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Vicky Katsoni *Editor*

Cultural Tourism in a Digital Era

First International Conference IACuDiT,
Athens, 2014

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ISSN 2198-7246 ISSN 2198-7254 (electronic)
Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics
ISBN 978-3-319-15858-7 ISBN 978-3-319-15859-4 (eBook)
DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-15859-4

Library of Congress Control Number: 2015936693

Springer Cham Heidelberg New York Dordrecht London
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(www.springer.com)

Preface

This book contains the proceedings pertaining to the first International Conference on “Cultural Tourism in a Digital Era,” held in Athens, Greece, 30th May–1st June 2014, which focused on cultural tourism as it is developing in the second decade of the new millennium. The conference intended to offer not only academic research presentations but also to promote mutual dialog, interaction, and understanding between various stakeholders of hospitality and tourism research outputs, including academic researchers and scholars, industry professionals, and government/quasi-government officials and other key industry practitioners who will share and highlight tourism industry trends and research gaps from a pragmatic and applied perspective. Athens, with its long history of democratic debate, was an ideal setting for this conference, and we really think that it provided a fitting opportunity for an open and productive discussion. In a globalized, digital era, nations seek to retain a sense of identity through their very unique cultures and history.

The International Association of Cultural and Digital Tourism (IACuDiT) is a global network of people, projects, and events that bear on a wide range of issues of concern and interest in cultural and digital tourism, in an era of major global changes. IACuDiT is a nonprofit international association which values creative, ethical, and progressive action aimed at the improvement of global hospitality and tourism research on cultural and digital issues.

IACuDiT brings together a wide range of academics and industry practitioners from cultural, heritage, communication, and innovational tourism backgrounds and interests. It mainly promotes and sponsors discussion, knowledge sharing, and close cooperation among scholars, researchers, policy makers, and tourism professionals. It is based on the notion that: “Technological changes do not influence the missions of cultural tourism actors in the areas of promotion and product development, but rather the manner of carrying them out.” It provides its members with a timely,

interactive, and international platform to meet, discuss, and debate cultural, heritage, and other tourism issues that will affect the future direction of hospitality and tourism research and practice in a digital and innovational era.

We want to be a friendly and easily accessible community for the discussion, exchange, and development of knowledge about the cultural issues in the travel and tourism industry in a digital era. We believe that tolerance and respect between culturally different communities is an essential ideal in tourism and travel. Judging from the warm welcome, the lively discussions, the friendly, unofficial, and warm atmosphere, both inside and outside Conference rooms, we believe we succeeded in our goals.

It is real pleasure to express our sincere gratitude to the people and organizations for their contributions, help, and support for this Conference. We express our sincere appreciation to all our Keynote speakers, that is to Prof. (FH) Mag. Christian Maurer, Professor in Tourism and Leisure Management at the University of Applied Sciences in Krems, Austria; to Prof. Dr. Marina Sheresheva, Head of master's program in marketing and Director of research center for networking economy at Lomonosov Moscow State University, Russia; and to Doz. Mag. Dr. Doris DIALER, European Parliament, MEP Policy and Media Advisor Committee on Transport and Tourism, professor at the University of Innsbruck Department of Political Science and Founding Board Member of IGER—Group on European Research.

It would not be possible to organize this symposium without the support of the Greek Ministry of Tourism and the Hellenic Republic Ministry of Culture and Sports; their full support, understanding, and encouragement made the life easy for us. Special acknowledgement also goes to the following Universities for their support: University of Greenwich, UK; Technological Educational Institute (TEI) of Athens, Greece; National Technical University of Athens (NTUA), Greece; Lomonosov Moscow State University, Russia; Malopolska School of Economics, Poland; Industrial Management Institute Azerbaijan; Çağ University; Department of Tourism of ISCE; European University Cyprus; European College of Economics and Management; Yaşar University, Turkey. We would like to express our deep gratitude to the members of The International Scientific Committee for their valuable and vitalizing ideas, comments, suggestions, and criticism on the scientific program of the Conference.

The Future is a subject of enduring fascination—impossible to predict, yet necessary to anticipate. We want to help in the process of meeting the needs and travel demands of world populations if we are to swiftly move towards a sustainable

travel culture in the years to come. For that purpose, we undertake the commitment to our members by listening to their needs and by putting and keeping them in contact.



Athens, Greece
June 2014

V. Katsoni

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Part I
Consumers' View on Today's Tourism
Industry

The Views of Greek Mountain Travelers on Mountain Tourism During Summertime: A Questionnaire Web-Based Analysis

Natali Dologlou and Vaios Kotsios

Abstract Almost 78 % of Greece is mountainous, with uniquely beautiful landscapes, rich culture and warm hospitality. Local wintertime tourism, which has traditionally been a strong pillar for the economies of mountainous areas, could decrease significantly in the future, due to economic crisis, but also due to decreased snow coverage according to the predicted climate trends for the coming years. This paper is based on the idea to address the crisis in the mountainous areas of Greece, and ski destinations in particular, by an all-year model of operation that could alleviate seasonality (at least in part) and yield important social and financial benefits for the local communities. Our thesis is motivated by successful summer-tourism practices of ski centers around the world. Are Greek people actually willing to visit ski destinations after the short ski season, and if so what are their preferences on possible activities, services and facilities in ski centers (assuming they would operate all year long)? To answer such questions, we created a self-administered, web-based questionnaire that was circulated to the public via e-mail and social media for a period of one month. About 460 people, most of them fans of the Greek mountains, completed the questionnaire. We present and discuss data collected and analyzed, focusing on the participants' preferences on possible activities, services and organizational aspects of mountain tourism during summertime.

Keywords Visitor preferences • Summer mountain tourism • Ski centers • Greece

1 Introduction

Almost 78 % of Greece is mountainous (Nordregio, 2004, p. 29). According to Nezis (2010), Greece has 413 mountains above 1,000 m; notably, 53 of them are over 2,000 m, while 138 are between 2,000 and 1,500 m. Most of these areas face numerous socioeconomic problems such as isolation, abandonment, population

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ageing, poverty, and marginally profitable agricultural activities due to their small scale and the hard climate conditions during winter (Michailidou & Rokos, 2011).

The mountains of Greece offer uniquely beautiful landscapes, rich culture and warm hospitality. However, the respective touristic offerings are unstructured and fragmented. Moreover, these areas are vastly underrepresented if not completely missing in almost all national marketing campaigns, especially the ones targeting foreign tourists. To make matters worse, local wintertime tourism, which has traditionally been a strong pillar for the economies of mountainous areas, could decrease significantly in the future, due to high unemployment, dropping salaries and rising fuel prices. Another, probably even more important factor that could impact winter tourism in the longer term, even in the absence of the current economic crisis, is the decrease in snow coverage according to the predicted climate trends for the coming years. As previous work mentions: “In the long run, ‘world-wide’, ski visitor numbers are projected to decline due to decreasing overall snow depths and annual real ticket price changes are inevitable to keep skiing operations profitable” (Damm, Köberl, & Prettenthaler, 2014, p. 8). But note that, in the case of Greece, an increase in the ski-pass price, which is already quite significant compared to the average family income, may reduce the number visitors even further.

One way to increase the number of people who visit mountainous areas is to creatively exploit the nearby ski centers, by extending their scope of operation beyond the “usual” skiing season, also during summertime. An all-year business model could alleviate seasonality (at least in part) and yield important social and financial benefits for the local communities. Unfortunately, while this approach is common practice for ski centers around the world, it is a rare phenomenon for the Greek landscape. As discussed in (Dologlou 2013), a radical change in attitude is required, including smooth cooperation between the respective public and private stakeholders, education that promotes physical activities and the enjoyment of nature, development of non-wintertime leisure/sport activities and services, clear and suitable legal frameworks, and promotion of mountain tourism abroad.

In this paper, we investigate the operation of Greek ski centers during the summer season based on data collected via an anonymous questionnaire that was published on the web and disseminated through social media, and was completed by 459 people on a voluntary basis. We start by reviewing previous research and surveys related to mountain visitors and ski centers around the world, emphasizing the possible impact of climate change on ski centers. Then, we describe the research methodology followed by a descriptive data and variables analysis. Finally, we discuss our main findings and their possible implementations, and conclude the paper.

2 Literature Review

Greece has around 20 small ski centers in different areas of the country. It is not by chance that the major ones (Parnassos and Kalavrita) are located near Athens, where about 35 % of the Greek population lives (Hellenic Statistical Authority 2013, data for 2011). Some ski centers did not operate at all during this winter, while many others face operational, financial and/or bureaucratic problems. Notably, there is no single ski center that operates regularly beyond the (very) short Greek skiing season.

“Mountain areas are second only to coasts and islands as popular tourism destinations, generating 15–20 % of annual global tourism” (UNEP, 2007, p. 11). Several ski destinations around the world are identified as leisure and tourism destinations beyond the skiing season, offering a diversified touristic product comparable to this of more general-purpose mountain tourism. According to Cockerell (1994) “diversifying and developing year-round facilities and activities could be the single most important move by mountain resort operators and other suppliers to help ensure that mountain tourism flourishes” (p. 34). The areas that typically offer the most extensive accommodation and leisure ecosystem, and hence are the main beneficiaries of such an approach, are the ones closest to ski destinations. However, these benefits also come at the price of abandoning traditional activities. For instance, research conducted for the central Spanish Pyrenees (Lasanta, Laguna, & Vicente-Serrano, 2007, p. 1326) shows that those municipalities nearest to ski centers “show positive demographic changes and a negative evolution of primary activities. The municipalities more distant from the ski resorts show the opposite pattern”. In Greece, similar demographic trend can be seen in some ski destinations, due to winter tourism. Unfortunately, the negative evolution of primary activities does not only occur in ski destinations, but is a general pattern of Greek mountainous areas.

In a recent study, Dologlou (2013) provides an overview of the most popular all-year-round nature-based recreation activities and services, which are offered in ski centers around the world, e.g.,: hiking; trekking; climbing; canyoning; mountain biking; chairlifts and elevators for scenery view; water sports and activities in nearby lakes/river; mini-golf; golf; disc golf; wine tasting and gastronomy; conferences/seminars; concerts and festivals; museums; special activities for kids/families; athletic and kids camps; parachuting; bungee jumping; indoor and outdoor water parks; tennis; football; volleyball; horse riding; paintball; archery; adventure and thematic parks; climbing walls; tubes, star observation; wild life observation; spas. The list goes on, and is getting longer. New innovative leisure and sport activities and services full of creativity are being developed in order to attract new visitors and to compete in the market of mountain tourism.

According to Ski Area Management research (SAM, 2011, pp. 46–47) in 100 ski centers of North America, 44 % operate all year long. Mountain bike is the most popular activity during summer (61 %), while ¼ of the ski centers reported increased revenues of at least 20 % due to summertime operation. Another study

on US ski resorts (Arseneault, 2014) shows that during the summer of 2012 there was an average of 48,000 visitors per ski center, with 30 % of visitors using the ski chairlifts just to have a relaxing ride and enjoy the scenery. An earlier study reports that many alpine ski centers worldwide have at least one chairlift operating in the summer, and that some ski centers accept more than 2,50,000 visitors each summer (Needham, Wood, & Rollins, 2004). In the Alps, for 65 % of visitors, hiking is the main leisure activity during summer (Virgil, 2008).

It was quite interesting to see a recent presentation of Switzerland Tourism, an organization financed by the Swiss government, where the Swiss summer is, quite humorously, characterized as unadventurous, unsexy and unprofitable. This, due to the 12.3 % drop of summer mountain tourism in 2012 (Nydegger 2014). But note that this criticism comes while the country had around 20 million overnight stays in its mountainous zone during summer (Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC), 2012). Obviously, for Switzerland Tourism, it is not enough to sit down and hope for better days to come by themselves; instead, they aim to re-invent summer tourism through a national plan that results in an even more attractive offering for the global mountain tourism market.

Another major player in summer mountain tourism, Austria, shows surprising findings: an almost equal distribution of overnight stays per month for foreign visitors during summer and winter holidays (Preslmair, 2012). This reflects the high reputation of Austria as a summer tourism destination, as well as the trend of visitors who are willing to spend their holidays in the mountains. In fact, Austria is a more popular touristic destination, ranked in the 5th overall place among EU-28 countries; while the strongly sea-summer oriented model of Greece yields just a 7th place (EUROSTAT, 2012).

Specific studies have been conducted on the preferences of ski centers visitors in the summer (Needham et al., 2011; Needham & Rollins, 2005), some of which also investigate the visitor's sensitivity with respect to environmental issues (Kelly & Williams, 2007; Needham & Little, 2013). There are also surveys on specific subjects and/or areas, e.g., surveys in Switzerland and Spain that assess the importance of mobile (smartphone) applications for mountain destinations and ski centers (Grèzes, Crettol, Sarrasin, Zumstein, & Perruchoud, 2013; Peñarroya, 2014). In general we agree with Keller (2012) that "mountain tourism research is too local and not enough international" (p. 28).

Scott and Steiger (2013) explores the sensitivity of the ski industry with respect to the climate change over the last three decades. The US National Ski Areas Association (NSAA) produces the annual "sustainable slopes" reports, which among other environmental issues encourage ski areas to participate to the «Climate Challenge» program designed to give technical support and recognition to the ski areas that reduce their carbon footprint (NSAA 2013). Due to climate change "there is a slow realisation that attention needs to be given to increasing tourism in the summer months if these seasonal alpine destinations are to survive" (Thomas, Triandos, & Russell, 2005, p. 5). Similar, Scott and McBoyle (2007) study the adaptation strategies for the climate change that are followed by ski industry operators and stakeholders, mentioning four-season operation as one of the options

that can amortize their expensive facilities, boost personnel employment and support financial and social local communities. According to the European Center for Climate Adaptation Tourism Austria report, winter skiing tourism will drop in the near future (2030), especially in ski centers below 1,500 m. But the climate change is not just bad news for these areas. As mentioned in the 5th report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2014), “tourism in mountainous areas may benefit from improved climatic conditions in summer” (p. 16), as higher temperatures will, for example in Alps, increase summer tourism duration and attractiveness.

The European Center for Climate Adaptation, Tourism Greece report, states that Greece will be one of the losers from climate change, given the high ratio of international tourists and the high proportion (20 %) of employment from tourism. If the predictions turn out to be true, in the near future, the Greek sea-summer tourism will most likely decrease: high summer temperatures will discourage a large number of tourists from aboard to visit the Greek coasts and islands. On the other hand, as noted above, this could be a good opportunity to develop Greece’s mountain tourism. Comfortable temperatures, beautiful landscapes and unique traditional villages (e.g., the region of Epirus alone, has 82 villages officially characterized as traditional) can provide for an attractive package. Moreover, Greece has a unique feature: despite its strongly mountainous character, no single village in the country is more than 137 km away from the sea (Heinrichs, 2002), thus making it perfectly possible to combine mountain tours with a dip in blue waters.

One problem that researchers face is the lack of significant statistical data (e.g., overnight stays for mountainous accommodation per month, customer flow for companies offering mountainous activities, etc.) for mountainous tourism in Greece, winter or summer. In the recent past, efforts were made to investigate the behaviour of Greece’s ski areas visitors, but the few published studies focus on the skiing tourism sector. Christopoulou and Papadopoulos (2001) conducted a questionnaire-based survey to evaluate winter mountain tourism demand in Pertouli ski center and the surrounding communities. Another survey, which included a sample of Greek skiers (N: 301) in 3–5 Pigadia ski center investigates constraints on recreational skiing participation (Avourdiadou, Alexandris, & Kouthouris, 2007). Research in 11 Greek ski centers based on questionnaires (N: 499) concluded that visitors most value easy access to the ski destination and the price of lifts and lunch (Siomkos, Vassiliadis, & Lathiras, 2006). Again, using questionnaires (N: 1760), Vassiliadis, Priporas, and Andronikidis (2013) analyzed visitor behaviour in 13 ski centers of Greece, structuring activities in different time blocks of the day. A research on the constraints of visitor’s leisure activities in two Greek ski centers (N: 225) was conducted by Andronikidis, Vassiliadis, Priporas, and Kamenidou (2006). Findings show that, in order to maintain or to increase the number of visitors, marketing plans must consider the specific characteristics of different visitor types. The research study of Zampetaki (2012) on the development strategies of ski centers in Greece leads to similar conclusions. Karasoulas (2012) studies hedonic pricing for the Parnassos ski center using questionnaires (N: 690). The results provide an indication of the characteristics valued by visitors and how much

they are willing to pay for a lift ticket. “Moreover, the quality of accommodation services in the surrounding area variable was also proved important” (p. 88). Tsiotsou (2006) investigates, using a questionnaire survey in two ski centers (N: 191), the degree to which ski experience, overall satisfaction and income play a role for weekly vs. monthly visitors.

Data related to mountain tourism (but not specifically for the skiing sector) can also be found in studies that focus on ecotourism and alternative forms of tourism (Anastasiou & Alexiou, 2001; Aptoglou, 2007; Lampropoulos, 2005; Liakara, 2010; Papadimitriou & Gibson, 2008; Svoronou, 2003). In addition, studies on Greek mountain tourism in general (Dologlou, 2008) or specific mountainous areas (Gouriotis, 2007; Theocharopoulos & Matthopoulos, 2012) are useful in order to obtain a wider picture for the condition, problems and prospects of tourism in the mountainous areas of Greece.

Notably, some of the above studies could be outdated given that the economic situation of Greek travelers has deteriorated significantly in the last years. However, for the time being and as long as mountains remain in the shadows of the classic “sun-and-sea” campaigns of Greece abroad, the prospects of summertime tourism in areas nearby ski centers is strongly coupled to the attitude, habits, preferences and financial capability of domestic travelers. This begs the question: Are Greeks currently willing to visit their own mountains and ski centers during summer, and if so, what are their expectations in terms of leisure activities and services? This paper is a first attempt to provide an answer to this question.

3 Methodology

After a bibliographical research on questionnaire construction, we decided to follow the steps proposed by Dawson (2007). We created a self-administered, web-based questionnaire consisting of 29 questions. The first five questions were demographic (age, gender, marital status, residential area, income range). A priori segmentation was used to divide prospective summer ski centers visitors into different homogeneous groups with respect to age, gender, marital status, range of income, type of residential area. A priori segmentation was also used in visitors’ intentions regarding mountain tourism and their preferences in services, in order to identify tourists with a similar profile. A series of seven questions investigated the criteria of visitors for choosing a mountainous area as their destination. The rest of the questions were focused on visitors’ preferences regarding the activities and services and desirable facilities that could be offered by the ski centers in Greece, assuming these would operate during summer. Most of the questions were closed-ended, while a few were both close- and open-ended. In 16 questions we used a 5-point Likert scale to let respondents specify the perceived level of importance of a specific statement.

We did a first pilot evaluation of the questionnaire by distributing it to selected persons with different occupations, living standards, interests and attitude to

outdoor/mountain activities. Their comments and queries were considered to perform corrections and adjustments, and the questionnaire was piloted for a second time. We also created a teaser-document explaining the purpose of our research, which accompanied the questionnaire on the web. A link to the questionnaire was distributed to the public via e-mail and social media, and the questionnaire remained online for a period of one month, during 2013 May.

Finally, a statistical analysis was performed on the questionnaire data. Results are expressed as mean, standard deviation (SD) or 95 % confidence interval (95 % CI). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to analyse the normal distribution of the variables ($p > 0.05$). Quantitative data without a normal distribution were analysed with non-parametric tests, while data with a normal distribution were analysed with parametric tests. The statistical analysis was conducted at 95 % confidence level. A p value less than 0.05 was considered as statistically significant. In cases where the homogeneity control was statistically significant, non-parametric criteria were used.

4 Results

A total of 459 completed questionnaires were collected. Although the questionnaire was circulated randomly, most participants turned out to be mountain fans. This can be inferred from answers to specific questions, e.g., when asked “Do you have the intention to do summer tourism in mountainous areas of Greece in the future?”, 79 % replied affirmatively. We suspect that this ratio is overly positive with respect to the attitude/behavior of the typical Greek citizen. But having a balanced sample is a usually issue to web surveys, e.g., as Couper (2000) states “there is no way to determine whether one’s sample is representative”. It is reasonable to assume that some people who received the questionnaire but were not interested in summer mountain tourism, simply decided not to complete it, whereas people who strongly related to mountain tourism not only completed the questionnaire but also forwarded it to friends and colleagues with similar interests. This is “common in internet designs because participants who respond may be especially motivated or interested in the research topic, exacerbating the problem of sample representativeness” (Matsuo, McIntyre, Tomazic, & Katz, 2004, p. 3998). Notably, this holds at least in part also for surveys that are conducted by telephone, mail or interviews, where some people not interested to the subject are more likely to refuse participation.

Sample Demographics

Table 1 describes the demographics of our survey. Most participants were 30–45 years old (52 %), followed by the age group 19–29 years (28 %). The majority of participants were males (64 %) and most participants were singles (61 %). The 72 % lives in a city, while 12 % in a coastal region. Only 6 % lives in mountainous

Table 1 Demographics

Variable code	Variable label	Variable values	Number of responses	Percentage
T1V1	Age	<18 y/o	5	1 %
		19–29 y/o	130	28 %
		30–45 y/o	240	52 %
		45–64 y/o	77	17 %
		>65 y/o	7	2 %
T1V2	Gender	Male	292	64 %
		Female	167	36 %
T1V3	Family status	Single	257	61 %
		Married/no kids	35	8 %
		Married + 1 kid <12 y/o	32	8 %
		Married + 2 kids <12 y/o	41	10 %
		Married + 3 or more kids (at least one kid <12 y/o)	17	4 %
		Married + all kids >12 y/o	39	9 %
T1V4	Residential area	Mountain	27	6 %
		Semi-mountain	26	6 %
		Lowland	21	5 %
		Urban	330	72 %
		Coastal	55	12 %
T1V5	Monthly income	0–500 €	127	28 %
		501–900 €	97	21 %
		901–1,300 €	151	33 %
		1,301–2,500 €	65	14 %
		>2,501 €	19	4 %

areas and another 6 % in semi-mountainous areas. Income reflected a wide range, however only 4 % earned more than 2,500€ per month.

Summer in the Mountains?

Table 2 describes the intentions related to mountains as summer destinations. Over 34 % of the participants visit mountainous areas during winter time almost every weekend, while in the summer 28 % spend more than 8 days in the mountains. Most participants intend to visit mountainous areas during summer in the future (79 %). The 27 % relate summer with the sea, whereas for 17 % economical reasons prevent summer visits to mountainous areas. Getting in contact with nature (28 %), calmness and cool temperature (26 %) and sport activities (17 %) are the main reasons to visit mountainous areas during summer (Fig. 1). In terms of favorite actual or prospective activity, the most popular is hiking (27 %), followed by climbing (15 %), mountain biking (14 %), camping (14 %) and rafting/kayak (13 %); note that participants were free to select more than one activity. The 68 % of participants prefers to visit ski centers and surrounding areas during spring or autumn rather than summertime.

Table 2 Intention to visit mountains in the summer

Variable code	Variable label	Variable values	Number of responses	Percentage
T2V6	Actual number of winter trips in mountainous areas	None	33	7 %
		1–2 times	94	20 %
		3–5 times	82	18 %
		6–8 times	92	20 %
		Almost every weekend	158	34 %
T2V7	Actual number of summer trips in mountainous areas	None	71	15 %
		1–2 days	107	23 %
		3–5 days	96	21 %
		6–8 days	55	12 %
		>8 days	130	28 %
T2V8	Intention to visit mountainous areas during summer in the future	Yes	364	79 %
		No	95	21 %
T2V9	During summer I am more likely to:	Spend my vacation in my summer house (or friendly house) by the sea	59	14 %
		Spend my vacation in my summer house (or friendly house) in the mountains	30	7 %
		Spend my entire vacation by the sea	66	15 %
		Spend my entire vacation in the mountains	18	4 %
		Spend most of my vacation time mainly by the sea, and less in the mountains	107	25 %
		Spend most of my vacation time mainly in the mountains, and less by the sea	43	10 %
		Spend my vacation abroad	5	1 %
		Stay at home	16	4 %
		Combination of the above	77	18 %
		Other	11	3 %
T2V10	Reasons that prevent me from visiting the mountains more often in summer	Lack of time	66	11 %
		Economical reasons	100	17 %
		Lack of transport	15	3 %
		I don't want to, I prefer to go elsewhere	25	4 %

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Variable code	Variable label	Variable values	Number of responses	Percentage
		Lack of company	68	12 %
		Unsatisfactory organization of activities	79	14 %
		Family reasons	23	4 %
		I relate summer with the sea	156	27 %
		Other	47	8 %
T2V11	Reasons to visit mountains during summer	Contact with nature	279	28 %
		Cultural reasons (museum, traditional architecture, festivals etc)	66	7 %
		Sport activities	174	17 %
		Calmness and cool temperature	262	26 %
		Because I am from a mountainous area (or/and have a house there)	95	9 %
		Because my friends go	30	3 %
		Traditional gastronomy and quality of accommodation facilities	58	6 %
		professional conference/ seminar	34	3 %
		Other	11	1 %
T2V12	Which activities do you (wish) to practice during a summer visit to a mountainous area? (multiple replies option)	I m not doing any activity	13	1 %
		Hiking	309	27 %
		Mountain biking	168	14 %
		Rafting/kayak	155	13 %
		Health spa	85	7 %
		Museum visits	69	6 %
		Climbing	172	15 %
		Summer camps	160	14 %
		Other	28	2 %
T2V29	It is more likely to spend my holidays in the mountains in autumn or spring, rather in summer	Strongly disagree	18	4 %
		Disagree	30	7 %
		Neither agree nor disagree	84	20 %
		Agree	129	30 %
		Strongly agree	162	38 %

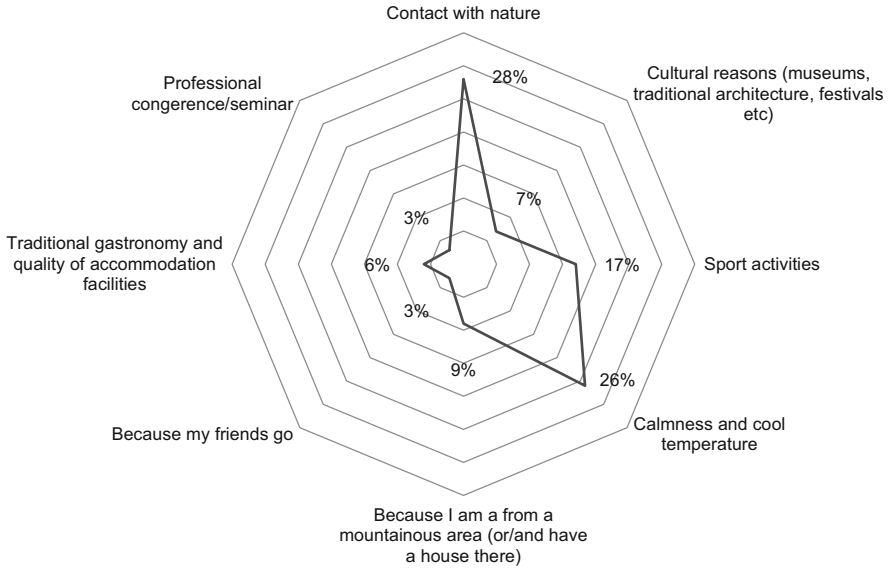


Fig. 1 Reasons to visit mountains during summer

Criteria for Choosing a Mountainous Destination During Summer

Table 3 describes the criteria for choosing a mountainous destination during summer. Cost is very important (32 %) or important (31 %) in order to decide which mountainous area to visit. The distance is a important (24 %) or moderately important (34 %) criterion when choosing a mountainous destination. It seems that participants do not strongly consider the organised activities offered in the mountainous areas to make their pick. The exploration of mountains is important for the 26 % and of moderate importance for the 25 %; in fact, many participants (35 %) do not wish to visit the same area several times. For 17 % of the participants quality of accommodation facilities and services in the surrounding area is very important, important for the 30 %, and of moderate importance for 31 % (Fig. 2). Over 53 % have a strong opinion when choosing mountainous destination, and do not simply follow their friends without making their own research. Internet-based research (e.g., general research, directly from a predetermined site, social media) is the major source of information when planning a trip (71 %), followed by the traditional mouth to mouth approach (18 %).

Preferences on Potential Leisure Activities, Services and Facilities in Ski Centers

Table 4 describes the participants’ preferences on potential summer leisure activities, services and facilities in ski centers. The prospect that ski centers have outdoor athletic facilities is almost equally divided in our sample in terms of importance. However, elementary chalet services (e.g., coffee/snack bar, small market) during summer are very important for the 32 % or important for the 31 % of participants.

Table 3 Criteria for choosing a summer mountainous destinations

Variable code	Variable label	Variable values	Number of responses	Percentage
T3V13	Cost	Unimportant	26	6 %
		Of little importance	38	9 %
		Moderately important	93	22 %
		Important	130	31 %
		Very important	134	32 %
T3V14	Distance	Unimportant	34	8 %
		Of little importance	69	16 %
		Moderately important	145	34 %
		Important	102	24 %
		Very important	71	17 %
T3V15	Organized activities offered	Unimportant	83	20 %
		Of little importance	66	16 %
		Moderately important	95	23 %
		Important	95	23 %
		Very important	81	19 %
T3V16	Every time I visit a different mountain destination to explore my country	Strongly disagree	41	10 %
		Disagree	74	18 %
		Neither agree nor disagree	104	25 %
		Agree	111	26 %
		Strongly agree	92	22 %
T3V17	I am always going to the same mountainous destination	Strongly disagree	149	35 %
		Disagree	111	26 %
		Neither agree nor disagree	86	20 %
		Agree	52	12 %
		Strongly agree	22	5 %
T3V18	Quality of accommodation facilities and services	Unimportant	47	11 %
		Of little importance	47	11 %
		Moderately important	129	31 %
		Important	124	30 %
		Very important	73	17 %
T3V19	I am going where my friends go	Strongly disagree	225	53 %
		Disagree	79	19 %
		Neither agree nor disagree	81	19 %
		Agree	20	5 %
		Strongly agree	16	4 %
T3V20	Most important source of information for planning such a trip	Books, leaflets and travel guides	41	10 %
		Travel agent	2	0 %
		Mouth to mouth	75	18 %

(continued)

Table 3 (continued)

Variable code	Variable label	Variable values	Number of responses	Percentage
		General Internet research	218	52 %
		Social media	21	5 %
		e-travel agent	3	1 %
		Directly from a predetermined site (e.g., of accommodation)	54	13 %
		Other	9	2 %

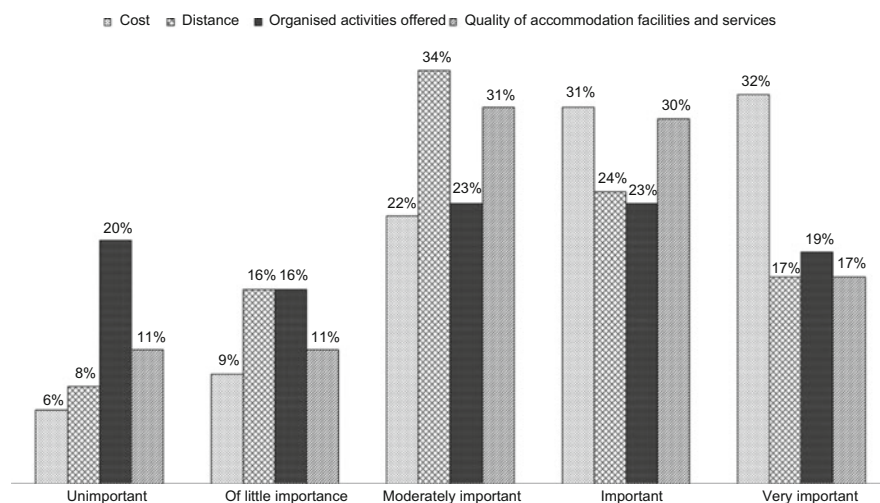


Fig. 2 Importance of different criteria for choosing a mountain destination during summer

The prospect that ski centers organize concerts, cultural, sport or thematic events is considered very important for 37 % and important for 29 %. Chairlift operation during summer is also important (33 % very important; 28 % important). Participants considered very important (46 %) and important (21 %) for ski centers to have kids-friendly outdoor facilities. The support of camping by the local chalet during summer is very important (37 %) or important (31 %), while 53 % consider that it is very important to have an information tourist office for the surrounding area operating in the chalet. Over 57 % of participants find it very important or important (26 %) to have the option to follow organized activities such as guided trekking.

Table 4 Preferences on potential summer activities, services and infrastructures in ski centers

Variable code	Variable label	Variable values	Number of responses	Percentage
T4V21	Outdoor sport facilities (e.g., football court)	Unimportant	69	16 %
		Of little importance	73	17 %
		Moderately important	102	24 %
		Important	87	21 %
		Very important	89	21 %
T4V22	Elementary chalet services (e.g., coffee/snack bar)	Unimportant	28	7 %
		Of little importance	48	11 %
		Moderately important	81	19 %
		Important	129	31 %
		Very important	134	32 %
T4V23	Organization of concerts, cultural, sports, thematic events	Unimportant	39	9 %
		Of little importance	34	8 %
		Moderately important	68	16 %
		Important	121	29 %
		Very important	157	37 %
T4V24	Chair lift operation	Unimportant	52	12 %
		Of little importance	43	10 %
		Moderately important	70	17 %
		Important	116	28 %
		Very important	139	33 %
T4V25	Kids-friendly outdoor facilities	Unimportant	36	9 %
		Of little importance	34	8 %
		Moderately important	66	16 %
		Important	90	21 %
		Very important	193	46 %

(continued)

Table 4 (continued)

Variable code	Variable label	Variable values	Number of responses	Percentage
T4V26	Chalet supports camping activity (e.g., kids or sport camps)	Unimportant	23	6 %
		Of little importance	28	7 %
		Moderately important	79	19 %
		Important	131	31 %
		Very important	155	37 %
T4V27	Information tourism office for the area available in the chalet	Unimportant	11	3 %
		Of little importance	9	2 %
		Moderately important	64	15 %
		Important	112	27 %
		Very important	220	53 %
T4V28	Support for organized activities (e.g., trekking with a mountain guide)	Unimportant	11	3 %
		Of little importance	11	3 %
		Moderately important	47	11 %
		Important	110	26 %
		Very important	239	57 %

Variables Analysis

The variables used in our analysis are defined in Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4. Our analysis is primarily based on variable T2V7, labeled «actual number of summer trips in mountainous areas», in relation to other variables. Some selected results are as follows. T2V7 presents a statistically significant difference in relation to T2V6 ($H(4) = 173.3, p = 0.000$), showing that participants who frequently visit mountains during the winter, also do this during the summer. Also, T2V7 presents a statistically significant difference in relation to T2V12 ($F(8, 389) = 3.037, p = 0.003$), allowing us to infer that the participants who visit mountain more frequently during summer prefer to hike. Furthermore, T2V7 presents a statistically significant difference in relation to T3V15 ($F(4, 419) = 4.214, p = 0.002$), as well as in relation to T3V18 ($F(4, 419) = 7.431, p = 0.000$). Those who frequently visit mountains during summer do not seem to place a lot of value in the organized activities being offered, and do not care very much about the quality of accommodation facilities and services in the destination area. Finally, T2V7 presents a statistically significant difference in relation to T3V24 ($F(4, 419) = 3.412,$

$p = 0.009$). Chairlift operation during summer is important to those who do not visit mountains at that period, but intent to do so in the future; it is also important to those who visit mountains more frequently.

Other variables were also analysed. For instance, variables T4V22 ($H(5) = 15.567, p = 0.008$), T4V25 ($H(5) = 55.288, p = 0.000$) and T4V26 ($H(5) = 29.550, p = 0.000$) present a statistically significant difference in relation to «family status» (T1V3). Participants with one kid under 12 years old consider as important the existence of elementary chalet services (coffee/snack bar), kids-friendly outdoor facilities and the option that chalets support camping activity (kids' or sports 'camps'). Participants who are single consider the existence of elementary chalet services and the kids-friendly outdoor facilities less important.

5 Discussion

The monthly income of participants reflects the difficult economic condition of our country. But, while winter ski tourism is an expensive leisure and sport activity, mountain summer tourism can in principle target less affluent visitors. This said, it is important to note that as summer ski destinations are getting popular, facilities and services are updated and enhanced, which in turn drives up prices. According to Ski Areas of New York (SANY 2013) “summer visitors were estimated to spend 80 % of what winter visitors spend on a per person per day basis” (p. 19). However, Greeks have related summer with the sea, and this is the main reason they do not visit mountains more often (27 %); economical reasons accounts for the 17 %. Nevertheless, they are more likely to spend their holidays in the mountains in autumns or spring (38 % strongly agree, 30 % agree), so any future plan regarding an off-ski operation of ski centers should strongly focus on autumn and spring time.

The beautiful scenery and contact with nature is the main reason for Greek people to visit mountains during summer. Similar findings have been reported for other ski regions in the world, like the Whistler ski center in Canada (Needham et al., 2011) or in the Kosciuszko alpine area in Australia in (Johnston & Growcock, 2005). This is actually the case as well for visitor's motivations regarding alternative tourism in Greece (Liakara, 2010). Similarly, as reported by Needham et al. (2004) “Since most respondents visited this area to view the scenery and to hike or mountain bike, it may be wise to market the natural setting more than the contrived amenities and tours” (p. 241). Thus, this aspect must be seriously considered in every future plan; importantly, this also implies that environmental protection ought to be a priority for ski centers.

Hiking is the preferred actual or prospective activity of participants (27 %), following the general international trends. It is also the most preferred activity for those visiting mountains in the summer more frequently. But, according variables analysis, when choosing a mountainous destination, this group does not consider the organized activities offered or quality of accommodation facilities and services

in the surrounding area. That can be explained as “Mountaineers accept lower comfort levels e.g., huts, as compared to their every day’s life, as part of a back to the roots experience” (Muhar, Schauppenlehner, Brandenburg, & Arnberger, 2007, p. 7). In addition, those visiting currently mountains in summertime frequently do not care for ski center services/facilities, except the chairlift operation. So, those who currently visit mountains several times during summer (e.g., hikers) are not the best clientele for ski centers’ four season operation.

As previously mentioned, chairlift operation is the only potential service/facility of ski centers that matters to those participants who visit mountains during summer frequently. Probably, this preference can be explained, for instance, as hikers prefer to get a lift so that they can get away from the crowd and manmade constructions as soon as possible, so that they can then start their ascent to the mountain top in peace. It can also be explained for mountain bikers who typically wish to enjoy a good downhill descent, without the burden of an exhaustive ride to the top. On the other hand, chairlift operation is also significant for those participants who do not visit mountains during summer at all, but intend to. Apparently, this group of potential visitors has never ridden a chairlift before and want to experience its first scenic chair ride, or simply because they are primarily interested in a casual way of exploring the mountainside rather than going through a physical exercise.

Frequent mountain visitors in summertime are mainly explorers who do not visit regularly the same destinations, as opposed to skiers. For example, in his survey Karsoulas (2012) estimates that around 64 % of participants were frequent winter visitors of a specific ski center (Parnassos ski center). As mentioned, over 53 % of the participants have a strong opinion when choosing mountainous destination, and do not simply follow their friends without making their own research. And only 1 % of the participants used a travel agent (e-travel agent) to plan their trip. This also seems to be the case in Austria, where “most mountaineers and mountain hikers prefer to organize their tours individually (85 %)” (Muhar et al., 2007, p. 11). A rather expected finding of this survey is that the majority of participants use the Internet as the main source of information when planning a summer mountain trip. This is global trend: according to the TripBarometer online survey (TripAdvisor, 2013) travel planning is dominated by online resources. So, any plan to operate ski centers during all four seasons should actively seek Internet-based promotion; even more in Greece where most people could not imagine that such an operation is possible.

Finally, concerning the preferences on potential leisure and sport activities, services and facilities in ski centers, elementary chalet services, organization of concerts, cultural, sports or thematic events, chairlift operation, kids-friendly outdoor facilities, and chalets supporting camps, all seem to be important. According to the opinion of participants, it would also be desirable to have an information tourism office for the surrounding area in the chalet, and the option to participate to offered organized activities (e.g., guided trekking tours). On the contrary, participants had a lukewarm response for outdoor athletic facilities (for adults) in ski centers.

6 Implementations

The results discussed above can provide the managers of ski centers with a first overview on the perspectives of tourism in ski destinations beyond the winter period. Our findings can also inform organizations and companies that (plan to) offer mountain tourism activities and services inspiring them to develop a more attractive and suitable package.

Of course, this study by no means provides solid evidence on the financial viability of such endeavors. Each ski center or organizations active in mountain tourism needs to further investigate its own case, to determine whether there is a critical number of potential summer visitors for the area in question, and to collect more information about their preferences on summer activities and services. Clearly, each case may have widely different prospects due to its existing facilities and infrastructures, its accessibility (in terms of cost, distance and road conditions), and its particular natural/cultural assets, so it may attract different categories of visitors. Therefore, future studies analyzing variables in specific mountain destinations are recommended.

7 Limitations

According to the Nordregio Report, “in countries which are largely mountainous (e.g., Greece, Norway, Slovenia) mountain policy is effectively synonymous with general development policy” (2004, p. 148). Unfortunately, Greek national policies do not focus on mountainous areas; in fact, most existing strategies and policies dealing with mountainous areas in Greece are decided at European level, without any adaptation to their specific socioeconomic and natural reality (Dax, 2004; Rokos, 2004, 2007). As a consequence, only a few mountain tourism plans are developed; what’s probably worse, these tend to be fragmental and local, and are mostly pursued via short-lived initiatives, without having a governmental umbrella that can guarantee the required continuity.

Another characteristic of Greece is that most of its ski centers are operated by governmental agencies, and do not make profits every year (Avourdiadou et al., 2007). While profitability for its own sake is not necessarily a desirable objective, especially when this can negatively affect the environment, this also indicates a lack of motivation and vision. As Zampetaki (2012) mentions “the state-based business model applied to the majority of the ski centers in Greece has to be questioned”. It is also our opinion that a mentality change is desperately needed in order to develop a competitive mountain tourism sector in Greece.

We suggest that the best way to develop summer tourism in ski destinations areas in Greece is by targeting foreign visitors. But this is also the most difficult way, as mountain tourism worldwide in strongly local, while foreign visitors concentrate on a few top and very well-known summer mountain resorts (Keller,

2012). Also, there is a strong market competition among ski centers all over the world that operate during summer. This means that Greece must strive for differentiated offerings and services, by combining activities that can rarely be found elsewhere. As one such example, one can imagine a breathtaking bicycle course, taking you from the top of the mountain to the coast, then diving into the big blue and drying up under the sun on a secluded beach, enjoying traditional sea food by the sea, and then, head back to mountain's cool temperature and calm natural scenery for a relaxing night. What sounds almost like science-fiction, is indeed perfectly possible in many different places in Greece.

8 Conclusions

There has been little empirical research to the behavior of summer visitors and their experiences in ski destinations around the world. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first one conducted for the Greek landscape. The study was designed to determine the motivations and preferences of potential visitors on mountain tourism during summer in ski centers (which, in Greece, do not operate after the skiing season).

The discussion session of this paper summarized and comments the most important findings, which are useful not only for researchers and ski centers' managers, but all those related to mountain and alternative tourism. The five most important findings, in our opinion, are as follows: (i) future plans regarding an off-ski operation of ski centers should focus on autumn and spring rather than summertime; (ii) the current frequent mountain visitors during summer (e.g., hikers) are not the clientele for ski centers' off season development; (iii) environmental protection ought to be a priority for ski centers; (iv) infrastructures for all-season outdoor athletic activities (e.g., football court for adults) in ski centers are not very important, whereas kids-friendly outdoors facilities, elementary chalet services, chairlift operation, organization of cultural, sports and thematic events, information tourism office, support for camping and organized activities, are important and related to the family status of potential visitors; (v) any plan to operate ski center during all four seasons should actively seek Internet-based promotion.

Of course, every ski center and its surrounding area have different opportunities and limitations, but also different benefits and disadvantages concerning four-season tourism, which must be taken into consideration. A long term plan must be developed, in each case, as the economical crisis combined with the climate change prediction, if not addressed properly, will most likely drive Greek ski tourism industry probably to an end; in turn this will have a detrimental effect to the areas surrounding ski centers, as well as their corresponding mountainous communities. By understanding who are the prospective visitors and their motivations and preferences, a better strategic management and marketing plan can be developed.

Acknowledgements We are grateful to Professor Spyros Lalis for his assistance and useful comments to the final draft. Special thanks also to all the participants of the survey.

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Preferences and Behaviors of the Elder People Resting in Valuable Natural Areas

Jan Zawadka

Abstract The purpose of this paper is to introduce results of the research about preferences and behaviors of the elder people, resting in natural valuable areas. Thus, in the article the profile of an average senior, sightseeing valuable natural areas, was presented and such aspects like motives for choosing this form of tourism (as well as the particular offer), tourists' use of sources of information concerning accommodation, preferred ways of spending leisure time and expectations about diversification and improvement of the offer were discussed. Finally, the analysis of factors implicating surveyed tourists' behaviors and expectations (like level of education and financial status) was made.

The research with use of the polling technique was made in summer of 2013 and included 45 participants (tourists) in age of 55 or higher, resting in rural accommodation objects near Kampinos National Park.

Identification of preferences and behaviors of people resting in valuable natural areas is crucial to the improvement and adaptation of tourist accommodation offer to the level expected by particular market segments. Such research is also important for authorities of the local communities, as well as people planning touristic and recreational development in valuable natural areas. Previous research was rarely focused on particular age groups, what seems to be vital in such case, because youths, families with babies or seniors have completely different expectations regarding their holidays.

Keywords Rural tourism • Agritourism • The elderly • Seniors • Preferences and behaviors of tourists

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1 Introduction

Natural values, as well as valuable natural areas, have always been very popular among tourists. Whereas young people are rather interested in sightseeing, what allows them to learn more about the world, the elder people appreciate more peace, silence and nature's positive influence on rest's quality and efficiency, because—thanks to holidays in valuable natural areas—it's possible to achieve optimal mental and physical regeneration.

Therefore it's justified to claim that among different natural areas the best for peaceful rest would be surroundings of those legally protected ones.¹ Thus the laggings of the national parks, as well as peripheries of other parks and preserves very often fulfill receptive functions. It's worth to note that Poland has appreciable possibilities to develop such kind of tourism. The area of nature's conservation in this country is more than 10.1 million ha, what constitutes 32.5 % of Poland's territory. The most important form of nature's protection here is a national park—there are 23² of those, from which 9 was signed on the UNESCO's World Heritage List. Summary area of the national parks in Poland at the end of 2012 was 314.6 thousand ha (1 % of Poland's territory). Moreover, among the preserved objects and areas of special natural values are³:

- 1,481 nature reserves with summary area of 166 thousand ha,
- 122 natural landscape parks with summary area of 2,529 thousand ha,
- 385 landscape protection areas with summary area of 6,992 thousand ha,
- 7,521 other forms of nature's conservation (ecological arable lands, documentation sites and landscape-nature protected complexes) with summary area of 149 thousand ha.

Having considered the presented information it's possible to conclude, that in Poland tourism based on natural values has appreciable perspectives of further development. Moreover, this development would be certainly affected by process of ageing of the society in Poland and the entire European Union. The predictions point that number of people in post-working age and their share in whole society systematically raises—in Poland in 2007 it was 16 %, while in 2035 it will be 26.7 % (Ciura & Szymańczak, 2012). Therefore it's justified to say that those people will create crucial segment of the touristic market.

Preparation of the touristic product suitable for seniors requires detailed research among them, especially about their expectations towards touristic offer.

¹ Unrestricted entrance to many areas of nature's conservation in Poland is limited and sometimes even forbidden. However, sightseers and tourists may use many legal routes, paths and other ways of getting access to the valuable natural areas.

² Poland has accepted the definition of the national park created by International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN).

³ Environmental protection 2013. GUS, Warsaw 2013. Condition at the end of 2012.

2 Purposes and Methods

The purpose of this paper is to introduce results of the research about preferences and behaviors of the elder people, resting in natural valuable areas. Thus, in the article the profile of an average senior, sightseeing valuable natural areas, was presented and such aspects like motives for choosing this form of tourism (as well as the particular offer), tourists' use of sources of information concerning accommodation, preferred ways of spending leisure time and expectations about diversification and improvement of the offer were discussed. Finally, the analysis of factors implicating surveyed tourists' behaviors and expectations (like level of education and financial status) was made.

The research with use of the polling technique was made in summer of 2013 and included 45 participants (tourists) in age of 55 or higher, resting in rural accommodation objects near Kampinos National Park.

3 Results of the Research

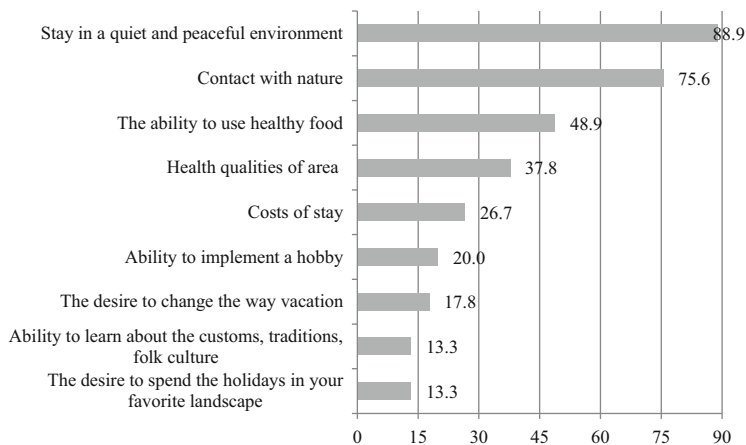
Tourists resting near Kampinoski National Park were in different age—while 71.1 % of the people were between 56 and 65, the rest of the surveyed (28.9 %) were 66 or more. Among the respondents were more women (62.2 %).

The main group of tourists resting in rural areas were people from cities, mostly big ones—75.6 % were from towns with more than 50 thousand inhabitants (including 44.1 % from cities with more than 200 thousand inhabitants), while only 15.6 % respondents were from the country.⁴

Most of the respondents (62.2 %) had higher education, while 33.3 % only finished secondary education. The rest of the surveyed tourists (4.5 %) had vocational education. 44.4 % of the respondents were collecting social provisions like pensions or Disability Living Allowances, while 24.4 % were collar workers and only 4.4 % manual workers. 20 % of the surveyed were freelancers or entrepreneurs and 15.5 % managers. Only one person declared himself as a farmer.

The next part of the respondents' characteristic is dedicated to their material status, evaluated by themselves. The surveyed mainly claimed that it is satisfactory (such answer was given by 53.3 % of them) or even good (28.9 %). However, 13.3 % judged it only as sufficient and 4.5 % as bad. No one answered that their material status is very good. The respondents also were asked to declare maximal amount of money they would be able to spend on a single leisure day in the country. 68.9 % of the surveyed claimed that they wouldn't spend more than 99 PLN (including 9.9 % below 50 PLN), while 31.1 % of them declared sum between 100 and 149 PLN.

⁴ Among respondents were mainly inhabitants of mazowieckie (62.2 %), małopolskie (13.3 %), kujawsko-pomorskie and podkarpackie (4.3 % each) provinces.



Scheme 1 Themes choice environs the Kampinos as a place of rest [%]. * Respondents could choose more than one answer. *Source:* own research

Mode of transport used to get to the holiday site was mainly a car (93.3 % of the respondents), only a few had used a bus (6.7 %).

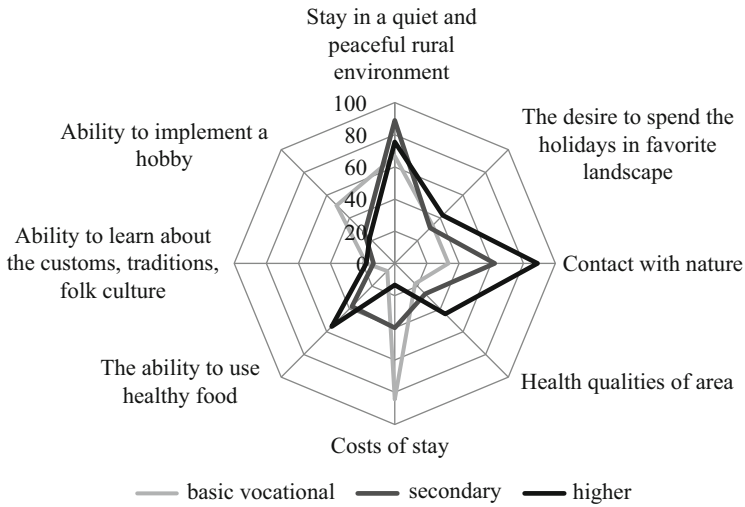
Rest in attractive natural area is highly desired by elder people. 70 % of the people in age over 55, who took place in research made by Research Corporation Pretenden, has declared will of spending their holidays near forest (Preferencje, 2011). To understand this phenomenon better the surveyed were asked about reasons of choosing Kampinos as a place for spending their leisure time. Information about collected opinions is presented on Scheme 1.

Possibility of resting in natural environment, contact with nature and wish to eat healthy food were the most popular reasons of choosing this type of tourism. Interesting dependencies may be noticed through the analysis of the motives of choosing rural areas as a place for holidays according to education level of the respondents (Scheme 2). As a reason of arrival to such areas people with higher education more often than the others were giving possibility of contact with nature (88.9 % of answers), eating healthy food (55.6 %) and health values of visited terrains (44.4 %).

Worse educated people as one of the reasons of choosing such holidays definitely more often claimed costs of the visit (84.4 % of the answers). This is closely connected with fact, that accommodation places they used were localized in the country—and that makes them economically attractive.

The respondents were also asked about motives of choosing particular accommodation places for their holidays. Among the answers dominated those referring to quality of facilities, region or settlement values, convenience of drive and positive experience from earlier visits (Scheme 3).

Better educated people among the respondents were giving more often answers referring to comfort of the visit—quality of facilities (almost 80 % of the answers) and possibility of alimentation (approx. 57 %). On the other hand worse educated



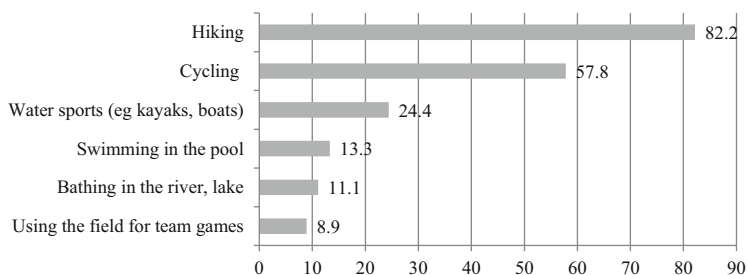
Scheme 2 Themes choice the place of rest, depending on the level of education of respondents [%]. *Source:* own research



Scheme 3 Themes to choose a specific accommodation facility as a place of rest [%]. * Respondents could choose more than one answer. *Source:* own research

were pointing out favorable price (64.7 % of the answers) instead of quality of facilities (only 23.5 %).

Promotion is a crucial issue in every kind of services (including tourism). Thus—due to its expensiveness—it would seem that single accommodation providers could find difficulties in organizing it properly. However, the results of the research indicate that the most popular source of information (51.1 % of the answers) used by respondents was the Internet, which is relatively cheap instrument of promotion. Also many of the surveyed claimed, that such source are friends’ recommendations (44.4 % of the respondents), much less popular were touristic exhibitions or fairs (8.9 %), TV and printed materials (4.4 % each).



Scheme 4 Outdoor activities preferred by respondents during the vacation in Kampinos areas [%]. * Respondents could choose more than one answer. *Source:* own research

The important role of the Internet and word of mouth marketing in promotion of the rural accommodation places is also confirmed by alternative researches made by author (Zawadka, 2010a, 2010b) and others, e.g. Krzyżanowska and Wojtkowski (2012); Stepaniuk (2010); Kolczatek and Jankowski (2006); Niedziółka (2008) or Prochorowicz (2006).⁵ It is important to stress the fact that quite expensive form of promotions, like participation in touristic exhibitions or printed materials (folders, catalogues and brochures) were only occasionally used by tourists.

Holidays near forest made good occasion for active rest in open air. Thus, the respondents were asked about its preferable forms. Information about that issue is presented on Scheme 4.

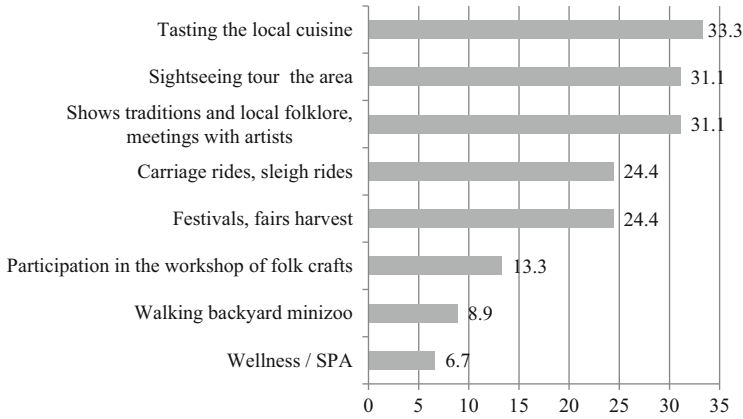
Because of their age, the surveyed preferred peaceful activity, like hiking or cycling tours. Some of them also pointed out Nordic Walking.

Respondents were also enquired about some additional attractions, expected during their holidays (Scheme 5).

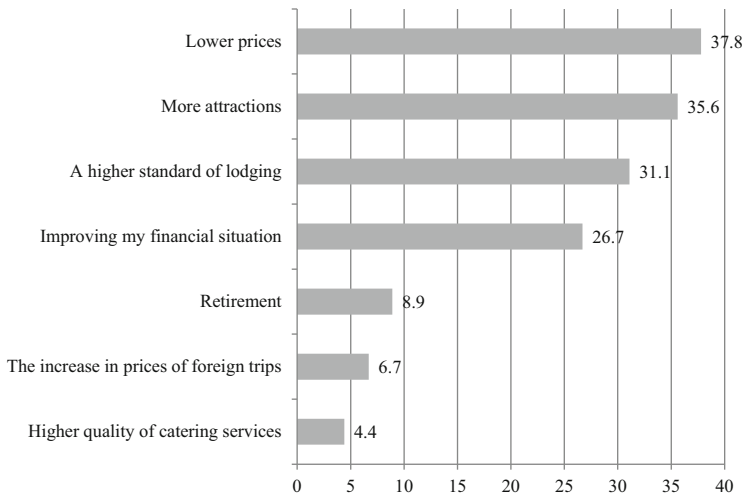
Tourist's answers are the evidence of their great interest in cultural aspect of visiting areas.

Respondents were also asked to share their opinions about possibilities of improvement of service quality, provided by the owners of visited accommodation places. The biggest part of the critics was connected with lacks in sport and recreation equipment and aesthetics of sanitation (30 % each). Moreover tourists have been noticing insufficient furnishing of bedroom or uncomfortable place to sleep (25 % of the respondents). Approx. 18 % of the surveyed pointed out necessity of enrichment and diversification of organization of the leisure time in farm, as well as limiting number of guests in a facility. There were also voices commenting insignificant knowledge of the owners about nearby values and touristic attractions.

⁵ Those researches were dedicated to promotion of the rural accommodation places—because surroundings of the Kampinoski National Park are included to the country and such accommodation objects were used by the surveyed, therefore results of those earlier researches may refer also to this poll.



Scheme 5 Attractions which would like to use the respondents [%]. * Respondents could choose more than one answer. *Source:* own research



Scheme 6 Determinants increase the frequency of vacation in valuable natural areas in the respondents' opinion [%]. * Respondents could choose more than one answer. *Source:* own research

Despite awareness of some deficiencies and limits connected with resting in rural areas 60 % of the respondents claimed similar further frequency of such organization of their leisure time and 22.2 % of them declared will of visiting country more often. To define fully that aspect, the respondents were enquired about factors, that would encourage them for more frequent resting in touristic farms (Scheme 6).

The most important among the answers were those about financial aspects (71.2 %) and increasing the number of touristic attractions (31.6 %). Better educated respondents mostly gave answers connected with improvement of quality of both accommodation places and gastronomic services.

4 Recapitulation and Conclusions

Visit and rest in valuable natural area like surroundings of the Kampinoski National Park was mainly preferred by educated inhabitants of big cities, who mostly self-evaluated their material status as pretty good. However, they were reluctant to spend significant amounts of money during holidays. Almost 69 % of the respondents didn't want to assign more than 99 PLN for single leisure day.

Tourists mainly had used a car to get to the accommodation places, what means their mobility and possibility of taking part in different attractions, not only next to the place of stay, but also in closer or farther surroundings. However, to do so tourists need to know about existence of such places—therefore it would be good to have chance of getting those information inside accommodation place.

The respondents used many sources of information while choosing location of their holidays. Except for the Internet, pointed out by more than 50 % of the surveyed, word of mouth marketing played a significant role, where relatives or friends were source of information about objects of rural tourism. It is also worth to notice, that other channels of information (and especially those connected with necessity of larger expenditures, like taking part in touristic exhibitions, folders and leaflets or commercial in press, radio and TV) were very rarely used by the tourists.

Possibility of peaceful rest in natural environment and contact with nature were two most popular motives of choosing holiday site near forest. Better educated people appreciated additionally possibility of eating healthy food and healthy values of such areas.

Among reasons of choosing particular accommodation place answers referring to quality of facilities, region or settlement values and convenience of drive were mainly given. Better educated people more often gave answers connected with comfort of stay, like quality of facilities and possibility of alimentation.

Among forms of the physical activity taken by the respondents during holidays mostly preferred were the ones, which don't cause excessive stress, e.g. hiking or cycling tours.

Holidays additional attractions expected by the surveyed were mainly connected with culture aspects of visiting areas, many answers also referred to the touring activity of the respondents.

Presented contents are only humble contribution to author's larger researches about touristic preferences and behaviors of the elder people. Awareness and indication of those aspects will allow adequate composition and specialization of the holiday offer, what should result in maximally satisfying demands for stay and leisure, realized through optimal match of the offer's range and quality of services

with defined segment of tourism. Given the rapidly growing number of the elder people and improvement of their health and material status, it's likely that in close future touristic offer will be focused on seniors. Their preferences and expectations are often quite different from those claimed by the other groups of society. Such research is also important for authorities of the local communities, as well as people planning touristic and recreational development in valuable natural areas. Therefore it seems reasonable to conduct further, larger and more detailed research in this subject.

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Interrelationships of Service Quality, Customer Satisfaction, Corporate Image and Customer Loyalty of Malaysian Hotel Industry

Boon Liat Cheng and Zabid Abdul Rashid

Abstract Hoteliers strive to win guests and subsequently retain them by trying to understand the factors that influence customer decision making toward hotel selection. Studies have found that there are several factors that might give hotel leverage over the rest in the industry, namely service quality, customer satisfaction, corporate image and customer loyalty. Hence, hotel operators need to be updated about the current and future trends of the ever-evolving hotel industry to effectively meet the demands and needs of highly sophisticated hotel guests. To have a competitive edge in the hotel industry, operators have to be innovative and creative in providing service elements that exceed the hotel guests' expectations; so that both of their perception of service quality and level of satisfaction would translate into a favourable corporate image and strengthen customer loyalty.

This research proposed a model to test the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction, and their impact on corporate image. This research also examines the mediating role of customer satisfaction on the relationship between service quality and corporate image; and how corporate image subsequently affects customer loyalty in the hotel industry in Malaysia. Systematic sampling approach was adopted in the study; with the data collected through self-administered questionnaire from 300 hotel guests. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was adopted to analyse the reliability of items and the hypothesised relationships in the proposed research model.

The findings revealed that perception of service quality is significantly related to customer satisfaction; and both service quality and customer satisfaction have significant impacts on corporate image. Besides, customer satisfaction is found to be a partial mediator on the relationship between service quality and corporate

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image. In addition, corporate image has a significance direct influence on customer loyalty customer loyalty in the hotel industry.

Overall, the findings of this research contribute to several fields of study relating to the objectives. In terms of theoretical contribution, this research seeks to underpin the development of the marketing management theory and service quality strategies in the hotel industry in Malaysia. For managerial contribution, this research will determine aspects of hotel services which are important to customers, and to suggest ways to improve the hotel service quality, customer satisfaction, corporate image and customer loyalty. At the same time, to address practical implications by recommending relevant and effective micro-marketing strategies for the hotel industry in Malaysia. The knowledge and input are essential for hotel operators to boost long term business growth and sustainability in the hotel industry in Malaysia.

In spite of the noteworthy findings revealed by this study, there were certain limitations. The current studies did not examine other variables such as perceived values and employee performance that may influence corporate image and customer loyalty. Future studies should include these variables to obtain more comprehensive findings. Besides, the use of close-ended questions in the questionnaire may limit the respondents to reflect their real opinions and perceptions. For this reason, later studies should use open-ended questions to better access their feelings on the issues.

Keywords Service quality • Customer satisfaction corporate image • Customer loyalty • Hotel industry

Egyptian Tourism with the Expected Water Scarcity Crisis

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Abstract Water stewardship, water stress and availability have become increasingly important planning and development considerations for the tourism industry world-wide. Nowadays, Water issues are receiving significant attention from governments, the private sector, and civil society. Ever-increasing demand for water coupled with the effects of climate change, is escalating pressure on water resources in most parts of the world, including in many coastal and island tourism destinations. This paper discusses the aspects of international efforts to organize the relationship between tourism and water, concentrating on the expected role of Egyptian tourism industry in water management through discussing water resources, consumption in Egypt, especially with the challenges like the Ethiopian Renaissance Dam.

Keywords Tourism • Water • Water Resources • Scarcity • Water Management

1 Introduction

In the last 50 years global water use has tripled. Water stress affects a large and growing share of humanity, with an estimated 450 million people already living under severe water stress in 1995 (Vörösmarty, Green, Salisbury, & Lammers, 2000). An additional 1.4–2.1 billion people live in water-stressed basins in northern Africa, the Mediterranean region the Middle East, the Near East, southern Asia, northern China, Australia, the USA, Mexico, north eastern Brazil and the west coast of South America (Arnell, 2004), and up to 3.2 billion people would face water stress by 2100 under a 4 °C global climate change scenario (Parry, Lowe, & Hanson, 2009). These figures underline the importance of water management for humanity and are even more significant when bearing in mind the Millennium

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Development Goal target to halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation (UNDP, 2007).

Chapagain and Hoekstra (2008) mention that tourism is both dependent on fresh water resources and an important factor in fresh water use. Also Gössling et al. (2012) explain that tourists need and consume water in majority of activities such as ski tourism (snowmaking), when using spas, wellness areas or swimming pools. Fresh water is also needed to maintain hotel gardens and golf courses, and is embodied in tourism infrastructure development, food- and fuel production. Gössling (2007) displays that recreational activities such as swimming, sailing, kayaking, canoeing, diving, or fishing are often related to lakes and rivers, which also form important elements of the landscapes visited by tourists. Many forms of tourism are also indirectly dependent on water including, for instance, winter tourism (white winter landscapes), and agriculture tourism or wildlife tourism. Changes in the availability or quality of water resources can consequently have a concomitant detrimental impact on tourism with many documented examples indicating the enormous costs associated with the ecological restoration of ecosystems such as the Everglades or Great Lakes in the USA (UNESCO, 2009).

Methodology of paper depends on the (descriptive and analytical approach).

2 Literature Review

2.1 *The Nature of Water*

Lehmann (2012) states that water is a fragile resource, but we struggle to control it, In drought we do not have enough and in floods we have too much. . .but we cannot control it. Water is one of life's most basic needs—yet in contrast it is one of life's greatest luxuries. We see people suffering from a lack of basic clean water facilities in developing nations; yet see bottled water sold in developed nations such as Australia for no real reason. Pollution caused today could remain a problem for a long time. Indeed, water resources are affected by many different water uses like agriculture, industry and households—tourism is just one of many—but it is highly consumptive in nature.

2.2 *The Global Water Challenge*

UN Water (2013) celebrates the occasion of UN-Water 10 year's anniversary, which is established in September 2003 by the United Nations High Level Committee on Programs, it provides the platform to address the cross-cutting nature of water and maximize system-wide coordinated action and coherence; and serves the UN Member States in their efforts towards achieving development goals related to freshwater and sanitation.

White Paper (2013) discusses that water challenges are assessed along the three dimensions of business risks, cost availability and quality, and observations on geographic water stress are provided. Understanding the importance of cost, availability and quality of water raises important questions about design, planning, procurement and development pathways in different fields and industries. The cost of water is likely to increase and new legislation or investor pressure that could initiate some form of “Water Footprint” estimation or disclosure. Reducing water consumption and increasing water efficiency can be achieved in many ways. Organizational change and management, technology and efficiency options and behavioral change are examined.

2.3 Interrelationships Between Tourism and Water

Tourism accounts for a minor share of global water use. In comparison to agriculture, which constitutes an estimated 70 % of total water consumption, tourism is far less relevant at 1 % (Gössling, 2002). Yet tourism is often a major user of freshwater in areas where water is scarce or where renewal rates of aquifers are limited and its contribution to water consumption can be nationally and regionally significant. For instance, in Barbados, Cyprus, and Malta, tourism accounts for up to 7.3 % of national water consumption (Gössling et al., 2012). And in coastal zones of the Caribbean or the Mediterranean, tourism is generally the dominant sector for water use. Tourism and leisure activities can also be a major factor in water consumption at the regional level (Essex, Kent, & Newnham, 2004).

Gössling et al. (2012) point out that these figures refer to direct water use, including kitchens, laundry, toilets, showers, swimming pools, cooling, or the irrigation of gardens, as well as water use for various activities such as golf, diving, saunas, or spas. Water consumption rates as reported in the literature are in the range between 84 and 2,000 L per tourist per day, and up to 3,423 L per bedroom per day.

Essex et al. (2004) indicate that various factors influence water use. With regard to geographical location, hotels in the tropics are more likely to have irrigated gardens and swimming pools—the two most significant individual sources of water demand in this sector—while hotels in rural areas will usually occupy larger areas than their urban counterparts. High-rise hotels will have lower water use levels than resort style hotels, and campsites are likely to consume considerably less water than five star hotels, specifically hotels associated with golf courses, which can consume up to 1 million cubic meters of water per year. Such distinctions can be of major importance in regional planning and water management.

UNESCO (2013) adds that food is another important issue because its preparation requires large volumes of water. Specifically in tropical tourism, food availability and provisions are an important part of the image of ‘abundance’ that characterizes the tropical tourism paradise. In such environments, considerable amounts of food may be thrown away, while small islands in particular may import

a large share of foodstuffs by air, often over large distances. This generates ‘water hinterlands’, as both fuel and food production requires vast amounts of water. For instance, water requirements to support tourist diets are in the order of up to 5,000 L per tourist per day, and a 14-day holiday may involve water use exceeding 70 m³ of water for food alone.

While tourism is thus a potentially dominant factor in total water consumption in certain holiday destinations, its overall significance for local or regional water resources is dependent on the context. Water may be scarce in some destinations and abundant in others. Moreover, rainfall and visitation patterns vary throughout the year and there is also the distinction between the share of water provided locally and the share embedded in consumption of externally produced goods (Gössling et al., 2012).

Tourism’s impact on fresh water availability and quality is dependent on a wide range of factors, such as the relative abundance and quality of water in the respective tourism region, current and anticipated future water abstraction rates, the share of non-consumptive versus consumptive uses, The seasonal and spatial character of water abstraction, competing uses, and the treatment of sewage and wastewater. Management responses to water scarcity can be categorized under two broad strategies: demand side management (reducing water consumption) and supply side management (increasing water provision) (Essex et al. 2004). For many hotels, there are considerable opportunities to minimize water demand, in the order of 10–45 %. Evidence suggests that where water consumption is reduced, this can usually be achieved without any loss of convenience for guests, and at a financial gain. As an example, investments in water saving technology in hotels, including new showerheads, new pan and cisterns, or flow control in taps typically have payback periods from a few months to less than 5 years (UNESCO, 2013).

2.4 Water Tourism

Denis (2013) defines that water tourism involves traveling to locations specifically to take part in water-based activities. Some people who do not wish to partake in water related activities embark on water tourism trips so that they can visit tourist sites that sit close to bodies of water such as lakes or oceans. Water tourists are often independent travelers, although some travel firms do organize group trips.

Ocean conditions in certain parts of the world are ideally suited to surfing and other types of water sports. People from all over the globe go on water tourism trips to Hawaii, California, Australia and other destinations that are synonymous with surfing (Wikipedia, 2013). Many of these tourists visit these locations in order to participate in surfing while others come to these places in order to watch professional surfers compete in major competitions. Some travel firms offer package deals to surfers that include hotel accommodation and meals. Local vendors rent out surfboards and other equipment that visitors can use if they want to try their hand at wakeboarding, waterskiing or other sports (Denis, 2013).

2.5 Managing Water Resources in Tourism

In 2003, the World Tourism Organization recognized that fresh water is a critical element in tourism. However the way in which water is associated with tourism is not always clear cut. Water can be both a direct and indirect input in tourism related activities. Dry land tourism destinations, particularly those that focus on nature based and ecotourism, rely on a healthy environment with unspoiled nature and landscapes, and consequently indirectly use water to create the original attraction for tourists (Lehmann, 2012).

2.5.1 Tourism Sustainability and Water Crisis

We have been looking at the issue of sustainability in tourism for a number of years, from a variety of perspectives and in a number of different ways. Indeed in more recent times people in general have started taking the word sustainability quite seriously (Lehmann, 2012). Bolwell and Weinz (2008) indicate that sustainable tourism describes policies, practices and programs that take into account not only the expectations of tourists regarding responsible natural resource management (demand), but also the needs of communities that support or are affected by tourism projects and the environment (supply).

Moreover, Pratt (2011) argues that sustainable tourism thus aspires to be more energy efficient and more “climate sound” (e.g. by using renewable energy); consume less water; minimize waste; conserve biodiversity, cultural heritage and traditional values; support intercultural understanding and tolerance; and generate local income and integrate local communities with a view to improving livelihoods and reducing poverty, Making tourism businesses more sustainable benefits local communities and raises awareness and support for the sustainable use of natural resources. Pratt (2011) also assures that the tourism industry faces a multitude of significant sustainability-related challenges; Challenges that need to be resolved through the greening of the industry, one of these challenges are water consumption.

Sustainability tries to reduce water consumption through water efficiency and management programs, and investments in water-saving technology in rooms, facilities and attractions reduce costs (Fortuny, Soler, Cánovas, & Sánchez, 2008). Greater efficiency and improved management allows for the increase of number of rooms/visitors in water-constrained destinations. With regard to the most water-consuming factor, irrigation, considerable reductions can be achieved through alternative gardening (choice of species, landscaping) as well as the use of grey water. Golf courses can be designed to require less water, and operators can measure soil moisture to help control and optimize water use. Hotels with spas and health centers can engage in a range of water-saving measures, while new hotel constructions can seek to avoid pool landscapes and other water-intensive uses (Gössling, 2010).

With regard to direct water use for tourists, Fortuny et al. (2008) demonstrate that many water-saving technologies relevant to hotels and other businesses have short payback times (between 0.1 and 9.6 years), making them economically attractive. Investments in water-saving systems, grey water reuse and rainwater collection and management systems can help reduce water consumption by 1,045 m³ per year, or a 27 % lower volume per guest per night.

Goodwin (2007) summarizes that it is time for the industry to take responsibility:

- Hoteliers and other accommodation providers need to accept responsibility for controlling and reducing its water consumption per bed night.
- Tour operators need to play their part, challenge hoteliers to reduce water consumption, encourage holidaymakers to be more economical in their use and to reduce the number of plastic water bottles which pollute our environment every year.

2.5.2 Climate Change

Goodwin (2007) explains that with climate change and increasing demand for water around the world, demand driven by population growth, agriculture, industrialization, rising living standards and tourism, water is becoming a major issue within and between states. Climate change both exacerbates and disguises the problem.

Parry, Canziani, and Palutikof (2007) assure that it is important to consider that future climate change will significantly affect rainfall and water availability. For example, regional changes in the intensity and extremes of precipitation patterns, increases in precipitation in the high latitudes and parts of the tropics, and decreases in rainfall in sub-tropical and lower mid-latitude regions. Climate change will also affect water quality, for instance raising water temperatures, or changing rainfall patterns and intensities. Given these adverse future shifts, the management of water resources must be a key management priority in tourist destinations both in terms of actual consumption levels (direct and indirect) as well as future availability.

2.6 World Tourism Day (WTD) 2013

Centered on the theme “Tourism and Water: Protecting our Common Future,” World Tourism Day (WTD) 2013 underlined tourism’s responsibility and needed commitment to preserving the world’s vital water resources. The Maldives hosted the official celebrations on September 27, 2013. This year’s World Tourism Day (WTD) theme focused on tourism’s significant role and contribution to worldwide water conservation efforts. The theme was in line with the UN General Assembly’s declaration of 2013 as the United Nations International Year of Water Cooperation, providing the opportunity to further highlight the shared responsibility of the tourism sector to the wider sustainability objectives (UNWTO, 2013).

As a trillion-dollar economic sector, tourism is a powerful force capable of tackling this challenge by offering effective solutions geared towards a more sustainable water future. With over one billion people traveling internationally each year, tourism can also be an important vehicle of raising awareness and changing behaviors.

World Tourism Day was a unique opportunity to examine the challenges facing water management in tourism and the measures being undertaken by the sector to protect and promote water resources while creating benefits for local populations around water tourism destinations (ETN, 2013). Official WTD celebrations in the Maldives included a High-Level Think Tank bringing together public and private tourism stakeholders and water experts to devise policies and strategies aimed at ensuring the tourism sector contributes to protecting water resources (UNWTO, 2013).

