing support for tourism with the higher education of respondents. Accordingly, H3 hypothesis, which asserts that there is a statistically significant relationship between educational background and views of local people on economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism, has been adopted.

There is a significant relationship at the level of 0.01 between years of residence and economic, social and environmental effects...
and a significant and positive relationship at the level of 0.05 between years of residence and cultural effects. Participants who have higher years of residence believe that tourists coming to the region will economically contribute to the region, the economic prosperity will increase and this will be an important factor in development. It can be said that social impact of tourism will be positive when participants' residence years increase and there would not be social corruption in the district. Also they have the opinion that tourism would benefit rather than harm the environment of the region, thanks to the tourism, environment of the district would improve when the participants' residence years increase. When participants' residence years increase, they agree that this causes interaction between tourists and local people, provides a better understanding of the cultures and lifestyles of tourists who will come from other regions and countries, creates a positive impact on cultural identity and contributes to the diversification of cultural activities. Accordingly, H4 hypothesis, which asserts that there is a statistically significant relationship between residence years and views of local people on economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism, was adopted.

**Variance analysis results**

In this research, T test was used in order to determine whether there is a difference in perception level for economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism in terms of respondents' gender and residence place. Anova test was used in order to determine whether there is a difference in the perception level for economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism in terms of respondents' profession. The results related to the demographic groups that differ in the analysis results are presented in the following tables.

**Table 8: Variance Analysis**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact of the Tourism</th>
<th>Levene Test Equality of Variances</th>
<th>T-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>Factor Averages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal Variances</td>
<td>20.11</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-.626</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>3.603</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>-.302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal Variances</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>.465</td>
<td>.496</td>
<td>-.744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal Variances</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>26.89</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-.4371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal Variances</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-3.278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to results of the T test which was used to test the hypothesis, which asserts that there is a statistically significant relationship between gender and views of local people on economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism, there are significant differences in terms of cultural effects as shown in Table 8. Accordingly, H5 hypothesis has been adopted.
Table 9: T-tests for place of residence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact of the Tourism</th>
<th>Levene Test</th>
<th>T-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>Factor Averages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equality of Variances</td>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>Equal Variances assumed</td>
<td>8.278</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal Variance not assumed</td>
<td>-2.457</td>
<td>181.535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Equal Variances assumed</td>
<td>9.682</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal Variance not assumed</td>
<td>-4.166</td>
<td>194.892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>Equal Variances assumed</td>
<td>21.933</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal Variance not assumed</td>
<td>-4.870</td>
<td>232.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>Equal Variances assumed</td>
<td>4.914</td>
<td>.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal Variance not assumed</td>
<td>-2.993</td>
<td>202.368</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 10, with T-test performed to determine whether there is a difference in economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism, it has been determined that there is a significant difference in economic, social, cultural and environmental effects. Accordingly, H6 hypothesis, which asserts that there is a statistically significant relationship between residence place and views of local people on economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism, was adopted. When we look at the section of average variables in the table, it shows that the most difference in economic effects.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact of the Tourism</th>
<th>Job</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Error Difference</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>a) Employer</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>.524</td>
<td>8.285</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) Housewife</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>.684</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c) Farmer</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>.480</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d) Retired</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>.361</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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According to findings presented in the above Table 10, there is a significant difference in economic, social, cultural and environmental factors of tourism depending on the participants' profession. Accordingly, H5 hypothesis, which asserts that there is a statistically significant relationship between occupation and views of local people on economic, social, cultural and environmental effects of tourism, was adopted. Consequently, it was observed that the economic impacts of tourism (F=8.285 and p <0.05) and social impacts of tourism (F=9.762 and p <0.05) show differences depending on the participants' profession. It was also observed that the cultural impacts of tourism (F=5.759 and p <0.05) and environmental impacts of tourism (F=5.906 and p <0.05) show differences depending on the participants' profession.

CONCLUSION

Tourism contributes to many areas, such as region's economy, image and representation by using natural beauty owned by the region, historical texture, health facilities and socio-cultural and touristic factors (Khoshkam et al., 2016). The development of tourism in the region is not supposed to be improved only by state investment. Therefore, it is an important process to ensure that the local people will also take part in tourism for the development of it in the region and the preparation of planning. A destination area which will be formed by the support of local people is an important situation in terms of its quick representation to tourists with the sources of supply and the fulfillment of tourists' needs as soon as possible.

In this study, there came to the fore the following considerations in the views of local people living in the Pasinler district which has the potential for not only thermal tourism but also historical, cultural and religious tourism:

- The views of additional job opportunities; further decline of unemployment rates in the region and the increase
of local people's income, thanks to the developing tourism in the region.
• The views of increase in new investments in the region, the quick completion of investments which have been started, and the protection of natural beauties of the region thanks to the tourism,
• The views of increase in new investments in the region, the quick completion of investments which have been started, and the protection of natural beauties of the region thanks to the tourism,
• As the region has the important underground springs in the health field, the local people have thought that the region should be opened to thermal tourism and religious tourism should also be revived in the region which trains countless chaplains. Alongside the thermal and religious tourism, it should be taken into consideration that the existing plateaus in the region will also breathe new life into tourism.

On the other hand,
• The local people have the opinion that tourists coming to the region will damage to the ethics within the region.
• In this study, the vast majority of people in the region promote tourism and the idea that views of local people should be taken into consideration in the development and the planning of tourism have come to the fore as negative effects of tourism in the research.

Consequently, the hypothesis that the ideas and support of local people in the region should be asked in the meeting of regions with tourism, development and planning of regions in a healthy way is supported by this study.

In this study, it was determined that tourism which has a rich potential in terms of economic, social, cultural and environmental values in the Pasinler district of Erzurum has an important role for the progress. In this context, the tourism is a sector which reduces unemployment, increases investment and highlights natural beauties in the eyes of the local people. These results that are particularly
important for the planning of tourism also support the works, such as Calıskan and Tutuncu, (2008); Ozdemir and Kervankıran, (2011). Moreover, this study contributes to the literature in the measurement of the impact of tourism to the progress being examined with Pasinler as an example for the first time. The outcomes strongly support the research hypothesis and realized effect of the economic, social, cultural and environmental of the tourism development. Behind this study, we expect to motivate future studies in order to better understand the economic, social, cultural and environmental effect of tourism development attractions.

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WORSHIPING PILGRIMAGE AND RELIGIOUS TOURISM IN GREECE AND CYPRUS DURING ANCIENT TIMES

Dr Nicos Rodosthenous
Cyprus University of Technology

Pilgrimage travel is not a recent activity of modern civilization. It is a phenomenon, which has existed since ancient times. It has grown over time and evolved into Religious and Pilgrimage tourism, depending upon the various changes that were observed in the course of humanity. Pilgrimage along with the Religious tourism is usually considered the oldest form of non-economic travel and is one of the most understudied areas in tourism research. Every year it is estimated that approximately 240 million people travel to major pilgrimage destinations around the world both ancient, like Greece and Cyprus, as well as modern in origin. Increases in spiritually motivated travel in the modern era, have coincided with the growth of tourism in all eras, especially after the 19th century, where the development of tourism was generally based on the leisure time of people and on their movements to various countries.

Keywords: Pilgrimage travel, worship centres, religious tourism.
INTRODUCTION

Traditionally and historically, pilgrimage has been defined as a physical journey in search of truth, in search of what is sacred or holy (Vukonic, 1996:80). Thus, the devotional gatherings in worship centres were based on the idea that some places were different from others. Historically the search for the metaphysical or the supernatural has led people to worship centres and holy places where, in their minds there was the potential to commune with the "holy" (Hauser-Schaublin, 1998).

It is also surprising because holy places with religion have played a key role in the development of travel and leisure over centuries and have influenced how people utilize their leisure time (Kelly, 1982). Therefore, a kind of journey was attempted, usually with long distance and because of this a sort of preparation and testing was required by the traveller (Haller, 1995). Following this habit, it is discovered that it has its roots in ancient times, since Homer’s era, with a clear reference to the sacred monuments of the glorious civilization of the ancient Greeks. In ancient times, moving from place to place is defined as travel, tour, roaming; that definition was far from its present form, which is trip, recreation, rest and vacation (Robichaud, 1999). The free and economically prosperous citizens could participate in different types of travels. The main purpose of travel, then, was the spiritual growth and benefit of the traveller, who was conveying his experiences and diverse cultural elements to other people and other cultures (Fähnrich, 1996). For this reason, the travel to sacred areas outside the city/state of the pilgrim was a very important cultural element among the Cypriots and Greeks.

The aim of this article is to contribute to the literature on religiously motivated travel since 1200 BC, by examining and analysing the various events, concepts, practices and celebrations related to pilgrimage and other forms of religious travel to the various worship centres and holy places of ancient Greece and
Cyprus. It focuses on a number of theoretical and practical perspectives related to spiritual journeys, including the nature, creation and management of hallowed places and worship centres (DH Olsen, DJ Timothy, 2006). In addition much of this article examines the intersections and the relationships of religion and pilgrimage from a perspective that has been little studied, even the perspective of religion and spirituality or the perspectives of religious adherents who travel to these holy places in search of truth and enlightenment, making sacrifices, or seeking a cure for illness, which finally lead to their spiritual benefits.

WORSHIP CENTRES IN ANCIENT GREECE: A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

We know, for example, that people climbed the mountain of Zeus and gathered; they coexisted creatively there to pray for rain. Zeus’ temples on Mount Olympus and other mountaintops are well known, as well as the one on the highest mountain in Aegina, called Panhellenic Zeus (Ellanios¹) (Nilsson, 1979). In this temple, a structure was built for pilgrims to retreat. To this day, believers, in a manner similar to the one in the honour of Zeus, gather in mountaintops, to honour Prophet Elias (the rainmaker Saint) who has a chapel dedicated to him on every mountaintop. The Cypriot place name known as “Mouti tou Dkia²” (Top of Zeus) is characteristic, with a nearby place name “Gremos tis Eras³” (Cliff of Hera - Hera, Zeus’ wife), in an area with many ancient place names, such as Vassa (apparently from the ancient Greek word βῆσσα, vassa = βῆσσα, vissα, wooded valley), Gerovassa⁴ (from ieri vassa⁵, sacred wooded valley, cf. Geroskipou⁶ from ierous kipous⁷, sacred gardens of Aphrodite) and Gerasa.

The ancient Greek religion created countless monuments and temples due to the worship of what is known as Dodekatheon⁸. It has attracted many people from all over Greece, but also from other
parts of the known world. Dodekatheon has also contributed to the development of Pilgrimage and Religious tourism, as well as to the exchange of customs, traditions, ideas and perceptions (Jackowski και Smith, 1992). The ancient Greeks honoured the tradition of fasting as a prerequisite and a preparation for their journey. They covered great distances to go to specific sacred sites (Dillon, 1997) and take part in sacred ceremonies, even though each city/state in Greece had its own religious centres, altars and temples. These gatherings intensified during the major festivals and fairs (Perlman, 2000), such as the ones in the honour of Poseidon, Athena Pallas, Demeter, and of course during the Olympic Games, which were held every four years in Olympia (Matthew, 2001). A high turnout of believers was noted from all parts of the known world and to certain sacred places, such as Eleusis, Olympia, Dodona, Delphi (Thesaurus Linguae Graecae 5.0), Epidaurus, Ephesus, etc., and thus great mobility was created in these areas. This was the beginning of the first pilgrimages (Nilsson, 1979).

Another distinguishing fact is that most important holy places are full of offerings and donations from pilgrims (Burkert - Mpezantakos – Afr. Avagianou, 1993. Ancient Cypriot Literature1-6, 1995-2008)⁹. This fact is also observed today, gifts presented as donations or offerings from pilgrims in the context of Religious and Pilgrimage tourism in various monasteries and shrines (Kowalzig, 2005). This phenomenon occurs mainly in oracles, in prophecy centres (Lloyd-Jones, 1976) revealing the tendency of ancient Greeks to regard the reception of prophecies by the interested parties themselves or their delegates as a key element of their faith (Parke, 1979). Since ancient times, the desire of man to discover the future is known, and it is connected to one’s inner need to reach eternity, by breaking the time barrier, the manifestation of one’s finite existence (Kroch, 1996). Soothsaying was the art by which people interpreted the signs of the will of gods or communicated with them (Plutarch, On the EI at Delphi 387a-b)¹⁰. This wish was interwoven with the daily life of the ancient Greeks, and this is proven by the
many oracles that were present during ancient times in the area of Greece, and by stories that reveal the trust of those people in the prophecies (Eidinow, 2007). The ancient Greeks relied upon different oracles to get advice on public and private affairs.

Herodotus mentions at least eighteen temples which included oracles, as well as several missions to request advice from an oracle, like the ones of Delphi (Parke, 1979) and of Dodona (Odyssey, 14. 327-30 and 19. 296-99). He was one of the first “traveller-tourists”, who never stopped expressing his interest in the religion, the customs, the practices and the arts of the sites he was visiting. His tours reached Sicily, Egypt and Persia. Today, Herodotus can be described, according to the modern searches on tourist typologies, as a "model" for tourists and he should be included in the category of the “intelligent tourist” (Yang, J., Yang, W., Denecke, M., & Waibel, A., 1999). This need can be linked to the current search of people who identify themselves with their desire to visit the holy places of Palestine, Mount Athos, and various monasteries in Greece and Cyprus, especially on the day of the local Saint’s feast, for example, on August 15, the day of Our Lady of Tinos’ feast.

In these cases, great eremites and Fathers, Saints of the Orthodox Church have been and still are, like contemporary blessed elders, poles of attraction for many pilgrims (Rodosthenous, 2012). The purpose of the believers’ visit is to listen to spiritual speeches, many of them also testify and confess their sins and heal spiritually. A typical example is the case of St. Paisios, when he was visiting the monastery of Souroti in Thessaloniki from Mount Athos, the place became overly crowded, since the believers sought to meet and benefit from the elder.

Asclepeia of ancient Greece, is another distinctive gathering of believers, the best known ones being those of Triki (Trikala), of Titani, of Athens, of Kos, of Lissos, of Levinos, of Cyrene and of Epidaurus (Kavvadias, 1900, Aravantinos, 1907). The healing temples of the god Asclepius were located in almost every Greek
city. They were in fact the first hospitals or rather health building blocks (Gesler, 1993) of not only the Greek area, but of the whole Western civilization. They offered their services for many centuries, approximately from the time of the Trojan War to the 6th century AD, the period of the predominance of Christianity. Perhaps it should be highly emphasized, at this point that despite the persecution that the Ancient Greek civilization suffered as a pagan practice, mainly by Emperor Theodosius in 392 AD (Anastasiou, 2008), it was impossible to completely eliminate the worship of Asclepius and especially the health care offered in Asclepeia for about two more centuries (Sigerist, 1987).

Nowadays there are many remarkable monasteries and holy shrines, which serve as hospitals and clinics to all those who suffer primarily spiritually but physically, as well. Some of them are the monastery of St. Nektarios in Aegina, of Our Lady of Tinos, of Sts. Raphael, Nicholas and Irene in Mytilene, St. Ephraim in Nea Makri, St. Spyridon in Corfu, and many more. A characteristic case is that of Pausanias (Spawforth in S. Hornblower - T. Spawforth, 2000. Kroch, 1996), who lived during the 2nd century AD and went on several trips to Egypt, Syria, Palestine, Rome and other places in Italy, Southern Macedonia and Thessaly. He must have visited Southern Greece more often, when he conceived the idea of writing the extensive work Description of Greece (around 173 AD). Pausanias describes ancient Greece as an eye and ear witness, utilizing his passion to visit and get to know the ancient sites with their centuries old temples and venerable sanctuaries, local worships and beliefs, historical memories and popular religious traditions, for which he had a weak spot. The sanctuaries of ancient Greece are a pilgrimage to the Traveller (Geldard, 2000). For the subsequent generation of travellers Pausanias was a valuable source of abundant knowledge relating to mythology, politics, history and popular culture, but also a guide to the excavations in ancient topography (Pretzler, 2013), when the major excavations began in ancient Olympia (1875), in the acropolis of Mycenae (1876), in
Orchomenus in Boeotia (1880), in the Asklepeion of Epidaurus (1881), in Eleusis (1882), in the Acropolis of Athens and Tiryns (1884), in Mantinea (1887), in Megalopolis (1890), in Delphi (1892) by Greek and foreign archaeologists.

TRAVELLING HABITS: ORGANISED RELIGIOUS TRAVEL AND TOUR

During the ancient times apart from the individual pilgrimages, there also existed organized group tours, which in fact required complex administrative organization and state care (Casson, 1994). These are similar to the current package holidays (packages), which are organized by tourist offices, major tourist agencies, or airlines and include the travel, usually by air, accommodation, hotel, transportation, tours and meals. Their travels were linked in antiquity mainly with religious rites, as well as several national sporting events. The crowds flocking to religious rites, wished to ensure peace of mind in the present state of life (Nilsson, 1979) and bliss after death, with the initiations into the Eleusinian (Clinton, 1974) and other similar mysteries. This initiation was considered to be a force capable of purifying and sanctifying the individuals and somehow uniting them with God, whose powers and properties they acquired.

The official "pilgrims-spectators", who attended certain religious events, represented their city/states and undertook the organization of pilgrimages (Rutherford, 2000). They were, very often, accompanied by private citizens, who wanted to go on pilgrimage to the same destination. Even in the case of a war, there was a ceasefire so as the believers were given a chance to perform their rites and celebrations or even visit various holy sites safely and without fear (Dillon, 1997). Families were regularly going on pilgrimages, as well. Parents with their children are often depicted on vases or gravestones attending ritual worships of deities. The
depictions are very similar to modern pilgrimages. Everyone had many different reasons for wanting to honor their chosen deity. Pilgrimage had a special meaning for the women of antiquity (Rutherford, 2007). It constituted a break from normal life, which is everyday life, with something extraordinary and special. It was a travel away from home and their relatives, with a strictly religious purpose. Women traveled alone or with their family to distant destinations, such as Asia Minor, the Aegean islands, to sanctuaries like the ones in Delos, Epidaurus and Delphi, seeking alternative medicine in healing deities for their treatment of a disease or infertility.

Communication with the divine, man’s approach towards God, in any religion, covers a multitude of mental and emotional needs and emotions, which are directly linked to the very existence of man both in ancient and current religions (Firth, 1996). In times of misery and deprivation man feels the need to ask religion for relief and consolation (Nilsson, 1979). The religious sentiment, as it has evolved during the historical course, has become a source of creation for man, as a result the holy places of Greek antiquity extremely highlight the most important works of the world’s cultural heritage. Holy places usually "work" within an environment of particular natural beauty, they were and are also involved and actively participate in the momentous historical events, in order to become an attraction for visitors of a much wider range of interests, not exclusively religious ones. Holy places and monuments of Christian worship in Greece are an integral part of the national heritage and a direct continuation of the ancient Greek civilization (Mackridge, 2008). Erected literally on the foundations of the ancient Greek temples, they perpetuate the sanctity of ancient shrines and they help carry this habit and tradition of the ancient Greeks to travel for reasons of worship on, through the centuries, developing various pilgrimages and then the Religious and Pilgrimage tourism in Greece (Coleman & Elsner, 1995).
From the above, it is clear that the movement of the ancient Greeks for worshiping purposes to various holy sites was accompanied by sacrifices, and in celebrations as such the most important elements were the games and festivals. This is how pilgrimage, as well as the first form of religious tourism, were created; since the main feature of a festival was the abundance of people who gathered from neighbouring and distant states and colonies, from all over Greece (Murray & Price, 1991). The great games, the Olympia, the Pythian, the Isthmian and the Nemean were first of all festivals, the most renowned ones being the Olympic Games (Feidas, 2010)\textsuperscript{13}, which were dedicated to the gods and combined worship rituals with sports events; athletes from the Greek cities and colonies participated. At the same time, the games were shaping the spiritual life of the Greeks, the national consciousness, the unity of the Greek nation, as well as the cultivation of relationships and ties among the states (Feidas, 2010).

In all festivals there was a market of products and this seemed to attract more interest. The word festival means primarily fair (De Ligt & De Neeve, 1988). Such fairs were held in Delos (Wilson, 2013), where all the Ionians gathered. In this way people’s need to gather, have fun, celebrate and rejoice is satisfied, thereby stopping and lightening the monotonous rhythm of their daily lives. It is this social need that was satisfied by the ancient Greek religion (Anastasiou, 2008), it is in fact the same need that has been maintained until today more than anything else in such gatherings. The many fairs organized today in Greece and Cyprus are results of this religious tradition (Hatzioannou, 1990). Sakellarios, 1890/1991\textsuperscript{14}, especially on the day when a local saint is celebrated. Besides local fairs, we also observe that large gatherings of people, such as the Olympic Games held in Greece in 2004, as well as various religious ceremonies attract millions of tourists and pilgrims from all around the world.
Since ancient times, Cyprus was the cradle of civilization and has always been linked to the Greek world (Sutton, 1997). One aspect of this civilization was the great religiosity of Cypriots. During the long period of antiquity there were many religions in Cyprus; Greek, Phoenician and Egyptian deities were worshiped. According to Kyriakos Hatzioannou (1990), the religion of ancient Cyprus has a consistency in all aspects of its manifestations. The pillars of this religion were the two Eteocypriots’ gods Aphrodite and Apollo and two Greek Cypriots’ gods Zeus and Athena. All other deities were supplementary. The first two, Aphrodite and Apollo, gods of fertility, vegetation and believers, gods of agriculture, shaped the citizens who worshiped them into peaceful and gentle people. Moreover, Aphrodite carried the epithet ipiodoros (Iliad Z 251, she who has received and / or offered soothing gifts, mild, meek, gentle, loving). Zeus and Athena, mostly the latter, offered the citizens who worshiped them martial virtues. Thus we see the revolt of the Cypriots against the Persians begin at Salamis, where Zeus and Athena were worshiped eminently. What is also illustrated through this is the pastoral aspect of religion in ancient Cyprus, which means that the gods shaped people into their image and likeness, with virtues such as meekness, peace and love (Lawson, 2012).

According to Herodotus (Herodotus 1.105.2-3), the oldest temple of Aphrodite Urania was the one in Ashkelon, Syria; the Temple of Aphrodite in Cyprus originated from there, namely that of Paphos, as Herodotus was told by the Cypriots themselves (Karagiorgi, 2007, Peristianis, 1995). The first pilgrimages, as well as the first form of religious tourism are observed in ancient Cyprus during this period, since the ancient Cypriots who once lived in parts
of Palestine, which was part of Syria, carried the worship of goddess Aphrodite with them to the island.

However, according to mythology, Cyprus was the place where Aphrodite arrived after her emergence from the sea (Hesiod Theogony VS. 193-200)\(^{20}\) and Paphos was her special place of worship. This belief of Aphrodite’s origin was common throughout the ancient Greek and Roman world (Powell, 2012). In ancient sources the goddess is often referred to as Kipris\(^{21}\) (Cypriot, in the Iliad, E 330, 422, 458, 760 and 883)\(^{22}\), Kiprian\(^{23}\) (Cypriot woman) and Kiprogenis\(^{24}\) (born in Cyprus) (Hesiod Theogony VS. 193-200)\(^{25}\), while Cyprus itself was called her country, her kingdom or her property (ACyL1). Euripides’ verses are remarkable (The Bacchae, VS. 402 and on)\(^ {26}\): "may I arrive in Cyprus, the island of Aphrodite, where heart-stealing Cupids keep company with mortals...".

The worship of the goddess is presented in Cyprus in its most characteristic form during the 2nd millennium BC and rites in her honour were popular until the 5th century AD. This fact reveals the religious tradition of the ancient Cypriots throughout the centuries, and the pastoral aspect expressed in worship. Aphrodite, given that she came from Cyprus, took pride of place in the Cypriot pantheon, as evidenced inter alia by her enduring and various types of worship, the large, for such a small island, number of shrines and sites dedicated to her and the huge amount of archaeological findings linked to her worship (Hatzioannou, 1990).

There is, however, the question why is Aphrodite’s worship so closely associated with Cyprus and especially Paphos. According to many scholars Paphos was an important centre of indigenous worship, which was identified with Aphrodite in historical times (Ustinova, 1999); this was not a historical coincidence, but rather the revival of past traditions of the area (Ioannou, 2005)\(^ {27}\). This substantiates that the tree of religion and worship had deep roots, both in ancient Greece and Cyprus. It also substantiates, by
extension, the existence of a spiritual and religious view and relationship between the two countries throughout the ages, which is maintained until today. The movement of people for purely worshiping reasons created the conditions and incentives required for the creation of the first pilgrimage and, consequently, the development of Religious and Pilgrimage tourism. After all, Greece appears to remain, even today, the preferred touristic and pilgrimage destination for Cypriots.

Notably Paphos was considered to be the place where the goddess appeared first (Cyrino, 2012), and she was often called Paphia\textsuperscript{28} (woman from Paphos) (ACyL1). Besides, the goddess’s emergence from the sea may not only symbolize her purity, but it is also quite possible that it refers to the scientific view that life on earth started from water. The celebrations, as well as the parade for the birth of the goddess Aphrodite took place every year (Kliridis, 2005)\textsuperscript{29} and they lasted three days, from the first to the third of April. People gathered from the ends of Cyprus and from all Greek cities to honor the goddess and, as eloquently described by Kliridis:

“All the pilgrims had to be luminously dressed, crowned with myrtle, bathed with precious spices. In each city they stopped they offered sacrifices to the gods and separately to Aphrodite. The procession reached Old Paphos, where the famous temple of Aphrodite was. The king and high priest of the temple greeted the praying crowd, which delivered the precious gifts to the priests, received oracles, sang hymns to the goddess and made countless sacrifices on nearby altars. Music-poetry games then followed and winners were crowned by the king-high priest”.

Many were those who preferred to travel by ships and boats to reach Palaepaphos\textsuperscript{30} and take part in the religious events in Aphrodite’s honor, as this served them better than any other means of transportation (Price, 1999). This great religious event resulted in the movement of many people, locals and foreigners, thus creating worship migrations and a touristic and religious current towards Cyprus.
Aphrodite Kipris was unmarried and her worship varied from place to place in Cyprus. There were, of course plenty of sanctuaries, shrines and groves dedicated to the goddess everywhere in the island (Peristianis, 1995). The most important centre of worship, as well as the oldest, was as mentioned above, in Palepaphos (modern place name Kouklia) (Ohnefalsch-Richter, 1891). There are surviving remains of the centre, most of them from the Roman period. It functioned as a centre of worship and as an oracle, where there were a hundred altars for offerings and libations from the crowds of worshipers who flocked there. The temples built from the 12th century BC and on are large and monumental. They were built with axed stones and they consisted of a court and a sanctuary, where the statue of the deity and valuables must have been kept. The ceremonies in the courts of the temples must also have been important, as there were tables for offerings and altars present.

The goddess’s temenos in Palepaphos (Pavlidis, Vol. I, 1993) was one of the three famous temene in Cyprus and those who resorted there had the right to apply for asylum. The other two temene were Aphrodite’s temples in Amathus and Zeus’ temples in Salamis. Amathus was also an important centre of Aphrodite’s worship, whose grandiose temple (as evidenced by its ruins) was the dominant building on the impressive citadel, much like Athens’s Parthenon. There was also a sanctuary dedicated to Aphrodite in New (Lower) Paphos, as well as at cape Zephyros, where a sacred grove was created. Aphrodite’s temples were also reported to exist in Soli, in Marion (Polis Chrysochous), in Salamis, in Agia Napa, at Cape Greco, on top of the mountain where the monastery of Stavrovouni was later founded. Other temples were reported in Tamassos, in Idalion, in neighboring Golgi (Athienou), where there was a sacred grove. Morphou appeared to be a rather important centre of worship. Morphou’s name originated from Aphrodite’s epithet Morfo (Hatzioannou, 1990), as Lycophron mentions.
Tzetzes adds that the epithet meant “to take form, to embody” (from morfume). What has been mentioned above substantiates the great devotional and spiritual life of the ancient Cypriots, due to the fact that Cyprus was studded with temples, shrines, oracles and worship centres, mostly in Aphrodite’s honour (Cook, J. M., & Blackman, 1965).

Strabo mentions Aphrodite’s sanctuary at Cape Apostolos Andreas, writing that the temple there was “forbidden for women and invisible to them” (Karagiorgis, 1998). This meant that women were not only forbidden from entering, but also from approaching it, as are the current cases of Mount Athos and the Monastery of Stavrovouni in Cyprus. Cape Apostolos Andreas (Apostle Andreas) is in the most remote and isolated part of Cyprus. The existence of the sanctuary there, especially at a time when pilgrims had to get there on foot or by horse and carriage, implied that it was a place of hermitage, retreat and isolation. A very important pastoral aspect of Religious and Pilgrimage tourism is observed here, that of monasticism and retreat, something that suggests the spiritual progress of that era. The same fact is expressed through the existence of Aphrodite’s temples in other remote and inaccessible locations. Such was the area where Stavrovouni was built later, as well as Pentadaktylos peak, later called St. Hilarion. These sites were spiritual lighthouses and monasteries from ancient times until today (Sabo, Peitz-Hlebec, & Schwarz, 2001).

Two cities dedicated to Aphrodite had flourished in the Karpasia peninsula, on the north coast (Strabo, Geography 14.6.3). One called Aphrodision or Aphrodisia and the other called Urania (Herodotus, Histories 1.105.3. Pausanias, Description of Greece 1.14.7.). Urania was an epithet of Aphrodite, as she was Uranus’ daughter, but also a celestial deity, as she is praised by Euripides (Phaethon, 227-235): “the virgin and nuptial Aphrodite.” The pastoral aspect of the Cypriots’ worship is considered equally important. The ceremonies in Aphrodite’s
honour were headed by a high priest who was called agitor,\textsuperscript{44} (leader) as we are informed by Hesychius (Brunel, 2015). The existence of Aphrodite’s priests, at least in Paphos, who were called "Kinyrades," demonstrates the existence of shepherds with rich pastoral and spiritual work. According to Hesychius, they are considered to be descendants of the mythical king Kinyras, the goddess’s first great high priest. This may mean that the clergy was constituted by a separate caste, and it is possible that clergy positions were hereditary (Brunel, 2015). This is still true today even in the Orthodox church; apart from the parish’s priest/priests there is also a high priest, a bishop or an archbishop witnessing the celebrations in honor of the church’s local Saint.

Litanies and processions of the statue of Aphrodite seemed to take place in Amathus (\textit{ACyL}30 F1 / \textit{ACyL}433 F. Plutarch, Theseus 20.3-7\textsuperscript{15}). This reflects the value and the feast dedicated to the gods of the era. Such value is also exhibited by St. Tychonas’s life, a local bishop, who forcefully intervened and once broke up such a ceremony (Galanos, 1988)\textsuperscript{46}. The custom of the procession of a Saint’s icon is still followed to this day. The procession is an opportunity for believers to walk with the Saint, to walk under his/her icon in order to get the Saint’s blessing. Aphrodite’s various properties, as well as the honor and respect shown by the locals, are exhibited through her various epithets presented in inscriptions and literary sources. An inscription in Golgi calls the goddess Mykirodon\textsuperscript{47}, probably from the word 'mykiros'\textsuperscript{48}, which means almond (even today Paphos produces many almonds), thus “goddess of almond.” In her various places of worship the goddess was called Paphia\textsuperscript{49}, Golgia\textsuperscript{50}, Amathusia\textsuperscript{51}, Zefyritis\textsuperscript{52}, Idalia\textsuperscript{53}, Iepokipia\textsuperscript{54}, Orea\textsuperscript{55}, Salaminia\textsuperscript{56}, Akraea\textsuperscript{57}, etc. Hesychius mentions that in Cyprus the goddess was called Eleimon\textsuperscript{58} (merciful.) This was a particularly expressive epithet regarding her relationship with the island. The epithet’s survival until today is impressive. "Eleousa"\textsuperscript{59}
(merciful) is what the miraculous icon of the Virgin of Kykkos is going to be called, the handmade icon of St. Luke."

As a sea goddess, Aphrodite also had Poseidon’s properties in Cyprus, including the epithets Limenia (protector of ports), Enalia (of the sea), Anadyomene (emerged from the sea), Pontia, Efplia. The goddess was also protector of sailors and sea voyage (Athenaeus, Deipnosophistae, 15.675-6), like St. Nicholas of the Orthodox Church is considered the protector of sailors, the Greek Navy and the Coast Guard. In literary sources Aphrodite is called Anassa (queen) and Despina of Cyprus ("Despina" was later established as the most common invocation for the Virgin in Cyprus, while in Paphos the Virgin is called Aphroditissa. The epithet Kourotrophos indicates that Aphrodite was the protector of motherhood. It is worth noting that there is a small 17th century monastery in the village Flasou of Solea dedicated to the Virgin Mary Kousouliotissa, who protects and heals children (called kousouli) (Virgin Mary Kousouliotissa 2009).

Aphrodite also carried the epithets Anthia, Iostefanos, Efstefanos, as a goddess of nature, blossoming and fruition. The epithet Epikoos suggested the goddess’s unfailing interest for people. The Docheiariou monastery at the monastic state of Mount Athos houses the icon of the Virgin "Gorgoeipikoos" or "she who is quick to hear [prayers]". The same devotion is shown to Our Lady in the island. She has hundreds of epithets, such as Eleousa, Faneromeni (she who appeared), Machairiotissa (she who bears a knife), Chrysopantanassa (golden lady of everything), Kousouliotissa (protector and healer of children), Trooditissa (from Troodos Mountains), Evangelistria (from Evangelismos, Annunciation), Chryseleousa (gold and merciful), Odigitria (Leader), Our Lady of Kykkos, of Asinou, of Araka, Glikofilousa (soft kissing), Kallonitissa and more. The vast majority of churches and monasteries of the island are dedicated to Our Lady. This was a natural outcome, if one takes into account the centuries of profound faith in a female deity. After all, there are many
similarities between the worship of Mary and the worship of Aphrodite (Haarmann, H. (1998). One is Aphrodite’s "kestos himas" or simply "keston" which is worn by the goddess in her performances. “Kestos” means embroidered and “himas” means belt. The term refers to Aphrodite’s belt, which was tied around the waist and, according to Homer’s expression, was adorned with all the "allures". Aphrodite’s “kestos” symbolizes fertility, since it surrounds the abdomen.

In Christian times the Holy Belt of Virgin Mary, known as Cincture of the Theotokos, is a highly honored and miraculous relic. Piece of the Cincture of the Theotokos is located in the Holy and Great Monastery of Vatopedi on Mount Athos and it is the only relic saved from her life. The Cincture of the Theotokos is said to cure cancer and infertility in women. Cyprus has always been an island of gods and saints (Hryhorovyč-Barskyj, 1996). Apart from the cult of Aphrodite, there are many gods mentioned throughout the centuries, which prove the effects of occasional invaders or neighboring peoples. There was no lack of kings’ worship either, mainly conquerors, since some of them demanded to be honored as gods by their subjects. Such claims were made mainly by Ptolemaic and Roman kings. In some areas of ancient Cyprus temples were built, with priests and priestesses, for the deification and worship of the royal figures (Kralidis, 2010). Ancient Cypriots had annual religious events to commemorate some particular deities, such as the Adonia, the Aphrodisia, the mysteries of Kinyras and others smaller ones. It can be observed, from all the above, that the inhabitants of the island had great love and respect for the gods, the rulers and their shepherds, offering ceremonies, sacrifices and oblations through religious festivals and ceremonies (Hatziioannou, 1990). These are very important elements and they are significant in pastoral terms for a benevolent people who were really seeking, throughout the ages, to find the true god.
In almost all the temples of antiquity there were altars for sacrifices, which constituted a key element of the worship rituals of the inhabitants. It can be said that sacrifices were the greatest way for people to intellectually communicate with their deities (Eidinow, 2007). Through sacrifices they addressed thanks to the gods for help or protection which they had supposedly received from them. In other cases, sacrifices were the means of mediation between people and gods, in order for people to achieve something they longed for. These elements are also considered very important from a pastoral standpoint, because they can release people from everything worldly and elevate them to the heavenly and divine. They also seek to attract God’s mercy towards man.

CONCLUSIONS

People went to sanctuaries for all sorts of reasons: consulting oracles, attending festivals, making sacrifices, watching the Panhellenic games, or seeking a cure for illness; there were variations in the participants (individuals or state-delegations, small groups or large), and variations in the length of distance traversed to get to the sanctuary; finally, changes occurred in the shape of pilgrimage over time: pilgrimage is not the same in the Hellenistic period as it is in the classical period, and pilgrimage in the Roman world is different again (Rutherford, 2000).

Leaving early prehistoric periods and approaching more modern ones, worship becomes more formalized and it is practiced on a more systematic basis. There is a great diversity between the ancient pilgrimages and the contemporary pilgrimage-related phenomena. The reasons that have contributed to this are various and they are related to both the settlement of new colonists and to the improvement of social and economic conditions on the island. Based on the statuettes found, there are two possible places of worship, one in Lempa and another in Kissonerga, Paphos. There are also several
archaeological data mentioning Cypriot temples, especially during the Bronze Age, when an increasing number of such sites were observed. Sanctuaries were also found in cities like Palepaphos, Kition, Engomi, Idalion, Chytri and villages such as Agia Irini, Myrto and Agios Iakovos in Famagusta (Ioannou, 2005). The existence of all these sanctuaries and places of worship testifies both to the spiritual progress of the ancient Cypriots and to the great pastoral work constantly progressing on the island, thus attracting numerous foreign visitors and pilgrims.

In large temples that were dedicated to the Olympian gods, the ancient Cypriots also maintained oracles, which were supervised by the arch-oracle. The Cypriots’ relation with the oracle of Delphi was also close (Papageorgiou, 2003), as evidenced by several Cypriot objects offered as a gift to the famous oracle. It is mentioned that "Many Cypriots were appointed theorodokoi, became consuls of Delphi having various privileges, like priority in trials, asking for divinations first, tax exemption, etc." The existence of Religious and Pilgrimage tourism between Cyprus and Greece is confirmed with the transition of ancient Cypriots to Delphi, Delos and elsewhere for religious and worshiping reasons. All the reports mentioned above are concluded before the coming of Christ on earth. The positions of all of the aforementioned gods are taken by Orthodox Saints and especially Virgin Mary. Apart from the data mentioned above, the transcendental presence of Virgin Mary on the island remains an eternal and indisputable fact (Pavlides, 1993). Cyprus is studded with place names inspired by Virgin Mary and traditions associated with her innumerable miracles. All these constitute indelible evidence of her transcendental presence.

The establishment of churches on the ruins of ancient temples was common, such as the cases of the Parthenon in Athens, which became the church of Virgin Mary, the temple of Tyche (Fortune) in Antioch, which became the church of Saint Ignatius and the Temple of Poseidon in Istanbul, which became the church of Saint Menas.
In Cyprus the majestic church of Virgin Mary the Catholic was built on the ruins the famous temple of Aphrodite at Kouklia, while the church of Saint Fotios was built on the temple of Aphrodite at Golgoi. The sanctuary of Athena at Idalion was also replaced by the stately church of Saint George, and so forth (Hatziioannou, 1990).

With all that has already been mentioned, it is substantiated that since ancient times Cyprus has been a centre of worship not only for Cypriots and Greeks but for many other peoples of the region too. The movement of all these pilgrims resulted in the creation of the first pilgrimages on the island. It is observed that these ancient worship centres, temples and sanctuaries composed the basis for the creation of the first Christian Church of the island. By extension they also contributed to the continuation and increase of pilgrims, visitors and tourists in Cyprus, thereby contributing to the development of Religious and Pilgrimage tourism (Rodosthenous, 2012). With the arrival of the first Apostles of Christ in Cyprus, the formerly pagan "island of Aphrodite" is abandoning the darkness of such ignorance; it enters the light and knowledge of God and gradually becomes, over the centuries, a God-bearing place. Cyprus is eventually transformed into an Island of Virgin Mary and the Saints, a place of worshiping pilgrimage and religious tourism.

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Τύποι καὶ ἀναλόμασι Π. Δ. Σακελλαρίου, 1890 / Nicosia: Πολιτιστικὸν Ἰδρύμα Αρχεπισκόπον Μακαρίου.


ENDNOTES

2. Greek: Μούττη του Δκιά.
5. Greek: ιερή βάσσα.
7. Greek: ιερούς κήπους.
8. TN: Dodekatheon (Greek: Δωδεκάθεον from δώδεκα, dodeka, "twelve" and θεοί, theoi, "gods").
9. TN: Offered translation, original reference: (Burkert - Μπεζαντάκος – Αφρ. Αβαγιαννόβ, 1993. Αρχαία Κυπριακή Γραμματεία 1-6, 1995-2008) from now on referred to as "ACyL".
15. TN: The name refers to native Cypriots.
23. Greek: Ανάθεος.
24. Greek: Ανάθεος.
30. NT: Old Paphos.
33. Greek: Μορφώ.
34. Greek: Μορφώ.
35. TN: Ancient Greek in the text, ἄδυτος γυναιξὶ ἀόρατος.
38. Greek: Αφροδίσιοι.
40. Greek: Αφροδίσιοι.
44. Greek: Αφροδίσιοι.
45. Greek: Αφροδίσιοι.
46. Greek: Αφροδίσιοι.
47. Greek: Αφροδίσιοι.
49. Greek: Αφροδίσιοι.
50. Greek: Αφροδίσιοι.
51. Greek: Αφροδίσιοι.
52. Greek: Αφροδίσιοι.

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PILGRIMAGE TOURIST’S PERCEPTION TOWARDS SERVICE QUALITY DIMENSIONS OF HOTELS IN KUMBAKONAM- THE TEMPLE CITY OF INDIA.

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Service quality is well thought-out to be a decisive accomplishment factor which is one of the outstanding accomplishment features that sway the core competencies of the hotel industry. The Hotel industry in Temple city of the old Cauvery delta Kumbakonam has been escalating in recent years. In spite of the growth, the industry also countenances problems with regard to service quality. The most imperative rationale of this study is to examine the aspects that determine the service quality with reference to the physical environment, interaction and behavior quality of employees towards customer satisfaction, and brand image. The primary data have been collected by means of a questionnaire tool from the guests visiting Hotels in Temple city Kumbakonam. The data collected has been analyzed using SPSS software, and the tools used are frequency analysis, Correlation and Regression. The major findings of this study are Interaction and behavior quality of employees influences customer satisfaction by 21.6% and customer loyalty by 28% and brand image by 67.2%.

Keywords: service quality, interaction behavior quality, customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, brand image
INTRODUCTION

The service sector and its performance could be a major contributor to India’s gross domestic product and influence the economy of the Asian country to a larger level. The Services sector encompasses for 52.97% of total India's GVA (Gross Value Added) which equals 115.50 lakh crore rupees.

The commercial service enterprises and direct service sector’s contribution to gross domestic product totalled US$ 44 billion as per 2014 statistical information inveterate by the Ministry of External Affairs, Government of the Asian country. The service sector in India has been growing at a compounded growth rate of 14% each year, adding a huge amount of foreign exchange to the economy and in line with an Asian country. This segment encompasses a number of industries of which hotel and lodging are one among them. Hotels are an imperative part of the tourism and hospitality industry and have turned into one of the most cutthroat businesses (Bhattacharya & Arup, 1990). Recently, there has been an increased exploratory insight on the measurement of service efficiency (Sanjeev, 2007) of the hotel and restaurant management and their related marketing strategies.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Service Quality

Parasuraman et al. (1985) outline the importance of the service quality as an outcome and the association between expectations of a service and what's professed that are received by the customer and the delivery of exceptional or better-quality services that is related to customer expectation (Zeithaml, Bitner & Grembler, 1996). The most focus is on meeting the client’s desires and the way the service is offered in accordance with customer expectations (Lewis & Booms, 1983). Service quality isn't objectively measured by some
technical standards, however, it is perceived by the customers and deliberated with the customer based values and preferences (Kwortnik, 2005)

**Customer Satisfaction**

Customer contentment is characterized as a customer’s stance of bliss or disenchantment resultant from an association of the customer’s discernment towards product’s performance (or outcome) to the customer’s outlook (Kotler & Keller, 2009). Customer e-satisfaction refers to the customer’s realization of response. It is an emotion that customers have as an outcome of the post-consumption assessment of services (Rust & Oliver 1994). Customer satisfaction persuades customer action patterns, specifically repurchase intent and affirmative word-of-mouth (Yeung, Ging & Ennew, 2002).

**Brand Image**

Brand image is the “discernments regarding a brand replicate and acquaintances which exist in the reminiscence of the consumer (Keller, 1993). Customers build verdict by evaluating company’s concert with their preceding individual experience, in a way to expand new relations with reference to the company (Martinez & Pina, 2003). The service excellence of hotels effects the changes in customer contentment, customer reliability, and brand reflection (Li & Jarinto, 2012).

This segment encompasses a number of services, of which accommodation is one. Hotels are an imperative part of the tourism and hospitality industry is one of the best parts of the determined businesses. Bhattacharya and Arup (1990) concluded about the increased exploratory insights on the measurement of efficiency
Sanjeev (2007) of the hotel and restaurant management and marketing strategies.