Limitations

The paper discusses the managing water resources and it's relation with tourism industry in Egypt.

2.7 Egypt

2.7.1 About Egypt

Egypt lies in the northeastern corner of the African continent and has a total area of about one million square kilometers (km²). It is bordered in the north by the Mediterranean Sea, in the east by the Gaza Strip, Israel, and the Red Sea, in the south by Sudan and in the west by the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya. Its north–south extent is about 1,080 kilometers (km), and its maximum east–west extent about 1,100 km. The Egyptian terrain consists of a vast desert plateau interrupted by the Nile Valley and Delta which occupy about 4 % of the total country area. The land surface rises on both sides of the valley reaching about 1,000 meters (m) above sea level in the east and about 800 m above sea level in the west (Kundell, 2014).

Nour El-Din (2013) adds that the majority of the country area is desert land. Egypt's geological history has produced four major physical regions: the Nile Valley and the Nile Delta, the Western Desert, the Eastern Desert, and Sinai Peninsula. Most of the cultivated land is located close to the banks of the Nile River, its main branches and canals, and in the Nile Delta, The Nile valley extends approximately 900 km from Aswan to the outskirts of Cairo (about 95 % of the population). Rangeland is restricted to a narrow strip, only a few kilometers wide, along the Mediterranean coast and its bearing capacity is quite low. There is no forest land. The total cultivated area (arable land plus permanent crops) is 3.4 million hectares (ha), or about 3 % of the total area of the country.

Attia (2010) shows that hot dry summers and mild winters characterize Egypt's climate. Rainfall is very low, irregular and unpredictable. Annual rainfall ranges

between a maximum of about 200 mm in the northern coastal region to a minimum of nearly zero in the south, with an annual average of 51 mm. Summer temperatures are extremely high, reaching 38 °C to 43 °C with extremes of 49 °C in the southern and western deserts. The northern areas on the Mediterranean coast are much cooler, with 32 °C as a maximum.

Egypt is the most populous country in the Middle East and the third-most populous on the African continent. Nearly 97 % of the country's 82.5 million (2012 estimate). Projected population for Egypt is estimated as 104 million by 2025 and 146 million by 2050, and 237 million in 2100. Overall population density is 73 inhabitants/km²; however, with about 97 % of all people living in the Nile Valley and Delta, population density reaches more than 1,165 inhabitants/km² in these areas, while in the desert it drops to only 1.2 inhabitants/km². In 2007 it was estimated that about 26.5 % of the Egyptian population was living in poverty. The percentage was higher in rural than in urban areas and the incidence of poverty and "ultra poverty" was highest in Upper Egypt (Nour El-Din, 2013).

Kundell (2014) summarizes that in 2000; about 96 % of the rural population and 99 % of the urban population had access to improved drinking water sources, with an average of 97 % of the total population. Almost 100 % of the urban population and 96 % of the rural population had access to improved sanitation, with an average of 98 % of the total population.

2.7.2 Water Resources in Egypt

Abdin and Gaafar (2009) state that water resources in Egypt are becoming scarce. Surface-water resources originating from the Nile are currently fully exploited, while groundwater sources are being brought into full production. Egypt is facing increasing water needs, demanded by rapidly growing population, increased urbanization, higher standards of living and by an agricultural policy which emphasizes expanding production in order to feed the growing population. The most critical constraint facing Egypt is the growing shortage of water resources accompanied by the deterioration of water quality.

Water resources in Egypt are limited to the following resources:

- Nile River
- Rainfall and flash floods
- Groundwater in the deserts and Sinai
- Possible desalination of sea water.

Each resource has its limitation on use, whether these limitations are related to quantity, quality, space, time, or use cost. The following is a description of each of these resources (ENCID, 2012).

Nile River water, more than 96 % of all the Egyptian fresh water resources are supplied by the Nile River, so Egypt's main and almost exclusive resource of fresh water is the Nile River. The Nile River inside Egypt is completely controlled by the dams at Aswan in addition to a series of seven barrages between Aswan and the

Mediterranean Sea. Egypt relies on the available water storage of Lake Nasser to sustain its annual share of water that is fixed at 55.5 BCM (billion cubic meters) annually by agreement with Sudan in 1959. The agreement allocated 18.5 BCM to Sudan annually assuming 10 BCM as evaporation losses from Lake Nasser each year based on an average annual inflow of 84 BCM/year. This average was estimated as the annual average river inflow during the period 1900 till 1959 (Abdin & Gaafar, 2009).

Attia (2010) adds that rainfall in Egypt is very scarce except in a narrow band along the northern coastal areas, where an insignificant rain-fed agriculture is practiced. Rainfall occurs in winter in the form of scattered showers along the Mediterranean shoreline. The total amount of rainfall does not exceed 1.5 billion cubic meters (BCM) per year. Flash floods occurring due to short-period heavy storms are considered a source of environmental damage especially in the Red Sea area and Southern Sinai.

ENCID (2012) explains that groundwater is also an important source of fresh water in Egypt both within the Nile system and in the desert. Groundwater in the Nile aquifer cannot be considered an additional source of water as it gets its water from percolation losses from irrigated lands and seepage losses from irrigation canals. Therefore, its yield must not be added to the country's water resources but rather be considered as a reservoir in the Nile River system with about 7.5 BCM per year of rechargeable live storage. Groundwater also exists in the non-renewable deep aquifers in the Western Desert region and Sinai with the current total abstraction estimated at only 0.9 BCM per year. On the other hand, most of the available groundwater in the desert is non-renewable and associated with a high development cost.

2.7.3 Managing Water Resources in Egypt

Unfortunately, water management in Egypt is fragmented between different parties (government agencies, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), farmer organizations, private sector, etc.) This leads to confusion, conflict and mutually damaging tactics. In addition, the non-coordination between responsible authorities leads to doubling efforts without efficiency. Although the Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation (MWRI) is responsible for water resources planning and management, coordination with other stakeholders is not strong enough to eliminate conflicts (Shakweer, Youssef, Lotfy, & Salah, 2006).

Allam and Allam (2007) point that water is one of the most important inputs for economic development, as the demand increases, so too does the importance of water. This is clearly the case in Egypt, where rainfall is rare and the governmentally enforced quota for withdrawal from the Nile River has not changed since 1959. The water demand has multiplied as a result of population growth, agricultural expansion, as well as industrial development and a rise in the standard of living. So managing water resources in Egypt should depend on a new vision for the future. This vision is based on a perception of the current status of the available water

resources. The water uses, the water use efficiency, the institutional and legislative frameworks of water management, and the strategies and policies to rationalize water use and to augment water supply, the local, regional and international governing and controlling factors of water utilization and management in Egypt, future water scenarios for year 2020, which all showed that Egypt will suffer considerable water shortages in the near future.

Wikipedia (2014) explains that water resources management in modern Egypt is a complex process that involves multiple stakeholders who use water for irrigation, municipal and industrial water supply, hydropower generation and navigation. In addition, the waters of the Nile support aquatic ecosystems that are threatened by abstraction and pollution. Egypt also has substantial fossil groundwater resources in the Western Desert. A key problem of water resources management in Egypt is the imbalance between increasing water demand and limited supply. In order to ensure future water availability coordination with the nine upstream Nile riparian countries is essential. The Nile Basin Initiative provides a forum for such cooperation. In the 1990s the government launched three mega-projects to increase irrigation on “new lands”. They are located in the (Toshka) area (New Valley), on the fringe of the Western Nile Delta, and in the Northern Sinai. These projects all require substantial amounts of water that can only be mobilized through better irrigation efficiency on already irrigated “old lands” as well as the reuse of drainage water and treated wastewater.

Also, one of the major issues facing Egypt is the accelerated decline of water quality. Water quality has a direct effect on the quantity available for a specific use. As the quality of water gets worse, its scope of use narrows, thereby, reducing supplies and intensifying shortages. Therefore, in coordination with other involved ministries and authorities, aims to implement a long-term strategy to prevent the different sources of pollutants from discharging to the Nile River and other water bodies. Improvement of water quality requires prevention of pollution, treatment of polluted water, and if neither is possible, control of pollution (Attia, 2010).

Threats of Ethiopian Dam

Michel (2013) shows that a 1959 water-sharing agreement between Egypt and Sudan gives Egypt 55.5 billion cubic meters of Nile water, which represent 97 % of its renewable water resources, but according to the irrigation and water resources minister, population pressure means the country is already facing a shortfall of 10–15 billion cubic meters annually, and plans by upstream countries to redistribute the water will be very harmful to Egypt. According to the Nile Basin Initiative countries that share the Nile River basin have demanded the revision of colonial-era agreements that allot the bulk of the river’s water to Egypt and Sudan and allow Cairo to veto upstream projects. Egypt does not recognize a recent agreement signed by Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania and Uganda, that seeks to allow irrigation and hydroelectric projects to go ahead without Cairo’s consent.

Ethiopia, for instance, is planning a series of dams along the Nile to generate electricity. In March, Ethiopia announced the construction of the Renaissance Dam, which aims to be the largest hydroelectric plant in Africa. Experts writing for the [International Rivers network](#), however, say the dam, which is being constructed near the Sudanese border, has raised concerns about its environmental and human impacts. Ethiopia's plan to construct dams along the Nile would reduce Egypt's current share by 5 billion cubic meters annually, but he thought this might be manageable if Egypt could cooperate with Ethiopia (IRIN, 2011).

2.7.4 Egyptian Tourism and Water Resources

Tourism sectors demanded a reliable water supply. Increasing tourism will also increase demand on wastewater treatment, increase the demand for safe and high-value agricultural products, and encourage recreational uses of water. Thus climate induced water shortages would definitely severely affect tourism activities (Nour El-Din, 2013).

Tapper, Hadjickou, Noble, and Jenkinson (2011) indicate that in 2010, the Egyptian Ministry of Tourism announced a strategic plan for the tourism industry to 2022, with goals to achieve 25 million tourists (double present numbers) and US \$21 billion tourism income by 2022.; adding 200,000 tourist rooms over the next 5 years. Moreover, average of WTTC & UNWTO forecasts for Egyptian tourism growth rate per year is about 6.6 %, but current political unrest have already affect negatively these forecasts, and it is not yet clear how recent political unrest will affect this plan in the long-term. Moreover, virtually nothing appears to be happening to counteract needs of water for this expected tourism growth, where is often associated with the search for complementary water sources to satisfy the great demands on water for this economic sector.

In comparison to other economic sectors, such as agriculture, there are no specific regional or national water use statistics for tourism, and tourism-related water use is still relatively little investigated. The following paragraph provides some rare figures are available in the literature. Generally tourism increases global water use, tourists use more water when on holiday, here estimated at an average in general of 300 L per day (direct water use), than at home (160 L per day), in Egypt with average length of stay about 6 days, water use per tourist per day is about 400 L. Some other statistics for coastal regions like (Sharm El-Sheikh) indicate to increasing usage of water per tourist, water use per day in hotels and resorts between 400 L and 500 L per tourist, and from 1,410 to 2,190 L per room (Gössling et al., 2012).

Tapper et al. (2011) show under the title: Tourism water consumption, water scarcity and related social and environmental factors, through a chart adds the following numbers about Egyptian tourism and water, according to the scoring chart (pressures on water resources): red or orange = severe problem, yellow = moderate problem, green = minimal problem.

- Forecast climate change effect negatively on rain fall (–12 %) = red = severe problem.
- Tourism water consumption in Egypt about 6.09 % = yellow = moderate problem.
- No of times water use per tourist night (accommodation only) exceeds water use per resident per day (4.09) times = red = severe problem.

Generally, scarcity of water resources in coastal regions compared with inland areas, the coastal zones of Egypt suffer from a number of serious problems including: unplanned development, land subsidence, excessive erosion rates, water logging, salt water intrusion, soil salinity and ecosystem degradation, Nour El-Din (2013) states that the Egyptian coastlines stretch for more than 3,500 km along the Mediterranean Sea, the Red Sea and south Sinai. The Northern coastal zone of Egypt is about 1,200 km long which was developed mainly for recreational tourism. The Red Sea and South Sinai coasts are international tourism zones, with diving being the main activity. In addition to increased tourism activities, a move towards building new industrial complexes is in progress in the northern and. Abdel Mansaf (2013) mentions that although, the ministry of irrigation worked to provide water for agricultural, industrial, and tourism needs as well as drinking water stations at the right time and in sufficient quantities.

Lamei (2009) explains that water resources in Egyptian arid coastal regions are characterized by special features attributed to geographic location and a sensitive environment. In addition, in many of these regions, tourism is the dominating economic activity. These special features have a unique effect on water demand, available water supplies, wastewater generation, choice of treatment technology, and disposal of by-products. Water demand is periodic in these regions depending on tourists' occupancy rates which vary according to time of the year and other economical/marketing variations. Also, the tourism industry requires huge amounts of water (between 300 and 850 L/cap/day, much more than a local inhabitant requires, and tourists are normally not prepared to encounter water scarcity (Gonzalez, Rodriguez, Cordero, & Koussis, 2005).

So, Lamei (2009) summarize that Egypt is among those countries which are very vulnerable with regard to water resources. It is located in a belt of extreme aridity being the country furthest downstream in the Nile basin. The pressure of water scarcity, for regions located along the length of the Nile is already mounting. A more disadvantaged tourism region is the Red Sea coastal area, where fresh water is not always available. In South Sinai, along the Red Sea, tourism is the dominating industry. Water is sourced by either desalination of sea or brackish water, or by piped or trucked water from the Nile. Despite the water scarcity, reuse of treated wastewater is not widely applied. Treated wastewater could be used for irrigation and non-potable domestic use, thereby reducing potable water demand. Due to costs of desalination and water transportation, the price of water in this tourist region is about ten times higher than in Cairo. What further contributes to price escalation is the dependence on privately-owned small size desalination plants for water supply, i.e. no economies of scale.

For example, Sharm El sheikh, a major tourist city in the arid environment of South Sinai, a popular Red Sea resorts, about one million tourists from Egypt and abroad visit Sharm each year. The permanent population of Sharm was estimated to be 25,000 in 2006 but may be much higher due to non-registered temporary laborers. The annual growth rate for the local population is about 3.8 % per annum. In May 2006 there were 65 hotels, mostly 3–5 stars category, and 63 more hotels under construction within the city limits, future construction will be outside the city limits, little attempt has been made to minimize the water consumption of hotels even though the city is located in a region of extreme aridity (annual rainfall between 20 and 50 mm/year) and has no groundwater resources (Abou Rayan, Djebedjian, & Khaled, 2001).

Abd Al Latif (2008) adds that it is estimated that approximately 91 % of the current average water demand in Sharm is for tourism industry (hotels, restaurants, bars, shops, staff housing and landscape irrigation). The remaining 9 % of the water demand is from the local population. The per capita water consumption of the permanent residents is about 100–150 L/cap/day. However, the actual consumption is much higher reaching 250 L/cap/day, mainly due to wastage, absence of water meters, cheap subsidized water for residents and leakage from the distribution system which can reach up to 40 %, at the same time the conventional tourist uses huge amounts of water so that the equivalent tourist water consumption ranges more than 400–500 L per day per occupied bed—as it is mentioned before—depending on individual hotel facilities and services, occupancy rates, temperature, staff housing and irrigated area.

3 Discussion and Results

3.1 International Water Crisis

Our global population has tripled over the past 50 years, resulting in the consumption of more drinking water and a much greater amount of water to produce the food we eat. However, the 800 % increase in water consumption per person in industrialized nations has had a much greater impact on our total global water consumption. Water availability is expected to decrease in many regions with expected increases in population, by 2030, food demand is predicted to increase by 50 % (70 % by 2050). Water scarcity already affects every continent. Water scarcity is both a natural and a human-made phenomenon, there is enough freshwater on the planet for seven billion people but it is distributed unevenly and too much of it is wasted, polluted and unsustainably managed. In other words “There is a water crisis today. But the crisis is not about having too little water to satisfy our needs. It is a crisis of managing water so badly that billions of people—and the environment—suffer badly.”

3.2 International Tourism Industry and Water Scarcity

The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) recognized that fresh water is a critical element in tourism, which is also a high water user compared to other activities, although this has not been measured. Tourism is rarely—if ever—identified as such in statistics on countries' water demand. The fact that it is dispersed throughout the various branches of the economy makes it difficult to get an overall picture. The preliminary analysis, confirmed by the fact-finding missions, shows that there are currently no complete, reliable statistical data on the tourism sector's water consumption. Majority of countries have introduced a specific water rate for tourism establishments (mainly hotels), but tourism facilities and activities are not generally covered by statistics. But some available statistics summarize that global direct water consumption by international tourism is estimated to be 1.3 km³/year, available data suggests that direct water use in tourism varies between 100 and 2,000 L per guest night, with a tendency for larger, resort-style hotels to use significantly more water than smaller, pension-like establishments or campsites. The main water-consuming factors are golf courses, irrigated gardens, swimming pools, spas, wellness facilities and guest rooms.

With the ongoing growth in tourism visitation exceeding (1) billion international tourist arrivals by the beginning of 2013, water challenges will be particularly important. Water stewardship, water stress and availability have become increasingly important planning and development considerations for the tourism industry world-wide. The industry must start to become more involved in understanding the part it needs to play in water management issues.

World Tourism Day (WTD) 2013 was a unique opportunity to raise awareness of tourism's role in water access and shine a spotlight on the sector's contribution to a more sustainable water future through the following key messages:

- Clean and readily accessible freshwater is one of tourism's most precious resources.
- Excessive water consumption coupled with weak water management is limiting universal access to safe water.
- Tourism can and should provide environmentally sound solutions, as well as political and financial support, for the conservation and sustainable use of freshwater sources.

Finally, water stewardship goes beyond the individual tourism business. It includes aspects of community engagement and public–private sector partnerships. Leadership is essential and ways for integrating the tourism industry into local governance structures and decision making need to be identified. Further understanding of how to involve tourists into water stewardship, whilst at the same time increasing customer experience, is important.

3.3 Egyptian Tourism and Water Scarcity

Water scarcity in Egypt is seen by some as driven mainly by demographics, Egypt is facing increasing water needs, demanded by a rapidly growing population, by increased urbanization, by higher standards of living and by an agricultural policy which emphasizes expanded production in order to feed the growing population. However, virtually nothing appears to be happening to counteract this trend in the three main water consuming sectors: agricultural; municipal; and industrial. Water management systems are reported to have been developed in a number of ways and with no clear overall. Furthermore, only one third of Egypt's population is reported to be connected to sanitary sewers. In addition it couldn't be overlooked the threats of climate change and even more serious can be water use conflicts between countries, like expected Ethiopian Renaissance Dam.

Tourism is a very important economic sector in Egypt. It demands a reliable water supply, and increasing tourism will also increase demand on wastewater treatment, increase the demand for safe and high-value agricultural products, and encourage recreational uses of water, no doubt that tourism activities severely affected by the relation between tourism and water in Egypt, but the Ministry of Irrigation promised to provide water for tourism needs as well as drinking water stations at the right time and in sufficient quantities. Especially for Egyptian coastlines stretch for more than 3,500 km along the Mediterranean Sea (Northern coastal zone), the Red Sea and south Sinai, those were developed mainly for recreational tourism.

4 Conclusion and Recommendations

With not forgotten the 2005 Egyptian national water resources plan identified four policy measures for improving management of Egypt's water supplies: (1) developing additional water, (2) making better use of existing water, (3) protecting public health and the environment, and (4) institutional and financial reform, available water resources could suffice to satisfy the water demand of the current and forecasted increasing in tourist numbers in Egypt if appropriate water saving measures is taken. In the tourism sector, there is still a high potential for water savings. Water consumption can be reduced if appropriate measures are taken by the tourism industry, the government and the individual tourist, it can be achieved through a combination of behavioral, operational and technological changes. In this context, the following recommendations can be adopted for Egyptian tourism sector:

- A comprehensive national program is needed to rationalize water uses in Egyptian tourism industry. Installing and maintaining water conservation devices, revising the service tariff, using treated wastewater instead of drinking water in watering gardens and parks, recycling the wastewater and utilizing seawater and

brackish groundwater for washing and cooling purposes are highly recommended.

- Widespread use of water-saving systems (technologies and devices) in hotels, resorts and other tourism business, for its short payback times that making them economically attractive, as well as environmental benefits.
- It is essential to increase the governmental and private sector interventions needed to raise the tourism's awareness (investors–employees–tourists...) of the water scarcity problems, the rationalizations of water use, and protection of watercourses from transgression and pollution.
- The role of joint scientific research and future studies between tourism specialists and water experts should take its place to develop new techniques to reduce water consumption and rational water management in tourism sector.
- A well coordinated information system is needed to help the planners and decision makers in both: tourism sector and water management, to make proper water quality assessment in order to manage the water resources on an environmentally sound basis.
- Government should create a legislative environment for tourism development that give incentives for tourism businesses in Egypt to save water and ensures the existence of freshwater ecosystems. Especially in coastal areas that should follow a land management plan that takes wetland conservation and environmental protection into consideration.
- Golf courses can be designed to require less water, and operators can measure soil moisture to help control and optimize water use. Hotels with spas and health centers can engage in a range of water-saving measures, while new hotel constructions can seek to avoid pool landscapes and other water-intensive uses.
- Need to take advantage of the experiences of other tourist countries that have succeeded in the field of water resources management.
- Expansion in preparation for the (individuals) tourists' brochures and manuals explaining some behaviors and simple everyday actions which seem unimportant but very impressive in reducing water consumption during the journey to Egypt without inconvenience. Such as: turn off tap when brushing teeth or shaving, take a shower instead of a bath, and don't ignore dripping taps, after the beach don't leave the tap running ... etc.

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The Concept of Classification of Tourist Motivation Factors

L.A. Koziol and R.W. Pyrek

Abstract The authors of the paper put forward a thesis according to which tourist motivation are affected by basically different factors which occur in the tourist market place. These factors are referred to as motivators which, when they occur, lead to satisfaction, hygiene factors which, when they do not occur, lead to dissatisfaction, and demotivators which, when they occur, lead to dissatisfaction. They may have a simultaneous impact on humans (tourists). The presented concept of the trichotomy of motivating factors in the tourist motivation is a creative development of Herzberg's two-factor theory—the author proposes a more detailed definition of the above factors and extends the area of research by including demotivators in the analysis.

Keywords Tourist motivation • Motivating factors for travel • Destination • Motivators • Hygiene factors • Demotivators

1 Introduction

Understanding the motivations of the consumer-tourist, especially the recognition of its tourist motivation is the basis of development of tourist attractiveness of destinations (region, area tourist reception—ATR) and the tourist offer of the company. Meet or are likely to meet customer requirements prompts him to purchase tourism product. This process is multiplied, and a sufficiently large scale is a major determinant of the competitiveness of enterprises tourist destinations.

Over the competitiveness of the region (ATR) is meant the ability to adapt to changing conditions, the ability of risk management and efficient use of resources to improve the competitive position between regions. Achieve competitive advantage in those regions where the product, travel products at a higher level, compared with competitive areas, meet the expectations and meet the needs of customers.

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In a highly competitive tourism market, heavily saturated various tourist products, essential is so in-depth analysis of motivation factors desk.

The authors deal with this issue emphasize that, of course, important is the description of who, when and where it's going and what is the demographic and social structure of tourists, but in studies of tourist behavior, the most important is the answer to the question: why? (Crompton, 1979, p. 415; Iso-Ahola, 1982, p. 259; Winiarski & Zdebski, 2008; Witt & Wright, 1992, p. 33). Recently, more and more frequently analyzed this issue but, it seems, are a random sampling.

The issue of tourist motivation is still valid and is gaining in importance. Until recently, tourism, in its essence and form, was a constant kind of human activity, now subject to almost revolutionary transformations caused by new technologies, organizational innovation, the emergence of new markets, economic growth, a new way of life against the background of tourism, uncertainty and risk, or finally, increasing competition and globalization, which exacerbates the competition. The tourism industry is not always able to meet these challenges, leading to destabilization of the structures, processes, and even bankruptcies of companies and institutions. It can therefore speak of a crisis of the industry and the need to seek new ways and means for its development.

The aim of this article is to present the general shape of motivation theory of tourist activity and the concept of classification of motivation factors tourist destination with a focus especially on the pull-factors. It is an important complement to existing theories. Thanks to the issues of creating and shaping tourism demand tourism product (supply) can be described in a more reliable way, as precisely.

The proposed concept is the basis for the construction of the diagnostic system of regional tourism potential and the system of creating, in partnership organization, tourism demand in this area. Because research on tourist motivation and the implementation of this theory in practice require an interdisciplinary approach and at the same time building bridges linking tourism with other fields of human activity, it is essential to mobilize the experience and academic knowledge outside the tourism sector. The article adopted a broad approach to the study of motivation Desk, used in the results of their research, which was confronted with the results of studies predecessors. For these reasons, I consider that the article may be of interest to researchers in tourism and recreation, and practitioners, students, or even residents of distillation.

2 Overview of Tourist Motivation Factors

Diagnosing the factors of motivation is worth quoting at least some definitions of motivation, often repeated in numerous already extensive literature, important from the point of view of this study. Well M. Armstrong suggests that motivation is a factor influencing the people to retain a certain way (Armstrong, 2006, p. 210). Otherwise, this phenomenon perceives and defines F. Rheinberg writing that it is

“activating focus on the life of the current act positively evaluated target state (Rheinberg, 2006, p. 18)”. This concise definition requires further explanation. Well, the term “activating orientation” or “positively evaluated target state” must consider in many ways. For example, you can specify that the motivation is different states and behavior as wanting, attempt, desire to strive for something; It can also mean: avoidance, aversion, fear of adverse events, experiences. Thus according to the author motivation to avoid something differs in many respects from the motivation of striving for something. This is particularly important and still valid in tourist motivation. Most often, the term “motivation” is defined as a mechanism for human action, and more specifically the mechanisms responsible for commissioning, directing, maintaining and closing behavior (Łukaszewski, 2000, p. 427). One of the questions—which, according to this author—should be found to answer is: what determines the choice of the form and direction of behavior? In the case of tourist behavior of people they will be the reasons why they decide to undertake such activity.

Assuming that a key component of many theories of motivational needs (needs theory, tourism can be a form satisfying human needs, like many other areas of human activity (Winiarski & Zdebski, 2008, p. 47). Could also meet the needs of those directly (Kocowski, 1982, pp. 196–197).

The theoretical basis for the treatment of tourism as an activity (tourism activity) in which a person meets their basic needs and higher needs such as self-realization, is the concept of Maslow. This concept is constantly expanded and widened, and his theory of needs served theorists of tourism as a basis for classification reasons for travel, or more broadly, tourist motivation factors determining tourism demand.

In the literature, there are multiple types of classifications of motivation with justification in psychological theories, and more. One motivation is to distinguish internal (intrinsic) and external (extrinsic). The concept of intrinsic motivation also called autotelic motivation, endogenous apply to such forms of activity that are met only because of the same thing. In contrast, the concept of external motivation (exogenous, instrumental) refers to activities directed to the stimulus contained in the purposes and effects (Gange & Deci, 2005, pp. 331–332).

Tourist activity can be for individuals autotelic value. According to the theory W. N. Dember and R. W. Earl, the primary seems to be the theme of exploration resulting from human curiosity and the desire to subjugate the natural environment. The implementation of these plans to the individual a sense of competence, self-improvement, development, and thus is a source of strong emotional experience, of course, positive (Winiarski & Zdebski, 2008, p. 52).

Subject of discussion was limited mainly to external factors, instrumental, especially those that are of interest from the point of view of marketing management, refer to the specific actions taken by the company travel, tourism organizations, or public authority.

Based on the theory of motivation developed a number of interesting classification of reasons for travel. One of the first presented G.M.S. Dann. Referring to the concept of Maslow distinguished two groups of motivational factors as determinants conceived, motivators tourism (tourism motivators), namely the drivers of the

tourist activity (push factors) and the factors influencing the choice of destination (pull factors) (Dann, 1977, s.184–194). Repeatedly stressed that both categories of factors, i.e. factors “pushing” (push) and the factors “attracting” (pull) are the basis for making decisions about travel desk. In turn, J.M. Crompton has attempted to develop and operationalization this concept, pointing to the nine types of tourist motivation, the seven treated as a socio-psychological factors (push motives), and two as factors “attracting” (pull motives).

The first group of factors are: escape from the world around them, experience and assessment of yourself, relaxation, prestige, return, strengthening family ties, making social interaction; in the second group are listed: news, innovation and learning. R. W. McIntosh and Ch. R. Goeldner chose four primary motivating factors for travel, namely (McIntosh & Goeldner, 1986):

- physical factors—related to leisure, sports activities, a relaxing pastime. They reduce mental tension and other ailments related to work and life outside professional through physical activity,
- cultural factors—expressing a desire to know the other parts of the world, their folklore, historical monuments, art, religion, tradition
- interpersonal factors—leaning to meet new people their ways of being, behavior, visit friends or relatives,
- the status and prestige of factors—including internal needs and overall development of the human personality. Make the journey allows you to broaden the knowledge of the various fields of science or gain recognition in their environment.

Very popular especially among economists for the idea VTC Middleton, who singled in the six main themes of participation in tourism (Middleton, 1996, p. 17):

- theme cultural, psychological, educational (e.g. participation in cultural events, the implementation of their own interests, touring),
- theme physiological and related physical culture (the desire of rest, relaxation, tourist activity as a source of fitness and health),
- social and ethnic motifs (such as traveling among friends, the desire to know the places related to family tradition),
- motifs associated with fun and entertainment (they are satisfying all kinds of parks or public events),
- religious motifs (e.g. visiting places of worship),
- work-related motives (e.g. so-called: Tourism conference or directly related to their work).

In opinion on W. Gaworecki the motivation tourist come down to provide three types of motives: social motivations, motivations family or tribal, personal or selfish motives. It is noteworthy that some of their common aspect, namely that tourism has become a fashion, custom “rite of imitation” which means that we take certain actions because of the existing social standards, customs (Gaworecki, 2000, p. 122). Moreover, he posted a proposal motivational factors that stimulate and restrict boating tourism. They are contingent undertake tourist activities satisfying

specified boundary conditions, i.e. to meet the needs of the elite unit, having free time, dwelling in the environment exerting a certain pressure, subject to the negative effects of industrial development, breaking contact with the natural environment, subject to various, often contradictory stimuli, dispose sufficient means of communication, the need to follow existing patterns in the environment to which he wishes to belong, noticing opening up the possibility of the journey home and abroad. As you can see part of the tourist motivation issues, especially the pull-factors concerns the reception area tourist destinations, often competing with each other for tourists. Over the competitiveness of the region (ATR, distillation) is meant the ability to adapt to changing conditions, especially to improve the competitive regions in competition. Achieve competitive advantage in those regions where the product or products of interest to a greater degree compared with competing areas meet the expectations and meet the needs of buyers.

In recent years there have been new concepts of research competitiveness tourist destination, with a special place among them is the model JRB Ritchie and G.I. Crouch, which emphasizes the importance of tourist motivation. The presented concept of motivation factors tourist highlights not one, but three types of continuum (similar to Rubik's cube), and thus the three categories of motivation factors, extracted from the criterion of vector directions of their impact. In this integrated model, competitiveness and sustainable development ATR Ritchie and Crouch identified five groups of factors stemming from both the macro- and micro-environment, which affect the competitiveness of the region. Are specifically mentioned:

- factors strengthening and perfecting,
- environment further,
- internal situation,
- key resources and factors attracting visitors,
- supporting factors and resources.

This classification raises considerable doubts are also unclear criteria for the isolation of these groups, in part they are not disjunctive. However, the determinants of competitiveness ATR specified in the model are important, representing a whole—may be the subject of further research in the context of explaining the reason for tourist activity of man, and then the identification and classification of tourist motivation factors. In the given model are listed structure tourist motivation of key importance. This structure includes two groups of motives, i.e. the factors attracting visitors and promoting agents. In the first category are listed: topography and climate, history and culture, market linkages, available activities, events, entertainment, superstructure; the second group are: infrastructure, availability, amenities, hospitality, entrepreneurship. These factors may provide an additional proposal for the classification of tourism motivation factors.

Very popular among researchers enjoy McIntosh and Goeldner concepts, Middleton, Gaworeckiego, Winiarski and Zdebski, the American company Brain Reserve and others. These issues are discussed in more detail in (Kozioł, 2012,

Table 1 Impact of tourist motivation factors (pull-factors)

Factors	When there are: a induce	When there are: no induce
Motivators	The tendency, willingness to take the tourist activity	No inclination, desire for tourist activities
Hygiene factors	Evidence of non-tourist activity	Negative attitudes, dislike of tourist activity
Demotivators	Negative attitudes, dislike of tourist activity	No negative attitude, unwillingness to tourist activity

Source: Author's own study

pp. 45–50) as well as in the works of these authors. Identified and briefly characterized motifs, tourist motivation factors, served in various facets of classification, have been distinguished according to various criteria. However, the dominant criterion in this case is generic criterion, and therefore needs satisfied thereby the type: individual or groups of motifs. Frequently in nature are the motivating factors for travel, motivators, with features stimulant tourism. Less space (beyond those of several authors) devoted to discussion of the determinants of demotivation factors tourist phenomenon, with characteristics destimulants tourism. To summarize the theoretical nature of the comments was that almost all of these factors are important and should not be ignored in the study of tourist motivation.

The impact of factors with tourist motivation shown in Table 1 Study (vectors) the effect of these factors are essentially divergent, although they may occur simultaneously in a given environment, destinations.

For the purposes of establishing the classification of motivation factors tourist destination method was used linear ordering of objects in a multi-dimensional feature space called benchmarking. Using this method should be adopted to divide a set of variables: stimulants—variables whose increasing value indicates an increase in the level of the studied phenomenon, nominants—variable for which the value of providing high value—studied phenomenon contain a certain range and destimulants—variables that decreasing the value of indicates an increase in the level of the studied phenomenon (Iwasiewicz, 2014, p. 17). Assuming that the diagnostic variable will be in this case travel motivation factors as motivation factors considered stimulant known as motivators. Nominants will provide hygiene factors, denominator in turn will prevent occurring in the process of tourist activity, or demotivation factors desk. As examples of motivators can provide variety and quality of natural, anthropogenic (museums, temples, monuments, etc.); nominants be considered for the degree of tourism development, as well as transport accessibility to the region and to provide adequate mobility for tourists in the region, the safety of tourists, hospitality, and examples demotivators may be factors such as climate, environmental pollution, the threat of an epidemic of dangerous diseases, terrorism.

According to this concept it is possible to increase the motivation of the tourist destinations, even if not reduced, the factors demotivating and vice versa. And can therefore be operated simultaneously in the three areas, however, with a particular focus demotivators. Selected major tourist motivation factors are shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Factors tourist motivation (pull-factors)

Motivators	Hygiene factors	Demotivators
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> –Natural, anthropogenic; –Entertainment; –Events; –Market solutions, such as an attractive shopping; –Superstructure Area, sport and recreation, spa-wellness –Exotic atmosphere; –Sharing knowledge and information with partners and customers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> –Level of tourism development; –Accessibility to the region; –Ensuring mobility in the region; –Safety of tourists; –Hospitality; –Quality of service; –The level of prices of tourist services; –Image distillation; –Quality of the environment; –Standard of living of the inhabitants of the region. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> –Difficult climatic conditions; –Risk of serious diseases, or animals; –Environmental pollution; –Terrorism, conflicts; –Reluctance to travel; –Language barrier.

Source: Author’s own study

In the category of motivators dominate the tourist attractions of destinations, so natural and anthropogenic, generally known to the broader public holiday. Considerable and growing importance to the tourist attractiveness of destinations, as well as the competitiveness of the large tourism organizations has called: superstructure. Provide comfortable conditions for rest and relaxation with your family or friends can be a real attraction for many tourists. Very popular with guests also can enjoy the sports facilities, equipment and services Wellness (Spa and Wellness), etc. Efficient and readily available infrastructure, communication is almost essential for anyone involved in organizational and dedicate the work, learning during the holidays. I do not inconsiderable number of tourists seeking various forms of entertainment, thrill; they visit discos, nightclubs, gaming (nighlive activities), amusement parks. Organized events always aroused interest, attract tourists and thus significantly increase the attractiveness of the region. Market solutions can be an important motivator of tourists, especially foreign ones, who, for example, visiting the shopping malls, duty-free shops can buy attractive products at a reasonable price.

As can be seen, made in an appropriate manner house based attractions (motivators) destinations, through its relationship with the fulfillment of the expectations and satisfaction of needs, directly affect the behavior of the tourist market.

Hygiene factors (referred to as nominants), create conditions for incentive travel desk and are indicative of start motivators. The incentive effect can be described as bidirectional. Improving the conditions of incentive above the level considered appropriate not trigger additional inclination, desire for tourist activity. In contrast, the deterioration of these conditions below acceptable levels evokes a sense of discomfort and reduced motivation. In particular, the quality of services, availability of transport, safety of tourists and hospitality. The shape of these conditions strongly impact on the position of the destination (the company) on the tourist

market, testifies to its level of development, highlights its image; also affects customer loyalty, prejudice the continuation of cooperation with partners.

Demotivators (repulsive factors), induce aversion to tourist activity, form a barrier to travel. Managers of companies, local bodies of public authority must eliminate or minimize the impact of these factors. Leveling de-motivators reduces or eliminates the reluctance of tourists to visit the destination, thus creating condition used motivators, which in the final analysis is the basis for the functioning and development of ATR. The comments mentioned, improvement, rationalization of tourist motivation system should include not only the identification of factors, but mainly action to leveling demotivators (denominant), optimization of hygiene factors (nominants) and maximize motivators (stimulant), according to the financial possibilities for development tourism and legal and organizational conditions or strategies tourist enterprise.

A random survey in selected areas in the south of the tourist reception Polish demonstrated a low level of cooperation between businesses and local tourism authorities. The four-scale cooperation was rated at level 1–2 in the following, the surveyed areas: quality improvement, creation of new local/regional tourism products, planning and implementation of marketing projects on a local/regional level, system design and implementation of IT solutions, to promote cooperation between stakeholders of the tourism industry, design and implementation of innovations in the field of environmental protection, acquisition of business partners (Najda-Janoszka & Kopera, 2014; Katsoni, 2013). That is prominent tourist destinations limitation of motivation and a direct impact on the behavior of tourists. It also means reduced level of benefits for the region arising from the development and operation of the tourist sector.

In the present analysis, less attention has been paid to intrinsic motivation, according to which fulfilled a form of tourism activity can be for individuals autotelic value. The concept Danna determinants of this type of motivation factors identified as “push” (push factors). Results of studies on self-motivation helped to determine the most diverse profiles of tourists and, more importantly, determine the segments of buyers of tourism products. The most important segment “The family & relaxation” covers almost half of the total tourists, to a greater extent than the foreign national. One-third of the total number of tourists is “multi-purpose seekers” who are eager to enjoy the attractions offered by the destination.

About 15 % are “passive segment”, and a little less “Excitement seekers” thrill-seekers. Listed in Table 2 motivators and hygiene factors “pull factors” in principle interact with the identified needs of tourists, given the segmentation.

3 Conclusion

In the presentation, the concept of classification of tourist motivation factors worth mentioning that instead of the identification and measurement of selected, important from the point of view of the theory of motivation factors, should be in the

application of practical study and reconstruct, as far as the whole process of application. Moreover, and perhaps most importantly of all, if concepts in the field of motivation not only want to specify more precisely scientific, but also use them in practice, it should be available diagnostic system, which on the one hand will be able to capture the essential components (factors) of the process of motivation Tourism, on the other hand however, will be transparent and comprehensible. The practical results of these studies may provide a basis for appropriate economic pragmatics.

Moreover, it should be noted that the motives of people change with the passage of time, changes in lifestyle, social position, or under the influence of public opinion. Service marketing destinations and tourism enterprises should constantly monitor these changes and try to anticipate them, paying attention in particular to the specified categories of motivation factors desk. These services should cooperate, closer than ever, with allies and clients in order to create a partnership organization (organizational citizenship) for the creation of tourism demand and the formation and development of the tourism product. Efficient, intensive and close co-operation between the local authority and the wider business sphere is a necessary foundation for economic development of the region and the promotion of brands, services and products of the ATR using forms of digital advertizing (Kavoura, 2011).

In view of the fact that tourism is widely and officially recognized as one of the most growing sectors of the economy, local authorities are increasingly directing their attention toward the tourist industry in search of the most promising directions of socio-economic development of their communities. In this situation, the growing importance of territorial marketing instruments in the policy of local authorities clearly confirms the growing trend of positioning communities as tourist destinations. It is worth noting that these solutions are consistent with the position of the European Commission expressed the formulated framework, aimed at creating favorable conditions for the development of tourism in Europe (EC, 2010). The modern and innovative organizations and tourism companies consumer is the subject of research and at the same time is seen as a co and co-producer of the tourism product. Ideas different researchers go even further; they propose to tourists (e.g. guests) treated just like employees of tourism enterprises and similarly motivated (Hall & Williams, 2008, p. 9; Tether, 2004). In contrast, tourists visiting the selected destination (city, region), should be seen and treated as residents, and even co-hosts of the area.

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Part II
Cultural Tourism Today

Art in the Globalised Era: A Disembodied Journey with Traces in the Past

Spiros Polimeris and Christine Calfoglou

Abstract In this paper we explore the nature of art in the globalised, post-modernist era, an era paradoxically combining unity and fragmentation. In doing so, we postulate a working hypothesis to the effect that a journey involves the potential of an experience that requires some kind of bodily presence, in our case, the ‘body’ of the work of art or/and that of the viewer/interactant, and entails reminiscence bound up with the spatiotemporal coordinates of the experience. Digital art, we argue, globally accessible via the Web and determined by the medium it employs, denies itself this bodily presence and, by annihilating time and space boundaries and allowing its numerous, simultaneous viewers/interactants to engulf it in Benjamin’s (The work of art in the age of mechanical reproduction. In W. Benjamin *Illuminations*, pp. 217–51, Schocken Books, 1936/1968) terms, marks a radical change in the journey requirements referred to above. In the absence of a body, the distance between the work of art and the viewer is gone and the immersion that follows (see Polimeris, *Digital Future and Art: Institutional Management Perspectives (Ψηφιακό Μέλλον και Τέχνη: Προοπτικές θεσμικής διαχείρισης)*, Unpublished PhD dissertation, Athens, The Panteion University, 2011) results in loss of the spatiotemporal dimension and reminiscence. The digital or digitalized work of art somehow needs to ‘pay’ for its universal accessibility by becoming impossible to pin down and, thus, ever-elusive. Like the globalised era it is mostly a child of, it paradoxically combines immediacy and timelessness, lethe. Yet, as we go on to show, like the globalised era, the phenomenon can trace its roots back in times bygone.

Keywords Journey • Globalization • Digital art • Disembodiment • Reminiscence • Aura

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1 Introduction

Art in the modern era has been the subject of a number of discussions, digital forms attracting attention *par excellence*. Views have been divided, varying from clearer ‘conventional’ versus ‘new’ media dichotomies to approaches favouring historicity in art form development (cf. Krauss, 1999; Manovich, 2002). Central to most of this talk, however, has been the changing role of the body—of the viewer or the artwork—in digital or digitalized art and issues of disembodiment and immateriality as related to viewer immersion (see Polimeris, 2011, for an overview) have repeatedly been raised and debated. Links to globalization and post-modernism have also been traced (e.g. Polimeris, 2013, and sources therein) and the loss of the ‘grand narrative’ (Lyotard, 1984) and the emerging image of fragmentation, also affecting the discourse articulated by digital art, have also been considered. It is our aim in this paper to extend this discussion by adopting the journey metaphor and exploring the properties of this journey in relation to our perception of digital or digitalized art. Drawing on the idea of a journey presupposing some kind of presence as well as reminiscing about that presence, we will suggest that digital art, as a major representative of the post-modern, globalised era, involves a dramatic reconception of the spatiotemporal dimensions of experience and the uprooting of reminiscence. We will also suggest that, despite the vehemence of these changes, the historicist element might be there, as their vestiges in art experiences of the past testify. Seminal to our discussion will be Benjamin’s (1936/1968) notion of the loss of ‘aura’ in art through its replication, a notion which, though formulated in non-digital times, may prove to be particularly relevant to a description of the post-modern artistic experience.

The paper is laid out as follows: We will first look into the features of the globalised era and its liaison with post-modernism and then present our hypothesis with regard to artistic experience as a journey wrapped up around bodily presence. In the next section we will sketch out the profile of modern, digital or digitalized art and, focusing on the idea of disembodiment, we will attempt to show that it fails to meet the conditions we had postulated for artistic experience. In the last section we will trace the historical roots of this profile and refer to a number of ‘stops’ in the journey to the present apex both in globalization and in its art offspring, namely digital art and immateriality.

2 Looking at the Present: Globalisation and Post-Modernism

The term ‘globalisation’ is usually employed with reference to expansion as well as interdependence in production, communication and technology the world over, an expansion which has led to the weaving together of economic and cultural activities and has, therefore, conferred upon modern art the specific characteristics we will be

talking about further down in this paper. And, while in our final section we will be suggesting that globalization, in the sense of liaising economic and cultural life worldwide, is a process which has been developing through the ages, it needs to be conceded that it nevertheless possesses special features, which give it its enormous potential. Following Waters (1995), the three facets of globalization are economic, political and cultural. The first is related, among other things, to the exchange of products and services on a global level, the second to the replacement of the nation-state by international organizations and the third, most relevant to a discussion of art, both to the global flow of information, signs and symbols and to reactions and responses to this flow.

As is evident even in a non-Marxist economic base-cultural superstructure framework, however, these three facets are closely intertwined, since the thick networking that underlies the global exchange of products and services, for one thing, is also a precondition for the uninhibited information flow in the cultural sphere (Polimeris, 2011). Global culture is commodified in a number of ways; in the trivial sense of inhabiting the same territory as banner ads or pop-up screens (*ibid.*, p. 193); in the much more sophisticated way alluded to in Bataille (1988), namely in the sense that, due to technology operating on the basis of digital transformations and conveying knowledge ‘freely’ and inexpensively, the fetishism of knowledge has given way to the religion of digital networks. In other words, the cultural object is not a goal in itself. Where the dividing line between the social, the political and the cultural is so blurred—“What has happened is that aesthetic production today has become integrated into commodity production generally” (Jameson, 1984)—where images and advertisements are no longer accessories but develop into products for sale (Connor, 1989), the notion of culture is dangerously extended (but see also, among others, Lazzarato, 1996; Pasquinelli, 2006).¹ And then, of course, as we will see further down in more detail, commodification could be seen as a result of the all-engulfing properties of mass access, as prophesied in Benjamin (1936/1968).

So, what does all this amount to? What does the commodification² of art and culture generally signify? We would argue that it interacts with immateriality, as we will explain further down, to suggest disposability and elusiveness. And it points to the paradox inherent in globalization, namely the unification power of the New Media and the information exchange system and the unrelenting fragmentation of this information and of the ‘text’ it articulates (Polimeris & Calfoglou, 2014). Before we go into this seminal point in some more detail, let us see how the features of globalization discussed above tie in with those of post-modernism.

¹The idea of cultural products is not new. ‘Romantic’ and ‘mystical’ views of culture as the product of the creator’s imagination (Wolff, 1993, p. 1) are countered by a number of scholars emphasizing the role of institutional forces rather than of the individual perception of cultural products (see, among others, Crane, 1992; Griswold, 1986).

²Naturally, there is no denying that art has always been a commodity of some kind but this has usually been subordinated to its sense of sublimity (see Benjamin, 1936/1968).

According to Giddens (1990, p. 63), post-modernism is globalizing by nature. Marked by the substitution of images and space for narratives and history as organizational principles of cultural production (Lyotard, 1984, p. 18; see also Foucault, 2001, 2002), it refutes ‘traditional’ perceptions of reality and representation, which may be locality-bound. Where clarity of form, well-established boundaries and concrete classifications give way to hybridity, relations *in absentia* are favoured (Giddens, 1990, p. 18; see also Polimeris, 2013), which is further enhanced by the fact that space is swallowed up by time, also dramatically minimized. What we bear witness to in globalised, post-modernist times, then, is a radical change in the way we perceive geography and locality (Harvey, 1991). This is very closely related to the idea of deterritorialisation and its concomitant reterritorialisation (Lamprellis, 2013; Polimeris & Calfoglou, 2014), an issue we will be returning to below. The New Media allow us immediate access to information or cultural commodities regardless of where we are located, while, at the same time, we are flooded with input, cultural or other, bits and bytes, which we have no time to evaluate or classify, and, as suggested earlier, there is no unifying thread running underneath. The globally accessible is minute. As in post-modern architecture, the focus is on the creation of often distinct and aesthetically and functionally autonomous micro-environments (see Jameson, 1984; Jencks, 2007; Venturi, 1977). So, if the medium is such a powerful determinant, how does it transform artistic experience? In the next section we will examine this issue more closely.

3 The Artistic Experience Journey

Let us visualise an encounter with a work of art as a journey, the “act of travelling from one place to another” (Merriam-Webster online), moving from point A, that is the viewer, to point B, that is the work of art, or conversely. The experience entailed in this journey would be largely determined by the location—consider the difference in the effect of a sculpture in a museum and a sculpture in a natural setting—and the specific moment of the encounter as well as the time spent in interaction with the work of art. Importantly, as is usually the case with journeys, even though we may be physically close to the art object, we cannot really tamper with its uniqueness: “Although we might be close enough to touch or even deface the painting, we cannot touch or affect its unique history” (Bolter, Blair, Gandy, & Schweitzer, 2006). This is so, because, according to Benjamin (1936/1968), no matter how close to an art object we are, there is always a distance, its ‘aura’, which gives it its “uniqueness and permanence” (ibid., p. 4). So, the bodily presence of this art object is crucial to the journey experience. In Benjamin’s words (ibid., p. 3), it is all about

its presence in time and space, its unique existence at the place where it happens to be. (For this unique existence of the work of art determined the history to which it was subject throughout the time of its existence. This includes the changes which it may have suffered in physical condition over the years as well as the various changes in its ownership.

As we will suggest in the next section, distance as determined by the viewer's bodily presence is also important in the sublimation of the cultural product, namely the viewer's perception of its aura as "a sublime spell or devotion" (Viires, 2009).

There is yet another important point to consider in relation to the artistic experience journey, however, and this concerns the viewer's memory of the experience. Perceiving art in its uniqueness, with all its historical underpinnings, allows one to pin it down in memory and reminisce about it. Space (and time) considerations are of prime importance in this respect. For, as suggested in Peesapati, Schwanda, Schultz, and Cosley (2010, p. 1),

The physical nature of the world shapes us in fundamental ways. Aspects of our lives such as "home", "work", "school", "vacation", "friends", and "fun" are often tied to specific places. People attach meaning to place, both as groups (...) and individuals (...). Thinking of these places can then be used to support reminiscence and identity building (Chaudhury, 2002), while *our memories in turn influence the meanings we attach to a place* (Rowles, 1983) (emphasis ours).

If the work of art is tied up with the specific place referred to in the final sentence, this may be an allusion to the constitutive role of reminiscing in the art perception process. The origin of arts like painting or sculpture has been reported to have been fuelled by the need for 'remembrance' (Muecke, 1999) and an orator's work is said to have been facilitated by "seeing the places, seeing the images stored on the places, with a piercing inner vision" (Yates, 1996, p. 4). "Thus art can and was viewed as a type of memory, a physical device by which the ephemeral could be made eternal".³ The associations between spatial factors and memory in safeguarding the eternal in art, as suggested in Benjamin, are obvious.

Memory of a work of art is therefore very closely connected with its spatial context—and, we would add, as already suggested above, with the time of the encounter. Memory is personal history and the ability to reminisce about an aesthetic experience may be an extension of one's perception of the artwork's history. Once again, distance is the key word. Yet to what extent are these requirements fulfilled in the case of modern, globalised art studied in this paper? We have already talked about the way space is devoured by time in globalised, post-modernist communication. In the next section we discuss this issue in detail.

4 The Artistic Experience Journey Annulled

We have shown that post-modernism has seriously questioned or, to put it more accurately, more or less eliminated macro-environments. In focusing on the minute, the distinct and, at the same time, on the plurality of associations, it has neglected the 'total image', building on fragments, impressively rich, indeed, but hardly ever

³ <http://lucian.uchicago.edu/blogs/mediatheory/keywords/memory-2/>

adding up to a coherent whole.⁴ In the absence of narrative sequence, space and time features are bound to change dramatically. Space and time are the basic coordinates of all representational systems (see discussion in Polimeris, 2011). And, while different periods of culture combine these space and time coordinates in different ways,⁵ post-modernism seems to have undermined them fully. This is largely due to the non-representational nature of modern digital art, in the sense of the loss of referentials (Baudrillard, 1998). In other words, in a world ruled by simulacra, there are models of the real, without origin or reality (ibid.). What would this mean with regard to our discussion of the journey experience in the previous section?

In attempting to answer this question, we will profile both journey participants, the viewer and the artwork. We begin with the former. In the digital world, the subject is a mutated being. In employing a hyperlinked library, it is no longer a modernist being with an established identity, desiring a fuller and more reliable image of the world but, instead, it is a post-modernist, protean being, ready to take on a new form (Dreyfus 1979, pp. 39–40). Importantly, this new being is not really interested in selecting what is important but is only concerned with accessing the most extended information network possible.⁶ This new being is therefore not interested in uncovering or discovering the real, with all its historically based associations and opts for *lethe*⁷ instead.

In interacting with a work of art digitally, this subject possesses a body which is also apparently losing its spatial dimensions. As the Web grows, its users leave their body more and more pleasantly behind to indulge in an engine search. According to Merleau-Ponty (1979), we always move so as to get the ‘optimal grip’ of things, so we somehow manage to keep things in perspective. However, while this might be a survival requirement, it is also very true that telepresence suppresses the need for participation of the body altogether. In a virtual gallery, the journey specifications referred to earlier are seriously put to the test. This is a disembodied journey and, as such, a virtual, immaterial one.

In this new geography, disembodiment involves a repositioning of the subject in relation to both the medium and the work of art in a no-man’s land, which is cyberspace. Let us name this territorial change ‘reterritorialisation’. Lamprellis (2013) uses the term to refer to wandering among various *topoi* (loci). The question in our discussion, however, is whether a new *topos* is indeed created by the digital

⁴ Not all scholarly work has been positive in relation to this idea of fragmentation in modern art. Manovich (2002), for instance, argues in favour of digital perception and interaction following in the footsteps of the cinema, despite the differences between the two media. Some kind of linearity is still sustained in digital applications.

⁵ The transformation of space and time perception generally and in art specifically can be seen in diverse developments, as in Einstein’s theory of relativity, the cubist paintings made by Picasso and Braques, the narrative of Marcel Proust and James Joyce or the use of film-editing techniques in the early cinema of Sergei Eisenstein και Tsiga Vertov.

⁶ This is, no doubt, connected with the non-semantic organizational structure of the Web.

⁷ Etymologically, *lethe* (from the Greek ‘λήθη’) is the opposite of non-*lethe* (α (=without) – λήθεια).

user. In other words, is this an instance of reterritorialisation or of deterritorialisation alone? As Lamprellis puts it, if no new topos is created, this equals the death of the wandering subject. So, what remains of this wandering subject?

It is beyond the scope of the present paper to attempt an answer to this question but what needs to be noted is that total immersion, accomplished in virtual reality works, leads the user to think he is located in a different topos at a different time. The 3-D experience of a simulated world which is apparently responding to the movements of the user's body can be a (misleading?) form of reterritorialisation. The body does not really move from point A to point B, movement is static and the experience lacks the novelty of a journey as it is more or less the surprise felt at the replication of the real world, the original topos. In 'Dancing with the Virtual Dervish-Virtual Bodies', for example,⁸ the environment created involved digitally processed images of the body, manipulated by the artist so as to convey the feeling of deconstruction. The point is, however, that, when the body itself becomes a simulation, this might signal total loss of space.

As we saw in the previous section, bodily presence is a *sine qua non* in Benjamin's definition of the aura of a work of art. Benjamin (1936/1968, p. 4) talks about the social causes of the loss of aura. He refers to the all-engulfing attitude of contemporary masses, their

desire () to bring things 'closer' spatially and humanly, which is just as ardent as their bent toward overcoming the uniqueness of every reality by accepting its reproduction. Every day the urge grows stronger to get hold of an object at very close range by way of its likeness, its reproduction. . . . To pry an object from its shell, to destroy its aura, is the mark of a perception whose sense of the universal equality of things has increased to such a degree that it extracts it even from a unique object by means of reproduction.

This, to the philosopher, leads to the ephemeral in art, its 'transitoriness' and 'reproducibility'.⁹

Benjamin is talking about reproduction in photography and the film camera. However, while the media have changed, "the analogy is valid also about the current, digital age." The aura of a work of art has now been lost because it is "destroyed by digital multiplicity." (Viires, 2009, p. 1). The subject-viewer dominates—or attempts to dominate—the work of art through reproduction. This seems to conflict with the idea of the subject in New Media art conceding his body and becoming immersed in the all-engulfing digital experience. However, it is also true that, while the post-modern digital art subject-user is not the dominant subject of the Enlightenment,¹⁰ the fact that he may be in control of some movement or allow the image to vary gives him a dominant role, pseudo-dominant perhaps, since he is

⁸ <http://gromala.iat.sfu.ca/artdesign.html>

⁹ The decadence of replication is also clear in Benjamin's (1997) work entitled 'The Translator's Task'. It would be particularly interesting to consider how this may transform our perception of digital simulation.

¹⁰ According to post-structuralists (see discussion in Polimeris, 2011), the subject is constituted by arbitrary yet all-powerful cultural and historical actions.

also trapped in this deterritorialisation ‘game’. Digital art is ‘devoured’ by the greedy masses, seeking closeness at the expense of sublimity, and the subject, in turn, is ‘devoured’ by the process of immersion.

And what about memory? What is there to reminisce about on completion of the digital art experience? Benjamin answers this question, too. In his work ‘On some motifs in Baudelaire’ (1936), he talks about verbal expression and memory and defines aura () as the ‘associations, which, at home in the *memoire involuntaire*,¹¹ tend to cluster around an object of perception’ (p. 186). Still photographic and film cameras, we learn here, extend the range of voluntary memory (*memoire volontaire*), because they provide a permanent, visible record of the sound and the sight of an event. Benjamin takes note of Baudelaire’s claim that photography is suitable to record ephemeral events and objects, but is not compatible with the realm of imagination. And what Baudelaire regards as the realm of imagination is for Benjamin the realm of aura” (Bolter et al., 2006, p. 26).

So, the artistic experience journey we talked about in the previous section is bound up with involuntary memory, which is ‘compatible with the realm of imagination’ and Lamprellis’s (2013, p. 139) ‘topos of artistic representation’. Digital art, being ephemeral, invites voluntary memory alone and cannot therefore be nostalgic about the history of the original and unique work of art.

So far, we have talked about fragmentation and heterogeneity. In the final section we will present some evidence in support of the digital art situation not being entirely new. We will attempt to show that, despite the major changes, historicity is at work in this case.

5 Looking at the Past

Where do we then find the vestiges of digital art features in the past? How has history reaffirmed itself in this case? In our introduction, we referred to the debate over continuity in art form development. In this section we will give some examples of this continuity, focusing our discussion on predecessors of immersion.

According to McLuhan (1964), a major change that influenced the development of art was the transition from a predominantly aural/oral to a predominantly visual perception of the world that took place in the Renaissance and was accelerated by the advent of printing. It was this focus on the visual that eventually led to the disembodiment and immateriality of modern art. Part of this focus was light, which was often used by artists as a point of entry or departure for visual journeys. An example is to be sought in its allegorical use in Baroque era temples, like Bernini’s famous sculpture ‘The ecstasy of Saint Teresa’, in ‘Santa Maria Della Vittoria’ chapel in Rome. In modern times, however, the light on the computer screen no longer functions as the gate to a heavenly state where the body surrenders to God’s

¹¹ Involuntary memory.

sublimity but as a black hole which disembodies users, immersing them in virtual universes. This immateriality is enhanced by the substitution of digital photography, which uses algorithmic computational processes, with no reference to material entities, for analogue photography, which employed natural modes of production.

Virtual reality also has its traces in the past. The idea of an observer settling in a hermetically closed space with trompe l'oeil 3-D images developed at a number of points from ancient to modern times: in the frescoes of Villa dei Misteri in Pompeii, part of which were made as early as 60 BCE and which also contain illusion elements, in the Gothic *Chambre du Cerf* as well as in the Renaissance *Salla delle Prospettive*. Trompe l'oeil was particularly popular in the sixteenth century, in the baroque age, was marked by the blurring of the real space and image distinction and attempted to trap the visitor's glance in the painting.

The advent of *camera obscura* in the eighteenth century, the product of long years of scientific research and development, a major step in the direction of observer individualization, so dominant in the New Media era, brought the art product closer to a simulation of reality. But among the most interesting ways of creating virtual illusion was another eighteenth century 'invention', the panorama, whereby a panoramic projection could be depicted on circular canvas with the right perspective. According to Wolfgang Kemp (1991, p. 82), the panorama put the observer inside the image, thus focusing on immersion most emphatically.

Panoramas travelled a long way, as was the case with the Panorama of London, by R. Barker, which was made in 1792 and got to Leipzig 8 years later, after a long tour. The themes were journeys in space and journeys in time. A point of reference panorama is the 1883 'Panorama of Sedan', designed along visual and psychological principles. One might venture an association of panoramas and Google Earth, though, of course, these examples cannot be compared with a computer output.

The properties of digital environments have thus been around for quite some time, as has been the case with globalization, the main features of which, namely one nation imposing its ways onto the rest of the world through exploration, trade and conquest, have also been long alive (Steger, 2003). There is one point in need of attention, however. Following Adorno's (2004) advice, we should not allow similarities to conceal important differences in modern art. Referentiality in art can hinder exploration of modern trends.

6 Concluding Remarks

The present discussion has shown that, while digital media seriously tamper with the historical uniqueness of an artwork, the immersion involved in digital art encounters is far from a-historical and its vestiges can be safely traced in the past. The journey to the present day has been tortuous, just as the journey to artistic experience can be tortuous, in the sense that it is mediated by the new medium, which overpowers the individual. Memory, allowing the emotional associations of an encounter with a work of art to grow, is also trapped among layers of plurality. It

is, however, to be hoped that the journey will persist, reestablishing a sense of nostalgia in the new territories of artistic expression.

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Russian Artistic Gymnastics as a Sports Tourism Product: Some Observations and a Research Agenda

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Abstract Tourism and its importance to the Russian Federation are very much in the headlines at present. Considering the huge investment made in facilities for the Winter Olympics, the building of new sports facilities for such mega events as the Football World Cup, and the status of St Petersburg as a candidate city for the 2028 Olympics, it is clear that Russia has long term plans to attract visitors to their sporting events. The purpose of this paper is to develop a research agenda to explore the potential of artistic gymnastics, a sport in which the Russian Federation has excelled for many years, as an agent of tourism development.

The paper will take a case study approach, considering the nature of fandom and identifying features of artistic gymnastics as cultural heritage and sports tourism product. The national and international environment within which it is set are examined, prior to the development of a research agenda. A detailed review of literature on the historic, current and emerging trends in Russian artistic gymnastics; the place of artistic gymnastics in tourism development and sports tourism in Russia will be carried out.

The paper's findings will include considerations of

- The nature of gymnastics fandom, both in Russia and internationally
- The nature of sports tourism development in the Russian Federation
- The nature of gymnastics as a sport and its competition cycle
- Artistic gymnastics as cultural heritage, and its potential as an autonomous means of promoting Russian national identity
- The relationship between Russia's sometimes fading gymnastics competition results, and its potential to leverage the sport for tourism interest
- The potential for tourism product development linked to artistic gymnastics in the Russian Federation.

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The paper contributes to the literature on the nature of sports tourism as it relates to artistic gymnastics in the Russian Federation in particular.

Keywords Sports tourism • Artistic gymnastics • Russian Federation • Sport as a cultural form

1 Artistic Gymnastics: Some Background

Artistic gymnastics ('gymnastics' in this paper) is one of the oldest Olympic sports. Its international regulatory body, the Federation Internationale de Gymnastique (FIG) was formed in 1881, and gymnastics competitions have been contested at every Olympic Games since the first modern Olympics in 1896. The sport is defined on a technical level as one of a group of sports with 'stabilised kinematic structure of complicated coordination actions performed in relatively constant conditions without direct contact with opponents' (Arkayev & Suchilin, 2004: 30), and is distinct from other sports in the wider gymnastics family, e.g. rhythmic gymnastics, trampolining and sports acrobatics. It shares the playful characteristic of all sport in that it can be practiced at non-competitive, recreational and elite levels. This paper will focus on the sport at the highest, elite level, as practiced by gymnasts in the Russian Federation and the former Soviet Union.

2 The Relationship Between Sports Tourism and Artistic Gymnastics

Sports tourism is not a new phenomenon. Travel associated with sports has a long history. The ancient Greeks travelled to take part in and watch Olympic Games. In the intervening centuries many cultures had examples of sporting events attracting participants and spectators, e.g. journeys to Shaolin Temple to learn, participate in and watch Kung Fu competitions in ancient China are well known. Sport and tourism are closely related and sport is one of the reasons why people travel (Gammon & Robinson, 1997). However, the travel associated with sports and sports as a tourism activity became an important theme within tourism literature only very recently. Sport and tourism were treated as separate areas (Glyptis, 1991; Hinch & Higham, 2001) and it was in the late 1980s and 1990s that attempts were made to explain the relationship between sport and tourism. Sports tourists are classified into various typologies based on the level of their involvement, and these range from competitive participation, non-competitive participation in recreational sports, spectating, accidental participation, organised and non-organised sports tours, vicarious participation and nostalgic visits to sites and museums associated with sports (Gibson, 1998; Hinch & Higham, 2001; Standeven & De Knop, 1999; Weed, 2009). Gammon and Robinson (1997) make a distinction between two forms

of sports tourism based on hard and soft participation, viz. sport tourism and tourism sport. Sport tourism involves sport as primary motivation and tourism sport is where sport is an incidental or secondary part of travel motivation (Gammon & Robinson, 1997).

Sport tourism is basically about holidays involving sporting activity either as a spectator or participant (Weed & Bull, 1997). Gibson (1998) defined sport tourism as 'leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities'. Hinch and Higham (2001) present a three dimensional framework to explore the relationship between sport, space and time. The sport dimension focuses on sport as an attraction and characterises it to have its own rule structure, competition and playful nature. The playful nature of sport consists of notions of uncertainty of outcome and a sanctioned display of sporting acts (Hinch & Higham, 2001). Spatial dimension highlights the themes of location, region and landscape. The temporal dimension considers trip duration, seasonality and patterns of evolution of tourism destinations.

Sport represents a dynamic and increasingly prominent stage for the expression of culture (Hinch & Higham, 2004) and is an integral part of popular culture. Green and Chalip (1998) argue that participants in sport tend to share and celebrate a subculture associated with a particular sport. Commitment to a particular sport, distinguishing symbols and association with particular places are characteristics of sport cultures (Hinch & Higham, 2004). Green and Chalip (1998) state that the subculture of a sport gives its participants a sense of mutual understanding and the opportunity to adopt the attitudes, outlooks and values common to the sport, which become part of their identity. It offers them a common language, a topic of conversation and a basis of camaraderie. Unique cultural traits can be observed in most sporting activities, whether spectator, recreational or competitive. Examples include ritualistic patterns of behaviour of followers of European football clubs with chanting of club anthems during games, tribal affinity towards 'their' club, and the dressing up in the club's colours on match days.

Artistic gymnastics challenges the boundaries of these definitions in that the opportunities for gymnastics followers to attend events are relatively limited. The ritualistic and other behaviours still exist in a virtual context via online communities known as the 'gymternet'. The sport is also rich in cultural associations that could make it an ideal vehicle for conveying national cultural identity and promoting associated tourism motivations, especially within the Russian Federation where the sport has a long history of association with art forms such as ballet and circus.

Russian gymnastics attracts a dedicated following of young fans who amass as an international online community, and whose activities are mostly limited to social media. There is also a niche market of older followers who have a nostalgic interest in what has become known as the 'Golden Years' of the sport, during the Soviet era. The likelihood of either travelling to Russia for sports tourism purposes, or to other destinations to attend competitions, is not currently known.

Sport events can help form the image and add to the attractiveness of a destination for new markets and first-time visitors (Dimanche, 2003). The importance of destination image and its role on destination awareness and decision making process need not be overemphasised. Sporting events will not only attract new segments of visitor and can be used for branding the destination (Chalip & McGuiry, 2004).

This paper considers sports tourism not only as a form of visitation (primary sports tourism), but also in terms of a sport's ability to raise consciousness of a destination and its cultural identity, hence triggering stages of purchase decision and possibly visitation (secondary sports tourism). It considers sport as a possible inspiration for tourism product development. The definition of tourism that is used in this paper goes beyond personal visitation into the realms of 'digital' tourism where the consumer engages with national culture through the medium of the internet and technology-based experiences.

In view of fan behaviour and the characteristics of the sport both internationally and in Russia, this paper will consider sports tourism definitions taking into account the importance of heritage, and the online behaviour of its followers as a form of digital or online sports tourism.

2.1 The Nature of Tourism Visitation Within Artistic Gymnastics

Top level artistic gymnastics has a relatively limited competition calendar, with international, supranational and national competitions taking place annually. The top competitors perform only a handful of times each year, e.g. in 2012 Japanese gymnast Kohei Uchimura appeared once internationally, at the Olympic Games. Competition rosters are often published as late as a week before a competition begins, so fans of particular personalities or teams cannot always be assured that 'their' teams or gymnasts will be present at any given competition, making it risky to plan overseas trips. Fans will therefore target competitions on the basis of locality or proximity to their residence, or by profile, choosing for example to attend a World Championships where the majority of the top competitors can usually be expected to attend.

In Russia, the opportunities to attend competitions are severely limited. Artistic gymnastics is not a popular sport and international competitions do not feature regularly on the calendar. National championships take place in the town of Penza, and while they often attract national press coverage, attendance will be very poor. The 2014 national championships, for example, played to an almost completely empty stadium with parents, gymnasts and coaches making up the majority of the audience. Ticket sales are rarely advertised in advance.

2.2 Fan Behaviour, Vicarious Participation and Online Activity

Aficianados of Russian artistic gymnastics are a niche audience, as likely to travel to Stuttgart to spectate their sport as Moscow, despite any national leanings. Opportunities to travel to Russia as a primary sports tourist are limited to those who are intrepid enough to risk travelling to a distant destination without competition tickets on the off chance of gaining entry to one of the national or regional competitions, and to a very small number of overseas students studying sports coaching at Russian universities.

Perhaps as a result of the lack of spectating opportunities and the wide geographical spread of gymnastics aficionados, this niche community has collected around the internet (the 'gymternet'). These aficionados consume gymnastics voraciously, mulling over the meaning of Russian language sports reports (few of them speak Russian) for every last crumb of information about their team, participating in long chats on social media (some of it in the Russian language), scanning Youtube for roughly shot videos of competition and training routines. Older fans hang around social media sites on the off chance of catching a hair of information about World Champions of the past, following their careers as national coaches and the like. Direct online contact can sometimes be made. The gymnastics coach has become a figure of interest, with 70 and 80 year old Soviet era coaches being tracked down for their opinions on technical, artistic and competition matters.

Most news of the current sport and stars originates in the Russian language press and is disseminated—rapidly—via a network of blogs, secret groups and other social networking sites. Opinion and discussion, in varying forms, takes place all year round on various gymnastics related matters. There is often fierce argument, some of it personal. Not all fans follow nationally delineated affiliations. The creation of imagery and video montages is a favourite activity of many of the younger online fans. Much of this behaviour is currently considered outside the boundaries of pure sports tourism visitation but because of the many unknown quantities of the fan base, and the low level of aspiration and management of the sport in the Russian Federation there is a need to investigate the various levels of involvement in the sport as a form of digital tourism. This digital behaviour might be considered as a form of fandom that precedes actual visitation or that can be part of the development of travel motivation in a wider context. Table 1 attempts to position current assumptions of fan behaviour within a framework of existing sports tourism definitions. Note the emergence of an online, digital sports tourism form. This form of tourism relates to the latent tourism potential of those fans who actively participate in international online sporting activities, but who have yet to translate their online participation into active competition attendance. Online sporting activities are thus considered in this paper as a possible precursor to travel behaviour.

While existing definitions focus on the behaviour of tourists and on sports tourism as visitation patterns, the nature of the sport form involved is not currently

Table 1 Application of Russian artistic gymnastics to sports tourism definitions

Event	Target segment	Form of participation	Form of sports tourism
Domestic competitions, e.g. national championships, Russia Cup	Invited participants	Active competitive participation	Active competitive and participatory
Podium training at national competitions	International online aficionados	Online streaming	<i>Digital sports tourism</i>
Tour of national training centre	International online aficionados	Online streaming	<i>Digital sports tourism</i>
Open days at national training centre	International/domestic aficionados (premium product)	Spectating/ <i>Online</i>	Organised sports tour/ <i>Digital sports tourism</i>
Tours of local gymnasiums	International/domestic aficionados (premium product)	Spectating/ <i>Online</i>	Organised sports tour/ <i>Digital sports tourism</i>
'Meet the Olympic champion' events	International/domestic aficionados (premium product)	Nostalgic visit/ <i>Online</i>	Organised sports tour/ <i>Digital sports tourism</i>

taken into account. The nature of gymnastics and its status within Russian and, formerly, Soviet culture is important to understand before we can really develop a view of how the sport as heritage can be developed for sports tourism.

3 Artistic Gymnastics as Russian Heritage

As a form of culture, sport is commodified for a range of reasons, which include their preservation, economic regeneration of destinations and profit generation. Commodification of culture occurs when cultural objects and activities come to be evaluated primarily in terms of their monetary value (Cohen, 1988). It involves turning culture into a commodity, which can be bought and sold (MacLeod, 2006). Tourism is an industry that draws its supply of products by commodifying cultural, built and natural resources. Imaginative commodification facilitates the transition from sport to sport tourism, leading to the popularisation of sporting events and regeneration of destination economies in the process. Marketing of places and tourism destinations involves turning them into attractive commodities for its customers. Professional sport is probably the most commercialised activity. It is commonly used to sell a wide range of consumer products, with successful sportsmen endorsing products ranging from expensive cars to consumer durables. Most sporting events are professionally organised to generate profit by maximising consumer spend. The economic potential of sport is often used as justification for investing in sporting infrastructure and mega sporting events.

Sport as a cultural and tourism resource is commercialised by employing place marketing and experience marketing. While place marketing involves

communicating selective images of places that appeal to and attract target audience, experience marketing involves adding value for customers by providing opportunities to participate and engage on physical, emotional, intellectual and spiritual levels (Harrison-Hill & Chalip, 2005; Kotler & Gertner, 2002). Place marketing could be an effective way to commodify sports that are destination-based, e.g. golf and skiing. Commodification of sport by providing participatory opportunities is commonplace in sport tourism marketing (Harrison-Hill & Chalip, 2005). Given the range of participatory involvement in sport tourism, e.g. active, passive, vicarious, nostalgic (Gibson, 1998; Weed, 2009), experience marketing lends itself as a key method to commodify sport. Experiencing of sport is an integral part of its consumption and takes various forms from going through a programme booklet at a football match and paid opportunities to interact with sporting icons both past and present. Chalip (1992) proposed the use of multiple narratives, embedded genres and layered symbols to generate multiple meanings and enhanced audience engagement. Event augmentation through add-on activities and clever incorporation of narratives, genres and symbols in the pre- and post-event spectacles and festivals could amplify their experiential impact (Chalip, 2005; Green, 2001). A good example of this is the popularity of post-match parties that follow Indian Premier League cricket matches that are attended by cricket players. As García (2001) states, provision of cultural programmes in the sporting context is yet another way to commodify sporting events and make them appealing to a wider range of market segments. However, selling sport and its culture as a tourism product can have major impacts on the authenticity of the sport and the destination community.

As a highly commoditised cultural activity, sport is influenced by the forces of globalisation. Globalisation is the process that leads to an ever-tightening network of connections that cut across national boundaries (Mowforth & Munt, 1998). It is a new way of looking at a global society which is interconnected through a web of political, economic, cultural and social relations. Globalisation was driven by economic, social, political and technological factors and tourism is both a driver and beneficiary of it. Globalisation, however, is considered to displace local culture with the global, leading to cultural homogenisation and cultural imperialism (Morley, 2006). Sport, as a globally popular form of recreational and entertainment activity has emerged as a major part of the globalisation process. For example, football's English, Spanish, Italian and German leagues now have a global following, which is aided by the developments in communication technologies. World-wide popularity of 20–20 and limited overs cricket matches is another example of sport taking advantage of possibilities offered by globalisation. This has resulted in homogenised sport culture in many sports (e.g. European football) and standardised stadia and sports fields along with global sport stars. Involvement of global media conglomerates and multi-national firms in funding and promoting hallmark sporting events such as Olympics and World Cup Football tournaments is evidence of how sport has become part of commercial globalisation. However, these global firms act in the self-interest of promoting their products through the commodification of sport. Further, globalisation of sport could also result in a trend towards the homogenisation of sports culture. The globalisation of sport has similarities with

tourism. Through the process of globalisation tourism destinations are increasingly connected to their markets resulting in the creation of homogenous identikit destinations. Sport tourism thus is both a beneficiary and victim of globalisation, and the homogenisation of sport and its culture can act as a disincentive to travel for sport (Hinch & Higham, 2004). Retaining authenticity and identity in an era of globalisation will be a major challenge to sport and sport tourism.