With growing rivalry in the hotel industry and a massive increase in the scale of hotels with extensive service quality has become the top main concern in sustaining competitiveness. To maintain competitiveness, Min, & Min, (1997) the hotel administration frequently wants to build up consistent service excellence and value standards. Possibly one of preeminent way of developing the values to stabilize the hotel’s service recital with that of benchmarked services and service leaders and to re-examine its services concert constantly through aggressive practices.

The significance of value sub segments and segmentation cannot be ignored by hoteliers. According to (Qu, Ryan, & Chu, 2000) tourist will expect to anticipate hotels to deliver extra value-for-money services and amenities and their purchasing pattern are entirely changed to an economic value basis.

Hotels afford services that are diverse from material goods for the reason that hotel’s lodging services are directly consumed and necessitate a customer-intensive and creation practices. The tourism and hospitality segment in India is exceptionally positive with a huge extent of hotel chains encompassed with lots of growth plans. The strategy and revolutions put into practice by the Government of India which has been influential in providing the indispensable advancement to the Indian tourism and hospitality sector’s progress and it is gaining its focus for additional foreign tourists every year. The Indian hoteliers are very hopeful and the tourist inflow is anticipated to augment in future. (Figure 1).
Figure 1. Contribution of tourism and hospitality to GDP

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The current study analyzes the service quality connected to the lodging business of temple city Kumbakonam. Service superiority is characterized as the result of an examination between the desires of a service and what is seen to have been received. Kumbakonam, additionally spelt as Coombaconum in the records of British India, is a town and an uncommon evaluation region in the Thanjavur locale in the southeast Indian condition of Tamil Nadu. Kumbakonam is known as a "temple town" because of the pervasiveness of various temples here and is noted for its Mahamagam celebration which draws on individuals from everywhere throughout the globe. Once in a 12-year function occasion falls on February 13-22nd of 2016. The tremendous group assembles in Kumbakonam to have a dunk in the tank, alongside holy people and scholars. Mahamagam showering celebration focuses on a solitary day, the concourse of explorers being all the more. Every one of the Indians is accepted to go the tank on this day and a purification shower in this tank on this day is viewed as equivalent to the consolidated dunks in all the blessed rivers of India. Festival deities from every one of the temples in
Kumbakonam touch base at the tank and at twelve, all the divinities bathe alongside the aficionados - it is called "Theerthavari".

The rationale of this paper is to look into the most imperative distinctiveness of the service quality factors as perceived by pilgrimage tourist who travels to the Kumbakonam, the old Cauvery delta and temple city, only a few studies have done in this perspective during Mahamagam festival. As travel for religious purposes increases, the study may help to further develop their marketing strategies for pilgrimage based tourist places (Triantafillidou, Koritos, Chatzipanagiotou & Vassilikopoulou, 2010). There are lots of aspects affecting infrastructure as well as service-associated components which should lead to the accomplishment of better quality services (Jauhari & Sanjeev, 2010). (Table 1).

**Table 1. Demographic classifications of respondents**
(Data source: Primary Data, 2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Female</td>
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<td>25-35</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-45</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than 45</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>30.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>206</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of days stayed</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>35.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3days</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>38.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above table explained pilgrimage tourists included in the current study and their demographic classification and it is understood that 60% of the tourists are above the age group of 35 years, 39% stayed for two to three days and only 25% stayed for more than two days. 63% were male and 37% were female. 79% of the customers who stayed in Kumbakonam hotels are pilgrimage tourists. The following research question was formulated to analyse the factors considered by the pilgrimage tourists who are very vital to determine the service quality and they are shown in table .2.

**Research question #1:** What are the most decisive factors of pilgrimage tourist’s perception towards hotel service quality?
### Table 2. Mean and standard deviation of Factors - Physical Environment, Interaction and Behavior Quality
(Data source: Primary Data, 2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables considered for the study</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>physical environment of this hotel is the best and ever I have experienced</td>
<td>4.1049</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>.76091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The ambience is excellent.</td>
<td>4.1852</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.68906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stylish Interiors</td>
<td>4.1296</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.73204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenient parking spaces availability</td>
<td>3.9321</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.71476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenient location for dining-out facilities</td>
<td>3.9753</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>.67751</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenient location for retail stores</td>
<td>3.9630</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>.65833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This hotel bathroom and toilet are clean.</td>
<td>4.1284</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>.65251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This hotel’s room are clean.</td>
<td>4.1654</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.61849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This hotel’s reception area is clean.</td>
<td>4.1716</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>.65013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This hotel employee looks clean and neat.</td>
<td>4.2346</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.66448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; beverage are of high quality.</td>
<td>3.8642</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.79209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of food &amp; beverage facilities are available</td>
<td>3.9136</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>.74262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fire exits at available at this hotel.</td>
<td>3.8395</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.89104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sprinkler system at this hotel is good.</td>
<td>3.9012</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>.92723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel secure in this hotel</td>
<td>3.9259</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>.81565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality interaction with the employees</td>
<td>4.2246</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.77980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee behaviour of this hotel gives me trust</td>
<td>4.2938</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.83775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Best service for me In this hotel</td>
<td>4.2773</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.76723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel employees are able to answer my query speedily.</td>
<td>4.1111</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>.86333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel employees try to diminish my waiting time</td>
<td>4.1815</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.92227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel employees offer service for me punctually.</td>
<td>4.2432</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.90786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The employees comprehend about the waiting</td>
<td>4.2556</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.94079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The quality of this hotel is considered superior</td>
<td>4.1667</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.71584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This hotel provides high quality services.</td>
<td>4.1975</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.66724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, the value based services provided in this hotel is good.</td>
<td>4.2146</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.70968</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the above table “the behavior of the employees gives me to trust” (Mean=4.2938) ranked one, “The employees of this hotel always provide the best service for me” (Mean=4.2773) ranked second, “The employees understand that waiting time is important to me” (Mean=4.25560) ranked third. The factors considered for the current study endow with chances to be familiar with and to rank the order of the features that are well deliberated as significant by the pilgrimage tourists who are staying in hotels (Mohsin & Lockyer, 2010). Factor analysis is a regular method followed to determine the appropriate items representing the factors in determining service quality of pilgrimage tourists. The Factor analysis has been used to reduce twenty-five factors determining pilgrimage tourist service quality which also substantiates the inter correlations between the variables (Field, 2000).

In table 3 the KMO and Bartlette’s test of sphericity ensures the measures of sampling adequacy and interdependency of the subscales (Kaiser, 1974; Field, 2000). The value of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sample Adequacy (KMO) must be greater than 0.5 and for the current study, it is 0.893, which is considered to be “meritorious” and sufficiently adequate. The Bartlette’s test of sphericity (Sig: 0.00) is a tool that facilitates to predict the existence of significant correlation among variables (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). The results of KMO and Bartlette’s test confirms that the pilgrim customers’ sample chosen from the place of the Kumbakonam temple city is self-sufficient for further statistical analysis and to proceed with factor analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. KMO and Bartlett's Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The extracted five factors along with the Eigenvalue which is exceeding one for pilgrimage tourist’s perception towards service quality of hotels are 12.316, 1.901, 1.646, 1.399, 1.034 and the present solution accounted for 83.16% of Variance. It is an excellent extraction because only 16.64% was the exact loss of content variables towards service quality of hotels in the temple city. The percentages of variance explained by the five factors are 55.981, 8.639, 7.481, 6.360 and 4.701 respectively.

The bigger communalities delegated with a huge variance which was explained for by the factor solutions. The factor analysis from Promax results for the pilgrimage tourists perception factors towards service quality of hotels indicates that after five factors are extracted the retained communality is 0.950 for variable 1, 0.922 for variable 2, 0.900 for variable 3, 0.892 for variable 4 and 0.879 for variable 5. Outsized communalities commend that a bigger variance (Nargundkar, 2002) was expounded by the factor solutions.
Table 4. Promax rotated Factor Loading Matrix  
(Data source: Primary Data, 2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern Matrix</th>
<th>Reduced Factors</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Commu-nalities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 1</strong>-Interaction behaviour quality (IBQ)</td>
<td>Best service for me In this hotel</td>
<td>IBQ3</td>
<td>.941</td>
<td>.848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hotel employees are able to answer my query speedily.</td>
<td>IBQ4</td>
<td>.940</td>
<td>.827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employee behaviour of this hotel gives me trust</td>
<td>IBQ2</td>
<td>.887</td>
<td>.821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality interaction with the employees</td>
<td>IBQ1</td>
<td>.811</td>
<td>.777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This hotel provides high quality services</td>
<td>SQ2</td>
<td>.830</td>
<td>.743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall, the values, experience acquired from this hotel is good.</td>
<td>SQ3</td>
<td>.800</td>
<td>.763</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The quality of this hotel is considered superior</td>
<td>SQ1</td>
<td>.834</td>
<td>.702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 2</strong>-Food beverages and safety (FBS)</td>
<td>Variety of food &amp; beverage facilities are available</td>
<td>FB2</td>
<td>.957</td>
<td>.790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Food &amp; beverage are of high quality</td>
<td>FB1</td>
<td>.887</td>
<td>.779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sprinkler system at this hotel is good.</td>
<td>SS2</td>
<td>.869</td>
<td>.843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I feel secured in this hotel</td>
<td>SS3</td>
<td>.761</td>
<td>.794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fire exits available at this hotel.</td>
<td>SS1</td>
<td>.705</td>
<td>.782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 3</strong>-Cleanliness (C)</td>
<td>This hotel’s room is clean.</td>
<td>C2</td>
<td>.964</td>
<td>.950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This hotel’s reception area and surrounding is clean.</td>
<td>C3</td>
<td>.921</td>
<td>.922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This hotel’s bathroom and toilet are clean</td>
<td>C1</td>
<td>.896</td>
<td>.892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 4</strong>-Ambience(A)</td>
<td>This hotel employee looks clean and neat.</td>
<td>C4</td>
<td>.804</td>
<td>.804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The physical environment of this hotel is the best I have experienced</td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>.893</td>
<td>.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stylish Interiors</td>
<td>A3</td>
<td>.834</td>
<td>.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The ambience is excellent.</td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>.820</td>
<td>.851</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 5</strong>-Location(L)</td>
<td>Convenient location for dining-out facilities</td>
<td>L2</td>
<td>.925</td>
<td>.879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Convenient location for retail stores</td>
<td>L3</td>
<td>.921</td>
<td>.846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Convenient parking spaces availability</td>
<td>L1</td>
<td>.868</td>
<td>.828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>% of Variance</strong></td>
<td>55.981</td>
<td>8.639</td>
<td>7.481</td>
<td>6.360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cumulative %</strong></td>
<td>55.981</td>
<td>64.620</td>
<td>72.101</td>
<td>78.461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cronbach Alpha</strong></td>
<td>.786</td>
<td>.785</td>
<td>.785</td>
<td>.821</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.  
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.  
a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.
From the above table 4, it was clear that through Promax analysis five factors were extorted which accounted for 83.16% of the variance. The reliability analysis was used to analyse the constancy of the instrument to all the subscales. Cronbach Alpha is the most commonly used measure of scale reliability and further analysis was done for the extracted sub-factors determining the perception of pilgrimage customers. Cronbach (1951) suggest that alpha should be calculated separately. The Promax rotation has been used because of the benefit of being speedy and abstractly uncomplicated (Lewis-Beck, Bryman, & Liao, 2003). The latent root criterion was applied for extraction of factors, and the Eigenvalues bigger than one are the only factors which are having latent roots which were regarded as noteworthy; all other factors with latent roots less than one were to be well deliberated as insignificant and hence it will not be considered (Kayastha, Murthy & Adhikary, 2015). The communalities of 25 items ranged from 0.702 to 0.950 demonstrating that a huge sum of variance has been extracted by the factor solution.

The five factors are named as follows.

**Factor 1- ‘Interaction behaviour quality’**

The statements included under factor 1 includes “employees of this hotel always offer the most excellent service”, are able to answer questions quickly, trustable, and high-quality services provided with good interaction.

**Factor 2 – ‘Food beverages and safety’**

The statements included under factor 2 includes Variety of food & beverage facilities with high quality with good safety and security

**Factor 3- ‘Cleanliness’**

Factor 3 includes this hotel’s rooms, bathrooms, toilet, and surroundings are clean.

**Factor 4 – ‘Ambience’**
It comprises the physical environment of this hotel, Interiors, and the ambience is excellent

**Factor 5 – ‘Location’**

It comprises a suitable place for dining-out facilities, parking spaces, and shops.

The first factor (Factor 1 – Interaction behavior quality) contains seven components with high factor loadings of 0.80 and above and explains most of the variance which is 55.98% is considered an important determinant for predicting the pilgrim customer’s perception towards service quality of hotels in Kumbakonam temple city. The effect of the reliability analysis was explained by the Cronbach’s alpha coefficients which are quite above the ground and it ranges from 0.821 to 0.785. That is well higher than the bare minimum value of 0.60, which is considered as an acceptable indicator of dependability (Hair et al. 2006). Thus, these values put forward a high-quality internal constancy of the factors. Finally, Cronbach’s alpha value for the overall customer contentment scale is 0.978 and which specify its high reliability.

**CORRELATION ANALYSIS**

Correlation analysis was used to determine the relationship of pilgrim customer’s perception towards customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and Brand image and factors determining service quality of hotels. It was confirmed that there was a significant positive correlation between the pilgrim customer’s perception extracted from the factor analysis and overall factors determining service quality of hotels and the results is shown in table 5.
Table 5. The Pearson Correlation analysis between pilgrims customer’s perception towards customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and Brand image and factors determining service quality of hotels. (Data source: Primary Data, 2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>IBQ</th>
<th>FB &amp; S</th>
<th>Cleanliness</th>
<th>Ambience</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>CS</th>
<th>CL</th>
<th>BI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IBQ</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB &amp; S</td>
<td>.682**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness</td>
<td>.648**</td>
<td>.604**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambience</td>
<td>.531**</td>
<td>.442**</td>
<td>.531**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>.575**</td>
<td>.467**</td>
<td>.639**</td>
<td>.491**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>.661**</td>
<td>.590**</td>
<td>.538**</td>
<td>.544**</td>
<td>.460**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CL</td>
<td>.670**</td>
<td>.488**</td>
<td>.494**</td>
<td>.469**</td>
<td>.431**</td>
<td>.750**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BI</td>
<td>.763**</td>
<td>.575**</td>
<td>.512**</td>
<td>.501**</td>
<td>.472**</td>
<td>.698**</td>
<td>.782**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

IBQ = Interaction Behaviour Quality; FB & S = Food Beverages & Safety; CS = Customer Satisfaction; CL = Customer Loyalty; BI = Brand Image

Research question #3: What is the impact of pilgrim customer’s perceptions towards factors determining service quality of hotels and customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and Brand image?
To answer the research question 3, Multiple Regression analysis has been carried out for Pilgrim customer’s perceptions of factors determining service quality of hotels towards customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, and Brand image. All the hypothesized relation was found to be significant which is presented in table 6. The multi-collinearity was not a predicament because no correlation values between the independent and the predictor variables are above 0.6 (Pedhazur, 1982; Chiu, Janet & Jerome, 1998). The regression analysis was carried out in the study to each and every one of the factors of Pilgrims customer’s perceptions of factors determining the service quality of hotel which are significantly influencing customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and Brand image.

Table 6. Model Summary for regression analysis
(Data source: Primary Data, 2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R square</th>
<th>Adjusted R square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>IBQ</th>
<th>FB &amp; S</th>
<th>Clean</th>
<th>Ambience</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer satisfaction</td>
<td>0.719</td>
<td>0.517</td>
<td>0.505</td>
<td>42.75</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.216</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>0.154</td>
<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer Loyalty</td>
<td>0.685</td>
<td>0.489</td>
<td>0.456</td>
<td>35.34</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.288</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Image</td>
<td>0.774</td>
<td>0.559</td>
<td>0.589</td>
<td>59.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.672</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.096</td>
<td>0.296</td>
<td>0.055</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the above table, it is clear that Correlation value is $R = .719$ which states that there is a high-quality of correlation between factors determining service quality of hotels of pilgrims customer’s and customer satisfaction and R-square value = .517 which means that the total variation in the dependent variable (customer satisfaction) can be explained by the independent variable (physical environment) by 51.7%. The P value = 0.000 which indicates that the model is significant. The Customer Loyalty (48.9%), Brand Image (55.9%) is also significantly impacted by factors determining service quality of hotels of pilgrim customers.

Five factors of pilgrim customer’s perception towards customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and Brand image – Interaction behavior quality, Food beverages and safety, Cleanliness, Ambience, and Location have been explained in the model with much more statistical significance. So it is concluded that the regression model is statistically, significantly predicting the outcome of customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, and Brand image through factors determining service quality which conclude a good fit for the data too.

Beta coefficients for the regression model provide necessary information to predict the level of customer contentment, customer trustworthiness and Brand representation from various service quality factors. In the regression model in the table.6, Interaction behaviour quality is influencing customer satisfaction (B=21.6%; Sig.<.001), customer loyalty (B=28.0%; Sig.<.001) and Brand image (67.2%; Sig.<.001) and Food beverages and safety influencing customer satisfaction (B=13.6%; Sig.<.001), customer loyalty (B=15.6%; Sig.<.001) and Brand image (22.2%; Sig.<.001) are contributing to the maximum in case of pilgrim customer’s of temple city.

The regression equation can be formed in determining the level of
Customer satisfaction as: $2.96 + 0.216 \text{(Interaction behavior quality)} + 0.136 \text{(Food beverages and safety)} + 0.047 \text{(Cleanliness)} + 0.154 \text{(Ambience)} + 0.017 \text{(Location)}$

Customer Loyalty as: $2.96 + 0.280 \text{(Interaction behavior quality)} + 0.156 \text{(Food beverages and safety)} + 0.060 \text{(Cleanliness)} - 0.028 \text{(Ambience)} + 0.009 \text{(Location)}$

Brand Image as: $2.96 + 0.672 \text{(Interaction behavior quality)} + 0.222 \text{(Food beverages and safety)} + 0.096 \text{(Cleanliness)} + 0.296 \text{(Ambience)} + 0.055 \text{(Location)}$

**CONCLUSION**

Numbers of studies are there in tourism but service quality, brand image dimensions are comparatively less in number. Despite the high number of individuals interested in religious tourism, it remains the smallest amount of exploration tourist activities in the world of contemporary tourism (Vukonic, 1998). As Timothy and Olsen (2006) noted, “Religiously motivated travel including pilgrimage has grown tremendously during the past fifty years”. About 240 million people travel every year to several major pilgrimage destinations, particularly Christians, Muslims, and Hindus (Jachowski, 2000). The study analyzes the service quality dimension of hotels Nadiri & Hussain, (2005) which is the important part of pilgrimage tourism from the perspectives of accommodation and stay.

Cleanliness is an important factor for the accommodation and hotel and it is the main factor that leads to customer contentment, customer trustworthiness, and brand image. So the hotel should maintain cleanliness which is an important factor for creating a brand image. From the study, it is found that waiting time is one of the most important factors for a service delivery process. Interaction and behaviour quality is also an important factor that leads to customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, and brand image.
So the hotel management must take a keen interest in training the employees about their behaviour and interaction with the guests. From the study, it is clear that the physical environment and outcome quality are positively correlated to customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and brand image which mean that if the physical environment and outcome quality are improved it would improve customer satisfaction that leads to customer loyalty and creates a brand image for the hotel.

Marketing in Religious, heritage, and cultural tourism is becoming more crucial (Rojas & Camerero, 2008). The current study is based on the culture of people and their perspectives on going to a number of the temple as an important ritual based religion values. Religious tourism is considered as the matured form of tourism (Rinschede, 1992). The study results have been confirmed by the previous studies Triantafillidou, Koritos, Chatzipanagiotou & Vassilikopoulou, (2010), Jauhari & Sanjeev (2010).

It is a type of heritage tourism that is motivated exclusively or strongly by religious reasons (Timothy & Olsen, 2006). Religious tourism has great potential as a growing phenomenon that would benefit from academic advances and applied improvements (Aleen, 2010; Collins-Kreiner & Gatrell, 2006).

**IMPLICATIONS**

The hotel can improve the level of customer satisfaction by concentrating on ambience, location, cleanliness, food and beverage, safety and security, interaction and behaviour quality, waiting time, service quality and perceived value. Since cleanliness has a greater influence on customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, and brand image, the hotel needs to concentrate more on cleanliness factor. Interaction and Behaviour Quality will also have a greater influence on customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, and brand image so it is recommended that the employees of the hotel should be trained.
properly to interact with the guests of the hotel. The hotel can have a periodical evaluation of the training process.

REFERENCES


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A MULTI-PORT CRUISE REGION: DYNAMICS AND HIERARCHIES IN THE MED

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The study generates knowledge on the patterns, structures, and geography of growth of the cruise port industry in the Mediterranean and its adjoining seas. The analysis of the passenger movements in the period 2005-2014, as provided by cruise port authorities, details the port hierarchy and reveals transformation of the region from a cluster of port destinations hosting a certain thousands of cruise passengers to a multi-port cruise region accommodating several millions of passenger movements. An adapted application of the ‘multi-port region’ concept, originally developed in cargo port studies extends research to intra-region dynamics and exposes previously unexplored imbalances that co-exist with the overall growth of a commonly seen and homogeneous single cruise region. The picture completes with the examination of the unbalanced trends in the major 20 cruise ports in the Med, and the levels of market concentration. The findings call for similar analyses, and not least comparisons, with other regions. With Asia appearing in the strategies of cruise lines as a deployment region and a source market, and the Med experiencing volatile trends, they are also practically helpful for those involved in the development and management of cruise ports.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Cruise witnessed an uninterrupted growth over the last 30 years. In 2014 almost 22 million passengers enjoyed a cruise on one of the 296 cruise vessels calling at one or more cruise regions of the world (North America, Caribbean, South America, Mediterranean, North Europe, Australia, Asia, Africa). Ten years before the number of people that had embarked on a cruise were just 11.8 millions.

Cruise lines continue to respond to desires of their guests embracing innovation. They develop new ship designs, and offer diverse on-board amenities, facilities and services, as well as shore side activities. As a result, while the global financial crisis of 2008-09 had a major impact over maritime cargo shipping, cruise lines and ports continued experiencing steadily rising numbers of passengers. They did so, even when the Costa Concordia loss created the most sustained period of negative publicity for the industry.

The industry managed to ‘cruise through the perfect storm’ (Peisley, 2012), using an increasing number of ports of call and turnaround ports, aiming to provide excellent in-port and destination experiences and convenient departures from proximal embarkation cities. An industry that had focused on the United States and the Caribbean emerged into a global, highly efficient business. Cruise itineraries take place via the deployment of vessels in a specific geographic cruise region, or transferred between markets even within the same calendar year, with round the world cruises also in offer.

Within this ongoing globalization of the cruise industry, the region of the world that has grown faster during the first fifteen
years of the 21st century is the Mediterranean and its adjoining seas. This stands today as the second most popular cruise destination worldwide, enjoying substantial economic benefits. CLIA (2014), the association representing cruise lines, estimates that in 2013 the economic contribution of cruise to Europe, including spending at shipyards and the generation of over 339,000 jobs, stands at €39.4 billion.

The paper studies the structures of the growth of the cruise port industry in the Mediterranean and its adjoining seas in the last decade (2005-2014). It does so analyzing the passenger movements on 69 cruise ports, as provided by the entities operating the specific ports. The analysis focuses on the trends observed and concludes on the regional dynamics, i.e. growth variations, levels of market concentration, home-porting levels and seasonality.

The examination of the evolution path and port hierarchy illustrates the transformation of this port region from a group of cruise port destinations hosting a certain number of cruise passengers to a multi-port cruise region hosting several millions of passenger movements. The study then extends to intra-region dynamics. Comparing trends in the four distinctive port subsystems within what is commonly seen as a single cruise region, the study reveals the unexplored imbalances that co-exist with the overall growth. The picture completes with the examination of the trends in the major 20 cruise ports in the Med, and the levels of market concentration observed within the decade of under examination.

2. Why this study?

In practical terms, understanding these dynamics is important as ports continue to develop an interest in advancing their cruise activities, seeking association with the considerable financial contribution of cruise to the port cities or nearby touristic destinations. With the importance of societal integration of ports
rising (OECD, 2014) cruise is part of respective agendas of port managing organisations. In several parts of the world, ports move from multi-purpose terminals or temporary docking facilities to specialised terminals, in order to act as ports-of-call, and whenever possible as home-ports hosting the, financially profitable, departure and conclusion of a cruise. A growing interest by third parties, including cruise lines to invest in port facilities did follow. Besides, knowledge of the trends is a condition for understanding how to best address the various challenges (see: Pallis, 2015) and enable the growth of cruise activities to sustain.

In a different vein, the present work adds to the growing scholarly interest in further understanding the structures and implications of the tremendous growth of cruise activities, the sophistication and the geographical span of the sector in the last decade, having cruise ports as the unit of analysis.

With the sector combining the transportation and the tourism elements, scholarly attention had for long focused on cruise as a tourism industry segment. Mainstream literature studied extensively the economic impact of cruise tourism and calls (cf. Dwyer and Forsyth, 1996; 1998; Kester, 2002), or cruise ship passenger spending patterns (Douglas and Douglas, 2004; Seidl et al, 2006). They continue to do so by focusing on neglected issues such as the long-term impact of cruise tourism on the local community (Parola et al, 2014). The geography of cruise growth, and the managerial, economic and policy aspects that are associated with the maritime transportation elements have been comparatively neglected. In the last two decades, scholars studying the geography (Ng and Ducruet, 2014) and economies (Pallis et al, 2013) of shipping, ports, and maritime transportation systems developed multidisciplinary research streams, yet cruise and cruise port studies are relatively few.

This trend is reversing. Research is turning to additional themes (see contributions in: Pallis et al, 2014), acknowledging, explicitly or not, that certain gaps in literature persist (Papathanassis and
Beckmann, 2011). These include the industrial organization of cruises (Papatheodorou, 2006), the demand for cruise tourism (cf. Petrick and Li, 2006; Brida et al, 2013), the role of ‘world of mouth’ as cruise activities generator (Brida et al, 2012; 5 et al, 2014). Eventually, the agenda expands to topics aiming to understand the structures and potential limitations of cruise market growth: the implications of economies of scale (Weaver, 2005; Andriotis & Agiomirgianakis, 2010), the geography of the world cruise market and the routing of cruise ships (Charlier and McCalla, 2006; Rodrigue and Notteboom, 2013), the supply of cruises in specific regions (cf. Wilkinson, 2006; Wood, 2000 on the Caribbean; Sun et al, 2014 on China), but still not the Med, and the intertwined theme of the ‘carrying capacity’ of a destination (Castillo-Manzano et al, 2014; Stefanidaki and Lekakou, 2014). An associated research question deserving attention refers to the patterns of growth and the evolving hierarchy of the port systems that serve this dynamic industry.

Cruise ports, which had seldom been the units of analysis in port studies, started receiving the deserved attention in the 2010s. In two earlier studies Marti (1990) had discussed the cruise port selection process and McCalla (1998) the service offerings and locational qualities of cruise ports, as did recently Vaggelas and Pallis (2010). With private actors interested in investing and operating cruise terminals, Wang et al (2014) examine how best to align the interests of investors and port authorities, whereas Lau et al (2014) discuss the institutional forces in place when selecting a site for a new cruise terminal. Given the interest of many cruise ports to attract home-porting activities, the conditions for such development are also attracting research interest (see: Lekakou et al, 2010; Bagis and Dooms, 2014). Esteve-Perez and Garcia-Sanchez (2015) search for the determinants of traffic registered by a cruise port, regionalization of related activities by coordinating cruise port operations and expanding their hinterland reach (Gui and Russo,
Contributing to this discussion, the present work generates knowledge on the patterns, structures and geography of growth of the cruise port industry in the most dynamic port region of the 21st century. It turns conceptually to the more advanced cargo ports research, to borrow and develop an adjusted to the cruise world application of the ‘multi-port region’ concept. The latter was introduced by Notteboom (2010) and applied to cargo seaport markets such as Europe, Asia, and the Black Sea.

A distinct multi-port region in the cruise case is a region marked by the presence of distinctive subsystems identified on the basis of (i) the geographical communality of several cruise ports; (ii) a potential communality, or similarities of the features, of the cruise destinations served via these ports; (iii) the calling patterns of the cruise lines that induce a related coexistence of complementarity and competitive relationships among the ports concerned, given the fact cruise itineraries are planned including several ports rather than a single one (undeniably a different concept from the cargo application (introduced by Notteboom 2010; also: Grushevksa and Notteboom, 2014) where the emphasis is on the fact that a certain hinterland is served by several gateway cargo-ports).

This conceptualisation facilitates the understanding of the development patterns in one of the commonly acknowledged eight cruise port regions around the globe. It does so revealing the characteristics, the evolution, and the structures of the distinctive sub-systems within the geographical area under examination. Along with the scholarly useful adaptation of the ‘multi-port region’ concept, the study allows comparisons with other regions, i.e. to what extend the cruise market is highly concentrated in terms of ports of call or home-ports, as happens in the North American where 10 departure ports account for 79% of the cruise passenger departures (Maritime Administration, 2011). With Asia appearing in the strategies of cruise lines, both as a deployment region and a
source market, and the Med experiencing volatility and lower growth that in the past, the analysis is particularly helpful for those involved in the making and development of cruise ports.

3. Trends in Cruise Ports in the Med

The study provides a statistical analysis of cruise passenger movements and cruise calls recorded in 69 cruise ports. Comparing to historical data provided by Market Watch (2015), the sample represents approximately 80% of the cruise passenger movements and cruise calls that take place in the region.

These ports are grouped in four distinctive multi-port regions, or sub-systems, West Med, Adriatic, East Med, and Black Sea. The cruise ports of each sub-system are illustrated at Figure 1 (see Appendix I for the list of ports per region included in the sample).
In total, 25.6 m. cruise passenger movements were registered in these ports in 2014 (Figure 2). This equals to an impressive 84.7%, or 11.8 m. passenger movements, growth since 2004.
Figure 2: Cruise Passenger Movements growth (2005-2014; n=69)

The scale of cruise passengers in these cruise ports exceeded 20 million movements every single year since 2008. This is the result of the deployment of 19.9% of the global cruise capacity in the Med, a share equaling to 35.7 millions of bed days (CLIA, 2014). The number of cruise calls in 2014 was just 13,366, standing 11.1% higher than the calls that had taken place a decade earlier. The comparative lower increase of calls indicative of the presence of economies of scale and the consequent increase in the size of cruise vessels deployed in the Mediterranean.

Splitting the decade in two halves, the picture is considerably different. The hosted in 2014 passenger movements stand just 4.4% more than those of 2010, as the notable growth observed in the early part of the decade. A year per year volatility is also observed in the most recent years. Comparing the total of passengers movements of 2014 represents a 7.3% decrease of passenger movements comparing to the ones that had happened in 2013. The variation is a positive one when comparing to the number of passenger movements that had taken place five years earlier.
The decline of 2014 is the outcome of the emphasis that cruise lines put to the growth of the Asian market, the comparatively slow growth of cruise activities around the globe the same year (as 2014 was the year with the slowest increase of cruising passengers number of the last 19 years) and not least due to the fact that regulatory changes obliged cruise lines to limit the presence of the biggest vessels in a major home-port, Venice. The challenge for Med ports, destinations and all stakeholders is to transform this drop to a temporary one by providing all those conditions for further growth.

The number of cruise ports in the Med and its adjoining seas region that recorded a cruise traffic of at least 10,000 passengers and 20 cruise calls in 2014 stands at 60 (Figure 3). Comparing to a decade before, when 10 ports less had surpassed this threshold, it is evident that more ports and destinations are hosting cruise activities as cruise lines seek ways to enrich the product they offer and attract further passengers. Of these 60 ports, 36 cruise ports hosted more than 80,000 passenger movements within a year, and might be classified as ‘large’ cruise ports; the respective number of ‘large’ ports was standing at 31 ports a decade ago.

**Figure 3:** Number of ports with significant cruise traffic since 2004
4. Intra-Region Comparisons

Four port subsystems, or ‘multi-port cruise regions’, are identified within the Mediterranean and its adjoining seas. These are West Med, Adriatic Sea, East Med, and Black Sea.

A total of 36 cruise ports are located in the West Med, which is the biggest of the four regions in terms of the share of cruise activities hosted. These ports hosted 17,85 millions cruise passenger movements in 2014, a share of 69,9% of the Mediterranean total. That is a 3,9% growth comparing to 2010, but a 4,8% decrease comparing to 2013. They also hosted 8.181 cruise calls, a 61,2% share of the respective total; a number 6,2% lower than that of 2013, or 4% comparing to the recorded calls in 2010. The 14 ports located in the East Med registered in 2014 3 million cruise passenger movements; a 15,8% decline comparing to 2013 and a drop of 2,6% comparing to 2010. The annual number of calls in these ports during 2014 (2.111) was 11,7% lower than those of the previous year, and 23,9% lower comparing to the calls that had taken place in 2010.

A total of 13 cruise ports in the Adriatic region accommodated in 2014 4,6 million passenger movements and 2.742 cruise calls. This represents a decrease of 10,6% in cruise passenger movements and 10,7% in cruise calls comparing to 2013. Comparing to 2010 the number of total cruise passenger movements increased by 10,8%, while the number of cruise calls decreased by 10,8%. The Black Sea is the smallest distinctive region as regards the magnitude of cruise activities. Comparing to the previous year, the six cruise ports in the region for which data are available hosted 13,5% passenger movements less and precisely the same number of cruise calls as in 2013. The total of cruise passenger movements and cruise calls registered in 2014 stand at 162.588 passengers and 332 calls respectively. Despite the cancellations resulted by the difficult political context that emerged in 2014 in Ukraine and the nearby
area, Black Sea ports recorded in 2014 28.2% more passenger movements and 32.8% more cruise calls comparing to 2010.

The growth indexes per region over the last decade (Figure 4) illustrate this each sub-system has its own dynamics, with the Adriatic Sea gaining shares at the expense of the other three regions.

In 2005 the Adriatic cruise ports hosted 14.7% of the traffic accommodated in the region, and in 2014 this share equaled to 17.8%. All other regions lost shares. The West Med traffic share lowered to 69.9% of the total from 71.5% and that of the East Med lowered in 2014 to 11.7% comparing to 12.95% in 2005. The distinctive performance of the Adriatic ports emerged in the most recent half of the decade. On the other hand, in the case of the East Med the growth of the first half of the decade has been followed by a minor decline in the second half of it; a development which is not irrelevant from the geopolitical turbulence that the region experiences within the latter period.

**Figure 4: Cruise Passenger Movements Growth Indexes per subsystem (2005=100)**

4.1 Home-porting

Beyond the different growth dynamics, the four regions differ as regards the extend that home-porting is taking place. Becoming a
home-port, the starting or/and ending point for a cruise itinerary, is a major strategic goal for a number of cruise ports. The increased cruise activity and the provision of additional port, port related services to the major lines and the visit of the port-city by a considerable number of cruise passengers that typically spend more time at the destination they embark, leads to increased revenues for the port authority, the terminal operator, if any, but also for the port-city.

Each cruising area has its home-ports, with the balance of traffic between the hosted home-porting and transit passenger movements varying from port to port. In Adriatic, home-porting takes place in 11 of the 14 ports and represents 39,4% of the total passenger movements. At the other end of the spectrum, Black Sea has only recently seen 4 ports in the region hosting any home-porting activity, with the latter standing at 18,1% of the total traffic in the Black Seas. In the East Med and West Med, the share of home-porting is 23,7% and 27,6% of the annual cruise traffic in the home-porting respective region. The Adriatic is a region that records more substantial traffic of this type than any of the others. In total, 29,2%, or 7,45 m. passenger movements - are ‘home-porting’ movements, with passengers departing or concluding a cruise in 44 different ports of the sample.

**Table 1:** Home-porting passenger movements per region (2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Home-Porting passengers (1)</th>
<th>Cruise pax movements (2)</th>
<th>(1)/(2)</th>
<th>No of Ports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>West Med</td>
<td>4.921.625</td>
<td>17.854.187</td>
<td>27,6%</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adriatic</td>
<td>1.796.741</td>
<td>4.554.958</td>
<td>39,4%</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Med</td>
<td>706.613</td>
<td>2.980.148</td>
<td>23,7%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Sea</td>
<td>27.727</td>
<td>162.588</td>
<td>17,1%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td><strong>7.452.706</strong></td>
<td><strong>25.551.881</strong></td>
<td><strong>29,2%</strong></td>
<td><strong>44</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overall, home-ports tend to be linked with specific source markets. This is due to proximity, access options, and not least preferences of cruise passengers to visit certain destinations. In the Mediterranean region, where multiple home-ports exist, Americans use extensively Barcelona in Spain, Venice and Civitavecchia, in Italy, British passengers depart from the UK (Southampton; Dover), but also from Spain (Malaga, Mallorca) and Malta, Germans depart from Hamburg, Kiel and all different places in the Mediterranean Sea, where other nationalities (i.e. Italians, Spanish, French) take advance of the presence of home-ports in their countries.

4.2 Shifting port hierarchies

More details on the cruise traffic evolution are presented using the Boston Consulting (BC) matrix (see also: Notteboom, 1997 for methodology). In Figure 5 the Med port sub-systems are presented for a 10-year period (2005-2014) according to their average market shares (on the horizontal axis) and the average growth rates (on the vertical axis). Analysis extends to include the way that each region performed in the different halves of the decade.

Evidently, the West-Med region is located in the quadrant of “cash cows” with a moderate growth rates and significant market shares, as following a ‘star performance’ during the first half of the decade when it combined above average growth rates with increased market shares, it moved a ‘cash cow’ performance during 2010-2014.

The other three cruise port systems behaved also quite volatile in terms of growth rates, portraying the different developments of the last decade. For the Adriatic port-region, the outcome of the last decade is its positioning at the “wild cats” quadrant of the matrix, which refers to above average growth rates. This is the result of the cruise activities growth during the period 2010-2014, as the region had not developed with such dynamism during 2005-2009. The
movements in the region are quite substantial and will clearly affect the dynamics of cruise activities in the Adriatic; the construction of new terminals (i.e. Brindisi) the development of new cruise ports (i.e. Bar, Montenegro) and the concessioning of a marque port, Dubrovnik, work in favour of positive trends in coming years. Nonetheless, these trends will be undoubtedly substantially affected by the regulatory developments in Venice, in particular the extent that social pressures will limit or not the size of vessels visiting or home-porting at the particular port.

**Figure 5:** BC matrix – 4 cruise port regions

In the East Med case the situation is contrasting, thus the ‘dog’ status in the matrix. In this port region, the deterioration of the political climate has a major effect. With cruise lines organising itineraries, rather than single port visits, the Arab Spring, and later the geopolitical instability in some of the regions resulted in a marginal decrease of cruise activities. As a result the region that had demonstrated the biggest growth of all during 2005-2009 (almost 18%) has moved to the ‘dogs’ quadrant, when the overall picture of the decade is concerned. Today private investors (i.e. Global ports)
expanding their investments, and regulatory alternations (i.e. liberalization of cabotage in Greece since 2012) counterpart geopolitical difficulties in the South part of the region, thus it remains to be seen which of these factors will determine the position of the region in the near future.

The Black Sea region ends at the same quadrant precisely because of the very different reasons: a remarkable performance since 2010 replaced a negative performance during the first half of the decade. The crucial year is the running one; in 2015 the region will realize whether the decline brought the crisis in Ukraine and Crimea to the East Black Sea system in 2014 has a lasting effect or not.

For the first part of the decade under examination (2005-2009), the ‘stand alone’ West Med region was established at the ‘stars’ quadrant given the combination of an above the average market share along with the an above the average growth. The region did not maintained the status of “stars” as the period 2010-2014; as other subsystems grew at a faster pace the West Med moved to the ‘cash cow’ quadrant of the matrix. Developments in this system are also notable. Regulatory drivers led the major port of the Med, Barcelona to disinvest from terminal operations, with several cruise terminals in the ports operated today by companies having major cruise corporation as key stakeholders, Lisbon completed in 2014 a concession for a new cruise terminal to a company involving a major cruise company (RCCL); with all of these making future dynamics worth to be monitored.

The ‘net shift’ analysis results in Figure 5 provide more insights on the throughput dynamics per region that took place per year. Mathematically the net shift analysis mirrors the entire passenger movements that a port has actually lost or won from competing ports in the same range with the anticipated growth rate (see: Grushevska and Notteboom, 2014). The sum of all shift-effects equals to zero. The time intervals with considerable net volume
shifts refer to a high degree of competition and dynamics within the cruise port system.

The succeeding formulas were used to calculate the shift effects between (inter) and within (intra) the different multi-port gateway regions:

\[
VOLSHFT_{\text{total}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left| SHFT_{ij} \right| \quad \frac{2}{2} = VOLSHFT_{\text{intra}} + VOLSHFT_{\text{inter}}
\]

\[
VOLSHFT_{\text{inter}} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \left( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{r} SHFT_{ij}}{2} \right)
\]

\[
VOLSHFT_{\text{intra}} = \sum_{j \neq j'} \left( VOLSHFT_{\text{intra}, j} \right)
\]

\[
VOLSHFT_{\text{intra}, j} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left| SHFT_{ij} \right| - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left| SHFT_{ij} \right|}{2}
\]

whereas:

- \(VOLSHFT_{\text{intra}, j}\) is the net volume of PAX shifted between ports of group \(j\),
- \(VOLSHFT_{\text{inter}}\) the net volume of TEU shifted between ports situated in different port groups,
- \(VOLSHFT_{\text{total}}\) the total net volume of TEU shifted between cruise ports in the system,
- \(r\) is the number of ports in group \(j\),
- \(n\) = number of ports in the port system, and
- \(m\) = number of port groups in the port system.
Figure 6: Shift analysis for the Mediterranean cruise port system

The net volume shifts reveal the remarkable fluctuation of cruise activities in the East Med since 2010. The decade had started quite differently though, with East Med being the leader region, with an active growth bettering all for the first three years. It is the Adriatic that led growth next. This cruise multi-port region demonstrated a stable growth in all subsequent years until 2014, when it underperformed. The latter is attributed to the limitations posed via legislations restricting the size of the cruise ships visiting this marquee port. This led to the restructuring of the deployment partners in those itineraries including a major port of the region, in turn limiting passenger movements.

The West Med is the second multi-port region that demonstrated a significant volatility the second half of the decade. During these years the region seemed to mirror trends in the East Med. The annual shift suggests that growing annual trends in one of these two regions took place to a great extent at the expense of the other, yet this lasted only one year, as the reverse trend was observed the year that followed. The decade had started completely differently though, with West Med ports being the consistently underperforming ones throughout first years of the decade. The size
of the fourth region, Black Sea, is comparatively small, nonetheless it is evident that the most dynamic years were the most recent ones.

The observed dynamism and the remarkable shifting of shares between regions generate the need to analyze the trends of cruise activities in individual ports. This analysis facilitates understanding whether the volatility has taken place because of volatile performance, stagnation, or remarkable growth of others.

4.3 Seasonality by region

The seasonality trends observed in each of the four distinctive regions follow in certain respects dissimilar distributions (Table 2). In West Med the cruise traffic is distributed more balanced throughout the year. Cruise activities during the winter months correspond to a 10.3% share of the total cruise passenger movements in the region. In the other three regions cruise traffic is concentrated mostly during the second half of the year, in particular the period commencing in June and ending in November. The Adriatic and East Med follow the same distribution patterns as regards calls per trimester. That said, in absolute numbers the passenger movements in the Adriatic during the winter time (Dec-Feb) are minimal (18,146) and the ones that take place in East Med few.

Table 2: Trimester Shares of Cruise Traffic within the MedCruise Regions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total Passengers</th>
<th>Total Calls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>West Med</td>
<td>23.88%</td>
<td>32.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adriatic</td>
<td>20.60%</td>
<td>44.46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Med</td>
<td>19.07%</td>
<td>41.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Sea</td>
<td>10.25%</td>
<td>35.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22.62%</td>
<td>35.74%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Trends in the 20-major ports

The list of the 20 major ports of the sample includes 13 ports located in the West Med, with Barcelona and Civitavecchia (Rome) being the major ports of all 69 ports. Four ports located in the Adriatic and three ports in the East Med. These ports hosted in 2014 (Table 3) 79% of the total passenger movements (20.2 million), and 66.4% of the cruise calls (8.876). The concentration is even higher when reference is on home-porting. The 20 major ports hosted 94% of the passengers (dis)embarking a cruise at a specific port. Venice, Genoa, Savona are the ports that record the higher ratio of home-porting/total cruise passenger movements, with the average of the latter ratio standing at 0.347.

The impact of the increase of cruise vessels is also quite remarkable, implying changing operations and the need for a different type of port infrastructures and coordination with destination. Each cruise call in one of the 19 major ports for which such data are available results, on average, at the disembarkation/embarkation of 2.314 passengers. Ten years before, each call had resulted, on average, precisely 1.000 passengers less, i.e. 1.314 passengers/call (8.207 cruise calls; 10,785 m. passenger movements).