The changing nature of gymnastics as a cultural form and its relationship to competition outcomes in the Russian Federation could provide a barrier to the sport's potential to promote national character and identity, especially as a globalised form of the sport is now predominant in competition, with the US women and the Chinese and Japanese men in leadership positions. Examining the forces at work in the changing nature of the sport of gymnastics as a cultural form might help to understand how the sport has developed, and to identify the special features of gymnastics that have a clearly defined link to Russian culture and which can therefore be commodified to the benefit of tourism in the Russian Federation.

Palmer and Sellers (2009), explain that artistic gymnastics as a cultural form possesses several different features which are evident within the sport today:

- Strength
- Fluency of motion
- Influence of a balletic style
- Military heritage

The relative importance of each of these features is constantly changing, and is standardised according to the FIG (International Gymnastics Federation's) Code of Points, which is recognised internationally as the means of judging the sport (Palmer & Sellers, 2009). Changes in competition forces and performance qualities influence the sport as a cultural form. Thus, the sport of gymnastics is constantly changing. As an aesthetic, it is vulnerable to the influence of a variety of values, attitudes and beliefs (Margolis, 1980). Making reference to Newton's (1950) 'Sieve of taste' whereby new cultural approaches are filtered and may become established or rejected over time, Palmer (2003) argues that the relationship between gymnastic rules (the Code of Points), skill (the presentation and execution of exercises) and technicality (the purity of technique) results in a perceived aesthetic outcome, characteristic to individual countries. The influence of ballet is considered to have stemmed in particular from the Soviet school of gymnastics and, today, the Russian Federation has inherited the leadership of this artistic legacy. Soviet—today, Russian—women's gymnastics training includes daily training at the ballet barre from an early age, bringing an emphasis on whole body choreography to all four of the disciplines on which they will eventually compete at senior level, and a similar level of detail in the men's preparation. Elite international gymnasts can benefit from the attentions of professional classical dance choreographers in composing their floor routines, frequently drawing on Russian traditions of folk dance and circus for inspiration (Lisitskaya & Zaglada, 1987).

Russia's approach to the sport reflects more than mere physicality or athleticism, embracing what is known in Russia as 'physical culture', a phenomenon that goes

beyond mere games to embrace something aesthetic, close to the spiritual. The Soviet ethos of sport ('Sportivnosti') is characterised by Makoveeva (2002: 9) as 'an aspiration to overcome the body's limitations', a dream 'of spiritual flight, a release from the flesh', with Kukushin and Andreeva (1983: 13) highlighting its importance to 'all-round human development, which seeks to form personal qualities and facilitate the acquisition of useful skills'. With its emphasis on line, grace and inconceivable flight, and the incredible discipline and work ethic required of its practitioners, gymnastics could be considered to be a pure embodiment of 'Sportivnosti', providing the perfect mirror image of such qualities, with Soviet era press and publicity emphasising the impeccable personal characteristics of its athletes, the prodigious workloads demanded of them, and their frequently super-human efforts in overcoming the physical effects of injury and exhaustion.

Gymnastics as a sporting form is thus congruent with both the dance and sporting philosophical traditions of Russia. Soviet sporting politics was such that for most of the forty years between 1952 and 1992, the Soviet Union had held the intellectual reins of the sport, strongly influencing the Code, and leaving behind a legacy of an aesthetic tradition which still survives within Russian gymnastics today, but which is inexorably dying out of the sport in general. Today, Russia's 'preoccupation with the beauty and delight of the game' founded during the Thaw era of Cold War politics (Makoveeva, 2002: 22) and evidently somewhat at odds with traditional sporting values embraced by the West, has lost its grip on artistic gymnastics, a sport which now strongly favours the athletic to the artistic.

This shift in cultural form has been accompanied by a corresponding drift in competition results. The Soviet Union still retains its leading position in the medal rankings for the sport between 1896 and 2012 (total of 182 medals to their nearest contender, the USA, who have accumulated 101), and Russia now bears the flag as the leading ex-Soviet nation and since their first Olympic competition in 1996 have accumulated a total of 37 medals, putting them in an all-time position of 11th in the overall medal table. But relatively speaking their performance has waned, weakening the country's identity associations with the sport amongst young followers who cannot remember the Soviet 'golden era'. At the same time, loyal followers of Soviet era gymnastics still retain their fascination for the sport and remain sensitive to the special cultural associations of some of Russia's gymnasts. Recollections of this era of gymnastics evoke a sense of nostalgia for a past time of aesthetic and graceful artistry. Online fans of the sport devour videos of routines during the so called 'Golden Era', in particular the 1970s and 1980s, and there is an unlikely taste for Russian language documentaries even amongst those who do not even speak the language. There is an appetite for news of stars of the past, and a cult of personality surrounding many champions, and legendary coaches.

The emphasis of sports involvement in Russia has gradually changed since Soviet times. The Soviets valued sport for a variety of different purposes including international recognition and prestige (Riordan, 2007) and, following a period of time when sports were considered relatively less important, this emphasis continues today, and is supplemented by an interest in encouraging mega-event tourism to such events as the Winter Olympics, FA World Cup and Universiade. President Putin wants

to encourage medal-winning as well, and gymnastics benefits from significant sponsorship from the majority government-owned bank VTB. However, despite the construction of many world class training facilities across Russia, the legacy of the years of poor investment remain: coach retention and training, low participation levels and the poor associations of big-time sport during the Soviet era are all having an effect on standards of competitive performance.

4 The Level of Development of Sports Tourism in the Russian Federation

The Russian government's attitude and approach to the development of sports tourism in Russia has changed significantly over recent years, as well as its attitude to Russia's present and future. Unfortunately, the Russian Government's strategies are not integrated into a holistic development or tourism strategy in Russia. The Federal Agency of Tourism's *Strategy of Tourism Development in the Russian Federation* for the period 2008–2015 cannot be assessed as such, as it lacks a thorough vision.

Though much has been done in Sochi, under the aegis of the 2014 Winter Olympics, to develop a winter sports tourism destination and sports tourism venues, much less is being invested in the development of sports tourism in Russia today from the viewpoint of tourism support, including information leaflets, venue maps etc. Such publications were not published and distributed in Sochi in 2014. Vladimir Putin's government has invested \$50 billion in the Sochi Winter Olympic Games and in the development of 11 cities where the 2018 World Soccer Cup is to be held, with the logical expectation that medals will be won.

Baikov (2008) has identified a number of constraints hampering the development of inbound tourism in Russia today:

1. A lack of favourable information and the absence of advertising materials in foreign markets. The largest world tourist guide, *World Travel Guide*, depicts Russia as 'unfavourable for tourism'—the only country with a negative image of the 200 countries described in the *Guide*.
2. The tourist infrastructure is not developed enough. The current availability of hotel stock is far below that needed to service demand. Besides hotels, most Russian cities lack up-to-date entertainment facilities and there are problems with worn-out roads and a lack of comfortable tourist transportation.
3. The unfavourable visa regime of the Russian Federation involves long and often complicated processes.
4. Problems with the level of tourism services and prices
5. Underdeveloped system of credit card payment in the Russian provinces.

Nevertheless, Russia has many strengths as a tourist destination, including its wealth and diversity of natural resources, the hospitality of its warm and open-

hearted people and its strength in both winter and summer sports. As far as sports tourism is concerned, there is significant potential for Russian athletes to win gold medals in 20 out of 37 Olympic sports. Russia has 52 Olympic reserve colleges, 984 Olympic reserve specialised sports schools and 3,831 children's and youngsters' sports schools. Figure skating and artistic gymnastics are two sports that are well supported by the government and where the medal potential is well recognised.

5 Method

A single, embedded, exploratory case study draws together secondary data from multiple documentary and archival sources in a convergent fashion in an attempt to triangulate (Yin, 2003). Research outcomes can only point in a general direction: all need further research to flesh out the details and to provide more certainty.

The data sources used include press reports from the Russian press and media, in translation, and from the English language specialist sporting press. The online historical archives of the gymnastics press such as Gymn-Forum, and Soviet TV documentaries available via Netfilms, the Russian TV and film archive, have also provided data about the Soviet system. The Russian Gymnastics Federation's website provided some information on the level of development in the sport. Informal online discussions with a former coach of the Soviet Union team, a Soviet Olympic champion, and the CEO of a Russian sports marketing company, have provided some detailed insights into the strengths and weaknesses of the Soviet, Russian and American gymnastics systems. Social media have provided access to a variety of voices, positive and negative, on the Russian and globalised styles of gymnastics, with the author's specialist blog, *Rewriting Russian Gymnastics (RRG)*, and closed, specialist online forums such as The All Around, providing the focal point of an online community of experts and fans who express a multiplicity of opinion about the state of the sport today. The viewpoint of this research is that of a long-standing gymnastics aficionado who has followed Soviet and Russian gymnastics for the past 40 years.

Data sources are triangulated as a test of reliability and to flesh out the different perspectives expressed. Much of the data, including the interviews, have appeared in a prior format on *RRG*. Participant observation of fan behaviour online and at competitions also enabled assumptions to be drawn about the nature of the markets.

6 A Research Agenda for Russian Gymnastics and Its Potential for Sports Tourism

Delineating the nature of what can be investigated at the present time is challenging. There are multiple contexts within which the research can be set—(1) destination tourism to the Russian Federation (2) event tourism to gymnastics competitions (3) online fan behaviour as a form of digital tourism (4) gymnastics as cultural heritage (5) the heritage dimensions of gymnastics as a possible determinant in destination image formation. This paper can only provide an overview of possible research directions, which are given below.

6.1 Profiling the Motivations of Gymnastics Tourists

An understanding of the motivations of aficionados of artistic gymnastics is important not just for developing it as a sports tourism product, but also for developing an insight into the factors behind visitation, both virtual and real, to artistic gymnastics events. The niche of gymnastics tourists has not been researched or understood, which is important for developing artistic gymnastics as a tourist product and its marketing. The question of national affiliation and the relationship between cultural participation and an enjoyment of gymnastics as a motivating factor in attending gymnastics competition would be an essential baseline survey. Non-attendance surveys would also be necessary amongst the online ‘gymternet’ community and amongst attenders at other types of related cultural events e.g. dance festivals, circus.

6.2 Profiling Online Russian Gymnastics Fans and Their Behaviour

Today’s online fans could be tomorrow’s tourists. At least they represent a potentially significant target market of gymnastics tourism. An appreciation of these ‘digital tourists’, along with their motivations and behaviour patterns represent a great opportunity to tap into this market of potential gymnastic tourists. Also, important is to provide the digital tourists with opportunities to experience gymnastics in the virtual world and tap into potential opportunities. Researching the profile of the online fans, their background, motivations, intention to visit real gymnastics events represents an important area of research. A netnographic approach might contribute to the development of an understanding of how fans in Russia and elsewhere behave, with a view to considering how and if their behaviour leads to the development of a destination image and associated travel intentions.

6.3 Understanding the Nature of Gymnastics as a Cultural Form

Sports have become a global phenomenon and most of them have their own common language and culture which is shared and understood by followers of different sports. However, sports also remain distinctly local and have their unique identity and fandom, who share it and sometime create new forms of culture and politics. It would be fascinating to research and understand the identity, culture and politics surrounding artistic gymnastics. A major question in this context is, to what extent have changes in the sport influenced its shape as a cultural form and hence its propensity to promote destination image for Russia?

6.4 The Commodification of Artistic Gymnastics

Sports, like various forms of culture, are commercialised to make them more accessible, ensure their commercial viability and to find resources for their development. Developing sport as a tourism product invariably involves its commodification. Identifying the barriers to commodification of gymnastics in the Russian Federation for either commercial or tourism purposes from social, economic, cultural and political perspectives is an important area to research, with the aim of considering key product development opportunities for gymnastics tourism to the Russian Federation including but not limited to tours, memberships, and online affiliations.

In view of the ever changing identity of gymnastics, the issue of the authentic representation of the Russian national character may have an influence on how the sport can be marketed as a tourism product. Important too is to examine the impacts of commodification of gymnastics on its aficionados.

6.5 Artistic Gymnastics as an Agent in the Formation of Russian National Identity and Destination Image

Understanding the processes by which national identity is formed and how artistic gymnastics, along with other cultural forms, can contribute to this formation will be a precursor to considering issues of positioning and branding and in developing models of sport heritage branding.

Artistic gymnastics with its artistry and sophistication could be a powerful means for forming an attractive image to both existing and emerging tourist destinations in Russia. The potential of artistic gymnastics to form or modify the image of tourist destination in Russia and the type of images that are likely to be attributed to artistic gymnastics represent an research opportunity that is valuable to

the literature on sports and tourism marketing. Allied to this theme is the examination of the current image of tourist destinations in Russia and issues of image gap and the chain of influence in tourism destination image of Russia (Kokkranikal, Cronje, & Butler, 2011).

6.6 Issues and Challenges in Sports Tourism Development in Russia

Russian tourism is still in its development stage (Butler, 1980). Infrastructure and management resources play a vital role in the development of sport heritage tourism. Issues such as infrastructure development, visitor management, stakeholder participation and funding for developing sport heritage tourism within the context of gymnastics are worth studying to understand the dynamics of tourism development in Russia.

Russia has a rich heritage of sports and has a tradition of being a sporting super power. With a wide range of tourism resources, which range from a rich cultural heritage to a variety of natural features, Russia has tremendous potential as a tourist destination. However, very limited or no research has been carried out on tourism in general and sports tourism development in particular in Russia. The study on artistic gymnastics provides an opportunity to expand the scope of research into the current state of sports tourism in Russia and challenges it faces. The following themes related to sports tourism development in Russia require more research and deeper understanding: policy environment of sports tourism, organisational requirements and complexities of sports tourism marketing. This list can be expanded to include human resource issues, the role of government and private sector, the role of relationship marketing in sports tourism; strategic issues such as quality and innovation, and experiential and behavioural aspects of sports tourism.

6.7 Conceptual Issues Surrounding Sports Tourism

- **Definitional issues.** The current definitional frameworks need some consideration in light of the emergence of the ‘digital’ sports fan and the relationship online behaviour might have to patterns of visitation.
- **Relationship marketing.** Where there is a dedicated niche following of a sport it might be worth exploring a relationship marketing approach to the transformation of online behaviour to physical visitation. The potential of sports memberships may be worth investigation.

7 Conclusions

Sports tourism in the Russian Federation is currently focussed on the staging of mega events and its associated benefits. This paper considers sports heritage tourism and a variant, online form of sports tourism as a means of encouraging the formation of destination image and providing the pre-requisites for the development of a variety of Russian gymnastics tourism product. At present, tourism is in a development stage in Russia and there is also little understanding of the appeal of gymnastics and its potential as a sports tourism product. The rich cultural associations of Russian gymnastics make it a rich field for the collection of data that may contribute to understandings of sport as a cultural form, its potential for tourism commodification, branding and product development.

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Greek Museums on the Web

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Abstract Information offered through museums websites may serve as a means to expand their reach and increase the likelihood of a visit. The paper aims at investigating quantity and type of information provided by Greek museum websites. The recorded information features were divided in six dimensions according to their thematic similarity: Contact-Communication, Visit the museum, The museum, Education, Website features and Use of social media. Museums ‘thematics’ is taken into consideration. Greek museums make limited use of the web and do not take advantage of the possibilities offered. The majority of Greek museums use their websites like brochures as ‘Contact- Communication’ and ‘visit to the museum’ are the information richest dimensions. Museum ‘thematics’ have impact only on the information provided on ‘Content-Communication’ and ‘The museum’ dimensions. Impact of other managerial characteristics of the museums on provision of information features should be further investigated.

Keywords Greek museums • Website content • Information features • Museum ‘thematics’

1 Introduction

Museums are among the most socially valued cultural institutions in the world, and there is an increased interest in their attendance (Pallud & Straub, 2014; Poulot, 2005). The number of museums in a country reflects the level of its cultural achievements and the level of scientific research that takes place in this specific field in the country (Popescu & Corboş, 2011). According to Ministry of Culture and Sports 239 museums are established in Greece. Greek museums foster exhibits which cover several millennia of culture, deeds and accomplishment.

Museums’ attendance generates the highest participation rates, just after cinema, reading, and sports (Schuster, 2007). The many socioeconomic benefits that museums can offer, such their high potential for raising local incomes, providing

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new community/social space, improving quality of life for residents, providing learning resources and support and developing local urban economies, may explain the increased interest in them (Bryan, Munday, & Bevins, 2012; Pallud & Straub, 2014; Popescu & Corboş, 2011). Deffner, Metaxas, Syrakoulis, and Papatheohari (2009) claimed that museums act as “the instruments” for cities in the development process and may become city symbols (Hamnett & Shoval, 2003).

The rapid evolution of internet and world wide web (www) technologies have influenced museums, galleries and other cultural institutions offering them the potential for digitization initiatives and connection of tangible and intangible cultural collections (Hennessy, Wallace, & Jakobsen, 2012). Museums use www and web 2.0 as a mode of communication (Pavlou, 2012) an additional medium to disseminate information about their collections to a worldwide audience (Harms & Schweibenz, 2001) a new way to interact with schools and provide distant learning through cultural resources (Leftwich & Bazley, 2009). Moreover, “the museum objects on exhibit at any time may actually constitute less than half of the total collections” or “the well-known 40-40-20 proportion” where 40 % are for the collections, 40 for exhibits and 20 % for everything else. Some museums with larger archives have only 10 % on display (Burcaw, 1997). Thus www and web 2.0 offer museums new ways of drawing out museum objects from the archives (Ch’ng, 2011). Initially there was a fear that museum websites would discourage people from visiting the museum however, today, it has been admitted by most museum experts that websites offer unique opportunities for attracting people to the museum (Marty, 2004). Indeed, Loomis and Elias (2003) found that using a museum website would increase the likelihood of a visit.

Nowadays, many museums have already established websites and tend to invest increasingly more money in their websites in order to improve their quality (Pallud & Straub, 2014). While the impact of websites in business organizations has been widely studied, the role they play in organizations such as museums, is not a common research subject and little work exists on evaluating museums’ websites (Fotakis & Economides, 2008; Kefi & Pallud, 2011). Simple web presence cannot achieve all of its potential. A website must keep up with technological advances, visitors’ expectations and deliver several essential features to foster a better online experience (Fotakis & Economides, 2008; Zafiroopoulos & Vrana, 2005).

Greece is among the countries with the lowest internet usage in the EU (European Commission, 2013) and the same happens with museum use of the Internet. From the 239 museums established in Greece only 53 of them have web presence.

The paper aims at investigating to which extend Greek museum websites provide information features through a web search and the construction of an information features record, which distinguishes six dimensions of offered information features. The paper also studies differences of offered information features depending on the museum ‘thematics’.

2 Content of Websites

Nowadays, corporations and organizations worldwide have realized that information technology can provide a distinct organization advantage; especially websites are important information technology tools with different purposes, designs and implementations that indicate their focus or priority and can be used to achieve many purposes (Auger, 2005; Osunade & Ogundele, 2012). However, only the website presence is not a guarantee of success (Liang & Law, 2003). The website has to offer attractive and content-rich web experience (Haas, 2002). The value an organization attaches to a website is reflected in the operations and content of the website (Osunade & Ogundele, 2012). Thus, content ‘is the king’ and the comprehensiveness and usefulness of a museum’s website content is important for a virtual visitor. Fotakis and Economides (2008) claimed that existence of content appropriate for kids or special categories of people is a big advantage for the website.

The term ‘content’ refers to the information features or services that are offered in the website (Huizingh, 2000) and is not limited to the subject, product or services provided. Content is more; it includes the solutions and strategies employed to make it easy for the user to accomplish important tasks, such as information retrieval, search and navigation and obtaining feedback (Calongne, 2001; Spremić & Strugar, 2008; Zafiroopoulos, Vrana, & Paschaloudis, 2006). While the term ‘richness’ refers to the ability of media to improve human understanding by reducing uncertainty and ambiguity (Lodhia, 2004; Sigala, 2003) and can be used to describe the nature of information and the depth of collected customer information (Spremić & Strugar, 2008). Museums are an information intensive industry thus rich media need to be used.

3 Museums Websites

The times have passed that museums had to produce brochures to reach their communities. Today, even the smallest museum is able to generate and distribute information in a simple way by using digital media (Weber, 2009). A museum’s website is a window to reach more groups of audiences (Nuo, 2013). According to Silverstone (1994, p. 164) museums are

in many respects like other contemporary media. They entertain and inform; they tell stories and construct arguments; they aim to please and to educate; they define, consciously or unconsciously; Effectively or ineffectively, an agenda; they translate the otherwise unfamiliar and inaccessible into the familiar and accessible

Thus, the www enhanced by three-dimensional visualization tools can provide valuable help to museums to accomplish these aims (Sylaiou, Liarokapis, Kotsakis, & Patias, 2009).

Schweibenz (2004) described four categories into which most museum websites fall: *The brochure museum*: The website contains the basic information about the

museum, such as types of collection, contact details, etc. The goal of the website is to lure visitors to its brick-and-mortar presence (Litman & Sturm, 2012). *The content museum*: The website gives detailed information museum's collection and invites the virtual visitor to explore them online. The goal of the website is to provide a detailed portrayal of the collections of the museum. *The learning museum*: the website offers different points of access to its virtual visitors, according to their age, background and knowledge. The goal of the website is to make the virtual visitor come back and establish a personal relationship with the online-collection. *The virtual museum*: The website provides not only information about the institution's collection but to link to digital collections of other. The goal of the website is to preserve museums content for future generations and support its use and management over time. Virtual museums break the concept of the traditional museum and link together people, places and things which otherwise could not be easily reach (Litman & Sturm, 2012).

Pallas and Economides (2008) evaluated 210 art museums' web sites worldwide found that North American and European art museums' websites provided a satisfactory content while many sites from the rest World had incomplete content and failed to provide the visitors with all the information that they might need. Glenn (2004) examined the websites of one hundred randomly selected local history repositories in the United States. According to her findings 59 % of the repositories surveyed provide a complete, useful, and high-quality web presence, including information beyond that of a simple brochure. Futers (1997) found that 52 % of virtual visitors expect to be able to download images from online exhibitions. Saiki (2010) investigated the degree of viewer interaction capabilities of features found on the education portion of museum websites. From the 153 websites analyzed 45.1 % had narrative, 33.3 % had interactivity functionality, 35.9 % websites had communicative, 24.8 % had adaptive, and 22.2 % had productive features. Features found at the adaptive and productive levels tended to incorporate offline activity.

Danish museums were investigated by Holdgaard and Simonsen (2011). Significant differences were recorded depending on size and purpose of the website. Many websites are simply brochures holding an address and information about opening hours, while others consist of several thousand pages and include many web 2.0 applications like blogs, Facebook, YouTube on their websites. Information about organizations and employees are not available to all on their websites.

Capriotti and Pardo-Kuklinski (2012) investigated the level of dialogic communication developed by museums on the Internet, by analyzing the use of web platforms and social web applications as tools for dialogic communication by 120 museums in Spain. According to their findings websites of the museums are highly one-way instruments of communication. The vast majority of the museums is simply using the Internet and the web 2.0 as new means to create and present old media (electronic bulletins, electronic leaflets, etc.) and is therefore reproducing the one-way passive forms and processes of traditional offline communication.

Mason and McCarthy (2008) studied the websites of New Zealand museums and heritage organizations. The main attributes of the websites were divided into seven

categories. *Technical competence*: Efficiently load of the site, Navigability, Acceptable layout by current norms of Internet presentation. *Visitor information*: Provision of essential information such as opening hours, floor plans, directions etc. *Collections, attractions and exhibits*: Display information on collections, exhibits, programmes, assistance in planning visits. *Mission, education*: Inclusion of information such as goals, collections, education, conservation, research etc. *Visitor relationships*: guest books, email forms, newsletters etc. *Marketing*: Personalization the experience for visitors, foreign language versions, junior clubs, etc. *Income generation*: Offer of a cheap and simple way to generate direct income through e-commerce applications, include booking forms, souvenir sales, etc. They found that in most cases the design that the website was not the result of careful planning and development rather; the designs were the result of serendipity, chance and opportunistic resources.

4 Methodology

The article aims at measuring the quantity of information offered through the museum websites, and investigating differences of offered information features depending on the museum ‘thematics’. Ministry of Culture and Sports’ website (<http://odysseus.culture.gr/h/1/eh110.jsp>) was used to identify Greek museums that have a website. A total of 53 museum websites were recorded and visited. At the first step information services offered on the museum websites were recorded through an extensive web search. An effort was made to include as many information services offered as possible. The survey resulted to the creation of a set of 74 information features. The limitation of the abovementioned procedure is that the list of 74 information features was not validated in order to distinguish the most significant information features within it. Instead a ‘complete’ list of features was formed in order to capture every information feature offered on the websites. Following a methodology similar to that of Zafiroopoulos and Vrana (2005) the information features were divided in six dimensions according to their thematic similarity: Contact -communication, Visit the museum, The museum, Education, Website features and Use of social media. The dimensions were composed from separate features with thematic similarity, and are described as follows:

- Contact- Communication’: Telephone, Fax, e-mail, contact form, members/ newsletter, news/press releases, press images, press wrote, publications.
- Visit the museum: Hours and ticketing, getting here, gallery talks, The Site/ Surroundings, eat and treats, museum gifts, reading lounge, museum floor plan.
- The museum: The museum/museum history, key individuals/supporters/donors, Be a donor, departments, collections, permanent exhibitions, contemporary exhibitions, host events, library/audio library, screenings, museum events, awards and distinctions, important visitors, e-museum, object of the month, association of friends.

- Education: Educational program, Learning resources, Lectures, Digital storytelling, Games, School visits.
- Website Features: Guest book, Photos/Photo gallery, Video, Interactive Map, Shop on line, Navigation in the museum exhibits, F.A.Q. Sitemap, For People with disabilities, Multilingual, Search, Privacy Policy, Term & Conditions, Powered By, Connected.
- Social media: RSS, Facebook, Like, Twitter, Pinterest, Instagram, Flickr, Google +, Linkedin, Vimeo, Blog, Youtube, ITunes, Tipadvisor, Links to other sites, Forum, Tell a Friend, Tell us Your Opinion, Mobile Apps, Share it.

The final step involved the identification of information features, which are offered through the recorded websites.

5 Results

Following the search methodology 53 museum websites were recorded. These consisted of: 11 Archaeological Museums and Collections, 2 Byzantine Museums and Collections, 12 Historical and Folklore Museums, 8 Art Museums, 6 Zoological and Natural History museums, 3 Nautical and war Museums, 4 Technology museums and 7 Special theme museums (Table 1).

Table 2 presents the 74 information features with their occurrence percentages for Greek museum websites.

Table 1 Descriptive statistics of museums and their websites

Thematics	Museums	Museums having website	Distribution of the web sites regarding to the relative museums 'thematics'
Archaeological museums and collections	118	11	20.75 %
Byzantine museums and collections	24	2	3.77 %
Historical and Folklore museums	45	12	22.64 %
Art museums	18	8	15.09 %
Nautical and war museums	8	3	5.66 %
Zoological and natural history museums	6	6	11.32 %
Technology museums	8	4	7.55 %
Special theme museums	12	7	13.21 %

Table 2 Information features of Greek museum websites

Contact and communication	Percentage	Website features	Percentage
Telephone	94.30 %	Guest book	34.00 %
Fax	88.70 %	Photos/Photo gallery	92.50 %
e-mail	77.40 %	Video	43.40 %
Contact form	26.40 %	Interactive map	30.20 %
Members/New letter	43.40 %	Shop on line	9.40 %
News/Press releases	83.00 %	Navigation in the exhibits	75.50 %
Press images	1.90 %	FAQ	7.50 %
Press wrote	7.50 %	Site map	32.10 %
Publications	52.80 %	For people with disabilities	13.20 %
Visit the museum		Multilingual	50.90 %
Hours and ticketing	88.70 %	Search	30.20 %
Getting here	52.80 %	Privacy policy	1.90 %
Gallery talks	34.00 %	Terms & COnditions	9.40 %
The site/Surroundings	37.70 %	Powered by	28.30 %
Eat and treats	20.80 %	Connected	7.50 %
Museum gifts	41.50 %	Use of social media	
Reading lounge	3.80 %	Rss	11.30 %
Museum floor plan	35.80 %	Facebook	28.30 %
The museum		Like	9.40 %
The Museum/museum history	83.00 %	Twitter	28.30 %
Key individuals/supporters/donors	41.50 %	Pinterest	3.80 %
Be a donor	11.30 %	Instagram	3.80 %
Departments	41.50 %	Flickr	7.50 %
Collections	54.70 %	Google+	5.70 %
Permanent exhibitions	71.70 %	Linkedin	5.70 %
Contemporary exhibitions	50.90 %	Vimeo	5.70 %
Host events	41.50 %	Blog	3.80 %
Library/Audio library	41.50 %	Youtube	20.80 %
Screenings	5.70 %	ITunes	3.80 %
Museum events	13.20 %	Tripadvisor	13.20 %
Awards and distinctions	5.70 %	Link to other sites	32.10 %
Important visitors	3.80 %	Forum	1.90 %
e-museum	3.80 %	Tell a friend	3.80 %
Object of the month	1.90 %	Tell us your opinion	1.90 %
Association of friends	32.10 %	Mobile Apps	5.70 %
Education		Share it	9.40 %
Educational programs	79.20 %		
Learning resources	37.70 %		
Lectures	30.20 %		
Digital story telling	3.80 %		
Games	11.30 %		
School visits	66.00 %		

The next step was to measure the information richness of the website in each dimension. This was done by calculating how many features each website offered in the specific dimension.

Contact: Communication

Dimension 'Contact- Communication' is the information richest dimension. More than half of the information features of this particular dimension are offered in Greek museum websites. In this dimension alternative ways of communication like telephone, fax and e-mail are those with the higher occurrences 94.3 %, 88.7 % and 77.4 % respectively. A significant percentage of 83 % offer news/press release to keep their visitors informed about current, upcoming, contemporary and virtual exhibitions and events. More than half the total number of museums offered information about their publications (52.8 %).

Visit to the Museum

Dimension 'visit to the museum' follows with an average of 40 % of the information features of the dimension are provided through Greek museum websites'. The majority of the museum websites offer hours and ticketing information. Information about the ways of getting here, museum gifts and the Site/Surroundings are presented in lower percentages for all the museums.

Education

Very close to 'visit to the museum' dimension comes the 'education' dimension with a percentage of 38 %. Museums have always been regarded as gatekeepers of cultural heritage and as educational institutions (Pavlou, 2012). Nearly 80 % of Greek museum offer educational programs and 66 % information about school visits. New media technologies offer museums the prospect for a significant expansion of distant learning provision and in the promotion of local and world culture in more effective ways (Pavlou, 2012). However, Greek museums do not offer at their websites learning resources, games or digital story telling. The Acropolis Museum and the Museum of Byzantine Culture are the only that inform about the use of digital tools to tell personal or group stories at their websites.

The Museum

Information features in 'The Museum' dimension are provided to a moderate degree. 'Digital collections and online exhibits offer new ways to draw people into museums and build stronger relationships between museums and their visitors' claimed Marty (2007). Information about the museum/museum history is offered in more than 80 % (83 %) of all the museums. Followed by permanent exhibitions at 71.70 %. The following features are offered of about half of the museums: collections (54.7 %) and contemporary exhibitions (50.9 %). Information about screenings, awards and distinctions, important visitors, and object of the month are offered to very low percentages. Learning and discovery on-site via participation and interaction plays an important role in motivating website visitors to actually visit the museum (Ch'ng, 2011) thus a growing number of museums, allow visitors

to create personal digital collections of their favorite artifacts (Bowen & Filippini-Fantoni, 2004). Despite this fact only 3.80 % of Greek museums under investigation offer this possibility (e-museum).

Website Features

Information features in the ‘website features’ dimension, are also provided to a moderate degree. In this dimension, nearly all websites (92.5 %) offer pictures for the visitors. Three quarters of the websites offer navigation to the museum exhibits. Museums can take advantage of this by tracking virtual users, for example what they looked at, the location and orientation of their gaze, and store the data for analysis. By understanding visitors’ behavior museums may plan better tours for the visitors (Ch’ng, 2011). In order to have international reach, museums have to provide multilingual information and resources on their websites. Only half of the Greek museums websites are multilingual. Multilingual accessibility is significantly important in meeting the needs of diverse Museum clients by making information available in as many languages as possible and to overcome language barriers (Chhatwani, Gada, Ganji, Pathirapandi, & Tikku, 2013). Thus, multilingual websites play a strategic role in the quality and effectiveness of the information and services provided by museums and may engage visitors more deeply with the museum content. Museum shops are traditional sources of income. The implementation of an online shop offers museums possibilities of generating extra direct income along with promoting their collections. One out of ten Greek museums offers possibilities to shop on line.

Social Networks

Information features in ‘social networks’ dimension are provided to the smaller degree. Only 10.09 % of the information features in the specific dimension are offered in Greek museum websites’. Despite the fact the people nowadays are increasingly using social media; Greek museums step behind and make limited use of social media. Facebook and Twitter are the most popular with a 28.3 % of occurrence followed by YouTube by a percentage 20.80 %. An RSS feed is the most frequently used tool for to personalize information. However, a very low percentage 11.30 % of museum websites is featuring it. Blogs are present in 3.80 % of the museums websites reviewed, while forums are uncommon tools in museum websites, featuring in only 1.90 % of the museum websites in the study. These findings are in accordance with those of López, Margapoti, Maragliano, and Bove (2010) who investigated the incorporation of social media to the websites of two hundred and forty museum in five countries (Italy, France, Spain, England, and the USA) belonging to four categories (arts, natural sciences, social sciences, and specialized). The results showed a low overall presence of Web 2.0 tools on museum websites.

Effect of Museum ‘thematics’

Then the effect of museum ‘thematics’ on the volume of information features offered through the web was explored. Museums were distinguished in eight

Table 3 Information features according to ‘thematics’

Thematics	Dimensions					
	Contact and communication	Visit the museum	The museum	Education	Website features	Use of social media
Archaeological museums and collections	46.00 %	45.00 %	26.00 %	35.00 %	30.00 %	14.00 %
Byzantine museums and collections	67.00 %	63.00 %	38.00 %	75.00 %	23.00 %	10.00 %
Historical and Folklore Museums	60.00 %	43.00 %	38.00 %	39.00 %	32.00 %	8.00 %
Art museums	64.00 %	48.00 %	43.00 %	40.00 %	35.00 %	9.00 %
Nautical and war museums	44.00 %	25.00 %	27.00 %	17.00 %	31.00 %	10.00 %
Zoological and natural history museums	50.00 %	29.00 %	32.00 %	36.00 %	30.00 %	12.00 %
Technology museums	38.00 %	27.00 %	16.00 %	43.00 %	33.00 %	9.00 %
Special theme museums	56.00 %	41.00 %	33.00 %	33.00 %	23.00 %	8.00 %

‘thematics’ according to Ministry of Culture and Sports. Archaeological Museums and Collections, Byzantine Museums and Collections, Historical and Folklore Museums, Art museums, Nautical and war Museums, Zoological and Natural History museums, Technology museums and Special theme museums.

Table 3 presents the dimensions of information features with their occurrence percentages for Greek museum websites according to museum’s ‘thematics’ in the six dimensions. Percentages have been formed in the following manner: For every museum the amount of offered features was added for each dimension and then it was divided by the total of features of every dimension. This ratio is expressed as a percentage of the features rendered by the museum for this specific dimension. If for example, this percentage is 50 %, the museum offers half of the features that constitute a specific dimension. Then percentages were calculated for each dimension.

In the analysis ‘thematics’ serves as independent variable, which may have an impact on the volume of information provided. The six information dimensions were regarded as the dependent variables. One-way ANOVA was applied. ANOVA tables showed that the influence of ‘thematics’ is statistically significant only for the dimensions of ‘Content-Communication’ (p -value = 0.02 < 0.05) and ‘The museum’ (p -value = 0.04 < 0.05), therefore the null hypothesis that the mean values of all groups are equal is rejected.

6 Conclusion and Implications

This research aims at measuring information features offered by Greek museums on the grounds of a framework which categorizes the offered information features into six dimensions according to their thematic similarity. This was done in such a way that the dimensions include, to the possible extent, all information features. During the elaboration of the study it was made clear that the majority of Greek museums still do not have a website. Only a small percentage of the museums use websites for contacting, informing and attracting visitors and an even smaller for making business with potential customers. Perhaps this happens due to the fact that the majority of Greek museums are small and are facing with insufficient funding.

Greek museums that have a website have developed quite informative websites. Some information features are offer at high percentage levels but they do not make extensive use of the potential offered through websites. Some information dimensions are poorly represented in comparison with some others that are more developed. Even among information features within the same dimension, some separate features are more developed than others. Dimensions ‘Contact- Communication’ and ‘Visit to the museum’ are the information richest dimensions. Both this dimensions offer important information for the visitor of the museum. However Greek museums remain behind in using social media complementary to their website for the promotion of the museum.

National Museum of Contemporary Art, Benaki Museum, Macedonian Museum of Contemporary Art are the museums that perform better than the others followed by National Archeological Museum, Archeological Museum of Thessaloniki, The museum of Acropolis, Museum of Byzantine Culture, Byzantine and Christian Museum, and the Jewish Museum of Greece. Their websites may act as a benchmarking tool for the other museums in order to improve their websites.

Museum ‘thematics’ have impact only on the information provided on ‘Content-Communication’ and ‘The museum’ dimensions. Other managerial characteristics of the museums such as funders ranging from government agencies to corporations, foundations, and individuals-collection size, or attendance numbers should be investigated whether they have impact on the amount of information offered through museums web sites.

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Rose and Olive Heritage in Bulgaria and Greece: A Comparative Study

Vesselin Loulanski and Tolina Loulanski

Abstract Roses and olives have been considered important symbols for Bulgarian and Greek culture and identity from antiquity to the present day. Although previously seen mainly from the point of view of agriculture, roses and olives have been redefined as a unique form of both tangible and intangible cultural heritage with multiple values, and as a resource with various areas of use (cultural, economic, social and political), upon which extensive activities and industries have been constructed. In addition to the historically strong record of various cultural uses they had in symbols, rituals, traditional folklore, arts, crafts, events and festivals, at present, the growing synergy with tourism stands out as an approach that could enhance their fundamental values even further as an important catalyst of a sustainability-aimed socio-economic development. The comparative analysis of cultural heritage policies in the case of continuing, productive and living landscapes as the Rose Valley cultural landscape in Bulgaria and the Olive Groves cultural landscape in Greece aims to encourage landscape conservation by providing cross-case landscape definitions, history of formation, cultural significance, preservation and governance systems, as well as initiated projects for sustainable use and development. Possible interactive synergies will be outlined by referring both to the theory and practice of the interrelated fields of cultural heritage conservation, tourism and sustainable development.

Keywords Cultural landscape • Heritization • Comparative policy analysis

1 Design, Methodology, Approach

The thematic comparative approach has been particularly rare in the cultural heritage field in Europe. Here it is expected to allow a more inclusive interpretation, significant cross-case consistency, variability and generalizations, for the purposes

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© Springer International Publishing Switzerland 2015

V. Katsoni (ed.), *Cultural Tourism in a Digital Era*, Springer Proceedings in Business and Economics, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-15859-4_9

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of developing the needed synthesis of knowledge and integrated framework as a global standard for sustainability in cultural heritage management and tourism in diverse environments. The development of a valid cross-case reference database will also serve the goals of raising awareness, capacity building and dissemination of knowledge of the cultural values among all stakeholders: institutions, public and private sector, the local community, the public, the international community, and the visitors at large.

2 Findings

The comparison will illustrate the significant potential and growing local and global policy thread that advocates for integrating rural cultural heritage into tourism and development strategies as an efficient tool for achieving sustainability in cultural, economic, social and environmental terms. The findings will add an important facet to the theory and practice of the rose and olive heritage that are understudied as cultural and social phenomena, economic and tourism resources, and commonly underrepresented and underused as integrative forms of capital, generating a range of long-term benefits to a variety of stakeholders.

3 Originality, Value

The study will be a first attempt to bring together the experience and compare the so far separate accounts of cultural landscape policy and practice in two neighboring European countries. It is expected to point some timely issues that local authorities may wish to consider in their future plans and strategies of heritage and tourism development. The cross-case findings are also anticipated to facilitate the process of establishing a common European agenda for practice-oriented research and integrated approach in studying, developing theory, formulating policy, and shaping practice to ensure sustainability of heritage resources, as well as initiate beneficial multinational projects for cooperation and exchange of innovative management practices, socio-economic strategies, stakeholder awareness, education programs, local community development planning, capacity-building, improvement of legal protection and institutional networks, as well as promotion of inter-institutional and cross-border cooperation.

Promotion of Cultural Heritage Tourism in Chokhatauri District in Georgia

Eka Devidze and Lali Gigauri

Abstract Cultural heritage is unique and irreplaceable, which places the responsibility of preservation on the current generation, it has a long history, and with its roots in the Grand Tour is arguably the original form of tourism, cultural heritage is keeping traditions alive and is an expression of the ways of living developed by a community and passed on from generation to generation, including customs, practices, places, objects, artistic expressions and values, without it we will lose our main source of self-expression and in the end our self-realization.

Keywords Cultural heritage tourism

1 Introduction

The article covers one of the districts of Guria region rich with potential resources of cultural heritage tourism which were not investigated properly for the last 10 years, the research done and the database analyzed provide us with the bases on which can be worked out the action plan for cultural heritage tourism development on regional level. As one of the principle objectives of cultural heritage tourism is collaboration with local organizations and the public to develop sustainable economies. As far as it is understood tourism creates jobs, offers new business opportunities, and strengthens local economies. It protects natural and cultural resources, which improve the quality of life for residents and travelers who participate in the services and attractions. It is the trigger for income generation, increased income has direct effect on local and regional life level, besides heritage tourism promotes community pride by allowing people to work together to enhance economic and cultural development through distinct community opportunities.

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2 Cultural Heritage Tourism

Since the beginning of time humans have traveled. Food, water, safety or acquisition of resources (trade) was the early travel motivations. But the idea of travel for pleasure or exploration soon emerged. Travel has always depended on the technology to provide the means or mode of trip. The earliest travelers walked or rode. The invention of the wheel and the sail provided new modes of transportation. Each improvement in technology increased individuals' opportunities to travel. As roads were improved and governments stabilized, interest in travel increased for education, sightseeing, and religious purposes. 57 % of respondents from 20 countries agreed that history and culture are strong influences on their choice of holiday destination (only 15 % disagreed), so it is clear that destinations excelling in this area are likely to be high on travellers' consideration lists (UNWTO, 2013).

Cultural heritage is keeping traditions alive and is an expression of the ways of living developed by a community and passed on from generation to generation, including customs, practices, places, objects, artistic expressions and values, without it we will lose our main source of self-expression and in the end our self-realization. It is defined as the legacy of physical artifacts and intangible attributes of a group or society that are inherited from past generations, maintained in the present and bestowed for the benefit of future generation.

3 Tourism Potential in Chokhatauri Municipality in Western Georgia

In the paperwork there is proposed one of the regions and districts of Western Georgia having higher potential of tourism resources that totally are unknown by the most majority of community representatives, even more, while traveling tour agencies offer inbound and outbound organized or individual tourist products of various destinations to tourists in which there are not mentioned tourism products of Chokhatauri municipality. This is the key point of our research, the students of Intentional Black Sea University made the action plan, researchers were selected on a local level of Chokhatauri community who performed the research on the properties or destination—sightseeing that are fixed in 62 villages of the target municipality. The aim of the survey was to research, analyze and promote cultural heritage resources, to raise local residents' awareness and develop in-bound cultural heritage tourism through local and worldwide promotion. Researchers used the methods of: cabinet regime (reviewing data), field visits (on target objects), individual and group interviews, observations, snowball principles (determining the object). SWOT analyze was prepared with the help of data collected. Four main components of the SWOT analyze gave the good capability to realize strengths and weaknesses, possibilities and threats met in the tourism field in the municipality (See the Tables 1 and 2, 3).

Table 1 SWOT analyze

Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Geographic location and mild climate, picturesque nature • Historical, architectural, cultural and archeological monuments • Eparchies, churches, monasteries, Castles, • Resorts • Museums • Protected areas • Government support (new initiatives, investments), state policy of tourism development • Hydro resources (water supply) • Forest and land resources • Literature, folklore, traditions • Kitchen (food), culture itself, population • Ecologically clean/pure agricultural products • Archaeological Sites, architectural and administrative buildings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Informational vacuum • The language barrier • Lack of transport facilities (in villages) • Low level of service • Lack of professional staff • Having no regional tourism development short or long term strategy • Less investments in districts • Lack of exact records about incoming visitors (arrivals/departures) in regions/villages, • Lack of accommodation in communities • Weak management on a regional level • Non rational use of tourism potential • Lack of services for persons with disabilities <p>The impact of demographic processes (population aging, migration, low educational level, informational vacuum mostly in communities, etc.)</p> <p>Lack of new technologies, no functioning of scientific—research or experimental labs in communities</p>

Resource: Devidze, E. (2012). Cultural heritage and problems of tourism development in Imereti, Tbilisi

On the bases of SWOT and SMART analyzes there was offered new niche—cultural heritage tourism to Chokhatauri municipality, we proposed five sub-directions of cultural heritage tourism within the community, each sub-direction consists of separate sub-groups, thus covering all material and non-material properties of cultural heritage in the district. See the Fig. 1.

Cultural heritage tourism protects historic, cultural, and natural resources in communities. Knowledge of heritage provides continuity and context for communities, which instills respect in their residents, strengthens citizenship values, builds community pride, and improves quality of life. How can we make the past to be the part of our future? It is casual thing, by understanding cultural heritage people value it, by valuing it, people want to care for it, by caring for it, it will help people enjoy it, from enjoying it, comes a thirst to understand, by understanding it at the broadest level, the natural and cultural heritage belongs to all people. We all have a right and responsibility to understand, appreciate and conserve its universal values.

Table 2 SWOT analyze

Opportunities	Threats
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tourism target objects' research and study facilities • Improvement of infrastructure in communities • Appointing the meetings of tourism policy makers and experts, opening round table meetings, debates and prioritizing the problems in communities. • Recognition of new tourist attractions, new destinations country wide • Classification of objects of cultural heritage • Attracting investments • Mobilization and involvement of local people in tourism infrastructure rehabilitation processes • Offering diverse tourism products and service improvement • Tourism revenues derived from the proper use • Offering vocational education and trainings within community • Possibility of having statistics about tourism flows (arrivals/departures) in the community. • Strengthening the functioning of small and medium enterprises • The use of the potential of agriculture and agro-industrial sectors. • To develop short or long-term tourism development strategy for community 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Political tension • Instability in the country • Cancellation of status of protected areas • Failure not to maintain tourism destinations • Insufficient investments • Informational vacuum in the community • The passive attitude of local population and less interest • Migration process • Lack of tourist accommodation facilities • Lack of professional staff • Language barriers • No cooperation among state and private sectors • Weak management • The negative opinions about the safety of travel in Georgia • Low level of service

Resource: Devidze, E. (2012). Cultural heritage and problems of tourism development in Imereti, Tbilisi

4 Recommendations for actions for Chokhatauri Municipality

- Cultural Heritage Tourism must be the peace and well-being Ambassador, tourism potential should be researched and studied in order to be able to create complete database of tourism resources for tourism development in communities. That will guarantee the improvement of economic conditions in all municipalities and countrywide, in order to use potential touristic resources of the community, it is appropriate to establish new projects and to popularize sites which will increase the flows of local and foreign tourists and that will foster the involvement of the local community representatives in tourism business. Tourism destinations, direct or indirect points, objects or sites (guest houses, farms, food objects, wine pitchers, less known historic and natural monuments and other tourism resources) must be well represented and promoted. Tourism professional trainings for target beneficiaries must be organized in regions, regional tourism informational directory must be prepared and disseminated, the maps of tourism routes through using tourism Geo-informational technologies together with accurate textual and visual information must be worked out.

Table 3 SMART analyze

Components of analyses	Results and foreseeing circumstances
Specific	<p><i>General Description:</i> Chokhatauri municipality has specific tourism resources, that is geographical location, climate, number of resorts and resort areas protected areas, culture, arts, folklore, traditions.</p> <p><i>Circumstances:</i> While preparation the strategic/action plan for separate districts or municipalities the following factors must be taken into consideration:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure consistency untapped tourist potential • Using historical, cultural and religious heritage of the municipality in order to attract more tourists • Public recognition/awareness of the municipality, villages and localities, the promotion of appropriate resources • Right strategy formation for tourism destinations <p>Community involvement and encouraging activities</p>
Measurable	<p><i>General description:</i> The criteria to be used for short-or long-term regional economic development strategy must be measurable. Without considering this component cannot be considered and evaluated the success of any reforms.</p> <p><i>Circumstances:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measurable actions must be planned and their evaluation may be available with certain criteria; • Assessments procedures must take place while interim period, in order to avoid and improve barrages met • Monitoring of the activities
Attainable	<p><i>General Description:</i> Aims, which promote the implementation of tourism and economic development strategy in the region should be achievable, results-oriented.</p> <p><i>Circumstances:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The results of the activities of regional and local self-governments should be achievable. • In order to achieve the objectives, the duties must be shared appropriately on the responsible persons or agencies in order to show commitment and responsibility of each level (including the failure of individual components).
Relevant	<p><i>General Description:</i> Economic development activities on regional and local level should be appropriate to the target (relevant).</p> <p><i>Circumstances:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Objectives of the strategy should be based on the goals • Measures should be in accordance with the related action plan • All actions are reason—cause and effect connections should be find out
Time-bound	<p><i>General Description:</i> Economic development plan of the region is time bounded, it must be implemented in a given period and must start a new stage. Periodically evaluation will take palace.</p> <p><i>Circumstances:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local and regional development plan must have specific period of time, and must be implemented in the given period • Plan for short periods should be divided into calendar time (year and the quarters at least), so that a number of activities can be carried out exactly in time.

Resource: Devidze, E. (2012). Cultural heritage and problems of tourism development in Imereti, Tbilisi

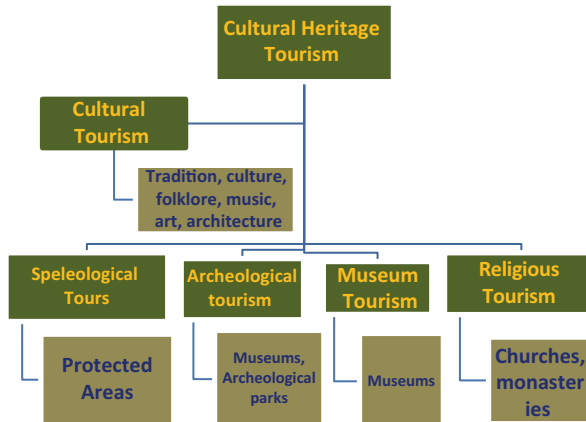


Fig. 1 Cultural heritage tourism types. *Resource:* Thesis Devidze E. Cultural heritage and problems of tourism development in Imereti, 2012, Tbilisi

- Municipality Executive members, tourism direction sector representatives, heads of regional travel agencies should arrange round table meetings, share their experience, discuss prioritized problems raised in communities, search ways for solutions, develop joint community projects, be in close cooperation and provide recommendations for the further development.
- It is necessary to develop appropriate mechanisms for tourism diversification and development of domestic tourism, which will facilitate the development of different kinds of tourism in the country, including: cultural tourism (history, architecture, art, crafts, religious tours); resorts (sea, mountain—ski resorts and others), eco tourism; adventure tourism; agro-tourism, among them—the local cuisine and wine tours; medical tourism, professional and business tourism; sports tourism, mountaineering, romantic and folklore tours, and etc.

5 Conclusion

Detailed Feasibility Studies and Analyses Must Cover

- **Cluster Development in tourism sectors**—such projects may include market potential research, product concept and market positioning, financial and human capital requirements, marketing plan development, training of cluster participants, financial planning and forecasting, cluster and individual business implementation planning.
- **Tourism market research**—primary and secondary research into the tourism market in geographic area, including demand and supply analysis, geographic distribution and seasonality analysis, market potential and gap analyze.

- **Agro and ecotourism (others) products' concept development**—develop the concept of proposed tourism products to unlock the potential of the underlying natural assets, and meet the requirements of the target markets.
- **Financial scenario planning and analysis**—develop the detailed financial scenarios and forecasts for the implementation of the development plan and operation of the business.
- **Fund-raising procedures**—attracting investors and investments in regional tourism development.
- **Socio-economic and triple-bottom-line analysis**—analysis of the socio-economic and triple-bottom-line impacts using input-output multiplier models including satellite account, to determine the direct, indirect and induced economic impact of activities, and the direct and indirect employment.
- **Spatial analysis and spatial-based strategies**—analysis of the spatial distribution of agro, eco tourism and other tourism products, features and attractions, identification of clusters and themes, and formulation of appropriate development strategies to achieve spatial objectives for placement and distribution of tourism.
- **Legal and institutional framework**—analysis of the legal and institutional environment and definition of appropriate legal and institutional models and frameworks.
- **Overall project management**—detailed project and task planning, management of cross-functional and multi-disciplinary project teams to achieve defined project objectives, and provide ongoing project strategic direction.

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Application of a Cultural Landscape Tourism Marketing Management Approach in a Mountainous Area

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Abstract This article identifies the significance of ecotourism and presents measures to promote the development of a mountainous DMO, opportunities for proper and needed management and use of cultural resources and environmental education in a tourism destination, as well as accompanying benefits to all tourist stakeholders. The paper presents an application of a Cultural Landscape Marketing Management Approach in the mountainous area and more specifically in the area of mount Parnon in Greece, a tourism destination of very high tourism value with biodiversity as well as cultural diversity and a function of environmental education. Ecotourism is embodiment of tourism economy and the realization of wetland protection and sustainable development and it has raised common concern now.

This paper mainly explained the Cultural Landscape Marketing Management Approach, and demonstrates that cultural resources worthy of preservation can also present opportunities for sustainable tourism development, with the expectation to provide certain guidance to tourism development in aspects including resource development, environmental and ecological protection and management mode.

Keywords Cultural Landscape • Tourism Marketing Management • Ecotourism

1 Introduction

Cultural attractions have become a crucial component in constituting the attractiveness of tourism destinations (Hughes, 1987; Katsoni & Venetsanopoulou, 2013; Prentice, 2001). Historically though, cultural and natural resources have been managed separately without regard to their intersection and mutual influence. The present paper focuses on applying an integrated approach of the Cultural Landscape in the tourism marketing methodology, and refers specifically to Mount Parnonas in Peloponnese, Greece.

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This article provides a comprehensive overview on adopting a Cultural Landscape Approach for Tourism Marketing Strategy of the area and contributes to the study of implementing and assessing this approach in the next years.

2 Background Literature

2.1 Cultural Tourism and Cultural Resources Defined

O’Leary and Deegan (2003) suggested culture defined a destination’s tangible and intangible heritage, which includes its music, museums, historical places and traditional richness. Some researchers have also studied culture as a destination attribute (O’Leary & Deegan, 2003), or as an important reason for travelling to a destination (McKercher & du Cros, 2003), indicating that cultural differences might be a driver of tourism destination choice, as people want to experience living places and cultures other than those of their own environment (Prentice, 2001). From a producer’s perspective, cultural tourism is the marketing of cultural products to tourists as cultural experiences (Craik, 1995). Thus, many researchers define cultural tourism as an experiential consumption (Edensor, 1998; Leiper, 1990; Prentice, 2001), as it is “tourism constructed, proffered and consumed explicitly or implicitly as cultural appreciation, either as experiences or schematic knowledge gaining”. Cultural tourism consumption is defined as a behavioral intent to consume cultural products in the focal decision context (Ramkissoon, Uysal, & Brown, 2011).

Delineating what constitutes a ‘cultural resource’ has been done in different fashions depending on management objectives. It is broadly defined by academia, while some government institutions and laws outline specific and differing attributes for what is a ‘cultural resource’ relevant to their pursuits. A holistic definition from Thomas F. King (2011) serves as the foundation for analyzing cultural resources and states: “Cultural Resources are all the aspects of the physical and supra-physical environment that human beings and their societies value for reasons having to do with culture. Included are culturally valued sites, buildings, and other places, plants and animals, atmospheric phenomena, sights and sounds, artifacts and other objects, documents, traditions, arts, crafts, ways of life, means of expression, and systems of belief” (King, 2011, p. 2).

2.2 Ecotourism, Community Participation and Cultural Resources Combined

Many definitions of ecotourism exist, and academics invested in the field seem to all prefer a different and ever evolving definition of the term. An analysis of

85 definitions of ecotourism by Fennell (2001) found 5 pillars; (1) where ecotourism occurs, (2) conservation, (3) culture, (4) benefits to locals, and (5) education. Incorporating cultural heritage tourism into ecotourism has been common in the literature for many years (Jamieson, 1998; McKercher & du Cros, 2002; McKercher & du Cros, 2003, Weaver & Lawton, 2007; Wilson et al., 2006) and thus ecotourism includes not only travel to natural environments, but also to the associated cultural landscapes of the natural world. The International Union for Conservation of Nature has defined ecotourism as “. . .an environmentally responsible travel to natural areas, in order to enjoy and appreciate nature (and accompanying cultural features, both past and present) that promote conservation, have a low visitor impact, and provide for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local people (IUCN, 1997).” The author adopts the following definition of (Weaver, 2008), where: “Ecotourism is a form of tourism that fosters learning experiences and appreciation of the natural environment, or some component thereof, within its associated cultural context. It is managed in accordance with industry best practice to attain environmentally and socio-culturally sustainable outcomes as well as financial viability” (Weaver, 2008, p. 17).

Ecotourism provides local benefits environmentally, culturally and economically (Kara, Denis, Kilicaslan, & Polat, 2011). One of the fundamental and vital themes of ecotourism is community participation and education (Fennell, 2001). The participation of the local community, stakeholders, and interest groups is an important aspect of tourism development (Stratigea, 2011; Tosun, 2000), as it stimulates local economic growth by providing employment opportunities, promoting local products, improving community welfare, contributing to the improvement of local facilities and infrastructures; in general, it helps in the decision-making process and in achieving the sustainable benefits offered by the area (Drumm & Moore, 2005; Joppe, 1999; Okazaki, 2008; Timothy, 1999; Vitouladiti, 2013). According to Stratigea and Hatzichristos (2011), local participation generally involves empowering local residents to determine their own goals for development and consulting with the locals to determine their hopes and concerns for tourism. Incorporating the educational aspect to ecotourism is also important, as educating the public through ecotourism presents an opportunity to increase awareness and consequently protection of cultural heritage, as well as promotion of sustainable resource use of natural and cultural resources.

2.3 Cultural Landscape Approach

Many authors nowadays recognize the reciprocal relationship between society and nature, and the implications that this relationship has on management of natural and cultural resources. It seems that there is an overlapping interface between the natural world and society, and many authors try to understand it. Clark (1939) and Steward (1955) explored this relationship between societies and their environment as they discuss how culture changes through adaptation to the environment

based on ecological constraints (Llobera, 2013), and many others see the society-nature relationship as complex adaptive systems (Holling, 2001), the Coupled Human Natural Systems (Liu et al., 2007), social-ecological system (Collins et al., 2011), and through the cultural landscape approach (CLA). It is generally argued that the modern landscape is a result of the ongoing complex relationships between people and the environment (NPS, 2014).

A Cultural Landscape Approach (CLA) seeks to illuminate the integrated historical relationship between cultural heritage and the natural environment (Mather & Jensen, 2010) and it is a method of understanding of the complexities in this temporally dynamic connection between cultural heritage and nature, interpreting, analyzing and evaluating places not limited to the physical objects (Longstreth, 2008). A CLA serves as a conceptual tool for an integrated management through the proper use of cultural and natural resources combined (Brown, 2008; Longstreth, 2008) and helps managers and policy makers to recognize the symbiotic influences and interconnectivity of history and culture with ecology and biology (Brown, 2008; Page, Gilbert, & Dolan, 1998).

According to the National Park Service definition (NPS, 2014), a cultural landscape is “a geographic area, including both cultural and natural resources and the wildlife or domestic animals therein, associated with an historic event, activity, or person, or exhibiting other cultural or aesthetic values.” A cultural landscape is an assortment of different processes throughout time and is made of the physical components from a number of historic and prehistoric periods resulting from human activity and modification to the natural features and elements. This basic fundamental idea of change through time resulting from the interaction between humans and nature can be seen in most definitions of a cultural landscape (Brown, 2008; Fowler, 2003; Lennon & Mathews, 1996; Page et al., 1998; Pearson & Sullivan, 1995).

3 Cultural Landscape Approach in the Tourism Marketing Policy of Mount Parnonas in Peloponnese, Greece

3.1 The Protected Area of Mountain Parnonas and Moustos Wetland

Mount Parnonas was famous, from “the old times”, for its extensive forests. The long-term human presence has significantly altered the original character of the region, but the vegetation, the types of habitats and flora maintain even today, a high ecological value. In the region of mount Parnon there are more than 15 types of habitat. Some of them are unique or particularly noteworthy for the Hellenic and European region, such as extensive woodlands of *Pinus nigra*, forests with Juniperous drupaceae in the Malevi monastery region, the chestnut trees in

Kastanitsa, the coastal wetland of Moustos, south of Astros, the ravine of Dafnonas etc.

The Management Body of Mountain Parnonas and Moustos Wetland (founded in 2002 and established in 2003), is responsible for the preservation, protection and management of the protected area of Mountain Parnonas and Moustos Wetland. According to the law 2742/1999, art. 15, the responsibilities of the Management Body are:

- The preparation and responsibility for implementation of administrative rules of the protected objects and the management plans.
- Monitoring and evaluating the implementation of regulatory requirements and restrictions imposed by the Common Ministerial Decision and the administration and operational regulations and management plans. In this context, management bodies shall ensure the collection, collation and processing of environmental information and data for the areas of their responsibility, and for the establishment and operation of databases and related documentation, in accordance with existing national standards.
- The provision of advice prior to the adoption of Environmental Assessment and Evaluation and approving the environmental terms of projects and activities within its areas of responsibility, and any other matter which is consulted by the authorities.
- The assistance of administrative and judicial authorities in monitoring the implementation of environmental legislation and environmental and urban conditions in force or applied for, respectively, for projects and activities conducted in the areas of responsibility. To this end, the management bodies recommend or refer to the appropriate authorities acts or omissions of those who breach the conditions and restrictions for areas of responsibility.
- The preparation of studies and research activities, contained in the relevant management plan or in corresponding action plans, and are necessary to illustrate the protected subjects within its area of responsibility. The construction, repair and maintenance of necessary infrastructure and the supply of necessary scientific and technical equipment to perform the functions of management.
- The undertaking of national or European programs and activities relative to their area of responsibility, to promote or highlight the purpose of management of protected objects.
- The information, education and training of the population on matters relating to the functions and purposes of the management structures and of protection of the area of responsibility. In this context, management bodies can set up information centres located near protected objects, organize training courses and training in collaboration with other relevant public or private institutions, as well as conferences, workshops, seminars and other awareness events to display objectives and achievements of the management and take on publishing print or electronic form.
- The promotion, support, organization and implementation of ecotouristic programs, tour permits and licensing of scientific research and technical testing and

analysis within the subject matter, according to the specific terms and conditions specified in the CMD and administrative operation of the protected area.

- The management of public land granted to the management body or leased by them, and the hiring of private land inside the area of responsibility and the realization inside of these, of all the estimated interventions.

3.2 Implementation of Community Participation and Environmental Education in the Area

According to IUCN (1970), “Environmental Education is the process of identification of values and clarification of concepts for the development of skills and attitudes necessary for the understanding and appreciation of the interrelationship of human, culture and biophysical environment. It also exercises in decision-making and the formulation of a code of conduct of each person around the problems relating to the quality of the environment.” This Environmental Education is an “ongoing process by which individuals and social groups will be aware of their environment and acquire knowledge, values, skills, experience and also the willingness to allow them to act individually and collectively to solve the current and future environmental problems” (UNESCO, 1988). The Environmental Education incorporates complex problems that have been developed for both the environment and education. Such concerns have led to the adoption of the term sustainability, but also in a critical way of training, holistic, systemic and interdisciplinary-cross-curricular nature.

Incorporation of the educational aspect to developing ecotourism in the area was achieved through the creation of Environmental Information Centres. The Environmental Information Centres of the Ecological Park are buildings which are owned by the municipality N. Kynouria. In particular, they are an old school (the buildings at Kastanitsa and Astros) and a community building (the building at Agios Petros). The Municipality N. Kynouria, for the rehabilitation and equipping of buildings, implemented the project “Equipment and Operation the Ecological Park of Parnon and Moustos Wetland”, Project 8.1 of EPPER 2000–2006. Upon completion of the project, the management agency of buildings—Environmental Information Centres, was defined as the Management Agency of Mount Parnon and Moustos Wetland. With the completion of the two Information Centres (the buildings at Astros and Agios Petros) and with a decision of the Municipal Council of the Municipality of North Kynouria at 08/10/2007, the Management Agency was given the use of the buildings. Thus, tourists now enjoy the restoration of the old elementary school at Kastanitsa, as well as its transformation into the Environmental Information Centre of the Ecological Park. The system of three information centres is designed to attract visitors in the mount Parnon, to inform them about the values and natural functions of the region and to guide them to get an insight of Parnon without harming its sensitive natural ecosystems. In particular, the

Environmental Information Centres function for hosting visitors in Parionas, inform them and increase awareness and consequently protection of cultural heritage, as well as promotion of sustainable resource use of natural and cultural resources.

Visitors are able to reach the centres by road. In the reception areas of Centres, appropriately formed labels, inform about available opportunities in the wider area of information and entertainment. From this point begins a conducted tour around the other areas of the Centres. The centres aim at the general public (visitors of all ages, without specific knowledge of the natural environment). Most visitors are school students (scheduled visits) and adult groups (Greek or foreigners) who are on vacation. The thematic selection and presentation of information material has a simple and attractive result, so that the Centres meet the requirements of a public without specialized knowledge.

The Environmental Information Centre of Astros is located on one of the two main entrances in the region of Parionas (seaside entrance from Nafplion) and informs visitors on mount Parnon with an emphasis on the wetland of Moustos. Key themes, underlying the exhibition, are the following: The position of mount Parnon, in the southernmost tip of the Balkan Peninsula and in a key passage of migratory birds. The importance of Moustos wetland for migratory birds; the long presence of humans, their adaptation to the local conditions and their impact on plants and animals of the wetland; the need for conservation of the wetland. The Environmental Information Centre of Agios Petros is located on one of the two main entrances in mount Parnon (south entrance from Sparta) and informs visitors about mount Parnon with an emphasis on the mountain section.

In all centres there exist a Hall of Environmental Interpretation, permanent showroom and shops, where visitors soon will be able to obtain information/souvenir material on the ecological and cultural profile of the region. Shops serve several purposes, such as they cover the need for additional knowledge relevant to the thematic content of each Centre, collecting books with specific content, provide further information about the area (tourist information for the county, for protected areas, sights and cultural heritage of the wider region, cover specific interests of some visitors to the region (hiking, climbing, observation of birds and other wildlife and plants, etc.), offer a commemorative items (cards, etc.), and contribute to the operating expenses of the Centres and in covering expenses regarding publications of material for the region of Parionas.

4 Conclusions and Implications for Tourism Marketing

The preceding analysis has revealed that Cultural landscape theory is breaking the traditional approach that separated cultural and natural resource management by recognizing the influences and overlapping aspects of these fields and taking a holistic approach through incorporating this relationship into management practices. Cultural heritage ecotourism used as a tool to promote CLA management

presents an opportunity to fill some gaps in protective legislation by promoting a stewardship ethic through community involvement and awareness in preservation, protection, and education.

The use of a CLA in the management of the area seems that has helped in many ways. According to a qualitative research conducted by Katsoni, Giaoutzi, and Nijkamp (2013), the objectives that were achieved were awareness of sustainability of natural and cultural resources, since the local community and tourists develop interest in the environment and have active participation in improving and protecting the environment. There is an increased awareness of environmental issues and a change in attitudes, since both locals and tourists acquire a variety of experiences and basic knowledge on the environment and environmental problems, shape values, take actions and participate at all levels to prevent environmental problems.

Constantly evolving and growing, the cultural landscape of the protected area of Mountain Paronos and Moustos Wetland represents the relationship between man and nature and the resulting impact the two have had on one another. The results of the present study can help tourist managers and DMOs to carry out their task in a more informed and strategic manner, possibly by implementing the CLA holistic approach in their projects.

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Approaching the Monuments of the ‘Other’: A Model for Their Presentation

Vasiliki Mitropoulou

Abstract There are many ways to explore cultural heritage of another country or another city in the one’s country. Cultural heritage can be found in art (painting, sculpture, architecture, music), language, monuments, customs, religion, rituals, institutions and values of social life. Understanding the other’s cultural heritage helps finding a way into the others’ history and culture and build bridges with them. Monuments are one of the elements of cultural heritage that were constructed to help maintain memory by stating historical events of important turning points either in history or in culture. They are pieces of art which express cultural opinions, values, ideas and religious beliefs political ideas, practices, traditions and institutions of a social group. They are signs of people and their culture and history. There can be two ways to approach a monument: (a) as viewer, (b) as tourist. In both cases, people usually remain at superficial level without seeking the deeper meaning and symbolism of cultural elements. An inter-cultural approach of a monument can take place at three levels: (1) cognitive, (2) sentimental, (3) Action. We propose a model for the better approach and understanding of monuments which we believe will help detecting of information of historical and cultural data, presentations and analyses of the monument, relations between religion and society, architecture of the monument. We shall use the model we propose in the presentation of three ottoman monuments of Thessaloniki.

Keywords Intercultural model • Monument • Culture • Cultural heritage • Intercultural approach • Intercultural values

1 Introduction

Would it be possible for a country to have had only one culture or being onocultural? People, since always have been transferring from one place to another, carrying with them their customs and traditions (religious or not). These movements have left their trace/mark at the places they passed through or dwelled (even temporarily). In today’s era of globalization the countries cannot ignore the cultures

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of the peoples/tribes that have passed through them either as travellers or passers-by or conquerors or immigrants or temporary dwellers. These marks today consist part of the countries culture and identity. Thus, it can be said that culture is “*a set of categories generated by its participants*” (Stephens, 1997, p. 114).

The simultaneous coexistence of diverse cultures in one country is characterized as multiculturalism. Condition for their peaceful coexistence presupposes that they recognize and respect their differences (Kymlicka, 2003). Diversity in culture needs to be based on interaction, communication and mutual understanding (Lee, 2005). If such cross-cultural interactions take place only for brief time (e.g., in tourist visits) then we can refer to them rather as adaptation.

Adaptation on one hand can help to the development of sensitivity to cultural differences but on the other does not propose ways to resolve these differences (Antal & Friedman, 2008). Bennett’s (1998) definition on adaptation refers to someone knowing about different cultures so as to “*intentionally shift into a different culture frame of reference*” and to “*modify behavior to fit the norms of another culture*” (pp. 1–34). Cultural elements have their origin in the history, religion, system of values and social rules of a country (Kanakidou & Papagianni, 1998). The cultural elements expressed in a country or city or area include language, arts, monuments, customs, religious tradition, rituals, institutions and values of social life (Touloumakos, 2002).

2 Monuments in Cultural Heritage

Monuments are one of the elements of cultural heritage that were constructed to help maintain memory by stating historical events or important facts either in history or in culture. They are pieces of art which express cultural views, values, ideas and religious beliefs political ideas, practices, traditions and institutions of a social group. They are signs of people and their culture and history (Kanakidou & Papagianni, 1998).

As Auster remarked: “*...monuments tend to use concrete visual forms to communicate moral meaning*” (Auster, 1997, p. 221). Monuments help to maintain memory by stating historical events of important turning points either in history or in civilization that should not be forgotten (Logan, 2000). They were constructed to transfer a specific message under certain social, historical context at a specific location. On them there are depicted or symbolized certain religious or political ideas, practices, traditions or institutions.

As art items, monuments may express cultural opinions, values, ideas and religious beliefs of a peoples’ group. Consequently, one can distinguish the expression of the various cultures on the monuments.

Monuments as one of the cultural elements constitute the cultural heritage of a country. Cultural Heritage as referred in article 1 in the World Heritage Convention and the Operational Guidelines of UNESCO are considered monuments, groups of buildings, and sites. The monuments are defined as “*architectural works, works of*

monumental sculpture and painting, elements of structures of an archaeological nature, inscriptions, cave dwellings and combinations of features, which are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science” (<http://whc.unesco.org/>).

There are many ways to explore cultural heritage of another country or area within a country. Understanding the other's cultural heritage facilitates understanding of the others' history and the deriving problems or consequences they are suffering from, and try to connect with them by developing a certain sense of empathy.

Therefore, it is easily comprehensible that, only the contact with the culturally different others, may not promote mutual understanding. On the contrary, it can promote stereotypes or negative impressions (Crabtree & Sapp, 2004).

The right attitude of “*an intercultural citizen*” demands that he/she “*is curious about other peoples, and cultures, open to learning about other ways of life, willing to consider how issues look from other people's point of view, feels comfortable interacting with people from other backgrounds...*” (Beamer, 1992, p. 294). In the opposite case there would be reinforced stereotypes, such as, “exotic”, “curious”, “mysterious”, “primitive” and thus, the intercultural citizen may be guided to the forming of “tourist” attitudes towards other civilizations (Devoss et al. 2002).

Furthermore, cultural elements should gain their meaning and be understood in relation with the historical and social context and the philosophical, spiritual and social background of the cultures they come from (e.g., African rituals are not understood outside their cultural environment) (Kanakidou & Papagianni, 1998).

An important issue is that in order to understand the other better one should not make comparisons between the other's culture and his/her own. This may result to either depreciation or reduction of the other culture and to the creation of superior or inferior cultures (Beal, 2005). However such categorizations should not exist. All cultures have their own value, which they should be appreciated for. An art item of monument of the other should not be judged as inferior or “primitive” just because its value cannot be perceived and its symbolism understood by a person from another culture.

Most contemporary countries consider as their duty (following the guidelines of UNESCO) (http://www.international.icomos.org/publications/93sy_tou10.pdf; http://www.international.icomos.org/centre_documentation/bib/Management_plans_bibliography.pdf; <http://www.whc.unesco.org/document/125839>) the preservation of the monuments or art items which express parts of their culture. Only then the monuments which were constructed by the “others” can be accepted by the permanent citizens of one country as integrated part of that country. Only then all pieces of the cultural puzzle can be put together in order to form the whole cultural picture of that country.

Here rises the issue of the conservation and restoration of the cultural monuments and art items. The late Greek Minister of Culture Melina Merkouri had said: “*The protection of the cultural works/items is not only a moral duty. It is also an interest, because the cultural heritage is a country wealth, literally speaking*” (<http://www.melinamercourifoundation.org.gr/>).

In ICOMOS Management Guidelines for World Cultural Heritage Site (http://www.international.icomos.org/centre_documentation/bib/Management_plans_bibliography.pdf) is recognized the need for the preservation of monument through restoration. This concerns any “*events or actions associated with a building at a specific moment in the history of the building*” including its successive alterations.

Alois Riegl (1928) in his article “The Modern Cult of Monuments: Its Essence and Its Development” (pp. 69–83) (http://isites.harvard.edu/fs/docs/icb.topic822683.files/Riegl_The%20Modern%20Cult%20of%20Monuments_sm.pdf) defined some values that suggest ways to deal with the cultural heritage either it concerns a monument or a manuscript or work of art or a site, etc. These are: age value, historical value, deliberate commemorative value, use value and newness value.

Age Value suggests ways the value of the monument is based on its age. Thus, the monuments should be preserved in the form/shape etc. it was created with all the decay caused by the ageing. Interventions on it would be disturbing. The aesthetic value of a monument derives exactly from signs of decay (due to age). The monument should not be restored to its initial state. Age value claims that it can be appreciated by anyone because even the illiterate can distinguish between an old building or church and a new one based only on its view. Age value appreciates the decay brought by the ageing (Riegl, 1928).

Historical value supports that the monument value increases when this remains unaltered during the time. Any alterations, modifications, interventions on it are considered that they reduce its value. The necessary interventions should concern only its preservation to its present state and stop any further decay or destruction. This value supports that the original (e.g., manuscript), should remain intact and any interventions be imposed on a copy of it. Historical value suggests that there should be an effort to stop the progress of decay on the monument in the future (Riegl, 1928).

Both the two above values however, support that measures to stop the full destruction of a monument or art item should be taken when it is absolutely necessary and/or urgent, e.g., if a fresco on an exterior wall of a monument would be completely washed away by the rain or hail, then an intervention, e.g., putting in front of it a protective glass, is considered less harmful than the total loss of the art item (Riegl, 1928).

Deliberate Commemorative Value proposes that a monument or art item should be kept “alive” for sake of the future generations. The efforts concern the stopping of the destruction of the monument due to ageing or weather. The fundamental requirement would be restoration. As a means of intervention this value suggests the restoration works because without any intervention the monument would soon cease to exist (e.g., memorial column: Camara) (Riegl, 1928).

Use value supports that many of the existing monuments can still be used today. An old building (e.g., market, church) that is still in use must be maintained in good condition in order to be safe for the people who use it. Therefore any damages, e.g., holes in the roof or wall, must be repaired immediately. What is important is not whether the intervention or repair would be in accordance with the age or materials

of the monument, but whether it will make the monument solid and safe and will maintain it in the future (Riegl, 1928).

Newness value supports all traces or destruction on monument should be removed and, furthermore, it should be restored to its initial condition (form, color). The aim is to make it look like a newly created monument. The majority of the people who visit a monument, like it best when they do not see the traces of decay on it, as they give a sense of negligence or indifference. Thus, newness value proposes that the signs of decay should be “healed” and covered: repair of the missing fragments, filling in gaps or holes, repainting. The final goal is the reuse of the monument with its initial or—if it is not possible—another use. The basic idea is that there should not be “empty” but “alive” monuments (Riegl, 1928).