Table 3. 20 Major Ports in the Med (passenger movements; 2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Port</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Home-Porting passengers (1)</th>
<th>Cruise pax movements (2)</th>
<th>(1) / (2)</th>
<th>Cruise Calls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barcelona</td>
<td>West Med</td>
<td>1.222.487</td>
<td>2.364.292</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civitavecchia</td>
<td>West Med</td>
<td>730.938</td>
<td>2.140.039</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venice</td>
<td>Adriatic</td>
<td>1.509.097</td>
<td>1.733.839</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balearic Islands</td>
<td>West Med</td>
<td>606.549</td>
<td>1.587.064</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>678</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marseille</td>
<td>West Med</td>
<td>506.412</td>
<td>1.311.284</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naples</td>
<td>West Med</td>
<td>99.423</td>
<td>1.113.762</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piraeus</td>
<td>East Med</td>
<td>256.196</td>
<td>1.055.556</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>606</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Savona | West Med | 668.473 | 1.018.794 | 0,66 | 279
Dubrovnik | Adriatic | 24.790 | 844.410 | 0,03 | 577
Tenerife Ports | West Med | n.a | 840.268 | n.a. | 513
Genoa | West Med | 571.463 | 824.109 | 0,69 | 209
Kusadasi/Bodrum/Antalya | East Med | 201.142 | 761.912 | 0,26 | 605
Corfu | Adriatic | 71.881 | 672.368 | 0,11 | 395
Livorno | West Med | 2.088 | 626.356 | 0,00 | 341
French Riviera Ports | West Med | 34.791 | 595.685 | 0,06 | 369
Istanbul | East Med | 148.297 | 589.353 | 0,25 | 331
Bari | Adriatic | 152.056 | 561.602 | 0,27 | 147
Valletta | West Med | 93.581 | 517.594 | 0,12 | 302
Lisbon | West Med | 41.465 | 500.872 | 0,08 | 319

| Total | 20.190.871 | 7.007.064 | 0,347 | 8.876 |

| % of Total | 79,0% | 94,0% | 66,4% |

The positioning of these ports in the BC matrix provides information as regards the changing structures of the cruise port hierarchy within the Med (Figure 7). Civitavecchia, Venice and Piraeus were the ‘Stars’ of the last decade, as they recorded above average annual growth while having above average market shares. Six more ports, Palermo, the operated by Global Ports Holding Kusadasi/Bodrum/Antalya, Marseille, Istanbul, Genoa and Corfu are positioning at the “wild cats” quadrant of the matrix, which refers to above average growth rates. As regards the other 11 ports that recorded the last decade below average annual growth, Barcelona, Balearic Islands and Naples are the three ones that stand at the ‘Cash cows’ quadrant given the substantial, above average market shares they maintain.

The six ports that had an above average market share in the 2005 continue to do so in 2014. However, the comparison of the respective BC matrixes with reference to the first and the second half of the last decade illustrate the changing hierarchies (Figure 8 and Figure 9). Barcelona was at the ‘Stars’ quadrant during the first half of the period, but slower growth during the second half lead to the ‘Cash Cows’ one. Piraeus owes much of its ‘Star’ positioning to
the remarkable growth of 2005-9, when it recorded the best growth of all major ports; on the other hand, Piraeus and Naples record a stagnated cruise traffic when the focus is on the 2010-14 period. Balearic islands owe their success to the 2010-14 period when they stand among the ‘Stars’ – as did Civitavecchia and Venice in both sub periods under examination.

**Figure 7: BC matrix of 20 major cruise ports (2005-2014)**

![Figure 7: BC matrix of 20 major cruise ports (2005-2014)](image_url)

**Figure 8: BC matrix of 20 major cruise ports (2005-2009)**

![Figure 8: BC matrix of 20 major cruise ports (2005-2009)](image_url)
Looking at the 14 major ports that follow in terms of market shares, the comparison reveals additional features of the on-going chancing hierarchy. Marseille, Tenerife ports, Savona, Corfu, Lisbon and Valletta are the six cruise ports demonstrated above average growth during the most recent years (2010-14), whereas in the first part of the decade they had all recorded below average growth. As a result, Corfu has already moved to the ‘Wild Cats’ quadrant when the overall decade is considered. Istanbul, Bari, and Livorno had recorded an above average growth in the first half of the decade performed worse than the average in the second half of it. As a result, at the matrix referring to the performance of the decade only Istanbul retains the “Wild Cats’ status that all these three ports had gained in the 2005-9 matrix.

The comparison of the two different periods of the decade produces an additional finding. All 20 major ports recorded a growth in the first part of the decade; the average growth was at just over 15%, with the port growing at the slowest pace being Tenerife ports that grew by 5.1%. In the second half of the decade, four ports, Naples, Piraeus, Livorno, and French Riviera ports saw the number of passengers declining, whereas the average growth of the major ports over this five-years period standing at less than 5%.

Figure 9: BC matrix of 20 major cruise ports (2010-2014)
5. Market Concentration

The application of the Hirschman-Herfindahl index (HHI) and the Gini coefficient enable to analyse the concentration patterns of the cruise port system in the Med and its adjoining seas, a port system marked by the presence of a certain number of providers.

Given the number of firms in a market and their respective market shares, HHI measures the size of firms, in relation to an industry and the amount of competition among them. In the case of Med cruise ports this index consists of the sum of squared market shares of the 50 largest ports (or summed over all the ports of the sample if there are fewer than 50). The result is proportional to the average market share, weighted by market share. As such, it can range from 0 to 1, moving from a huge number of very small firms to a single monopolistic provider of services. Increases in the HHI generally indicate a decrease in competition and an increase of market power. A HHI index below 0,01 indicates a highly competitive index, below 0,15 indicates an unconcentrated index, between 0,15 to 0,25 indicates moderate concentration, whereas above 0,25 indicates high concentration.

The index with reference to the aggregate market as well as the regional ones is detailed in Table 4. When the total of the ports in Mediterranean and its adjoining seas are under examination, HHI suggests that neither the market is concentrated (HHI=0,043) nor the level of concentration has changed the last decade.
Focusing on the extent of market concentration in each of the multi-port regions, this is not always the case. The West Med region is unconcentrated (HHI=0.066) but the picture is different in the other regions. The Adriatic is a moderately concentrated market (HHI=0.223), with this concentration declining the last five years. The East Med is another moderately concentrated market (HHI=0.241), with this concentration sustaining over time. The Black Sea on the other hand has been a highly concentrated market (HHI=0.264), with the levels of concentration declining overtime, and the region heading to a moderately concentrated market status.

Another method to assess port concentration consists in applying the Gini coefficient, a widely used index that measures percent departure from a perfectly uniform distribution. If all ports in a port system are equal of size, the Gini coefficient will equal zero. In case one port accounts for the total volume of passenger movements (full concentration) the Gini coefficient equals to 1. Applied to the examination of port markets concentration for just more than a quarter of a century (Hayuth, 1988; Kuby and Reid, 1992; Notteboom 1997; Notteboom 2006; Parola and Veenstra, 2007) the Gini coefficient is calculated as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>HHI Index</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>West Med</strong></td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Adriatic</strong></td>
<td>0.264</td>
<td>0.261</td>
<td>0.242</td>
<td>0.240</td>
<td>0.253</td>
<td>0.246</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>0.216</td>
<td>0.223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>East Med</strong></td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>0.214</td>
<td>0.215</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td>0.234</td>
<td>0.238</td>
<td>0.244</td>
<td>0.243</td>
<td>0.235</td>
<td>0.241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Black Sea</strong></td>
<td>0.646</td>
<td>0.590</td>
<td>0.552</td>
<td>0.305</td>
<td>0.255</td>
<td>0.338</td>
<td>0.396</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>0.341</td>
<td>0.264</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Herfindahl-Hirschman Index per region; Cruise Passenger Movements (2005-14)
where $G_j$ is the Gini coefficient for the cruise port system (or port region) $j$, $X_i$ is the cumulative percentage of the number of ports up to the $i$th cruise port, $Y_i$ is the cumulative percentage of the market shares of all ports up to the $i$th cruise port and $n$ is the number of ports in the port system (or port region) $j$.

Table 5 represents the concentration results for the Med cruise port system. The value of the Gini coefficient for all ports indicate an unevenly distributed system, which nonetheless has remained rather at the same level of concentration with minor fluctuations; a very modest trend towards a less evenly distributed system indicated in the last years. Table 5 also reveals that concentration in the case of the 20 major cruise ports is lower than that of the total of the Med, yet it remains stable over time.

**Table 5: Gini Coefficient**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All ports</td>
<td>0,640</td>
<td>0,645</td>
<td>0,644</td>
<td>0,650</td>
<td>0,652</td>
<td>0,648</td>
<td>0,653</td>
<td>0,646</td>
<td>0,654</td>
<td>0,661</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 major ports</td>
<td>0,251</td>
<td>0,245</td>
<td>0,253</td>
<td>0,239</td>
<td>0,250</td>
<td>0,273</td>
<td>0,276</td>
<td>0,263</td>
<td>0,285</td>
<td>0,277</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In graphical terms, the Gini coefficient is equal to the ratio of the area between the Lorenz curve and a diagonal line, relative to the maximum possible area (the entire right triangle formed by the bottom and right axes and a diagonal linking the top right corner to the bottom left corner). If all the ports in a port system are equal of size, the Gini coefficient will equal zero and the Lorenz curve would coincide with the diagonal of equal distribution. In case one port accounts for the total volume of containers (full concentration), the Gini coefficient equals unity, which coincides with the whole area under the diagonal of equal distribution.
6. Conclusions

The study provided evidence of the patterns, structures, and geography of the growth of the cruise port industry in the Mediterranean and its adjoining seas since 2005. Analysing passenger movements in 69 cruise ports it revealed that the most dynamic picture of the first half of the decade has given place to a slower pace of growth and volatility of cruise activities. In certain
ports this has been translated to stagnation of cruise passengers numbers. One needs to recall that the second half of the decade was a period that the global economy experienced the 2008 financial crisis, and the African Med faced turbulent political conditions, and the European Med difficult economic and social conditions. The next decade, or so, will be the period to determine whether this is a temporary phenomenon, that one should normally expect to emerge following an unprecedented and sustainable growth in the last fifteen years, or this is the indication of a maturing phase of cruise activities where moderate levels of growth will take place. With the Med have been the most dynamic cruise region of all, the coming year(s) will also reveal whether this slowing growth is a trend with reference to the specific region alone, or to the global cruise industry. At the same time the analysis confirmed that the region has seen the expansion of the numbers and ports involved in the hosting of cruise passenger traffic.

The study also demonstrated that the transformation of the region under examination from a cluster of port destinations hosting a certain thousands of cruise passengers to a multi-port cruise region accommodating several millions of passenger movements, is associated with a dynamic cruise port hierarchy that is underway. The trends in the major 20 cruise ports in the Med suggest that these ports maintain substantial shares of the total cruise traffic and even bigger ones in the case of the total home-porting activities, however, the growth rates of different ports have been quite diverge. During the second half of the decade, the growth has been less remarkable than in the first half of it.

The examination of the intra-region dynamics revealed some unexplored imbalances between the four ‘multi-port’ cruise regions of the Med (West Med, East Med, Adriatic, Black Sea). Contrasting the commonly endorsed concept that this should be seen as a ‘single cruise region’ that stands as the second major cruise region, the examination of the dynamics of (and within) each region is worthy.
Finally, the study provided an analysis of the levels of market concentration based on Gini coefficient and the HHI, concluding that in most cases, and in almost all regions, the cruise port market is not concentrated at all. Even in those cases that moderate levels of concentration appear, this is declining or at least not increasing.

With this analysis focusing on cruise passenger movements and only occasionally including additional dimensions - the most profound being the cruise vessel - the expansion of the analysis to include intelligence on cruise calls would further our knowledge on the precise nature of cruise activities evolution in the Med and its adjoining seas. Similar would be the benefits of studies that would examine the linkage of cruise growth with additional parameters, such as the cruise port governance practices endorsed, the marketing practices followed, the operational (i.e. berthing allocation; security, etc..) and the other practices (i.e. collaboration with local authorities, destinations, strategic partnerships with other ports etc.) applied.

The findings, and the enduring growth of cruise around the globe (the number of passengers taking a cruise per year increased every year the last two decades) call for similar analyses, and not least comparisons, with other cruise regions around the globe. With Asia appearing in the strategies of cruise lines as a deployment region and a source market, and the Med experiencing volatile trends, additional studies would reveal (dis)milarities in the process of globalization that the cruise industry experiences, whereas they will also be practically helpful for those involved in the making or the development, governance, marketing, and operating cruise ports.

Acknowledgements

The study has benefited by the database of cruise passenger movements and cruise calls recorded by cruise ports and are collected by MedCruise, the association representing cruise ports in the Med and its adjoining seas.
Appendix I. Cruise Ports in the Med and its adjoining seas included in the analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>West Med</th>
<th>Alicante</th>
<th>Balearic Islands</th>
<th>Barcelona</th>
<th>Cagliari</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cartagena</td>
<td>Castellón</td>
<td>Ceuta</td>
<td></td>
<td>Civitavecchia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French Riviera Ports</td>
<td>Genoa</td>
<td>Gibraltar</td>
<td></td>
<td>Gioia Tauro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huelva</td>
<td>La Spezia</td>
<td>Lisbon</td>
<td></td>
<td>Livorno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madeira Ports</td>
<td>Málaga</td>
<td>Marseille</td>
<td></td>
<td>Messina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monaco</td>
<td>Motril-Granada</td>
<td>Naples</td>
<td></td>
<td>North Sardinian Ports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palamós</td>
<td>Palermo</td>
<td>Portimao</td>
<td></td>
<td>Portoferraio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savona</td>
<td>Sète</td>
<td>Tarragona</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tenerife Ports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toulon-Var Provence</td>
<td>Tunisian Ports</td>
<td>Valencia</td>
<td></td>
<td>Valletta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adriatic</td>
<td>Bari</td>
<td>Brindisi</td>
<td>Corfu</td>
<td>Dubrovnik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koper</td>
<td>Kotor</td>
<td>Ravenna</td>
<td></td>
<td>Rijeka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sibenik</td>
<td>Split</td>
<td>Taranto</td>
<td></td>
<td>Trieste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venice</td>
<td>Zadar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Med</td>
<td>Alanya</td>
<td>Cyprus Ports</td>
<td>Heraklion</td>
<td>Igoumenitsa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Istanbul</td>
<td>Kavala</td>
<td>Kusadasi/Bodrum/Antalya</td>
<td>Mersin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patras</td>
<td>Piraeus</td>
<td>Souda/Chania</td>
<td></td>
<td>Thessaloniki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volos</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Sea</td>
<td>Batumi</td>
<td>Constantza</td>
<td>Odessa</td>
<td>Sinop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sochi</td>
<td>Trabzon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

REFERENCES


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**Kleopatra P. Arapi** (k.arapi@aegean.gr) is a PhD Candidate at the Department of Shipping, Trade and Transport, University of the Aegean, Greece (2, Korai St. Chios 82100) examining the evolution of cruise activities in the Mediterranean.
The purpose of this paper is to identify the main demand and supply determinants of international tourism flows to Greece, given the significant impact of tourism on the country’s economy. For the empirical analysis the authors estimated an original gravity equation in which tourism flows depend on classic as well as experimental factors. The used dataset includes tourist arrivals from 19 countries over the period 2005-2015. The resulting coefficient of determination of this model is relatively high and the considered variables are statistically significant. Tourism flows to Greece are negatively affected by the bilateral distance and climate similarity between Greece and the origin countries; furthermore, the response variable is positively affected by the investments in the transport infrastructure, the country’s stability, the incomes and the EU membership of the origin countries. The proposed recommendations to the Greek stakeholders include: creation of qualitative infrastructure; synergies with other sectors; boost of competitiveness; establishment of Greece as a safe destination; and, promotional campaigns.

Keywords: Greece, tourism, gravity model, financial crisis, economic growth
INTRODUCTION

An ever-increasing number of destinations worldwide have opened up and invested in tourism, turning it into a key driver of socio-economic progress through the creation of jobs and enterprises, export revenues, and infrastructure development (UNWTO Tourism Highlights, 2016).

International tourist arrivals grew by 4.4% in 2015, up to a total of 1,184 million (UNWTO Annual Report, 2015). The world has seen a 25% increase (or about 230 million) in international tourists between 2010 -2015. Europe remains the continent with the largest number of visitors, receiving 609 million in 2015, about 5% more than in 2014. Asia and the Pacific as well as the Americas hosted the second and the third largest number of international tourists in 2015, with 278 and 191 million, respectively.

Greece was ranked 31st out of 141 world economies in the 2015 Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI) Ranking (the TTCI, estimated by the World Economic Forum, comprises four sub-indexes, 14 pillars, and 90 individual indicators, distributed among the different pillars: Enabling Environment; Travel & Tourism Policy and Enabling Conditions; Infrastructure; Natural and Cultural Resources). Nevertheless, the country occupied the 81st position in the 2015-2016 rankings of the Global Competitiveness Index (the Global Competitiveness Index is estimated by the World Economic Forum and evaluates the competitiveness landscape of 140 countries).

Greece has a long tradition in tourism and hospitality mainly due to its history and ancient civilization (Buhalis, 2001; Sdrali and Chazapi, 2007), as well as to the unique Greek gastronomy (Kivela and Crotts, 2006; Tsiara, 2014). In 2014, Greece was the 15th most visited country in the world by international tourist arrivals (The World Bank, 2016).
Aiming to emphasize the importance of tourism we quote below some key tourism facts and determinants for both the international and the Greek tourism industry.

**Key facts: global tourism**

The travel and tourism sector will perform better than the overall economy in 2016 and will achieve positive growth for the sixth consecutive year (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2016). A steady progress of tourism contributes to poverty alleviation and affects positively international trade flows, economic growth and infrastructure development.

The travel and tourism sector affects directly and indirectly the gross domestic product (GDP) and plays a crucial role in generating employment worldwide. The Oxford Economics global industry model confirms the positive trend, estimating an annual average growth of about 3.9% over the next ten years for the Travel and Tourism direct industry GDP, while the respective estimation for the total global economy is 2.9%. The corresponding contribution to global GDP in 2015 was 9.8%, while the number of jobs created by the sector increased by more than 7 million.

**Key facts: Greek tourism**

The GDP growth in Greece (Figure 1) was positive in 2014, after 6 years of negative trend, mainly as a result of the global financial and economic crisis that started in 2007 - 2008. The GDP in 2015 returned to negative growth again, decreasing at an annual rate of about 0.2%.
During the period 2005 - 2014, the total contribution of tourism to the Greek GDP ranged from approximately 15% to 20%. In 2015, the direct contribution of Travel and Tourism sector to Greek GDP was 17,242.8 billion euros or 9.8% of total GDP, while the total contribution to GDP for the same year was 37,934 billion euros (multiplier: 2.2) or 21.6% (Hellenic Statistical Authority – ELSTAT; Bank of Greece; Maroulis & Ikkos, 2016).

As for the total contribution of the Greek tourism to employment, it was 14.9% in 2010 and reached 17.9% in 2014. In 2015 travel and tourism contributed directly to 325,600 jobs, which corresponded to 9.0% of the total employment, while the indirect (total) contribution was 18.9% or 682,800 jobs (Hellenic Statistical Authority – ELSTAT; Maroulis & Ikkos, 2016).

In 2015, the country occupied the 23rd position in the world as regards the visitor exports, generating 16.5 billion dollars (World
Travel and Tourism Council, 2016). In the same year, the total number of international tourists to Greece (Figure 2) was more than 23 million, about 5.7% higher than in 2014 (SETE - Greek Tourism Confederation, 2016). This was the third consecutive year with a positive growth since 2012, when the number of arrivals had declined by 5.5% (The World Bank, 2016).

**Figure 2.** Number of international tourist arrivals (in millions) to Greece 2005-2015

![Number of arrivals](image)

*Source: Authors’ elaboration with data from the World Bank & SETE*

Over the past ten years, the top tourism markets for Greece have been Germany, the United Kingdom, France, Italy and the Netherlands. In 2015, some of the largest tourist groups (Figure 3) originated from FYROM, Germany and the United Kingdom with 12.8%, 11.9% and 10.2% of all non-resident arrivals, respectively. The vast majority of foreign visitors to Greece are European citizens, constituting 87.8% of the total non-resident arrivals in 2016.
2015, while the corresponding shares of visitors from Asia and the Americas were 6.4% and 4.6%, respectively.

**Figure 3.** Arrivals of international tourists to Greece in 2015 by nationality (percentual share)

![Bar chart showing arrivals of international tourists to Greece in 2015 by nationality.](source)

*Source: Authors’ elaboration with data from ELSTAT*

The above key tourism facts show the significant impact of the tourism industry on the Greek economy. Therefore, it is considered interesting and beneficial to identify the demand and supply determinants of international tourism flows and introduce them to the competent bodies.

The purpose of this paper is three-fold:

1. To highlight the significance of tourism in the Greek economy, particularly during the economic recession.
2. To identify the main demand and supply determinants of international tourism flows to Greece.
3. To utilise the research findings in order to illustrate how the Greek stakeholders could improve the tourism industry and the economy as a whole.

The publications aimed at investigating the determinants affecting the tourism flows to Greece are very few and, thus, the authors conducted this study and estimated an original gravity model consisting of classic and experimental demand and supply factors. The model was estimated through plm, a package of R software for panel data estimators.

The text is structured as follows: the Introduction highlights the importance of tourism in the global and Greek economy. The Literature Review introduces the background of the gravity theory, as well as previous empirical studies on tourism determinants. The Methodology part analyses the followed steps for the model estimation and contains: the model variables; the origin countries included in the dataset and data sources; basic descriptive statistics for the international tourism flows between Greece and the selected sample of origin countries, as well as the corresponding independent variables; results of the estimated gravity model. The Findings and Discussion section summarizes the research findings in both the demand side (selected origin countries) and supply side (Greece) and includes the proposed solutions for the Greek stakeholders towards improving the tourism industry, and through this the country’s total economy. Finally, the Conclusion part includes concluding remarks and outlines in a figure the paper’s purpose, methodology, principal results and recommendations. The used References are quoted at the end of the paper.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

The literature consists of two parts, which are the background of the gravity theory and various empirical studies on gravity theory in the field of tourism.
The gravity theory

The dependent variable in a gravity model, a flow of individuals or assets, is based on variables related to the origin, as well as to the destination and other variables associated with the distance between countries. Empirical estimations of gravity models are usually characterized by high coefficients of determination, an indicator of a high explanatory power.

The first authors who applied the gravity theory were Tinbergen (1962) and Pöyhönen (1963), affirming that trade flows between two countries are positively affected by the economic sizes and negatively affected by the corresponding distance. The first theoretical foundations of the gravity model were set by Anderson (1979) and were dependent on a constant elasticity of substitution (CES) expenditure function.

Bergstrand (1985) also assumed a CES function to define a gravity equation for trade flows which included price variables. Empirical results confirmed the impact of exchange rates and prices on bilateral trade flows. Furthermore, according to the model estimation, goods are differentiated by place of origin and the law of one price is violated.

Bergstrand (1989) developed a general equilibrium model of trade, incorporating the monopolistic competition approach of Helpman (1987). The author assumed economies of scale and considered two differentiated products and two factors.

According to Krugman (1979 and 1980), international trade is not necessarily stimulated by differences in factor endowments and technology advancement. Trade is closely related with the expansion of markets and with the utilization of economies of scale, which contribute to decreasing production costs.

Deardorff (1998) explained gravity equations through the Heckscher-Ohlin model of trade equilibrium, which is based on the theory of comparative advantage, formulated by Ricardo in 1815.
Head and Mayer (2014) focused on the appropriate methods of gravity models estimation and emphasized the lack of theoretical knowledge in underlying determinants of trade costs.

According to Newton’s law of universal gravitation, the gravitational force between two objects (object 1 and object 2) is directly proportional to the masses product and inversely proportional to the square of the corresponding distance:

\[ F_g = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2} \]

where \( F_g \) is the gravitational force between the objects, \( G \) is the gravitational constant; \( m_1 \) is the mass of object 1 and \( m_2 \) is the mass of object 2; \( r \) is the distance between the objects. We adapt the above expression for international tourism and consider the logarithmic transformation:

\[
\ln(\text{TOU}_o) = c + a_i + b \ln(X_i^T) + e_{ij}
\]

in which \( \text{TOU}_o \) is the tourism flow from a specific origin \( o \) to Greece; \( X_i^T \) contains the explanatory variables of the dependent variable; \( a_i \) represents the unobservable individual effects; \( c \) is a constant and \( e_{ij} \) is the individual error term, uncorrelated with the explanatory variables.

**Empirical studies on tourism flows**

The gravity theory has been applied in a large number of empirical works on international trade, migration, foreign direct investments and tourism. The major part of these studies are concentrated on the investigation of trade flow determinants, whereas the gravity model of tourism has been estimated in a relatively small number of works.
Crouch (1994) analyzed a significant number of quantitative works related to international tourism demand, concluding that there is a large number of explanatory variables to take into consideration, depending on the origin and destination countries, the selected data frequency and sample, etc.

Khadaroo and Seetanah (2008) employed a gravity model approach, in which they emphasized the role of transport infrastructure and some other basic independent variables in international tourism flows for a considerable number of African countries.

Fourie and Santana-Gallego (2010) estimated a standard gravity model between 200 countries in order to evaluate the impact of the so-called ‘mega-sporting events’ on international tourism flows. They found out that there is a positive effect on the number of tourists, despite the high level of government expenditures occurred.

Eryigit, Kotil and Eryigit (2010) used a gravity-based eight-factor model which was found to have good explanatory power. From the examined factors (Gross Domestic Product - GDP per capita, tourism climate index, Tourism Price Index-TPI, population and the distance variables, as well as the earthquake of 1999 and the September 11 attacks as dummies), the negative distance effect and the tourism climate index were found to be the most important indicators of the tourism flows. An unexpected finding, however, was the relative insignificance of the Iraq War (2003) dummy.

Kassean and Gassita (2013) analyzed the main push and pull factors that influence the choice of a particular tourist destination. According to the empirical results, relaxation and rest are the most important push factors, while pull motivations include climate, beaches, flora and fauna, hospitality and culture.

Marrocu and Paci (2013) investigated the determinants of tourism for a number of Italian provinces through the estimation of spatial autoregressive models and gravity equations, stressing the presence of high degree of spatial interconnectivity in tourism flows.
Chasapopoulos, den Butter and Mihaylov (2014) estimated a gravity model for tourism flows from 31 countries to Greece, and concluded that distance and bilateral trade are the principal explanatory variables. Political stability and prices in competing destinations also showed a statistically significant relationship with the number of international tourists visiting Greece.

METHODOLOGY

The gravity model estimated in this section consists of classic and experimental demand and supply factors, which affect international tourism flows to Greece. The model was estimated through plm, a package of R software for panel data estimators. Song and Li (2008) analyzed a relevant number of past empirical applications and concluded that the annual number of foreign visitors was the most used estimator of international tourism demand.

Model variables

We use the GDP per capita as an income estimator, while the bilateral distance between Greece and the origin countries approximates tourism costs. We consider different supply factors such as the transport infrastructure investment and maintenance spending, and the world development indicator of political stability and absence of violence or terrorism. We also include two dummy variables related to the European Union membership of the origin countries and to the respective climate similarity with the destination. We take into consideration the augmented gravity model:
The variables definition and the expected effects for the considered explanatory variables are summarized in the Table 1.

Table 1. Variables definition & explanatory variables’ expected sign

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Expected sign</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tou _ ot</td>
<td>Natural logarithm of tourism flow from origin o to Greece at year t.</td>
<td>Dependent variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gdpcap _ ot</td>
<td>Natural logarithm of GDP per capita in origin o at year t.</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tiims _ t</td>
<td>Natural logarithm of transport infrastructure investment &amp; maintenance spending in Greece at year t.</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>psavt _ t</td>
<td>World development indicator of political stability &amp; absence of violence/terrorism for Greece at year t.</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dist _ o</td>
<td>Natural logarithm of the distance between origin o &amp; Greece.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EURO _ ot</td>
<td>A dummy variable that has a value of one if the respective origin country is a European Union member &amp; equals zero otherwise.</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLIMA _ o</td>
<td>A dummy variable that has a value of one if Greece &amp; the respective origin country have a similar climate &amp; equals zero otherwise.</td>
<td>+ or -</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Origin countries and data sources

Our dataset includes tourist arrivals from 19 countries and the corresponding determinants from 2005 to 2015. The considered origin countries (Table 2) constitute almost 60% of all international visitors to Greece for the selected time period. SETE - Greek Tourism Confederation and the Bank of Greece were our sources of international tourists.

World development indicators of political stability and absence of violence/terrorism, GDPs and the respective population data were sourced from the World Bank. Bilateral distances between Greece and the origin countries were obtained from the CEPII GeoDist database (Mayer and Zignago, 2011). Transport infrastructure investments and maintenance spending data were collected from the
Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). The dummy variable of climate similarity is based on the Köppen–Geiger climate classification system.

**Table 2.** Origin countries included in the dataset

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Origin Country</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Origin Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Romania</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Descriptive statistics**

The Table 3 shows basic descriptive statistics for the international tourism flows between Greece and the selected sample of origin countries, and the corresponding independent variables.
Table 3. Basic descriptive statistics for tourism flows & the corresponding determinants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>tou.ot</th>
<th>gdpcap.ot</th>
<th>tiims_t</th>
<th>psavt_t</th>
<th>dist_o</th>
<th>EURO</th>
<th>CLIMA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MIN</td>
<td>92000</td>
<td>2709,1</td>
<td>1626406705</td>
<td>-0,224</td>
<td>500,124</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAX</td>
<td>2877000</td>
<td>88002,6</td>
<td>4096962899</td>
<td>0,638</td>
<td>15337,680</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>628964,7</td>
<td>38667,0</td>
<td>2676792345,2</td>
<td>0,124</td>
<td>3102,457</td>
<td>0,675</td>
<td>0,263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>364700</td>
<td>41732,7</td>
<td>2521558080</td>
<td>0,024</td>
<td>2098,726</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std.Deviation</td>
<td>648111,4</td>
<td>18331,9</td>
<td>773168434,2</td>
<td>0,312</td>
<td>3521,874</td>
<td>0,470</td>
<td>0,441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymmetry</td>
<td>1,952</td>
<td>-0,178</td>
<td>0,431</td>
<td>0,401</td>
<td>2,444</td>
<td>-0,751</td>
<td>1,083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>2,939</td>
<td>-0,109</td>
<td>-1,036</td>
<td>-1,412</td>
<td>5,350</td>
<td>-1,450</td>
<td>-0,834</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Variables are considered in their original form. GDPs per capita and transport infrastructure investments and maintenance spending are expressed in US dollars. The distance is expressed in kilometres.

RESULTS OF THE ESTIMATED GRAVITY MODEL FOR TOURISM

Table 4 shows the results of the estimated model through Swamy-Arora random effects, the method that performed better. By applying this estimation technique, we assume that the specific effects of each origin country are uncorrelated with the explanatory variables. In a random effect estimation, the variability across countries is supposed to be irregular and we can consider variables that are constant over time such as the bilateral distance or the climate similarity dummy.

We observe that in all cases parameters are significative (significance level of 1%) and the respective sign effects are in line with the theory. The resulting adjusted R-squared value is also satisfactory: the model explains almost 57% of the variability of international tourism flows. These findings are comparable to previous similar empirical studies (Marrocu and Paci, 2013;

Table 4. Estimation results of the gravity model for tourism

```
> summary (ModRandom)
Oneway (individual) effect Random Effect Model
(Swamy-Arora's transformation)
Call:
plm (formula = tou ~ gdpcap_o + tiims + psavt + dist + EURO +
CLIMA, data = y, model = "random", index = c("code", "year")

Balanced Panel: n=19, T=11, N=209
Effects:

    var       std.dev    share
idiosyncratic 0.05129 0.22647  0.071
individual   0.66995 0.81850  0.929
theta:  0.9128

Residuals:
    Min.   1st Qu.    Median   3rd Qu.      Max.
-0.691000 -0.127000  0.000186  0.112000  0.845000

Coefficients:

     Estimate   Std. Error  t-value Pr(>|t|)  
(Intercept)  4.434473  1.456744  3.0441  0.0026779 **
gdpcap_o 0.981718  0.155441   6.3157  1.986e-09 ***
tiims  0.302438  0.095789   3.1573  0.0018610 **
psavt  0.215702  0.059851   3.6040  0.0004038 ***
dist  -0.832708  0.261385  -3.1858  0.0016976 **
EURO  0.260910  0.098828   2.6400  0.008998 **
CLIMA -0.193816  0.059672  -3.2480  0.001381 **

---
Signif. codes:  0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1

Total Sum of Squares:    11.127
Residual Sum of Squares: 4.6022
R-Squared:  0.58638
Adj. R-Squared:  0.56981
F-statistic: 12.9468 on 6 and 202 DF, p-value: 2.277e-12
```

Note: ‘Estimate’ is the estimated parameter value, ‘Std. Error’ is the standard error of the estimation, ‘t-value’ is the estimated t-test, ‘Pr(>|t|)’ is the observed p-value, ‘Adj. R-Squared’ is the adjusted R-Squared
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The significant decline in oil prices during the second half of 2014 was an important determinant of European and global economy. It stimulated the imports and the economic activity of oil importing countries, however it reduced the revenues of oil exporting countries. High levels of exchange rates volatility played also an important role in international trade, tourism and in economic growth variations.

The Greek economic growth turned negative in 2015, after the slight increase of 2014. The country is still suffering the consequences of the 2008-2013 economic and financial crisis, such as the political instability, and the high public debt and budget deficit. Other global factors have restrained the economic growth, including the armed conflicts in Syria, Iraq, Afghanistan, etc. These conflicts have created the refugee crisis, posing risks for the Greek economy.

On the other hand, recent years conflicts in competitor countries, such as Turkey and Egypt, have stimulated tourism flows to Greece. Tourism can be the driving force behind Greece’s economic recovery. Tourism brings in revenues and it also means more jobs. For these reasons, several measures aiming to restructure, improve and boost the Greek tourism, should be taken by the country’s policy makers. These measures include: investments in transportations and creation of quality infrastructure; development of proper synergies and interconnections with other sectors and branches of the economy; boost of competitiveness through tourism products that offer quality and value for money, such as city breaks, medical and nautical tourism, cultural and religious, and MICE (Kapiki, 2012; SETE - Greek Tourism Confederation, 2014).

Due to the frequent terrorist attacks in competitor countries of the Mediterranean Sea it is important for Greece to establish itself as a safe destination, since safety is of great concern for all tourists. This is expected to contribute significantly towards attracting more
tourists to Greece. Moreover, promotional campaigns effectively designed both for EU and several targeted distant countries (such as China, North America and Russia) could contribute to the long-term development of the Greek tourism industry.

This paper focuses on the empirical investigation of incoming international visitors to Greece from a set of 19 origin countries over the period 2005-2015. A particular gravity equation was estimated consisting of classic and experimental demand and supply factors, such as: GDP per capita in the origin countries; transport infrastructure investment and maintenance spending in Greece; political stability and absence of violence/terrorism in Greece; distance between the origin country and Greece; European Union membership of the origin country; and, climate similarity between the origin country and Greece.

According to the estimation results, international tourism flows to Greece are positively affected by the incomes and EU membership of the origin countries, the investments in transport infrastructure, the political stability and the security. On the contrary, the dependent variable is negatively affected by the distance between Greece and the origin countries, and by the corresponding climate similarity. A higher probability is observed and according to that an international visitor to Greece originates from a colder country, ceteris paribus.

Based on the above findings, we presume that the relaxation of political tension in the country, the effective implementation of reforms and the increase of investments in infrastructure would further develop the tourism sector. This will lead to higher economic growth, the decrease of the unemployment rate and the alleviation of social inequality in Greece.
CONCLUSION

The Greek economy has started stabilizing after the recession of the period 2008-2013. The GDP recovered by 0.7% in 2014 and decreased by 0.2% in 2015. Greece has a long tradition in tourism and hospitality and through proper measures tourism can be the driving force behind Greece’s economic recovery.

This paper was intended to identify the main demand and supply determinants of international tourism flows to Greece as well as to illustrate how the Greek stakeholders could improve the tourism industry and the economy as a whole. In order to achieve the study purpose, the authors applied the gravity theory and estimated an original gravity model consisting of classic and experimental demand and supply factors. The model was estimated through plm, a package of R software for panel data estimators.

The estimation of the equation is based on a dataset covering the following 19 countries (in alphabetical order): Albania; Australia; Austria; Belgium; Canada; Cyprus; Czech Republic; Denmark; France; Germany; Italy; Netherlands; Romania; Russia; Spain; Sweden; Switzerland; United Kingdom; United States. These countries constituted almost 60 per cent of the total tourism demand in Greece over the period 2005 - 2015.

The model variables include the dependent variable which is the annual tourist arrivals to Greece, as well as the following explanatory variables: GDP per capita in the origin countries; transport infrastructure investment and maintenance spending in Greece; political stability and absence of violence/terrorism in Greece; distance between the origin country and Greece. Two dummy variables, namely the European Union membership of the origin country and, the climate similarity between the origin country and Greece were included in the model.

The estimated model shows that international tourism flows to Greece are positively affected by the incomes and EU membership of the origin countries, the investments in transport infrastructure,
the political stability and the security. Contrariwise, the tourism demand for Greece is negatively affected by the distance and climate similarity between Greece and the countries of the sample. *Ceteris paribus*, a higher probability is observed that an international visitor to Greece originates from a colder country.

Based on the findings of this research paper, the following recommendations are proposed to the Greek stakeholders: investments in transportations and creation of quality infrastructure with emphasis on the regional airports, ports, roads outside the highways, and on cleanliness; development of proper synergies and interconnections between the tourism industry and other sectors/branches of the economy such as the food and agricultural market, education, etc.; boost of competitiveness through tourism products that offer quality and value for money, including city breaks, medical/nautical and cultural/religious tourism, and MICE; establishment of Greece as a safe destination; promotional campaigns effectively designed both for EU and targeted distant countries.

The aforementioned purpose, methodology, findings and recommendations of the paper are outlined in Figure 4.
Figure 4. The paper’s framework

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AN OVERVIEW OF RURAL TOURISM IN CROATIA AND SERBIA

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In the tourism development plans in Croatia and Serbia, rural tourism has a place of special importance. Taking into account the total population of rural areas, total surface area they occupy in these countries and the presence of diverse tourism potential (preserved nature and cultural heritage), rural tourism could become a powerful tool in achieving the goals of sustainable development of rural areas. Regardless of all social differences between Croatia and Serbia, it can be assumed that rural areas share common problems. They are exposed to depopulation, slow economic development and poorly developed infrastructure. There is a dilemma that raises the question of how much these two countries in their joint tourism development initiatives can contribute to resolving problems of rural areas, and in particular their border regions.

Keywords: Croatia, Serbia, rural tourism, sustainable development
INRODUCTION

The influence of tourism on destinations in rural setting has been the focus of attention for the past few decades. A lot of empirical research in the first years of this trend related to the economic effects of tourism on the population of rural areas. This was followed by research in the area of its influence on ecological components of space, with the emphasis on national parks and other forms of protected regions which are, above all, situated in these areas (Butler, 1998). Tourism which is organized according to economic, ecological and social principles of sustainable development, can improve significantly the economy, the society and the environment of rural areas.

Rural tourism is the factor of numerous changes in the rural areas which are prone to changes, firstly because this form of tourism comprises a series of activities, services and additional content realized in rural regions – agritourism, recreation, education, cultural and other events (Stojanović, 2011). The changes are happening under the influence of other activities. In the western countries, the growth of agribusiness and the decline in traditional family farming has caused unexpected changes in the character and functioning of rural farms and rural areas. The effects can be observed in the changes of numerous resources. These changes can be characterized as: endogenous (e.g. multicultural policy, depopulation, migration of population with higher education; increase in average age of the population; increased free time and changes in family structure) and exogenous (e.g. changes related to the business of transnational corporations and globalization). Rural restructuring is certainly intertwined with numerous external factors (Roberts and Hall, 2001). Some external factors are concerned with the influence of law, legislations, strategies which, as a rule, come from larger city centers, and in the case of smaller countries, such as Croatia and Serbia, from their capital cities where the government
prescribes the paths and directions of social development. It is very important that tourism has an adequate treatment in the development plans and strategies, since through their implementation desired objectives can be achieved.

RESEARCH RESULTS

RURAL AREAS, VILLAGES AND THEIR POSITION IN THE TOURISM PLANS AND STRATEGIES OF CROATIA AND SERBIA

Rural area in the Republic of Croatia covers 91.6% of its total surface and it is determined by its territorial division according to which smaller administrative units, municipalities, are considered as rural areas, and cities as urban areas. Based on such administrative criteria, out of the total population of 4,437,460 in Croatia, 44.4% is considered to be rural population, and 55.6% urban (Rural Development Strategy of the Republic of Croatia for the period 2008-2013, 2008). Croatian rural space is characterized by large biological and social diversity representing a huge potential for rural tourism development. In rural tourism development, Croatia has a series of inherited, historically bound issues. For example, very small (2.8 ha on average) and segmented (land units of 5 ha on average) family farms, old households without entrepreneurial experience, and poorly developed communal and social infrastructure) (Demonja et al., 2009: 3).

In the rural space of Croatia we can recognize: basic activities of rural tourism, special forms and diverse forms of entrepreneurial activities (Regulations on the provision of catering services in rural households, Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia 5/08; Act on the provision of service in tourism, Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia 68/07). Basic activities in rural tourism in Croatia are catering activities (food preparation and catering services, beverage
preparation and service, provision of accommodation service, food preparation and catering for external consumption) and tourism activities (provision of services in tourism). Special forms of rural tourism can be classified as: tourism in rural households, hunting, fishing, holiday, sports and recreational, health, cultural, gastronomic, eno-gastronomic, ecological, adventurous, religious, nostalgia, tourism in preserved areas and other forms of rural tourism (Demonja and Ružić, 2010: 50-59).

The development of rural tourism in the Republic of Croatia began sporadically in the early 1990s, and systematically in 1995 when the Ministry of Tourism of the Republic of Croatia started the initiative and preparation for its development. At the time, it was primarily boiled down to the development of tourist rural households, i.e. to the search for adequate agricultural households and the animation of their owners to restore them for the provision of tourism and catering services, and creating conditions for their development (Demonja and Ružić, 2010: 47-48). In the following years, a variety of prerequisites were met, such as normative, organizational, educational, developmental, financial, promotional, and others, for the more comprehensive and quality-oriented development of rural tourism (Demonja and Ružić, 2010: 88-138).

The Republic of Croatia, for now, has developed Tourism Development Strategy of the Republic of Croatia up to 2020, but it does not have rural tourism development strategy. Based on the mentioned Strategy, rural tourism is referred to as a product with a prominent strategy for development, with a comment and conclusion that rural tourism, including mountain areas, participates in total international travel with a share of about 3%, with the annual growth of about 6% (Tourism Development Strategy of the Republic of Croatia up to 2020, 2013: 9). Furthermore, it should be mentioned that Croatia had the Rural Development Strategy of the Republic of Croatia for the period 2008-2013 which directed rural development towards: 1. the increase of competitiveness in agriculture and forestry, 2. improving the state of the environment

Rural areas in the Republic of Serbia cover up to almost 90% of its total territory and are inhabited by around 43% of total population (Košić, 2012). Based on the preliminary census results for agriculture in 2012, there were 631,122 agricultural households in Serbia. The prevalent types are family agricultural households, which make up to 99.6% of the total number of registered households. Prevalent households are up to 2 ha in size. As such, they cannot be competitive in the market of agricultural food products, but within this scope they can develop additional, non-agricultural activities such as rural tourism (Radović and Pejanović, 2013).

Rural development in Serbia was defined by the Government of the Republic of Serbia as an economic, social and ecological priority. Diversification of the rural economy, in a socially, economically and ecologically sustainable way, is necessary for meeting the objectives of improving the quality of life, decreasing poverty level, and also fighting against social and ecological degradation. These objectives have been focused primarily on eradicating extreme poverty, sustainability of environmental preservation and developing global partnerships for development.

Rural tourism in Serbia has been developing since 1970s (Petrović, 2014). However, it has not been supported by adequate stimulative measures, nor it has been adequately valued, despite available resources and constantly increasing demand (Košić, 2012). The following problems in the development are still present: insufficient level of education in this type of tourism, poor relationship between households and tourism organizations, and
insufficient and inadequate tourist infrastructure (Todorović and Bjeljac, 2009).

In the National Sustainable Development Strategy of Serbia, rural tourism has been given a priority. Rural tourism is seen as a sector with a potential and this is reflected in the fact that there is a vertical institutional structure for its development. Special importance of rural tourism is reflected in the contribution of the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Management of the Republic of Serbia which, within its jurisdiction for rural development, has a support programme for expanding rural economy through the affirmation of agritourism and rural tourism at rural agricultural households. This support is especially important for rural areas where agriculture, due to its natural and other limitations, cannot be the carrier of rural development. Meeting objectives and implementing planned activities represent incentives for the development outside big cities, better spatial distribution of population and improving overall social conditions (National Sustainable Development Strategy of Serbia, 2008).