Every monument is a different case and should be faced as such. In the case of the monuments that will be presented here, it has been decided to be repaired in order to be saved from the ageing decay but also to be restored to their initial condition and be returned to the state to be re-used in ways that will reveal their art, their initial use for which they were constructed. Monuments set socio-spatial relations “in stone”. Although monuments might seem to serve essentially as part of the background for day-to-day life—being noted mostly by tourists or new arrivals, who perhaps are seeking to make sense of this new place—they are signs of people and histories, authorities and convey to us aspects of cultural heritage (Mitropoulou, 2007).

UNESCO World Heritage Guide (<http://whc.unesco.org/>) has defined a list (<http://whc.unesco.org/en/list/>) of monuments which are considered important for the culture of the countries they are found and which should be preserved.

The monuments that will be presented here are not yet included in this list. However this does not mean that they should be left in their fate and the decay because of ageing, but be preserved and be re-used. Conservation and restoration can ensure and renew the life of a monument.

A monument can be approached (a) as viewer, who are the permanent residents in a country (or city), (b) as tourist, who are visiting another country for a short time. In both cases, they usually remain on the surface, that is, only what they can see, without deepening in the symbolism or meaning of the cultural elements that it has. But, even if they do recognize them, they do not deepen in them and their symbolisms. For example, what does the history a specific monument presents? What stories remain untold, either forgotten or ignored? The buildings are silent but not mute. They carry an important message, for those who can or want to open their ears and hear it (Mitropoulou, 2007).

Additionally, religious monuments provide (1) information on various religious groups in a country, (2) information on the fundamental characteristics of a religion, (3) a comparison of religions, (4) an exchange of religious experiences (Kanakidou & Papagianni, 1998).

3 Models for Cultural Approach of a Monument

Attitudes of culturally appropriate behavior are often based on models. Bennett (1998) specified a model of six such approaches that concern the feelings and attitudes created in a viewer or tourist when visiting a monument: denial, defense, minimization, acceptance, adaptation, integration (Antal & Friedman, 2008).

Another model for raising cross-cultural sensitivity defines “*someone’s ability to accept his cultural differences without evaluating them*” and includes four dimensions: (a) preferences for thinking and interacting, (b) intercultural relations, (c) intrapersonal awareness, (d) global awareness. These are expected to increase one’s ability to seek interactions with the ‘different’ that may lead him/her to understand the others’ perspective and gain awareness of cross-cultural differences (Miller & Fernandez, 2007). According to Bennett’s theory, the activities that involve cross-cultural contacts would be superior to activities which are only at information level (MacPherson, 2010).

Stavridou-Bausewein (2003) proposes a three-level model for the inter-cultural approach of a monument that are expected to form an attitude of understanding, respect and love for the monuments, as expressions of art culture. These levels are: “1. **cognitive** (*acquisition of knowledge*), 2. **sentimental** (*acquisition of psychical abilities to understand*), 3. **action** (*discovery of commonly acceptable points*)” (pp. 189–190).

Based on the three-level model we propose a model which follows the natural course of the learning procedure either in school or outside it. They are: (a) information, (b) elaboration, (c) evaluation. The natural course of learning suggests that a person first perceives information/knowledge through his/her senses (eyes, ears, touch, taste, smell) then we elaborate what we have perceived through our senses and evaluate them.

Our model involves the following phases in relation with the three level inter-cultural approach:

Information/cognitive level: information on the monument (location, year of construction, architect, founder, architectural techniques, material, etc.), historical and cultural data, architecture of the monument (style), description and analyse of the monument (exterior/interior)

Elaboration/sensitive level: approach of the monuments as experience with insitu visits, understand their value, their role (function or religious use) and effect in the people’s lives and society, sites related with the culture of the monument

Application/action level: evaluation of the monument, discovery of common points or symbolisms with one’s own culture that will help to appreciate it better and abolish stereotypes, relations with the society (of that time and today), relation of the people (viewers, tourists) with it (of that time and today), role in the peoples’ lives (then and today).

The presentation of a monument according to the phases of our model provides answers to a series of questions. Through the answers given to them are expected to promote the better understanding and intercultural approach of a monument.

We believe that this model will help detect the information on historical and cultural data, presentations and analyses of the monument, relations between religion and society, architecture of the monument.

As example, we shall use the model we propose in the presentation of four of the ottoman monuments of Thessaloniki.

The presentation of the monuments is suggested to take place through text and picture and a series of questions in a powerpoint presentation. We locate how the main points of the content are organised and we form a plan or a table for each monument.

We propose the following questions:

1. Where is the monument located?
2. When was it built?
3. Who was his founder/architect?
4. What is the origin of its name?
5. What did it look like? (analytic description of the monument: interior and exterior)
6. What was its initial use?
7. What was its course in time in relation with the history of the city?
8. What is its current condition and use [is it related with the purpose it was built]
9. What is his relation in the city social context?
10. What memories does it bring in mind? What feelings?

The monuments presented below, following our model, are some of the Ottoman Monuments of Thessaloniki.

Presentation of Ottoman Monuments of Thessaloniki (Hellenic Ministry of Culture, 2004)

Bey Hamam (or Paradise Bath)

(http://jfa.arch.metu.edu.tr/archive/0258-5316/2004/cilt21/sayi_1-2/81-110.pdf)

1. *Where is the monument located?*

It is located in the centre of Thessaloniki, in front of the ancient agora at the crossroads of Egnatia avenue (one of the main avenues of Thessaloniki) and Aristoteles square. It is at the north-eastern corner of the crossroads, very close to the Church of Panagia Chalkeon.

2. *When was it built?*

It was built in 1444 during the first years of the ottoman occupation of Thessaloniki, which took place in 1430.

3. *Who was his founder/architect?*

The bath was built during the reign of sultan Murat II, known also with the title of Bey.

4. *What is the origin of its name?*

It was named Bey Hamam, after the name "Bey", the sultan was known. After the liberation of Thessaloniki in 1923 was called by the Greeks "Paradise Bath" and this is the name with which it is known to most citizens of Thessaloniki.

5. *What was its initial use?*

It was built to be used as a Hamam, for the citizens of the city (both Turks and Greeks) and the Sultan himself. It was a double hamami aimed to be used by men and women.

6. *What did/does it look like? (description of the monument: interior and exterior)*

The *exterior* from above looks like two parallel lines of octagonal bigger and smaller buildings with domes covered with tiles. They were built like this to serve both men and women with no communication between them. It has two entrances one at the north side for the women and one at the south side (which is on Egnatia avenue) for the men. The men's rooms were bigger and more luxurious than those of the women. There is an inscription over the south entrance providing information about the construction of the bath.

Each of the two parallel lines of rooms consists of three chambers:

The cool antechamber, is an octagonal room with dome covered with a rich painting decoration with plants. A line of arched windows allows the light to enter the room. Here the male bathers took off their clothes before bathing. A narrow gallery supported with columns leads to the second room.

The second room, the tepid room, is smaller, also octagonal and covered with a dome. Both its walls and the dome are richly decorated with oculi and paintings with vegetal themes. The light comes into the room through holes in the dome. At the north side of the room there is a small rectangle room which was probably used for washing the towels. At the eastern wall a very narrow corridor leads to the third chamber.

The third chamber, the hot room, is rectangle and the most impressive room of the Hamam. It consists of eight small spaces (individual or isolated) covered with eight domes with holes. These spaces form a cross. In the centre of the cross there is a central area, in the middle of which there is the marble massage slab. Both the upper side of the walls and the dome are and decorated with paintings. Both the tepid and hot chambers have marble basins and low marble benches. In this room there is a small entrance leading to a rectangular room, which was the private bath of the Sultan. It is very richly and beautifully decorated with paintings and sculptures. Its roof except of the holes is decorated with stalactite work.

The women's rooms follow the same tripartite layout, but they are not decorated.

Next to the bath complex there is a rectangular space where is the cistern, the furnace and the metal boiler.

7. *What was its course in time in relation with the history of the city?*

It was the first Ottoman bath that was built in Thessaloniki. It continued to be used as a bath for all those centuries, even after the liberation of Thessaloniki from the Turks in 1912, till 1968. This resulted in being preserved in a very good condition till today. Since 1972 it belongs to the Archaeological Service. It was restored after the earthquake of 1978.

8. *What is its current condition and use [is it related with the purpose it was built]*
It is not used any longer as a Bath. Today cultural events are held in the fully restored men's section and the annexes at the south-east corner have become a shop selling books and other items produced by the Ministry of Culture's Archaeological Receipts Fund.

9. *What is his relation in the city social context?*

It is the biggest and the best well preserved Hamam in Greece. The building itself 'behaves' as a 'living monument' and is used for cultural events and periodical exhibitions gathering the citizens. It is also visited by schools or students and by tourists.

10. *What memories does it bring in mind? What feelings does it create?*

It certainly reminds to the citizens a part of their recent history. Many of the older citizens used it while it was a bath, thus, it is expected to bring to their memory scenes of their bathing there.

However, many young people today do not know it and pass by without paying any attention to it.

The Bezesten (cloth market)

(<http://el.wikipedia.org/wiki/%CE%9C%CF%80%CE%B5%CE%B6%CE%B5%CF%83%CF%84%CE%AD%CE%BD%CE%B9>)

1. *Where is the monument located?*

It is located at the junction of Venizelou and Solomou streets in the centre of Thessaloniki, very near Aristotelous Square.

2. *When was it built?*

It was built in the fifteenth century between the years 1455 and 1459.

3. *Who was his founder/architect?*

It was built during the reign of Sultan Mehmed II, who reigned only for very short time (1455–1459).

4. *What is the origin of its name?*

Its name Bezesten means "cloth market" because there were shops that sold cloths (silk) and valuable objects (usually gold jewellery).

5. *What did it look like? (analytic description of the monument: interior and exterior)*

It was a rectangular building with four entrances, one in the middle of each side. The interior is divided into six square spaces by seven double arches resting on two central piers. The entire structure is roofed with six hemispherical lead-lined vaults. Shops were built onto the outside wall at various times, selling different products/merchandise from those of the shops inside it.

6. *What was its initial use?*

It is one of the most important institutions in Thessaloniki. It was the heart of the commerce of the city and, therefore, was considered an important building for the life of its citizens.

7. *What was its course in time in relation with the history of the city?*

Bezesten has been used as market since it was built. It was destroyed at the fire of 1917 which burnt all the buildings in the centre of Thessaloniki. After the

fire, shops were built again around the perimeter of the main building and they are still there.

In 1982–1985 and 1993–1994 consolidation work was carried out at the monument because of sedimentation. It included small-scale restoration works, e.g., repainting of the masonry, installation of new metal-tie rods, renovated the shops facades and replaced the old underground electrical installation. However, the destroyed parts were not rebuilt. Nevertheless, this restoration allowed the shops to continue to work.

8. *What is its current condition and use [is it related with the purpose it was built]*

It is one of the few buildings which have still maintained their initial use. After the restoration work in the recent years the shops were able to continue to operate. Bezesteni is still a market, though with a smaller number of shops (of the 113 shops that were in use before the fire of 1917 only half still remain) and with different kinds of merchantise.

9. *What is his relation in the city social context?*

Bezesteni is one of the very few Ottoman buildings in the city which has retained its original use, being still an important market for the life of the citizens of Thessaloniki. Many people visit it daily to buy things from the shops either outside or inside it.

10. *What memories does it bring in mind? What feelings? (Ottoman occupation, hate or conquests)*

Being located in the centre of the city the market receives daily many visitors, who will probably do their shoppings but will not enjoy the same wealth of sound, sight and smell that the market used to have. The building remains mostly unnoticed both by viewers and tourists, as one cannot see the outside of the building because the exterior walls are covered by the shops built on its exterior walls. The best view of Bezesteni is from above.

Hamza Bey Mosque (or Alkazar) (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hamza_Bey_Mosque)

1. *Where is the monument located?*

It is in the centre of Thessaloniki at the junction of Egnatia avenue and Venizelou Street, opposite of Bezesten.

2. *When was it built?*

It was built in 1467–1468 according to the inscription which is on the western wall (just a few years after the conquest of Thessaloniki by the Ottomans (1430).

3. *Who was his founder or architect?*

It was built by Hafsa Hatun, the daughter of Isa Bey Evrenosoğlu,

4. *What is the origin of its name?*

When it was built it was named after Hamzi Bey, the Beylerbey of Rumeli.

However, the modern citizens of Thessaloniki know it as Alkazar, which is the name of the cinema that was housed there for many decades.

5. *What did it look like? (analytic description of the monument: interior and exterior)*

Initially it consisted of a small square chamber/space roofed with a lead-lined dome. It is very probable that there was a portico along the west wall of the building. The walls of the first original building were built with alternative rows of brick and stone.

Later in the sixteenth century it was enlarged. Two rectangular vaulted rooms were added on the north and south sides of the original building. There were also built a second asymmetrical portico in Π shape at the western side of the monument, which created an interior yard (which is unique in Greece) and a minaret at the south-west corner. The walls of the added constructions had incorporated architectural byzantine elements, while in the peristyle were used early Christian capitals.

The interior decoration of the original building consists (still today) decorative paintings on the walls (frescos) depicting vegetal and geometrical motifs and gesso stalactite works.

According to another inscription over the entrance, the monument was destroyed and rebuilt in the seventeenth century. The minaret was removed after 1923.

Till lately, the shops and the cinema had altered the exterior appearance of the monument. Nowadays it is being restored in its initial form.

6. *What was its initial use?*

It was built to serve as a mosque for the religious duties (prayer) of the muslims of Thessaloniki.

7. *What was its course in time in relation with the history of the city?*

The mosque a century after it was built, about 1592, had to be enlarged, most probably because the number of the muslims of Thessaloniki had augmented since it was first erected (1467–1468) and needed more space to perform their religious duties.

Later, in 1620, after an earthquake or a fire, it was rebuilt by Kapici Mehmed Bey, according to another newer inscription over the entrance.

It ceased to be a mosque, in 1923, after the population exchange between Greece and Turkey and became property of the National Bank of Greece. It was used to house various military services. In 1928 was sold to private owners and gradually was modified to be used as a shopping centre and cinema. The shops and the cinema that were built-in in the porticos and the peristyle altered the exterior of the monument. It was seriously damaged by the earthquake in 1978 and was repaired. Since 2006 belongs to the Greek Ministry of Culture.

8. *What is its current condition and use [is it related with the purpose it was built]*

The Greek Ministry of Culture, since 2006 has closed all shops and the cinema and has started restoration works on the monument that continue up-to-day to bring the building in the form of 1592. When finished it is going to house one of the metro stations of Thessaloniki.

9. *What is his relation in the city social context?*

The monument is in the centre of Thessaloniki. Thousands of citizens pass-by every day without noticing it. The tourists did not notice it before because of

the shops around it. When the restoration works will be completed it is envisaged that its central placement will render it a very highly visited place.

10. *What memories does it bring in mind? What feelings? (Ottoman occupation, hate or conquests)*

Until very recently it consisted an integrated very alive part of the city, since it attracted daily many citizens of Thessaloniki both for shopping and watching movies at the cinema that was housed in there.

4 Final Remarks

The Greek Culture Ministry within the context of the Community Support Framework (CSF) and National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF) have been restoring 33 Ottoman monuments all over Greece. Some of these monuments are the (Mehmed I) Mosque in Didymoteicho, Imaret in Komotini, Ottoman baths on Lesbos Island. Restoration works are being carried out on Neratze Mosque in Rethymno, Crete, the Ottoman mausoleum (Tourbes) of the Muslim saint Musa Baba in Thessaloniki, Fethiye Mosque in Athens (Sykka, 2013) (http://ekathimerini.com/4dcgi/_w_articles_wsit3_1_02/12/2013_530350).

The Greek Culture Ministry within the context of the Community Support Framework (CSF) and National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF) proceeds to the restoration of 33 Ottoman-era monuments all over Greece. Among these monuments are the Bayezid (Mehmed I) Mosque in Didymoteicho, Imaret Monument in Komotini, the Ottoman baths on Lesbos Island and many others. Restoration works are being carried out now, among other ottoman monuments: on the Ottoman mausoleum (Tourbes) of the Muslim saint Musa Baba in Thessaloniki, the Hamza Bey Mosque in Thessaloniki, the Neratze Mosque in Rethymno, Crete, the Fethiye Mosque in Athens etc. (Sykka, 2013).

We believe that our model will promote the cognitive, sensitive and action approach of monuments of the “other” along with the principles of cross-cultural communication and contribute to the improving of the relations among individuals from different national, religious and linguistic social groups and, at the same time, to the gradual extinct of negative images or stereotypes and, finally, the acceptance of the religious and cultural diversity of the “other”.

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Pilgrimage in Georgia

Tinatin Kublashvili and Nato Kublashvili

Abstract Pilgrimage is one of the most ancient practices of humankind and is associated with a great variety of religious and spiritual traditions. Making of pilgrimages is common in many religions all over the world. A lot of pilgrims' destinations were founded in inaccessible places but became centers of pilgrimage, attracting countless people.

Today, in these difficult times, when people are suffering from economic hardship, employment problems, quick spreading different diseases etc. People who have been struggling to find meaning in their lives can walk away with ray of hope, with a new vision of life and moreover, having stronger sense of responsibility and conscientiousness towards cultural heritage, caring about its preservation and improving ways how to attract people through common or virtual tours.

Since Georgia is a country with ancient and rich original culture which goes back as far as millennia and its knowledge and recognition has crossed national borders and entered the international level to become the cultural legacy of the mankind, our paper aims to deliver the main examples of pilgrimage places in this country. Historical buildings of Orthodox Churches, mosque, synagogue, Catholic and Protestant churches decorate the center of its capital Tbilisi. Georgian foreigners as well as Georgians have a unique opportunity to find refuge from daily routine and to get closer to eternal matters during the regular visits to Orthodox Monasteries and Churches around Georgia.

Keywords Pilgrimage • Belief • Heritage • Monasteries • Churches

1 Introduction

Pilgrimage is one of the most ancient practices of humankind and is associated with a great variety of religious and spiritual traditions. Making of pilgrimages is common in many religions all over the world. A lot of pilgrims' destinations

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where founded in inaccessible places but became centers of pilgrimage, attracting countless people.

Today, in these difficult times, when people are suffering from economic hardship, employment problems, quick spreading different diseases etc. pilgrimage is a sacred journey to a shrine or other location of importance to a person's beliefs and faith, although sometimes a symbolic journey into someone's own beliefs can give hope to those who have lost all hope. Monasteries become centers of spiritual healing and empowerment. People who have been struggling to find meaning in their lives can walk away with ray of hope, with a new vision of life and moreover, having stronger sense of responsibility and conscientiousness towards cultural heritage, caring about its preservation and improving ways how to attract people through common or virtual tours.

Since Georgia is a country with ancient and rich original culture which goes back as far as millennia and its knowledge and recognition has crossed national borders and entered the international level to become the cultural legacy of the mankind, our paper aims to deliver the main examples of pilgrimage places in this country. Historical buildings of Orthodox Churches, mosque, synagogue, Catholic and Protestant churches decorate the center of its capital Tbilisi. Georgian foreigners as well as Georgians have a unique opportunity to find refuge from daily routine and to get closer to eternal matters during the regular visits to Orthodox Monasteries and Churches around Georgia. Besides, we also emphasize the importance of collaboration of Religious Tourism with religious leaders of any country in order to get exhaustive knowledge about the pilgrimage places that will help one to understand the role and contribution of Orthodox Christianity to the whole World (UNWTO, 2011).

2 Main Aspects of Georgian Religious Heritage and Christian Art

Georgia is located in the Caucasus region, between the Black and Caspian Seas. The history of its statehood counts almost 3,500 years, and that of Christianity, 2,000 years. The Mother of God is considered the major protector of Georgia since the country was first allocated to her to preach in. Though later, on the will of God, she gave her icon to the Holy Apostle St. Andrew (later the First Called) and dispatched him to preach Gospel in Georgia. St. Andrew went to the land keeping the Mantle of the Prophet Elijah, brought to Mtskheta by the Jews persecuted by Nabuchodonosor in the sixth century, and the seamless Robe of Christ [in some sources it is called Chiton—Greek **Chitōn**, garment worn by Greek men and women from the Archaic period (c. 750–c. 500 B.C.) through the Hellenistic period (323–30 B.C.)], greatest holy relic of the entire Christendom, also brought here by the Mtskheta Jews after crucifixion of Christ.

At that time there were two kingdoms on the territory of Georgia—Kartli (Iberia, Hiberia) Kingdom to the east, and Egrisi (Colchida, Colchis, Lazica) Kingdom to the west. St. Andrew preached in different parts of Georgia. After preaching and

baptizing people there, he left the Holy Mother of God's icon in Atskveri Village (Kartli Kingdom). The icon used to be kept at Atskveri (Atskuri) Cathedral Church for many centuries.

St. Andrew preached Gospel together with St. Simon of Canaan (the same Andrew the First-Called) in western Georgia. The last was buried in Komani Village, Georgia. Another Apostle St. Matthias was also buried in Georgia. He preached in south-western part of the country and was buried in Gonio, nearby Batumi. According to the oldest scripts holy Apostles Bartholomew and Thaddeus also visited East Georgia and preached Gospel there.

Though the first apostles partially failed to convert whole Georgia into Christianity but they succeed in that issue with essential group of population.

The Georgian Church has been founded by the Holy Apostles. Their journeys and preaches are scripted in the Georgian Chronicles, also by Greek and Latin authors, for instance Origenes (Origenes) (II–III cc), Bishop Dorotheus of Tire (IV c), Bishop Epiphanius of Cyprus (IV c), Nikita of Paphlagon (IX c), Ecumen (X c), etc.

Holy Apostles preaches left a significant path. Existence of Christian communities and churches are proved by archaeological materials dated back to I–III cc. St. Ireneus of Lyon mentions Iberians, i.e. Georgians, among Christians in second century (Georgia, 2007).

During the reign of Georgian King Mirian and Queen Nana (fourth century), Christianity was proclaimed state religion in East Georgia thanks to the enlightening activity of St. Illuminator Nino, Equal-to-the-Apostles. That was a turning point and absolutely new stage in the history of the country. Clever decision taken by Georgian King and queen as well as the population became a reason for close negotiations between Georgian and Byzantine churches. St. Nino baptized the royal family after Greek priests, bishops and deacons were sent to Georgia by Emperor Constantine and Empress Helena. That dates back to the IV c. A.D.

The fact that St. Nino of Cappadocia was a close relative of St. George is also interesting. According to the advice of St. Nino the foundation of the first church of the Twelve Apostles, Svetitskhoveli, where the Mantle of the Prophet Elijah and the Robe of Christ were buried, was laid there. Svetitskhoveli Patriarchate Cathedral is the spiritual center of Georgia. The Cathedral displays immortality of our nation and culture.

After adoption of Christianity as an official religion, Emperor Constantine and Queen Elena sent a piece of the Holy Cross, and the board onto which the Savior stood while crucifixion, and two nails, and the Savior's icon.

Preaching Christianity and establishing the Church in early fourth century as well as the crucial importance of Georgia for Christian World is confirmed the presence of Stratophilous, Bishop of Bichvinta (Abkhazia), at the First World Ecclesiastic Council in Nicaea in 325 A.D. Since then Georgia and the Georgian Orthodox Church have always firmly and devoutly kept Orthodox canons. As sixth century Byzantine historian Procopius of Caesarea writes, "Iberians are Christians keeping the rules better than any other nations".

Despite tragic history of Georgia, the Georgian Orthodox Church has always conducted great educational and revival activities since announcing the state religion. The whole territory of Georgia is covered with churches and monasteries. You can find hundreds of St. George's churches all over Georgia. St. George has always been especially honored and respected as a protector of Georgia.

The most important is that monasteries and churches are not only the houses of God, where one can only pray and attend the divine service, they have been turned into cultural and educational centers from the very beginning of their existence. In early twelfth century, the glorious King David the Builder, who united the Kingdom of Georgia, established Gelati Monastery and Academy near Kutaisi. Gelati Academy was recognized as a great center of theology and education and science among the orthodox world at that time. Another famous educational center existed simultaneously in Ikalto.

In XI–XII cc. it was widespread in Georgia to send talented young men to Greek schools. Among those students were Ephrem Mtsire (Ephraim the Small), Ekvtime Atoneli (Euthymius the Athonite), Giorgi Atoneli (George the Hagiorite), Arsen Ikaltoeli (Arsen of Iqalto), Ioane Petritsi and others. It is also noteworthy that Georgian students who studied abroad also established theological schools there and subsequently implemented their school traditions in their homeland. This practice of Georgian students was especially strong during the reign of David the Builder. He gave close attention to the education of his people. The king selected children who were sent to the Byzantine Empire “so that they be taught languages and bring home translations made by them there”. Many of them became well-known scholars. Later some of them founded churches and monasteries abroad, in Palestine, Syria, Cyprus, Greece, Bulgaria, etc. One should especially note Holy Cross Monastery in Jerusalem (currently being under jurisdiction of Greek Orthodox Church), St Jacob's Monastery in Jerusalem (currently being under jurisdiction of Jerusalem Armenian Church), Iviron Monastery on Holy Mount Athos (famous for Iviron Holy Mother Virgin's miraculous icon), Petritsoni Monastery (currently Bachkovo, Bulgaria).

Besides, King David the Builder initiated summon of the Great Ecclesiastic Council in Ruis-Urbnisi Diocese in 1103. The Ruis-Urbnisi Ecclesiastic Council revised vital issues of ecclesiastic as well as civil society.

Georgian Christian art is of special note as well. Great many Georgian ecclesiastic and civil architectural monuments have been recognized as unique masterpieces in the world. Monumental art, frescos, and mosaics have been developed along with architecture. Original Georgian frescos played notable role in evolution of Byzantine art and vice versa.

Relations with Holy Land of Jerusalem have always been of special importance for Georgia as well as all Christian world. Lots of landmarks and names linked to Jerusalem are found all over Georgia, especially in its ancient and former capital city Mtskheta. Georgian kings and princes built churches and monasteries, and greatly donated to Jerusalem since early Christian centuries.

Mtskheta is also called a holy city, a place where Christian pilgrims and tourists come from around the world. Due to its great architectural and historical values

century Mtskheta and its surroundings entered UNESCO's world heritage list in 1994. The city's numerous holy sites have won it the name of Second Jerusalem.

Greece, as the cradle of Orthodox Christianity, also made tremendous contributions to Christianity especially during the millennium of the Byzantine Empire. This was the period of the Great Greek Fathers, of huge missionary initiatives, of Christian thought, poetry, and literature. It was the period of local and ecumenical synods, which formed and defined the values of Christian faith basic to all Christian churches and denominations today. It was also an era of great social anxiety and cultural movement in the Church.

Many sources say that most major heresies originated in the Greek East. But all of them were defeated on the same ground by the intellect, the logic, the mystical intuition, and the biblical scholarship of the Greek Fathers, or their Hellenized allies of the Near East.

As T. R. Glover has put it: "The chief contribution of the Greek was his demand for this very thing—that Christianity must be universal. . .the Greek really secured the triumph of Jesus. . . . Even the faults of the Greek have indirectly served the church."

Greece has contributed significantly to the ecumenical movement and under the support of the Ecumenical Patriarchate, Greek Orthodox theology will continue to work for the restoration of the Christian world and the unity of the Church.

Due to such great efforts of Orthodox Churches we, as one of the devoted Orthodox nations in the World, have inherited rich heritage and we are proud to own numerous caves, monasteries, churches etc., pilgrimage centers that have become centers of spiritual healing and empowerment.

The list given below is a part of the huge treasure of Orthodox Church and Georgian people are proud to have sacred places in Georgia where pilgrims can see the signs of the Biblical stories, adore various sacred things directly connected with the life or death of Prophets, Saints, Holy Fathers and so on.

We would like to present several distinguished ones such as:

1. Svetitskhoveli Church in Mtskheta;
2. Jvari Monastery in Mtskheta;
3. Mantle of St. Elijah in Mtskheta;
4. Tomb of St. Monk Gabriel in Mtskheta;
5. Holy Cross in Mtskheta;
6. Grapevine Cross in Tbilisi;
7. Mokvi Gospel in Tbilisi;
8. Khakhuli Tryptich Icon of Virgin Mary in Tbilisi;
9. Ancha Icon of the Savior in Tbilisi;
10. Tomb of St. Basilisko in Comana;
11. Sarcophagus of St. John Chrysostom in Comana;
12. Head of John the Baptist in Comana;
13. Tomb of St. Nino in Bodbe, Kakheti Region;
14. Holy Spring of St. Nino in Bodbe, Kakheti Region;
15. Tomb of Joseph of Alaverdi in Alaverdi, Kakheti Region;

16. Tomb of St. Neophytos of Urbnisi in Inner Kartli, Kareli Municipality;
17. Tomb of St. Father Piros in Inner Kartli, Kareli Municipality;
18. Tomb of St. Anton of Martkopi in Norio, Gardabani Municipality;
19. Tomb of St. Mathias in Batumi, Achara;
20. Tunic of the Virgin Mary in Zugdidi, Samegrelo Region; (www.orthodoxy.ge, n.d.)

3 Mtskheta: A Former Capital of Georgia

Svetitskhoveli Cathedral in Mtskheta (The Most Distinguished Ancient Cities in Georgia and the Former Capital)

Why is Mtskheta such a big deal? Let's count the ways: Firstly, it's one of the oldest continually inhabited cities in the world. There have been people living there since before 1000 B.C.; Secondly, it was the capital of the Georgian kingdom of Iberia from the third century B.C. to the fifth century A.D.; Thirdly, it's where Christianity was proclaimed as the official state religion of Kartli (another early Georgian kingdom) in 337 A.D., making Georgia the second country to have done so; it's believed to be the place where Jesus's robe was buried (inside the famous Svetitskhoveli Cathedral); it's where most of the kings of Georgia up through the nineteenth century are buried; it's where the Georgian Orthodox church has its headquarters today; Its historical buildings have been proclaimed a UNESCO World Heritage Site (www.pravmir.com, 2007).

Construction of Svetitskhoveli Cathedral (firstly as a small church) started from fourth century, later it was restored many times during the Middle Ages. Cathedral is stunning both from the outside (especially in the mid-morning sunlight) and the inside. It's free to enter, better for ladies to have a headscarf) and wander around the many old tombs inside and just continuously look up at the big internal dome (www.tripadvisor.ie, 2014).

Georgian churches have a unique style and this Cathedral is not an exception. Pilgrims should not miss two things. First, the icon of Saint Elias, a Georgian Jew who brought Jesus robe into Georgia and the tomb of his sister Sidonia. Georgian man won the robe of Jesus Christ after his crucifixion and brought it back to Georgia. His sister died when she touched the robe and put it in her arms, according to the story, nobody was able to take out the robe from her arm and she was buried with the robe.

The distinguishing feature is the massive image of Christ that stares straight at you when you walk in through the doors. It seems that his eyes look inside your soul. When you go into an orthodox church, you usually see a wide variety of paintings, frescos, and icons. These depict Mary, Jesus, the apostles, and other noteworthy individuals.

Down the street from Svetitskhoveli Cathedral is the small and relatively modest **Antioch Church**. It dates back to the seventh century, and there is a small nunnery located right next to the church these days.

A five-minute walk north from Svetitskhoveli Cathedral brings you to **Samtavro Church**, which is another example of a building that is in remarkably good shape for its age. It was built in the twelfth century, and the small church also on the grounds in the same yard was built dates back to the fourth century.

a. *One more thing to see near Mtskheta is Jvari (Cross) Monastery (VI c.).*

Jvari Monastery is situated spectacularly on top of a mountain above the city of Mtskheta. It was built in sixth century. This isn't one of those buildings that was first built forever ago and has rebuilt several times over the centuries. That incredible church has stood and survived on top of this mountain since the 500s. Its name has been derived from its architectural style and shape of Cross.

According to historical sources, on the same location in the early fourth century Saint Nino, Evangelist and Illuminator of Georgia credited with converting King Mirian III of Kartli to Christianity, erected a large wooden cross on the site of a pagan temple. The cross was reportedly able to work miracles and therefore drew pilgrims from all over the Caucasus.

b. *Mantle of St. Elijah.*

Elijah was a prophet and a wonder-worker in the northern kingdom of Israel during the reign of Ahab (ninth century B.C.), according to the Biblical Books of Kings.

In Christianity the New Testament describes how both Jesus and John the Baptist are compared with Elijah and Elijah appears with Moses during the Transfiguration of Jesus. There also exists Georgian story about Jesus, St. George and Prophet Elijah.

He is venerated as a saint he denounced the power for apostasy and corruption, enlightened the Pagans while the Jews lived in heresy, miraculously created vast supplies of food from less sources, and raised the dead from the tomb.

First case, when we hear about Elijah's mantle is when he, cared for by angels in the wilderness, walked to Mount Horeb. This was the location where Moses had received the Ten Commandments seven centuries earlier. Similar to Moses, Ilia was addressed by God in a cave and while Ilia was expressing his disappointment about the sinfulness and apostasy of the Jews, God suddenly revealed himself to Ilia through fire, wind and earthquake on the mountain, and commanded Ilia to prophecy the death of King Ahab and anoint his successor. When Elijah saw the God, he covered his face with his mantle;

Second case when the Mantle of the Prophet is mentioned concerns the period, when knowing that his work was done, Elijah proceeded to the River Jordan with his disciple Elisha and parted the waters of the Jordan. They crossed the river, and then a fiery chariot took Elijah up into the heavens, with his mantle falling to the ground and Elisha taking possession of it while taking on Elijah's role as prophet and spiritual father of the Kingdom of Israel. The English phrase "taking up the mantle" derives from this biblical passage. (Nova Science Publishers, 2004–2014)

c. *Tomb of St. Monk Gabriel*

Gabriel born Goderdzi Urgebadze (1929–1995) was a Georgian Orthodox monk venerated for his dedicated monastic life and faithfulness. With many miracles credited to him, Gabriel's grave at Mtskheta has attracted an increasing number of pilgrims because of its miraculous power. The Georgian Orthodox Church officially canonized him as Holy Father St. Gabriel, Confessor and Fool for Christ on 20 December 2012.

d. *Holy Cross*

We would like to mention about the Cross, which was made by the St. Illuminator Nino from the wonder-worker tree and erected on the mountain which is located on the confluence of two rivers—Mtkvari and Araksi, the place decorated today by abovementioned Jvari Monastery. Holy Cross has been healing different diseases and making miracles. Besides, Holy Chrism used to flow from the Cross. After many attempts made by various enemies the Holy Cross has been robbed and miraculously survived and placed in the fabulous Svetitskhoveli Cathedral.

4 Tbilisi

- *The Grapevine Cross*

Also known as the **Georgian cross** or **Saint Nino's Cross**, is a major symbol of the Georgian Orthodox Church and dates from the fourth century A.D., when Christianity became the official religion in the kingdom of Iberia (Kartli).

It is recognizable by the slight drooping of its horizontal arms. Traditional accounts credit Saint Nino, woman from Cappadocia who preached Christianity in Iberia (corresponding to modern eastern Georgia) early in the fourth century, with this unusual shape of cross. The legend has it that she received the grapevine cross from the Virgin Mary and secured it weaved it by with her own hair. Nino came with this cross on her mission to Georgia. However, the familiar representation of the cross, with its irregular drooping arms, did not appear until the early modern era. Nowadays the Grapevine Cross is kept in Sioni Cathedral of Tbilisi. (Linderman, 2007)

- *Mokvi Gospel (13-14th cen.)*

MG preserved at the National Centre of Manuscripts, is an outstanding specimen of Georgian calligraphic art and miniature painted of the turn of the thirteenth to fourteenth centuries. Its especial artistic peculiarity lies in the miniatures done on sheet gold; The artistic appearance of the Mokvi Four Gospels, as a monument belonging to the Byzantine area, follows the iconographic models preserved in Georgian and Byzantine tradition.

The Gospel has come down to us in a rather damaged form; the leaves disintegrated from moisture clearly show the heavy plight of the painting.

- *The Khakhuli Icon (8-12th cen.)*

In the feudal epoch Georgian goldsmith art reached the peak of artistic mastery. This ancient art traversed a complicated path of evolution, every stage of which,

whether coinciding with a period of florescence, or one decline, set itself its own artistic tasks.

Having emerged in Georgian goldsmith's work during the Middle ages, the decorative trend mentioned above was powerfully manifested at the peak of feudal times, during the reigns of King David the Builder and his son Demetre I, when Georgia strove for the unification of the Transcaucasia.

It was the period when the repousse triptych of the Khakhuli Virgin was created.

The triptych, kept since 1952 in the treasury of the Georgian State Museum of Fine Art, derives its name from Khakhuli Monastery in Tao, one of Georgia's ancient provinces, where it was originally kept. In the twelfth century David the Builder (1089–1125) had the already famous Khakhuli icon, believed to be miracle-working, conveyed to the Monastery at Gelati, where a new repousse case was made for it. The lateral panels of the triptych encased in repousse silverwork were left in their original form as remarkable specimens of the tenth century toreutics, while the rest of the icon was adorned anew with gold, silver, cloisonné enamels and precious stones.

The central part of the triptych, the representation of the Khakhuli Virgin, was originally an icon of precious metal; the face and hands of the Virgin were in cloisonné enamel. The background repousseis now lost, while the face and hands, brilliant examples of Georgian cloisonné enamel, are today fixed in the central part of the icon.

The Khakhuli triptych is a brilliant example of artistic metalwork in feudal Georgia, fully conforming to the epoch in which the idea of its creation was conceived and materialized.

- ***The Ancha Icon of the Savior***

The Icon known in Georgia as **Anchiskhati**, is a medieval Georgian encaustic icon, traditionally considered to be the *Keramidion*, a "holy tile" imprinted with the face of Jesus Christ miraculously transferred by contact with the Image of Edessa (*Mandylion*). Dated to the sixth-seventh century, it was covered with a chased silver riza and partly repainted in the following centuries. The icon derives its name from the Georgian monastery of Ancha in what is now Turkey, Ancha icon of the Savior (Anchiskhati) was brought to Georgia from the Holy Land; It traveled a lot, was brought to Anchiskhati Church in Tbilisi, in 1664 (till 1938), Nowadays the icon is now kept at the National Art Museum of Georgia in Tbilisi. The **Ancha Icon of the Savior** has a long Miraculous history.

5 Comana

Historical village in Abkhazia, about ten km from Sokhumi has been visited and adored by the great Saints; St. John Chrysostom, Archbishop of Constantinople and an important Early Church Father performed the last Divine Service in 407 A.D.

Today in the center of the village one can see the small temple with St. John Crysostom's sarcophagus in it;

Here was cruelly killed Holy Martyr Basiliskos in 308 A.D.; Besides, there was found the head of beheaded St. John the Baptist;

6 Kakheti Region

- ***St. Nino's Tomb in Bodbe Monastery in Kakheti***

After completing her great deeds (converting population of Kartli to Christianity), St. Nino decided to have a rest in the village of Bodbe, and there, in accordance with God's providence, she was buried.

King Mirian, desiring to honor the Enlightener of Georgia, intended to transfer the relics of the Saint to Mtskheta, to the Cathedral of Svetitskhoveli, where the tunic of Christ was buried. However, 200 people could not even move her tomb from its place. Soon the King St. Mirian built a church on the burial place of the Saint. So he decided to leave her tomb there and to construct monastery making St. Nino's name eternal.

The tomb of St. Nino was revered so much that even Tatar-Mongols who had devastated the entire country did not dare to desecrate it, although they did some harm to the church itself.

- ***Holy Spring of St. Nino***

Beginning of a long path down to the Holy Spring from the Bodbe Monastery, the road turns into a narrow path down the mountain.

The Holy Spring was originally situated at the site of the Monastery, but disappeared during Soviet times when the Monastery was converted to a maternity hospital. After Georgia regained its independence and the Monastery once more reverted to its original use, the spring reappeared at the bottom of the hill, 2 km. further down. Because of its renowned healing powers, pilgrims from all over Georgia come to both bathe in the spring and drink/take home water from the holy spring.

- ***St. Joseph of Alaverdi***

He was of the thirteen Assyrian Fathers who came from Antioch in VI, founded Alaverdi Monastery where he is buried. Many miracles are being performed on his grave.

7 Inner Kartli, Kareli Municipality

- ***St. Stephen Urbnisi Monastery***

Urbnisi is a village in Shida Kartli region, Kareli municipality.

Situated on the Mtkvari river, it was an important city in ancient and early medieval Georgia.

One can find the tomb of Holy Hieromartyr Neophite of Urnisi, who descended from a line of Persian fire-worshippers and was stoned to death by enemy for being firm protector and follower of Christianity; (Machitadze, 2007)

- ***St. Piros of Breti***

Village Breti is located 9 km south from Kareli center, on the left bank of the river Prone. Father Piros, one of the Assyrian fathers lived and worked here in the sixth century. The monastery found by Father Piros was a significant place of education, literacy and arts and culture for years. The Church of Father Piros is located in the center of the village along with the Church of St. George, and remaining of the ancient village. The belfry was later built at the south corner of the church. At the moment the complex is a monastery for nuns. (Agency, 2012)

- ***Tomb of Anton of Martkopi in Norio, Gardabani Municipality***

In a several dozen kilometers from Tbilisi, a monastery founded by father Anton of Martkopi, one of the Thirteen Assyrian Fathers, carries the name of Martkopi “Gvtaeba Monastery” (VI c.) and is situated on the most beautiful slope of Mount Ialno.

He spent the last 15 years of his life there. The remains of an ancient foundation indicate that on the place of the contemporary cathedral there was an ancient cathedral of greater size, but for some reason in was destroyed. For a long time, a Divine-Made image brought by St. Anton of Martkopi from Edessa was stored at the monastery. But in 1395 it was lost during the Tamerlane invasion.

In the seventeenth century the ancient frescos were destroyed again and in 1848–1855 under the leadership of Ivane Arjevanidze, the monastery was restored.

The most sacred place of the monastery is the tomb of St. Anton of Martkopi, which has been preserved to this day and is considered miraculous. East of the monastery there is a tower where evidently resided the saint.

Famous dates of well-known people of Georgia are associated with the monastery. In this cathedral was married Alexander Chavchavadze, father of Ekaterine Dadiani—the last Queen of Samegrelo, and Nina Chavchavadze-Griboedova.

I. ***Tomb of St. Prophet Matata in Batumi, Achara***

Saint Matthias, the disciple who, according to the biblical Acts of the Apostles 1:21–26, was chosen to replace Judas Iscariot after Judas betrayed Jesus.

It is written that Matthias accompanied Jesus and the Apostles from the time of the Lord’s Baptism to his Ascension and that, when it became time to replace Judas, the Apostles cast lots between Matthias and another candidate, St. Joseph Barsabbas. St. Jerome and the early Christian writers Clement of Alexandria and Eusebius of Caesarea attest that Matthias was among the 72 disciples paired off and dispatched by Jesus. Soon after his election, Matthias received the Holy Spirit with the other Apostles (Acts 2:1–4). He is not mentioned again in the New Testament.

According to the general sources Matthias ministered in Judaea and then carried out missions to foreign places. Greek tradition states that he Christianized Cappadocia, a mountainous district now in central Turkey, later journeying to the region about the Caspian Sea, where he was martyred by crucifixion and, according to other legends, chopped apart. His symbol, related to his supposed martyrdom, is either a cross or a halberd. St. Helena, mother of the Roman emperor Constantine the Great, reputedly transported Matthias' relics from Jerusalem to Rome.

II. *Tunic of the Virgin Mary in Zugdidi.*

One of the most precious relics of all Christian World is kept in the Historical Museum of Zugdidi—the Tunic of the Virgin Mary. After a long traveling from Palestine to Constantinople and further more. . . Finally miraculously discovered on Georgian land together with her wonder making Icon and her belt. The Holy Tunic has been performing various miracles, starting from 632 A.D. when it saved Constantinople from enemy's total destruction till this age, when in 2000 A.D. the Holy Savior appeared on its surface.

8 Conclusion

Religion, faith and spirituality are so intertwined that clear differentiations of all three aspects are necessary for a deeper understanding of the pilgrimage role as a part of religious tourism. One of the oldest forms of tourism is religious or as it is now known, faith-based tourism. The Bible speaks of ascending to Jerusalem at least three times a years for each of the Biblical harvest festivals. Likewise, the Islamic world is famous for the Hajj or pilgrimage to Mecca. Religious tourism usually involves followers of particular faiths visiting locations that some people regard as holy sites.

Often tourism professionals have little or nothing to do with the faith-based community other than knowing their own religious leader(s). We consider that there is a lack in negotiation between the market and people demands. Tourism leaders should take time to meet with local religious leadership, ask them if they attract visitors for family events, religious retreats, or faith-based study. Often these people feel disconnected from the tourism community and have a great deal of both marketing knowledge and expertise to share. While working with these religious leaders, implementing some innovations already existed in digital world tourism, such as virtual or panorama tours etc. it will be easier to develop a joint business plan and be a focus for more tourists of different age categories. Besides, never forget to ask them how you as a travel or tourism professional can be of help to each one of them.

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Wandering as the Determinant of Identity and Difference in Ancient Greek Literature: The Paradigm of Herodotus and Pausanias

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Abstract Herodotus and Pausanias lived in different eras but shared many resemblances: the Ionian inclination to travelling and inquiring, interest in history, geography, ethnography, ethnology, culture, art and literature, the desire to commemorate deeds worth telling and sites worth seeing. They selected and combined the information they collected from their journeys, from other travelers and from written sources, in order to form a profile of the Greek identity. To achieve that they looked into the profile of the “other”, be it a foreign nation, friendly or hostile, or the different parts of the same nation, which is the case of the individual local communities of Roman times.

Keywords Wandering • Identity • Difference • Ancient Greece • Pausanias • Herodotus

1 Introduction

Travelling is a vital part of the Greek consciousness: The grand and ambitious Trojan expedition as well as Odysseus, the man of many devices (*polytropos*), who suffered many sorrows (*pathea*) at sea, (Hom.Od.1–6.), but became wiser by seeing different states and learning the mind of their inhabitants, form the literary proof of Greek travelling overseas, around the Mediterranean and up to the Black Sea since the twelfth century B.C. Mostly the first and later the second colonization opened new geographical, financial and cultural horizons: the economic, diplomatic and cultural relations between motherland and its colonies on the one hand, and between the colonies and its new neighbors on the other developed a network of diverse communication between the nations of the South-Central Mediterranean and of the South Black Sea, expanding the opportunities to travel, trade and learn. The literary genres of *periplous* and *stadiasmos*, whose norm was probably the description of coastlines and listing of places along overland route, as well as the

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geographical and ethnographical work of Ionian logographers (*genealogies*) and especially of Hekataios of Miletus provide us with samples of the vivid interest in exploring new regions and discovering old roots, in the case of *genealogies*, and new ones, in the case of *periplous* and *stadiasmos*. Probably in the same period Aristeas of Prokonnesos wrote his unfortunately lost *Arimaspeia* the first detailed traveler's report, which however included fictional material about the people living beyond Scythians. Even Hesiod, whose work was composed round the second half of the eighth century B.C., admitted that a journey could also be a part of a farmer's tasks. Regardless of their accuracy, literary works of the Archaic period confirm one of Solon's justifications for setting off for a 10 year trip abroad, after providing his co-citizens with a new legislation. According to Herodotus, Solon left Athens craving for "theoria", a term which combines vision and intellectual inquiry (1.29).

Travel descriptions can be found in many literary genres of the Classical period, including historiography: The narration of military expeditions demanded a scenery: the itinerary of the rival troops and/or fleets, the military preparations and the landscape of the conflict, that led to particular decisions or affected the outcome of the battle or the combat were vital components of every historical text, as they helped the reader understand the facts and evaluate their agents. In addition to that, the features of the enemies and the allies, concerning their way of living, their customs, especially those related to religious rites and cultural traditions, their political system and social structure offered an insight on how to assess the opponents' reactions: their goals, their premeditated or impulsive acts, their attitude towards the enemies before and after the victory or the defeat, the amount, frequency and type of their alliances, truces, their reasons and means of retaliation.

Herodotus, the narrator of the Persian Wars against the Greeks, came from a wealthy, aristocratic family of Halicarnassus, a colony in South-Western Minor Asia. He was inspired by the Ionian spirit of travelling and inquiring (*ιστορία*), which drove him to Egypt, South Italy, Aegean islands, Greek mainland, maybe Babylon, Syria and Northern Africa, less probably to Northern coast of Black Sea and which led to his multiannual stay in Athens and his death away from his homeland, in Thourioi, an Athenian colony in south Italy. Furthermore, in his *Histories* we can trace the influences of Homeric epic poetry, of Hecateus of Miletus' *Genealogies* and *Periplous*, of travel reports, (Her. *Hist.* 4.44.), geographical and ethnographical essays, known to us only by their title or in fragmental form, and of the ethics expressed in lyric poetry and tragedy, from which Herodotus also borrowed the techniques of dramatization. As a result, his versatile work combines military narration with novels, smaller anecdotal stories and ethnographic and ethological excursions about the nations affected by Persian imperialism. However, these components don't coexist correspondingly throughout the herodotean work. Ethnographic and ethological excursions gradually diminish, as the narrative scope changes, moving, along with the Persian army, from the conquest of non-Greeks, "barbarians", to the Greek-Persian conflict. Consequently, the absence of any information about the culture of foreign nations in the last four books of *Histories* comes as no surprise.

One of the questions that arise from the complex structure of *Histories* is to what extent the information provided by the narrator about foreign lands and their inhabitants are a product of his personal query and autopsy and therefore are considered to be trustworthy. This is primarily a matter of sources, which can be oral: local informants whom Herodotus met at his journeys, diplomats, merchants or travelers who shared their experiences with the narrator or his acquaintances, and/or written: earlier texts with similar content, but varied liability.¹

The reliability of the herodotean description of the nations engaged in the Persian wars has been one of scholars' favorite subjects. Numerous references, dating back to the thucydidean criticism about the interweaving of ethnographical excursions with historical narration (Thuc. Hist. 1.97.2), deal with his scope and his motivation, attributing them to his Ionian background, his literary sources, his aim to please his audience/readers, or to pinpoint the common or diverse ideology and ethics that underlay the political, military and cultural achievements of either Greeks and/or the barbarians. Thus, it comes as no surprise that some of his direct or indirect allegations of autopsy and desire for descriptive accuracy have been refuted.

A similar diversity of material and sources can be traced in the literary work of another famous traveler, Pausanias. Pausanias was a provincial Greek of the second century A.D. His work, *Description of Greece*, was influenced by a number of forces: Firstly by the intellectual climate of the Second Sophistic, whose representatives were highly educated, (*pepaideymenoi*), admired and idealized the deeds, the cultural and scientific achievements of the Archaic and the Classical period and looked back to the days when the Greek states were independent. Secondly, by the conventions established to describe foreign regions and customs in different literary genres. Geography and historiography blossomed in the Classical and the Hellenistic period,² especially after Alexander's expeditions, which revealed an unknown world and revitalized interest exploring it. Furthermore, the panoramic and vivid descriptions of landscapes in the Hellenistic poetry and the adventures of the novelistic heroes, who travelled in exotic but, in reality, familiar Near East or Egypt proved the Hellenistic preoccupation with place (*topos*), as well as texts about sites located in particular places, dating back to the late Classical period, inspired Pausanias, providing him with a variety of written sources and with a useful stock of narrative techniques.³ Finally, Pausanias' epoch was ideal for safe journeys and free communication. Second century A.D. was the peaceful, "golden" era of the Roman empire, which was ruled by great emperors, known for their admiration for the Greek culture (Habicht, 1985a, p. 123). As a result, travelling was easy for an educated, Greek, well-to-do, aristocrat, who spoke Latin as well as Greek and needed no money exchange or passport to cross the borders from one Roman province to another.

¹ On Herodotus' sources see: Fehling (1971).

² Xen. *Cyrus Anabasis*, Strabo *Geography*.

³ On the literary influences of Pausanias see: Pretzler (2007), pp. 48–54.

As far as the reception of his work is concerned, Pausanias' *Description of Greece* received severe criticism, just as Herodotus did, because it presented a romantic image of the Greek states in Roman times, suppressing modern and foreign interference, and thus serving the popular Second Sophistic era ideal of the Greek superiority. Apart from his motivation, some of his descriptions, deriving either from autopsy or from oral sources, local informants and other eyewitnesses, have also been questioned on the basis of the unavoidable change of the Classical scenery in the lapse of time and of scientific cartography findings and archaeology findings.

It is obvious that, *mutatis mutandis*, Pausanias bears many resemblances to Herodotus (Jones, 2001, p. 36). Apart from the common Ionian, restless spirit, the two writers through their work desired to commemorate human deeds and especially important manifestations of the Greek ideology and culture both in theory and practice. In order to serve this ambitious goal, they both collect their material by autopsy, by oral or written sources and make their final selection, interweaving history with folklore, mythology, geography, art history, ethnology and ethnography.

These evident resemblances make the exploration of their material's selection and arrangement criteria even more intriguing. Did their narrators include the ethnological and ethnographic information necessary only to serve their primary narrative goals, among which the introductory aim to preserve the glory of marvelous Greek and barbarian deeds?⁴ Or did they also select his material in order to create a national identity through the comparison of his compatriots with non-Greeks, the so called "barbarians"? And in this case, to what extent is an educated traveler's work to be trusted? This is the subject we are going to deal with in the present paper, going into the creation of identity and diversity in the narrative description of Herodotus and Pausanias.

2 Literature Review

Herodotus' attitude towards his ethnographic material has provided many scholars with fertile ground for research. It is viewed as spectrum through which we can trace the narrators' identity, beliefs and goals concerning his work and its reception by its present and future audience.⁵ Likewise, Pausanias' descriptive choices and the reliability of his work, in general, have previously been questioned, with Willamowitz being one of the scholars who severely discredited him (Willamowitz, 1932, p. 2). Recently, though, the *Description of Greece* has been re-evaluated and

⁴ On the purpose of *Histories* see: Her. Hist. 1.1.

⁵ On the different purposes and interpretations of the ethnographical excurses in *Histories*, see: Redfield (1985); Hartog (1988); Konstan (1987); Cartledge (1990); Pritchett (1993); Thomas (1997).

is now considered to be a useful guide to the Greek cities and the people living in and around them in Roman Times.⁶

3 Herodotus and the “Other(s)”

Let us begin our exploration with Herodotus’ *Histories*. In his nine books, the herodotean narrator presents the Persian attempt to conquer most of the known at the time world. The end of each Persian expedition is set, most of the times, by its leaders, as most of the self-defending nations didn’t manage to manage to repel their enemy, but for few: Massagetai with their vengeful queen Tomyris, Scythians and Greeks. Marching along with the Great Kings Cyrus, Cambyses, Darius and Xerxes, the narrator focused on the nations attacked. He described their landscape and climate, their social, political and economic structure as well as the most remarkable aspects of their folklore: religious ceremonies, myths and local traditions. Despite his effort to be objective and to collect and share the most accurate information, in his description he is unavoidably influenced by the Greek point of view. The sights worth seeing and the stories about natives worth telling are selected by a Greek narrator who, in the case of autopsy, notices the resemblance or the difference between the Greek and the barbarian nature and/or *nomos*.

The description of Egypt provides us with a quite representative adequate sample of his scope. We can be quite sure that Herodotus visited Egypt, based on his allegations and on fact that many of his information has been checked and confirmed with the help of other reliable sources (2.29, 2.32). It is quite interesting, though, that he chose to include in his primary narration so much of the geographical and ethnological material he collected, that for quite a while we tend to forget the war and the subsequent Egyptian subjugation. The explanation, shared by some scholars, that the Egyptian logos was part of previous ethnographical work (Fornara, 1971a, p. 1; Jacoby, 1913, p. 331; Lloyd, 1975, p. 66.) and read in front of an audience is quite possibly, but does not justify the historian’s choice to preserve and include it in *Histories*. According to A. Lloyd (2007, p. 238), the Egyptian logos plays a diverse role in the narration, stressing the Persian capacity to conquer such a powerful and wise nation and composing the profile of the “other”, the barbarian, who, in the form of the Great King and his enslaved allies, would soon come after the Greek states. Apart from that, the description of the Egyptian natural environment and the climate serve as an explanation of the natives’ way of living, behaving and thinking. Egyptians living in the fertile and thus prosperous part of the country are wiser, pay attention to their diet, eat a special kind of bread and drink a special kind of wine, have a strange and for the Greek narrator appalling way to remind themselves of their mortality, wear different clothes suitable for their

⁶ Habicht (1985b), pp. 165–175 demonstrates how Wilamowitz’ attack on Pausanias amounts to a personal vendetta.

climate and have their own customs, unique in their opinion, but similar to some of the Greek traditions, according to the narrator. On the other hand, Egyptians living by the swamps differ from their compatriots and thus much more from the Greeks, as they are poor and their diet is very limited. However, they try to make the most of the potentials of their land, inventing a remarkable, according to the narrator, way to deal with mosquitos. The comparison between the Egyptians living in separated parts of the country indirectly pinpoints their similarities and differences with the Greeks and help us draw many conclusions about the narrator's point of view and motivation. Firstly, in his description we can trace the tendency to attribute the cultural diversity of the Egyptian to their natural environment and climate. The narrator himself claims that "the unique nature of the river Nile and of the Egyptian sky cause the oddity of their customs and traditions (*hthea, nomoi*) (2.35). This was a popular point of view in Herodotus' era, as the Hippocratic study *Air, Waters and Places* proves, and an interesting approach to the differences between Greeks and Egyptians: another country, another way of acting and thinking. However, some aspects of the Egyptian culture refer to their Greek equivalents: gods and some of their features, sacred religious ceremonies, respected and unrevealed by our narrator, and moral values as the respect towards the elderly show a line of cultural communication between the two nations. Regardless of their origins, undoubtedly claimed by the Egyptians priests, the narrator's main informants, the resemblances of the two nations contribute to the formation of the Greek identity as much as their differences. In the light of these observations, the narrator's choice to include those parts of the Egyptian history that refer directly or indirectly to the Greeks, their deeds, their tradition and ethics doesn't only serve as a means of drawing the Greek reader's attention, but also as a chance for him to go into his culture and learn through the remarkable deeds of others: Either they are similar or different to his own. Thus, it comes as no surprise that the narrator only presents, but doesn't explore or analyze the nature of those religious beliefs that are foreign to is own, and therefore the Greek religious feeling.

Another interesting case of ethnographic description is that of Scythians. Living along the North cost of Black Sea, Scythians hold a special place in *Histories*, not only because they were one of the few nations that repelled their enemy, but also for their special features, which in many ways contributed to Darius' failure. Scythians and their neighbors belong to the group of "harsh" nations, the outer, exotic circle of the herodotean ethnographic pattern. Due to the harshness of their land and its climate and their consequent isolation, evident in the narrator's emphasis on the lack of reliable sources, Scythians appear to be cruel, brutal, much different from the customs of Greeks and their neighbors. Their vengeful and inhumane treatment of slaves, who are blinded by drinking a peculiar kind of milk and the peculiar symbolic ceremony to honor their dead parents, can by no means be related to the Greek culture. However, in a way it reminds the narrator of *genesia*, one of the Greek burial customs which is an equally symbolic, but lighter and bloodless version of respect from the family to its diseased member. This is, thus, another, rather extreme example of the herodotean method of presenting different nations through analogy and contrast, through identity and otherness. Finally, it is

noteworthy that the narrator relates Scythians to Massagetans, the first nation that repelled Persians and took revenge on Cyrus, twice: firstly commenting on their outfit and secondly correcting a Greek allegation about a custom of Massagetans falsely attributed to Scythians. Is the relation of the two nations, which successfully stood up against the Persian imperialism, coincidental?⁷

Finally, the herodotean narrator deals with Persians, the leaders of the big expedition in the first book of *Histories*, claiming that he has personal knowledge on the subject (1.31), but without revealing his source of information. Persians differ from Greeks in many aspects: religion-although they do have some gods with similar features- and rituals, diet, social behavior and mostly attitude towards lying. According to Herodotus, Persians detested lying and avoided it by all means and under all circumstances. The acknowledged cultural oddity caused misunderstandings and led to the Persian criticism on the institution of the Greek market and on the Greek diet (1.132, 1.152). Furthermore, different political systems produced people with different political consciousness, broadening the gap between the invader and its victim. As a result, Persian features are in a way opposed to the Greek ones, enriching the profile of the “other” and stressing its difference to Greek identity.

The herodotean narrator doesn't criticize or reject foreign customs, no matter how strange they may seem to him.⁸ On the contrary, he includes them in his narration, considering them as worth telling. Cyrus' vain warnings to his compatriots not to lose their customary severity (9.122), the source of their power and victory, and the absolute refusal of the Indians to accept the tempting Persian bribery in order to change their customs (3.38) prove Herodotus' scope and motivation. Cultural diversity is a useful means of forming national identity through analogy and contrast. The barbarian “other” is like a double mirror that reflects virtues and the flaws of both sides, Greeks and non Greeks and offers the herodotean readers the opportunity to take a critical look at the heroes of *Histories*, evaluating their actions on the base of their cultural characteristics.

4 Pausanias: A Nostalgic Traveler of Roman Times

Pausanias, on the other hand, was based on Greek culture in order to form the image of Greek identity. Travelling through Greece and describing the most remarkable sites in major and minor Greek states of Central Greece, Attica and Peloponnese, he combined a number of different qualities. He was a mythographer, a geographer, a pilgrim, a historian, an art historian, a travel writer. Through his eyes the educated

⁷ The neighbors of the Scythians remind us of the exotic and mythical creatures living in the world of *Odyssey* and their existence is indirectly refuted by the narrator himself.

⁸ According to Rood (2006) p.298, Herodotus' description of foreign lands and customs encourages readers to “question their preconceptions [.....] and notions of superiority”.

reader could, and still can, identify the locations, sites and myths he read about in Archaic, Classical and Hellenistic texts. As a romantic and nostalgic traveler of Roman times, his aim is to compose a special travel guide that would present and thus preserve, through with accurate descriptions and explanatory narrations, all that is worth seeing and commemorating (2.34, 3.10).

He preferred to describe sacred to public or private buildings, focusing on their special features and the historical or mythical reasons for their construction and consecration to a particular god, a half-god or a hero (Meyer, 1954, p. 46). This is the result not only of his pilgrimage, but also of the fact that he considered Greek gods to be part of the Greek mythical tradition, of the common identity and of the identity of each local community. Furthermore, it was of vital importance for a small Greek community of the Roman times to preserve and display its local traditions, so as to capture and maintain an important place in the competitive and multination an Roman world. This is why they competed in connecting their religious or mythical roots to the tradition of a famous state of the past. Several cities, for example celebrated the mysteries of goddess Demeter in a similar way to a Athens, trying to create a relationship to the Athenian sanctuary. However, Pausanias often questioned the reliability of absurd religious stories, expressing his opinion firmly and thus encouraging elite-travelers of his time to re-examine their attitude towards myths, rituals and literary works that favored such explanations.

As far as statues are concerned, he focused on their location, the name of the sculptor, their material and the reason they were made for. It is surprising that he deliberately avoided to include any Roman interference to the initial Greek cultural landscape. On the contrary, he criticized the decision of the authorities to rename some Athenian statues dating back to the Classical times (1.18) and mentioned the destructions caused by the vengeful Roman conquerors, such as Nero, Caligula or Sulla, without making any comments.⁹ The results of their actions spoke for themselves. As a result, with his work he tried to go into the features that composed the ideal of *Hellenism* (1.26), which was favored by the elite of the Second Sophistic and could be traced in the deeds of the independent Greek states, before they surrendered to Macedonians and Romans. This is why admitted finding something sublime in an otherwise unimportant statue. His praise of Philopoimen (8.51–8.52), who is presented to be the last brave defender of Greek liberty proves his feelings towards the disrespectful, foreign conqueror who carelessly destroyed unique pieces of art, without being able to (re)produce, evaluate them or the consequences of their loss.

However, Pausanias didn't hesitate to praise emperor Hadrian for benefiting Athens in the years of his governance. He sincerely tried to be objective and maintain the balance between his admiration for the Greek past and his need to survive in the Roman present. After all, Roman emperors of his time admired Greek

⁹ In his work there are nineteen references of stolen Greek treasures by Roman, none of which is being criticized by the author. e.g. Paus. Hist. 5.25, 5.26, 6.9, 7.16, 7.25, 8.46, 9.27, 33.10.7.

culture. Furthermore, no matter how much he looked back to the past and avoided referring to his modern writers (Cohen, 2007, p. 93), he was inevitably a child of his own era, sharing, as Meyer puts it, “the taste of his times” (Meyer, 1954, p. 26), both in literature and in art (Habicht, 1985b, p. 130). This is the reason why when referring referred to his compatriots, Greeks, he used the first plural person, saying for example “Greeks believe” instead of “We believe”. It is not a matter of national identity. His proud answer to a foreigner who claimed that his compatriots were more devout than Greeks proved his national identity (7.7-8). However, as previously said, he lived in a Greek educated pilgrim travelling in the Roman empire and writing for its habitants, either Greeks or non-Greeks, familiar, in any case, with Greek culture and its characteristics (Habicht, 1985a, pp. 15–16).

In conclusion, Pausanias’ *Description of Greece* is an amalgam of different aspects of Greece in space and time. It is like one of the complex sites of his descriptions: It consists of remarkable artistic achievements of Classical and Archaic times bound with the necessary explanations provided by local, oral or written sources, with the undesired but unavoidable implements and changes brought about by the Hellenistic and Roman era and finally surrounded by the unifying aura of Greek spirit and common culture, represented by the local individuality and the traditions of the different Greek cities throughout time.

5 Conclusion

Summing up, both writers, Herodotus and Pausanias shared the same creative inclination: to inquire. Collecting information by their own wanderings or by other wanderers, sometimes reliable, sometimes not, they use the method of comparison, analogy and contrast to go into the differences and similarities of different nations, be it friendly or hostile, or of representatives of the same nations, located in different place and time. Then they use their diverse material to form the profile of identity, national or foreign, in a time of diversity, trying to keep a distance from the outcome of their survey and allowing their readers to come to their own conclusions. There is one slight detail, though: No matter how impartial they try to appear in their descriptions, they are a part of the world they describe, being at the same time the observant and the object of observation, undermining, in a way, their efforts for objectivity.

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Motivations and Experiences of Museum Visitors: The Case of the Imperial War Museum, United Kingdom

Raymond Powell and Jithendran Kokkranikal

Abstract This study explores motivations of visitors to the Imperial War Museum (North and South), United Kingdom, with a view to understanding why people visit museums associated with conflicts. Though museums are part of the education and leisure industry, the distinction between education and leisure is often blurred. There are a number of reasons why people visit museums. Motives of museum visitors can be grouped into intrinsic and extrinsic factors. This study analysed the extent to which museum visitors are motivated by extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Semi-structured interviews with visitors were conducted w at the Imperial Museum of War (North and South), United Kingdom. The findings do establish that extrinsic motivations are more dominant than the intrinsic ones for visiting the Imperial War Museum. The importance of extrinsic factors in motivating museum visitors would suggest that providing an opportunity for a good day out has more appeal to the visitors than the collections in the museum for the average visitors. The experiencing of museum in its totality is more important than the individual collections or the theme of the museum to the mainstream visitor. This work has made a contribution to understanding visitor motivations, which are multi-faceted, complex and not necessarily fully understood by the visitors themselves.

Keywords Museum • Motivations • Imperial War Museum • Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations

1 Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate motivations of visitors to the Imperial War Museum (North and South), United Kingdom, with a view to understanding why people visit museums associated with conflicts. Museums are part of the education and leisure industry, and at times the distinction between education and leisure can seem somewhat blurred when considering the motivations of those who

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visit. Often visitors to heritage sites (and by extension museums) are not always clear as to their exact motivations themselves (Davies & Prentice, 1995). The distinction between leisure and education may be so fine as to merit no distinction at all. That is to say, museums are so configured to deliver education and leisure at the same time that the distinction becomes meaningless when considering the function of a museum. What is noticeable about educational leisure settings is that most, if not all, have some key features in common:

- The setting provides real and direct experience of objects, places and people (Falk, Dierking, & Holland, 1995; Hooper-Greenhill, 1995);
- Learning is voluntary, but information should be easily accessible (Falk et al., 1995);
- The visitor is the arbiter of what is learnt, and that is stimulated by the individual needs and interest of the learner/visitor (Hooper-Greenhill, 1995);
- Learning is often a social occurrence (Falk et al., 1995);
- Visitors appear in diverse ways: alone; in mixed groups; with a range of expertise and prior knowledge and experiences (Anderson, 1995).

Museums therefore need to meet the needs and expectations of a very wide ranging potential client group, although it should be remembered that different museums cater for different interests. The Imperial War Museum is no different in this regard, and it offers a unique collection which serves to draw visitors into the contemplation of how war impacts on lives (IWM website). This is a deliberate attempt to provide a broad appeal to the broadest possible audience whilst also acting as guardian, curator and preserver of an important national archive of war and conflict related artefacts which might otherwise be neglected or overlooked. If not for museums where would such artefacts be stored?

There have been a number of studies conducted which seek to explore how tourists, in particular, spend their leisure time (Cameron & Gatewood, 2003; Davies, 2005; Hayes & Slater, 2002; Orr, 2004). Learning, in some shape or form, was deemed to be the most significant motivator in encouraging visitors to museums in the majority of visitor surveys (Black, 2005). Garrod and Fyall (2000) recommend that if any heritage attraction is to be successful it must be visitor friendly and intellectually accessible, as well as managing the difficult balance between the needs of the visitor and the conservation imperative.

Understanding quite what those needs may be, and also understanding the motivations of visitors to heritage sites and museums is as a major theme in heritage research. This means that motivations are being explored, rather than just being assumed, and this also recognises that the audience for cultural consumption is larger than was once presumed (Richards, 2007). Museums and other heritage sites are visited by a wide range of people for a wide range of reasons (Prentice et al., 1997; Timothy & Boyd, 2003). For example, Shackley (1999) argues that sacred spaces such as churches and cathedrals are visited because, as well as their sacred function, they also have aesthetic and architectural merit, but importantly also provide a great day out. The same site, therefore, can mean different things to different people, and therefore the motivation to visit must rest with the individual.

The attraction can provide certain stimuli, but whatever they offered would not necessarily appeal to everyone. This is, in essence, identifying a target market, a familiar enough context in the commercial world, but one which presents a range of challenges beyond the purely commercial when your reason for being is so intimately tied-up with wider societal concerns and issues of social exclusion. The collection itself may provide a motivation for visitors to attend, and a key motivation often reported in the literature is that of education in one form or another (Moussouri, 2002; Slater, 2006; Thyne, 2001).

The motivation to visit a museum can be considered as being intrinsic or extrinsic. Those visitors primarily motivated by intrinsic factors are focussed on the perceived usefulness of the visit and the context of the visit linked to largely personal factors such as personal meaning and interpretation, timeliness, opportunities for interaction and the degree of intellectual challenge (Screven, 1976; as cited in Goulding, 2000). These motivations are internal and individual, and it is likely that whilst there may be a high correlation in certain visitor segments, they are largely individual motivations and thus different people will seek different environments and, in the case of museums, different collections to view.

Extrinsic motivations on the other hand are external to the visitor and include such factors as feedback or rewards such as visible achievement, perhaps through rewards or tokens, and a sense of achievement (Goulding, 2000). Common extrinsic motivations are escapism, social interaction with family and friends, learning in one form or another and seeking some relaxation in a perceived worthwhile educational environment (Prentice, Davies, & Beeho, 1997). This suggests that visitor motivations have to be interpreted carefully with due regard to the subtlety of such broad phrases as “escapism” and “learning”. Enjoyment also plays its part as a good day out and quality time being spent well in a worthy environment. Altruism also features in that a visit to museum could part of a conscious effort to support museums, which were deemed to have worth and were a desirable feature in towns (Goulding, 2000).

Imperial War Museum (IWM) is one of the leading repositories of conflict-related artefacts, which seek to provide for the study and understanding of the history of modern war and ‘wartime experiences’. With a collection of five museums—IWM London; IWM North in Trafford, Greater Manchester; IWM Duxford near Cambridge; the Churchill War Rooms in Whitehall, London; and the historic ship HMS Belfast, moored on the River Thames—IWM is a community of museums that serve the public by providing opportunities to contemplate the impacts of conflicts on individual, communities and the nation itself in a range of locations and settings. The IWM facilities offers permanent displays, the archives, special exhibitions, f events, education programmes, corporate hospitality and souvenirs shops.

2 Research Methods

The purpose of this study is to investigate motivations of visitors to the Imperial War Museum (North and South), United Kingdom. To this end, a case study research, which is appropriate for exploring a phenomenon that requires context and an overall view of the relationships, was carried out (Yin, 2009). The research was undertaken in four main phases as follows:

1. An extensive literature review was carried out on visitor motivations in museums
2. Semi-structured interviews with visitors were conducted w at the Imperial Museum of War (North and South).
3. The data generated were analysed using qualitative techniques of data reduction, data organisation and interpretation (Sarantakos, 2002). The results of data analysis are embedded in the sections that follow below.

A convenience sample of 42 museum visitors were interviewed, of which 20 were conducted at the IWM (North) and 22 at the IWM (South). The semi-structured interviews were used as they allow for questioning which follows the flow of the conversation and offers the researcher the opportunity to probe responses in a way that can clarify meaning and establish significance to the data obtained (Denscombe, 2007).

3 Findings

A number of reasons were given by the interviewees for visiting the Imperial War Museum, ranging from 'just passing' to 'interest in military history'. Table 1 provides a numerical representation of the reasons for visiting as stated by the interviewees. The total percentage calculated exceeds 100 % because interviewee's gave multiple reasons for visiting the museum. Almost all the respondents (33 out of 42) gave four or more reasons for visiting the museum with nine respondents giving two reasons. This reiterates the fact that museum visitors are attracted by a combination of motivations, which is well-borne out by a number of studies (e.g., Bowdin, Allen, O'Toole, Harris, & McDonell, 2006; Falk & Dierking, 1992; Moussouri, 2002; Prentice et al., 1997; Ryan, 1997; Thyne, 2001).

Analysis of the findings indicates motivations to visit the museum are indeed multi-faceted and represent a broad diversity of motivations. Motivations, as has been previously mentioned, can be intrinsic or extrinsic, and museum visitors tend to be driven by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Goulding, 2000). The responses from the interviewees about the reasons for visiting the Imperial War Museum were grouped into extrinsic and intrinsic categories (Please see Table 2). Authors acknowledge the subjective judgements inherent in making such classifications. The distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic values are not always clear-cut (Harold, 2005),

Table 1 Reasons for visiting

Reasons given for visiting	Number	Percentage
Drawn by a particular exhibition	11	26
Visited before	6	14
Family history	9	21
Interest in military history	23	55
Education/learning	9	21
Social reasons	9	21
Just passing	1	2
Recommended by friends/family/other	7	17
Free admission	5	12
Interest in history	15	36
Day out/something to do	16	38
I like museums	6	14
Quality of exhibits	3	7
Interactivity	4	9
Curiosity	3	7
Visiting the shop	2	5
Atmosphere/see it for myself	4	9
Convenience/location/ease of access	14	33
Nostalgia	2	5
Commemoration	3	7
Sightseeing	3	7

Table 2 Categories showing sub-division of intrinsic/extrinsic motivations

Extrinsic motivations	Responses	Intrinsic motivations	Responses
Drawn by a particular exhibition	11	Family history	9
Visited before	6	Curiosity	3
Social reasons	9	Education/learning	9
Just passing	1	Interest in history	15
Recommended by friends/family/ other	7	I like museums	6
Free admission	5	Atmosphere/see it for myself	4
Day out/something to do	16	Nostalgia	2
Quality of exhibits	3	Commemoration	3
Interactivity	4	Interest in military history	23
Visiting the shop	2		
Convenience/location/ease of access	14		
Sightseeing	3		
Total	81	Total	74

extrinsic reward may well play a major part in intrinsic motivation (Reiss, 2005). Therefore it is necessary for the researchers to make a subjective judgement on the nature of motivations as stated by the respondents, for example, whether an interest in military history or the desire to relate to family history is an intrinsic or extrinsic motivator. Therefore it is appropriate to consider what intrinsic and extrinsic motivations for visiting the Imperial War Museum.

The authors considered intrinsic motivations to be those which had their origins within the respondent. That is to say that such motivations as they reported may be considered as being generated by internal desires such as the need for self-fulfilment or learning for example. Extrinsic desires are those factors which are external to the respondent and can be delivered through such things as a comfortable environment and pleasant surroundings. These are just examples; the full ranges of desires are numerous and often personal, which makes understanding how they influence museum visitors something of a challenge.

McIntyre (2009) relates that visitors to museums and galleries were seeking internalised self-learning, which were themselves dependent on time and space considerations such as the layout and accessibility of the gallery space. A suitable balance of different types was considered to be an essential part of meeting the needs of visitors; space to interact with the exhibits and space to relax and reflect on the experience were an integral part of meeting visitors' needs. This serves to demonstrate the interrelationship of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: one cannot be met without the consideration of the other.

An interest in history was identified as being a prime motivation for respondents in this study, but it is necessary to consider how that general "interest" can be considered enough of a motivation to generate an actual visit. Habermas notes that "the *only* knowledge that can truly orient action is knowledge that frees itself from mere human interests and is based on Ideas—in other words knowledge that has taken a theoretical attitude" (Habermas, 2005; in Gutting, 2005, p 310). Information seeking itself, therefore, needs to act in conjunction with other factors in order for it to be considered a *motivation* which will act upon an interested and potential visitor to a museum to turn them into an *actual* visitor. Of direct relevance to the way in which museums make their artefacts accessible to such visitors is Habermas's further observation that interest is not value free, and carries with it an ontological view of the world which is not neutral. This would explain why an interest in history was often seen as being different to an interest in military history in this study. Visitors to any museum need to have their interest met with accessible artefacts and interpretation in comfortable and well laid out galleries (McIntyre, 2009). These latter points can be viewed as being extrinsic factors which enable the intrinsic interest in history to be acted upon, thus combining to form a motivation to visit the museum.

It is a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors which must combine in order to meet the needs and desires of visitors and potential visitors, and as we have seen, museums are moving towards a much more visitor focussed experience when presenting their collections, away from what many have seen as their traditional

custodial and preservation role and into a broad based, visitor led era which seeks to put the visitor at the heart of the museum experience. In other words, “customers” are a principal factor in the success of any museum (Harrison & Shaw, 2004; McLean, 1994). In particular, museum design is being carefully considered to maximise the extrinsic factors which are an essential part of the mix designed to attract visitors (McIntyre, 2009). This is especially true of the Imperial War Museum (North) with its purpose-built, thoughtful and challenging design by the architect Daniel Libeskind which is a key part of the regeneration of Salford’s docks as well as being an important museum in its own right (Blundell Jones, 2003).

“Motives are reasons people hold for initiating and performing voluntary behaviour. They indicate the meaning of human behaviour, and they may reveal a person’s values” (Reiss, 2004, p 179). Thus it is that *motives* and *motivations* are two subtly different things. For the purposes of this study it is a useful shot-cut to consider motives as being a *reason* for doing something, but it should be remembered that it is entirely possible to behave in a particular way, visiting a museum for example, and not necessarily be aware of precisely what that reason or motive is (Reiss, 2004). The authors are aware that reported “motives” for visiting the Imperial War Museum cannot be taken as absolute truth. It is necessary to see the patterns which emerge from the collected data in order to make a reasonable and informed assessment as to its meaning. The actual number of potential motivations is unlimited in any practical sense. It is only the individual involved who is able to decide what they consider to be a motive to visit. Therefore these categories depend on the careful interpretation of reported motives and imaginative analysis of the words of respondents in order to categorise and code them. The authors are aware of the subjective nature of this process. There is a complex interweaving of motivations, and it is rare for there to be only one of significance playing a part in the decision to visit: rather, it is the combination of motivations which translate into an actual visit.

Table 2 shows that respondents reported more individual extrinsic motivations to visit the museum than intrinsic ones, although in terms of the number of times each type of motivation was cited it is still reasonably close. This may be as a result of the relatively small data set. Nevertheless, it can be seen that visitors have more extrinsic motivations as regards reasons to visit, but that intrinsic motivations tend to have a slightly bigger pull factor when considered individually. That is to say there are more extrinsic factors such as the desire for a day out, the quality of the exhibits or social reasons which are likely to have a major influence in motivating a visit to the museum, but the intrinsic motivations such as a liking of history, and more specifically military history, are strong motivators also. The implication being that for some people the collection is of less importance than going out for the day.

4 Discussion

Following themes emerge from the analysis of the findings:

- Motivations are divided between intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Extrinsic factors are more numerous, but intrinsic factors exert a bigger motivation.
- Exhibitions were reported as being a significant motivating factor.
- Taken together, social reasons (meeting friends, day out) proved to be significant motivators. It seems likely that respondents who reported social factors *and* strong intrinsic factors would be the most likely to visit the museum.
- Interactivity was recorded as a motivator. This suggests that visitors are keen to do more than simply view artefacts. The opportunity to engage with the collection was a key factor, and one which is in line with the modern view of a museum (Black, 2005; Merriman, 1991).
- Education and learning, whilst being cited as a key motivator in a minority of cases, did not feature prominently in the body of reported motivations. Nevertheless, it did feature as a significant motivator in a large minority of respondents, but never as a feature on its own. However, an interest in history was a significant factor in a number of responses, and this could be broadly interpreted as having an educational or learning component inherent in it.
- The location of the museums is an important factor in motivating visits. Convenience and ease of access featured a number of times.
- The collection itself was of interest to visitors, but this was not the *prime* motivator for a significant number of respondents. This is in line with the idea that socialisation plays a significant part in choosing to visit a museum, so it is not always necessary for every member of the party to have a specific interest in the collection.

In general the data supports the idea that motivation is general, multi-faceted and relatively few and interrelated (Ryan, 1997). This study identified a number of motivations, but none of them stand out as being of particular significance when taken singly. It is necessary to understand the inter-relationship of a number of complimentary factors in order to fully understand how they combine in order to generate a visit. For example, it is likely that someone with a keen interest in military history will still consider other factors such as convenience and the desire for a day out when considering their visit.

Data collected indicates that an interest in history in general and military history in particular is a key motivating factor for visitors to the Imperial war Museum. Taken together these two categories were indicated as being important in generating visits in very nearly a quarter of all reported motivations. Quite what “interest” means is worthy of further study, but this is in line with findings reported elsewhere. Increasing numbers of people are visiting historical sites and museums, but the reasons for this are not well understood (Cameron & Gatewood, 2003). The phenomena of “numen seeking”, which is the idea that tourists are motivated by more than information or pleasure seeking when visiting historical sites is reported by Cameron and Gatewood (2003). They indicate that visitors to such sites are often in search of a deeper experience or a personal connection, and this is reflected in this study through the reported desire for interactivity and being able to get close to the artefacts. The Imperial War Museum is well aware of the personal connection

expressed by visitors as a reason to visit, and successfully positions itself as a museum which seeks to relate the history of conflict in a way which shows how “war shapes lives” (IWM website). Family history was identified as a key motivator by a small number of respondents. Often visitors to heritage sites are influenced by aspects of their own culture or collected history, which also has an impact on their behaviour at such sites (Poria, Reichel, & Biran, 2005). It is to be expected, therefore, that those with cultural and family links to the themes of the museum are likely to be more motivated to visit the museum in the first place.

Historical sites and museums are increasingly popular choices, related to numen seeking (Cameron & Gatewood, 2003) but literature indicates that visitors are often poorly educated about historical sites, and frequently have little historical knowledge (Alderson & Low, 1996; Jakle, 1985). Whilst a desire for education is often reported as being a prime motivator for museum visits (Falk & Dierking, 1992; Hood, 1983; Jansen-Verbeke & Van Redom, 1996; Moussouri, 2002; Prentice et al., 1997; Thyne, 2001) such motivation is poorly understood by museum professionals, and often based on subjective judgements (Cameron & Gatewood, 2003). This study would concur that whilst the desire for education and information is one of the reported motivations its capacity to generate actual visits to museums appears to be overstated, and learning is a broadly defined concept which means that often visitors and museum professionals have difficulty in fully understanding its draw. There is the underlying assumption that a visit to a museum is worthwhile in itself (Black, 2005; Hooper-Greenhill, 1994a, 1994b; Merriman, 1991) although the authors did not find any data which supported that assertion. However, it is reasonable to assume from the literature that a visit to a museum still carries some idea of cultural worth. A very small number of respondents in this study did identify that part of their reasons for visiting was that it was “important to do something” with their time. Nostalgia was also reported as being a factor in two cases.

The growing attraction of “dark tourism” (Lennon & Foley, 2006) is one area the authors expected to be more represented in reported motivations, although on reflection it is likely that respondents would be unwilling to ascribe such motivations to themselves, or possibly they may be unaware of them as motivators (Lennon & Foley, 2006). A number of respondents indicated that a key motivation for them was the draw of specific exhibitions, which in IWM (South) included a major exhibition on the Holocaust. However, the only mention of this particular exhibition was by one respondent who indicated that, in fact, they had specifically avoided it. Such exhibitions nevertheless play a key role in the museum’s aim of providing education and information. Special exhibitions per se were reported as being a key motivator by many respondents in this study. However, an understanding of motivations related to the more horrific aspects of war and conflict related materials remain stubbornly unilluminated by this research.

It could be argued that attendees at festivals, galleries and exhibitions would have motivations similar to museum visitors when considering which factors actually generate a visit. This estimation is borne out by Uysal, Gahan, and Martin (1993), Mohr, Backman, Gahan, and Backman (1993) who stressed the importance of socialization and family togetherness, escape from routine and the experience of

new things as being key motivators for going to festivals, galleries and exhibitions, all of which can be applied to museum visits. This study identified the importance of family time in a number of cases, and social reasons were often reported as being a key motivator, when taken together with the desire for a day out. Therefore the authors would agree that socialization (social reasons/ day out/ something to do), understood in broad terms, does provide significant motivation when considering museum visitors.

Falk and Dierking (1992) and Moussouri (2002) also identify socialization and educational reasons as being important motivators, along with the desire to be entertained. There was also a reverential aspect to museum visiting which other studies have not explicitly identified. This was reflected in this work when “commemoration” was able to be categorized as a reported motivation. The idea of socialization being a key motivator was reinforced, and this work would once again concur with their findings. Moussouri (2002) also included a number of extrinsic factors such as life-cycle and place to explain motivations. This work clearly identified the issue of practical issues as being a significant motivator, with a number of reported motivations reflecting the convenience of the location or the galleries themselves as being important in their decision to visit. These ideas also support the authors’ observations on the importance of intrinsic and extrinsic factors when considering motivations.

Prentice et al. (1997) identified, in particular, the importance of a day out and, again, socialization, as being especially significant in providing motivation to visit a museum. Interestingly “curiosity” is also mentioned in this context, and this was one of the key words identified by the researcher in this study. The authors would agree with their findings and considers this work to be in line with their findings, although the detail provided in their study was not the intention of this work.

When considering cultural tourists Richards (2007) recognises that one of the motives for visiting museums is that people who visit *always* visit museums. That is to say that there is a particular type of cultural tourist who is likely to visit museums, seemingly with little regard to any other factors. This is in line with the findings of the MLA (2005) which identified a core group of museum advocates who, it seems likely, make up the majority of visits (but not necessarily visitors). “Been before” was reported as a motivation in this work, and no further elucidation was considered necessary by the respondents, adding weight to the assumption that having been before provides sufficient motivation for those respondents to visit again. Richards (2007) also points out that not all visitors to a museum are necessarily there because they are interested in the collection, or even like museums, but because they are accompanying someone who did have other motivations to visit. The influence of friends is also a factor in generating a visit. Several respondents identified that recommendations from friends and family provided motivation to visit. The authors recognise that museum visitors and cultural tourists are not necessarily mutually inclusive groups, but the findings indicate there is a likely overlap between the two as regards their motivations to visit cultural attractions, and would agree that the data is supportive of Richards’s observations.

5 Conclusion

“The problem for the museum profession is not so much how to enhance the experience of the public, but how to ascertain what that experience is” (McLean, 1993 p18). This work has sought to find out the motivation of visitors to the Imperial War Museum. The preliminary assumption guiding this study was that people visit museums for a variety of different reasons, which is confirmed by the findings of this study. Significantly it turned out that there was not one single, overriding motivation which could explain why people visit museums. Visitors are motivated to visit by a combination of factors, which vary from person-to-person, time-to-time and most probably place-to-place. Some of those factors are intrinsic, and some are extrinsic. They combine in a multitude of ways and provide sufficient motivation to generate a visit in those who are receptive to the idea of visiting a museum, which not everyone is, although the sample selected for this particular research were all, of course, museum visitors.

This study analysed the extent to which museum visitors are motivated by extrinsic and intrinsic factors. The findings do establish that extrinsic motivations are more dominant than the intrinsic ones for visiting the Imperial War Museum. The importance of extrinsic factors in motivating museum visitors would suggest that providing an opportunity for a good day out has more appeal to the visitors than the collections in the museum for the average visitors. The experiencing of museum in its totality is more important than the individual collections or the theme of the museum to the mainstream visitor.

Museums, in turn, are examining their role and function and are moving towards a much more visitor centred approach. One of the things which make that particular task difficult is the fact, as pointed out by McLean (1993) above, the museum profession is not entirely clear as to what the museum experience is, nor fully conversant with why people visit in the first place.

This work has made a contribution to understanding something about visitor motivations: they are multi-facetted, complex and not necessarily fully understood by the visitors themselves. A number of studies which investigated visitor motivations in a variety of contexts were compared to the data collected and showed that the data was consistent with previous studies in a number of areas. What this study showed in particular is that motivation depends on that balance between intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

If a museum is able to deliver a well organised, interactive and well interpreted exhibition it will appeal strongly to potential visitors who are likely to be in social classes ABC1 in the main (MORI, 2004), and will have an interest in history and the desire for a good day out. Audience development is likely to be a key area for museums in the future as they find their audience is increasingly likely to be seeking entertainment (a good day out) and be drawn from a wider social spectrum as the benefits of inclusion policies and the change of emphasis in museums has effect.

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Part III
Heading Towards a Digital Model of
Tourism

Game-Based Learning and Lifelong Learning for Tourist Operators

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The paragraphs “Game Based Lifelong Learning for Tourist Operators”: “The gamification actions in the Sonetto’s community” were written by Anna Dipace. The paragraphs “Introduction”; “Sonetto: an environment for learning”; “Further directions” were written by Rosaria Pace.

Abstract Today’s workplace challenges are based on the belief that the group can face current challenges better using collaboration than any individual can by yourself. This belief has prompted social solutions, such as communities of practice or knowledge and social peer-learning.

Learning by playing a game is a very old method that is still applied in various contexts. Mainly in social-learning activities, the learner’s motivation is crucial to program success. Games are fun and immersive by nature. By using games in lifelong learning contexts, it is possible to deliver continuous high attention and engagement for substantial learning.

Keywords Social media • Emerging technologies and e-tourism

1 Introduction

The So.Net.T.O. Project (Social Network for Tourism Operators) has represented a great chance to dialogue and to build a partnership among three research groups: Technological Educational Institution (T.E.I) of Epirus, the University of Foggia and the University of Salento. Each research unit has brought its own contribution

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in terms of planning and developing a digital learning environment for tourism operators. They have also tried to find methods and tools to improve the local growth and to share the legal aspects of the transnational tourism regulations.

The main goal of the research and of the digital environment development is to value the social networking and the tourism operator's informal net, in order to build a virtuous communication system, to share specialized information and to value the local enterprises.

The planning of the Sonetto environment has been thought according to concept of social networking of Danah Boyd and Nicole B. Ellison (2008) who state that "social networking" emphasizes relationship initiation, often between strangers" (p. 211). This is in contrast with what usually happens on the social networks that is "to be in contact with people who are already a part of their extended social network" (Ellison, 2008) and not to just meet new people. The Sonetto Project aims to be a connecting link for those who operate in the tourism industry, food services, accommodations, local promotions' operators and international tourism legislation, in order to permit a mutual and an interdisciplinary growth. Embracing the statements of Colin Gray and Keith Smyth (2012), we could say that

Due to their distributed online nature and asynchronous communication features, online networking tools have become central to supporting the activity of formal and informal learning communities and can be very effective in allowing for what Lave and Wenger term the process of legitimate peripheral participation where by new members can observe and learn vicariously before becoming an increasingly active contributor as their knowledge and confidence grows. Online social networking tools also offer clear advantages for the sharing of expertise and ideas amongst busy, time-limited professionals (Gray & Smyth, 2012, p. 60).

This important potentiality and the social networking affordances above mentioned have been the core of the resources planning and of the Sonetto environment itself.

2 Game Based Lifelong Learning for Tourist Operators

From the point of view of the lifelong learning and of the society of knowledge, the rigid idea of a tripartite learning born in the 1990s, divided in formal, non-formal and informal¹ should be necessarily rethought.

¹ Acquiring the several claims about the three different classifications of learning from the Memorandum about education and lifelong learning since 2000 until today, we could synthesize in this way: "formal learning is a structured and organized learning for educational purposes. It takes place at school or similar educational structures; it is voluntary from the point of view of the learner and provides for certificates." On the other hand, "the non-formal learning can be defined as a semi-structured learning with planned activities in relation to an organized context; it takes place outside the school and similar structures; it is voluntary from the point of view of the learner

As Giovanni Bonaiuti asserts (2006, p.49) “none can ‘...’ deny how relevant, within the knowledge of the young generations, the outside-school and the entire experiential production obtained from the media and other agents is.” The professional contexts, of course, give more value to the concept of informal learning. According to Baert, De Witte, and Sterck (2000), informal learning is an important determinant for the professionalization of employees and organizations. Learning is particularly meaningful when it is part of valued relationships, shared practice, culture, and identity. By contrast, many researches in settings where formal education has not been prevalent (Greenfield, 2004; Rogoff, 2003; Scribner & Cole, 1973), they add value to all learning that people develop within the contexts of work, in social interactions and during the social and cultural processes of the community. The results from these researches on lifelong learning, investigates how adults reconceptualise and reflect on earlier educational experience and practice. The knowledge and skills that people obtain in these settings have an encouraging value for participants since they are related to practices and relationships in which learning does not represent the primary aim for engagement. In other words, learning is relational and tied to shared purpose and activity. “This cross-cultural work on informal learning has helped us recognize learning that happens within the flow of everyday social life, work, and other kinds of purposeful activity” (Ito et al., 2013).

Because of the unexpected changes of the finance, markets and technologies, the contemporary scenario is very complex and the small and medium-sized business have to demonstrate the ability to understand the present to anticipate new solutions. Eva Kyndt et al. (2009, pp. 369–370), referring to Eraut (1994), states that “workplace learning is more efficient than formal training when it comes to learning job-related skills and obtaining knowledge, because these specific skills and knowledge are less appreciated in formal education and the learners frequently lack the necessary insight to put theory into practice”.

The following table, proposed by Kurt Squire and Nathan Patterson (2010), synthesizes and shows clearly the main features and differences between formal and non-formal learning context (Table 1).

The Sonetto Project belongs to the lifelong learning actions that are aimed to promote enterprising spirit and business in an innovative and digital learning environment. Particularly, the lifelong learning concept, meant as education that protracts all lifelong beyond the space-time boundaries imposed by the educational system, has been established by organizations such as UNESCO (*United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization*), l’OECD (*Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development*) and the Council of Europe and it represents an example of the changed relation between life and learning. In this new point of view are the life’s events that shape the time, the space and the

and usually does not provide for certificates”. In the end, “the informal learning” takes place during the everyday actions connected with work, family and free-time; it is not voluntary, it’s unstructured and unorganized for educational purposes and, of course, it does not provide for certificates” (Marconi, 2008, pp. 51–52).

Table 1 Comparison of attributes of informal educational settings (Squire & Patterson, 2010, p.10)

Dimensions	Informal settings	Formal settings
Time structure	Flexible	Rigid
Participation	Voluntary	Compulsory
Educational goals	Emergent	Largely defined
Age grouping	Flexible	Largely age-divided
Degree of authenticity	Potentially high	Generally low
Uniformity of outcomes	Little	High
Disciplinary boundaries	Flexible	Fixed

development of new knowledge and competence. In May 2009, the Council of the European Union adopted a strategic plan for the European cooperation for education and formation (ET 2020). The strategic plan sets the goals of the Education and Training 2010 Work Programme and reconsidered strategy of Lisbon (European Commission, 2005) whose aim is to give to Europe an economy based on the most competitive and dynamic knowledge in the world. Education and training have a crucial role, and efficient investments on human capital are needed to realize a knowledge-based growth and at the same time to promote personal fulfillment, social cohesion and active citizenship.

The growing need to incentive lifelong learning processes, free from structured space-time boundaries, makes easier the building of an on-line community that gives chances to the professionals to become responsible of their own learning (self-regulated learning) and to control the changes of their cultural and professional growth. As usually, formal education is perceived by most as an unlikeable activity, the dynamic platform of Sonetto and its advanced management system allowed participants to receive high and immediate values during the project, through informal education strategies.

Jay Cross in his book, *Informal Learning: Rediscovering the Natural Pathways that Inspire Innovation and Performance* (2007), claims that the workers learn much more in the coffee room than in formal educational contexts. Using the same metaphor, the Sonetto integrated environment aims to act exactly like the coffee room suggested by Jay Cross.

Through these informal education strategies, it has been possible to plan formative actions based on game-based learning with a reference to the most recent literature on gamification.

According with Sebastian Kelle, Sigurðarson, Westera, and Specht (2011, p.338)

the main objective of a game-based learning approach for lifelong learning is thus the sustenance of this motivation and helping learners over the hurdle of getting truly comfortable with the overall learning process they have engaged upon. While this may seem like a noble goal, the challenge is far from trivial.

The Game-Based Learning methodology plans actions and didactic resources that consider the possibility to use video game with educational goals. The video

games, for example, become disposals that allow and support a learning process. Given the engaging nature of digital games, many people think that they can increase the motivation of the players of all age. The digital games offer stimulating experiences that help the inner satisfaction of the players keeping them motivated and concentrated. In a video game, amusement and learning are strongly connected. In particular, the learning is more substantial when the player feels strong emotions and amuses himself. The game-dynamics have to facilitate an active engagement that leads the player to solve difficult but not impossible problems. Moreover, the game helps the feedback processes that encourage the obviousness of the realized progresses, having an effect on motivation and commitment. Therefore, video games act on the development of competences through the repetition of some experiences and the solution of a problem through the problem-solving and learning by doing methodology. According with Debb Thompson et al. (2010, p. 2) “video games offer potential behaviour change channels by embedding functional knowledge and change procedures such as goal setting, modelling, and skill development activities into a personally meaningful, entertaining, and immersive game environment”.

Moreover, studies and researches conducted by James Paul Gee (2004) show how video games hold up learning and social interaction create an environment in which their actions and decisions have an effect, promote creative problem solving, and improve understanding by promoting systems thinking or helping the player see the *big picture*.

As Kurt Squire (2008) states,

Game-based learning can be understood as a particular kind of designed experience, where players participate in ideological worlds, worlds designed to support a particular kind of reactions, feelings, emotions, and at times, thoughts and identities, which game-based learning designers are leveraging for education and training.

3 Sonetto: An Environment for Learning

The features that characterize the Sonetto environment from other social travel and professional communities can be summarized in the following points:

Shared Writing Process: Tourism Operators as Storyteller

The multimedia resources are produced in collaboration with operators who become the actors of the narration, the designers of territory’s tale, the authors of texts to share on-line; so that the social network, as an articulated and synergic digital work, belong to “wider textual universe’ of online communication in which all the email exchanges, i’m chats, bulletin boards and so on feature” (Merchant, 2012, p. 8).

Integrated Environment: The Blending of Reach and Different Resources

From a functional point of view, the environment configures itself as an integrated resource that allows activities of different nature and supports the users in actions of

Table 2 An overview of Sonetto platform sections and resources

Areas	Resources	Activities
Communication process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chat, • Forum • Personal wall • Community 	Synchronous, asynchronous, private and shared communication.
Professional update and learning among equals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thesaurus • Documentaries • Thematic interactive presentations • Didactic videos • Video games 	Use of the resources, comments about resources, chance to increase materials, recommendation and sharing of good practices

different typology: from the informal exchanges on the shared wall, to the e-learning area, to the community up to the trading. The operations that Sonetto offers are profound and branched. The communication, learning and advertisement processes of the touristic supply can be realized on different levels, depending on the user's need; the activities based on three levels—communication, learning and promotion—can be transversal and contextual.

The Interactive Resources: From Socialization to Gamification

The resources created for Sonetto have been realized focusing on multimedia languages typical of the digital textuality: interactive presentations, documentaries and video games embrace all kind of semiotic codes. The diversification of the didactic forms of narration creates micro-stories to better fulfil the narration's goals and also to better customize the personal use of the environment.

Embracing the claim of deMarcos, Dominques, Saenz de Navarrete, and Pages (2014), the potentiality of networking is linked with gamification dynamics to associate “long-term motivational benefits of gamification ‘...’ with the collaborative and participative capabilities offered by social networks” (p. 91). In a study about the use of blogs and social networks by adults and the informal learning processes correlated to them, Heo and Lee (2013) confirm that

“Web 2.0 as an informal learning environment enables adult learners to engage in different levels of interaction and participation in social activities and hence to experience diverse dimensions of learning depending on their own purposes as self-regulated and self-directed learners” (p. 143).

Because of that is necessary identify “learning objectives, but also roles and degrees of engagement, in order to plan learning processes and outcomes” (Heo & Lee, 2013, p.143). The gamification action can increase the commitment level, can diversify the didactic-content's use and start a self-confident dynamics. Three functional areas, corresponding to specific resources and possible activities for users, can be identified on the environment's structure (Table 2).

The following is a screenshot of the Sonetto environment, showing the home page of the website (Figs. 1 and 2).

voluntary informal learning, and non-voluntary too, through several forms of participation.

A vast scientific literature (Buckingham, 2013; Gee, 2007; Ito, 2009) shows how video games have passed the obsolete idea of being targeted only for teenagers and with the only purpose of amusement, often also with no contempt for violence. A further evidence of this social-cultural innovation is that always more frequently both private enterprises and public authority are using video games in their communication strategies. After the big success of Foursquare, a social-network that permits the geographic-localization through mobile disposal, it is clearly proved that the gaming is very efficient in producing positive behaviour in people of all age (Deterding, Dixon, Khaled, & Nacke, 2011). Gamification is referred to the use of video games in the every-day life and more precisely within not gaming playful dynamics.

The term has been proposed in 2008 in a post within the Brett Terill's blog as *Gamification* to describe the use of game-techniques on the web to increase the user's engagement. In 2010, the term has been incorporated in the industrial context changing in "Gamification" (Huotari & Hamari, 2012). In the academic environment, Jesse Schell, an American scholar and famous game designer, has used the term Gamification for the first time in February 2010 in Las Vegas during the Dice Conference 2010. There are several definitions of Gamification. In a very marketing oriented perspective, Kai Huotari and Juho Hamari (2012) define it as "a process of enhancing a service with affordances for gameful experiences in order to support user's overall value creation". Consequently, they argue that the definition of gamification cannot be based on a set of methods or mechanics, but instead it has to be recognized as a process in which the gamifier is challenging to amplify the likelihood for the gameful experiences to emerge by imbuing the service with affordances for that purpose. The term affordance, in this case, refers to any qualities of the service system that contributes to the emergence of gameful experience. The term Gamification is strongly contested, in particular in video game sector and by the scientific community that works on game studies: they contest the simplification and the free interpretations of the term. The well-know scholar and game designer Jane McGonigal (2011) and the scholar Ian Bogost (2011) suggest to substitute gamification with "exploitation ware" because it can better represent the "villainous reign of abuse" which is involved in gamification systems. Moreover, it is important for some scholars to find a term without *game* within, because of the different fields of applications that they can relate to.

The gamification systems are based on four main ideas that are represented by points, levels, prizes, goals that add something new to the everyday life without providing any rewards. A clear example could be represented by a student who receives a reward for his good performance in school or there could be a system of scores and levels for good conduct. Therefore, the use of the gamification could change the user's behaviour bringing him from a personal sphere of interest (A) to a business one (B). Between A and B it is then possible to create a strong engagement and a relationship based on loyalty that makes the interaction between the two parts less boring and more attractive. According with Gabe Zichermann (2014),

Marketing managers always follow the latest trend and understand that if they aren't learning about important developments, such as gamification, then they are falling behind the competition. Smart marketers understand gamification works best when it is executed well, whether it is a full-fledged gamified experience or the insertion of a few game mechanics to help onboard or engage. In either case, gamification can't just be a simple task-reward process; it needs to be immersive and engaging in order to produce results.

In the case of Foursquare, the users, checking in some places, receive “badges”, a sort of reward for some goals achieved in particular places, frequencies etc. The base mechanics, which can be integrated, are points, levels, virtual goods, virtual currencies, badges, leaderboard and gifts. On this main structure it is possible to build further game mechanics which are referred to a prearranged consumer's behaviour. An essential part for a good application is the community. People like to share their own feelings, successes and to publish the results of the challenges on the social media.

The video games realized for the project configure themselves as on-line playful-didactic itinerary of interactive nature; through the definition of levels and always more difficult game-action, they give information about several aspects of the luxury and eco-friendly tourism: landscapes, food, niche tourism, etc.

The writings, pictures and hypertext references within the digital texts, allow to read in depth themes and concepts while playing. The didactic goals linked with the playful-didactic products are:

- To know the niche territorial resources and value them in a touristic perspective;
- To examine the socioeconomic bases in term of touristic success;
- To think the professional practice in playful terms.

It follows a synthetic presentation of the five games realized (Table 3):

Table 3 The Sonetto games

Name and description	Focus
<i>Cross Sonetto</i>	
Crossword on two level (easy, hard) about the main touristic attractions of Apulia	Linguistic: identification of names and definitions of the most typical products of Apulia
<i>Quiz Sonetto</i>	
Quiz on four levels, time restriction. It presents the wine and food resources and the cultural tradition resources.	Visual-linguistic: graphical and nominal presentation of some of the territorial resources
<i>Find your place</i>	
Interactive guide to locate the best place to visit according to the personal needs	Spatial: localized choice of places and paths
<i>Sonetto nature</i>	
Game that allow to discover the landscape of Apulia through pictures of three natural areas: Area Marina di Torre Guaceto, Parco Nazionale del Gargano, Parco Nazionale dell'Alta Murgia	Visual-linguistic: discovery of the natural beauties of the landscape
<i>Puzzle Sonetto</i>	
A graphic composition of places and towns to discover the history and the art of Apulia	Visual: graphic reconstruction of some monuments and local sites

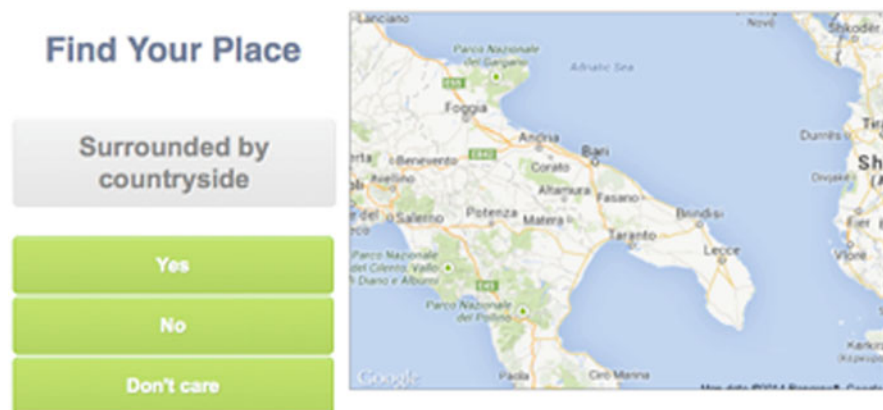


Fig. 3 Find your place

The following (Figs. 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7) are some screenshots taken from the games above described:

The gamification activities included on Sonetto platform are fully connected to the community. Gamification has recently evolved as an approach to engage and encourage active participation of members in online communities. For an online community to start and proceed on to a sustainable operation, it is important that members are encouraged to contribute positively and frequently (Bista, Nepal, Colineau, & Paris, 2012). And it is the main goal and result of the platform.

5 Further Directions

Starting from the research of Michael Eraut (2004), who defines the “factors affecting learning in the workplace”, John Cook and Norbert Pachler (2012) added a “typology of factors in social (mobile) network(ing) services and work-based learning” (p. 718). These literature references suggested an original selection of factors that can help us to describe the Sonetto activities (Table 4).

Sonetto represents one of the steps of a long-lasting ERID Lab² research related to the digital learning environments for education and training. As further perspective, the monitoring of the users’ experience will also be developed, in order to detect their satisfaction and perceived learning. The processes and potentialities of gamification will also be analyzed with a theoretical and applied approach.

²ERID Lab is the laboratory for “Educational Research and Interaction Design” of the University of Foggia—Department of Humanities—with specific skills in educational research and interaction design. The interdisciplinary research group works for the implementation of prototypes and educational design solutions, mainly for school settings, museums, and training settings and investigates social learning processes, participatory design experiences and e-learning paths.

QuizSONETTO



The 'trappeti', oil mills placed in the rocks, are the typical structures of;

- NORTH APULIA
- GARGANO
- CENTRAL APULIA
- SOUTH OF BARI AND SALENTO

Choose the right answer!

20.0

Fig. 4 Quiz Sonetto

SONETTO Nature - National Park of Gargano



Right Answer!!

[Click here for more information on this element](#)
Correct answers: 5
Wrong answers: 4

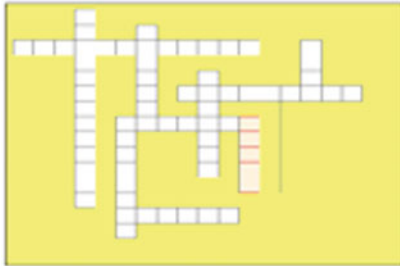
The next element to find is:

RoeDeer

Fig. 5 Sonetto Nature

Cross SO.NET.T.O.

Difficult Level



Solve Game
Go Back

Down, 8 letters.
A kind of tree diffuse in Apulia.

HELP OK CANCEL



Fig. 6 Cross So.Net.T.O



Fig. 7 Puzzle So.Net.T.O

Table 4 Factors affecting learning in Sonetto platform

Context factors	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Crossborder and inter-sector connections b. Online relationship among operators <p>Multi-purpose tools and spaces: communication, learning, marketing aims</p>	They are processes linked with the context where the learning takes place and where project actions develop with the support of the digital environment. The international and intersectorial connections, the relationships among operators for communicative, didactic and commercial activities better define the scenario where the didactic process takes place.
Learning factors	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Individual self-efficacy b. Acts of self-regulation within and outside the environment c. Multiliteracy (reading and writing the complex texts of digital environments) d. Personal learning networks 	Actions and processes linked to the didactic activity where personal, relational and cognitive dynamics are involved: peer and digital environment feedbacks, relationships in the web community, creation and maintaining of connections, etc.
Digital environment factors	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Accessible resources and environment b. Linguistic effectiveness of multimedia and multimodal materials c. Affordances of the system in relation to the communicative, educational and commercial aspect 	Such aspects refer to the platform design and to its features as well as the quality of the proposed multimedia materials. These elements influence the activity within the environment as well as the interaction among the users.

Finally, it seems necessary to increase the research activity that can link scientific research, industrial development and local actors, as suggested by the *EU Framework Programme for Research and Innovation, Horizon 2020*. In particular, this synergic action could link the *knowledge driven* research with the *technology driven* innovation, up to the *society driven* industrial and commercial applications (Ricerca 2013, p. 27; Limone, 2014). This is one of the possible strategies to realize a social innovation that, with the support of the digital technology, could detect and answer the needs of a changing and challenging economic and cultural scenario.

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The Effectiveness and Impact of Intellectual Property Rights: The Case of Digital Content Industry of Taiwan

Chih-cheng Lo

Abstract The concept of Open Innovation (hereafter as OI) implies that ideas, resources and talents flow in and out of organization with the purpose that firms rely on external sources of innovation. This paper highlights an un-observed Intellectual property rights (IPRs) strategies in the current debate on open innovation, that is, the foundational question related to the decisive role of IPRs under which conditions of broadening openness is beneficial to appropriability of firms? The paper approaches this question by conceptualizing the degree of ‘openness’ in the literature and analyses the importance of IPRs strategies for innovation performance in the context of Taiwanese digital content industry.

Keywords Intellectual property rights • Digital content industry openness • Open innovation • Community innovation survey

1 Introduction

The concept of Open Innovation (hereafter as OI) implies that ideas, resources and talents flow in and out of organization with the purpose that firms rely on external sources of innovation. This paper highlights an un-observed Intellectual property rights (IPRs) strategies in the current debate on open innovation, that is, the foundational question related to the decisive role of IPRs under which conditions of broadening openness is beneficial to appropriability of firms? The paper approaches this question by conceptualizing the degree of ‘openness’ in the literature and analyses the importance of IPRs strategies for innovation performance in the context of Taiwanese digital content industry.

The digital content industry is comprised of a number of prospective sectors which Taiwan government have been optimistic and promptly towards higher value added products and services. Companies within the digital content industry

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correspond to the following sectors: visual effects and animation, interactive multimedia and software development, computer and online games, educational multimedia (e-learning) and digital film & TV production and post-production (Department of Investment Services, 2007). However, since a significant amount of commonality across the digital content industry have been the assets of creativity and intellectual property, this approach assesses the extent to which firm views and utilizes IPRs as key facilitators for the supply of ideas and talented people in collaborative process in an attempt to successfully foster innovation (1) What types of firms in the Taiwan's digital content industry do already employ OI? Have digital content industry developed legitimacy to force other network members adopting similar IPRs managerial practices or establishing innovation collaborative network? Of particular interest is the degree which a firm can extensively utilize external knowledge sourcing and exploit external paths to commercialization without losing its core IPRs? What impacts of IPRs strategies have been on the innovation collaborative network and openness of firms to the external source in the digital content industry?

Based on a systematic evaluation of digital content industries, the re-cognition of OI and IPRs departing from collaborative practices among participants of the digital content industry of Taiwan are examined with the aim of identifying positive, neutral and negative impacts that IPRs in its current form exert on the movement toward OI. The digital content industry has been chosen on the basis of its importance of IPRs assets in industrial development histories, its highly fragmented market, its diversity in terms of sectoral specialization, and its heterogeneity in IPRs strategies. For purposes of this study, companies within 12 Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) classes and includes all main sectors of the Taiwan economy, excluding public bodies, retail, and hotels and restaurants. Therefore, this proposes a research design for taking into account the diversity in mission, activity, size and organisation among Community Innovation Survey (hereafter as CIS) of Taiwan with the aim of identifying positive, neutral and negative impacts of IPRs on the movement toward OI in the context of digital content industry.

In order to understand a richer picture of the relationship between open innovation and IPRs within digital content industry, the research design of the paper will reflect two complementary perspectives on the infrastructure of open innovation. Independent variables are related to the openness of innovation. The level of degrees of openness means how many types of external knowledge resources involved with. Two measurements represent the openness of firms' external search processes, such as the conceptualization of external search breadth and depths. These measurements are mainly based on the number of external sources or search channels that firms based on their innovative activities, including the type and number of pathways of exchange such as suppliers, users, and universities.

Finally, this paper intends to identify the knowledge gap in open innovation literature by tracking back some theoretical concerns, such as capability-related (Lichtenthaler & Lichtenthaler, 2009; Teece, 2007) and collaboration-related literature (Ball, 2007; O'Mahony & Bechky, 2008; Weisenfeld, Reeves, & Hunk-Meiswinkel, 2001). In doing so, how the utilization of IPRs strategies are explored

to best gear toward the implication and implementation for OI in the digital context industry.

2 Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis Development

The debate and discussion between linear and non-linear model of innovation seems to have evolved into the same trajectory. Nowadays complex mutual feedback and interactions in innovation process are already acknowledged as significant factors in a successful innovation. Basically, two broad strands of strategic management literature have regarded as particularly central to open innovation: collaboration literature and the capability literature (resource-based view). These literatures are argued as the antecedent theories for open innovation.

The main contribution of collaboration literature has shown how informal and formal network firm embedded influence firm behaviours and performance. Collaboration with other actors enables firms to absorb technology, improve survival rate, increase innovativeness, and improve performance and grow faster (Kim & Lee, 2003, Lorenzoni & Lipparini, 1999). With this, firms are expected to create and sustain partnership with other actors in order to appropriate benefits within networks or industrial ecology (Shrader, 2001).

Other collaboration studies take a more precise approach to analyze how external sources of knowledge break organizational boundaries and flow into the organization (Freeman, 1991; Hagedoorn, 1993; Hamel, 1991). This approach describes how interactions across formal organizational boundaries facilitate the development of new innovations in high-techno industries. Informal Information sharing in-out of different organization involves with employees and brokers. In this way the loose boundary speeds up the technology transfer.

Put it forward, the user innovation literature emphasize the importance of collaboration with customers. This ideas is argued by Von Hippel (2005) that user-driven innovation (called democratizing innovation) are widespread phenomenon that customers are more highly involved in development and modification of products than suppliers do. When firms facilitate the user-driven innovation, firms are able to harness distributed characteristics of innovation. In addition, compared with Chesbrough's concern over OI, Von Hippel's focus on innovations stemming from customers and suppliers (2005). Chesbrouh is interested in how firms can benefit from all sources of innovation. In common, Chesbrough (2006) recognises that the firm's value is contingent upon its ability to create and re-claim the knowledge derived from participation in various kinds of collaborations, not just from user sides.

The argument of OI is straight-forward which involves an agile approach to accessing and exploiting external knowledge whilst also releasing internal expertise for outsiders to use. In doing so, firms are able to benefit from the knowledge they acquire from outside as well as those they share within their businesses. Therefore, firms have to build up a new process to acquire and integrate external sources of

knowledge into organization (Chesbrough, 2003). We assume that this kind of external cooperation means taking a breath approach while integrating the innovation proposals coming from a variety of knowledge sources. Based on the cited literature, we hypothesize that the breath of external cooperation is associated with innovative performance.

Hypothesis 1 The More Breath of Co-operation Is Positively Related to Innovation Performance While understanding central arguments related to collaboration enhance a better understanding related to the patterns of rent appropriation based on collaboration, insights from capability literature should also help use further understand the nexus of organization boundaries' and the development capabilities related to open innovation. In fast changing markets, firm not only need to establish core competencies, but also to a set of abilities that enable it to quickly reconfigure its organizational structure and routines in response to new opportunities, such competencies are termed capability literature. To illustrate potential links between open innovation and the capabilities based literature, several research fields seem promising, namely, absorptive capacity and dynamic capabilities.

At the firm level of analysis scholars have used absorptive capacity to explain the formation and success in strategic alliances; accumulation of social and intellectual capitals; evolution of technological competencies; and avoiding technological lockout following the emergence of a dominant design in an industry. For example, the importance of absorptive capacity regarding the adoption of external ideas, and the utilization of science and other knowledge inputs to innovation have been highlighted (Christensen, Olesen, & Kjær, 2005; Cohen & Levinthal, 1990).

Other authors apply the concept more loosely and link it directly with industrial dynamics and applied evolutionary economics. At the industry-level, researchers also used absorptive capacity to study transfer of best practices, technological licensing by Multi-national corporation, and the transfer of knowledge across countries and national cultures. In this regard, successful inventions, and the commercialization of such inventions during innovation processes are due to a range of key processes which include some kind of interaction with the external environment.

Last but not least, dynamic capabilities address the interactive, cross-disciplinary and inter-organization nature of innovation and learning processes (Lundvall, 1992; Pavitt, 1998; Von Hippel, 1988). Dynamic capabilities enable firms to quickly adapt to an emerging markets or major technological discontinuities. Put it forward, the further development OI highly rely on the theoretical development of collaboration and capability literature. These fields are fundamentally related to OI related to how firms advance their knowledge base by engaging in complementary knowledge spheres from out-side.

Chesbrough (2003) signify the open innovation as firms rely on an external ideas and path to the market when they advance and commercialize their new technology. This is in particular highlighted by the shift of innovation practices in large R&D intensive companies. As a result, firms may leverage their internal R&D by integrating inbound or outbound unused ideas and technologies. Overall,

Chesbrough (2006) captures the shift of innovation strategy and highlights the corporate R&D process from closed and internal routes to new innovation strategy. This innovation involves a range of players distributed inside-out and outside-in of the value chain and different organisations.

Since various factors open up companies' innovation strategies into a more flexible open innovation approach, in-house isolationism is increasingly become a source of suffocating innovation. Particularly, globalization promotes the availability and mobility for unused ideas and skilled workers; increases the scope of capable external suppliers; and flourishes venture capital market (Chesbrough & Crowther, 2006). Indeed, the idea of systematically using external sources of innovation has been a strong intellectual tradition and has been interpreted in many different ways, such as absorptive capabilities, collaborative innovation and so on. Therefore, with a more distributed environment and a wider variety of organizations of different sizes that potentially develop new innovation, firms have to make extensive use of external knowledge.

As mentioned above, the central point of open innovation is the process of acquiring knowledge from outside. Gassmann and Enkel identify three core process of open innovation, namely, the outside-in process, the inside-out process and the couple process-based on their empirical data of 125 companies (Gassmann, 2006; Gassmann & Enkel, 2004).

- (1) The outside in process: enriching the company's own knowledge base through the integration of suppliers, customers and external knowledge sourcing can increase a company's innovativeness;
- (2) The inside-out process: earning profits by bringing ideas to market, selling IP and multiplying technology by transferring ideas to the outside environment;
- (3) The coupled process: coupling the outside-in and inside-out processes by working in alliances with complementary partners in which give and take in crucial for success.

On the other hand, all three the core processes represent an open innovation strategy. These processes are contrasted with old model termed closed innovation. In terms of closed innovation, companies generate their own knowledge to commercialize a new product through a sequential and liner innovation process. Put it simple, open innovation reflects on the trends and streams in terms of openness in the innovation process.

Since knowledge is growing faster and globally dispersed, companies are expected to release organization's boundaries in order to best utilize external sources of resources and knowledge in a managed way. Indeed, the strategy to accomplish radically new product innovation through accessing knowledge resources externally has already been highlighted in strategic management literature. Laursen and Salter (2006: 134) defined the role of openness as the use above proxies as external sources in terms of breadth (the number of sources) as well as depth (the extent of utilization of the single source). With above literature, the hypothesis as follows.

Hypothesis 2 The More Effective External Search Depth Is Positively Related to Innovative Performance As many studies have already systematically analysed and synthesised the various theoretical debates in the area of IPRs economics (see for example, Andersen, 2004; Kaufer, 1989), this section does not seek to develop a comprehensive historically based understanding and typology of the rationales for IPRs, but instead focuses on the issue of appropriability in terms of IPRs protection in the OI.

From the above discussion it is clear that the issues of appropriabilities related to IPRs strategies have evolved with technological change and with the strengthening of legal protection (Teece, 1986). Thus, the issue becomes more complex if we consider which IPRs can be more enforceable under open innovation atmosphere. Whether this means that IPRs protection achieves its aims or not; or whether those IPRs strategies distort the aims of IPRs protection mechanism are central issues that emerge from the above discussion. In general, we concluded that IPRs are implemented by firms in reality taking into account three different but interrelated perspectives. These include incentive-related mechanism, an isolating mechanism and strategic management.

Firstly, the IPRs are thought of as an incentive mechanism. This is at the basis of the formulation of IPRs protection, which can enhance the motivation for innovation. The central issue here is how to link innovation with appropriability, when the way from creation of invention to commercialisation of new technology is rough and complicated. In addition, firms can sell and/or license their patent portfolios to make a profit. This is so particularly in markets with fragmented technologies, e.g., semiconductor industries. Firms expect to expand their own patent portfolio by acquiring external technologies in response to the rapidly changing markets and potential mutual hold-up problems (Ziedonis, 2004).

Secondly, the IPRs are thought of as an isolating or control mechanism. For example, abusing the systems through blocking patents may give way to a patent thicket: an over-lapping set of patent rights requiring that those seeking to commercialise new technology to obtain licences from multiple patentees as has been the case in particular, in semiconductors, biotechnology, computer software etc (Shapiro, 2001). Firms in these industries, notably semiconductors, have responded to stronger patent rights in the US by building defensive patent portfolios to ensure their own commercial freedom (Hall & Ziedonis, 2001). Mutual hold-up could be a threat to new product development. In addition, this issue leads to a higher transaction cost as a result of seeking an appropriate technology or alliance partner (Ziedonis, 2004). With these isolating mechanisms in hand, the tragedy of anti-commons (Heller & Eisenberg, 1998) occurs as no innovation can be commercialised or created without a complicated multi-IPRs arrangement.

In addition, firms can prevent competitors from imitating their valuable assets by using patents as an isolating mechanism (Lippman & Rumelt, 1982; Rumelt, 1984; Somaya, 2003). The patent portfolio is used as a means of deterring the development of similar products or blocking competition. For example, according to the research of Bekkers, Duysters, and Verspagen (2002), IPRs has played an important role in building 3G standard and in turn influenced the market power in this mobile

phone market. The strategy of Philips Electronics Inc. illustrates this point, as they (Phillips) were reluctant to participate in the cross-licensing of the relevant 3G standards in order to maintain their proprietary monopoly. Isolating patents act as unique non-contactable firm-specific assets, or resources, which are considered a central source of competitive advantage.

Thirdly, quite recently IPRs are now thought of as a management and strategic mechanism. Firms must devise mechanisms to obtain access to each IPRs in order to retain their ability to commercialise products. Such mechanisms include patent pools and the cross-licensing of patent portfolios (Grindley & Teece, 1997). In addition, due to the characteristics of network externalities of modern industries (Shy, 2001), standardisation may benefit firms through the combining of necessary IPRs(patents) or essential patents in order to isolate key commercial opportunities as happens in the telecommunication sector (Bekkers et al., 2002). In this regard, IPRs have been used as a tool of strategic management. For example, it is suggested that patent portfolios can be used in technological areas in an attempt to manage the allocation of R&D resources effectively (Ernst, 1998). IPRs portfolios should reflect corporate goals which in turn should ensure that their appropriability is protected (Ihnen, 2000). For example, IPRs portfolio management, involving such new techniques as patent mining and landscaping, has given a whole new purpose to patents (Macdonald, 2004). So far, too short a period has elapsed to judge whether and how open innovation affects the utilisation of the IPRs system.

In addition, firms can negotiate cross-licensing agreements with other companies with complementary patent portfolios (Thumm, 2001). When competing technologies are available for licensing from other firms, isolating mechanisms may not be effective (Arora & Fosfuri, 2003). In this regard, cross-licensing is a well-known method used in an attempt to gain the commercialised value of patents through the sharing of patent portfolios with other firms. However, cross-licensing cannot safeguard investments in new technologies, and may give rise to costs and delays associated with royalties and ex ante contracting.

If others obtain blocking IPRs in the subsequent rounds of product development, prior technological and other assets could be held up, because the original IPRs holder may not be able commercialise it without the agreement of other IPRs holders. As mentioned previously commercialisation in collaborative innovation network is a complex process involving several factors, such as availability of capability, their concern with proprietary technologies, manufacturing costs etc. Thus, we need to keep in mind that the management of innovation, licensing practice and appropriability strategies may lie behind the paradigm shift of open innovation model. These arguments can be stated in the following three IPRs strategies.

While IPRs are viewed as an output indicator of R&D and are located in certain stage of innovation (Basberg, 1987), IPRs nowadays has evolved into a managerial process associated with the building, exploiting and renewing knowledge within firms. Ganguli (2000) highlights the role of IPRs in the process of commercialisation. This process considers the role of IPRs as valuable information and resources in transferring concepts to commercialisation. At the stage of ideas

development, the firm needs to survey relevant IPRs information at the initial stage of production in order to explore technologies and capture business opportunities, e.g., patenting mapping. For example, patent portfolios have proven to be a very valuable tool for R&D decision-makers in companies Ernst (1998). Hence, IPRs management, managing and enforcing the IPRs portfolio, becomes crucial to a successful innovation performance. Even when the production has been commercialised, it is important to continue to monitor the competitor's IPRs portfolio and consider legal or other actions if it is believed that IPRs were infringed (Ganguli, 2000). Power relationships and asymmetries in IPR related licensing and other bargaining situations should take into consideration.

Hypothesis 3 The More Comprehensive Protection of IPRs Positively Moderates the Relationship Between Openness and Innovation Performance Finally, the notion of appropriability has been defined as the degree to which a firm captures the rents generated from its innovation (Schilling, 2008). Firms unusually adopt both formal methods (such as IPRs) as well as informal methods (lead times, first mover advantages, and lock-ins) as their appropriability strategies (Teece, 1986). Since R&D information is regarded as sources of competitive advantage, inventor is supposed to reluctantly reveal their valuable technology and knowledge assets due to its high risk of losing their return. That is, whether firms intend to be open or not is mainly based on their appropriability strategies to capture values from their innovative efforts when opportunistic licensees or competitors just steal their knowledge (West & Gallagher, 2006a, 2006b). In addition, with the failure of formal IPRs protection, how firms maintain their internal momentum of innovation process to capture value created by external sources of innovation. In this regard, a systematic understanding of the state of OI related to firms' appropriability strategies and innovation activities thoroughly is required. In this proposal the concept of OI will be systematically examined with regard to appropriability in terms of the decisive role of IPRs. Those studies suggest a hypothesis as follows.

Hypothesis 4 The more combinations of appropriability strategies positively moderate the relationship between openness and innovation performance.

3 Methodology and Measurement

The empirical context selected for this study is based on the 2007 Community Innovation Survey (hereafter as CIS) in Taiwan. CIS surveys of innovation are often described as 'subject-oriented' because they ask individual firms directly whether they were able to produce an innovation. The CIS questionnaire draws from a long tradition of research on innovation, including the Yale survey and the SPRU innovation database (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990; Klevorick, Levin, Nelson, & Winter, 1995; Levin, Klevorick, Nelson, & Winter, 1987; Pavitt, Robson, & Townsend, 1987, 1989). CIS data provide a useful complement to the traditional measures of innovation output, such as patent statistics (Kaiser, 2002; Mairesse &

Mohnen, 2002). CIS data offer ‘a direct measure of success in commercializing innovations for a broad range of industries. that more traditional measures may not capture’ (Leiponen & Helfat, 2003). The CIS survey therefore enables us to probe the collaborative networks of open innovation and discover to what extent and in what ways their innovative activities rely on interaction with outside knowledge providers.

Independent variables are related to the openness of innovation. The level of degrees of openness means how many types of external knowledge resources involved with. Two measurements represent the openness of firms’ external search processes, such as the conceptualization of external search breadth and depths. These measurements are mainly based on the number of external sources or search channels that firms based on their innovative activities, including the type and number of pathways of exchange such as suppliers, users, and universities.

Based on a systematic evaluation of digital content industries, the re-cognition of OI and IPRs departing from collaborative practices among participants of the digital content industry of Taiwan are examined with the aim of identifying positive, neutral and negative impacts that IPRs in its current form exert on the movement toward OI. This proposes a research design for taking into account the diversity in mission, activity, size and organisation among Community Innovation Survey (CIS) of Taiwan with the aim of identifying positive, neutral and negative impacts of IPRs on the movement toward OI.

This paper used existing scales from the literature and the CIS survey. CIS defines an innovation as “the market introduction of a new good or service or a significantly improved good or service with respect to its capabilities, such as improved software, user friendliness, components or sub-systems (OECD, 1997). The binary character is inherited from the CIS definition of innovation which initially adopted a “step- change model of innovation” instead of a “continuous change model of innovation” (Tether, 2005). These variables are described as follows.

Independent variables are related to the openness of innovation. Two variables represent the openness of firms’ external search processes. The conceptualization of external search breadth is the number of external sources or search channels that firms based on their innovative activities. These channels include the type and number of pathways of exchange such as suppliers, users, and universities. To level of degrees of openness means how many types of external knowledge resources involved with (Laursen & Salter, 2006).

Dependent variables are related to the innovation performance. The first stage is related to the process of innovation. We distinguished the innovation as three stage, namely, idea development; innovation implement; innovation outcome. The dependant variable of first stage is whether the firm terminate innovation projects (yes = 1; no = 0); the second stage is whether the firm face the serious setback when implementing innovation project; The third stage is related to the NPD, simply the variable takes the value of 1 when the firm indicates that it introduce a new product as new to market or firm itself, and 0 otherwise.

Moderator variables are the comprehensive of IPRs protection and appropriability strategies, we define the role of comprehensive protection of IPRs by the proxies as the total number of IPRs mechanism developed from TCIS questions that firms rely on it their innovation activities by recoding each question (a 0-1-2-3 scale) into binary variables while firms has this IPRs activities as 1, otherwise as 0. This is also applied into appropriability strategies.

In addition, with the industries-specific of IPRs in digital content, we include 13 sectors, including publishing sector(coded as 58 in TCIS), film service(coded as 59); mass media(coded as 60), mass communication(coded as 61); computer system design(coded as 62) database firm(coded as 63) advertisement(coded as 73), professional design(coded as 74), creative industries(coded as 90), library(coded as 91). Finally, we control the size of firms firm sales, in order to control the confounding effect on R&D on innovative performance. In addition, firm size is measured by the number of employees (weight value). Whether or not the firm was a start-up after 2004 (STARTUP) is based on a question on the survey concerning whether or not the firm was established during that period.

4 Findings and Analysis

Hierarchical regression analysis enables us to determine the extent to which the potential moderative variable “interacts” with predictors in the prediction of the criterion. Two-way interactions are added step-by-step in Models. In the final step, Model explains 6.2 % of the variance after the addition of two-way interactions (IPRs * Breath) maintains significance of independent variable (Depth = 0.242) is significantly related to innovation performance. Remarkably, the research model indicates that interactions between IPRs activities and Breath of knowledge sources have a significant effect on innovation performance in the context of digital content industry.

Descriptive Results

Table 1 demonstrate all external knowledge sources in the digital content industries by using the Taiwan. innovation survey. On the CIS survey, a degree of 0-1-2-3 scale was indicated by each firm to show the degree of use for each knowledge source. In general, this table show that Taiwan digital content firms’ innovation activities are strongly determined by relations with outside knowledge while we compare the source of knowledge from inside companies with other sources. The most important outside sources (medium plus high percentage) is fairs, exhibitions, followed closely by technical/trade press. Universities, research organizations and commercial lab are among top two not used sources of innovation.

IPRs as a Moderator

To begin with a linear relationship in which the antecedents of openness is presumed to cause the consequences of innovation performance, the comprehensive of IPRs activities and appropriability strategies are variables that alters the strength

Table 1 Sources of knowledge for innovation activities in Taiwan Digital firms, year 2007

Knowledge source	Percentages			
	Not used	Low	Medium	High
Inside companies	28.5	37.5	24.3	9.5
Suppliers of equipment, materials, components, etc.	40.3	24.3	25.0	10.4
clients or customers	25.0	52.1	15.3	7.6
Competitor	36.8	29.9	16.7	16.7
Commercial lab/RD enterprises	51.4	15.3	14.6	18.8
Universities or other higher education institutes	67.4	5.6	5.6	21.5
Government research organizations	59.0	9.0	14.6	17.4
Fairs, exhibitions	44.4	15.3	20.8	19.4
Technical/trade press, Journal and database	50.0	11.8	18.8	19.4
Professional association	53.5	13.2	14.6	18.8
Technical and service standards	54.9	9.0	15.3	20.8

of the causal relationship. That is, if this study assumed IPRs activities as a moderator, this can amplify or even reverse the effect as suggested by Frazier, Tix, and Barron (2004). In doing so, we employ two-way interactions between the innovation performance and openness are moderated by the IPRs through hierarchical multiple regression to test hypothesis. In general, The results revealed a significant positive r^2 increase from model 1 to model 2 to 5.

The variables that significantly correlated with openness, breath and depth, were selected for the model using the enter estimation method at first; followed by a set of IPRs activities and appropriability strategies; and finally by a set of two-way interactions. The results shown in Table 2 indicate that the r^2 gradually improves from Model 1 ($r^2 = -0.009$) via

Model 2 ($r^2 = 0.052$), but there is a negative effect of appropriability via Model 3 ($r^2 = 0.047$) to

Model 4($r^2 = 0.040$) as IPRs activities input. Depth maintains significance of independent variable (standard coefficient is 0.245 to 0.273) while breath is not significant.

Hierarchical regression analysis enables us to determine the extent to which the potential moderative variable “interacts” with predictors in the prediction of the criterion. Two-way interactions are added step-by-step in Models 5. In the final step, Model 5 explains 6.2 % of the variance after the addition of two-way interactions (IPRs * Breath) maintains significance of independent variable (Depth = 0.242) is significantly related to innovation performance. remarkably, model 5 indicates that interactions between IPRs activities and Breath of knowledge sources have a significant effect on innovation performance.

Table 2 Summary of regression innovation performance as a dependent variables

Independent variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
STARTUP	-0.002	0.014	0.018	0.018	0.022
Employees	0.069	0.044	0.044	0.044	0.089
Sales	-0.077	-0.016	-0.017	-0.017	-0.004
Depth		0.273**	0.266**	0.266**	0.242*
Breath		-0.086	-0.088	-0.088	-0.393
Appropriability strategies			0.042	0.034	0.133
IPRs				0.010	-0.249
IPRs*Breath					0.506**
IPRs*Depth					-0.001
Adjusted R2	-0.009	0.052**	0.047**	0.040*	0.062**
VIF	1. to 1.03	1.015 to 1.090	1.021 to 1.117	1.021 to 1.318	1.051 to 8.550

Note. * $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; $p < 0.01$

5 Conclusion

There are two main contributions in this paper. The first contribution is to develop and solidify the origins of open innovation in the context of digital content industry. We address this by counting on a capability perspective and a collaborative perspective implied from resource-based view of strategic management literature. As such this issue specially addresses the knowledge flows to and from external resources, encompassing knowledge creation, exchange and utilisation, which underpin the development of OI theories. The second contribution of the paper is to evaluate how the effectiveness and use of Intellectual property rights (IPRs) do influence the openness to external sources and appropriability strategies in the innovation process.

The paper has following implications. Firstly, we could uncover the appropriability regimes in terms of IPRs strategies being implemented in the process of innovation. That is, firms could utilise appropriate IPRs strategies in a range of sectors in the digital content industries to appropriate the benefits of their innovation and further understand how these strategies moderate their success of open innovation.

Acknowledgements This study was supported by the National Science Council of Taiwan under Grant [NSC 99- 2410-H-018-001].”

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The “Clinical Risk” of a Research Project: Communication Processes

Daniela Dato

Abstract Just as in medicine clinical risk corresponds to the patient’s chances of suffering harm or distress due to medical treatment received, for a project and a team work it represents the possibility of damage, error, failure of the efficiency of the team and the achievement of the expected results. An indispensable role in this process is played by the communicative- relational variables internal and external. The project So.Net.To founded his team work, in fact, based on this awareness and introduced the concept of “clinical risk” within communities of practice and research and to demonstrate how a cure communication variables can contribute to the success of a research project and its effect on the social environment reference. This led to a careful developing strategies for internal and external communication functional to the phases of the project that led from one side to the creation of a “communicative product” designed to publicize and capitalize on the knowledge and skills obtained within the working group, the other to activate forms of communication designed to promote institutional forms of collective participation of researchers and practitioners the work of other institutions. In this perspective, the cure for the communicative dimension has responded to the new third mission of the University as well as producing new knowledge and competent professional profiles must be able to build new strategies and guidelines for disseminating knowledge in society, through communication processes of management, “engagement”, retrieval funds, public participation and civic responsibility and “corporate social responsibility”.

Keywords Communication • Third mission • University • Research

1 Introduction and State of the Art

Just as in medicine clinical risk (Cinotti, 2004; Cosmi & Del Vecchio, 2003) corresponds to the patient’s chances of suffering harm or distress due to medical treatment received, for a project and a team work it represents the possibility of

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damage, error, failure of the efficiency of the team and the achievement of the expected results (Giorgino & Travaglini, 2008; Prandi, 2012). An indispensable role in this process is played by the communicative-relational variables internal and external (Kotler & Armstrong, 2009; Pecchenino, 2009).

In this sense the impact of communicative-relational variables within the organisations is of some importance, seen their functional role in the consolidation of the organizational culture through an efficient transmission of information and a sharing of mission, senses and meanings (Grandi & Miani, 2006; Kotler & Armstrong, 2009; Pecchenino, 2009; Perrone, 2003). The risk management in situations of direct interactions among different professionals is strictly connected with an efficient communication. It's a matter of how we can make a "common road" accessible, only knowing where to go (mission of the team) but ignoring the tools to use, the route to take, the risks to avoid. From this perspective, the variable of communication becomes a variable of organizational appropriateness or inappropriateness in relation with its efficiency.

This perspective has to be placed in a wider consideration that sees communicative action as one of the most efficient tools of building and managing social action, thus interpreting the communication in its two senses, informative and relational, transmission of messages and construction of meanings. It is considered as an added value for the innovation and competitiveness of an organization through which professional practices can be seen as "places of production of meanings", communities of practices where individuals share objectives, interests, experiences, emotions, needs connected with invisible, often implicit and hidden, networks of relations (both cognitive and emotional) (Dato, 2014).

In this sense, avoiding clinical risk in an organization means practicing forms of communicative learning whose last "telos" is "learning to understand what others want and let others understand us when we try to communicate ideas".

Working and working together in and for a research group can be seen as a path of progressive and dynamic "aggregation of knowledge", "sharing of knowledge" in which a plurality of dimensions, both cognitive and relational, of the working team might gain sense and thus be tested and promoted.

Therefore, the idea of "network" is unavoidable when we talk about dynamic communication functional to the risk management. Network is also metaphor of the interpersonal communicative possibilities that come true within an organization through the capacities of its actors to move towards a reticular space of ideas, knowledge and expertise which is becoming wider and wider nowadays. But network leads also to the idea of a social and formative space of communication, exchange and interaction.

A physical and social space where to experience new forms of knowledge, intelligence, abilities and cognitive skills, new ways of socialization, comparison but also contrast, communication, participation and understanding.

2 Thinking Communication for a Project Efficiency: The Methodological Choice

In a careful research work the attention has to focus on that communication process which might inhibit rather than promote the performances and outcomes of the working group. The reference goes to the communicative variables, both internal and external as explained below. They represent the time and metaphorical space of the first transformation of an “aggregate” of persons in a working group that learns to share tasks and formative and transformative mission through the integrated and associated use of traditional literacy with more innovative and original one.

Thus, the processes of transfer, production, elaboration, management and exchange of information and expertise, both in presence and “at distance”, becomes the *conditio sine qua non* that changes an indefinite group of persons into an organization of professionals (with different levels and types of specialization). It is seen as a community of practice and scientific community in which each one works for the knowledge development representing the common heritage of the whole organization whose cooperative research path becomes a “common experience whose result depends on the responsible engagement of each one” (Cisotto, 2005, pp. 188, 190).

For these reasons, planning and implementing internal and external efficient communicative strategies is possible only if we consider that “the organisational communication can be defined as the whole process of creation, sharing and exchange of informative and value-based messages within the different networks of relations that constitute the essence of the organisation and its position in the context. It implies internal members, the internal-external collaborators and every external person involved in some way in the organizational life including its effective and potential clients. It is part of the productive and decisional process but also of the relations with external contexts; it is used to define and share company’s mission, culture and values; it is used also for implementing the quality of products and services; it encourages the internal and external visibility of the organization, its activities, politics and changes in progress” (Invernizzi, 2000, p. 72).

Internal communication strategies were mainly addressed to consolidate the relations in the working team, share objectives and reinforce the identity and the sense of belonging (Barone & Fontana, 2005). On the contrary, external communication strategies aimed at promoting social approval, creating a quality image beyond institutional boundaries, but mostly changing the knowledge produced into knowledge useful for productive goals, in particular for the touristic sector.

In this sense, the communication plan was not only conceived as an informative process, but also as a training/interactive process. Therefore, as well as publicising the project goals and objectives, we also planned strategies that aimed to create a network of contacts, also in order to build communities for practice and research that would be open to change.

We cannot talk about learning organisation and organisational culture without also adopting our own organisational communication models and plans, or rather a “collection of strategic and practical processes that create, exchange and allow individuals to share information, statistics and values within the various networks of relationships that constitute the essence of organisation and its position in the context (Invernizzi, 2000, pp. 195–196).

Invernizzi distinguishes five conditions that are necessary in order to create an organisational communication plan and we used these as a reference when planning both the internal and external communication activities to be carried out:

1. Establish the communication initiatives in line with the guiding principles of the organisation, ensuring that they are specific, ethically sound and illustrated in a way that makes them easy to understand for everyone;
2. Ensure coherence and synergy between the communication activities directed within and beyond the organisation, and the ways in which these are managed;
3. Support processes of organisational and managerial innovation with adequate communication plans that everyone agrees upon;
4. Disseminate communication skills, starting with those relative to interpersonal communication, to everyone involved, from the managers to the operators;
5. Ensure that the communication is protected from a strategic point of view by the manager and from an operational point of view by departments that are integrated with each other” (ibid, pp. 202–209).

Therefore, for a communication process to be effective, it is crucial to activate a “vicious circle” of the information and relationships that will lead to the improvement of the activities covered by the project if sustained and promoted by their discussion and comparison on the part of all the parties involved.

Comparison, discussion and dialogue feed the single intelligence creating a more complex and expert intelligence of the group. A learning organisation is open to dialogue and co-participation and is thus available to question itself and make a serious and constant self-knowledge useful to improve its performance and expertise (Rossi, 2011).

Therefore, in a research project, like an organisation, the working group is seen as informative and formative context that shares objectives and research meanings, like a community of practice and research. The internal communication strategies were mainly addressed to consolidate the relations in the working team, share objectives and reinforce the identity and the sense of belonging (Barone & Fontana, 2005). On the contrary, the external communication strategies aimed at promoting the social approval, creating a quality image beyond institutional boundaries, but mostly changing the knowledge produced into knowledge useful for productive goals, in particular for the touristic sector. At this proposal, Argyris and Schon have underlined that an organisation is first of all “politics”, because it requires the exercise of co-habitation ability, respect of shared rules, cooperation for the achievement of common goals (Argyris & Schon, 1978). It asserts the importance of the learning organisation in which “most of the knowledge [...] is distributed in the persons’ mind and in their daily practices, at a single level, in a small or in a

large group” and in which there is “the capacity to share knowledge heritage and individuals competences” (Loiodice, 2004, p. 33).

It is a real competitive differential that is grounded in the promotion of a communication pedagogy asserting the importance of those forms of communicative learning based also on the communicative dimension useful to understand others, their ideas, their behaviours, and at the same time to let them understand us when we want to communicate our ideas.

3 Internal Communication: Achieved Outcomes

The above mentioned theoretical framework is at the base of the whole communicative system of the project So.Net.to (Social Network for tourism operators) that has involved all the partners of the working group, i.e., the three research units of University of Salento, University of Foggia and the Technological Educational Institute of Epirus—Department of Accounting. On one hand, the project has led to the realization of a “communicational product” aimed at promoting and capitalizing the knowledge and know-how of the working group, on the other it has activated forms of institutional communication which enabled the participation of researchers and work personnel of other institutions (other Universities, local bodies, trade organisations, tour operators, etc.).

Thus, the project is grounded in an organisational culture that adopted communication models and plans seen as a “collection of strategic and practical processes that create, exchange and allow individuals to share information, statistics and values within the various networks of relationships that constitute the essence of organisation and its position in the context” (Invernizzi, 2000, pp. 195–196).

Internal communication was aimed at sharing project’s progresses but also at making the activities of the different research units visible and cooperating for the achievement of project’s goals through the promotion of strategies and tools which were able to foster relations, negotiation of meanings, sharing of problems and perspectives.

A priority element was the attention paid first of all to the informative dimension of the communication plan, and then to the relational one, which revealed the necessity of an information decodification in order to minimise the risk of distortion of meanings and thus share the tasks through the creation of a key words glossary of the research themes and project intervention.

Furthermore, the internal communication efficiency is highly influenced by the quality of the exchange of data, information, good practices, competences that, if shared and integrated, may improve project performances and create a complex and accurate scientific framework of reference. The attention to the internal dimension of communication can therefore represent an important factor of promotion of different forms of sharing and co-construction of learning and knowledge. Only in this way, explains Isabella Loiodice, groups and organisations might become “an organising system of competencies” (Loiodice, 2004, p. 33), sharing objectives and

fostering a healthy and productive organisational climate. Thus, within the research groups arose real communicative occasions that go beyond the simple informative purpose.

Internal communication processes constitute complex processes representing the base of a organisational planning and are seen as the unavoidable condition for a positive research result and the achievement of the expected outcomes.

For the internal communication plan to be efficient mostly when sharing and exchanging information and products with other partners, a leading role was played by the use of ITC with reference to internet and intranet. In particular, the idea was to invest also and most of all on the “digital identity” of the project group that has indeed promoted a digital communication literacy to support the project goals and organisational strategy.

For these reasons, the creation of the so-called “knowledge portal” was of some importance in the project. It enabled the creation of a knowledge and information network that could facilitate models of shared learning, a divergent *forma mentis* open to changes and comparisons. This portal represented a quality tool of an innovative organisation as a support for the diffusion of the cognitive heritage among the members of the working group.

In fact, the knowledge portal aimed at activating participation processes throughout the different project phases and planning future activities thanks to a combination between formative and communication processes. The materials of the project, such as reports of the research group, communication materials, logos, etc., are available at the link of the portal <http://sonettows.teiep.gr/> and are divided per project partner. Today this portal is still considered as a formative and informative space for the community of practice represented by the members of the research units who currently share information and materials.

4 External Communication: Achieved Outcomes

External communication plan has not only been conceived as an informative process but also a formative/relational one, corresponding to its two souls linked to the marketing and institutional dimensions (Damascelli & Bosotti, 2004).

In this sense, in line with the contemporary literature, the communicative plan looked toward the creation of a “communication product” aiming at advertising and capitalizing knowledge and competencies achieved within the working groups of the three partners, but also at activating forms of institutional communication promoting the participation of researchers and work personnel of other institutions (other Universities, local bodies, trade organizations, tour operators, etc.).

The strategies for the external communication of the research outcomes have been organised step by step, following a double and multifaceted plan based on the internal communication process between the project partners and the external communication processes addressed to other target groups.

Regarding the communication forms and tools for transferring information about the project and the results of the same, we proceeded to identify two distinct forms of communication: “self-produced communication” and “hetero-produced communication”. By “self-produced communication” we mean all the forms of communication activated directly by the research and project group: internal platform, reports, group meetings, seminars etc.

Instead, the term “hetero-produced communication” refers to all the messages and media communication channels that are not produced by the project group: media, TV, academic magazines, newspapers etc. The tools identified were all the so-called indirect means that target public opinion (in paper form, on television and radio), posters and notices, press relations, public relations and sponsorships. Instead, the second category covers the direct tools such as brochures, newsletters, conventions, seminars, events etc. A leading role in the communication plan is certainly played by the use of ICT, with reference to the internet and intranet. The latter represents a quality tool which is adopted by innovative organisations to support the dissemination of know-how to the members of specific work groups. It is no coincidence that the subject of knowledge portals (Gemma) also comes up, these being tools that aim to guarantee the creation of a shared knowledge and information network, by favoring the learning and conception of new ideas within the same.

The creation of these knowledge portals is an attempt to activate processes of participation in the various executive phases of the project, and to plan the activities by matching communication processes with training processes. In general “communication tools can synthetically be distinguished based on the dissemination principle, as means:

- of distribution, that can be materially preserved and are therefore easy to consult time and again (brochures, leaflets, guides, manuals, etc.);
 destined for the dissemination of messages and information that are difficult to memorise, or that concern complex subjects, or that are particularly detailed;
- of audiovisual transmission, in the sense that they can be memorised and assimilated but not materially preserved (posters, radio and TV advertisements, the press, etc.). These tools are favoured for their wide level of distribution and for the fact that they promote the message in question to the public with contents that are obviously general and purely informative;
- of pro-positive propaganda destined to create immediate familiarity with the activities and initiatives” (The communication plan within public authorities—The Presidency of the Council of Ministers).

In keeping with the models of communication plans that have been scientifically accredited, the activities planned will target four macro-categories:

- A. institutions
- B. media
- C. operators
- D. public opinion.

For the institutions, reference was made in particular to:

- Relative public authorities
- Regional authorities
- Provincial authorities
- Local authorities.

For the media, reference was made in particular to:

- Press agencies
- Daily newspapers
- Specialist magazines
- On-line media.

For the operators, reference was made in particular to:

- Schools and universities
- Training bodies
- Professional associations
- User associations
- Workers' unions
- Professional training operators and operators in the world of employment
- Public and private employment mediation and intermediation bodies
- Study centres and research companies interested in the tourism sectors
- Opinion leaders for the tourism areas.

In addition to these promotional actions, in order to avoid clinical risk it is thus necessary that the research group plans strategies addressed to the constitution of a contact network aiming also at creating a community of practice and research open to the active participation of the stakeholders.

In fact, the attention to external communication process concerns the relations with a wider public and not only with stakeholders (scientific community, touristic operators, opinion leader and, more generally, public opinion). Of particular importance was the dissemination plan that required the use of diversified media tools which enabled a “viral” and stratified communication and thus the achievement of the following objectives.

Moreover, thanks to the collaboration of the project team, some short project presentations have been produced, in order to facilitate the communication within the group and among the three research units. For an efficient external communication plan the following activities have been carried out:

- Presentation of Sonetto project and its Platform in conferences and seminars (during the event “Espandere 2013” held on 29 May 2013, organised by the Compagnia delle Opere Foggia, in collaboration with Compagnia delle Opere Basilicata, Compagnia delle Opere Salento, Confcommercio Foggia and sponsored by the Province and the Chamber of Commerce of Foggia, the project was presented during a workshop on the touristic sector entitled “More and more abroad, Puglia at the centre of the world”).

- Oral and written presentations of the project and its platform to the stakeholders and local touristic operators (in particular, they were presented to “Amadeus”, a company working in the field of the information technology within the context of tourism, to the company GTours of Foggia and other local companies).
- Presentation of Sonetto during the seminar held on 12 April 2013 and entitled “Training for touristic operators for the development of local and sustainable tourism”.
- Publication of a volume containing the first project outcomes: the volume intended to promote and disseminate outside the institution and community of practice outcomes achieved so far.
- Informal communications within the research group (for instance, the project was also presented during departmental councils to all the institutional colleagues and was mentioned in every international/national project submitted).
- Public communication: the project presentation is available on the website of EridLab (University of Foggia) and on the above mentioned dedicated platform.
- Activation of a youtube channel:

<http://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PL1kI2urqPny48a8ansXiCFsKO-d5auUISI>

the channel proposes 69 digital contents diversified per typology, such as presentations, documentaries, short didactic lessons, interviews to privileged witnesses, etc., spots of some local touristic contexts, videogames (serious games) for tourism-based learning.

The above mentioned activities show the two aspects of the project, informational and educational, and underline their strong mission towards the local marketing and the valorisation of the territory, thus providing touristic operators with tourism business tools.