Tourism Development Strategy of the Republic of Serbia (2005) defines rural tourism as one of the priorities in the future development of tourism. The initial analysis gives an insight into basic problems of its development. The current level of competitiveness of Serbia in the field of rural tourism is not particularly favorable (average grade 1.5 out of the maximum value 5), regardless of the fact that there are all natural, cultural and social prerequisites for its development, including: natural resources, significant agricultural land, a significant number of agriculturally active inhabitants, traditional approach to agriculture, good potential for agritourism, uncontaminated soil and possibilities for organic food production, good potentials for the development of complementary activities (e.g. traditional local gastronomic specialties).
RURAL TOURISM IN APPLICABLE LAWS AND REGULATIONS OF CROATIA AND SERBIA

The development of rural tourism in Croatia has been regulated by applicable laws and regulations. In view of the fact that rural tourism is conducted in rural households, laws which regulate tourism and catering activities in rural households are of special importance:

- Act on the provision of services in tourism (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia 68/07 and 88/10), and
- Act on catering activity (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia 138/06, Amendments Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia 80/13),

as well as implementing regulations:

- Regulation on the provision of catering services in rural households (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia 5/08, 44/11 and Amendments (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia 118/11),
- Regulation on the classification and categorization of facilities providing catering services in rural households (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia 88/07, 58/08, 45/09),
- Regulation on the register of catering facilities and the provision of catering services in households and rural households (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia 5/08),
- Regulation on the form, content and the manner of keeping a guest register book and a guest list (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia 5/08),
- Regulation on keeping a list of tourists, including the form and content of the tourist registration form for the tourist board (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia 113/09), and
Regulation on the lump-sum payment of tourist tax for the people offering accommodation services in the households or rural households (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia 92/09).

There are still numerous problems related to implementing legislations and unharmonized regulations, because a large number of ministries are directly or indirectly responsible for rural tourism. In the following period, in the field of legislations referring to Croatian rural tourism, the efforts should be focused on dealing with familiar problems and improving the existing legislation and implementing regulations. As far as possible, legislation should be designed to be more functional, practical and easily implemented.


The Law on Tourism has also established the concept of rural tourist households. It is a facility or a group of facilities providing the services of accommodation, food and beverage, or only food and beverage, which are situated in the rural (countryside) environment with the elements of local features and heritage. Intermediation in the provision of accommodation and food services in rural households and rural tourism is provided by travel agencies. The Law on Tourism also stipulates that a rural tourist household is a catering facility providing other common services in the catering
industry. These catering facilities (rural tourist households), are classified into categories with standards which are regulated for individual types of these facilities.

Special attention in a separate section in the Law on Tourism is given to catering services in rural tourist households. Here the standards are specified for physical persons to comply with so that they can provide food and accommodation, and also for the ways of intermediation between these persons and potential tourists. It is also mentioned that the minister should more specifically regulate the conditions and ways of catering activities and other standards related to the catering facility.

THE LEVEL OF RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN CROATIA AND SERBIA ACCORDING TO STATISTICAL DATA

According to publicly available data of the Ministry of Tourism of the Republic of Croatia, the latest data being collected in 2007, from 1998 to 2007 the number of rural households increased 11 times, so in 2007 there were 352 in the entire territory of the Republic of Croatia (Demonja, 2014: 76). Although, this has, undoubtedly, been a positive trend, the distribution of these rural households in 20 Croatian counties has been very uneven (Demonja, 2014: 77). Furthermore, these 352 rural households in Croatia have a total of 886 beds, 288 of rural households offering food services and 207 have tasting rooms (Demonja, 2014: 79; Demonja and Ružić, 2010: 54).

According to the official statistical data of the Central Bureau of Statistics of the Republic of Croatia, in 2014, rural tourists in Croatia had access to 8,836 accommodation facilities in 12 predominantly rural counties (Bjelovar-Bilogora, Brod-Posavina, Karlovac, Koprivnica-Križevci, Krapina-Zagorje, Međimurje, Osijek-Baranja, Požega-Slavonija, Sisak-Moslavina, Varaždin,

As far as the total number of arrivals and overnight stays of domestic and foreign tourists in 12 predominantly rural counties of the Republic of Croatia, in 2014, there were 580,411 tourist arrivals and 1,201,642 overnight stays (Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Croatia 2014, 2014: 441).

In Serbia, there are 1,000 registered households in rural areas providing catering and tourism services. The members of 300 households have been involved in tourism as a primary activity. In the total offer there are about 8,000 beds. One household has recorded from 750 to 1,500 overnight stays. More than 1,000 overnight stays have been recorded in 60 households. Around 240 facilities have recorded 700 to 1,000 overnight stays, and 150 households have had 350 to 700 overnight stays. About 300 households have less than 350 overnight stays a year. The average length of tourist stay in households is 2.8 days (Petrović, 2014). Noting that the number of households is constantly increasing, it is necessary to add that the development of rural tourism in Serbia would also be helped by a better statistical analysis of this type of tourism and its offer.

POSSIBILITIES FOR JOINT COOPERATION AND PROJECTS IN RURAL TOURISM BETWEEN CROATIA AND SERBIA

What can be considered as a missed opportunity in the current development of tourism in Croatia and Serbia is the lack of joint development of tourist programs and products in the field of rural tourism. In such an analysis we cannot forget that recently borders between two or more countries have become potentially attractive tourist destinations because of the possibilities for getting to know more countries, peoples, cultures and customs. Such conclusions should motivate tourism experts and employees in the two countries
to intensify cooperation in this area. Bordering regions of Slavonija and Vojvodina have multiple advantages for such activities (the Danube, the nature along the river banks, local culture, traditional cuisine, institutional structure of tourist organizations, etc.). Possibilities could even become much wider if such concept of rural tourism development would include border areas of Hungary, especially at the time of intensive actions to declare Biosphere Reserve Mura-Drava-Danube. Since the protection of biosphere reserve demands the concept of sustainable development where rural tourism takes a special place, with the emphasis on the affirmation of local communities, it can be concluded that trans-border regions of Croatia (Slavonija and Baranja) and Serbia (Vojvodina) have a good chance for rural tourism development. This type of tourism could support ecological, social and economic aspect of the development of trans-border regions. Benefits could be mutual, especially if we take into account that trans-border regions often experience problems with economic development and depopulation.

CONCLUSION REMARKS

In the development of rural tourism, Croatia and Serbia have faced similar problems. After taking into consideration these problems, it is possible to design a framework for the future development of rural tourism. Considering the intensity of its presence in the plans, strategies, laws and regulations, and the available offer, overcoming current problems would have a significant impact on the development of sustainable tourism of these countries.

Guidelines for the future development of sustainable tourism in Croatia are as follows:

• raising the quality of accommodation, catering and tourism services,
• creating a quality product of rural tourism according to predetermined quality criteria,
• enriching overall tourism offer in rural areas because it directly stimulates the development of rural tourism destinations,
• creating a more efficient legal framework and tax regulations,
• wider application of new technologies (the Internet and communication technologies) in creating online reservation database,
• systematically educating all participants in rural tourism to gain theoretical and practical knowledge,
• encouraging self-employment and motivating young people to stay in rural areas, and
• making further efforts in environmental preservation which is the basic resource of attraction in a rural destination.

Guidelines for future development of sustainable tourism in Serbia are as follows:
• finding solutions for preventing depopulation of villages and rural areas in the concept of tourism development (strengthening infrastructure, diversification of rural economy),
• standardization and uniformity within the sector of rural tourism (e.g. categorization of facilities),
• bigger and better integration of agriculture and tourism in the planning documents and in practice,
• educating and raising awareness among local population of the possibilities of rural tourism (education in continuity, and not sporadically),
• preserving original rural ambiance, finding better solutions for preserving cultural heritage in villages and the concept of construction which cherishes the values of traditional architecture,
• designing better policies of economic incentives which would support and accelerate the development of rural tourism, and
• overcoming legal restrictions and changing legal regulations that are hampering population to run their business within rural tourist households.

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EDUCATING A NEW GENERATION OF TOUR GUIDES FOR THE FORTHCOMING ERA, AT THE ARISTOTLE UNIVERSITY OF THESSALONIKI

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The year 2012 proved to be of great significance for the history of tourism education in Greece. The prevailing system of ‘State Schools for Tour Guides’ was to be paused by the Greek State, after, almost, sixty years of continuous presence. The government's decision to invite the university in initiating a new program of educating tour guides by hosting the “Intensive Courses for Professional Guides” has, arguably, greatly endorsed both the tour-guide’s profile and their achieved services. According to the new ministerial decision No. 18062/20.12.2012 (Φ.Ε.Κ. 3401 Β’), it is only graduates who have read archaeology, history, art history, ethnology and social anthropology, that are eligible to attend the course, and following its completion, start working as official state tour-guides. The background of the candidate is seen as crucial for the service they will be providing. Accessing contemporary cultural theories, visitor-oriented approaches and current museological practices and tools, as well as further educational methods and skills, they are building up on their former training, eventually becoming able to deliver new interpretations of the past. They are, therefore, given the opportunity to revisit and redefine the final product they come to communicate with their work, trained to approach the tangible and intangible aspects of Greek heritage from another angle. As Greece has a strong presence in the area of cultural tourism, a rapidly growing segment of the total tourist market, the newly established university program comes to provide an ideal professional expertise for guides to deliver fully updated experiential narratives. A smart tourism market willing to develop and improve its impact on economy should embody such a professional branch as a tool for a qualitatively profitable effect.
The paper aims to address the key role that the graduates of the program in question could hold, introducing new forms of heritage narrative. Tour guides should not be considered as a trivial factor in the huge global mass market. They are potentially connected with the creation of an invaluable tourism product, the *experiential narrative*, widely accepted as a necessary tool in a story-driven market (Richards, 2011, p.15).

As Richards marks: “The narratives and images attached to the destination become an important determinant of the value of places to the consumers and therefore their decision-making in terms of destinations and willingness to pay” (Richards, 2011, p.3). So, as a dynamic part of tourism industry, having a discreet though catalytic impact on the consumers’ attitude, tour guides are directly connected with economy numbers.

The paper focuses on the philosophy, methodology and scientific instruments, enlisted at the Interuniversity Postgraduate Program “Museology-Cultural Management” Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, in order to broaden the perspectives of a tour-guide in Greece: a *cultural heritage communicator*, combining a solid knowledge not only of cultural and tourism products but also of the audience - visitors to perceive them.

**Tour Guides’ Education in Greece: Then and now**

Following the German Occupation and the dramatic consequences of the Second World War, Greece, a wrecked exhausted economy, seeks financial help setting out to join the political and economical arena of post-war Europe. Widely regarded as aspects of a culture eminent for the political and philosophical utterance it produced, Greek antiquities could now serve as symbols for such an enterprise to be initiated. Within the rapidly developing field of tourism, the profession of the ‘tour-guide’ begins to emerge, gradually serving as an ‘ambassador’ for Greek culture that
eventually comes to endorse the understanding of antiquities worldwide.

At this point, it would be useful to briefly outline the profile of a tour guide in the early decades of the emergence of this brand new professional, in the fifties and sixties, when tourism industry in Greece was still in its infancy. The first State School for Tour Guides, based in Athens, operated under the umbrella of the first government-run organization for tourism education, called School of Tourism Professions, established in 1937. Later on, the School (2002) was renamed to ‘Organization for Tourism Professions’. For more than fifty years in row, ‘State Schools for Tour Guides’ served as a ‘vocational training’ setting, that eventually provided its graduates with a license of a state tour-guide. The basic defined attendance requirements for the candidates were entry exams (through national exams) for high-school graduates in four topics: foreign languages, essay, Greek history, geography of Greece. State Schools for Tour Guides ran also in Thessaloniki, Corfu, Lesvos, Rhodes, and Crete. Guiding in Greece has been exclusively connected with the educational program as implemented in the frame of State Schools (Legislative framework: Ν. 710/1977, ΦΕΚ 1375/2002, Ν. 3105/2003).

Reflecting the era it was originally founded, the curriculum of the School was initially compiled by a scientific committee that consisted of academics, obviously oriented to history and archaeology, the two disciplines that at the time exemplified the core of knowledge that a Greek tour-guide who intended to be professionally activated was expected to present. The Program Course of Study included lessons as Greek History and Archaeology, History of Art, History of Modern Architecture, History of Theatre, History of Greek Literature, Folk and Traditional Greek Culture, Geography, Archaeological and Touristic Legislation, Travel Agencies & Hotel Issues, Tourist Psychology, First Aid, Speech Training, Tour Guiding Techniques, Bus-touring. Attendance was compulsory and lasted two and a half years, while the educational schedule included lectures, visits on sites and outdoor excursions all around Greece. Applicants, who had previously earned a degree in history and archaeology, could enter the State Schools without having to undergo exams in the subjects
of History and Essay, as they had already done so during their early University Examinations. However, they were obliged to fully attend and sit on exams in History and Archaeology during the semesters. In addition, other topics such as history of religion, legislation, theatre, ecology, geology, tourist psychology, tour-guiding techniques etc, contributed to attaining spherical knowledge, concerning a variety of topics, questions and challenges that tour-guides confront in their everyday working reality.

Due to a variety of reasons (political, social, financial) relevant at least partly, to the advent of the so-called Greek crisis, in 2012, the Greek State decided to temporarily pause the traditional State Schools for Tour Guides, after approximately 60 years of unceasing operation. Moreover, the Greek government highlighted an interesting scientific issue, originating within a theoretical discourse touched on current literature about the role of public archaeology (Merriman, 2004a, p. 3-5). This, in turn, leads us to consider the profile of the professional appointed to communicate heritage narratives to audiences in the country. This reflection, moreover, brings about also a neglected aspect of the role that historians and archaeologists could furthermore embrace. That is, communicating their work to the public.

The philosophy of tour-guide education during its first period could not correspond to this demand; a top priority was given to producing a new generation of professionals. Via a political decision [No. 4093/2012, Medium - Term Fiscal Strategy 2012-2015], imposed by the European institutions and the IMF that supervises the administration and economy of the country, graduates such as archaeologists, historians, archaeologists-historians, art historians, ethnologists, social anthropologists etc, are only eligible for becoming officially licensed tour guides, after having successfully attended the “Intensive Courses for Professional Guides”.

The theoretical and practical aspects of knowledge, as basic instruments, represent just a plain challenge for a tour-guide. The most intriguing part of the venture is the involvement of audience. Nowadays, the relationship between the one who communicates culture and the recipient constitutes a crucial scientific issue, largely suggestive of previously established theories of culture that the area of humanities has only now begun to exploit, including communication theory and theoretical frameworks introduced by
cultural management and the newly-realized discipline of museology (Kelly, 2008), (Kelly, 2006), (Housen, 1987), (Cross, 2002), (Σκαλτσά, 1999).

Before elaborating any further on this questioning, it is necessary to refer to the changes that occurred concerning tour guides’ education since 2012. Attending intensive 300 hours lessons and practical seminars, exclusively organized, scheduled and implemented by academics, largely experienced in the interpretation and presentation of Greek culture and civilization, the candidates are given a great opportunity to orient their former academic background towards a new direction. They get acquainted with the crucial aspect of building and performing tour narratives, concentrating on the fundamental relationship between cultural/tourism products and their audiences/consumers.

Before presenting the content of the “Intensive Courses for Professional Guides”, it is important to mention that the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki was the first to run this Program in 2013 (May-July) and then successively for the next two academic years, 2014 (February to April) and 2015 (March to May). The assignment of “Intensive Courses for Professional Guides” to the Interuniversity Postgraduate Program (IPP) “Museology-Cultural Management”, proved to be the most appropriate one for running the task. In fact, it was a great opportunity for an academic program to run a course that could be an autonomous Masters itself, as a branch of museology. Furthermore, museology provides the suitable scientific infrastructure that sets the basic principles for the implementation of the Course.

Highly informed by contemporary approaches and theories of culture, museology is a discipline greatly concerned with preserving, interpreting and presenting the tangible and intangible aspects of heritage, and with the literal and constructed social environment wherein the relationship between man and the object, as well as that developing between man and the museum come to form. Besides the great number of actual recontextualized objects that museums for long have held and displayed, museology now comes to consider as such, that is ‘objects’, monuments, archaeological and historical sites, natural settings of physical and architectural interest (Schörer, M., Bellaigue, M., 1997, p. 6-7).
As stressed by the coauthor¹, any attempt of interpreting the past inevitably entails a mediating process of rejoining past and present. Largely investing on a narrative-interpretative guiding discourse and its museological deployment/rendering in museological terms, contemporary Museology approaches monuments along the historical and social processes these bear, by providing points of reference the public can easily follow thus ultimately inviting varied interpretations. For this to happen, the guide enlists familiar values, behaviors, understandings, easily accessible by the audience, thus facilitating their relationship with the past.

The “Intensive Courses for Professional Guides” Program
What kind of tour guides?
The Philosophy

According to the current theories of culture, public archaeology, museology etc, tangible and intangible elements/aspects of culture/heritage (historical places and sites, monuments and museums, traditions, morals and customs, songs and music) is a communicative medium, involved in social practice, being a social product itself. Culture is, in fact, ‘speech’ incorporating messages, that are built through microrelations and macrorelations between signs. (Tilley, 1994, 69-70).

So, if culture products constitute a communication system, it is obvious that the need for meaning making is present. To this point the conversation goes much further, including terms as: interpretation, presentation, interpreter, visitor. (Hooper-Greenhill, 1999, 35-36).

As Thompson marks (Copeland, 2004, p.132), *interpretation* is in part an *educational function*, requiring a clear distinction between *information* and *understanding*. This latter notion, “*understanding*”, as the ideal for communicating cultural heritage, brings to light an unstudied scientific issue.

Until today tour guiding has followed a positivist approach where the public was told what to see in a linear way instead of being inspired through the *polysemy* of interpretation (Tilley, 1994, p.72). However, the constructivist perspective could be particularly appropriate to exploring the nature of interpretation and presentation of culture to the public. A constructivist approach is congruent with the notion that interpretation must connect the topic or place “*to something within the personality or experience of the visitor*” (Merriman, 2004a,p. 10,11), (Copeland, 2004, p.133,135), (Hein, 1999 p.73-80), (Hein, 1998). As Von Glasersfeld marks “*What we make of experience constitutes the only world we consciously live in*”. (Copeland, 2004, 134).

Current theories of museum education emphasize non-linear, self-directed ‘learning’, where proximity to ‘truth’ is not the ultimate goal. According to Thomas “*people are less ready to accept the “authorized” view of the past, preferring to choose for themselves what kind of past they wish to believe in*” (Thomas, 2004, p. 191). The basic principle here is that museums and cultural environments in general, should perform themselves in such a way so as to stimulate feelings like wonder, awe, mystery, nostalgia (Richards, 2003), “*otherness*” etc, that is a creative, poetic, anti-rational approach revealing the individual *aura* of objects and notions (Merriman, 2004b, 101).

In any procedure, related to cultural products’ reception, individuals are constantly constructing and reconstructing meanings through the interaction of senses, perceptions, memories of previous experiences and cognitive processes, which shape understandings and events. In any activity such as a tour guiding, they create experience and meaning to a form of personal construction of the world. Touring Cultural Heritage is a negotiation, an interaction between visitors’ carried patterns and the presentation parameters. (Copeland, 2004, 135-137).
The *constructivist model* of presenting tour guiding obeys in specific methods, widely accepted by all specialists, related to the management of cultural heritage audiences. (Copeland, 2004, p.140-142), (Ham, 1999, p.161-164), (EdCom, 2001). Building cultural narratives and presentations is not at all an easy task. In fact it is a combination of a strictly scientific field comprising accuracy and communicating structure. It constitutes a conceptual framework, demanding precise methodological steps.

There should be rules involving terms like; story format, plot structure, theme and topic, feedback-loop, vehicles with which the narrative is to be developed and a solid analogy between introduction, body, conclusion (Hooper-Greenhill, 1999, p. 35), (Ham, 1999, p.165). A lot of theoretical work, concerning the core of information to be shared and the audience-receiver of it, has to be done before the practice on the field (museum, archaeological site, historical place etc).

A crucial factor in reference to *meaning making* is the social dimension of it (Copeland, 2004, p.140), (Richards, 2003). Individuals involve themselves in *touring*, not only for the sake of history, knowledge, learning etc. Above all they pursue social contact. People like to interfere and interact with each other, using culture products as a pretext for doing so. This challenging balance between individuals, objects, interpretations and the interactions between them, needs an animator - facilitator to orchestrate the procedure through a two-way traffic of ideas and responsiveness. In fact, the encouragement of a “dialogue” (Copeland, 2004 p. 142), might be a suitable term to describe the process.

Constructing *communication* along with creating *meaning* is a dual challenge, involving the term ‘*polysensuality*’ (Merriman, 2004a, 10). As more and more people are relying on their feelings and emotions in their everyday lives, meaning and value might need different means to be produced.

Merriman uses the term ‘*informed imagination*’ (Merriman, 2004b, 103) to describe a poetic approach to the produced narrative or activity taking place during an interpretative procedure, like a guiding tour. Such a product is an emotional, *experiential narrative* which draws on poetry and fiction, inviting visitors to construct their own stories.
The role that the arts and humanities graduates - tour guides could serve in such a procedure of presenting heritage to the public is really catalytic. Having a deep knowledge of the proper scientific instruments and methodologies they are in the position to animate and inspire the creation of cognitive dissonance (Copeland, 2004, p.134) as an “artistic” activity which aims at revealing meanings and relationships behind objects, monuments, notions, audiences and narratives.

Another important contribution of the graduates of the program is their understanding of the political nature of History, Archaeology, Anthropology, Arts etc. Many archaeological sites, historical places, personalities, notions and objects are strongly debated, as directly connected with national affairs. A guide, with a theoretical academic background, can certainly handle issues of high national importance in the most accurate and integrated way. It is crucial to have in mind that tour guiding as part of public archaeology is a serious matter of ethics. (Merriman, 2004a, p.13). (Χαμηλάκης, 2007), (Damaskos, 2010).

Also, the new generation of tour guides regards museums and cultural spaces as “constructed sites”/“theatrical places”. Consequently, they are in a position to introduce the inner part of them. In this frame, they can perform guided tours behind the scene revealing how to use the aspects of cultural products in the best way. In addition, they can sufficiently deal with topics like museum architecture (Hooper-Greenhill, 1999, p.41), management, politics, code of ethics dealing with preservation, conservation, presentation of the cultural heritage etc.

Digital technology, material in store, debates about the ethics of collecting, disposal etc could also form part of the presentations so that the visitors have the great, fascinating chance to question the fundamentals of what, why, how archaeologists, curators, museologists and related specialties, do.

Also, a Human Study graduate - tour guide considers audio, visual, tactile interpretation techniques and other representation formats as necessary means for being effective. Above all though, the main priority should be to engage visitors’ emotions, if they are to make a lasting impression and create true value.
It is important to mention here -no matter how utopian it may sound- the key role that the new guides could play as tour operators, designing and producing narratives for alternative destinations that should have been in the touristic agenda a long time ago. The potentials for building a new touristic map in the country are infinite, as during the last fifteen years a body of notably important monuments, museums and sites were added to the cultural fund of the country. The discussion about the contribution those new guides could have in the improvement of the touristic product could be really interesting. Having on the one hand a new cultural infrastructure consisted of monuments and, on the other hand, consisted of human resources we could really optimize the whole venture of tourism creating a new starting point for the forthcoming decades.

They represent a great combination of well grounded skills and qualifications that form a top kind of a professional facilitator. They can effectively distinguish instruction from provocation, information from inspiration, experiential from procedural, when organizing a guiding for a wide demographic profile of their audiences.

The decision of giving graduates with a background in the arts and humanities the opportunity to become professional tour guides, proves to be really challenging. They constitute a new form of tourism professionals (cultural heritage communicators) properly qualified to fill in the gap of a tour guide model, corresponding to the demands of a nowadays tourist market. In fact they can exploit all the basic principles of the current museological theory, related to the culture and the public in the most solid, effective way. It is exactly this prospect that determined the whole philosophy of “Intensive Courses for Professional Guides” at the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki.
The “Intensive Courses for Professional Guides” Program

The Methodology

It is obvious that this new generation of tour guides, as described above, have already conquered a great deal of profound theoretical knowledge, concerning culture and civilization, during their academic training. Also, they have participated in many days’ educational activities and excursions all around Greece, South Italy and Sicily as part of their compulsory and voluntary outdoor archaeological and excavating courses.

So, the question arising is what their training should include, in order to complete an already integrated, qualitative level of knowledge, related to Cultural Heritage. The challenge here would be a path for the connection between culture and visitors, which, in fact, reflects the need to project the “touristic face” of archaeology, museology, anthropology, ethnology, as academic disciplines.

The Program was scheduled according to the notion that all necessary fields for tour guide experts should fit in 300 hours. The prevailing priority was to combine a basic theoretical approach with all the practical aspects of a professional training. All the three years of implementation included nine thematic fields, as follows:

- Tourism and Sustainable Development Principles
- Tourism Legislation. Archaeological Legislation
- Geography - Natural and Human Made Environment
- Cultural Heritage Management
- Interpretation - Presentation of Tangible / Intangible Cultural Heritage
- Guiding and Museum Education
- Tour Guiding Techniques
- Orthophony - Speech Training
- First Aid

The Program also included four educational trips that functioned as a simulation of the real field work. The candidates, themselves, were asked to fully organize the whole trip; narrative
body, points of interest, stops, bus-touring during the travel, visual material, cooperation with the Travel Agency etc.

A closer examination of the thematic fields would be useful to comprehend the methodological steps, adopted in scheduling the Program. The first field, “Tourism and Sustainable Development Principles” deals with topics such as; Tourism Industry, Greek and International Tourism Market, Types of Tourism, Alternative Tourism, Tourism and Sustainability, National Parks, Natural Heritage, Obligations of Travel Agents and Tour Operators, Consumer Rights of Tourists”.

This field also includes topics such as “Psychology and Tourism. Social Psychology of Tourist Behavior”, “The Public; treatment methods”. Dealing with issues, related to audiences and visitors, the field “Psychology and Tourism Behavior” provides candidates with a different point of view, as it broadens the typical discussion about the “general public”, at least as it is known in the frame of museology.

The second field, Tourism and Archaeological Legislation is necessary for all professionals of cultural heritage, especially tour guides who deal with the everyday experience of it. Given that the majority of Greek monuments are directly connected with classical antiquity, Archaeological Legislation is a field that the candidates attending the program should be fully aware of. On the other hand, Greece constitutes a typical tourist destination, demanding deep knowledge of Tourism Legislation on the behalf of all those working on the area of Tourism Market.

The fourth thematic field, Cultural Heritage Management defines and presents tangible heritage and the scientific methods for its preservation and presentation to the public. The introductive part sets the frame, the basic principles and the International Guidelines - Code of Ethics on Conservation, Restoration, Preservation, Presentation of Sites and Monuments.

The field also includes topics of great importance for guiding, such as: History of Museums, Museums and Monuments in Contemporary Greece, Museum Collections, Contemporary Art in Greece, Archaeological Sites, Traditional Settlements and Communities, Historic Cities, Industrial Heritage, Science and Technology Parks, Cultural Centres.
As it is clear, almost all aspects of Cultural Heritage are embodied in the Course, so that the variety of Greek culture is highlighted, setting the challenge for a touristic approach of places and monuments that, until today, remained unexploited.

The fifth field, Interpretation - Presentation of Tangible / Intangible Cultural Heritage refers to the core of the philosophy the Course follows. As shown above, interactive interpretation illustrates the scientific tool for a constructivist model of tour guiding, where the public actively participates in an experiential dialogue among objects, people and narratives.

At this point it is necessary to underline the great importance of embodying interpretation theories to an extroverted field of public speech about culture and monuments, like tour guiding. Although, at least initially, one could consider those two topics as entirely irrelevant, their combination could be revolutionary for the production of tour narratives. This latter ascertainment is also of great importance for the purely scientific part of the discussion. As part of Public Archaeology tour guiding will be sometime in the near future an issue in the scientific agenda of Museology, Pedagogy etc.

The field “Interpretation - Presentation of Tangible / Intangible Cultural Heritage” contains crucial theoretical approaches of great interest, such as: Contemporary Economical and Social Issues, Modern History, Politics, Regime, Historical Consciousness, Contemporary Theories for the Interpretation of the Past.

Furthermore, two courses of this specific field are directly related to the subject “tour guiding”. The first deals with “Techniques for organizing interpretative and interdisciplinary guiding activities” while the second covers the practical aspect of the procedure under the title: “Designing visual methodological tools for tour guiding”.

Also, the field “Interpretation - Presentation of Tangible / Intangible Cultural Heritage”, included two weeks of outdoor practice, where candidates scheduled and organized their own narratives, according to the interpretative core of guiding. The whole experience resulted in a corpus of urban tours that constitute integrated -ready to sell- tourism products themselves.
Equally renovative was the idea of connecting Guiding with Museum Education. Museums, particularly the archaeological ones, hold a large portion of tour guiding in Greece. As we have already discussed, there is a whole body of knowledge concerning Museum Communication, Museum Education, Museum Audiences, Museum Exhibitions, Museum Narratives etc, that is clearly related to tour guiding. For the first time in the history of Tourism Education in Greece, the participants of the program were taught and were asked to practice Museum Education as an integral part of guiding speech.

Apart from theoretical approaches in the classroom, the candidates are taught methods for organizing guiding tours, adapting to diverse audiences, like children, teenagers, adults, minorities, elderly and disabled people.

The next thematic topic, “Tour Guiding Techniques”, constitutes the applied field of tour guiding in all aspects. Practical subjects like: various kinds of tour guiding (private, groups, land tours, cruises etc), means for delivering and communicating tour narratives, design and management of digital technology in museums and archaeological sites, cooperation with tour operators and travel agents, methods, tools and means for organizing bus-touring, designing tour narratives for specific destinations, the role of tour guide in the frame of a specific audience, basic principles and ethics of public speaking (Andrews, Andrews, Williams, 2002, p. 10-25) etc are examined in the frame of the topic.

In fact the field “Tour Guiding Techniques” is the most crucial of the Course as it completes the solid, academic knowledge of the candidates in a practical orientation. It is worth mentioning the importance of providing a combination of academic with a professional training, especially in reference to the fields: Interpretation - Presentation of Tangible / Intangible Cultural Heritage, Guiding and Museum Education, Tour Guiding Techniques. Those three fields deal with the same topics from an entirely different point of view. They set the same questions, suggesting methodological tools around a common correlation of concepts: museums, monuments, culture, audiences/visitors.

Last but not least, the course entails six introductive hours to Orthophony and Speech Training. The candidates have the chance to comprehend the importance of using their voice, an invaluable expressive means, in a proper way so as to become attractive
speakers. In the short duration of six hours they are taught exercises that can perform and practice alone afterwards, improving their appealing to audience senses (Andrews, Andrews, Williams, 2002, p. 257-278, 281-306).

Originated from an academic environment most of Human Studies graduates are not familiarized with being exposed to the audiences. On the contrary, until recently they have not treated their relationship with the public as something which merited their scientific attention. Especially archaeologists must come to terms with the idea that communication is a specialized field with its own disciplinary framework, directly connected with the interpretative nature of Heritage.

However, the role of a facilitator, “transmitter”, docent and so on (Βελένη, Γεωργάκη, Ξανθοπούλου, 2010, σ. 203) is inherently incorporated into the scientific identity of archaeologists, anthropologists, art historians, curators, museologists etc. The “Intensive Courses for Professional Guides”, is the means of converting academic information, concepts and theories into intelligible words, images, experiences as a “popular” aspect of Cultural Heritage, existing anyway in its profound nature.

A basic contribution of “Intensive Courses for Professional Guides” to Tourism Education and, by extension, to tourism market, is exactly the opportunity for Human Studies scientists to expand their communicating skills for the sake of monuments, research, audiences and the quality of life itself.

The academic frame of the Interuniversity Postgraduate Program (IPP) “Museology-Cultural Management” can provide all the validated scientific methodological tools for educating the new tourism professional, a Cultural Heritage communicator.

The “Intensive Courses for Professional Guides” Program
The new generation of Tour Guides and Cultural Tourism

This new professional branch described as a cultural heritage communicator fulfills an emerging tourism trend defined as “cultural tourism” (ICOMOS, 1999) or “cultural routes” in the best way for the country. Cultural tourism is considered a high level
leisure activity, taking place especially in Mediterranean and Southern Europe.

According to the European Institute of Cultural Routes (EICR) there is a range of trends, identified as prevailing preferences by cultural tourists: art exhibitions, organized museum tours, industrial heritage sites, sites of memory, architecture sites, historic parks, local celebrations etc.

Cultural tourism is a rapidly growing segment of the total tourist market, considered as a high spending tourism, consumed by highly educated individuals, who search for special cultural experiences in the destination. With its roots in the Grand Tour (Richards, 2003) it is one of the forms of tourism that most policy makers seem to be betting on for the future. According the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), Cultural Tourism accounted for 37% of global tourism and forecast that it would grow at a rate of 15% per year. In addition, the number of people visiting cultural attractions has also grown. According to the European Heritage Group (European Commission 1998) attendance at museums, historical monuments and archaeological sites has doubled between 1977 and 1997. Also, the attendance at museums and monuments across Europe grew by about 25%.

In a general perspective, cultural tourism is widely viewed as a grown market. At the same time it is important to underline the growth of cultural attractions by over 100% in the past 20 years in Europe, outstripping the growth of demand. In addition, in five years, between 2004-2009, there were around 375 million international cultural trips. (Richards, 2003), (Richards, 2011).

In the current experience economy of tourism, where ideas and feelings are tourism products, story-telling proves to be the ultimate tour service for the forthcoming era. Self-actualization is now the greatest need. As Richards marks: “Story-telling will become one of the major drivers of the dream economy in the future” (Richards, 2011). Indisputably, value creation in tourism market is about stories, narratives, feelings, ideas, experiences, not anymore pre-packaged, but co-created with the tourist.

So, what is needed is “a shift from the simple provision of information and services towards the creative co-creation of experiences, narratives and dreams” (Richards, 2011) in other
words a shift from static museums and monuments towards interactive experiences and intriguing, imaginative narratives.

As Richards ascertains, apart from the cultural fund a “producer of creativity” is needed as a co-creator of knowledge, innovations and spiritual experiences (Richards, 2011). In the same vein, the academically cultivated ability of this new branch of professionals to schedule and organize narratives, stories, destinations (place-making) is more than an interesting perspective. The graduates of the program in question can perform cultural tourism “not as a passive activity but as a means of creating places” (Richards, 2011).

As mentioned above, this new generation of tour guides represents a new kind of high-potential tour operators that could change the map of Greek cultural tourism. This new scientific professional team could set new destinations and “sell” new culture brands by projecting a monumental fund, remaining so far unexploited. In a growing market the design of competitive products is a great challenge that could lead us far beyond the typical tourist scenery: Acropolis, Olympia, Delphi and Crete, etc.

During the last decades Greece has been embellished with a number of renovated archaeological sites, museums and places of historical interest that could become a great chance to renew the repertoire of the tourist product. In the frame of the current conjuncture such a policy could be of crucial importance for improving the quality of Greek cultural tourism.

Conclusion

The inauguration of the “Intensive Courses for Professional Guides” university program has endorsed the educational and professional perspectives of tour guides in Greece. Since 2012 a new generation of professionals has emerged in the field of tourism in the country, endowed with a great deal of skills and potentialities, yet not fully realized. Representing different disciplines, the successful candidates can be transformed to animators, entertainers, infotainers etc, able to produce experiential narratives that broaden the approach to cultural heritage, represent an entirely different profile for tour guides. Sharing a solid background of knowledge on
cultural heritage, they provide a new qualitative service in the tourism industry, addressed to special audiences that pursue more than plain information. The course aims to complete and update the already conquered body of awareness through strengthening the communicative, extroverted part of candidates’ qualifications.

The basic core of the educational process exploits the Constructivist Model of cognitive comprehension. In this frame “learning” and “knowledge” are built gradually via an experiential procedure based on dialogue, mutual communication and socializing with the catalytic contribution of emotions and senses. In this “synergy” between objects, monuments, stories, history, people, emotions etc, the tour guide, a “primus inter pares”, holds a key role, as the person who is called to orchestrate an accurate balance.

In this new educational aspect, three thematic fields, for the first time simultaneously delivered, make the difference: Interpretation - Presentation of Tangible / Intangible Cultural Heritage, Museum Education, Guiding Techniques. The academic origins of the two of those (Interpretation, Museum Education), along with the practical field of Techniques, together provide a great context for obtaining a pioneering contemporary training for tour guides in a Tourism Market update.

Accessing contemporary cultural theories, visitor-oriented approaches and current museological practices and tools, besides further educational methods and skills, this new generation of professionals delivers new interpretations of the past, comprehending the intrinsic aura of objects, monuments, stories in their contexts.

A tour guide completing the course in question is a professional who not only informs, but provokes and enlightens, not only shows but performs, not only transfers but inspires, not only speaks but narrates, not only addresses but communicates, not only explains but stimulates and initiates, always following validated scientific museological methods.

A smart tourism market willing to develop and improve its impact upon economy should embody such a professional branch as an alternative tool for a qualitatively profitable effect. A great deal of national monumental fund stands infertile. It is more than crucial to staff and vitalize those monuments with the proper professionals, while bearing in mind the changes the tourism anthropogeography
has been subjected to, during the last decades. Visitors, their interests and demandings, their financial possibilities, have rapidly changed. Naturally, tour guides should follow.

UNWTO projects a positive 2016 for Tourism in Greece and forecasts that the country will maintain a powerful image worldwide as a major tourism destination, consolidating its growth in 2016, as shown by booking trends. Also, according to the forecast issued by UNWTO international tourist arrivals are expected to increase in a long-term forecast by 3.8% a year for the period 2010 to 2020. The diversification of the touristic offer and the development of new destinations, among other priorities, could directly involve this new body of professionals in an effort to broaden the offered services, concerning cultural tourism in Greece.

A balanced, healthy market should provide a variety of possibilities for different kind of interests. In fact, all kinds of professionals are absolutely needed and there is enough space for anyone who wants to tackle. Diversity in tourism products and professionals, who produce and deliver them, is the key for the much anticipated development.

There couldn’t be a more favorable environment than the current one, for this new generation of tour guides to emerge, exploiting their qualifications for the sake of Greek tourism, identified with the sake of Greek economy.

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AIMS & SCOPE

TOURISMOS is an international, multi-disciplinary, refereed (peerreviewed) journal aiming to promote and enhance research in all fields of tourism, including travel, hospitality and leisure. The journal is published by the University of the Aegean (in Greece), and is intended for readers in the scholarly community who deal with different tourism sectors, both at macro and at micro level, as well as professionals in the industry. TOURISMOS 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 segment. Besides research papers, the journal welcomes book reviews, conference reports, case studies, research notes and commentaries.

TOURISMOS aims at:

• Disseminating and promoting research, good practice and innovation in all aspects of tourism to its prime audience including educators, researchers, post-graduate students, policy makers, and industry practitioners.

• Encouraging international scientific cooperation and understanding, and enhancing multi-disciplinary research across all tourism sectors.

The scope of the journal is international and all papers submitted are subject to strict blind peer review by its Editorial Board and by other anonymous international reviewers. The journal features conceptual and empirical papers, and editorial policy is to invite the submission of manuscripts from academics, researchers, post-graduate students, policymakers and industry practitioners. The Editorial Board will be looking particularly for articles about new trends and developments within different sectors of tourism, and the application of new ideas and developments that are likely to affect tourism, travel, hospitality
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The material published in TOURISMOS covers all scientific, conceptual and applied disciplines related to tourism, travel, hospitality and leisure, including: economics, management, planning and development, marketing, human resources, sociology, psychology, geography, information and communication technologies, transportation, service quality, finance, food and beverage, and education. Manuscripts published in TOURISMOS should not have been published previously in any copyright form (print or electronic/online). The general criteria for the acceptance of articles are:

- Contribution to the promotion of scientific knowledge in the greater multi-disciplinary field of tourism.
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- Clarity of writing.
- Acceptable quality of English language.

TOURISMOS is published twice per year (in Spring and in Autumn). Each issue includes the following sections: editorial, research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events.

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Editorial” may be presented. However, TOURISMOS does not accept unsolicited editorials.

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For the Research Papers section, TOURISMOS invites full-length manuscripts (not longer than 6000 words and not shorter than 4000 words) from a variety of disciplines; these papers may be either empirical or conceptual, and will be subject to strict blind peer review (by at least three anonymous referees). The decision for the final acceptance of the paper will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate Editors. The manuscripts submitted should provide original and/or innovative ideas or approaches or findings that eventually push the frontiers of knowledge. Purely descriptive accounts are not considered suitable for this section. Each paper should have the following structure: a) abstract, b) introduction (including an overall presentation of the issue to be examined and the aims and objectives of the paper), c) main body (including, where appropriate, the review of literature, the development of hypotheses and/or models, research methodology, presentation of findings, and analysis and discussion), d) conclusions (including also, where appropriate, recommendations, practical implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research), e) bibliography, f) acknowledgements, and g) appendices.

**Case Studies**
Case Studies should be not longer than 3500 words and not shorter than 2500; these articles should be focusing on the detailed and critical presentation/review of real-life cases from the greater tourism sector, and must include - where appropriate - relevant references and bibliography. Case Studies should aim at disseminating information and/or good practices, combined with critical analysis of real examples. Purely descriptive accounts may be considered suitable for this section, provided that are well-justified and of interest to the readers of TOURISMOS. Each article
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Book Reviews should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 1000; these articles aim at presenting and critically reviewing books from the greater field of tourism. Most reviews should focus on new publications, but older books are also welcome for presentation. Book Reviews are not subject to blind peer review; the decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Book Reviews Editor. Where appropriate, these articles may include references and bibliography. Books to be reviewed may be assigned to potential authors by the Book Reviews Editor, though TOURISMOS is also open to unsolicited suggestions for book reviews from interested parties.

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Conference Reports should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000; these articles aim at presenting and critically reviewing conferences from the greater field of tourism. Most reports should focus on recent conferences (i.e., conferences that took place not before than three months from the date of manuscript submission), but older conferences are also welcome for presentation if appropriate. Conference Reports are not subject to blind peer review; the decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Conference Reports Editor. Where appropriate, these articles may include references and bibliography. Conference reports may be assigned to potential authors by the Conference Reports Editor, though TOURISMOS is also open to unsolicited suggestions for reports from interested parties.

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Industry Viewpoints should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 500; these articles may have a “commentary” form, and aim at presenting and discussing ideas, views and suggestions by
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NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

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Manuscripts should be written as understandably and concisely as possible with clarity and meaningfulness. Submission of a manuscript to TOURISMOS represents a certification on the part of the author(s) that it is an original work and has not been copyrighted elsewhere; manuscripts that are eventually published may not be reproduced in any other publication (print or electronic), as their copyright has been transferred to TOURISMOS. Submissions are accepted only in electronic form; authors are requested to submit one copy of each manuscript by email attachment. All manuscripts should be emailed to the Editor-in-Chief (Prof. Paris Tsartas, at ptsar@aegean.gr) and to the Editors (Prof. Evangelos Christou, at e.christou@tour.teithe.gr and Prof. Andreas Papatheodorou, at a.papatheodorou@aegean.gr), and depending on the nature of the manuscript submissions should also be emailed as follows:

- Conference reports should be emailed directly to the Conference Reports Editor (Dr. Vasiliki Galani-Moutafi), at v.moutafi@sa.aegean.gr.
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Research Papers should be not longer than 6000 words and not shorter than 4000. Research Notes should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000. Case Studies should be not longer than 3500 words and not shorter than 2500. Book Reviews should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 1000. Conference Reports should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000. Industry Viewpoints should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 500. Forthcoming Events should be not longer than 500 words. Manuscripts that do not fully conform to the above word limits (according to the type of the article) will be automatically rejected and should not be entered into the reviewing process.

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- All submissions (research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events) must have a title of no more than 12 words.
• Manuscripts should be double-line spaced, and have at least 2,5 cm (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 page 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. If the quotation is less than 3 lines, then it should be included in the main text enclosed in quotation marks. If the quotation is more than 3 lines, then it should be separated from the main text and indented.
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• Tables, figures and illustrations are to be included in the text and to be numbered consecutively (in Arabic numbers). Each table, figure or illustration must have a title.
• The text should be organized under appropriate section headings, which, ideally, should not be more than 500-700 words apart. • The main body of the text should be written in Times New Roman letters, font size 12.
• Section headings should be written in Arial letters, font size 12, and should be marked as follows: primary headings should be centred and typed in bold capitals and underlined; secondary headings should be typed with italic bold capital letters; other headings should be typed in capital letters. Authors are urged to write as concisely as possible, but not at the expense of clarity.
• The preferred software for submission is Microsoft Word.
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• Where acronyms are used, their full expression should be given initially.
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