Moreover, as written on the project platform, “the project aims to capitalize a previous cross-border cooperation experience focused on an in-depth knowledge of ICT and Tourism integration in Apulia and Epirus. SONETTO aims to develop an innovative follow-up project focusing on the introduction of web 2.0 strategies, which have a clear competitive advantage.

Results

- Modification of social representations of sustainability in Regional Tourism Industry through Sonetto viral social networking spreading e-contents, publications, summer schools and conferences.
- Promotion of new Regional Agenda-setting through Sonetto spreading as a powerful social media that will increase debates on sustainable tourism and SMEs benefits of an eco business model.
- Promotion of SMEs cooperation through a network for a free exchange of best practices, facilitation of e-meeting and communication.
- Promotion of fair competition through a model of ‘transparency for success’, online cooperation among research/innovation institutions, SMEs and PAs.

- Skill transfer through the spreading of Sonetto as a user-generated content network and its wiki functions improvement that will enhance learning experiences.
- [...]
- Promote a profitable and sustainable management of natural environment: Formal (Summer schools), Informal (e-content, LOs, documentaries) learning on Environmental and Cultural Heritage Management as key economic resources.
- Improve know-how on cultural/natural resources of both sides of the Sea: E-content, maps, catalogues, conferences promoting a better knowledge of Regional potentials among SMEs”.

Therefore, while assuring the formative side of the project, its platform represents a great showcase for operators and a service for tourism promotion and personalised tourism, offering the operators/clients a series of inputs and useful suggestions for modernising entrepreneurial culture. This is in line with contemporary literature that considers ICT as excellence tools for new forms of touristic marketing, but first of social networking, which is a great resource for the professionalisation of operators and the promotion of the territory (Cozzi, 2010; Pini, 2010; Sfodera, 2006).

5 Conclusions: Communicating for the Community Engagement

The integrated communication plan carried out is surely the answer to a redefinition of a national and international mission of universities that, beyond the production of new knowledge and skilled and professional profiles, must work for the accomplishment of the “third mission”, seen as the capacity to create new strategies and orientation in order to spread knowledge over the society, through processes of communication, management, engagement, fund raising, citizen participation and civil responsibility, and even “corporate social responsibility” (Collini, 2012; Cooper, 2011; UNESCO, 2009). It deals with a new idea of “open university” working at reducing the gap between theory and practice, theoretical models and operational systems, but also promoting the use of knowledge for the social, cultural and economic development of Society. That was even confirmed by Anvur (National Agency for the Evaluation of the University and Research Systems) that in 2013 underlined that “the third mission is seen as the ensemble of activities through which universities (and in particular research bodies) get in touch with society, providing a contribution to the traditional missions of teaching (which create an interaction with a particular fragment of society, i.e., students) and research (in which prevails the interaction with scientific communities). The third mission can have different forms, which have been studied by a wide literature [...]. However, a first distinction shall be made between: (a) third mission of economic valorisation of knowledge; (b) social and cultural third mission”.

It is thus possible to talk about the third mission of the university and the engagement community starting from a consideration on the complex and generative relation between university, territory and community. “Territory and community as “competitive area” where to diffuse university products, in particular those related to the scientific research, in order to promote one’s own territory and develop one’s own visibility [...]. Territory and community as co-decisional partners, economic resources in a collaborative perspective [...]. Territory and community as an ensemble of individuals who expresses expectations and needs which have to be considered in order to survive in an ethical and responsible perspective” (Cavallo & Romenti, 2012).

These perspectives underline the particular role of the communication seen as an awarding strategy of the university-organisation-system that must involve and promote relations with the territory and society through the economic valorisation of knowledge and its cultural and social role. Just in line with these orientations, the attention to communication processes has led to plan, manage and monitor Sonetto’s different actions with a particular care both to the internal dynamics of management and capitalisation of expertise, and to internal ones aiming at diffusing project activities and results, but most of all at creating synergies with the territory and serving it.

Finally, communication was not only considered as a mere final reporting and information strategy but also as a tool offered to the territory to nourish entrepreneurial planning, programming and training. Moreover, communication must create knowledge-based networks functional to a community engagement, in order to promote the exchange of competences, skills and resources between the academy and territory and to make use of research results for a cultural, social and economic development of the country. Therefore, as this project has clearly showed, is currently under way a general re-thinking of the role and strategies directed to change university into a laboratory of competences useful for capitalising local resources and make the collaboration and encounter with the territory “mutually beneficial in terms of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity” (Gleeson, 2010).

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Crowdsourced Heritage Tourism Open-Data, Small-Data and e-Participatory Practices as Innovative Tools in Alps Cultural Heritage

Topic: Information Technology and e-Tourism

Daniele Villa

Abstract Many new questions arise with regard to Web3.0-based technologies, more and more frequently used by non-experts to generate and share geographic information, new collective landscape visions and place-based knowledge. This paper discusses the role of e-participation, mapping practices and crowdsourced-based place rating in alpine mountain areas, related to an ongoing trans-regional European research project (Interreg Italy-Swiss). In particular I take into account the collaborative use of ICT (such as the use of geo-social networks) within the processes of social sharing of images related to the spreading of cultural heritage (tangible and intangible) and cultural landscapes. This allows to point out several critical issues connected to mechanisms of collective intelligence and to define how citizen science can be correctly used inside the usual processes of participation and elaboration of visual final results. Visualization is certainly a very powerful tool to improve community's discussion on cultural tourist destinations: is it possible to relate the new forms of voluntary and involuntary micro-participation via web with alternative visualization techniques as key in promoting new forms of sustainable cultural tourism, low cost but high value-added? Another important issue raised by this research is: which alternative knowledge of the alpine cultural landscape is useful for processes of tourism policy making that include the inhabitant's role, expectations, know-how and memories? The method applied in this case study was designed to support collaborative efforts, to increase public participation in problem analysis and decision-making and to evaluate possible interactions between non-organized forms of collective collaboration and institutional processes of transformation linked to alpine cultural tourism. Specific attention is given to the problems of ICT mediated perception and definition of shared landscape quality. In this context, the role of expert knowledge in the analysis and definition of the social perception of the cultural landscape is now changing rapidly and radically. The recent developments of the Web—namely the open-source GIS, the collective use

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of GPS tracking, and the geo-social networks—force the technicians to rely on new skills: from the cultural mediation of landscape values to the ad hoc interpretation of the new geographical information. Furthermore, local and non-technical knowledge starts to play an increasingly important role in expanding the scope of the definitions of the alpine cultural landscapes. The social implications of this research include also the widening of the definition of the common good to a number of intangibles: the archives of spatial data managed by public authorities, the amount of data unintentionally generated through the use of mobile devices in order to build not only innovative, but effective tools for the promotion and development of the weak and peripheral territories.

Keywords e-Participatory Practices • ICT • Cultural landscapes • Alps

Digital Divide and Its Potential Impact on Cultural Tourism

Christian Maurer

Abstract Tourists need information about destinations for travel decision making. Thus the importance of information in the tourism industry is apparent. Tourists inform themselves before and during travelling, gather information about prices, hotels, sights, activities, alternatives, weather conditions, local traditions, food, drinks and religious views of the destination. After the visit they share information with others. Therefore, a reasonable diffusion with information and communication technologies (ICTs) can benefit both the tourists as well as the businesses. However, disparities still exist in access, skills, use of and attitudes towards ICTs. Although, the phenomenon of digital divide has been addressed in several studies, especially with regard to small and medium sized tourism enterprises, research on the adoption and implementation of ICTs in cultural and heritage tourism is still scant. This paper aims at raising awareness for the influence and effect of the digital divide on the tourism industry in general and cultural and heritage institutions in particular.

Keywords Digital divide • Cultural and heritage tourism • ICT adoption

1 Introduction

Tourism with its great variety of sectors is globally one of the biggest of all business branches where millions of people work. Global social, economic, political, technological and environmental changes are major challenges for this industry and demand the most wide-ranging competencies and skills from employees in tourism enterprises. More and more people are travelling and as a result of this cultural tourism is a growing sector, too. Cultural tourism can be regarded as high-profile, mass-market activity (McKercher & du Cros, 2002). There are numerous definitions of cultural tourism depending on different approaches and viewpoints. For the purpose of this paper the definition of the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) is used which describes cultural tourism as “movements of persons for essentially cultural motivations such as study tours, performing arts and cultural tours, travel to

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festivals and other cultural events, visits to sites and monuments, travel to study nature, folklore or art, and pilgrimages” (WTO, 1985). The typology of cultural tourism is as diverse as the types of cultural tourism attractions. The latter can be divided into heritage tourism, arts tourism, creative tourism, urban cultural tourism, rural cultural tourism, indigenous cultural tourism, and experiential cultural tourism (Smith, 2009).

Information and communication technologies (ICTs) continue to penetrate countries and industries in all regions of the world, as more and more people are getting connected to the internet. Recent years have seen steady growth in ICT diffusion worldwide except for the number of fixed telephone lines, which has been in decline since 2005. Between 2010 and 2011, mobile-cellular subscriptions showed double-digit growth in developing countries. The number of mobile-cellular subscriptions increased by more than 600 million, almost all of them in the developing world, to a total of around 6 billion, or 86 % globally. China and India together accounted for one third of all mobile-cellular subscriptions in 2012. Mobile-cellular telephony continues to replace fixed-line services, the latter still being dominated by the dominant operator in many developing countries (ITU, 2012).

ICTs and especially the internet, have profoundly changed the tourism sector on all levels, making it more efficient and effective (Buhalis & Hyun Jun, 2011; Minghetti & Buhalis, 2010). Disparities derived from ICTs have a greater and stronger impact in this information business than in other sectors (Minghetti & Buhalis, 2010). Disparities in terms of ICT access, ICT usage, ICT skills, ICT attitude result in digital gaps on the different levels. These digital gaps may in turn lead to information and knowledge gaps.

One key question regarding ICT development is whether the digital divide is widening or narrowing. Depending on the chosen indicators and methodological framework the answer can be either optimistic or pessimistic.

2 Theoretical Background

2.1 Importance of Information in the Tourism Industry

The tourism offer is in most cases an immaterial and intangible service created for tourists by several providers along the value chain. Since customers are dependent on the information describing the actual features and services included in the offer, the availability of information in the search and decision making process is vital. ICTs enable and empower both consumers and tourism suppliers to communicate, inform, negotiate and reduce cultural and communication gaps (Buhalis, 2003).

Due to the transition of society towards a knowledge-centred information society the need for information as well as its economic and social value are increasing. Information per se has no value, but only knowledge formed out of information is

valuable, applicable in many situations and able to change given circumstances (Wörther, 2004). Another characteristic of information is that it can be considered a positional good, since it positions people within the society, within one's network. However, information is not homogeneously spread and there are inequalities in access between individuals, businesses or countries. Thus, the more information one possesses and the more strategically one uses this information to gain recognition, the higher will be their position in the respective society (van Dijk & Hacker, 2003).

The access to information should be equally possible for all human beings. Nevertheless, not everyone in today's society has the same amount of information at their disposal. Often, those being more interested and informed already than others as well as disposing over higher levels of income will be rather reached by mass media than lower income, less interested people. As a consequence, the gap in the amount of information reaching the two groups is said to further increase the more those living in higher social standards are informed and the less lower social levels have access to the mass media (Bonfadelli, 2002). Several levels of information gaps can be distinguished (Bonfadelli, 2002):

- gaps in information supply,
- gaps in access to information,
- gaps in use of information,
- gaps in processing information,
- gaps in gaining knowledge from information.

Due to the potential high returns that ICTs can yield in transforming a nation's economy and increasing its citizens' well-being, assessing ICT developments has received academic and policy attention in the past decade. Several organisations have exerted great effort toward measuring and benchmarking ICT deployment and uptake, but few have tried to evaluate the returns that ICTs can actually provide to both the economy and society. Although data are still scarce in terms of ICT impacts, policy interest in measuring ICTs has shifted from measuring ICT access to measuring ICT impacts. The Networked Readiness Index (NRI), introduced by the World Economic Forum (WEF), aims at holistically assessing the way how countries leverage ICTs and benefit from them in terms of enhanced competitiveness and well-being (WEF, 2013).

2.2 Defining the Digital Divide

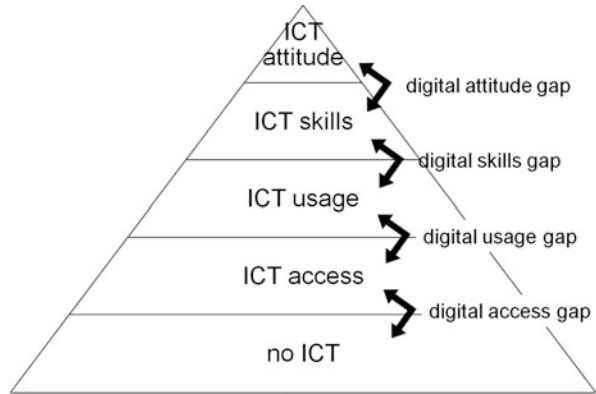
The complex phenomenon of the digital divide has been dealt with by several scholars (Hargittai, 2002; Maurer & Lutz, 2012; Minghetti & Buhalis, 2010; OECD, 2001; Selwyn, 2002; van Dijk & Hacker, 2003). Selwyn (2002) points out that inequalities in distribution of internet access, hardware, software as well as information, know-how or networks are reasons for digital divide. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2001, p. 5) defines digital

divide as “the gap between individuals, households, businesses and geographic areas at different socio-economic levels with regard both to their opportunities to access information and communication technologies (ICTs) and to their use of the internet for a wide variety of activities. The digital divide reflects various differences among and within countries.”

There are different types of digital divide. The global digital divide describes differences in worldwide ICT distribution and internet penetration especially between industrialised and developing countries (Norris, 2001). The social digital divide refers to different levels of access and use within a country or a region (e.g. information rich and information poor). The OECD (2008) further distinguishes between the absolute and the relative divide: the former refers to the dichotomous distinction between “haves” and “have-nots”, whereby the latter one stands for disparities in penetration rate between different groups of a country, that can be defined for instance by age, gender, ethnicity, income or educational attainment. The democratic divide relates to those individuals who use the internet to participate in public life and engage in political activities and those who do not use the internet for this purpose (Norris, 2001). The distinction between those who have and those who have not internet access is often addressed in research on digital divide. However, the separation between onliners and offliners may not explain all aspects of and causes for this phenomenon. Hafner (2004) identifies different levels of exclusion, namely the exclusion from the internet, exclusion via the internet and exclusion in the internet. Exclusion from the internet means that an individual has no access to the internet at all due to economic or infrastructural reasons. Exclusion via the internet refers to possible long term effects of specific information being only available online (e.g. reviews of hotel rooms, cheaper rates for tourism offers) and as a result of this unavailable to those without access. Barriers in comprehending online content (e.g. due to language barriers, illiteracy) lead to exclusion in the internet.

The digital divide is a multi-dimensional phenomenon and the various types of divides (access, usage, skills, attitudes) are arranged in a hierarchical sequence, as can be seen in Fig. 1. No ICT refers to the complete absence of ICT access and usage. Access refers to the stage where an individual or a company has access to the internet and thus the opportunity to use it. The usage of the technology does not happen in the same way among different users due to different skill levels. Skills refers to the stage where an individual or a company has developed sufficient capabilities to engage in a rather advanced usage of the internet. Individuals affected by the skills gap are already users, they merely differ in the efficiency of their usage. van Dijk and Hacker (2003) define digital skills as the ability to carry out search enquiries, process and apply the information delivered from an affluence of different sources, to operate computers as well as hard- and software. Attitude refers to the stage where an individual or a company not only has developed all the necessary skills for effectively and efficiently using the internet but disposes further of a very positive attitude towards this technology and believe that the engagement in its exploitation results in a positive outcome. Attitude describes a person’s inner motivational and influencing factors, their attitude towards the internet. The attitude

Fig. 1 Hierarchical levels of digital gaps (Maurer & Lutz, 2012)



gap takes into account an individuals feelings, perceptions and attitude towards ICTs, such as computer anxiety, perceived unattractiveness of the technology, lack of interest, lack of motivation, rejection of the technology despite of having the necessary skills, knowledge and abilities to theoretically use it efficiently (van Dijk & Hacker, 2003; Wörther, 2004). The right attitude is needed to gain the ultimate benefit of ICTs and reach the status of meaningful use resulting in economic and social benefits.

Despite a rather clear distinction of the various types of digital gaps it remains difficult to measure the digital divide per se. Several researchers and organisations have tried to measure the digital divide in different approaches albeit until recently there has been no commonly and widely used standardised approach. In general, measures are based on single and multiple indicator approaches. The OECD (2001) defined in one of the first approaches to numerically measure the dimensions of the digital divide as the three most important indicators the number of internet users per 100 inhabitants, the number of fixed access lines per 100 inhabitants and the number of internet hosts per 1,000 inhabitants. The costs for telephone and internet were also considered.

Over the past decade many different indices have been developed. Popular ones are the ORBICOM (2003) Conceptual Framework, the ICT Development Index and the ICT Price Basket and the Networked Readiness Index (NRI). The ORBICOM framework is based on the three concepts of infodensity, info-use and infostate. Infodensity refers to a country’s overall ICT capital and ICT labour stocks (OECD, 2008), which are again connected to a country’s overall production capacities. Info-use represents the extent to which ICTs are consumed in a country, whereas infostate is a combination of infodensity and info-use. The ICT Development Index (IDI), developed by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU), is based on three already existing and developed indices provided by the ITU in the years before 2009 (ITU, 2009). Additionally, it takes into account the different stages towards reaching an information society. The first index incorporated into the IDI is the Digital Access Index (DAI). The DAI is a measure for the ability of inhabitants of a given country to access and use ICTs, and encompasses

infrastructure, affordability, knowledge, quality and actual usage of ICT. The ICT Opportunity Index (ICT-OI) was introduced to measure the opportunity for digital development of countries. The third index, the Digital Opportunity Index (DOI), was developed to measure the opportunities for digital development of single countries. The DOI focuses mainly on the infrastructure, opportunity and utilisation.

The ITU further developed another index with the aim to evaluate ICT affordability. The ICT price basket consists of three sub-baskets, indicating the access costs for fixed telephone, mobile phone and fixed internet access.

The annually published Networked Readiness Index (NRI) introduced by the WEF measures the propensity for countries to exploit the opportunities offered by ICTs and their impact on a country's competitiveness. The NRI is a composite of three components: the environment for ICT offered by a given country or community (e.g. market, political, regulatory, and infrastructure environment), the readiness of the country's key stakeholders (e.g. individuals, businesses, and governments) to use ICT, and the usage of ICT among these stakeholders (WEF, 2013).

For the measurement of the dimensions of the digital divide it needs to be taken into account that the comparison between all countries worldwide is an enormous undertaking and the outcome is due to the magnitude of combinations not clearly understandable. Therefore, the ITU clusters the countries in four different categories, indicating their developmental stage, whereby the mean of the IDI values for a given period was taken as basis. The four groups of economies in the year 2011 are (ITU, 2012):

- *High*—These economies have reached an IDI value above 6
- *Upper*—The IDI values vary between 3.92 and 5.86
- *Medium*—The IDI values vary between 2.24 and 3.86
- *Low*—The IDI values are below 2.24

The large differences between developed and developing countries in terms of ICT levels are clearly apparent from the IDI values, which are on average twice as high in developed than in developing countries.

Analogous to the four categories of the ICT development state of economies, Minghetti and Buhalis (2010) characterised four different types of tourism destinations:

- *High digital access destinations* have a strong intention to integrate the internet and online communication into their daily business operations and are also very successful in doing so. These type of destinations have high quality website, are easy to reach online via multiple channels, generate a high number of online bookings and undertake large e-marketing efforts.
- *Upper digital access destinations* dispose of a rather good online presence, but the implementation of ICTs is less sophisticated and hence less productive. E-commerce is applied only for special products and not the whole service-range, nonetheless yielding positive results.

- *Medium digital access destinations* are characterised by rather poor infrastructure which is the reason for the intention of ICT usage being quite low. The destination website is an information platform, but not used to generate online bookings.
- *Low digital access destinations* are characterised by a minimal physical and mental access to ICT usage, and highly dependency on intermediaries to market products to customers in high or upper digital access markets.

2.3 *Benefits of ICT Usage in the Tourism Industry*

ICTs have changed the way people search for information, purchase, and experience their holidays, as well as how they evaluate it, with no limitations in terms of time and space (Buhalis & Law, 2008).

For the supply side, ICTs have the potential to change the business processes, structures and strategies of suppliers of tourism offers. ICTs have become useful and indispensable to improve customer service, information distribution. Therefore, ICTs can be regarded as fundamental strategic and operational management tools for businesses. For the tourism industry, the application of ICT means the chance to distribute information about the business to a larger pool of prospects. Therefore, one of the main issues for tourism entities becomes not the costs of integrating ICTs in their business operations, but rather the indirect costs caused by not doing so. The application of ICTs can no longer be considered an option for touristic enterprises, but rather an obligation, because without ICTs they do not reach the same pool of possible clients as their competitors and suffer therefore from a competitive disadvantage (Kim, 2004).

In order to be able to fully exploit ICTs, organizations have to decide which ICTs are required and best fits to their purposes (Chulwon, 2006), as well as hire qualified and skilled staff members (starting from top managers), who are able to fully implement ICTs during their daily activities (Buhalis & Law, 2008), and having adequate equipment at their disposal (Buhalis, 2003). Due to the many positive impacts ICTs have on businesses, companies are urged to implement new technologies, because otherwise they risk to lose ground in the competitive global economy (Alrawabdeh, Salloum, & Mingers, 2012).

In accordance with the categorisation of different digital access destinations (see Sect. 2.2). Minghetti and Buhalis (2010) have also clustered the tourists into four different categories: high, upper, medium and low digital access tourists:

- *High digital access tourists* are characterised by a high socioeconomic status and high degree of acceptance and usage of ICTs in their daily lives.
- *Upper digital access tourists* have a good general knowledge of ICTs and acceptable digital usage skills, but lack to a certain extent trust in the new technologies and are thus restricted in fully experiencing the potential benefits of them.

- *Medium digital access tourists* are typified by their medium or relatively low intention to use ICTs and a rather low involvement due to either low motivation or difficulties in physically accessing the internet or other ICTs.
- *Low digital access tourists* usually have no or hardly any access to ICTs and the internet resulting either from the global or social digital divide. In the latter case these individuals are part of excluded social groups resulting from demographic differences or other, more severe, reasons such as exclusion based on ethnicity.

3 Potential Impact of the Digital Divide on Cultural Tourism

Communication with potential and actual visitors is a key task for the management of cultural and heritage resources (Edwards, 2013). The *Communicating Heritage—Handbook for the Tourism Sector* (UNWTO, 2011) identifies four goals for the marketing communication of cultural and heritage resources: facilitate market access, promote specific types of tourism offers, provide incentives for sustainable products and influence the behaviour of visitors. Additionally, the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) indicates the following communication objectives: enabling tourists to gain a richer and more satisfying experience from their visit; creating opportunities for new and enhanced tourism products in lesser known and smaller attractions, motivating visitors to interact more deeply with the place and the local community, increasing cooperation and coordination between the tourism suppliers, tourism organisations and cultural site managers in order to facilitate better integration between their various offers. It is obvious that the effective and efficient use of ICTs play a major role in order to achieve the above mentioned communication goals.

The cultural and heritage tourism sector is highly diversified and fragmented. Some large cultural attractions (e.g. popular palaces, castles, museums) may have very professional organisation and management structures and dispose of substantial financial and staff resources. Smaller and maybe less popular attractions in, for example, rural areas may have to be operated with a small number of employees and rather limited budget. Accordingly, there may be significant differences in the ICT implementation and the ICT usage among cultural and heritage sites, which might have an impact on the way how business processes are handled and information is managed and exchanged. However, visitors are no longer satisfied with receiving ‘just information’. New technologies can help cultural and heritage institutions to share information, to promote and sell their offers and to increase the visitor experience. Visitors can be regularly updated on activities and events. Moreover, cultural and heritage institutions can offer some forms of interpretation of the artifacts and content. New technologies can boost participation and enhance interaction with visitors (Pruulmann-Vengerfeldt & Aljas, 2009).

As far as museums are concerned, Bartak (2007) points out an increasing online presence, evolving interactive marketing and the use of social media applications like podcasts and blogs. These communication platforms facilitate a better interpretation of artworks and the interaction among visitors. Besides, these technologies improve the access to art galleries and museums, alleviate customer relationship management and help commercial art galleries to generate revenue. Mobile devices such as smartphones and tablet computers facilitate new forms of interpretation of cultural attractions (e.g. virtual and augmented reality, location based services). Mobile tagging via quick response codes (QR codes) facilitates the combination of physical and virtual information. This technology can be applied for mobile tour guides, increasing interactivity, ticketing or online payment (Bauer-Krösbacher, 2013).

If there are differences in terms of ICT adoption and implementation between the demand and the supply side then these will result in digital gaps and lost opportunities for either side. The above mentioned different stages of digital development (low—medium—upper—high) may cause a digital divide and in turn an information gap between the tourism demand and supply side (Maurer & Lutz, 2012). The OECD (2001) was among the first to develop policies to reduce the digital divide. These policies include:

- Diffusion of access in public institutions,
- Expanding and improving the required infrastructure for the implementation and application of ICTs,
- Diffusion of access and information on a wider scale,
- Improvement of people's skills in using ICTs,
- Provision of subsidised and economic access in schools and other educational facilities,
- Improvement of access in so far underprivileged areas and amongst deprived social groups,
- Fostering education for computer literacy and provision of vocational training.

Cultural and heritage sites can, for instance, collaborate with each other with the aim of establishing a common online presence, or they can cooperate with bigger—in size and in power—businesses (Karanasios, 2007).

4 Implications for Research

So far scholars have paid little attention to the dimension and effect of the digital divide within the cultural and heritage tourism. There is no doubt that—at least in developed countries—cultural and heritages sites have access to ICTs and use them to a certain extent. However, survey data is scarce regarding skills and attitudes of both managers and employees of the various cultural and heritage sectors and respective visitor segments. Furthermore, it could be investigated to what extent the categorisation into low, medium, upper and high ICT development stages is

applicable to cultural tourism with regard to both the businesses and the cultural tourist. This form of clustering will most likely require the development of new models and the definition of measurable indicators specific to the different cultural and heritage tourism sectors. Additional insights could be gained from benchmarking good practice case studies of successful ICT implementation in order to identify drivers and obstacles.

5 Conclusion

Several authors have addressed the phenomenon of the digital divide caused by disparities in access to and usage of ICTs. Due to the special characteristics of the tourism offer ICTs play an important role for information creation and information distribution between the supply and the demand side. The effective and efficient implementation and integration of ICTs within a business are considered as essential for remaining competitive. This conceptual paper intends to raise awareness to the existence of digital divides in the cultural and heritage tourism sector resulting from different levels of ICT adoption and implementation. More research in this field is required to gain conclusive evidence.

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Reflections of Destinations on Social Media

Gökçe Özdemir and Duygu Çelebi

Abstract Competitive environment enhanced the importance of tourist destination marketing recently. Developments in technology such as Internet and social media enable tourists to increase their knowledge about destinations more easily which creates a challenge for destination marketers. Social media has grown rapidly and started to play an increasingly crucial role in destination marketing. This study examines how social media platforms affect the destinations in terms of promotion and marketing in a case of Instagram. In this study, the researchers evaluated the Tourism Calgary's official Instagram account followed by 2,814 people with 338 posts of photos. The photographs were analyzed according to their contents and were categorized into 13 different themes. As such, this study provides opportunities to understand growing importance of social media and the tips to create an effective social media account for practitioners in terms of effective destination marketing to maintain the interest of users.

Keywords Destination • Social media marketing

1 Introduction

The destinations are becoming tremendously competitive worldwide. Because of destinations' complexity in its nature, the destination product needs to be managed and marketed professionally and carefully. As Davidson and Maitland (1997) imply, destinations are amalgams of tourism products offering an integrated experience to consumers. Differentiation of destinations is almost not possible depending on a single characteristic since it is the combination of many products and services offering an integrated experience. Today, new developments in technology such as Internet, social media networking and smart phones enable tourists to reach out information more easily and rapidly. In this regard, destination marketing organizations are encouraged to convey their messages throughout new

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Table 1 Frequency of photographic content

Event	119
City capture	108
Scenery	25
Attraction	24
Collage	12
Landscape	12
Culinary	9
Activity	6
Cafe	6
Various	5
Roaming Gnome Mascot	4
Calgary strong	4
Video	4
Total	338 Posts

marketing tools. Besides destination websites of DMOs create accounts on social media to communicate to broader group of people. There are many kinds of social media, for instance blogs, microblogs, social networking sites and content communities which the most popular ones are Facebook, Twitter, Youtube, Flickr and Instagram (Table 1).

Instagram as a social media networking platform is so popular that there is even a hotel “1888” in Aurtralia that all details have been designed to please users of Instagram. The decor of this special hotel has been selected to be as photo-based as possible. The hotel’s all 90 rooms are decorated with photos taken by Instagram users. On the other hand, users with more than 10,000 followers on Instagram are offered free rooms by this hotel. After check-in, guests can take a selfie, self-portrait of themselves with a frame hanging in the lobby. This hotel is the evidence of; how the tourism establishments combine social media in the tourism industry successfully.

In this study, the researchers examined the Tourism Calgary’s official Instagram account that is followed by 2,814 people with 331 posts of photos. @tourismcalgary functioning for 98 weeks aims to attract, inspire and encourage visitors to travel to Calgary, Canada. A link to official website of Tourism Calgary exists in the account to attract users to visit the website and get a detailed information about the destination Calgary. Tourism Calgary supports its official Instagram account with a strong strategy which followers are included in the promotion of the destination actively. For instance, followers are encouraged to capture a photo of Calgary and upload it with the hashtag “#capturecalgary” so that the best ones are selected and republished by the @tourismcalgary administrators. This strategy have found to be very effective since 4,459 photos are captured and uploaded by either tourists or local residents to promote the destination, it’s features and attractions. This strategy enriches the content of the account and make it more reliable with shared first hand experience which creates an interaction between the followers of @tourismcalgary. The uploaded photos by the Instagrammers with #capturecalgary are reviewed by

the admins of the @tourismcalgary. If the photo is found valuable and meaningful, it's added to the @tourismcalgary with the highlight of the account that posted the original photo to honor the user. This system enables these photos to be reachable by the followers and also encourage others to share their experiential perspectives.

2 Destination Marketing

Destination is a fundamental element of tourism and destinations compete with each other for economical motives in order to draw more tourist expenditure. The competitiveness of a destination is created by joint efforts of many stakeholders and mostly one authority acts as a leader. This process is typically performed by a destination marketing organization, but sometimes local governance takes the role when DMOs are weak in the region. As Pike (2008: 100) states, the attainment of destination competitiveness requires an orientation broader than sales and marketing which is a destination management approach. The traditional approach to destination management strategy both in terms of development and marketing has been derived from the literature on organizational strategy (Scott, Parfitt, & Laws, 2000: 198). Destination management and destination marketing are two distinct but interrelated concepts (Manente & Minghetti, 2006:230).

Blumberg (2005) considers destination marketing as a form of 'market-oriented strategic planning' and hence, as a strategic approach to place development rather than a promotional tool. On the other hand, according to WTO (2007), destination management is a subject of growing importance as destinations compete to provide the highest quality of experience for visitors; and to manage the impacts of tourism on host communities and environments. This means that, destination management takes a variety of forms: it may involve regulating and channeling heavy tourism pressure or it may involve creating tourism demand where none currently exists (Davidson & Maitland, 1997: 96). Consequently, according to Paskaleva-Shapira (2007), defining, envisioning, and planning for a competitive position becomes a matter of each destination's choice. In some respects, destinations have become interchangeable and for that reason destinations need to implement appropriate strategies to respond to the dynamic environment within which they function (Pender & Sharpley, 2005:163).

3 Social Media

Internet technology with the development of Web 2.0 has reached to a tremendous success with the creation of viral spread of information among the users. In this changing environment, the existence of social media has enabled the companies to convey their message more easily and faster than traditional media. Hence, Hvass and Munar (2012) imply that Internet has gained an interactive dimension with the

expansion of user-generated content (UGC) and social media platforms, which is fast becoming an integral part of companies' marketing strategy. On the other hand, the advantages of social media should not only be considered from the corporation point of view, but also from the consumer point of view. Thanks to the internet, consumers can reach out more options and social media is an invaluable communication medium among the consumers. As Assenov and Khurana (2012) state, many consumers now see social media as the most reliable source of information than communications derived from the corporations.

Chan and Guillet (2011) clearly state that it is no longer enough to solely rely on traditional media for marketing, nor is it acceptable for the corporations to simply move the offline sales materials to online. In this regard, social media should be considered as both a particular medium and a supportive tool to enhance the effects of traditional media. Social media has an important role in marketing different from one way communication of which companies used to give out information without interacting with customers (Chan & Guillet, 2011). In this sense, the information in textual or visual form should be updated with fresh, clear and valuable content to engage the users in efficient and user-friendly functions. Moreover, Park and Oh (2012) emphasizes that social media marketing provides an opportunity for timely dissemination of information in a simple, informal manner, and also enables customers to participate in spreading the information.

Unlike traditional WOM, eWOM communications possess exceptional scalability and speed of diffusion (Madasu, 2013) which may confuse tourists with the intensive information gathered from the Internet. In order to stand out from other destinations and get more competitive, social media is a perfect tool to create a distinctive communication channel with reliable and accurate information. In fact, social media is more than a communication tool with the interaction and contribution of the users to the verbal or visual content. Social media account administrators of corporations combines their own messages and the information gathered from the individuals to create a more trustworthy platform and increase the credence of DMO's arguments. In this sense, social media has a much greater effect on tourists' decision making process than the traditional media since the information resource is not solely the corporation. Additionally, Park and Oh (2012) states that social media marketing enhances the brand awareness by engaging customers directly and acts as a significant profit generator.

4 Research

Tourism Calgary's official Instagram account has 338 posted photographs during the time the research was conducted in March 2014. The researchers started to evaluate the @TourismCalgary at the beginning of March but as the time passes, the number of photographs has increased constantly, so the number of posts at the end of March was taken into account. The content was categorized and fall into 13 different categories according to their content. Followers can receive

information via Tourism Calgary's official account about various updated information such as events, art and so forth. These 13 categories include Activity, Attraction, Cafe, Calgary Strong, City Capture, Collage, Culinary, Events, Landscape, Scenery, Video, Roaming Gnome Mascot and finally the category of "various". "Various" includes; a historic photograph of the city, the election of the mayor, the announcement of the new admin and two posts about the art in Calgary.

Six photos are related with the new cafes' opening in Calgary. Other six photos are related with the activities that the visitors can take part in such as winter sports, cycling or any activity that is suggested to be done at the weekends. The Instagram account of Tourism Calgary strives to create an effective destination marketing approach also through photographs associated with a the theme of "scenery". @TourismCalgary also inspire people to share photographs with the #capturecalgary in their own accounts which the best ones are chosen to be posted by the official account. This type of contest encourages people either citizens or tourists to capture distinctive photos and share it with their own followers. In this regard, supportive actions are undertaken by the followers. One hundred and eight photos are the city captures taken by the people reflecting different perspectives of the city experience. The collages contain mostly the city captures but with several combinations of photos. Travelers often seek specifically for places with a rich cuisine, food and drink festivals, and cooking classes. Thus, this account gives a detailed information to the followers about the culinary experience in Calgary with nine photographs. Photos of Calgary's landscape are definitely significant and unique that can attract tourists to the destination. The city attractions of a destination have always a major role in marketing efforts and thereby, @TourismCalgary shares 24 photographs of city attractions. Attractions include Calgary Zoo, Calgary Tower, Tellus Park, Heritage Park, The Family of a Man Sculpture, Military Museum, Peace Bridge, Wonderland and so forth. In addition, the other prominent category is Culinary. Culinary can be referred as the local cuisine that people enjoy during their travel as a main or supporting motive.

The category "events" has the highest amount of photographs that are posted that account to 119. In this category events include; International Day of Happiness, Calgary Stampede, Winter Carnival, Bike Calgary Event, Gold Medal Celebration, Winsport, Hot Chocolate Fest, Saddledome, White Hat Ceremony and Awards, Happy Shopping Day, Festival Italiano, BOW 2013, Music Festival, Beaker Head Festival, CIFF 2013, Calgary International Film Festival, Tour of Alberta, TOA13, Cycling Race, Calgary Fringe Festival, Sled Island Music & Arts Festivals, Top Chef Canada, Calgary's Dining Festival, Tweet Dress, Calgary Folk Music Festival and Happy Canada Day. In this sense, @TourismCalgary tries to create a dynamic and energetic image with an intensive events calendar that will make the tourists visit the destination at different times for several reasons or extend their stay. On the other hand, @TourismCalgary tries to create a consciousness with a hashtag #calgarystrong. "Calgary Strong" has a remarkable meaning; "We will rebuild together" which is about recovering of the city after a massive flooding that occurred on June 20, 2013. Thus, Tourism Calgary's Instagram account also aims to create a synergy among the followers for the support of the City's survival from

crises in addition to the promotion of the city worldwide. Roaming Gnome is a mascot travelling all around the world used by Travelocity till 2004. @TourismCalgary account has engaged this famous mascot to their marketing efforts of Calgary with four photos. The last category is related with the uploaded videos as another Instagram tool. The account has four videos posted to attract potential visitors. Videos despite the photography enrich the visual image of the City with motion and sound that captures moments of time.

5 Conclusion

Traveler marketers have found a various type of methods to engage potential visitors and destinations in a virtual environment. The most popular and efficient method is the usage of social media to attract potential tourists which Instagram is one of them. Instagram is a new social media phenomenon to explore the destination with different perspectives provided by “followers”. Instagram is especially, a picture-based application that offers strong visuals to attract attention and also create an awareness for destinations. Instagram is stronger than other social media applications since a photograph worths so many words and expressions. Instagrammers can upload the photos they take and use the appropriate filter to enhance the quality of the pictures. They can also search, view, like and comment on the other photographs. Thus, Instagram enable potential tourists to search a specific destination through either hashtag or user search functions. Instagram allows all the photos of destinations and all the related comments to be viewed by the users to assist in foreseeing travel experiences.

From Destination Marketing Organization’s (DMOs) point of view, DMOs should create effective social media strategies, if they want to keep up with the trends in the tourism business. In marketing of destinations through Instagram, creating an official account of a DMO is the main step to exist in the social media successfully. In order to get excellent results from the promotion of DMOs through Instagram, the account should be managed properly by social media experts with updated and correct information. As a first step, creating an official account requires travel marketers to get a clear and appealing username which suits with the promotional message of a DMO. Thus, if the brand name of a DMO or the destination is used, potential tourists can easily find the official account. To keep the account dynamic, active and interesting, social media professionals of the DMO should share destination related photos frequently. On the other hand, consistency in sharing photos with informative text is the key element when promoting a destination through Instagram. Additionally, asking questions about the destination could be the perfect way to keep the Instagram account interactive. The other important strategy is; telling a story; marketers should make sure about their photos tell a story about a destination. In addition, travel marketers can engage photos and stories which are highly related with the destination. Another strategy fo the travel marketers is to use their own unique hashtags which enable the potential tourists to

find images that interest them. Therefore, in a general sense to generate buzz and interest in social media, keep that attractiveness alive and increase the number of users require dynamism, colorfulness, fun and eye catching posts in addition to accurate information.

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An ICT-Based Competence Framework to Facilitate Intercultural Competence Continuous Professional Development

Simon Caruana

Abstract The changing nature of the socio-economic environment requires the operators update their knowledge and skills continually in order to remain competitive. Tourism is no exception. The Maltese Tourism industry has gone from a fairly homogenous to a much more diverse type of visitor who not only has different interests but may uphold culturally diverse values, beliefs and behaviour compared to those of the persons employed in tourism. The nature of the sector itself suggests that Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) may help support training. ICT may be used facilitate the acquisition, assessment and ultimately accreditation of intercultural competence related knowledge and skills within a Continuous Professional Development (CPD) programme. To ensure the success of such an initiative, it is important to determine the fundamental knowledge and skills making up intercultural competence and devise a pedagogical setting which is appropriate, for the intended audience. Constructive Alignment may well provide the answers in this respect, as it permits the parties involved (teachers and learners) to ‘construct’ the requirements or evidence in order to achieve a specific objective or Intended Learning Outcome (ILO). However, the myriad of ICT-based solutions calls for a detailed investigation in order to select the appropriate electronic environment in order to truly enable the take-up, assessment and accreditation of intercultural competence.

Keywords Intercultural Competence • Constructive Alignment • Information and Communication Technologies • Continuous Professional Development

1 Introduction

The value of having cultural aware staff in tourism and hospitality is not new (Southall, 2009). Shortage of cultural skills, like other soft skills may jeopardise economic recovery, growth and competitiveness (ACTE, 2010; OECD, 2012). For

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example, being unable to interpret the cultural signals coming from the customer is often a critical factor for not providing a high level of service.

Employers have often expressed concern that Higher Education graduates have inadequate/incomplete soft skill-sets, thus unable to quickly take up roles within the workforce and rapidly become active contributors/leading figures. Constable and Touloumakos (2009) suggest that many different countries share the same concern. Some employers tend to see most new graduates as somewhat self-centred, unable to integrate within an existing team and expecting to be placed in a senior position without demonstrating the right qualities for leadership etc. (Schulz, 2008).

Maltese policy makers frequently make reference to human capital as being the only resource of the country and that the further and higher education sectors are critical towards providing learners with the right skills and competences (NCFHE, 2009a, 2009b). This becomes evident when looking at the Maltese tourism and hospitality sector, which is significant contributor to the nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) with a value of around 24 % (Azzopardi, 2011), which is well above the European Union average of around 10 %¹ (EC, 2013a).

2 Twenty-First Century Culture Skills, Tourism, Maltese Higher Education and Information and Communication Technology

The Maltese Tourism Sector

The relevance of the tourism/hospitality sector to the Maltese economy was re-affirmed in the Malta Government's Vision 2015 (OPM, 2007) document where the tourism sector is identified as one of the seven 'areas of excellence' that will be making up the Maltese economy in the near future. The Maltese National Commission for Further and Higher Education (NCFHE) Skills for the Future Report (2009a) suggests that thousands of jobs will be created in the tourism and hospitality sector. It also suggests that they will be requiring what they define as 'Transversal Skills' for all the areas found within the tourism and hospitality sector. A detailed, EU sponsored study has already been carried out (Vassallo, 2010), that compares the current training profiles and existing certification systems in four EU member states, namely Malta, Cyprus Italy and Portugal. The study indicates that there is a need for a skilled workforce in order to step up the degree of service provided. However, there is little if any reference to customer cultural values and the focus is more on operational, problem-solving skills and competencies.

¹ The EC figure refers to both direct and indirect contributions. During the 2013 Malta Hotels and Restaurant's association (MHRA) annual conference, a figure of around 35% taking both direct and indirect contributions to Malta's GDP was quoted.

Tourism and Twenty-First Century Culture Skills

One must also note that the European Commission Directorate-General for Enterprise and Industry places great importance on the need to develop a skills framework for the Tourism sector. At present, there is an ongoing project that ultimately aims to create an EU-based skill competency framework by the end of 2014. This is being developed in conjunction with the European Skills/Competences, qualifications and Occupations (ESCO) that has the objective of classifying jobs, qualifications and skills in a standardized fashion (ESCO, 2013) with the scope of facilitating job mobility within the tourism/hospitality industry across EU member states (EC, 2013b). Although there is no direct reference to culture-related skills and competences, there is a reference to various documents that refer to the eight key competences for lifelong learning (Eur-Lex, 2006);

1. Communication in the mother tongue;
2. Communication in foreign languages;
3. Mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology;
4. Digital competence;
5. Learning to learn;
6. Social and civic competences;
7. Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship;
8. Cultural awareness and expression.

Some of the above competences refer directly to culture-related skills and competences, in particular competences no. 2, 5, 6 and 7.

When discussing cultural values at the workplace, Kirkman, Lowe, and Gibson (2006) argue that it is almost inevitable not to mention Geert Hofstede landmark cultural values framework. They argue that while other frameworks have been developed it is probably the most influential. They list a total of 40 different journals having published studies between 1980 and 2002 where Hofstede's cultural values framework has been utilised. Mead and Andrews (2011) share a similar view. However, it appears that the majority of the studies using Hofstede's cultural values framework (Kirkman et al., 2006), seem to treat the relationships between employees and management albeit in different settings, either regional or within a particular group sector. Smith et al. (2011) investigate workers within cross-national settings whereas Lee-Ross and Pryce (2010) look at diversity management in tourism and hospitality.

Weiermair (2000) was among the first to investigate the tourists' perceptions in a cross cultural environment. Crotts and Erdmann utilize Hofstede's model (2000) to suggest that national culture does indeed influence the evaluation of travel related services. Southall (2009) looks specifically at the impact of cultural values on business practices in the tourism and hospitality industry. She argues that just as it is important to take into account the employees' diverse cultural values, it is equally important to meet the diverse cultural needs of the visitors.

Southall goes on to suggest that the need for cultural awareness is a concern for all the stakeholders, namely the tourists themselves and the services providers.

From a purely business perspective, having the leaders in the industry who are able to understand the diverse cultures of visitors is critical. They are the ones who will develop policies and take decisions that will have an effect on the culturally diverse tourists. Their decisions will affect income generation and competitiveness that will have an impact upon long-term survival (Southall, 2009).

However, while cultural awareness is fundamental, defining culture within the appropriate context becomes a critical factor (Southall, 2009). Given the significance of the Maltese tourism and hospitality sector within Malta's economy, being able to identify the 'Essential twenty-first century cultural' skills for the Maltese hospitality industry is a fundamental step.

Intercultural Competence as a Key Twenty-First Century Skill

Deardorff (2004) was among the first to put forward the concept of Intercultural Competence. Her initial research was focused on international education and the need to have successful intercultural interactions between students hailing from diverse regions. Rather than attempting to 'classify' individuals, she looked at the characteristics that would ultimately form a person's cultural baggage. This led her to develop a model for intercultural competence which consisted of the following components:

1. Attitudes
2. Knowledge
3. Skills
4. Internal Outcomes
5. External Outcomes

Deardorff (2004) argues that the first three form the base upon which it would be possible to develop the individual's internal and external outcomes.

The original model was further developed by the Boecker (2008) in conjunction with Deardorff. In this respect intercultural competence was defined as:

The ability to interact effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations, based on specific attitudes, intercultural knowledge, skills and reflection

Their main objective was to develop an intercultural competence model that would facilitate the take-up of the principles found in Intercultural Competence by business corporations as a response to the challenges business organisations are facing due to the current economic scenario. They go on to suggest that Intercultural Competence may actually be the key competence for the twenty-first century (for business organisations to survive). French (2010) investigates the effects on management brought about by intercultural competence or its lack of in today's global business environment and suggests that the today's managers must be exposed to intercultural competence in order to operate effectively.

Boecker (2008) do warn that to achieve the aspects indicated in the above model they must be integrated within an educational setting. This would serve to provide, an ongoing process-oriented evaluation and the development of context and situation specific evaluative indicators that would form the basis for assessing

intercultural competence. In this paper, Constructive Alignment is being suggested as the educational base upon which it would be possible to assess effectively intercultural competence.

Constructive Alignment

In Constructive Alignment Biggs and Tang (2011) appear to provide a learning theory that is able to respond to the current challenges posed to HE today (e.g. gradual decrease in funding/resources, increase in the number of persons opting for HE) yet retain a high quality of return in terms of the ‘quality’ of the graduates provided—as a result being able to respond to the challenges posed by twenty-first century society. Maric (2013) makes a direct reference to globalisation, demographic changes and other changes in social, technological and economic values witnessed in today’s society are having a profound effect on education, in particular Higher Education Institutions. Students need to be provided with new skills and knowledge. Consequently, universities need to evaluate their relationships with various stakeholders in the light of the three main dimensions of a university mission:

1. Teaching and education
2. Research and innovation
3. Knowledge transfer and community service.

These challenges are similar to the ones being faced when attempting to include intercultural competence within a lifelong learning process (Boecker, 2008). Biggs and Tang (2011) argue that for effective teaching there must be:

1. Student involvement in learning (motivation)
2. An improvement in the teaching/learning climate
3. Reflective teaching (transformative reflection)
4. Teachers improving their teaching

Within constructive alignment students ‘construct’ meaning through relevant learning activities. This is not imparted or transmitted but is something that the learners have to create themselves. The role of the teacher is that of a catalyst. The ‘alignment’ refers to the fact that the desired outcomes of the teaching is related not only to the content but also to the level of understanding that is required to be reached by the students. An appropriate environment must therefore be created to facilitate the engagement of the students within the activities provided designed to achieve the intended learning outcomes. Through participation in the learning activities, the students would be able to provide the evidence of their achievement of the previously set learning outcomes. This implies a change of the design of teaching. Students cannot be taught ‘evidence’, they are to reflect on their experience and provide it themselves. The teaching method has to include a series of negotiations as to how the evidence might be provided and the assessment would be based on the quality of the evidence provided by the students.

The approach suggested by Biggs and Tang (2011) suggests that there are areas where ‘soft’ or culture-related skills are an integral part of the HE teaching

Table 1 Areas for developing functional knowledge

Graduate outcomes	Sample ILO's	Teaching/learning situations
Professional competence	Apply, solve problems	Laboratory, workplace, placement
Creativity	Design, invent	Workplace, home, studio
Communication	Explain, write	Everywhere
Teamwork	Cooperate, Lead	Workplace, classroom, computer simulations
Lifelong learning	Reflect, develop	Everywhere
Ethical sense	Explain codes of practice, behave ethically	Classroom, workplace, placement

Biggs and Tang (2011, p. 162)

Table 2 Mapping intercultural competence with constructive alignment outcomes

Intercultural Competence (Deardorff)	Constructive Alignment Graduate Outcomes (Biggs and Tang)
Intercultural Knowledge and Skills	Communication Professional Competence Teamwork Creativity
Attitudes	Lifelong Learning Ethical Sense

environment that requires the learner acquires functional knowledge. That is knowledge that implies the use of theory (declarative knowledge) to solve problems. Rather than soft skills or twenty-first century culture skills they use the term ‘Graduate Outcomes’ and suggest some simple Intended Learning Outcomes (ILO’s) for each, together with possible teaching/learning situations as indicated in the Table 1 below:

An attempt was made during this research process to map out the knowledge (Table 2), skills and attitudes forming the basis of Deardorff’s model (2004) with the graduate outcomes indicated above by Biggs and Tang (2011) to obtain the following:

In this way, it would be possible to design the required Intended Learning Outcomes (ILO’s) as envisaged by Biggs and Tang (2011) to help learners acquire intercultural competence knowledge, skills and attitudes which would enable then to achieve the internal and external outcomes as envisaged by Deardorff’s model (2004).

The Role of ICT in Assisting Acquisition and Accreditation

Against this backdrop, Information and Communication Technology (ICT) would be the vehicle used to develop a system by which:

1. Students will be able to record their ‘evidence’ of intercultural competence knowledge and/or skill acquisition

Table 3 Role of ICT in supporting students' acquisition and assessment of 21st skills

CONSTRUCTIVE ALIGNMENT PRINCIPLES		
<i>STUDENTS SUBMIT EVIDENCE AND OBTAIN FEEDBACK AS INDICATED IN THE INTENDED LEARNING OUTCOMES (ILO's)</i>	<i>EVIDENCE WILL INDICATE THE LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE/SKILL AS SUGGESTED BY THE ILO'S. EVIDENCE WILL ALSO INDICATE SUITABILITY OF THE TEACHING AND LEARNING ACTIVITIES (TLA'S) BEING APPLIED</i>	<i>TEACHERS ASSESS STUDENTS' EVIDENCE AND PROVIDE FEEDBACK. STUDENTS ARE ABLE TO REFLECT AND MODIFY/ IMPROVE EVIDENCE PROVIDED. TEACHERS ACCREDIT THE KNOWLEDGE/SKILL COMPETENCE LEVEL OBTAINED BY STUDENTS</i>
ICT SUPPORTING PLATFORM		

2. Provide an environment whereby feedback from academic staff and other students would encourage reflection on the evidence provided and therefore subsequent amendments/improvements to the 'evidence' provided
3. Academic staff will be able to assess and subsequently accredit the student with a defined competence level for a intercultural competence characteristic basing themselves upon the 'final' evidence provided by the student.

These are reflected within the three main components of Constructive Alignment. That is:

1. Writing the Intended Learning Outcomes (ILO's)
2. Designing the Teaching Learning Activities (TLA's)
3. Assessing and grading the students' performance

This may be visualized as follows (Table 3):

Salmon (2002), had suggested that participants engaging on electronic forms of learning should be able to reach a stage whereby they become somewhat critical and self-reflective. This is to be linked with the acquisition of meta-cognitive skills (ability to understand and control their own thinking).

Biggs and Tang (2011) also make a reference that to solve novel problems; one must be able to use reflective/metacognitive skills.

If dealing with emergent problems is what graduates are supposed to be able to do, undergraduate teaching should foster self-managed learning and assessment. The generic and content-specific study skills mentioned earlier only challenge students to apply, generalize and refine their understanding of what is given. Reflective learning skills and strategies require students to go further: to manage problems and questions that they have not previously addressed.

(Biggs & Tang, 2011, p: 177)

Herrington, Reeves, and Oliver (2010) suggest that to facilitate reflection, a learning course must provide:

1. Authentic context and task requiring decision making

2. Non-linear organisation of materials and resources to enable students to return to any element if desired
3. The opportunity for learners to compare themselves with experts
4. The opportunity for learners to compare themselves with others learners in varying stages of accomplishment.

If these aspects are truly achieved then another aspect of the intercultural competence model would have been seen to, that of Internal Outcomes, the result of which would be that to encourage intercultural reflection. As a result the student participants would be now equipped with the necessary skills, knowledge and attitudes to be able to engage with others withholding diverse cultural values in a constructive manner.

The challenge lies in identifying the appropriate ICT tool that would be able to support effectively the aspects outlined in Table 3. The need to record and store evidence, reflect upon it, improve it through the feedback obtained and ultimately assess it, is key towards the accreditation of any twenty-first century skills including culture-related skills such as intercultural competence. As a result, the assessment of the students' evidence (Biggs & Tang, 2011) in an electronic format becomes fundamental any ICT tool to be used.

The Joint Information Systems Committee (JISC) defines electronic assessment or e-assessment as follows:

E-Assessment is the end-to-end electronic assessment processes where ICT is used for the presentation of assessment activity, and the recording of responses. This includes the end-to-end assessment process from the perspective of learners, tutors, learning establishments, awarding bodies and regulators, and the general public.

(Effective Practice with e-Assessment, JISC, 2007, p. 6)

Well designed and deployed assessments can result in more effective learning for a diversity of learners. Moreover, the use of the right technologies may contribute significantly as e-assessment can support personalisation (JISC, 2007). Further evidence seems to suggest that the use of e-portfolios, blogs, virtual world scenarios and other Web2.0 related tools may provide a more authentic assessment experience.

By combining ICT based assessments with the academic institution's management information system (MIS), it would be possible to generate rapid reliable data about the progress being done by learners. Areas where the learners are having difficulties are identified quicker and it would therefore be relatively simpler to take remedial action (JISC, 2007).

However implementing electronic forms of assessment presents various challenges. The management of the IT infrastructure must be able to respond to fluctuating periods of demand brought about by e-assessment. Examination regulations need to be re-assessed to incorporate the new practices and procedures so as to include issues of authentication and accessibility. Higher educational institutions may also need to consider issues of accessibility (to e-assessment itself) and intellectual property rights (IPR) in item bank development and maintenance of

the required IT infrastructure. Concerns related to malpractice and plagiarism need to be identified and adequately addressed (JISC, 2007). In brief:

1. Developing an e-assessment strategy that incorporates pedagogical and technical aims.
2. Introducing sustainable ways of supporting computer-based assessments.
3. Setting up a viable physical and IT infrastructure to support e-assessment to the required scale.
4. Instituting policies and procedures to ensure the validity of e-assessments.

However, to implement such a setup, there needs to be a re-think even at the institutional level. Many institutions are now faced with new models of teaching and learning that need to be taken up in order to meet the needs of a new generation of learners (McLoughlin & Lee, 2008). This is viewed as a critical challenge by the New Media Consortium (NMC) Horizon Report (2009). In brief:

Students are different, but a lot of educational material is not
(Horizon Report, 2009, p6)

Educational institutions may be using materials and techniques that were developed years back. Today's students have very different experiences and institutions must adapt to current student needs and identify new learning models. Similarly, assessment methods need to be adapted to the current students. Higher educational institutions are also expected to measure and prove through formal assessment that students are learning. Data collection and mining of student information systems for such evidence is being considered as a component of accreditation. However, some of the current systems may not always be capable of managing and interpreting real time information flows on the scale that is required (Horizon Report, 2009).

Staff needs to be adequately trained and supported, an adequate quality assurance policy needs to be implemented and due to the high level of resources required, and e-assessment needs full managerial and financial support. A sustainable strategy needs to be devised that would include the upgrading and replacing of computer hardware, if required. These developments can help to establish a more learner-centred approach towards assessment (JISC, 2007). These would include:

1. A technology-rich learning environment;
2. On-demand testing and item banks;
3. Interoperability of systems;
4. e-portfolios as assessment tools.

Equally important are the challenges posed by learner-focused practice:

1. Issues of interoperability, copyright and Intellectual Property Rights (IPR) related to item bank development
2. Adoption of common technical standards to facilitate interoperability between systems
3. Managing the availability of on-demand testing
4. Harnessing the potential of new technologies in assessment practice

Redeker, Punie, and Ferrari (2010) make a direct reference to the electronic assessment of twenty first century skills. They argue that ICT offers many opportunities to support assessment formats that can capture complex skills and competences that are otherwise difficult to assess. There is however, the need for further research and more importantly the need to make a ‘conceptual shift’ between what they term traditional and twenty-first century testing. This will help develop assessment pedagogies, frameworks, formats and approaches that reflected the core competences required for living in the twenty-first century.

ICT Tools Under Consideration

Various tools are currently being investigated, such as OpenBadges (2013), iTEC widgets (2013) and Tackk (2013) and more ‘traditional’ tools such as eportfolios (JISC, 2007) e-learning platforms (Moodle, 2014) and others. At this stage of the research process the main criteria that being used as preliminary benchmarks are that of assessment, student reflection and feedback provision. Flint and Johnson (2011) point out that assessment surrounds all that students do. By improving assessment it would be possible to improve the students’ experience and therefore encourage them to take up continuous professional development (CPD) courses. Gray, Thomson, Sheard, Clerehan, and Hamilton (2010) acknowledge the potential of using Web2.0 applications for improving assessment. Some of these applications may be integrated with the existing learning management systems. However, they concede that further research is required to address what they consider to be a critical issue. That is, that the guidelines for designing and conducting assessment through student Web2.0 authoring being still underdeveloped.

The use of portfolios was suggested by Biggs and Tang (2011) as one way of recording students’ evidence. The electronic alternative, the e-portfolio appears to provide an even more attractive prospect. An e-portfolio, was defined (DFES, 2005) as an electronic means of recording personal learning and achievement supported by reflective activities through which learners can gain greater understanding of their development and progress over time. Within this definition, the use of e-portfolios was seen to provide opportunities for reflection during the period of learning and to plan ahead. Modern e-portfolio applications have evolved into quite complex applications offering a wide range of tools for both learners and teachers that offer opportunities for reflection. PebblePad (2013) is such example. It provides a myriad of features and facilities similar to most of the tools indicated by McPherson (2012). The user is able to upload and share material, link to learning management systems such as Moodle and Blackboard, and social media applications such as Facebook, Twitter and others. Methods to assess learners’ work and provide feedback are available that permit feedback from both teachers and student peers.

It is also possible to find other applications that may enhance the learning experience further when combining it with existing systems. A recent example is OpenBadges, developed by Mozilla (2012) as an open, free system.

In academia, one example of where Open Badges is being explored is the Cloudworks devised by Institute of Educational Technology at the Open University in the United Kingdom (2013). Another is Passport at Purdue University in the

United States (2011). Each course has a curriculum and to acquire certification, specific requirements are laid out that need to be met by the course participants. These examples suggest that it is possible to integrate this system to existing learning management systems in order to enhance the learner's experience and at the same time provide an environment whereby it would be possible to assess and accredit the competence acquired in a defined 21st skill.

The Innovative Technologies for Enabling Classrooms (iTEC) project (iTEC, 2013), was intended to be a project that included a series of ICT-based applications as deliverables. Some of these deliverables such as the iTEC Widget store, is available for use and may be added on the existing Learning Management Systems (LMS) such as Moodle in order to enhance the students' learning experience. Tackk is another application that may be used to enhance one's learning experience by capturing existing content and possibly developing it further and re-publish it on the web.

On the other hand, one must also be aware of the continual development that is being carried out in well-established LMS's. The UoM has adopted Moodle as its e-learning platform and the latest version of Moodle, has a new additions and updated features such as the 'Workshop' which scope is that to encourage collaborative learning and peer-based assessment (Moodle, 2014). The advantages of working with this platform within the planned CPD programme lie in that support is readily available, both when it comes to user-based support and training but also in technical support, which is provided by the IT Services section of the University of Malta (UoM, 2013). Such support will not be available for tools and applications that would not be formally endorsed by the UoM IT Services. Moreover, any application needs to be formally approved prior to being made available for UoM staff and students.

One must mention that the University of Malta's Information Technology Services Unit is in the process of evaluating other tools and applications that will be implemented during 2014. Similarly, other applications being developed by other entities may prove to be a useful tool for the purposes of assessing and accrediting soft skills. While it would be possible to use them for research purposes, they would need to be brought to the attention of the UoM IT services for a formal appraisal and approval for usage by all UoM registered users.

3 Conclusion

The assessment and accreditation of intercultural competence is the driver that will determine the final ICT-based environment that will be used for Continual Professional Development (CPD) courses at the UoM Institute of Tourism, Travel and Culture. The first step would be to create a series of scenarios that will stimulate student reflection and the generation of evidence in response to tasks assigned using the principles of Constructive Alignment. The outcome of these exercises should facilitate assessment and ultimate accreditation for a given intercultural competence component.

There are however, other challenges that need to be addressed further on. The first is to carry out a stakeholder analysis exercise in order to determine the key stakeholders. While it is not the purpose of this paper to delve in the actual stakeholder analysis, preliminary evidence indicates the need to engage with the academic staff of the Institute of Tourism, Travel and Culture, the student participants but also with the IT/technical staff from the UoM to ensure that this project would be a successful one.

The second challenge is that to be able to assess the level of intercultural competence acquired by a participant based upon the evidence (assignments given, etc.) provided for assessment. This requires the development of an appropriate competence framework for each of the components making up intercultural competence. Each component will be analysed to identify clearly identifiable items or 'facets' that lie within facet (Giess, Wild, & McMahan, 2008; Hjørland, 2013). Academic staff and student participants would be able to determine the 'evidence' required to acquire a specific level of competence. Student participants would also be in a position to self-assess the level of competence achieved along the framework provided and reflect upon their progress. Finally, academic staff would be provided with the tools to assess and provide feedback to the student participants and ultimately accredit the participants acquired level of intercultural competence.

It is hoped that the outcome of this exercise will provide Tourism Studies participants with the required level of intercultural competence required by today's socio-economic environment. However, this exercise is by no means complete. A further area that is being looked into is that of involving other stakeholders such as employers. The usage of an ICT-based environment should facilitate the communication between different stakeholders and in the future it would be possible to go away from a relatively generic approach towards a more customised approach. By looking at specific intercultural competence scenarios for very specific categories of tourism/hospitality/cultural heritage professionals, it is hoped that the needs of employers, government agencies and other significant stakeholders would be addressed by devising and continually updating the proposed ICT-based CPD programme.

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Web 2.0 Enhancing Role in Heritage Interpretation Based on Constructivist Learning Theories

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Abstract The aim of this paper is to reveal Web 2.0 as a meaningful heritage interpretative technique that could be employed in heritage interpretation to improve visitor's experience through the constructivist learning opportunities. Constructivist learning theories involve learner in a participatory meaning-making process to foster deep learning and understanding which is enhanced by Web 2.0 functions. Interpretation is an educational process that aims to reveal meanings and values that lie behind the facts and objects.

Interpretation that does not enables interaction among visitor and resource is sterile. As a result there is an interrelation between interpretation and constructivist learning which highlights the value of visitor's participation in the interpretational activities. Web 2.0 is intended to encourage active participation, cooperation and exchange of knowledge and ideas between users. This research presents for functions of Web 2.0 that enhance heritage interpretation: Interaction among users, Content creation and interaction with it, social tagging and Recreation.

Keywords Interpretation • Heritage • Web 2.0 • Constructivist learning theories • Virtual communities • Social software

1 Introduction

In our days we evident an opposition between the quest of authenticity in a inauthentic society by the modern man (Cohen, 1988) and the expansion of computer mediated communities known as virtual societies. Search of authenticity is disclosed in heritage tourism which is associated with monuments, objects and cultures that are transferred from the past to the future and is a fundamental source of income for the heritage destinations. Historical buildings and structures, architectural and historical remnants, museums, landscapes, natural parks, traditions and arts are some forms of heritage. Visitor at a cultural heritage destination might seek

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an escape from the present to the past, education or entertainment and fun. The great importance that has been placed today on the preservation of heritage witnesses the human need for identity and continuity (Tuan, 1977).

Modern tourists that are more experienced and educated, are motivated by learning new things and increasing their knowledge (Moscardo, 1998). Display of information enriched with historical details and architectural descriptions are not enough for the new tourist.

Personal contact with the place or the object/monument, interaction with the surrounding environment and communication with the inhabitants and the local community help postmodern visitor to construct his/her own sense of the historic places (Nuryanti, 1996) and to create personal meanings and values. This mental process is enhanced by interpretation and the outcome is a unique personalized experience. According to F. Tilden (1977) interpretation is an educational activity which aims to reveal meanings that lie behind the objects and places and provoke the visitor in order to stimulate a desire to widen his/her horizon of knowledge. Although information is fundamental for interpretation, the later is more than that, is a revelation of a greater truth that exists underneath the real facts. As interpretation is a critical factor for the quality of visitor's experience (Moscardo, 1996, 1998) it is important to underline the role of visitor's participation in interpreting activities. By the term "participation" F. Tilden referred to the physical act that has special meaning for the participant. By participating the visitor gain a sense of control over his/her experience (Moscardo, 1998).

When designing an interpretative activity an important issue is the media that will be used to achieve the best possible result (Carter, 1997; Emberson & Veverka). Carter (1997) in his interpretation planning notes refers that interpretative media will be determined by the visitor. As a result in order to choose the appropriate interpretational tool we should study and observe visitor's way of act, work, learn, communicate and have fun. It is a fact that modern travelers turn to online communities to seek information and advice, purchase goods and services, built social relationships, find companionship etc. (Wang, Yu, & Fesenmaier, 2002). Therefore it is necessary to study the contribution of social networks and other social software potentials that Web 2.0 offers in the interpretation of cultural heritage.

McLoughlin and Lee (2007) define Web 2.0 as the more personalized and communicative form of World Wide Web that allow active participation, collaboration, sharing and co-construction of knowledge and ideas among users. It enables the user to publicly share his/her opinion, comments and personal experiences. Some applications of Web 2.0 are Facebook, Youtube, Flickr, Wikipedia etc. Constructivist educational theories are employed to evaluate and detect the functions of Web 2.0 that enhance interpretation.

2 Literature Review

Despite the expansion of Web 2.0 little research have been conducted on the use of the latter as an interpretative tool. Freeman (2010) mentioned Flickr's social and visual features that create added value for heritage. Kalfatovic, Kapsalis, Spiess, Van Camp, and Edson (2008) describes how user's interaction with the collections of the Smithsonian museum via Flickr creates value for the resource and enhance consumer's experience. Affleck and Kvan (2008) studied how the use of virtual communities contributes to transform the linear communication model to a circular, reflective one that enables active participation of the public and multiple interpretation.

Moreover, many other surveys on the field of education highlight that the use of Web 2.0 enhance learning (Liburd & Christensen, 2013; McLoughlin and Lee (2007)).

Although recent studies have tended to concentrate on the internet features that enrich heritage interpretation (Kriesel, Gee, & Dickmann, 2004; Ott & Pozzi, 2011; Sigala, 2005; Teather & Wilhelm, 1999) there is limited research on how Web 2.0 could consist an effective interpretative media. Conversely, various published papers are focused on the role of Web 2.0 as an effective educational tool, based on a constructivist approach (Liburd & Christensen, 2013; McLoughlin and Lee (2007)). Considering interpretation as an educational activity (Tilden, 1977), an interconnection was detected between the findings of the previews studies that has been ignored till now: "If the visitor's participation, not only physical but also mental, is a fundamental element of heritage interpretation in order to create a valuable (authentic) experience, then Web 2.0, which emphasizes active participation enhance this outcome". The aim of this paper is to reveal Web 2.0 as a meaningful heritage interpretative technique that could be employed in heritage interpretation to improve visitor's experience through the constructivist learning opportunities.

3 Design/Methodology/Approach

For the needs of this study a literature review of the constructivist learning theories research on heritage interpretation and Web 2.0 environment was conducted.

The starting point was the assumption bellow: If the visitor's participation, not only physical but also mental, is a fundamental element of heritage interpretation in order to create a valuable (authentic) experience, then Web 2.0 specific functions enhance this outcome.

The research aims to:

- Reconsider visitors participation in the interpretive process (transition to circular model interpretation)
- Explain how constructivist learning theories could be applied on heritage interpretation

- Identify how the functions of Web 2.0 could strengthen public participation and hence the effectiveness of interpretation.

4 Moving from Physical Participation and Linear Interpretation to Cognitive-Mental Participation and Circular Interpretation

F. Tilden (1977) mentioned the significance of visitor's physical involvement in the interpretative activities which should be perceived as something special and important. An example is Howard's (2006) reference to the French gastronomy as an integral part of French cultural heritage. Although the tangible product like eating, dancing, drinking and speaking seem to be fundamental, the real heritage lies in visitor's participation and involvement. Consequently participation is a key component of interpretation where the visitor is encouraged to interpret for himself by interacting with the heritage resource (object, building, place etc.).

Postmodern visitor participate in the whole interpretative process and not just in activities that was pre-designed by the interpreter. As according to the constructivist learning theory the student creates his/her own path in education, so the visitor creates his/her personal interpretive experience. The learner today is involved in the determination of the learning method and the received knowledge (Moscardo, 1996; Sigala, 2005). In the same way modern visitor is an active viewer who creates a personal experience by both physical and intellectual-cognitive participation (Sigala, 2005; Voase, 2002).

In that way the passive visitor of the past is replaced by the active visitor of the present. Linear interpretation is substituted by circular discursive interpretation which enables active participation and multiple interpretation. There is no authoritarian truth as messages and meanings are not declarations but arguments that invite visitor to state his/her personal perspective. The meanings and values that derived from Interpretative-learning experience are co-constructed by the collaboration of the local community, visitor, authority and other interested parties (Affleck & Kvan, 2008).

Affleck and Kvan (2008) built a case study in order to engage a virtual community of 3,000 users in the discursive interpretation of Hong Kong. The community was invited by email to contribute their photographic and textual interpretation. The online system that was used for the needs of this research enables collaborative content creation and negotiation of meanings. The user could upload content (photos, text) and comment underneath each contribution. Participant's interpretation was not always a description of the physical place of Hong Kong but experiential stories about it.

Reconsidering visitor's participation in the interpretative process detects a movement from passive to active visitor and from linear to circular interpretation.

Postmodernism implies that cognitive-mental rather than physical engagement improves visitor's experience (Sigala, 2005). Experience is not created by a professional interpreter, it is a product of co-construction. Circular interpretations encourage multiple voices and perspectives (visitors, professionals, institution, local society etc.) while involve tourists in a meaning-making process in order to build their personal experience and understanding (Affleck & Kvan, 2008; Teather & Wilhelm, 1999).

5 Constructivist Learning Theories Enhance Multiple Interpretations

F. Tilden (1977) argues that there is an interrelation between interpretation and learning-education. Interpretation is an educational process that uses direct experience and presentation media to revive meanings and relationships that lie behind the objects. If the relationship of interpretation and learning is a fact then there is also a relation between teacher and interpreter. The purpose of the interpreter is not to inform the viewer but to provoke him/her the desire to learn. The aim of interpretation is to encourage the visitor to broaden his/her horizons of knowledge in order to gain an understanding of the greater truths that lie behind the facts.

As attractive knowledge gains the learner and enlarges his memory (Tilden, 1977), the interpreter should cultivate the visitor's cognitive mechanism of acquiring and retaining information by creating a recreational learning environment (Emberson & Veverka; Sigala, 2005). Scientific terms should be avoided and information should be translated in the language of the learner. While interpretation aims to build a recreational learning experience, today interpretation by costumed guides cause visitor's disbelief about the authenticity of the representation (Affleck & Kvan, 2008). It is therefore necessary to design interpretive activities that stimulate and enhance the visitor's interaction with heritage resource in a way that is effective and creates value for the visitor and the heritage.

Hein (2005) synthesizes some educational-learning theories to design a museum website enables multiple voices and co-construction of meanings. In this model there is no objective information and knowledge is the product of meaning negotiation among visitors and museum. Professional's information is not accepted as a declaration but as an argument that invites visitor to state his/her own view against the museum. Visitor is involved in a meaning-making process where he/she constructs his/her own personal experience and reality. Active involvement and negotiation of meanings are some of the basic principles in constructivism. According to the constructivist learning theories knowledge is not a linear transfer of an objective truth from teacher to learner. There is no authoritarian truth and knowledge is constructed by the learner through a meaning making process (Sigala, 2005; Teather & Wilhelm, 1999; Woo & Reeves, 2007). Social interaction which enables collaboration, negotiation of meanings and sharing of perspectives and experiences

is fundamental in a constructivist educational model. When the active learner shares his/her experiences in a community of peers, where multiple perspectives are negotiated in a discursive activity, real knowledge is derived (Affleck & Kvan, 2008; Fosnot & Perry, 1996; Woo & Reeves, 2007).

Visitor's participation and involvement, social interaction and communication of multiple viewpoints in the interpretation practices contribute to the quality of experience (Moscardo & Ballantyne, 2008). The concept of the active learner and two-way communication that was developed in constructivism replace the one-way communication and the professional authoritarian representation of heritage (Affleck & Kvan, 2008). Closing with Veverka (2000) who mentioned that visitor is not a passive element in the interpretative process but the reason that interpretation exists.

6 Web 2.0 Enhancing Role in Heritage Interpretation

What is Web 2.0

Opposing to Web 1.0, which allows user be passive viewer of information (Liburd & Christensen, 2013), Web 2.0 is an advanced, personalized and more communicative form of the World Wide Web that encourages active participation, collaboration and sharing of knowledge and ideas between users (McLoughlin and Lee (2007)).

Social tools and systems that Web 2.0 uses are called social software and enable the interaction of individuals and groups in the web environment. Web 2.0 facilitates social interaction, information transfer, collaboration and cooperation among users in order to create content and knowledge.

In detail Web 2.0:

- Enables user to create content and interact with it (Affleck & Kvan, 2008; Liburd & Christensen, 2013; McLoughlin and Lee (2007)). For example users could share commemorative photos from their visit in a destination with cultural heritage and discuss with other users about their experience.
- Allows co-creation of content and value addition by the user. An example is the contrast between the Encyclopedia Britannica Online and Wikipedia. The first belongs to a commercial organization and the second in an open virtual community.

In the latter the content is the result of collaboration, alteration and reconstruction and is open to the public for inspection, annotation and change (McLoughlin and Lee (2007)).

When individuals act cooperatively and sharing ideas are more productive intelligence and wisdom of the crowd. (McLoughlin and Lee (2007)).

- Enables user's communication and interaction (Liburd & Christensen, 2013; Ott & Pozzi, 2011; Wang et al., 2002)
- Facilitates the creation of virtual communities where users could interact and share common goals (Affleck & Kvan, 2008; Chung & Buhalis, 2008).

- Facilitates the sharing of information (Liburd & Christensen, 2013)
- Provides customized and personalized information, which creates an enhanced learning experience for the learner (McLoughlin and Lee (2007)).

How Web 2.0 functions strengthen the effectiveness of heritage interpretation?

The new affordances of the Internet strengthen the interpretation of cultural heritage by enabling public participation. As it is already mentioned the effectiveness of interpretation increases when visitor has the opportunity to gain control over activities and participate (Moscardo, 1996). With Web 2.0 informational material is not just stored in places where could be accessed through online search, but is everywhere (even where the user lives and works) and allows daily interaction (Kalfatovic et al., 2008). For example the real time that images are displayed on Flickr modifies them from artifacts into forms of communication and interaction (Kalfatovic et al., 2008). Today the use of Web 2.0 facilitates the exchange and negotiation of knowledge, experience, information and ideas in every stage of travel (before during and after the visit).

The literature review indicates four functions of Web 2.0 that enables interpretation to include the voice of the public:

• Interaction among users

The expansion of social software facilitates the formation of social networks and online virtual communities where user interacts and communicates with other users in an online virtual space. For an important percentage of the public exchange of ideas, building of relationships, communication and involvement are some of the benefits of the participation in a computer mediated community (Buhalis & Chung, 2008; Dholakia, Bagozzi, & Pearo, 2004; Wang et al., 2002). As in every community, members of a virtual community receive benefits like seeking a sense of belonging (Chung & Buhalis, 2008; Mcmillan, 1996; Wang et al., 2002), feeling of an authority that can be trusted (Chung & Buhalis, 2008; Mcmillan, 1996; Wang et al., 2002), seeking identity (Chung & Buhalis, 2008; Freeman, 2010) and getting involved (Chung & Buhalis, 2008). Community boundaries define “us” from “you” and make the member feel free to share his/her own real experience and truth (Mcmillan, 1996). The social context allows members to express themselves, encourage dialogue, increases participation and engage the person in the interpretive process.

• Content creation and interaction with it (comment, recombine, share, organize etc)

Content creation and interaction encourage the participation of visitors, local community, authority, professionals and other interested parts, regardless of where they are, in a negotiation process of experience and meaning (Freeman, 2010; Sigala, 2005; Teather & Wilhelm, 1999). User is no longer a passive information receiver but an active participant who creates content and value (Freeman, 2010). The information is not a statement, but an argument to negotiate (Teather & Wilhelm, 1999). For example through the social network “Flickr” the audience by uploading a photo, can now easily interact and express his/her own perspective and experience of a monument, an object or a place.

Freeman (2010) uses the opportunities of Flickr to create a visual and textual discourse in order to represent the social value of the Sydney Opera House. Social interaction and negotiation that occurs through the upload, comment, exchange and sharing of photos bring the building up to the everyday life. The visual content that was collected depicts the engagement of communities with the monument and proves that heritage value is not static but exists in people's experience.

- **Collaborative information discovery and sharing**

Although the information itself is not an interpretation, it is fundamental component of interpretative (Tilden, 1977) which aims to translate them in language of the visitor (Sigala, 2005). Internet makes information accessible to public (Kalfatovic et al., 2008; Nielsen & Liburd, 2010; Ott & Pozzi, 2011). As the modern student is free to create his own learning path based on his/her needs and interests (Ott & Pozzi, 2011) so the visitor, with the help of Web 2.0, can create his/her own unique experience by choosing the information that matches his/her interests, goals and needs. For example the user through RSS (Really Simple Syndication) can easily collect information from various sources and use them as he wishes.

According to Ott and Pozzi (2011) social software enables the visitor to study not only the architectural features of Colosseum in Rome but also the links among cultures and populations. In that way the user is able to discover a huge amount of information in many different ways and improve his/her ability to retain and recall it (Ott & Pozzi, 2011). As the need for information varies from person to person, visiting a place with cultural heritage for some people could be an escape through art and architecture while for others a study of the historical value of the object/place (Goulding, 2000). As a result a group of visitors could seek information with historical accuracy while others with architectural or social characteristics of an object, place or monument (Goulding, 2000). Web 2.0 with the use of tags (social tagging) helps user to discover information relevant to his/her interests, share it with individuals and communities and choose the level of knowledge she/he wants to reach.

- **Recreation affects the psychology of the visitor**

The successful interpretation should have a balance between the accuracy of the historical data and attractiveness (Goulding, 2000). Web 2.0 is a recreational environment where individual escapes from reality, relaxes and has fun through games or communication. Furthermore audiovisual media that could be used in the Web 2.0 environment cause curiosity and increase the willingness for learning (Kriesel, Gee, & Dickmann, 2004; Moscardo, 1996).

7 Findings

The literature acknowledges the importance of opportunities that provoke visitor to interact, participate and make choices about his/her interpretative experience. Participation through physical activities but also mental engagement in a meaning making process is associated with deep learning and knowledge. The development of constructivism causes a movement from the objective information and the linear one-way interpretation to the subjective meaning and multiple interpretation. The key aspect of this approach is that the meanings and the experiences are constructed by the visitor through collaboration, communication and interaction with other visitors, local society, authority and other interested parties.

The concept of Web 2.0 helps the viewer to be active and expand collaboration, participation, co-construction of knowledge, sharing of existing knowledge and information etc. Four main functions of Web 2.0 according to the literature review enhance heritage interpretation:

- **Interaction among users:** Improves participation through the framework of the virtual communities.
- **Interaction with the content:** Enables multiple interpretation by relating users with the content and by provoking them to express their ideas and experiences.
- **Social tagging:** Improves multilayer interpretation through the new possibilities of targeting specific information coming from various sources.
- **The concept of Web 2.0: Audiovisual content, social games** etc. built a recreational environment which facilitate visitor's provocation.

8 Discussion

As we have already mentioned the functions of Web 2.0 that enhance interpretation based on constructivist learning theories, we should now consider the affordances that are produced through them. McLoughlin and Lee (2007) defines affordance as an action that individual can perform through the use of a particular tool. For example blogging that is based on editing posts by users enables the affordance of interaction. Many affordances are provided through the use of Web 2.0 practices to interpretation, management and heritage.

Social tagging, social commenting, sharing of content and ideas create a public open discourse that produce multiple interpretation which include the knowledge, experience and perspectives of the audience (Kalfatovic et al., 2008). The Smithsonian museum despite the initial belief, that the reduction of heritage value caused by common use and sharing, decided to use Web 2.0 features to expose some of the photographic resource to the public. User was allowed to create tags (social tagging), comment, share and recombine the material. Research findings advocate that the value of the content was increased by user's interaction and the overall experience of the consumer was improved (Kalfatovic et al., 2008).

Web 2.0 functions facilitate public participation in the interpretive process and enhance intangible heritage. The value and meaning of objects, collections and monuments are not anymore fixed and static based only on the architectural and historical characteristics of the heritage resource, but associated with the intangible social value that arises from people's everyday practices (Freeman, 2010). Web 2.0 is the medium that allows individuals to share their everyday experiences (that are connected with the heritage), interpret for themselves and redefine meaning and value.

Furthermore Web 2.0, from the management of the heritage perspective, by enabling users interaction with other users and content increases the interest of people on heritage. Sharing and reproduction of information attracts new audience that otherwise would not have access to the resource (Kalfatovic et al., 2008). For example, the reuse of content in blogs, Wikipedia and other social networks improves the exposure of heritage and makes it visible to the public (Kalfatovic et al., 2008; McLoughlin and Lee (2007)). Additionally an alternative experience is now offered through Web 2.0 for people with physical and mental disabilities (Ott & Pozzi, 2011).

Finally, management could observe people's interaction to detect their needs.

The executives of museums and heritage destinations collect information and improve their knowledge about visitors through the public dialogue that is created on social networks. This would result to an adaptation of museums programs and interpreting to the needs of the public (Kalfatovic et al., 2008).

9 Conclusions

This study aims to detect the value of Web 2.0 as a means of a cultural heritage interpretation based on constructivist learning theories. The literature review that was conducted concludes that while it has been proven that Web 2.0 enhances participatory learning, which according to the constructivist learning theories leads to the real knowledge, there was limited research on how Web 2.0 could constitute a powerful interpretative media.

Constructivist learning theories involve learner in a participatory meaning-making process to foster deep learning and understanding which is enhanced by Web 2.0 functions. According to F. Tilden (1977) interpretation is an educational process that aims to reveal meanings and values that lie behind the facts and objects. Interpretation that does not enables interaction among visitor and resource is sterile. As a result there is an interrelation between interpretation and constructivist learning which highlights the value of visitor's participation in the interpretational activities. Web 2.0 is intended to encourage active participation, cooperation and exchange of knowledge and ideas between users (McLoughlin and Lee (2007)). This research presents for functions of Web 2.0 that enhance heritage interpretation:

- Interaction among users
- Content creation and interaction with it
- Social tagging
- Recreation

10 Limitation

This literature review synthesizes the studies that have already been conducted on the field of education and interpretation and provide useful information for institutions and authorities about the role of Web 2.0 as an interpretational media. As it is a theoretical study it needs to be evaluated and tested. A case study analysis of a museum, a monument or a heritage destination should be built in order to evaluate how Web 2.0 functions that are mentioned above enable visitor's participation in a meaning-making process and improve quality of experience.

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Xperience the CITY: The City of Destination as an Integrator and Its Role in Co-creating Travel Experiences

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Abstract Fast changing trends within a technology driven society and the context of new economic landscape call for new innovative approaches and reconfiguration of roles in existing supply and value chains. Xperience the CITY, is a project aiming to change the way we travel so far, by changing the existing tourism supply chain and taking the City of Destination from a passive to a more active role, acting as an integrator among demand and supply. At the same time it calls for co-creation and invites travelers to co-create travel experiences. Building upon the premises of service-dominant logic that the customer is a co-creator of value and the essence of the experience economy, this project attempts to explore innovative ways where traveling is approached holistically as an end-to-end service. Following an extensive review of literature and an Explorative Research (qualitative), a preliminary model along with a proposed service is developed. In order for this model to be tested and validated, a Validation Research (quantitative) was designed addressing all major stakeholders. By this research the authors obtained valuable insights from 514 Passengers, 42 Hotels, 6 Airlines and 6 Airports, regarding current practices and an almost catholic validation of the preliminary model. Not only passengers are deeply interested in thematic traveling and are ready to co-create with the industry and benefit from such strategies, but Airlines and Airports would be ready to fully incorporate such service into their practices.

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Keywords Tourism Supply Chain • Service-Dominant Logic • Co-creation • Co-creation of Value • Innovation • Experience Economy

1 Introduction

Involving a wide range of stakeholders, both on private and public sector, Tourism Supply Chain (TSC) constitutes a network of tourism organizations engaged in information, combination and travel arrangement services provision (Buhalis & Laws, 2001). It is not only about the supply of tourism products and services but also the marketing of those as well as the creation of new markets—or expending already existing ones—towards greater profits (Zhang et al., 2009). As the main characteristic of the tourism industry lies in the high interdependencies among the various players, in order for value to be added they all need to work together as a value chain when delivering the final tourism service or product to the customer (Yilmaz & Bititci, 2006a, 2006b).

The main stakeholders here are those providing the facilities at destination—suppliers (Hotels, Entertainment Industry, etc.), those facilitating the transportation between the City of Origin and the City of Destination (e.g. Airlines, Airports, etc.), those facilitating the distribution and purchase of the tourism services (e.g. wholesalers, GDSs, travel agencies, etc.) and the City of Destination itself. Within this highly dynamic Tourism Industry, the final customer (or passenger) cannot but be a key stakeholder.

In today's fast changing world, trends in tourism follow the changes in consumer behavior, calling for changes in the current travel and marketing practices—both on services delivered and the way tourism suppliers reach the travelers. Turning their back to mass produced travel services in search of authentic and personalized experiences, travelers now look for these customized offers that can provide them with those unique and memorable experiences. Moreover passengers now have a need to step in and co-create their own value. Reprioritizing authenticity, both travelers and innovative providers, are keep looking for new horizons in the travel concept and new unexplored destinations; event and adventure traveling and the need for local knowledge through sophisticated web-based rental services are few examples of the new landscape in traveling (Dixit, 2013; IPK International, 2012; Travel and Leisure Staff, 2013). Consumer technology is changing traveler behavior, as well as the way people interact and share (Ali, Schaal, & Shankman, 2013), and it is the large amount of personal information available through the wide use of information and communication technology (ICT) such as internet and social media that make it possible for companies to move from impersonal, mass travel solutions to more passenger focused, end-to-end services where the later have an active, co-creating role.

Despite the changes emerging in technology and distribution though—who controls the information, who combines and delivers the travel product or service and how the traveler acquires it—the tourism distribution stays quite the same. In



Fig. 1 Existing model—push strategy

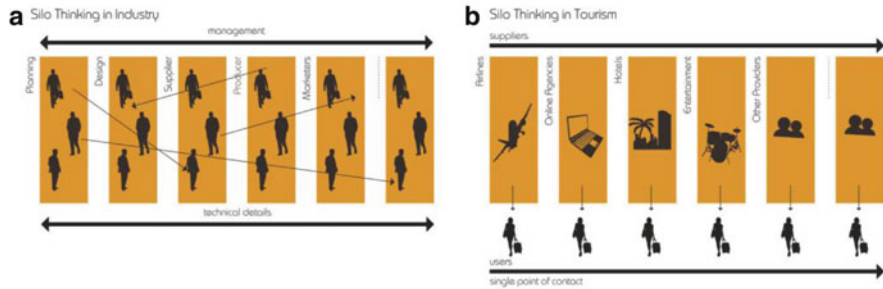


Fig. 2 (a) Silo thinking in industry (general); (b) silo thinking in tourism industry

this current model, two kinds of roles can be distinguished: the active and the passive one. Trying to serve the customer, tourism distributors gather, combine and supply tourism products. In this model the distributors (active role) act and guide tourists towards the City of Destination (passive role). The role of the current passive City of Destination is therefore to—by various marketing strategies or facilities developed—make itself attractive to the travelers. By making so and increasing demand, tourism distributors and suppliers will then come to take advantage of this market and provide all the necessary infrastructure and links to the destination—push strategy (Fig. 1). In continue the traveler will be then pushed to a destination.

Like most of the existing supply chains, the TSC is also characterized by silos—companies (or departments within them) working in their own silo for their own profit (Fig. 2a). Within the tourism ecosystem we see suppliers (e.g. Airlines, Hotels, etc.) often narrowing down their focus into their own silo; instead of an overall travel experience, they form single points of contact with their customers simply supplying a product or service (Fig. 2b). And even though vertical integration (e.g. collaboration between airlines and hotels) is generally apparent, this again is only focused on the product/service provision at a (passive) City of Destination (e.g. airline ticket–hotel room), not an overall co-created experience within an active one.

However, it is only by resource interaction through interactivity and networking that value can be created (Grönroos, 2006; Gummesson, 2008; Normann, 2001). Figure 3a shows how value can be created through integration among the tourism

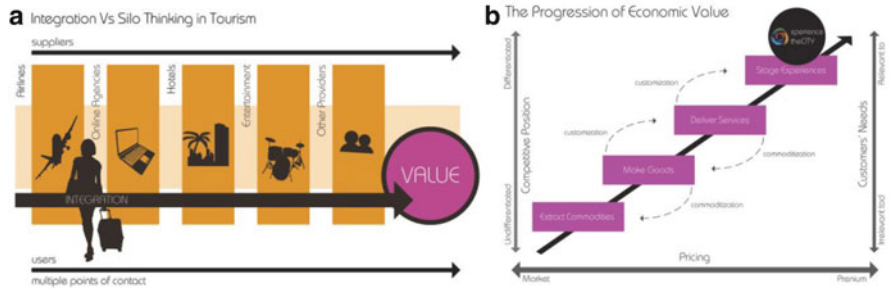


Fig. 3 (a) Integration vs. silo thinking in tourism; (b) experience the CITY within the progression of economic value (source: Pine & Gilmore, 1999)

suppliers. Instead of silos and single points of contact, we move towards multiple contacts points through integration and resource interaction (suppliers–suppliers, suppliers–customers); suppliers’ silos become more abstract and more flexible as the later interact towards value creation.

Xperience the CITY, is a project aiming to change the way we travel so far, by changing the existing tourism supply chain, taking the City of Destination from a passive to a more active role by directly managing its sources (tourism infrastructure), and addressing the end-users and actively co-creating travel experiences with travelers. Instead of a destination push strategy, a destination pull strategy is proposed. The City of Destination is now being called to not just brand and promote itself and its facilities but make targeted offers and bring customers/tourists through co-creation and key collaborations with tourism stakeholders (airports, airlines, hotels, entertainment industry). As seen in Fig. 3b, the emphasis now on the economic value moves from the tourism service itself to the upper level, that of staging experiences (see Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Central role in this concept is therefore the unique and personalized experiences an active traveler can have and co-create at destination towards added value.

Xperience the CITY suggests an innovative strategy where the CITY acts as an integrator between demand (customers) and supply (tourism stakeholders), and co-creates with them. The proposed project takes city and service marketing a step further, directly engaging travelers into peer-to-peer marketing. The later, not only co-create with the City in terms of travel content but they are also called to engage in an active dialogue, altogether aiming in chances of experiencing a City of Destination in a unique way. Throughout this project, new ways of co-creation between the various stakeholders involved in the traveling process—all the three stages (pre-delivery, delivery and post-delivery)—were investigated from a passenger centric approach. The final outcome is a new service and a new strategy towards better ways to experience the City of Destination, with multiple benefits for everyone involved. The project presented here resulted in both a back-end strategy and a front-end service, fully integrated with social media.

This article builds upon the relevant literature of supply chain issues, service-dominant logic, co-creation of value, tourism value chain, innovation, service

marketing and marketing strategies. Forming two main research sub-questions—“What value can the passenger add to the co-creation of value process?” and “What info can the passenger deliver depending on their specific interests and the way they want to experience traveling?”—the authors attempted to explore the status quo of the tourism industry as well as the way stakeholders interact with each other, and how that could lead in co-creation opportunities.

Towards that, as part of the methodology, an Explorative Research (qualitative) and Validation Research (quantitative) were organized. Looking for insights on how business is currently done, key stakeholders were interviewed. The analysis of these first insights along with literature, trends and industry analysis provided a more holistic view on the subject researched (traveling practices, traveling industry, co-creation, services etc.) and led to key issues to be investigated (Synthesis). In continue a preliminary model was designed (Concept and Preliminary Model) to be validated via a big scale quantitative online survey (Validation Research with passengers, hotels, airlines and airports). All stakeholders in their great majority came to validate the concept, leading to the development of a new innovative strategy and the design of a new air-traveling service (Implementation).

The article starts with the theoretical framework the concept built upon. We later present the concept of xperience the CITY and the preliminary model to continue with the research methodology. Our article then continues with the results and sections in which the discussion of the results and the conclusions of the article are presented. The article presented here consists part of a graduation project for the MSc in Strategic Product Design, TU Delft as a case study for Athens (Greece) and Amsterdam (Netherlands), submitted in July 2013.

2 Theoretical Framework

Service-Dominant Logic and Co-creation of Value

The Service-Dominant (S-D) logic in marketing, is built around an increasingly acknowledged view that the customer can be a co-creator of value and that service is the common denominator in exchange and not some special form of exchange; value-creation occurs when a customer consumes, or uses, a product or service (Payne, Storbacka, & Frow, 2008). These emerged personalized experiences through dialog and interactions towards value creation, are central to a holistic perspective of co-creation that calls for evolution and transformation of customers from “passive audiences” to “active players” (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004b).

In addition to the plural “goods” in Goods-Dominant Logic (G-D logic) that implies “units of output”, the use of singular “service” in S-D logic comes to indicate the “process of doing something to someone” (Lusch & Vargo, 2006); while G-D logic focuses in the exchange of tangible goods (products), S-D logic emphasizes on the exchange of intangible specialized competences and processes (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2008). This resource-integration function or interactivity

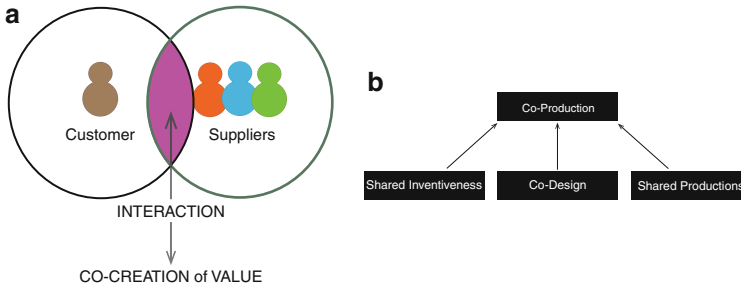


Fig. 4 (a) Co-creation of value (Grönroos, 2006; Lusch & Vargo, 2006; Payne et al., 2008); (b) co-production (Vargo & Lusch, 2004)

and networking approach comes in complete alignment with S-D logic's concept of value creation through resource integration (Grönroos, 2006; Gummesson, 2008; Normann, 2001; Vargo & Lusch, 2004).

Value co-creation in the S-D logic context can be seen as consisting of two main components: Co-creation of Value and Co-Production. While in G-D logic, value is added to the products while exchanged (value-in-exchange), for S-D logic, value occurs when customers and suppliers interact (value-in-use) (see Fig. 4a) (Grönroos, 2006; Lusch & Vargo, 2006; Payne et al., 2008).

So far, emphasis on value creation research is given upon the necessity for S-D logic to be adopted in order for innovative services to be offered towards memorable consumer experiences (Chathoth, Altinay, Harrington, Okumus, & Chan, 2013; Grönroos, 2008; Lusch, Vargo, & O'Brien, 2007; Payne et al., 2008). But what exactly can be seen as co-creation? Payne et al. (2008) summarize the related literature on co-creation in five indicative examples: Emotional engagement of customers through advertising and promotional activities, self-service or labor-transfer to the customer, the provision of experiences where the customer becomes part of the context, self-selection by the customers following supplier's prescribed processes, and customer's engagement in products co-designing. In addition, co-production occurs when the user participates in the creation of the offered service, either by shared inventiveness, co-design or shared productions in the value network (Fig. 4b). Central to S-D logic and value creation are the networks and all the interactions between central players (Lusch & Vargo, 2006) (Fig. 5b).

At this point is important to distinct co-creation from customization: their difference lies in the degree of customers' involvement—the role of customers in co-creation is more active than the one in customization (Kristensson, Matthing, & Johansson, 2008). What also differs is the point of their engagement in the innovation process: while in co-creation the user is involved right from the start, in customization the customer is introduced at the end (Fig. 5a).



Fig. 5 (a) Customization vs. co-creation; (b) roles in G-D logic vs. S-D logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2006)

Meanings and Experiences as Competitive Advantage: The Experience Economy

Moving further from S-D logic’s notion that service is a competitive advantage as customers do not look to purchase products, rather than benefit from the service that they offer (Lusch et al., 2007; Payne et al., 2008; Sawhney, 2006; Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2006, 2008), Verganti (2008, 2009) suggests that people buy meanings and only by radically innovating what things mean, one can change the rules of competition. For Verganti, Design-Driven Innovation is to “compete through products and services that have a radical new meaning; those that convey a completely new reason for customers to buy them” (Verganti, 2009).

Pine and Gilmore (1999) go a step further; they distinct services from experiences (the same way as services distinct from product) and they talk about the importance of “experience”: “while commodities are fungible, goods are tangible and services intangible, experiences are memorable”. As a result, consumer value can be defined as an “interactive relativistic preference experience”; it is the experience that defines what is valuable to a customer (Payne et al., 2008). In an era where there is such a plethora of products and services available that they tend to be commodities, Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004a) support that it is only by high-quality interactions between customers and companies that unique experiences can be co-created leading to new sources of competitive advantage. In that way, companies are called to engage customers and use their services to stage memorable experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Introducing the concept of “Experience Economy”, Pine and Gilmore elaborate on how can a company move from commodities to goods, manage to deliver a service and finally add value to their offerings by staging experiences (Progression of Economic Value, see Fig. 3b).

Tourism Supply Chain Management and the Interdependent Nature of Tourism

In the literature of the Supply Chain Management (SCM) in general and the Tourism Supply Chain Management (TSCM) in specific, emphasis is given on the high interdependencies between the various players among the tourism industry (suppliers as accommodators and carriers, distributors and intermediaries, passengers and other stakeholders) and the need of vertical integration towards best practices and value creation (Buhalis & Laws, 2001; Kuijpers, 2009; Lafferty & Fossen, 2001; Yilmaz & Bititci, 2006a, 2006b; Zhang et al., 2009). This

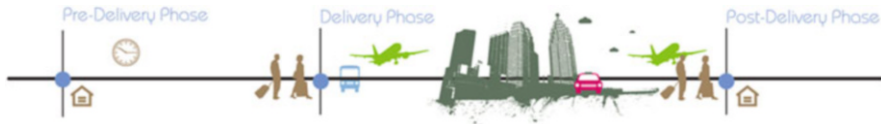


Fig. 6 The three stages of TVC

interdependent feature of the tourism industry lays upon the four main characteristics of the tourism products and services: intangibility, perishability, inseparability (of production and consumption) and interdependency (Calantone & Mazanec, 1991; Yilmaz & Bititci, 2006b). All in all, it is this inseparability that makes companies depend upon each other, directly affecting the overall customer satisfaction (Yilmaz and Bititci, 2006a).

Innovating in the Tourism Value Chain

The Tourism Value Chain (TVC) starts with the customer order. In order for the tourism product to be managed as an end-to-end seamless product, this TVC can be seen as consisting of three interconnected stages, as tourist—customers—evaluate their travel experiences as a whole (Fig. 6) (Yilmaz & Bititci, 2006a):

1. Pre-delivery Stage: All the required activities before departure (destination info, visas, hotel/airline reservations etc.)
2. Delivery stage: Tourism Product Consumption. Supplier delivers products/services to the consumer.
3. Post-delivery stage: Customer satisfaction is measured. Validation of tourism value chain.

Tourism cannot but be seen as a system and be approached holistically as an end-to-end seamless product (Yilmaz & Bititci, 2006a) and as a “tourism stakeholders system” (von Friedrichs Grängsjö, 2003); in order for stakeholders to innovate there, they need to reconfigure the existing value chain (van Blokland & Santema, 2006). But what is the value chain and how can it be perceived within the innovation process?

Consisted by primary and support activities, the classic value chain defined by Porter (1985)—where value was generated and pushed by (mass) production and marketing—did not include the customer in. However, in a fast changing and globalized world, this model is now giving the floor to network and multilateral systems, with technology holding a key role in connecting partners towards a new innovation perspective (van Blokland & Santema, 2006). In today’s dynamic networks that are driven by demand, partners’ co-ordination, both horizontal and vertical, is of key importance (Kumar, 2001). Technology, finance and e-driven infrastructure are now becoming the primary activities and competition moves from company level to supply chain level (Kumar, 2001; van Blokland et al., 2012).

While the traditional value chain is based upon “push”, the lean value chain now calls for “pull” strategies, mass customization instead of mass production and a company’s forward movement towards the end of the value chain in order to meet

The 3 drives within the value innovation process:

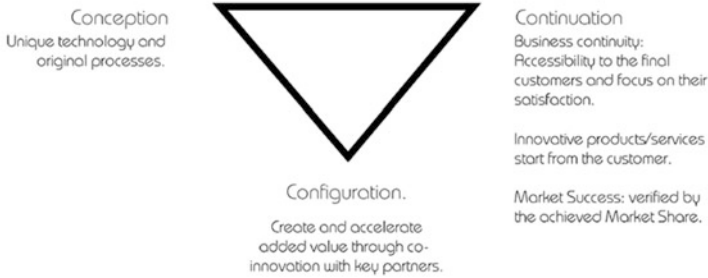


Fig. 7 The three drivers within the value innovation process (source: van Blokland & Santema, 2006)

the customer demand (van Blokland, Fiksinski, Amoa, & Santema, 2008). Profitable value requires a company balancing three different chains: demand chain (what customers want), own chain (own value) and supply chain (van Blokland et al., 2012).

Looking within product and value chain innovation, van Blokland and Santema (2006) combined key literature and came up with a framework of three drives within the value innovation process: Continuation, Conception and Configuration (Fig. 7). These drivers have the power to drive profitable innovation by improving the innovation capacity throughout the value chain. According to van Blokland and Santema (2006), it is the introduction of the customer (Continuity) into the value chain process that can connect technology (Conception) and partners (Configuration) towards innovation and therefore competitive advantage and high market shares.

Xperience the CITY: Concept and Preliminary Model

Building upon the previous research (literature, industry and travel trends reviews and the findings from the Exploration Research) the xperience the CITY concept was designed. Central to that were five pillars:

1. The need for unique experiences,
2. The need to reconfigure the roles in TSC and create pull strategies in order to innovate,
3. The need for an active City of Destination
4. The need for industry integration and multiple contact points with customers, and
5. The need to utilize industry’s spare capacity.

The focus of this concept of co-creation is not industry specific, rather value-centered (Fig. 8a). In other words the focus lies on the value within the TSC and the supplied tourism services become the means to an end—passengers’ travel experience.

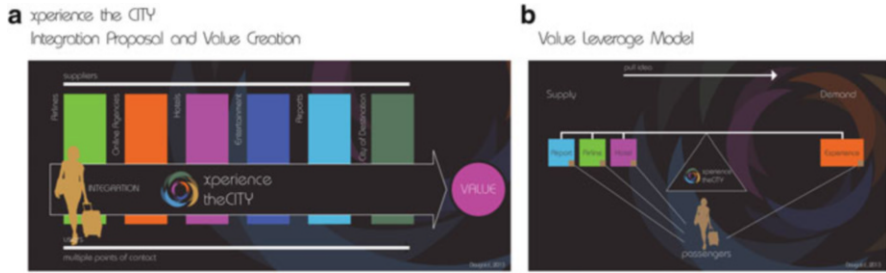


Fig. 8 (a) Xperience the CITY—integration towards value creation; (b) xperience the CITY—value leverage model

Reconfiguring the current roles in the TSC and stepping into the value chain, the City of Destination is now actively marketing itself, it calls for co-creation and motivates people to travel towards it, inviting travelers to co-create travel experiences.

Gathering information about available tourism (e.g. flights and hotels) and cultural and entertainment services (e.g. museums, exhibitions, festivals, music events, activities, etc.) on the one hand, and information on what people like—their interests and experiences they might look for (e.g. sun, culture, romance etc.) on the other, the City of Destination personally invites—pulls—people towards it. All that possible through integration and co-creation with the suppliers (industry orientation) and travelers (customer orientation).

Connecting supply (Airports, Airlines, Hotels, etc.) and demand (travel experiences), the City of Destination within the xperience the CITY concept can act as a lever between them with a passenger focus (Fig. 8b). By doing so, the City of Destination can now create a new market (experience traveling) and therefore utilize industry's spare capacity towards impulse and experience traveling with multiple economic benefits for everyone involved. Key factor on this are the new technologies and the social media.

3 Research Method

Explorative Research

The aim of Explorative Research, was to explore current mindsets, strategies and practices in the tourism industry by interviewing key stakeholders. The goal of this part was to gain an as holistic as possible view of the subject that would eventually lead to a specific framework for the final proposition regarding a service for air-traveling from a co-creating perspective. Key stakeholders at this point were Airlines, Hotels and Airports, Travel Agencies and the City of Destination (Athens, Greece).

As the key stakeholders were identified, the skeleton of the research was formed; what were the subjects to be discussed in order to provide as much insights as possible. For that purposes, personal open interviews were chosen as the best way to gain the deeper knowledge desired. Based on the same core of subjects (e.g. position within the travel industry, products/services offered, collaborations, marketing strategies, innovation etc.), interview skeletons were then customized for each stakeholder interviewed.

After the possible participants were contacted, the stakeholders that were finally able to take part were a hotel at the center of Athens, a big European online travel agency and a social media engineering company. Though the later did not belong in the tourism industry, their insights would be valuable regarding new technologies and social media integration of the service to be developed within a co-creation travel concept.

Validation Research

Consisting of four distinct surveys, the Validation Research was a big-scale quantitative research addressing all the main stakeholders involved in the TSC: Passengers, Airlines, Hotels and Airports. This research concentrated in two main aspects: the exploration of how things are done so far (travel habits, business processes) and validation of the xperience the CITY concept and preliminary model.

The survey was conducted online between April and May 2013. All the questions were of multiple choice, and where necessary a five-level Likert Scale of interest was chosen (Very Interesting, Quite Interesting, Neither Neutral, Not so Interesting, Not Interesting at all). The survey was designed using a free online survey tool. In order for the xperience the CITY project and survey to be promoted a website and a Facebook page were created.

Finally the survey closed with 514 Passengers across the world (mostly concentrated in Greece and the Netherlands) with the majority of the sample ranging between the age of 25–30 years old (50.1 %) followed by those in the age of 31–40 (21.1 %), 42 Hotels, 6 Airlines (5 traditional carriers and 1 low cost carrier, 2 located in Greece, 1 in Netherlands and 3 in the rest of Europe), and 6 International Airports (Athens, Amsterdam, Germany) (Fig. 9).



Fig. 9 Overall participants

4 Results

All the four surveys resulted in very interesting findings regarding how people travel so far and how they would like to do so in the future and how suppliers operate towards service provision. All in all the size of this research was of big significance for the insights provided. Due to the extent of the Validation Research, not all the results can be presented in this article; presented below are the most important ones.

Passenger Survey Results

According to data, some differences can be seen regarding the way people currently choose their travel destination and the way they would like to do so in the future. While currently the majority of travelers choose their destination either by first selecting the City of Destination (36.76 %) or the Country of Destination (31.62 %), both of these percentages decrease compared to how people would like to choose their destination in the future (City of Destination, 24.26 % and Country of Destination, 27.94 %). What is interesting is that while presently the percentage of people choosing their destination According to Activities Offered by a City (e.g. Museums, Sightseeing, Nightlife, etc.) is 18.38 %, for the future that percentage goes up by almost 7 % reaching a percentage of 25.25 %. In the same way, while the percentage of those now choosing their destination Thematically (e.g. Concert, Event, Cocktails, Rock Bars, Things You like, etc.) is only 6.86 %, it goes up almost three times for the future, reaching a percentage of 18.87 %.

While about 50 % of participants look for travel information in “traditional means”—Travel Web Sites (24.32 %), City Web Sites and City Web Guides (15.44 %) and less into printed City Guide Books (10.89 %)—the other half is looking for customized, traveler-to-traveler tips turning to Friends (23.55 %), Social Media Reviews (9.73 %), Locals (7.18 %) and travel apps (6.25 %).

Regarding the time of their traveling, while almost 38 % of participants choose to travel during specific times of the year (19.52 % During Summertime and 5.6 % During Wintertime) or during specific holidays (12.39 %), the greatest total percentage of 32.43 % just travels regardless the time, simply following the need for traveling. Following comes a 16.47 % of those travel depending on cheap flight tickets and a significant 13.58 % of “event-travelers”, ready to travel whenever there is something interesting going on at destination, like exhibitions and concerts.

The great majority of people usually travel in groups of two (58.17 %), instead of larger groups and a significant 17.08 % are lonely travelers. In continue, almost everyone nowadays plan their trips individually (Individual Holidays, 94.07 %), with only a very small percentage of 5.93 % visit a travel agent choosing Package Holidays. When it comes to flight and hotel booking, 80 % and 73.3 % respectively use online travel agencies that offer plenty of different choices.

Finally, even though 53.22 % would plan their trip 1 month in advance (following a common belief that the sooner the air tickets are booked the more affordable they would be), almost everyone (92.83 %) would be interested in flying low cost,

taking advantage of “last minute” offers by the airlines towards specific destinations.

Specific to the project, the relevant questions revealed a great interest towards the experience the City concept and the proposed service on behalf of travelers. As the results revealed, 87 % of them would be interested in a service that could gather, map and do travelling suggestions according to specific things they like (for example: Music Concerts, Events, Bars, etc.) and 75 % of them would like a service that could make complete travel suggestions (air tickets, accommodation, entertainment activities, etc.) according to things they like (interests, music, bars, food, museums, etc.) for traveling around the world. 75 % of them would like the integration of such service with social media and finally 89.4 % would be interested in weekend customized travel offers that could come at a 20–60 % off the original price, even if they could only be informed about that the last 48–24 h.

Hotel Survey Results

According to data, 57.14 % of businesses taking part were located in Greece and 42.86 % in the Netherlands. While the survey’s sample seems to be diverse, with businesses equally spread throughout all kinds of Hotel classification, the majority of them were three-star Hotels (30.56 %, 11 Hotels), followed by four-stars at a percentage of 27.78 %. While half of them attract customers both from their country and abroad, a 38.89 % mostly targets foreign tourists.

While the Tourism Industry is seen as a highly competitive one (96.87 %), collaboration between Hotels and Airlines towards more incoming customers for the later is not such a key aspect for Hotels in Greece and Netherlands; only 6.3 % claimed to have such collaboration in their core business. However, 78.1 % would be interested in developing such collaborations in order to improve utilization of their spare capacity. What is more, 81.3 % would be very interested in collaborating and co-creating with various key stakeholders—both local and foreigners—(e.g. other hotels, airlines, airports and the City) towards joined forces and strategies/services that could result in the possibility better practices, better marketing and more tourists. Finally, the majority of Hotels (56.25 %) seem not to be completely satisfied with the effort their City is paying on increasing tourism rates, and as a result everyone (100 %) would like their City (municipality) to become more active on promoting its facilities and creating more of them, in order for it to become more attractive as destination, resulting in more tourists and increased profit for the Hotel Industry.

Specific to the project, the relevant questions revealed also a great interest towards the experience the City concept on behalf of the Hotel Industry, which in its total acknowledged the importance of the overall experience a tourist would expect from the City of Destination in order to be chosen as a holiday destination. As the results revealed that in their total, Greek and Dutch Hotels would be very interested in a service that could gather, map and make travelling suggestions to travelers according to specific things each tourist would like and 93.8 % would find it very interesting if that service for customized travelling suggestions would be

combined with last minute air-tickets and other services (events, entertainment), in order for weekend vacations towards their City and their Hotel to be organized, motivating people (who may not think to travel otherwise) to travel on lower prices.

Airline Survey Results

In their total, the Airline Industry would be interested in a service that could gather, map and make travelling suggestions to travelers according to specific things each tourist would like, incorporating their airline and all the airlines would be interested in a service that could motivate people to book air tickets on a last minute basis, helping them fly full capacity. One hundred percent of the participating airlines would be interested in incorporating such a service in their practices and would consider new ways of collaboration and co-creation with stakeholders in the Tourism Supply Chain and the City of Destination itself in order to increase travel demand and therefore guarantee their full capacity.

Airport Survey Results

In their total, the Airport Industry would be quite interested in a service that could gather, map and make travelling suggestions to travelers according to specific things each tourist would like (for example: Music Concerts, Events, Bars, etc.), incorporating their airport. Again the majority (80 %) of the Airports would be interested in a service that could motivate people to book air tickets on a last minute basis, helping Airline fly full capacity and therefore increase their revenues. Finally, all the Airports would be interested in a service that would combine last minute air-tickets and other services (hotels, events, entertainment), organizing weekend vacations towards their Airport and their CITY, creating a trend of impulse and customized traveling.

5 Discussion

Besides the catholic validation of the xperience the CITY concept and the ideas it preserves, the four surveys and the large sample contacted came to offer valuable insights both on behalf of travelers (what they want) and suppliers (what more they could offer). These insights when clearly analyzed can be the basis and the driving force towards innovative changes within the TSC. Analyzing the Passenger Survey Results, an overall shift towards more thematic traveling can be seen. In this new model, the City goes down from number one choice on destination selection (present) to number three in the future, right behind choosing destination according to activities offered and closely followed by thematic traveling. As a result, in accordance with current social and consumer trends, people seem to be flirting with the idea of changing the way they travel so far, towards customized experiences.

In the same spirit of change, changes are also observed on the kind information desired when traveling and the way to acquire it. Under the need for authenticity and customization, people reject prior practices of shallow and mass-produced offers. Away from past practices and old means (e.g. static travel guides), travelers

are now turning to peers, friends and locals when it comes to information search, once again looking for the hidden info and that specialized knowledge that would be able to provide them with unique, customized experiences. It is obvious that people, as part of a bigger trend, are turning their back into massively marketed holidays, looking for more tailored made chances to experience new things.

Coming to offer a chance for co-created experiences through integration with tourism stakeholders under an active City of Destination, where travelers get engaged right from the start (for example communicating what experience is important to them), xperience the CITY concept finds great supporters (an indicative 87 %). What is more, travelers are now ready to take advantage of suppliers' co-created services, travel impulsively and fill up spare capacity on the right price.

The fact that 3/4 of them would like the integration of such service with social media supports both the common belief that new technologies have completely entered our life opening up new possibilities, the notion that new media offer numerous of innovative possibilities in marketing and finally the findings from the industry s surveys (Hotels, Airlines) that social media play now a very important role in marketing their businesses and getting in touch with customers (e.g. 97 % of Hotels).

In this new era, the industry around tourism seems to slowly acknowledge that holding back to practices of the past will bring no future. Again, with some percentages reaching a total 100 %, hoteliers support the idea of an innovative TSC where co-creation and integration among tourism providers becomes the center of new strategies towards holistic travel approaches and unique travel experiences. All in all, Hotels, Airlines and Airports revealed their great interest in xperience the CITY and they are ready to implement such service in their practices.

6 Limitations

So far the stakeholder missing from the Validation Research is the actual City of Destination. The authors were of the belief that such concept could not be discussed with the later before being a solid one. It is that the nature of the city as an entity that such concepts cannot be fully exploited unless they present both the need, the opportunities and the entrepreneurial support. Having now all these facts supporting it, xperience the CITY is ready to open up and be presented to cities around the world.

7 Conclusions

In a fast changing world, practices of the past can no longer be viable. Innovation calls for new approaches and new ways of thinking away from silos and monomeric, company-focused strategies. Towards value creation, entrepreneurs need to

acknowledge that roles are no longer solid; they should be reconfigured and be able to change where necessary. Reconfiguration of the existing supply chains and the introduction of active customers within the co-creation of value is the only way towards innovation, better practices and greater profits. In that context, experience the CITY calls for an entrepreneurialism approach of modern cities (risk taking, inventiveness, promotion and profit motivation (Kavaratzis, 2004) within a strong city brand and not just random marketing applications that lack a fully understanding of today's needs but also the great opportunities such holistic approaches can have for all stakeholders within and around a City. A City with a strong brand identity will then be able to attract not only visitors but strategic partners to co-create with.

The solid findings of this project, along with the research supporting it both on theoretical and practical level, provide us with confidence that under the right strategic scope innovation can indeed take place. Of course such changes cannot happen overnight; there is still a long road to walk before the new strategy is fully developed, adopted and successfully implemented with the front-end service developed.

Concluding, the authors believe that there are plenty of future research opportunities in the field in terms of co-creation and customer value creating processes, supplier value-creating processes and encounter processes in the traveling context as well as new marketing opportunities. It is up to the future researchers to go deeper and further on these subjects looking for improvements and new approaches.

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Part IV
Tourism Product from an Alternative
Perspective

Civilized Observers in a Backward Land: British Travellers in Greece, 1832–1862

Pandeleimon Hionidis

Abstract British travellers visited Greece in increasing numbers after its formation as an independent state in 1832 and many of them published accounts of their wanderings. The conclusive evidence of early-Victorian travellers attested to the lack of infrastructure and domestic comfort, civil rights and free institutions. The tracing of discursive consistency in British travellers' opinions on Greece, of recurring arguments, assumptions and associations, constitutes one of the aims of this article. It is also argued that comments on the modern Greeks should be examined in the context of a wider public debate, which involved general and universally applicable notions of “national progress”.

Keywords Nineteenth century • Victorians • Travel • Mediterranean • Greece • Images

1 Introduction

In April 1881 an anonymous article appeared in the Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine criticizing Gladstone's Eastern policy and in particular his handling of “Greece and her claims” for territorial gains over Turkey. Writing with the authority of the traveller, an authority “founded upon personal observation in the past year”, the author surveyed the internal condition of Greece and discussed the prospects of the Greeks in the Balkans. He concluded that neither the country nor the people were yet fit for an enhanced role in Eastern Europe:

When Greece has advanced in industry and agriculture; when she has put down her army, her navy, and her brigands, and has increased her police; when she has shown some appreciation of the elementary principles of political economy; when, in short, she has given some tangible proof of her oft-asserted superiority over Slavs and Osmanli, - then will be the time to set about the political absorption of these “inferior” races, and to indulge in dreams of a resuscitated Greek empire on the Bosphorus. (Farrer, 1881, p. 554b).

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Britons who visited Greece in the years 1832–1862 committed themselves to apply Farrer’s criteria, some of them agreed and others challenged his pessimism. This study examines how the experience of travelling in the Greek kingdom contributed to the shaping of Victorian images of Greece in the nineteenth century. In the following pages British comments on Greek affairs will be presented, as they were expressed in the writings of travellers, which embraced an assessment of Greece’s progress up to 1862 and sometimes also comprised a number of proposals for the country’s future course.

This task involves a twofold process. The first step consists in unravelling the constituent parts which formed the body of travellers’ commentary on modern Greece in the period between 1832 and 1862. Secondly, this article sets out to describe in detail, understand, interpret and evaluate opinions on the kingdom expressed by travellers within the framework of political and ideological developments in Victorian Britain.

As the title indicates, the geographical limits of this study coincide with the borders of the Greek kingdom. Travellers’ accounts on the Greek subjects of the Ottoman Empire are, therefore, outside the scope of this analysis. In addition, British interest in ancient Greece is examined here only when it has a direct bearing on travellers’ views of modern Greece. Both qualifications stem from the main hypothesis of this work, that, as early as 1832, British understanding of modern Greece constituted a distinct and well-defined entity, which despite occasional allusions to the classical age owed its coherence to notions of progress, civilization, “character” and “race” that generally applied to the evaluation of national life in early-Victorian Britain.

The examination of travel writings constitutes a fitting introduction to the study of early-Victorian images of Greece provided that the numerous travellers’ accounts are looked at from a perspective conducive to the study of perceptions. Detailed research into the British experience on Greek soil has focused its attention primarily on travel literature published before the establishment of the independent Greek kingdom and, in general, its value with regard to British perceptions of modern Greece has been compromised by two main factors. Firstly, British travel writings have been used as historical documents providing supplementary information on the condition of the Greek people; this approach does not treat the world of the traveller but rather labours to prove whether “the picture offered by these travellers is reasonably clear and accurate” (Angelomatis-Tsougarakis, 1990, p. 211). On the other hand, “expert discourses on modern Greek affairs” have been favoured at the expense of travel literature as the most fertile ground for the study of British commentary on modern Greece (Miliori, 1998, p. 159).

However, contemporary commentators and reviewers had little interest in historical narratives and adopted a cautious stand on statistical works as they provided an “official and, it should seem, an authorised account” (Millman, 1842, p. 150). It was the perceived impartiality of the occasional traveller and the “Britishness” of the author’s outlook that earned him the trust and interest of his readers and made travel writing influential in shaping the image of Greece in Britain.

2 Literature Review

By adopting a new approach to travellers' thought and works the study of their case would communicate with another field of historical inquiry, commentary and judgmental pronouncements on continental nationalities—on the Greek nation in particular—in nineteenth-century Britain, which as Parry (2008) has argued “turned on the purposes and values that Britain should assert, much more than on attitudes to specific overseas people” (p. 2). Indeed, an inquiry into the experience of British travellers, who wrote at great length about ancient and modern Greece in English and for the British public, could prove extremely constructive to the study of the relation between the Greek kingdom and the formation of its image in Victorian Britain, which is still in a seminal state.

In existing works two distinct approaches tend to emerge, which are reminiscent of the dichotomy that characterizes research into the 1820s. The tradition of literary philhellenism is clearly traceable in two books that start from different assumptions, employ different methodologies but share in common the elevation of a single factor to the status of an all-encompassing interpretative tool as far as British or “Western perceptions” of Greece are concerned. Gourgouris's *Dream Nation* has tried to apply the arguments of Said's *Orientalism* to the study of the image of modern Greece. Insisting on the “coincidence between Hellenism and Orientalism”, Gourgouris (1996) has attributed to classical learning the canonical role which Said assigned to oriental studies in the imaginative construction of the Orient (p. 73). Unimpeded by the presumptions of Orientalism, Roessel (2001), in his *In Byron's Shadow*, has conceded that “although ancient Greece, Hugo's ‘Greece of Homer’, and modern Greece occupy the same geographical space on the map, they are two distinct entities in the Western imagination” (p. 4). Moreover, Roessel (2001) has acknowledged the role and the contribution of radical hopes and politics to the philhellenic movement in the 1820s. According to Roessel's analysis radicalism and literary philhellenism blended together during the revolutionary years and personified by Byron constituted a powerful legacy, appropriately termed “Byronism”, which designated the boundaries of British and American commentaries on Greece between 1833 and 1913 (pp. 81, 115). On the other hand, Margarita Miliori has offered a different and more illuminating account of British images of the Greek kingdom in the period 1832–1864. Miliori (1998) has posed the question whether “the weighty shadow of an ‘idealized’ Greek antiquity” (to which we may add “Byron's shadow”) sufficiently facilitates our understanding of “images of Greek modernity”. Miliori has convincingly placed “British discourses on the Greeks within the context of a wider British discourse on the national, in its relation to politics and history, and in its relation to the identity of Europe” (p. 10). More recently, Koundoura (2007) has rejected “the Romantic, current tourist, or Greek nationalist” approach to Western interest in Greece (p. 8). In *The Greek Idea*, she has convincingly read philhellenism as a “self-serving enterprise”, and concern for modern Greece as “Europe's concern with its own contemporary necessities” (Koundoura, 2007, pp. 12, 139).

Indeed, the case of the travellers who visited Greece in the first decades of its independence is ideal for rethinking the character of the commentators and the nature of comments on which a study of the position of the Greek kingdom in British public debate must focus. Were the classical education of British travellers, the philhellenic excitement of the 1820s, and their increasing interest in Greek history sufficient to explain travellers' comments on modern Greece as appeared in their published accounts or their reading of the subject should be related to contemporary notions of modernity in their birthplace, Britain, and to developments in the Greek kingdom?

I will, therefore, examine the main themes that emerged in travellers' narratives from the 1830s to the 1850s, try to place them in the context of British attitudes towards other travel destinations, mainly Italy, and provide some indications of the actual impact of travel literature on British perceptions of modern Greece. But the first step in this process consists in presenting shortly Greek-British relations at the time.

3 Greek-British Relations During the Reign of King Otho, 1832–1862

On 7 May 1832, a treaty was signed in London between the three European powers, Great Britain, France and Russia, and Bavaria establishing the Greek kingdom. The articles of the treaty provided for the accession of Prince Otho of Bavaria to the throne of the independent kingdom; the appointment by his father of three regents to exercise royal power during Otho's minority, until June 1, 1835 and the formation of a corps of troops of 3,500 soldiers from the German states to accompany the young king to Greece. Lastly, the Greek state was placed under the guarantee of the three Powers, which also offered their guarantee for the raising of a loan to the amount of 60 million francs. The treaty of 1832 was the final act in a series of diplomatic activities on behalf of the European powers since their first intervention in Greek affairs, 5 years after the outbreak of the Greek revolution in 1821 (Crawley, 1973, pp. 43–222). The landing of Otho in Nauplia, the provisional capital of his new kingdom, in February 1833, marked the beginning of his long association with Greece.

The establishment of the Greek state did not attract any considerable attention in Britain. The philhellenic manifestations of the British public were transformed into a "chilliness of popular feeling with regard to Greece" by 1826 and were well over by 1832 (Cunningham, 1978, p. 159). In April 1833 William Martin Leake, the topographer of ancient Greece and a committed philhellene (Wagstaff, 2009, p. 29), observed in a letter to Finlay that "few persons here in the midst of reform, innovation, distress and distraction of all kinds, bestow much thought upon Greece" (Hussey, 1995, p. 471). The *Times* expressed some doubts as to the election of a minor king but steadily confirmed Britain's "right to see that Greece is well

governed, both from the expenses we have incurred in establishing its independence and the immense diplomatic labours which we have expended on its settlement” (8 August 1833, p. 3 columns ab). In parliament Palmerston, who had negotiated and signed the treaty for Britain, appeared optimistic about the future prospects of the kingdom. At the same time, his remarks reflected existing perceptions of the Greeks as a “maritime nation” and set material advancement as the main criterion by which the country’s national progress was to be assessed:

Notwithstanding it had now been the scene of a 10 years’ barbarous and exterminating warfare, and a prey to all the ills of intestine commotion, and anarchy, and confusion, its revenues had improved, within the last year, and it required no very sanguine fancy to anticipate, from its maritime advantages and fruitfulness of soil, a commercial eminence, such as distinguished Venice and Genoa during the last brilliant days of the Italian history (Hansard, 6 August 1832, XIV, p. 1163).

Palmerston’s expectation of the existence of a flourishing and peaceful kingdom in the eastern Mediterranean, which was in harmony with British policy on the Eastern Question, was disappointed. British political, strategic and economic interests required the preservation of the Ottoman Empire against the Russian advance in the Mediterranean and led to the promotion of various schemes for the internal reform of the Ottoman state. The aggressive foreign policy pursued by the Greek kingdom against Turkey threatened to destabilize it and to upset Britain’s plans in the region. A significant proportion of the Greek Orthodox population remained under Ottoman rule after the establishment of the independent Greek state. The term *Megali Idea* (Great Idea) referred to a policy, the ultimate aim of which was the incorporation of all members of the Greek Orthodox population of the Ottoman Empire in a large kingdom, the dream of the revival of the Byzantine Empire (Skopetea, 1988). Therefore, Greece tried to take advantage of the crises of the Eastern Question by encouraging revolts among the Greek population of the Ottoman Empire. Britain’s constant efforts to restrain the expansionist schemes of King Otho produced an almost permanent tension in the relations between Britain and Greece. The incompatible policies of Greece and Britain towards the Turks led, in 1850, to the blockade of the Greek ports by the British fleet and during the Crimean war to the occupation of Athens by French and British troops (Kofas, 1980).

Therefore, in reference to British travellers’ detailed accounts of the Greek kingdom in the years 1832–1862 one element should be kept in mind. Greek foreign policy after 1837 contradicted British interests in eastern Mediterranean leading to a state of permanent tension.

4 Modern Greece in Travellers’ Eyes

The end of the war of independence and the establishment of the Greek kingdom in 1832 reopened the Greek lands to British travellers in the East. Although the eastern Mediterranean was not among the most popular destinations of the Grand Tour in

the eighteenth century, “Greece was becoming more popular by the 1780s” and this upward trend continued until the outbreak of the Greek revolution in 1821 (Angelomatis-Tsougarakis, 1990, pp. 6–8; Black, 1985, p. 29). For the following 10 years the British who visited Greece were primarily the philhellenes fighting for the freedom of that “classic soil”. Already in the 1830s, however, the first signs of a recovery became evident and were reflected in contemporary sources. As early as 1834 an English traveller was complaining that the Greek capital was already “swarming with tourists”: “during our very short stay at Athens we counted no less than thirteen English travellers” (Temple, 1836, p. 75). A year later George Cochrane predicted after his visit to Athens that “for the next ten years, Greece will be supported by foreigners who will be attracted to view her antiquities” (Cochrane, 1837, p. 150). In 1838 a vice-consul was appointed at Piraeus, the port of Athens, provided with an extra amount in his salary “as he would be exposed to a certain degree of expense, in consequence of the great number of English travellers who visit Athens.”¹ In 1840 the first *Murray’s Handbook* for travellers in the East included Greece and justified the need for a guide “especially since the means of communication with them [Greece and Turkey] have improved and multiplied. . . and the consequent increase of travellers in scenes of such deep and varied interest” (Anon., 1840, p. iii). Also in travellers’ books and in the correspondence of the newspapers from Greece “the facilities afforded by steam navigation” were connected with the great number of travellers who were visiting the kingdom after 1837 (*Times*, 4 November 1837, 4e).

The great expense, which a visit to Greece in the first decades of its independence entailed, determined to a large extent the social and professional profile of the British visitors. Thomas De Quincey (1842) himself a traveller in Greece, compared the money required for a tour in the Rhine, in France or in northern Italy with the expenses of a travel in the Levant. While travelling in continental Europe was a consideration for a wealthy man who could dispose 100 pounds, “for the Mediterranean, and especially for the Levant—these he resigns to richer men; to those who can command from three to five hundred pounds” (p. 129).

Travellers in Greece shared another common characteristic, “the common recollections of every educated man” (*Morning Herald*, 31 July 1839, 4c), which continued to constitute the main, though not the only, incentive to visit the country throughout the nineteenth century. Byron’s legacy, the pilgrimage to the Holy Land, “the Victorian love of strenuous outdoor activities”, and the acquisition of knowledge and experience also attracted British travellers to the Greek kingdom (Eisner, 1993, pp. 127–130).

Although few Britons visited Greece with a view to studying its internal condition or its future role in the Eastern Question, many travellers were interested in the present state of the country, recorded their observations during their travels and included them in their publications. Books about Greece should be “useful for future travellers and amusing to others” (Giffard, 1837, p. 3); to the Englishman

¹ Crowe to Palmerston, 17 February 1838, FO32/81, ff. 30–31.

especially “who habitually studies the political prospects of his own country in his morning readings and his evening conversation, the present state of the Levant presents a most attractive theme” (Usborne, 1840, p. ii). An element of what O’Connor (1998) in regard to British travellers in the Italian peninsula has described as a “profound sense of moral obligation. . . [the] desire to exact meaningful pleasure out of their travels” (p. 39) can be traced in the writings of their counterparts who, as a rule, spent at least a few paragraphs of their accounts of travel in Greece in the cause of probing into the material and political condition of the kingdom. As the ‘general introduction’ of Murray’s Handbook for Travellers in Greece put it in 1854:

There the politician may contemplate for himself the condition and progress of a people, of illustrious origin, and richly endowed by Nature, which, after a servitude of centuries, has taken its place among the nations of the earth. (Anon., 1854, p. 2)

The material condition of the kingdom, with particular references to its infrastructure and lack of domestic comfort, was the first criterion which British travellers applied to measure the progress of modern Greece. Comments on these aspects of national life appeared regularly in the writings of British travellers in European countries (Porter, 1984, pp. 410, 422). The British travellers who visited Greece during the first years of its independence were shocked by the scenes of destruction and misery; the towns were reduced to “mass of ruins” (Giffard, 1837, p. 100), “some villages almost entirely unroofed” (Baillie Cochrane, 1840, p.128), and the population lived “in a state of starving poverty” (Blewitt, 1840, p. 626). Travellers’ stories were sometimes highly coloured:

Miserable town Corinth! One vast ruin, the work of Moslem; I have seen nothing so melancholy—street after street of roofless houses. Pompeii is positively more cheerful. (Cumming, 1839, p. 96)

Gradually the first signs of recovery began to appear; “new houses were everywhere building” (Levinge, 1839, p. 99), while towns like Patras could boast not only “several wide streets, most of the houses being new, and many of them well built” but also a considerable commercial activity (De Vere, 1850, p. 31). But visits to the provinces and especially to the most remote places of the country usually led to the conclusion: “ages must elapse before Greece will assume that position in the scale of nations which she was expected to acquire as soon as the yoke of Turkey was removed” (Cumming, 1839, p. 92); a night’s stay in a local inn, or, even worse, in a peasant’s house, made the traveller acquainted with the “intolerable fleas and rats” and “the want of table and chair”, the total lack of domestic comfort (Mure, 1842, vol. 1, p. 120).

A common obstacle to the progress of the Greeks and to the comfort of the traveller was the condition of the infrastructure of the kingdom (Usborne, 1840, p. 44). The want of sufficient means of communication was also understood to be one of the reasons, which prevented the complete exploitation of the natural resources of the kingdom. The picture of a country with rich but uncultivated lands was frequently displayed in the travellers’ impressions from Greece: “the traveller is grieved and disappointed. . . at beholding beautiful districts of most

fertile land only half cultivated, by a scanty, uneducated, lawless population” (Crawford, 1854, p. 766). In general travellers were describing a kingdom where “agriculture stagnates; manufactures do not exist; the communications, except in the immediate neighbourhood of the capital... are deplorable” (Howard, 1854, p. 174).

The themes of foreign and absolute rule, of the perils of a large standing army for the liberties of the people and the prosperity of the country and of an irresponsible and selfish monarch dominated the travellers’ comments on the political situation in Greece. The Bavarian troops and the Bavarian officers who served in the Greek kingdom according to the provisions of the treaty of 1832 were held responsible for the problems of Greece even after their dismissal in the late 1830s and early 1840s, just as the Austrians and the Bourbons were charged with the difficulties of Italy (O’Connor, 1998, p. 44). The Greeks were right to complain for the inactivity of the government “which has... sat like an incubus upon the country and drained it of its resources, while German adventurers have thronged into the country” (Baillie Cochrane, 1840, p. 128).

However, it was mainly the personal appearance, the mental abilities and the political skills of King Otho that were constantly commented on by British travellers. The reports on Otho’s deficiency, which were published in the English press after 1838, strongly predisposed the travellers. “Otho appeared to me a better-looking man than his mind makes him” (Cumming, 1839, p. 109); in his military uniform he “looked so amiably stupid, that both his appearance and popular report do him great injustice, if he be otherwise” (Blewitt, 1840, p. 657). The indifference of Otho to the well being of his subjects was evident in the large sum of money he had spent in building his new palace “racking his wretched subjects with taxes and heavy imposts” (Borrer, 1845, p. 40).

The self-referential and self-congratulating elements in the remarks of the British travellers became even more evident in their discussion of party politics in Greece and in the passing comparison between the state of Greece and the condition of the Ionian Islands. In their view, among the Greek political parties the “Russian” was satisfied with the weakness of the Greek kingdom, the French influence was connected with political adventurers and even with Greek brigands and, not surprisingly, the “English” party believed “that Greece should become a great and powerful state with a free constitution” (Cochrane, 1837, p. 197). Moreover, for travellers coming to the Greek kingdom through the Ionian Islands the latter’s “advance in civilization” under British protection provided an opportunity to reflect upon and celebrate British administrative skills and “character”. As “the mere Ionians are in character very like their brethren of the mainland”, the visible difference in progress, in the Ionians’ favour, between the two regions was attributed to “the protection of the great maritime nation in the world” (Gardner, 1859, p. 3), which performed “her part in the Divine mission entrusted to her for the dissemination of enlightened civilization” (Spencer, 1851, vol.1, pp. 221, 224).

Travellers who touched upon the question of the “character” of the modern Greeks confirmed older stereotypes and associated the moral condition of the population with the state of the Eastern or Orthodox Church. The notions of

“character” and “national character” in particular were integral parts of the political vocabulary in nineteenth-century Britain; they described and evaluated moral qualities at the level of the individual and were invoked to explain varying degrees of national progress in terms of the development of certain traits of behaviour and of specific habits in the peoples of different countries (Collini, 1985, pp. 31–33, 41–43). In travellers’ accounts the virtues, vices and intellectual abilities of the modern Greeks were examined with reference to and as a plausible explanation for the economic and political problems of the kingdom. British travellers’ comments on the Greek “character” remained divided. Drawing on the assumption of the uninterrupted sequel of the ancient “character” some praised the “acute perceptions, bright and lively imagination and warm feelings” of the modern Greeks (Crawford, 1854, p. 758), while others assured their readers that the inhabitants of the Greek kingdom remained “the same *canaille* that existed in the days of Themistocles” (Temple, 1836, p. 87), “cunning, deceit, and intrigue [being] the very vices for which the modern Greeks are chiefly notorious” (Mure, 1842, p. 150). Similar contradictions were typical of British travellers’ perceptions of the Italian “character” (O’Connor, 1998, pp. 46–47).

The Greek Church, its priesthood and rituals, were contemplated as the major hindrance in the process of improving the Greek “character”, just as Roman Catholic practices were corrupting the Italians (O’Connor, 1998, p. 49). “The clergy, as a class [were] the most inefficient and ignorant men of the whole community” (Patterson, 1852, p. 364); “as a necessary result, superstitions of all sorts have insinuated themselves into the popular belief” (De Vere, 1850, p. 183). What impressed the British travellers about the Orthodox creed was the worship of images and of numerous saints as well as “the faith in divinations, spells, relics, miracles, and amulets” (Spencer, 1851, vol. 2, p. 278). The community of faith with the Russians, moreover, transformed the clergy to “a subject to Russian influence” securing a permanent ally for Russian plans in the East (De Vere, 1850, p. 181).

The images of economic destruction, political intrigue and dubious moral and religious standards, which appeared regularly in the literature produced by British travellers, conferred the titles of a “backward” and “illiberal” state on the Greek kingdom. Judged by British criteria of prosperity, comfort, liberty and “character” Greece and the Greeks were found wanting. Undeveloped national resources, non-existent road and railway networks, a despotic ruler unrestrained by representative institutions and surrounded, in the first critical years of his reign, by foreign soldiers and officials provided a lamentable example of political failure, confirmed the disapproval of the British for “illiberal” countries and reaffirmed the faith of the traveller and the reader in the British system.

However, although most British observers depicted Greece low in the ladder of civilization, they accepted and indeed hoped that the country could rise to an improved position under a more enlightened ruler or, ideally, if the “English” party and its principles came to power. In early travel writings on the Greek kingdom, what Mandler (2000) has called “the civilisational perspective” (pp. 225–236) was dominant, which provided opportunities for severe criticism of Greece but also allowed a certain degree of optimism about its future.

5 Shaping the Image of Modern Greece in Britain

Presenting more or less the same images and projecting identical perceptions of modern Greece, the success of travel books depended on the professional and social status of the authors, the timing of their publication, or their literary merits. Wordsworth, headmaster of Harrow and later Bishop of Lincoln, visited Greece in 1832; his *Athens and Attica* and *Greece. Pictorial, Descriptive and Historical*, first published in 1836 and 1839 respectively, “were among the more popular travel books of the century and were revised through numerous editions” (Eisner, 1993, p. 134). William Mure, an accomplished classical scholar and later Conservative MP, saw his *Journal of A Tour in Greece and the Ionian Islands* reviewed in leading magazines (*Edinburgh Magazine*, 1842, 75(152): pp. 492–512; *Quarterly Review*, 1842, 70(139): pp. 129–139). Carlisle’s *Diary in Turkish and Greek Waters* was timely published in 1854 to provide a much-needed introduction into the political, social and economic condition of the Eastern powers during the Crimean war. But the two most successful travel books about Greece were written by a Frenchman, Edmond About, and owed their popularity to the witty and “light-hearted style” in which common perceptions of the country and the Greeks were presented. About’s *La Grèce Contemporaine* and *Le Roi des Montagnes*, translated into English in 1855 and 1859 respectively, described the Greek kingdom in the early 1850s; the latter depicted the “respectable” life of brigands in the kingdom and “was easily the most famous novel about Greece in Europe and America during the second half of the nineteenth century” (Roessel, 2001, p. 120).

Irrespective of the appeal of the most successful travel writings to readers and reviewers, British travellers as a whole were recognized as an authority on Greek affairs. Articles in newspapers and periodicals treating the internal condition of the Greek kingdom often invoked the testimony of the travellers: “A *rencontre* with a party of *Klephts* figures in every traveller’s note-book as one of the ordinary incidents of a Greek tour” (*Morning Chronicle*, 4 February 1850, 4a); “in a country such as we have described Greece, and we flatter ourselves our description will bear examination on the part of travellers” (Finlay, 1843, p. 355). The correspondent of the *Morning Herald* at Athens felt in 1841 the need to reinforce his description of the atrocities committed by the Greek government: “and let the incredulous in England apply to any of the numerous travellers who have visited this capital for full confirmation of all that has been written on these horrid barbarities” (14 April 1841, 3b). In 1845 Edmund Lyons, the British minister at Athens, presented in his correspondence with Aberdeen, the Foreign Minister, the accounts given by travellers as a reliable source of information on the condition of Greece: “I find from the concurrent testimony of English travellers and from other sources that the opinion in the Provinces. . .”² In the House of Commons Sir Robert Peel recognised that “the hon. Friend [Baillie Cochrane] had the advantages arising from a personal knowledge of that country [Greece] in discussing any questions connected with it”

² Lyons to Aberdeen, 20 May 1845, Aberdeen Papers, AddMS 43137, f. 149.

(Hansard, 14 March 1845, LXXIII, p. 903). And when the Crimean war increased the need for information on the state of the kingdoms and the peoples of the East many earlier books written by British travellers in Greece were republished and the works of foreign travellers were translated into English.³

Although highly rated as reliable sources of information on the actual state of modern Greece, travel literature as a means of keeping contact with developments in the kingdom was subject to certain limitations. The Greeks and their British defenders could argue that the travellers' observations "for the most part are as brief and ephemeral as is their residence among the people they profess to describe" (Xenos, 1851, vol. 1, p. vii), the reflection of "a confused recollection of heat, and dust, and gay costumes, beautiful ruins and uncomfortable inns" (Skene, 1847, p. 9). More importantly, the analysis of Greek affairs in travel literature was often fragmented and mingled with long references to the landscape and the archaeological sites that the author visited during his travels.

For all the shortcomings of their writings, travellers were regarded as indispensable allies to those in Greece who tried to present their opinions on Greek affairs to a wider section of the British public. Finlay, a philhellene who came to fight in the Greek war of independence and spent the rest of his life in Greece (Miller, 1924), presented his views on modern Greece mainly through the columns of the London press (Hionidis, 2002, pp. 37–46).

But besides his journalistic endeavours, in the years 1832–1862 George Finlay became the most reliable unofficial source of information on modern Greece for British travellers and British statesmen with an interest in the affairs of the kingdom, as he combined a mastery of ancient and medieval history with an exceptional insight into the condition and "character" of the modern Greeks. Finlay corresponded frequently with William Martin Leake, the well-known topographer of ancient Greece and a committed philhellene, whom he had met at Athens and often mobilized in order to insert letters in London papers or to address the political circles (Hussey, 1995, pp. 476, 591). Finlay, who made the acquaintance of W. R. Wilde at Athens, later provided him with "information... regarding the present condition of Greece & Otho", which eventually appeared in Wilde's book of travel in the East (Wilde, 1840, vol.1, p. 440). John Stuart Blackie and Edward Augustus Freeman, who met Finlay in Greece and belonged to a new generation of philhellenes, were directly influenced by Finlay's analysis of modern Greece (Miliori, 1998, pp. 188, 192).

On the other hand, Sir Edmund Lyons, British minister at Athens, had many opportunities to expound his views on Greek affairs as the host of the more prominent British travellers who visited Greece. Lyons became acquainted with MPs who visited Athens as travellers and provided information on Greek affairs to them as his correspondence proves.⁴

³ See for example: Hobhouse, John Cam (Baron Broughton). Travels in Albania and Others Provinces of Turkey in 1809 & 1810. London, 1855 [First edition: 1813].

⁴ See for example: Inglis to Lyons, 7 December 1840, Lyons Papers, LE74 (I, J, K).

6 Concluding Remarks

The Greek kingdom remained in the margins of the political, economic and intellectual developments in Europe during the first 30 years of its existence and in Britain the affairs of modern Greece scarcely attracted the interest of the statesmen or the press. Indeed only travel literature afforded first-hand knowledge of developments in the Greek kingdom to the British public. The British travellers who visited Greece were primarily preoccupied with the ancient monuments but the literature of travel provided an almost complete presentation of every aspect of the life in modern Greece as well, indirectly compared with the political and economic conditions in Britain.

The judgments and recommendations of British travellers about the needs of the Greek kingdom were developed in three successive phases. The first phase, which can be called “negative”, exhibited, through the description of the gloomy condition of Greece, all the errors and omissions that a state should avoid in its struggle for political stability and material improvement. By exposing the “negative”, the present condition of Greece, British comments clarified and celebrated the “exemplary”, the principles of government and the scientific advancement that had given Britain its world supremacy. In some cases travellers’ instruction became more “constructive”, focusing on the development potentials of the kingdom and on their limits. In a sense, the debate occasioned by the case of Greece was enlarged upon in the question of the elements of national strength.

British perceptions of progress and a sense of self-confidence dominated the whole debate about the deplorable condition of the Greek kingdom in the years 1832–1862. British travellers made a total appraisal of the progress that Greece as an independent state had accomplished in a period of 30 years. The standards used in the assessment of Greece’s advance were by no means novel or especially adopted for the Greek case. In 1851 the Great Exhibition offered an occasion to measure the progress of continental and non-European nations and “nations that were not Westernized or industrialized, were considered lowest in the hierarchy” (Auerbach, 1999, p. 167). In early-Victorian Britain “civilization” implied a number of things that Britain was experiencing and valued: industrial development, free trade, material comfort and liberal political institutions.

The image of the Greek kingdom that emerged was that of a country deprived of the elements that constituted an independent and civilized European state in the nineteenth century. Until 1843 the king was the absolute monarch and after that date the constitution he granted did not challenge his authority. On the contrary, the representative system introduced methods of political corruption and a spirit of intense party struggle. The finances were in a state of ruin and Greece remained an insolvent debtor during the reign of Otho. The revenues of the country and the money collected by the heavy taxation imposed upon the peasants were swallowed by the ineffective administration. In agriculture the methods used for the cultivation of the lands were still primitive. There were no industries, no railways, no roads. The progress in commerce was the result of individual efforts, of the special

aptitudes of the Greek “character”, while the government seemed to detest any plan for the development of the natural resources of the country. Superstitious beliefs and the ignorance of the priests characterized the Greek Church. Even evidence of an “oriental barbarity” was traceable in the Greek kingdom. Brigands infested the country many of whom were in close connection with the political circles. The authorities made use of torture as a method of investigation and suppression of dissatisfied Greeks. Finally, Greece had become the field of Russian and French intrigues aiming at the overthrow of the British influence in the East. This image of Greece was formed during the first years of its independence and, with some new additions in the course of time; these elements were repeated until 1862.

However, these reservations did not deter most travellers from reaffirming their fundamental conviction that the political and material condition of the Greeks could improve by the cultivation of those elements which had led to Britain’s world supremacy. Moreover, there were no references to any biological barriers that inherently prevented the Greeks from developing their country and potentially reforming their “character”.

The expulsion from Greece of King Otho, after a successful revolution at the end of October 1862, rapidly increased British interest in the Greek kingdom and was thoroughly reported and commented on in the press. The Greek kingdom’s stagnation in the lowest rung of the hierarchy of European states emanated from its political and economic problems. Otho was “of a weak disposition, and inferior mental endowments” (Standard, 28 October 1862, 8b), an “incapable and worthless bigot. . . having grown of late extremely fat and somnolent” (Morning Advertiser, 29 October 4b); regardless of his intentions, “he had neither the ability nor the strength of mind which were necessary to fit him for the post” (Morning Herald, 29 October 1862, 4b). Greece had “a most rude and primitive internal economy” and “ever since she was a kingdom, she has been content to have her paper dishonoured and disregarded on every exchange in Europe” (Economist, 1 November 1862, 1207b). Under these circumstances no effort had been made to improve the infrastructure of the country. After 30 years as an independent state Greece simply had not managed to adjust itself to the age.

By 1862 the issue of the internal disintegration of the Greek kingdom, which had been presented by numerous travellers during the previous 30 years, had already acquired the status of an indisputable fact in Britain.

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Agritourism as a Form of Recreation for Students

Agata Balińska

Abstract The aim of this paper is to analyze agritourism as a form of spending leisure time by students. It presents the main factors determining the demand for agritourism in both positive and negative way. In the national statistics students do not constitute a separate group. Therefore, in order to approximate the level of students' tourist activity, the analysis was based on data relating to two age groups (15–19, 20–29 years) and one socio-professional group, i.e. “pupils and students”. Additionally, the paper presents the results of author's own survey conducted on a sample of 330 students of the Faculty of Economic Sciences at Warsaw University of Life Sciences. These studies provide information about the changes which should be implemented in agritourism services to increase the demand for rural tourism among students.

Keywords Agritourism • Determinants of demand • Students

1 Introduction

In the area of tourism, youth is one of the most active demographic groups in Poland. This is due to many reasons, mainly the lack of or limited work and family commitments. Young people use both holiday packages offered by travel agencies, as well as organize their travels by themselves. Students are a distinctive group of young people as, having come of age, they can take independent decisions in many areas of their life. Previous studies indicate that young people, including students, rarely consider farmhouses as holiday destinations.

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2 Literature Review

Agritourism is a form of recreation taking place in rural areas. Tourists stay on a farm with an arable land, an orchard or a garden or on a fishing farm where they use available services and infrastructure located on the same farm or in the neighbourhood. This concept of agritourism is consistent with the approach of most authors (Drzewiecki, 2001; Gaworecki, 2003; Kurek, 2011; Sikora, 2012). The term agritourism in both the literature and economy is used interchangeably with the term rural tourism, which is a wider term than agritourism, and covers accommodation in guest houses, inns and cottages. The issue of defining agritourism and its relationship with rural tourism has been addressed by many authors (Bhujbal, 2012, pp. 1–3; Phillip, Hunter, & Blackstock, 2010, pp. 754–758).

The term “agritourism” has been used in Polish literature and economic practice from the early 1990s. However, this does not mean, that this form of recreation did not previously exist. In the 1920s and 1930s of the twentieth century the middle class townspeople spent summer in country houses—often rented farmhouses. After the Second World War, private accommodation in the country was included in the competence of state institution named Employee Holiday Fund, which obstructed the development of this form of recreation.

The revival and intensification of rural tourism development took place in the early 1990s. For over 20 years we have seen a quantitative and qualitative growth in agritourism. Currently, the number of farm stays is estimated at 8,000–10,000.

The growing agritourism service market is a result of the changes taking place in consumer attitudes and tourist supply which have an impact on the demand. The most important changes include:

1. Diversification of tourists' needs. The expectations of today's tourists are extremely diverse. Some people are looking for the sun and the sea (3S), some for extreme sensations (3E) and some seek new culture experiences. The growing pace of life (especially in big cities) results in the increasing number of tourists primarily looking for peace, quiet and contact with nature. These needs cannot be met in hotels and recreation centres accommodating hundreds or thousands of visitors with the vibrant nightlife as one of the main attraction. They can be met on cosy farm situated far from the city. What is more, agritourism can meet higher-level needs—like the need for appreciation, respect and sense of belonging to the group. On a guest farm tourists are not anonymous. Usually they receive as much attention and kindness as they expect. This kind interest is not only offered by the farm owners but also by other residents of the village.
2. Eco-fashion. In the last several years, in Poland and other European Union countries alike, residents of big cities have developed an increasing interest in organic food, which is reflected in the growing number of stores selling organic produce (both offline and online) and organic farms, (in 2012 there were 25,944

organic farms in Poland¹). Also, more and more supermarkets and hypermarkets sell certified organic food. The countryside, farms, and thus agritourism farmhouses are often associated, (not always correctly), with natural food and a healthy lifestyle.

3. Making savings and rational income management. The average cost of accommodation on a farm is 2–3 times lower than the average price of accommodation in a hotel. Obviously, there are exceptions. Also in Poland, you can find a farm where the price of accommodation is comparable to the price of the same service in a four-star or five-star hotel in Warsaw. Still, the vast majority of farms offer affordable prices. This is important for the Polish society whose purchasing power is one of the lowest in the European Union, (5,870 euros per person according to the GfK index compared with the European average 12,890 euros²).
4. The search for originality. The characteristic feature of guest farms is their unique character; especially in comparison to chain hotels. Each farm has its own inimitable atmosphere. Even the farm stays located in the same village, and so sharing the same set of characteristics, (like regional assets), differ in terms of accommodation or recreational facilities and activities. However, the key differentiating factor will be the owner with his or her unique skills and features.
5. Socio-demographic changes. In the interwar and the post-war periods Poland was primarily an agricultural country (in 1931—72.6 % of the population lived in rural areas, in 1950—61 % and in 2012—39 %). A large part of the urban population comes from rural areas; hence the natural desire to return to what seems familiar and well-known.
6. The diminishing number of venues providing collective accommodation (from 7,792 in 1991 to 7,206 in 2010³). These venues include hotels whose number has increased from 515 in 1991 to 1,796 in 2010⁴ and 2,014 in 2012 (Tourism in 2012, CSO 2013). However, hotels are primarily used by foreign tourists and people travelling on business, which results from their locations (mainly in cities) and relatively high prices of services. The number of holiday venues like guest houses and youth hostels is decreasing. The resulting gap is being filled by guest rooms and farm stays.

However, it has to be noted that potential clients of agritourism encounter some obstacles that result in the relatively low proportion of farm stay accommodation in the total number of holiday venues chosen by domestic tourists (3 % of the short-term trips and 4 % of long-term trips⁵). The major constraints to the development of agritourism as a form of recreation include (Balińska & Sikorska-Wolak, 2009; Bhujbal, 2012; Zawadka, 2010):

¹ Data available from <http://www.minrol.gov.pl> (accessed 26.10.2013).

² Data available from <http://www.gfk.com> (accessed 20.03.2014).

³ Data available from <http://www.intur.com.pl> (accessed 20.10.2013).

⁴ Data available from <http://www.intur.com.pl> (accessed 20.10.2013).

⁵ Data available from <http://www.intur.com.pl> (accessed 16.01.2013).

1. Stereotypical perception of rural areas and agritourism by urban residents. The research conducted by various research centres in Poland, including the author's own research, show that rural tourism is associated with peace and quiet, contact with nature and boredom. It is also perceived as an attraction for seniors or families with small children.
2. The perception of the attractiveness of rural tourism only through the prism of low prices. This leads to a situation where the tourists with bigger financial potential do not take into account spending holidays in Polish countryside.
3. Liberal use of the term "agritourism". The term is not reserved as in the case of "hotel", "motel" or "guest house" and there are no legal regulations concerning the operation of farm stays. Moreover, the existing legislation does not treat agritourism as an economic activity if it is conducted in an agricultural holding. If a farm stay offers no more than five guest rooms, this activity is exempt from income tax burden. Consequently, the businesses operating under the banner of "agritourism" are increasingly often not real farms but small guesthouses and other recreational venues run by quasi farmers. The previously conducted research studies suggest that tourists choosing rural destinations want to make an informed decision whether to stay on a working farm where agriculture is being practiced or venues which are farms by name only.
4. Scattered information about agritourism farms. The Internet is nowadays the main source of information. Unfortunately, not all farms run their own websites. Most offers are put on the websites of agritourism associations, agricultural advisory centres, local tourist organizations and municipal offices. There is no integrated information system on farm stay accommodation.
5. In Poland, the typology of farm stays which could facilitate the precise targeting of potential tourists is at the early stage of development, and applies to farms associated in the Polish Federation of Rural Tourism "Hospitable Farms". For many years (including the period when the empirical studies cited in this article were conducted) there was no such typology, which undoubtedly made it difficult for the tourists to find an offer meeting their expectations.
6. Insufficiently developed recreational infrastructure in rural areas. Farms located near the lake or in the mountains are usually treated as accommodation base, and most tourists spend their free time off-farm enjoying regional assets. In less attractive regions with less developed recreational infrastructure (e.g. central Poland) tourists expect that the farm owner will provide them with sufficient attractions. Unfortunately, due to financial reasons, only few owners of holiday farms can afford to build an indoor swimming pool, tennis courts or indoor horse riding school. Moreover, farm owners associated in tourism clusters or other organizations are rather reluctant to make facilities on their farm available for tourists staying on another farm. The reasons lie both in the mentality and legal barriers. As long as the tennis courts, horse riding or canoeing are available for the farmer's own guests, according to the law, it is not a business activity. However offering the same facilities or organized activities for tourists staying on another farm require formal registration of business activity, paying taxes, insurance policy, etc.

3 Methodology

The purpose of this article is to identify the positioning of agritourism as a form of recreation in the perception of university students and pinpoint the elements that should be included in the agritourism offer to make it attractive for this group of customers. The research problems have been formulated in the form of the following questions:

1. What factors exert positive impact and what factors exert negative impact on the choice of agritourism as a form of leisure time activity?
2. What is the size and structure of the tourist trips made by young people in Poland?
3. What are the students' experiences and associations with agritourism?
4. What elements should be included in the farm holiday offer to attract the tested group of respondents?

To achieve the key objective and to answer the research questions the study draws from the review of literature, the analysis of the national statistics and the results of a survey carried out on a sample of 330 randomly selected students of the Faculty of Economic Sciences at Warsaw University of Life Sciences. The questionnaire for the survey was designed by the author and consisted of nine questions (closed, open and semi-open) and respondent personal data form. The research was conducted in the period from November 2013 to February 2014.

The research study contributes to the area of potential demand for agritourism services and identifies the determinants of the transformation of the potential demand into the real one.

4 Results

In the national statistics there is not a separately defined group of students. Depending on the adopted criteria, students fall in two age groups, i.e. 15–19 and 20–29, and in one socio-professional group, i.e. “pupils and students” (Table 1).

Students are relatively active tourists. The proportion of people participating in long-term trips in 2012 was higher only in the group of senior officers and independent professionals and amounted to 66 %. The age group of 15–19 years demonstrates the highest tourist activity in the country with regard to long-term and short-term domestic trips as well as trips abroad. Pupils and students are most active international travellers—as much as 43 % went on a trip abroad.

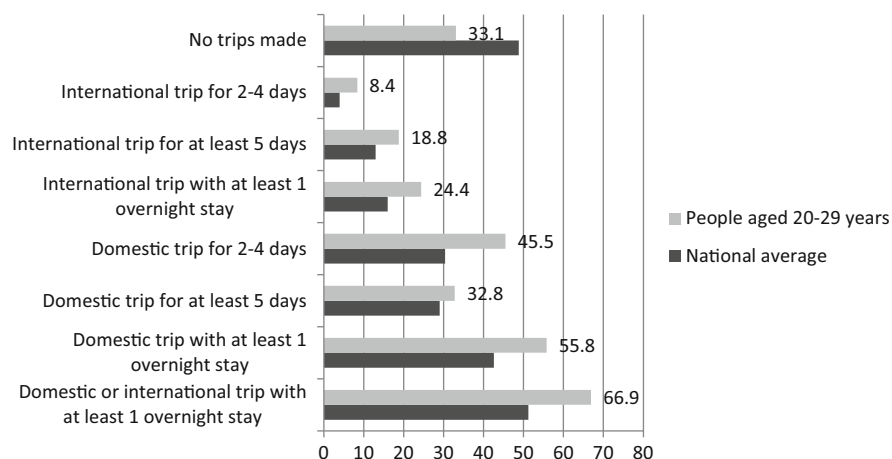
Due to the fact that studying youth primarily fit in the age range 20–29 years the data presented below will refer to this segment of customers.

The data presented in Fig. 1 show that the tourist activity of people aged 20–29 years is much higher than the national average. Most people participated in domestic trips with at least one overnight stay (55.8 %) while the lowest number

Table 1 Tourist activity of young people

Groups	Proportion participating in: (in %)		
	Long-term domestic trips	Short-term domestic trips	Trips abroad
15–19 years	51	57	34
20–29 years	33	46	24
Pupils and students	61	60	43

Source: own elaboration based on: Łaciak, J. (2013). *Aktywność turystyczna mieszkańców Polski w wyjazdach turystycznych w 2012 roku (Tourist Activity of Polish Residents in 2012)*. Warszawa: Instytut Turystyki

**Fig. 1** Tourist activity of people aged 20–29 years vs. national average. Source: as in Table 1

participated in international trips for 2–4 days. Only one in three representatives of this group was not an active tourist in 2012 (Fig. 1).

Like the rest of the society, people from the analyzed age group participate in the long-term travels for recreational purpose, and short-term trips for family reasons. The analyzed group did not declare travelling for health purpose and only to a small extent travelled for religious purpose (Fig. 2).

The youth travels are characterized by significant seasonality, higher than the national average (Fig. 3).

The survey was conducted in November and December 2013 on a random sample of 330 students of Warsaw University of Life Sciences. The majority of the group were women (73.3 %). The respondent group included: third year students (40.3 %), second year students of graduate studies (27.9 %), second year students (21.8 %) and first year students (10 %) of undergraduate studies. In the opinion of the author the origin of the respondents has a significant impact on their perception of rural tourism as a form of recreation and thus on the demand for agritourism services. The majority of the respondents came from villages in Mazovian Voivodeship (24.2 %), Warsaw (23.0 %), towns with powiat (county)

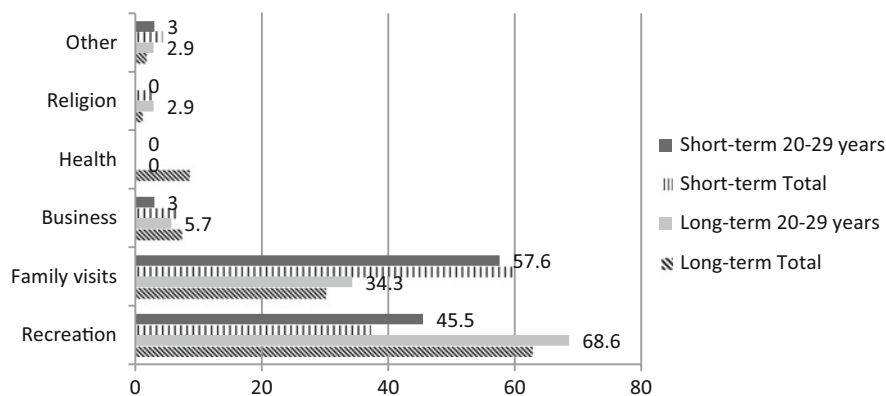


Fig. 2 Purposes of domestic trips. Youth tourists vs. national average. Source: as in Table 1

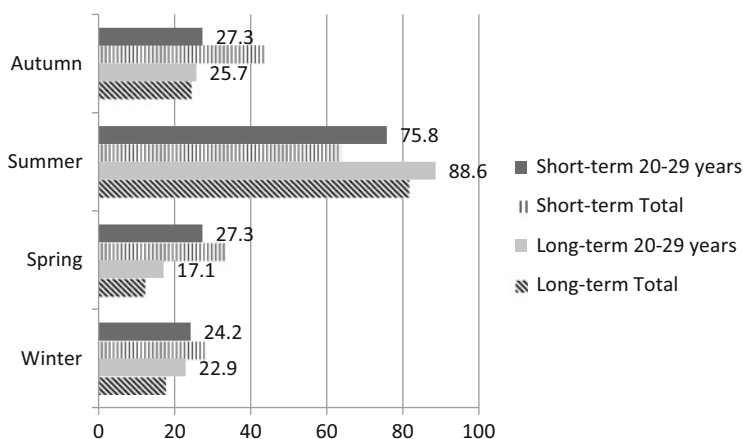


Fig. 3 Youth proportion in tourist trips by seasons vs. national average. Source: as in Fig. 1

status (11.8 %) and towns with gmina (commune) status in Mazovian Voivodeship (12.7 %). One in three respondents came from outside the Mazovian Voivodeship, (mainly: Podlaskie, Lublin, Lodz and Warmian and Mazurian Voivodeships). Their share in the sample amounted to 12.7 % from towns with powiat (county) status, 4.8 % from towns with gmina (commune) status and 10.8 % from rural areas.

The subject of the research was student's expectations of farm stays (Fig. 4).

The respondents pointed out that the agritourism farm should primarily be located far from noise sources such as busy roads or neighbours, preferably surrounded by fields and forests. The expectation that it will be a classic working farm, where you can learn plant and animal cultivation was the least expected feature.

Almost one third (32.4 %) of the respondents stayed on a farm, mostly once or twice (respectively 9.4 % and 10.6 % of respondents). More frequent farm visitors

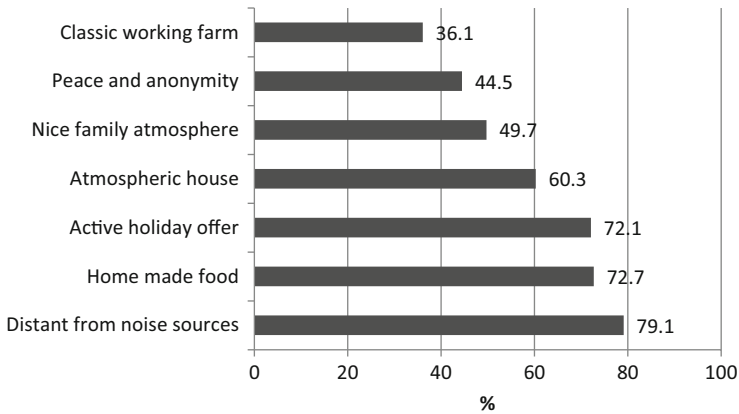


Fig. 4 Expectations concerning farm stays. Source: own research. Respondents could choose more than one answer

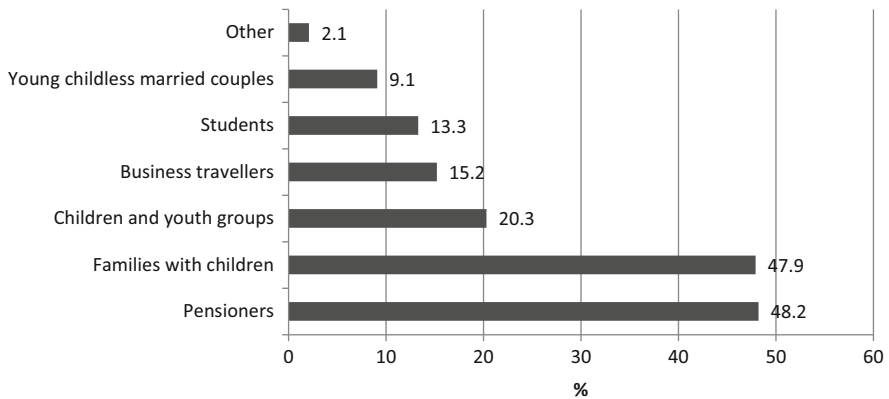


Fig. 5 Target groups for agritourism—demographic criterion. Source: own elaboration. Respondents could choose more than one answer

reported three stays—2.7 %, four stays—4.2 % or “a few” stays—5.5 %. Respondents who have not yet been on a guest farm pointed to the following reasons: the lack of opportunity—23.3 % of all respondents, the fact of being rural residents—20.6 % and the perception of rural tourism as an unattractive form of spending leisure time—2.4 %.

The respondents see rural tourism through the prism of stereotypes as a form of recreation that is attractive for the elderly and families with children (Fig. 5).

It should be noted that only 13.3 % of the respondents feel that agritourism caters for the needs of students.

The previously mentioned expectations of rural tourism correspond to the typology of tourists who, in the opinion of the respondents, feel well on a farm (Fig. 6).

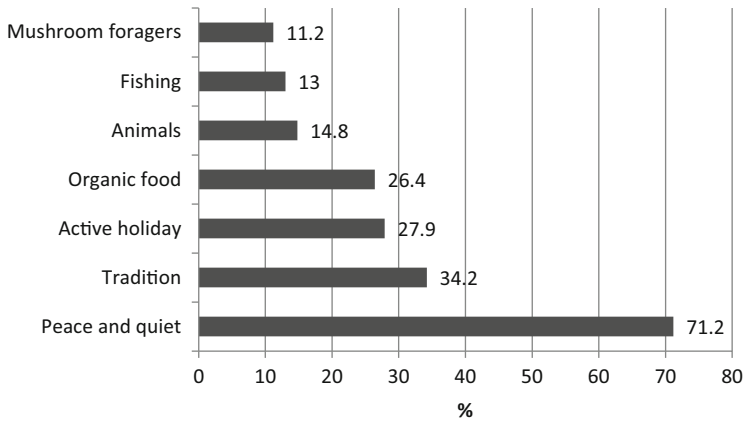


Fig. 6 Target groups for agritourism—purpose/interests criterion. Source: own elaboration; respondents could choose more than one answer



Fig. 7 Factors stimulating demand for agritourism among students. Source: own elaboration. Respondents could choose more than one answer

According to the respondents, holiday farms offer activities primarily addressed to those who mostly enjoy peace and quiet or want to experience tradition. However, it should be emphasized that almost one in three respondents pointed out that the agritourism services are addressed active holidays fans.

The research thesis stated that the factor which could improve the appeal of rural tourism as a form of recreation for students, and consequently stimulate the demand for rural holidays, would be the possibility of spending free time in an active way. This thesis has been confirmed. The data in Fig. 7 show that for most students active forms of spending leisure time could be the factor influencing their choice of a farm stay as a holiday destination.

For almost one in four respondents the incentive to choose a farm as a tourist destination would be the opportunity to hold group bonding retreats. The “other” category included: compatibility between the visit program and the field of studies, en-suite bathroom, the improved image of agritourism and the proximity of a grocery store.

5 Conclusion

The choice of agritourism as a form of leisure activity depends on many factors, both economic and non-economic. There are also a number of barriers that limit the demand for such services. Young people, including students, are the most active group of tourists. Their present interest in recreation in the countryside in the form of rural tourism is rather low. The results of the author’s research correspond to the change model in the segments of tourists in rural areas developed by Molera and Albaladejo (2007, pp. 757–767). In their opinion, the interest of students in active holidays in the countryside will be increasing. Also Frochot (2005, pp. 335–346) found that people under 24 years of age going to the countryside prefer active forms of relaxation. Only 8.7 % of farm guests were below 24 years of age and the proportion of students was even smaller and amounted to 5.8 %. In order to change this situation the expectations of this customer segment should be taken into account and be included in the rural holiday activity offers. Attracting this group is in the interest of the guest farm owners. Overcoming the barriers preventing people from reaching for the rural tourism services may boost the demand for agritourism in subsequent periods.

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The Effect of Visiting Friends and Relatives on Expatriates' Destination Knowledge:

Abstract

Chris Dutt, Ivan Ninov, and Donna Haas

Abstract The topic of Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR) has received relatively little consideration in extant literature. While the focus on VFR is increasing a number of gaps, consequently, still exist. Additionally, the role of expatriates in tourism also appears to be an under-researched topic. This study particularly focused on the impact of VFR tourists on their expat-hosts' ability to learn about the destination in which they reside. A two-stage study was conducted, using interviews and questionnaires to explore this relationship. The findings suggested that expatriates do learn when their VFR traveller visits, although the hypothesised model and relationships appeared to demonstrate weak impacts.

Keywords Visiting Friends and Relatives • Host learning • Expatriates • Tourism learning

1 Purpose

On many occasions, expatriates have exclaimed that they only truly see a destination for what it is and for what it has to offer when they have a visitor stay with them. In the literature, only one study (Shani & Uriely, 2012) considered how Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR) affected the host. No study has considered how VFR travellers enable their hosts to gain knowledge about the destination in which they reside, least of all expatriate-hosts. From a combination of VFR and psychology literature, it was suggested that hosts and travellers do influence each other, but the exact nature of these influences is not well understood and has not been applied to promoting expat-host learning. It was theorised that expat-hosts would learn more if their visitor stayed with them, and was an older and more educated relative who travelled to see the host specifically.

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2 Method

A mixed method, two stage study was conducted to measure the impact of VFR travellers on expat-hosts learning. The first qualitative stage interviewed ten expatriates in Dubai and attempted to understand how the VFR traveller affected expat-hosts' learning. The second stage analysed 3,058 e-questionnaires distributed to Dubai expatriates to test the aforementioned influences upon expat-hosts' learning about Dubai. The interview results were used to develop the e-questionnaire in terms of expat-hosts' involvement in activities and areas of learning.

3 Findings

The interviews added to the literature by further elaborating on the expat-hosts' perception of duty to their visitor. This 'duty' appeared from the interviews as the main reason why expat-hosts' learnt about the destination. That is, their perceived duty to their traveller influenced learning directly as a result of participating in activities with their visitors. Expat-hosts' learning due to the traveller was prominent in the participants' responses. The quantitative findings suggested that expat-hosts do learn about the destination as a result of their visitor, although the aforementioned influencers seemed to possess weak relationships and influences upon the expat-hosts' learning. The relatives' reason for travel and accommodation chosen were found to promote the strongest relationships regarding learning and are the best predictors of expat-hosts' knowledge acquisition from the proposed model.

4 Implications and Originality

VFR tourism has received limited focus in previous literature, and focus on the host has received even less. This study aimed to fill this gap by developing an understanding of VFR tourism and its impact upon the host. The results of this study can allow businesses to better target a misunderstood, lucrative, and under-represented market (Jackson, 2003) which conservatively could generate between 390,000 and 500,000 AED (GBP 63,700–81,600) additional spending over roughly a 2 week period. For tourism sites which focus on tourist and expatriate education, this research can explain the likelihood of success and prudent methodologies; e.g. encouraging visitors to patron sites with their host will promote a perceived knowledge improvement for the expat.

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Visitor Attraction Management: Is There Space for New Thinking Despite the Crisis? The Cases of Buckingham Palace and the Museum of Acropolis

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Abstract In the era of globalisation and economic crisis, an alarming issue has been raised in relation with the tourism product offered to visitors. Specifically, historical and important from a cultural perspective places are being severely affected by the latest socioeconomic evolutions and consist the first victims of these. Historically, visitor attraction management was neglected but during the last years it has emerged as an essential and vital means of survival for places, sometimes even countries.

The attractions sector is vital to the success of the Greek tourism industry. However, attraction managers today face a wide range of challenges, opportunities and threats, that will determine the future success of the sector. For example, for attractions which successfully embrace new technologies—such as Virtual Reality and the Internet—these technologies are an opportunity to achieve competitive advantage. Additionally, there is a need for the sector to become more cohesive and speak with one voice, so it can have greater influence on the government policy-making process and resulting legislation affecting the industry. Moreover, Greek attraction managers can learn a lot from successful foreign practices: from design and marketing, to catering and providing for disabled visitors.

Aim and main focus of this article lies on the opportunities that existing socioeconomic conditions have created by utilising a diverse way of thinking that could lead to the light at the end of the tunnel. Our study will explore the different strategies followed by Buckingham Palace and the Museum of Acropolis and how

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these paths led them to capitalise as well as drive them to success despite of the crisis. From a methodological approach, this study will utilise interviews and questionnaires with professionals who occupy themselves with these strategies as well as utilising all existing theoretical background on the subject.

Finally, within Greece, the government needs to take action to create a more level playing field for attraction operators. Subsidies to major national museums and huge National Lottery grants for new projects are probably ‘unfair’ competition for most small attractions.

Keywords Visitor attraction management • Tourism marketing • Consumer behavior • Marketing strategy • Planning

Introduction

Tourist attractions, both man-made and natural, are the core components of a region’s tourism product. Without attractions there is no need for other tourism services. It has often been stated that without attractions, tourism as we know it would not exist (Gunn, 1994). The need to study tourist attractions has been discussed by numerous authors (Gunn, 1994; Leiper, 1990; Lew, 1994; Pearce, 1991). Attraction research has tended to focus on the characteristics of visitors, with little attention given to the characteristics of attraction businesses. This study seeks to investigate the issues posed by the recent economic crisis and how this was experienced by tourist attractions and moreover their ability to adjust to changes, remain viable and look over to a prosperous future.

1 Tourist Attractions: Their Role

Most commentators agree that attractions provide the core elements for the development of the tourism product of a destination (Gunn, 1994; Holloway, 2006; Lundberg, 1985; Swarbrooke, 1995, 2006; Varvaresos, 2005). Gunn (1988) and paraphrasing Milman (2001) describe attractions as the ‘first power’, ‘lodestones for pleasure’ and the real energiser of tourism in a region. Without attractions both inferred and developed, there would be no need for other tourism services. Swarbrooke (1995, 2006) has demonstrated this concept pictorially with a four stage model demonstrating the role of attractions in the development of destinations. Pigram (1983) takes a more pragmatic approach by stating bluntly that without attractions tourism as we know it would not exist. Several authors have supported the notion that attractions are the primary reason for the existence of the *tourism system* (Gunn, 1988; Leiper, 1990; Mill & Morrison, 1985; Cooper et al, 2005). Attractions serve two key functions in the tourism system: they *stimulate* interest in travel to a destination and they provide visitor *satisfaction* (Gunn, 1994). At a more holistic level, tourist attractions play an increasingly vital role in triggering opportunities for regional employment (Johnson & Thomas, 1990) and economic growth.

1.1 *Tourist Attractions: A Plethora of Definitions*

A number of researchers have highlighted the lack of a succinct, rigorous definition which is relevant to all visitor attractions (Leiper, 1990; Pearce, 1991; Swarbrooke, 1995; Walsh-Heron & Stevens, 1990). Swarbrooke (1995, 2006) and Leask (2008) point out that the difficulty in defining tourist attractions is due to two key reasons. Firstly, it is difficult to determine the number of visitors that have to travel to a site before it can be classed as an attraction. Secondly, the purpose for visiting a site may determine whether it should be classed as an attraction. These technicalities are further complicated by the incongruent nature of attractions. While various definitions have been suggested, they vary in terms of their purpose, disciplinary approach, applicability and simplicity (Table 1).

1.2 *Tourist Attractions: Do They Need Classification?*

Any study of tourist attractions would be incomplete without a consideration of the various methods of classifying attractions. Classification is necessitated by the need for meaningful comparisons between the many disparate parts of the attraction sector (Leask, 2010). A number of tourist attraction classifications have been suggested by researchers. As Table 2 indicates, some of the most common classification schemes are based along dimensions such as *man-made* versus *natural* or *sites* versus *events*.

The further development of a multi-dimensional approach which makes use of continua along each dimension would offer a potentially potent method of classifying attractions. In his synthesis of a number of tourism attraction studies, Lew (1994), takes this approach by suggesting that the categorisation of attractions can be summarised by three major perspectives:

1. *Ideographic*—emphasis on the general environmental features of a place, including natural beauty, climate, culture, and social customs or characteristics. Classified along a continuum ranging from *nature–nature/human interface–human*;
2. *Organisational*—a focus on spatial, capacity and temporal characteristics. Classified along a continuum of *individual/separation–collectivity/connection*;
3. *Cognitive*—emphasises the study of visitor perceptions and experiences. Classified along a continuum of *security–risk*.

Lew's contribution to attraction research facilitates cross-perspective measures, thus allowing for the multi-dimensional classification of attractions along several continua.

Table 1 Definitions of tourist attractions

Author	Definition
Lundberg (1985)	Tourist attractions are by definition anything that attracts tourists
Mill and Morrison (1985)	Attractions, by definition, have the ability to draw people to them
Holloway (1985)	Any site that appeals to people sufficiently to encourage them to travel there in order to visit it can be judged a visitor attraction
Middleton (1988)	A designated permanent resource which is controlled and managed for the enjoyment, amusement, entertainment and education of the visiting public
Epperson (1989)	An attraction is a destination that pulls or entices a person to it
Lavery and Stevens (1990)	Any resource which is managed for the enjoyment of the visiting public... they have a clear identity and fixed perimeters, their function is to entertain visitors and they rely on visitors for all or part of their income
Leiper (1990)	A tourist attraction is a system comprising three elements: a tourist or human element, a nucleus or central element, and a marker or informative element. A tourist attraction comes into existence when the three elements are connected
Walsh-Heron and Stevens (1990)	A visitor attraction is a feature in an area that is a place, venue, or focus of activity and does the following: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sets out to attract visitors (<i>day visitors from resident and tourist populations</i>) and is managed accordingly 2. Provides a fun and pleasurable experience and an enjoyable way for customers to spend their leisure time 3. Is developed to realise this potential 4. Is managed as an attraction, providing satisfaction to its customers 5. Provides an appropriate level of facilities and services to meet and cater to the demands, needs, and interest of its visitors 6. May or may not charge admission for entry
Scottish Tourist Board (1991)	A permanently established excursion destination, a primary purpose of which is to allow public access for entertainment, interest of education; rather than being a primary retail outlet or a venue for sporting, theatrical, or film performances. It must be open to the public, without prior booking, for published period each year, and should be capable of attracting day visitors of tourists, as well as local residents
Pearce (1991)	A tourist attraction is a named site with a specific human or natural feature which is the focus of visitor and management attention
Gunn (1994)	Attractions are those developed locations that are planned and managed for visitor interest, activity, and enjoyment
Lew (1994)	Tourist attractions consist of all those elements of a “ <i>nonhome</i> ” place that draw discretionary travellers away from their homes

Table 2 Tourist attraction classification schemes

Classification	Source
Natural, human-modified, human made	Lavery and Stevens (1990), Pearce (1998), Wall (1997), Yale (1998)
Natural, man-made non-tourist, man-made for tourists, special events	Swarbrooke (1995)
Drawing power/Catchment (<i>international, national, regional, local</i>)	Mill and Morrison (1985), Pearce (1998), Swarbrooke (1995), Wall (1997)
Indoor versus outdoor	Wall (1997), Yale (1998)
Public stewardship versus private ownership	Gunn (1994), Pearce (1998), Wall (1997)
Permanent, seasonal, occasional	Wall (1997)
Site versus event	Burkart et al. (1974), Lundberg (1980), Mill and Morrison (1985), Yale (1998)
Paid entry versus free entry	Yale (1998)
Point, line, area	Wall (1997)
Number of visits	Pearce (1998), Swarbrooke (1995)
Content/Resource base (<i>ethnic, political, religious, agricultural, wildlife, physical</i>)	Epperson (1989), Gunn (1994), Pearce (1998), Yale (1998)
Primary (<i>Long-stay</i>) versus Secondary (<i>Touring</i>)	Gunn (1994), Mill and Morrison (1985), Swarbrooke (1995)
Location (rural, coastal, urban)	Gunn (1994), Swarbrooke (1995)
Size of site	Swarbrooke (1995)
Target markets	Swarbrooke (1995)
Benefits sought	Swarbrooke (1995)
Clustered versus Isolated	Robinson (1976)
Contrived, staged, denial of authenticity, authentic	Cohen (1979)

2 The Buckingham Palace and the Acropolis Museum: A Historical Overview

During the mid 1970s the ‘Big Bang’ of museums is situated and reflects the great importance and interest shown from several European cities for the construction and development of new museums or the expansion of already existing (Van Aalst & Boogaarts, 2002, Whitfield, 2009). Kotler, Asplund, Rein, and Haider (1999) make a reference for the ‘big wave’ of museums, explaining the phenomenon as a result of the cities antagonism as well as their intention to improve their image. Museum marketing contribution depends on the adoption of the hypotheses that museums are ‘goods’ that refer to specific targeted markets contributing to the economic and cultural development of cities and satisfying the demands and expectations of the potential markets (Beech & Chadwick, 2006). Changing page from the theoretical part of this study, it is time to dedicate some lines to present the case study attractions that will occupy us for the next few pages.

2.1 *The Buckingham Palace*

Buckingham Palace is the official London residence and principal workplace of the British monarch. Located in the City of Westminster, the palace is a setting for state occasions and royal hospitality. It has been a focus for the British people at times of national rejoicing and crisis.

Originally known as Buckingham House, the building which forms the core of today's palace was a large townhouse built for the Duke of Buckingham in 1705 on a site which had been in private ownership for at least 150 years. It was subsequently acquired by George III in 1761 as a private residence for Queen Charlotte, and known as "*The Queen's House*". During the nineteenth century it was enlarged, principally by architects John Nash and Edward Blore, forming three wings around a central courtyard. Buckingham Palace finally became the official royal palace of the British monarch on the accession of Queen Victoria in 1837 (Robinson, 1999). The last major structural additions were made in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, including the East front, which contains the well-known balcony on which the royal family traditionally congregates to greet crowds outside. However, the palace chapel was destroyed by a German bomb in World War II; the Queen's Gallery was built on the site and opened to the public in 1962 to exhibit works of art from the Royal Collection.

The original early nineteenth-century interior designs, many of which still survive, included widespread use of brightly coloured scagliola and blue and pink lapis, on the advice of Sir Charles Long. King Edward VII oversaw a partial redecoration in a *Belle Époque* cream and gold colour scheme. Many smaller reception rooms are furnished in the Chinese regency style with furniture and fittings brought from the Royal Pavilion at Brighton and from Carlton House (Robinson, 1999). The Buckingham Palace Garden is the largest private garden in London. The state rooms, used for official and state entertaining, are open to the public each year for most of August and September, as part of the Palace's Summer Opening.

2.2 *The Acropolis Museum*

The monuments of the Acropolis have withstood the ravages of past centuries, both of ancient times and those of the Middle Ages. Until the seventeenth century, foreign travellers visiting the monuments depicted the classical buildings as being intact. This remained the case until the middle of the same century, when the Propylaia was blown up while being used as a gunpowder store. Thirty years later, the Ottoman occupiers dismantled the neighbouring Temple of Athena Nike to use its materials to strengthen the fortification of the Acropolis. The most fatal year, however, for the Acropolis, was 1687, when many of the building's architectural members were blown into the air and fell in heaps around the Hill of the

Acropolis, caused by a bomb from the Venetian forces. Foreign visitors to the Acropolis would search through the rubble and take fragments of the fallen sculptures as their souvenirs. It was in the nineteenth century that Lord Elgin removed intact architectural sculptures from the frieze, the metopes and the pediments of the building (<http://www.theacropolismuseum.gr/el/content/i-organosi-0> and <http://www.theacropolismuseum.gr/el/content/istoria-0>).

In 1833, the Turkish garrison withdrew from the Acropolis. Immediately after the founding of the Greek State, discussions about the construction of an Acropolis Museum on the Hill of the Acropolis began. In 1863, it was decided that the Museum be constructed on a site to the southeast of the Parthenon and foundations were laid on 30 December 1865. The building program for the Museum had provided that its height not surpasses the height of the stylobate of the Parthenon. With only 800 m² of floor space, the building was rapidly shown to be inadequate to accommodate the findings from the large excavations on the Acropolis that began in 1886. A second museum was announced in 1888, the so-called Little Museum. Final changes occurred in 1946–1947 with the second Museum being demolished and the original being sizably extended. By the 1970s, the Museum could not cope satisfactorily with the large numbers of visitors passing through its doors. The inadequacy of the space frequently caused problems and downgraded the sense that the exhibition of the masterpieces from the Rock sought to achieve. The Acropolis Museum was firstly conceived by Constantinos Karamanlis in September 1976. He also selected the site, upon which the Museum was finally built, decades later. With his penetrating vision, C. Karamanlis defined the need and established the means for a new Museum equipped with all technical facilities for the conservation of the invaluable Greek artifacts, where eventually the Parthenon sculptures will be reunited. For these reasons, architectural competitions were conducted in 1976 and 1979, but without success. In 1989, Melina Mercouri, who as Minister of Culture inextricably identified her policies with the claim for the return of the Parthenon Marbles from the British Museum, initiated an international architectural competition. The results of this competition were annulled following the discovery of a large urban settlement on the Makriyianni site dating from Archaic to Early Christian Athens. This discovery now needed to be integrated into the New Museum that was to be built on this site (<http://www.theacropolismuseum.gr/el/content/i-organosi-0> and <http://www.theacropolismuseum.gr/el/content/istoria-0>).

In the year 2000, the Organization for the Construction of the New Acropolis Museum announced an invitation to a new tender, which was realized in accord with the Directives of the European Union. It is this Tender that has come to fruition with the awarding of the design tender to Bernard Tschumi with Michael Photiadis and their associates and the completion of construction in 2007. Today, the new Acropolis Museum has a total area of 25,000 m², with exhibition space of over 14,000 m², ten times more than that of the old museum on the Hill of the Acropolis. The new Museum offers all the amenities expected in an international museum of the twenty-first century (<http://www.theacropolismuseum.gr/el/content/i-organosi-0>, and <http://www.theacropolismuseum.gr/el/content/istoria-0>).

3 Analysing Buckingham Palace and the Acropolis Museum: What Have They Done to Ensure Financial Crisis Does not Create Cultural Exclusion?

Attractions change over time due to physical deterioration and as a result of changing consumer needs (Gunn, 1988). Butler (1980) has suggested that the life cycle concept can be applied to the evolution of tourism products. It is proposed that tourism products experience several phases including development, introduction, growth and maturity. The maturity stage is followed by decline, stagnation or rejuvenation, depending on the *environmental forces* that impact on an attraction (Hu & Wall, 2005). The evaluation and anticipation of environmental changes is at the core of successful planning. The analysis of environmental forces improves the planning process by identifying trends that will reduce risk and uncertainty (Hu & Wall, 2005; Jurowski & Olsen, 1995). A discussion of emerging environmental trends is clearly beneficial when investigating how tourist attraction managers plan for the future. Kotler (1998) and more up to date Hu and Wall (2005) and Moutinho (2005) suggest that an organisation's environment is made up of a *micro-environment* and a *macro-environment*. This distinction provides a practical framework for discussing the forces which will shape attractions in the future.

3.1 The Micro Environment

The Individual Attraction

Pearce (1998) examined a number of tourist attractions in the United States, Italy and Australia and derived twelve leading management and marketing trends. These trends, summarised in Table 3, they do provide new perspectives on emerging practises in the attractions sector. Wet-weather facilities which extend the seasonal demand for attractions will also become more common. The trend toward experience-based leisure will drive the need for more sophisticated ways of enlivening attractions. Live theatre, living history and frequently changing programs of events will lead to greater investment in staff rather than capital (Lavery & Stevens, 1990). This will lead to the provision of enhanced service and personal attention to visitors. Jurowski and Olsen (1995) argue that attraction operators will respond to an increasingly disaggregated market by providing a more extensive range of products and services. Lavery and Stevens (1990) supported Pearce's (1998) suggestion that retailing will play an increasingly important role in tourist attractions. They suggested that the closer the relevance of souvenirs to the core theme of the attraction, the greater the visitor interest in purchasing.

In both cases, the Buckingham Palace and the Acropolis Museum, present the visitor with permanent and seasonal exhibitions with state of the art services such as guided tours with professional staff or self guided with audio support. Interactive and live participation during the tour presenting the visitor with a 'first hand'

Table 3 Summary of leading trends in tourist attractions

Trend	Description
All inclusive price	The trend to adopt a single entry charge is replacing component pricing
Attention to managing entry	The first few minutes spent in an attraction is increasingly being seen as vital in organising visitor time and attention
Membership developments	Special deals for members and friends to encourage repeat visits and build special attraction loyalty are emerging
Roving interpretation	The use of roving staff to provide explanations to visitors of the exhibits or setting is a new trend
Shopping specialities	The better realisation of retailing opportunities through distinctive products is strengthening commercial initiative
Visual souvenirs	Particularly for action-oriented attractions providing a video or photograph souvenir adds to attraction income and its use is growing across a range of sites
Integration with festivals/events	Greater development of themes built on special events and festivals diversifies the attraction’s appeal and is being widely employed
Supplementary activities	Using attractions for film sets, weddings, as sites for incentive travel and film festivals adds to the use of the resource for more income and is gaining popularity as attractions seek to diversify
Partnerships with other attractions	Sharing attendance data and participating in joint marketing is an emerging cooperative trend, partly counternoting a trend for large companies to operate a suite of attractions
Market niche orientation	Attracting new markets by offering special opening hours or adding specialist features is a growing initiative
WWW marketing and purchasing	The use of the WWW not just as an information tool but as a ticket purchasing and souvenir purchasing mechanism is an active development in the United States and likely to spread to other locations
People pressure management	In attractions with high density new visitor numbers and pressure, strategies to enhance visitor comfort and reduce visitor and resource stress is being crafted

Source: Pearce (1998)

experience with the use of interactive touch screen panels, 3D and virtual reality projections or documentaries. With the existence of gift shops and hospitality services such as restaurants and cafes, baby and child care services it provides the visitor with a sense of a thrilling exhibition. With special attention to visitors in need such as lifts and ramps or Braille language posts along with translated hard copy or audio guides, both attractions, open their doors to the world eliminating social exclusion from culture. By introducing eco-friendly and energy saving schemes and practises both attractions put their small stone into the preservation of our environment presenting the visitor with high quality attraction sites. Utilising the opportunities that arise from the use of the Internet both attractions create customer retention techniques and present the visitor with customer management applications with pre-booking procedures that assist visitor flow. The introduction of membership or family and friends schemes along with special package tickets that include access to all collections or promote the use of public means of transport

or the use of bicycle with lower tickets, has generated an new flow of people with interest in culture. Finally, with the existence of specialised programs for youth and with the wide use of social media, both attractions, manage to modernise culture and attract young ages and provide them with actual learning opportunities.

Attraction Suppliers

Increasing competition and professionalism will mean that attraction operators will need to become more aware of the quality of products and services provided by suppliers such as souvenir manufacturers, caterers, tradespeople, equipment suppliers, training organisations and maintenance contractors (Gilmore & Rentschler, 2002; Swarbrooke, 1995, 2006).

However, the design of new attractions needs to be geared to helping achieve the objectives of the attraction management, in terms of attracting more visitors, reducing costs, increasing income and maximising customer satisfaction. In both cases, the Buckingham Palace and the Acropolis Museum, design has helped achieve these objectives by focusing on creating attractions which are user-friendly for all types of users, whether they are families with children and with pushchairs, people with impaired sight or visitors in wheelchairs. They were designed to maximise secondary spending on catering and retailing through the location and design of the catering and retail outlets within its premises. They were ergonomically sound to reduce operating costs to a minimum through modern management and cost cutting systems along with professionals being in charge of their operation. As environmentally friendly as possible in terms of everything from waste disposal and energy consumption to the use of recycled materials since, lesser on Buckingham Palace and more in the Acropolis museum from a built time view, a proper and efficient recycling program has been instituted and followed as well as the Acropolis Museum has been built in a shape and with materials that are energy efficient. Capable of operating effectively and pleasing customers in all weathers, from cold, wet days to hot sunny days. As safe and secure as possible for both staff and visitors with the institution of security plans in case of emergency fully highlighted from visitors and with the conduct of emergency drills and the insertion of x-ray controls. Both, although the Buckingham Palace not at first, built for multi-purpose use, so they can be used for corporate hospitality and special events, as well as for the 'normal' business of the attraction. Finally, both designed to allow efficient throughput of visitors and to reduce queues and 'bottlenecks', especially in the Acropolis Museum with the introduction of a glass floor that oversees ancient artifacts in the tickets and waiting area.

Attraction Competitors

Existing attractions are increasingly becoming more sophisticated and aggressive in their marketing (Lavery & Stevens, 1990; Robinson, 1994). Attractions will need to devote more resources to analysing and countering their competitors. Furthermore, individual attractions will increasingly find themselves competing with alternative leisure venues for visitors (Frechtling, 1987). Swarbrooke (1995, 2006) proposes that the way in which attractions gain competitive advantage may change.

It could be argued that all forms of leisure are potential 'competitors' for attractions. Home-based entertainment systems, i.e., computers, DVDs and CD-ROMs, are becoming a leisure attraction in their own right. They make staying at home an attractive leisure proposition. In addition, active leisure pursuits, such as walking and cycling and local entertainment facilities, such as cinemas and theatres.

In both cases, the Buckingham Palace and the Acropolis Museum, have introduced a customised online tour guide in order not only to attract people who are using the internet to participate but creating themselves the actual need to visit in person the museum in order to experience the live version of the exhibitions. On the other hand, the Acropolis Museum, in collaboration with the Athens Mayor has introduced an eco-friendly program of attracting bicyclists to visit the museum in lower prices and with the creation of bicycle parking posts since bicycling has started becoming a way of life in the Athens centre and presents with a dynamic for the Athenian future. Moving along during summer times, both attractions, organise special events such as summer garden openings in Buckingham or presenting old films and documentaries from the Acropolis Museum, both accepting spontaneous walk-ins. Finally, in the case of the Acropolis Museum, with a short walking distance to the monument of the Acropolis and the theatre of Herod the Atticus, all three attraction work in a collaboration scheme throughout the year offering a unique and thrilling experience of ancient Greece.

Attraction Marketing Intermediaries

In an increasingly competitive marketplace marketing intermediaries—people and organisations who are the interface between attractions and their customers—will become increasingly important to attraction operators. The need for partnerships with destination marketing organisations, tourist information centres, journals, newspapers and other members of the tourism industry will be paramount (Swarbrooke, 1995).

Everyone knows that marketing is vital for the success of any tourism organisation, including attractions. All the time, new marketing techniques and opportunities are coming to the fore and attractions need to take advantage of these developments. For example, using the Internet by both attractions, to provide up-to-date information about the attraction and display promotional messages about it and about special events and exhibitions taking place. Internet it is also used for pre-booking visits to both attractions which has encouraged spontaneous decisions to visit and has reduced queues at the attraction entrance although need to underline that the Acropolis Museum ticket is considered to be cheap and people flow is increasing day by day.

Moreover, attractions need to make more use of the concept of relationship marketing by developing closer links with existing visitors and encouraging repeat visits and this is achieved with season tickets and 'Friends' schemes as well as family packets. Additionally, making more use of the concept of market segmentation and recognising that different groups of visitors look for different benefits when visiting attractions and this is very obvious in both attractions, since both of

them have customised ready tour guides depending on the age of visitors or special group schemes with professionals depending on the learning outcome to be achieved.

Finally, attractions need to learn how to handle the media in all kinds of circumstances that is why in both cases, press offices are in operation of creating and preserving the attractions' image. Planning the media campaign for the launch of a new attraction to ensure favourable coverage or identifying good potential stories and feeding them to the media in ways that will maximise the chances of them being published.

Attraction Customers

As the tourism industry evolves, traditional visitor markets will fragment into numerous niche markets with individual needs, desires and expectations (Jurowski & Olsen, 1995; Moutinho, 1988). Swarbrooke (1995, 2006) suggested that attractions will need to use more sophisticated market segmentation methods in response to the complexities of modern society. Emerging customer trends suggest that visitors are increasingly seeking benefits such as opportunities for 'fun' learning, 'hands-on' participative activities, 'green' environmentally friendly facilities and more contemporary themes (Jurowski & Olsen, 1995; Martin & Mason, 1990). An additional customer need identified by Stevens (1991) is the provision of safe, clean and attractive environments in which to experience the rides, facilities and services provided by an attraction.

Dissatisfied visitors do not make repeat visits and they influence their friends and relatives, so more effort needs to be placed in customer satisfaction and this means understanding what satisfies customers. Offering visitors 'value for money' which seems to be more important than the price. Moving along, visitors usually prefer to pay a one-off inclusive price rather than having to pay separately for various elements of a visit, particularly where there is little choice in whether to pay for them, e.g., car parking for those arriving by car.

Reliability is very important for both attractions. It is very damaging if an attraction advertises a feature, such as a new exhibition and it is not in operation when the visitor is on site. Visitors also become dissatisfied if they feel the attraction does not deliver what it promises in its publicity material, even if the experience is satisfying in itself and that is the bet that both attractions want to win with the employment of professional staff with specialised academic and working experience. Attractions need to put effort into ensuring that support services, such as cafés and toilets, are as good a quality as the main element of the attraction. More importantly, their leisure time is precious to visitors, so it is vital to minimise queues and delays and to provide information for visitors when they do occur which has been achieved with the operation of the attractions' internet sites where someone can pre-book tickets or guided tours.

A great deal has been done in recent years to make attractions more accessible to disabled visitors, although more still needs to be done (Poria, Reichel, & Brandt, 2009). For example, the introduction of ramps and lifts for visitors with mobility problems or the induction loops for customers with hearing difficulties or Braille

signing for visitors with sight problems have been introduced partly or fully in both attraction sites.

Visitors with 'special needs' should not be considered synonymous with disabled ones, since many visitors have 'special needs', for example visitors whose first language is not of the local attraction need help to understand brochures or signs at the attraction, parents with very young children need baby changing and bottle warming facilities, or visitors with special diets need suitable catering services. That is why in both cases, short or full hard copy guides of the exhibitions are translated in several languages as well as with the existence of relevant audio-guides plus dedicated areas for baby or child care have been constructed within the premises. Finally, suitable catering services with cold or hot plates for every type of alimentation are offered in resting areas such as the restaurant and the cafe of the Museum of the Acropolis.

3.2 The Macro Environment

Political Trends

Pearce (1998) suggest that if a tourism attraction does not have the support of the local community the following serious consequences may arise:

- Failure to promote the attraction by word-of-mouth
- Unwillingness to work in the attraction or supporting sectors
- Lack of political support for those who develop tourism
- Direct opposition to plans for developing and expanding the attraction.

Ecological Trends

A number of authors have suggested that constraints will be imposed on new and existing attractions due to environmental concerns (Jurowski & Olsen, 1995; Lavery & Stevens, 1990; Martin & Mason, 1993). The growth of the 'green' movement has created not just a desire to visit nature-based attractions, but also an increased concern about the impacts of development, energy use and waste disposal. Swarbrooke (1995, 2006) and Hu and Wall (2005) point out that some attractions are inherently greener than others, but that every attraction is able to become greener. Demand for highly specialised ecotourism attractions is likely to increase. Many attractions operators have already realised the benefits of being associated with 'ecotourism'.

In both cases, the Buckingham Palace and the Acropolis Museum, operate anti-waste and recycling schemes by utilising special waste collectors by material in order to promote the recycling movement but specifically it has to be underlined, the eco-friendly design of the Acropolis Museum with the energy saving building materials, part of a bigger plan to be an energy saving and efficient attraction by taking advantage of the Greek sun and the building's orientation to the horizon that has facilitated low energy consumption throughout its 3 year operation and with a more eco-friendly future to come including the creation of a small garden with local

trees and flowers surrounding the attraction which has created a green environment around of a modern construction. Additionally, special events related to ancient Greece and ecology run from time to time within its premises.

Economic Trends

Swarbrooke (1995, 2006) points out that the combination of taxation policies and increases or reductions in pensions and welfare benefits act as a mechanism for the redistribution of wealth. The extent to which certain groups benefit will affect the visitor mix for tourist attractions. Greater disposable income for those on pensions will reinforce other trends which suggest an increase in older visitors. Furthermore, other economic factors, such as currency exchange rates, interest rates and general economic health will continue to influence visitor spending and visitation to attractions (Robinson, 1994; Swarbrooke, 1995).

The current financial crisis is the worst the world has seen since the Great Depression of the 1930s. For younger generations, accustomed to mild recessions of the new phase of globalization, the misery of the Great Depression is hitherto nothing more than a distant legend. However, the collapse of two Bear Stearns Hedge funds in summer of 2007 exposed what came to be known as the subprime mortgage crisis, reintroducing the world to an era of bank failures, a credit crunch, private defaults and massive layoffs. In the new, globalized world of closely interdependent economies, the crisis affected almost every part of the world, receiving extensive coverage in the international media.

Specifically in both countries, Greece and the UK, the conservative governments although having introduced cuts in payroll and pension schemes, free or discount tickets to elder people, professors or unemployed have been introduced to stimulate culture visits. Despite this latter, in both cases, the Buckingham Palace and the Acropolis Museum, with innovative exhibitions and the further development of old collections have managed, in times of crisis, to ensure that the turn into culture has not been affected by the crisis and seems as the way out of it.

Socio-cultural Trends

Tourist attraction operators will need to stay abreast of socio-cultural shifts in the markets they serve. Jurowski and Olsen (1995) state that “individualism, maturity, concern for the environment, and the desire for life expanding experiences” will characterise a large proportion of attraction visitors. Martin et al. (1993) suggest nothing less than a “transformation” of western society away from a focus on conventional economic growth and material influence (the quantity of life) towards a set of values that puts more emphasis on the quality of life. This is certainly consistent with other authors, who have noted a shift from hedonistic pleasure toward life-enhancing travel experiences (Jurowski & Olsen, 1995). Leisure time is likely to be used for mental development, physical exercise and personal enjoyment rather than superficial exhibition.

Throughout most of the western world trends suggest an increase in the proportion of older persons in the population (Jurowski & Olsen, 1995; Martin et al., 1993; Robinson, 1994). While the potential visitors of the future will be older, Martin et al. (1993) as well as Garrod, Fyall, and Leask (2007) more recently also suggest

that they will be more affluent, more demanding in terms of quality and service, more discriminating in terms of their use of free time and disposable income, and more physically and mentally active in terms of pursuing opportunities for learning, fun and entertainment. Specifically, people are no longer content to be spectators, they wish to participate in a particular experience. A growing number of people want to learn something new from their leisure experiences. That is why, in both cases, the Buckingham Palace and the Acropolis Museum, special interactive tour guides and special educational programs have been introduced in permanent or seasonal exhibitions in order for the public to have a 'first hand' learning and live participating experience. Specifically, in the Acropolis Museum, gallery talks from archaeologists, museum kits with ancient replicas, 3D and virtual reality projections as well as the digitalisation of the collections (CHESS program) and interactive educational booklets but most importantly the actual live vision of archaeological preservation on ancient ruins have created this 'first hand' and 'living' experience from visitors.

Technological Trends

Scott, Jones, Bramley, and Bolton (1996) and more recently Buhalis, Owen, and Pletinckx (2006) argue that the survival of organisations in the future will depend on the maintenance of competitive level of technology to facilitate innovation, design, management and marketing. Technology can be of benefit in implementing business strategies; replacing aging or obsolete technology components; increasing and managing visitor capacity; and introducing cost-effective improvements for existing attractions (Ashmore, 1988).

Technological advances will facilitate access to information and will enhance efficiency (Jurowski & Olsen, 1995). The rapid penetration of personal computers and the adoption of the Internet in many western societies has certainly demonstrated the potential of this medium. Further advances in Internet technology has allowed visitors to search for the best attractions and to purchase tickets and souvenirs online. Toffler (1980) envisaged that technology will encourage the rejection of mass production in all aspects of life and the creation of customised, diverse products that satisfy individual preferences. Similarly, Martin et al. (1993) suggested that the use of computerised booking systems, smart cards, and electronic security will control visitor flows and allow employees to interact with visitors on a personal level rather than carrying out routine tasks such as admission.

Technology has and will also offer powerful opportunities for the creation of new interpretative techniques and attractions by providing interactive multi-media experiences, audio-animatronics, simulated attractions and virtual reality (Martin & Mason, 1993). The refinement of virtual reality (VR) technology has drastically altered the nature of tourist attractions by simulating environments from our past, present and future. Virtual reality has been touted as "a logical progression in the use of technology in tourism" (Cheong, 1995, p. 417). Furthermore, the use of 'Sensavision' televisions and simulators would allow tourist attraction patrons to experience elements such as temperature, humidity, smell and sight to create a truly unique interpretive and entertainment experience (Shafer, 1989).

In both cases, the Buckingham Palace and the Acropolis Museum, utilise state of the art techniques, as far as it is permitted by the character of each establishment, to promote their exhibitions such as 3D projections, touch-screen panels with information about the attraction and its exhibitions while sometimes seasonal virtual reality exhibitions take place within the premises. Audio guides presented in several languages using the latest technology has been installed in both attractions and offered on a 'fast' or 'long' tour of the attraction. Finally, the creation of modern and carefully designed internet sites from both attractions where the visitor can gain access to every hall of exhibition with photos or with the use of 360° panoramic views programs (Google Art Project and Street View). Also their appearance in the social media has played a crucial role into reaching younger ages and presenting them with the riches of culture.

4 Methodology

A self-administered mail questionnaire of no more of one page has been used to collect information about individual attractions. The questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter outlining the value of the research. Dillman's (1978) Total Design Method technique was used in an attempt to maximise the response rate. This technique involved the use of follow-up emails to remind attractions to complete the questionnaire. The sample was therefore targeted on a non-random, convenience basis. The questionnaires were addressed to the general manager or CEO of the attraction. Confidentiality was assured since a permission has been obtained from the individual establishments.

5 Conclusion

Attractions are an important element of the tourism industry, and the economy in general, because they employ thousands of people, particularly women and young people, often in parts of the country with limited job opportunities (Evans, Campbell, & Stonehouse, 2006). Often act as a catalyst for the development of tourism in the surrounding area, with the further economic benefits that this brings as well as providing leisure time activities for local people. In the case of Athens, the new museum has eased to further public policy in urban regeneration and rural development of the area and has become one more major reason why international tourists visit Greece plus in both cases, have provided educational opportunities for school children.

Both cases, have coped with the financial crisis, especially the Acropolis Museum, since it implemented surveys on finding out more about how visitors decide which attraction to visit and when, together with the factors that determine visitor satisfaction. Additionally, developing techniques to allow attractions to

identify and analyse their competitors to assist them see how they might gain competitive advantage over them has played a crucial role for a viable future and has helped to study systematically their business environment and anticipate changes that will have a significant impact on them.

Finally, attraction visitors are becoming ever more experienced and sophisticated. As a result, they are always looking for something new and special. Therefore, paraphrasing Andriotis (2009), there is a need for attractions to offer ‘Unique Selling Propositions’ (USPs) that differentiate it from its competitors, and a ‘Wow’ factor—something that the visitor will remember about the attraction for years. Although, the Buckingham Palace and the Acropolis Museum, offer the visitor with a totally different era experience, still it has to be kept in mind in order to ensure a viable future in this turbulent economic times.

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Tourism Business Sector Stance in Front of a Sport Tourism Development: Focusing on Crete

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Abstract Crete has been one of the most favourable tourism destinations of the Mediterranean contributing largely on the local as well as the Greek national income for decades. In the current years of distinct product differentiation, Crete has been re-examining the strategic road to a fruitful future and a secured position in the international tourism market. Amongst proposals promising to redirect the local offer towards a more sustainable as well as competitive tourism product is that of sport tourism due to a diverse physical environment of infinite potential for sport holidays. The focus of the present study is placed on the response of the local tourism industry and its sensitivity towards sport-related tourism products. Local tourism businesses' acceptability to thematic tourism products remains the most crucial factor for a successful sport tourism development.

As early as 1982 sport tourism has been suggested as a strong and competitive alternative to the diminishing and unsustainable mass tourism model developed in the Mediterranean (Glyptis. Sport and tourism in Western Europe. London: British Travel Education Trust, 1982). However, limited attention has been placed on the businesses' perspectives in embracing similar initiatives and overall the level of willingness the private tourism sector demonstrates in encompassing these products in the tourism offer (Vrontou et al. e-Review of Tourism Research (eRTR) 7(1):1–26, 2009). Examples of successful sport tourism projects have been recorded worldwide (Weed and Bull. Sports tourism: Participants, policy and providers. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth Heinemann, 2009) but scarcely tourism businesses perspectives on accommodating sport tourism products have been analysed. Crete represents a typical mass tourism destination in the process of quality differentiation in order to face a stagnating environment. The study examines Crete as a traditional destination in its effort to disembark from the mass tourism model

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towards a more specialised and quality tourism offer. Government initiatives promise to support a more quality tourism product supporting local environment but how is this received by the sceptical tourism sector having already invested a vast amount of resources to previous tourism tactics?

Keywords Alternative Tourism • Sport Tourism • Sport tourism business • Crete

1 Methodology

Qualitative research has the ability to approach key actors of the subject area and gain knowledge deriving from their assessment of reality. More than 15 semi-structured interviews were employed as the research vehicle which produced crucial information on the tourism business response to a sport tourism developmental path for the island of Crete. For purposes of enhanced validity, participants represented the total of collective commercial tourism organizations, hotel associations, travel businesses and relevant entrepreneurship bodies in Crete. The use of content analysis was engaged to scrutinize the large amount of information included in the official interviews offering valuable insight into the local tourism sector reality.

2 Findings

The gap between the local business stakeholders and the Athenian tourism policy centre remains the crucial point of reference for the majority of participants. Asphyxiating in the dominant mass tourism environment, local businesses seem unable to produce a new tourism offer especially when there are no relevant government incentives to secure a new costly sport tourism investment. Sporadic central initiatives proved to be inefficient to initiate sport-related programs causing further hesitation to local businesses to invest in new tourism products. Limited information on new tourism trends along with the distance between local businesses and the central tourism authority produces an indecisive tourism sector. Any local initiatives face unbearable bureaucratic procedures which along with the lack of specified central communication campaign fail to proceed or are largely delayed. Disappointed local businesses would not dare to disengage from the mass tourism mode towards costly new tourism products. In addition, the demanding sustainable establishments needed in order to make it a viable alternative to the mass tourism, do not produce optimism towards securing a sport tourism establishment in traditional tourism destinations.

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Planning the Sustainable Tourist Development of Zakynthos Island: A Methodological Framework

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Abstract The focus of the present paper is on the development of a methodological framework for guiding decision making in support of the sustainable tourist development of the island of Zakynthos, Greece. In this respect, potential future developments (scenarios) of the tourist sector are structured and evaluated in order to conclude with the most prevalent perspective. The scenario building process takes into account developments of both the internal environment (environmental deterioration, increasing pressure on local resources by mass tourism pattern, land use conflicts, etc.) and the external environment (strategic objectives for the development of the tourist sector at the national level, global trends in tourist demand and supply side, alternative tourism development paths, etc.). Scenarios and respective policy interventions take into account that sustainable futures of Zakynthos island have to be explored both at the: *macro-level*, seeking the development of an environmentally responsible, spatially balanced tourist sector; and the *micro-level*, seeking an environmentally responsible tourist infrastructure deployment.

Keywords Sustainable tourist development • Spatial planning • Tourist sector • Tourist firm • Scenarios • Evaluation • Policy

1 Introduction

While tourism is one of the most important sectors in many regions of the world, tourist development can place a heavy burden on the environmental, cultural as well as social assets of the regions involved. Coping with the negative impacts of tourist development calls for a comprehensive destination management, focusing on a sustainable tourist development pattern that leads to the management of resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled, while

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maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems, being a process which meets the needs of present tourists and host communities whilst protects and enhances needs in the future (WTO, 2001). They also call for an *active participation* of all stakeholders involved in tourist destinations, namely hotels and resorts, local communities, municipalities and the tourists themselves (Stratigea, Papakonstantinou, & Giaoutzi, 2008).

The goal of sustainable tourist development has nowadays largely affected tourist production and consumption patterns. Preserving world's tourist assets for future generations has become an imperative not only for travel and tourism but also for all sectors of the economy, which are consuming the earth's natural resources (UNEP, 2002). According to the Agenda's 21 recommendations for travel and tourist industry—the *supply side*—environmental protection and rational use of resources, both natural and human, should constitute an *integral part* of the tourist development process (Leidner, 2003). For travel and tourist businesses, the main aim is to establish systems and procedures that can incorporate sustainability objectives in the core management function and identify measures for their implementation (WTTC, 1995).

Tourist clients on the other hand—the *demand side*—exhibit a steadily increasing choice preference in environmentally committed tourist destinations (WTTC, 1995). This preference is gradually forming an expanding movement, expressed by an increasing interest in purchasing environmentally friendly tourist products and services. Tourist firms and destinations respecting the environment seem to be options of high priority in the demand side, affecting positively both the *tourist firms* (micro level) and the *tourist destination* (macro level).

The focus of the present paper is on the development of a *methodological framework* that will support *policy making* for serving the goal of sustainable tourist development. This will be applied on a worldwide known Greek tourist destination, the island of Zakynthos. Located in the Ionian Sea, Zakynthos has traditionally been developed as a mass tourist destination, based on the exploitation of its exceptional natural and cultural resources. The tourist sector possesses a prevalent role in the local economic structure, supporting labour market and income opportunities. The mass tourist model though has already shown remarkable impacts on both: the social and the environmental profile of the region, exerting a considerable pressure on social, natural and cultural resources; and the economic profile, where sectors other than tourism are stagnating to the detriment, in the long run, of the local economy and the tourist sector per se. At present, there is a certain concern among all actors involved (local authorities, tourist businesses and local population) as to the future of the tourist sector in the island, while it is already fully understood the need for paving a more responsible and of low ecological footprint tourist development perspective, sustaining the future of the sector and the health of the local social, natural and cultural capital.

In this respect, the paper elaborates on a methodological framework that aims at sketching policy guidelines in support of the integrated sustainable tourist development of Zakynthos island. Towards this end, potential future developments (scenarios) of the tourist sector are structured and evaluated in order to conclude with the most challenging future options. The scenario building process takes into account

developments of both the *internal environment* (environmental deterioration, increasing pressure on local resources by mass tourism, land use conflicts, etc.) and the *external environment* (strategic objectives of tourist development at a national level; global trends towards more environmentally responsible alternative tourist paths; etc.). Moreover, scenarios and respective policy interventions consider that sustainable futures of Zakynthos island have to be explored both at the: *macro-level*, seeking the development of an environmentally responsible tourist sector, more evenly distributed in Zakynthos island and largely integrated with the rest of the local economic sectors for the sustainable exploitation of local resources; and the *micro-level*, seeking the environmentally responsible deployment of tourist infrastructure (hotels, rooms, etc.) through the adoption and use of 'green' practices/schemes that can support firms' competitiveness, while preserving local natural and cultural resources.

2 The Methodological Approach

The methodological approach adopted in the study region is shown in Fig. 1, where:

- *Step 1*: presents the goal of sustainable tourist development of Zakynthos island, which is further analyzed into several objectives;
- *Step 2*: refers to the study of the current situation in the study region, where both the macro and the micro level are considered. At the *macro level*, the concern is on the spatial development of the tourist sector, but also on the development of: the rest of the economic sectors based on resource availability, the network infrastructure, accessibility of the region, etc. At the *micro level*, the emphasis is placed on the tourist sector per se and more specifically on the study of tourist accommodation, exploring the adoption rates of environmentally responsible measures at the tourist business level;
- *Step 3*: at this step *scenarios* are structured for the spatial development of the tourist sector, taking into consideration the need for the protection of the valuable ecosystems that are present in the study region, but also the need for a more balanced spatial development of the sector, better integrated into the natural but also the economic and social environment of the region at hand.
- *Step 4*: at this step, the previously structured scenarios are evaluated by means of a multicriteria evaluation tool, aiming at the selection of the most prevailing alternative future. The evaluation is based on a number of criteria, which emanate from the set of objectives; and are falling into the environmental, economic and social domain. The outcome of this step is a well documented final *decision* on the type of future tourist development that the region should follow in order sustainability objectives to be served.
- *Step 5*: at this step the policy framework needed for the implementation of the desired future of the region in respect of the tourist perspective, is presented.

In the following the work carried out at the various steps of the proposed methodological framework is presented. More specifically, the goal and objectives set for the

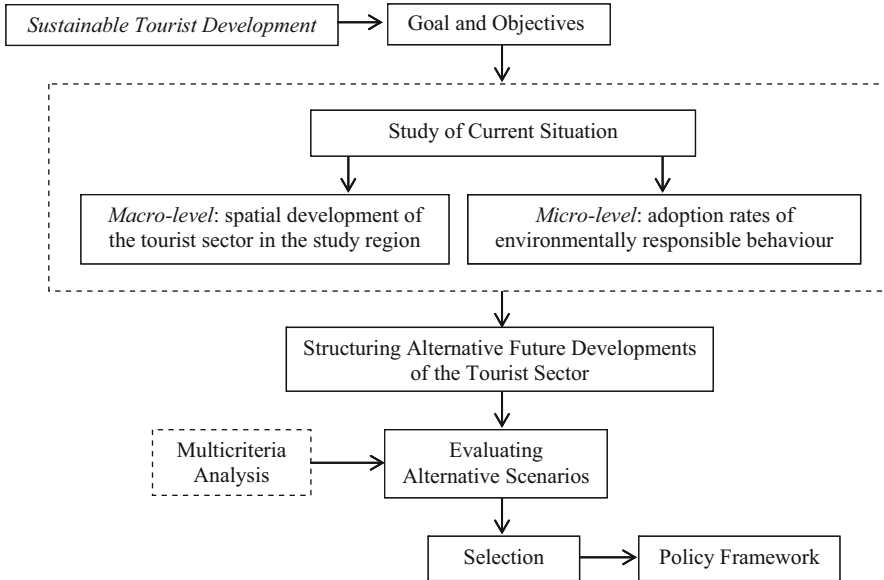


Fig. 1 The methodological framework

study region are presented then the region is shortly described; while next comes the scenario development and the evaluation stage. Finally, key policy directions are discussed aiming at the successful implementation of the preferred scenario.

3 Goal and Objectives in the Study Region

The sustainable future development of the tourist sector in the island of Zakynthos has been set as the *goal* of the present study. In this respect, it is sought an environmentally responsible, socially cohesive, economically competitive and spatially balanced tourist sector, smoothly integrating into the local economic structure of the island. This has been further analyzed into a range of *objectives*, as follows:

- restraining of the population decline in various local settlements: it is worth noting the trend of abandoning small scale settlements on behalf of the capital of the island or urban centers outside the island, which hampers their development perspectives;
- de-concentrated pattern of development of tourist activity: it is pursued a shift from a concentrated pattern of mass tourist development to a de-concentrated pattern, rating first alternative tourist activities that contribute to the efforts for the sustainable exploitation of local resources, support the diversification of the tourist product, cope with seasonality, while they also encourage a more spatially balanced pattern of tourist development;

- increase interaction of the tourist sector with the rest of the economic sectors: the region has a range of valuable local primary and manufactured products, which can serve the needs of the tourist sector, strengthening thus the relationships among the tourist on the one hand and the rest of the economic sectors on the other. Moreover, the development of the primary sector can form the basis for developing a range of tourist activities e.g. agro-tourism activities;
- upgrading of transport and telecommunications networks: these are considered as of crucial importance for providing unimpeded access of tourist flows to the study region; while they can also increase the perspective of local population and businesses to get access to opportunities and better services (Stratigea, 2011);
- exploitation of renewable energy: in Zakynthos region there is a considerable potential for renewable energy exploitation (solar energy, biomass etc.), which can support sustainability objectives at the tourist business level (Giaoutzi et al., 2008);
- upgrading of tourist accommodation infrastructure: as this infrastructure relates to a range of very resource-intensive uses (heating and cooling, lighting, etc.), mostly concentrating in specific peak periods of time, the promotion of an environmentally responsible pattern of tourist accommodation deployment is of outmost importance (Giaoutzi et al., 2008);
- upgrading of human resources: concerns labour resources involved in all kinds of activities, with emphasis on those employed in the tourist sector.

4 The Current State of the Study Region

In this section the current state of the tourist sector in the study area is presented. In this respect, the first section is shortly presenting the available resources of Zakynthos island as a tourist destination together with a short description of the supply side (number of businesses, spatial structure etc.)—the macro-level, while in the second section the outcome of the research conducted to the local tourist accommodation businesses as to their actions to serve environmental objectives—the micro-level is presented.

4.1 The Macro Level

The study area belongs to the Heptanese cluster of Ionian islands (Fig. 2a) and is endowed with valuable natural resources, characterized by unique kinds of flora and fauna. Certain parts of the study area are placed among the protected areas of NATURA 2000 (Fig. 2b). Moreover a wide variety of cultural resources are contributing to the formation of the specific *'place identity'* of Zakynthos island (Padgett & Allen, 1997), such as important archaeological and historical sites, local traditions, local architecture, traditional music, traditional settlements, etc. Of considerable

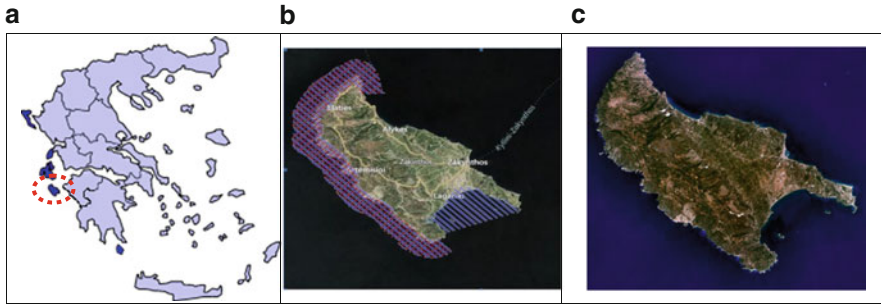


Fig. 2 The study region. (a) The Heptanese islands—Zakynthos. *Source:* <http://el.wikipedia.org/wiki/> (b) NATURA 2000 zones in Zakynthos. *Source:* <http://natura2000.eea.europa.eu/> (c) Morphology of the Zakynthos island. *Source:* <http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/>

importance is also the marine park located in Laganas gulf, an important biotope for the sea turtle *Caretta-Caretta* (Fig. 2c) and the Mediterranean seal *Monachus-Monachus*, but also a very important mass tourism pole of the island.

The Region of Ionian islands in general and Zakynthos island in particular, are exhibiting low unemployment rates, mostly due to the development of the tourist sector, which absorbs a large number of employees, especially in the peak summer period. In Zakynthos island, the tourist sector prevails in the local economy, mainly characterized by a mass pattern exerting considerable pressure on local environmental, cultural and social resources (Kapsaski, 2014). Moreover, it should be noted the continuously declining trajectory of the primary sector, the more or less stabilized trajectory of the secondary sector, which holds steadily the third position in the local economic structure, while the tertiary sector rates first mainly due to the prevalence of the tourist sector but also the tertiarization of the local economy in general. During the last few decades, the rapid development of the tourist sector has had certain negative impacts, relating to the weathering of the built and natural environment, the irrational use of natural resources, the extensive use of energy etc., driving towards a certain deterioration of environmental resources, land use conflicts as well as a considerable pressure on the social context.

As to the spatial structure of the *tourist supply* in Zakynthos island, this is largely determined by the prevalence of Laganas tourist region, where the main body of the hotel infrastructure of the island is located (see Table 1). More specifically, in Laganas region 50 % of hotel infrastructure and almost 45 % of rooms to let is concentrated. From Table 1 is also evident the low class level of the majority of the hotel infrastructure, reflecting somehow the low budget tourist flows attracted in the area.

Table 2 displays the demand side by means of domestic and foreign tourist flows for the years 2009 and 2010. From this data, it can be noticed a small decrease at both the domestic and the foreign tourist flows between 2009 and 2010 in the island of Zakynthos and a small increase in both domestic and foreign flows in the Ionian islands.

One also very important issue for the future tourist development of the island is the *land use conflicts*, especially between the agricultural and the tourist sector,

Table 1 Hotel infrastructure

Number of hotels per category	MC of Zakynthion	MC of Alykon	MC of Arkadion	MC of Artemision	MC of Elatia	MC of Lagana	Total
Hotel class D'-E	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Hotel class C'	29	19	30	–	2	102	182
Hotel class B'	22	5	13	–	1	25	66
Hotel class A'	5	2	6	–	–	7	20
Hotel class Lux	–	–	2	–	1	1	4
Total	56	26	51	–	4	135	272

MC Municipal Compartment. *Source:* Elaboration of data from the National Statistical Service of Greece (2009)

Table 2 Domestic and foreign tourist flows in 2009 and 2010

Arrivals	2009	2010	2009	2010	2009	2010
Area	Domestic	Domestic	Foreign	Foreign	Total	Total
Greece	7,352,183	6,876,371	8,542,307	8,964,224	15,894,490	15,840,595
Ionian islands	342,716	345,088	778,526	795,059	1,121,242	1,140,147
Zakynthos	70,893	66,183	284,031	275,576	354,924	341,759

Source: Elaboration of data from the National Statistical Service of Greece (2009 and 2010)

which leads to the gradual reduction of cultivated land and the expansion of scattered building of tourist infrastructure. Such a scattered tourist infrastructure development pattern exerts considerable pressure on the natural, cultural but also societal resources and can in perspective hamper the tourist activity per se. Crucial in this respect is spatial planning, which will set the rules for supporting a more sustainable spatial pattern of tourist development in the island.

4.2 The Micro-Level

During the last decade, the concept of environmentally responsible tourism is gaining much importance. This concept is largely relating to both: the *supply side*, through the actions undertaken by tourist businesses in support of a more rational use of resources, implying a respectful attitude of tourist firms against the local environments they activate and a reduction of maintenance costs; and the *demand side*, i.e. the visitors of a tourist destination, who, apart from the unique and distinctive characteristics (Kavoura & Katsoni, 2013), they also demand more environmentally committed hosting infrastructures and tourist services (Stratigea & Hatzichristos, 2011; Stratigea & Papadopoulou, 2012).

Towards this end, a range of environmental management practices have been developed, which are gradually diffusing into the tourist business world, as a result

of the effort to commit to sustainability objectives. This implies the compliance with a range of qualitative prerequisites that can characterize the business behaviour and its attitude towards critical environmental objectives.

In searching of an environmentally responsible tourist development of Zakynthos region, it is not sufficient to go for a more spatially balanced and of alternative nature tourist development pattern. Of importance is also the study of the adoption rates of specific environmentally responsible management systems or measures by the local tourist entrepreneurial community (EREC, 2005). Towards this end, the present paper undertakes an effort to explore the attitude of the local tourist accommodation businesses as to a range of measures that support a low environmental footprint of their functioning. In this respect, a range of questions are addressed to a number of tourist businesses in the study region through a questionnaire that keeps in track with the main elements of environmentally responsible tourist management systems, i.e. issues relating to critical environmental concerns (energy and water saving, recycling, etc.); and the way (measures) these were treated by tourist businesses in the island. Questions raised in this questionnaire were addressing measures relating to: the technical attributes of the building infrastructure (insulation, double glazing, etc.), the energy-saving pattern (measures reducing energy demand), the renewable energy utilization (e.g. photovoltaic systems), the recycling efforts, etc.

The questionnaire was addressed to a total of 190 *tourist accommodation businesses*, evenly distributed throughout the island region. Different types of tourist accommodation businesses were considered, ranging from large luxurious hotels of more than 100 rooms to small family-run tourist accommodation businesses of less than 10 rooms. The whole research took place from February to May 2013. More specifically, the questionnaire was first released in February, by an e-mail sent to the 190 tourist businesses, where business owners were kindly requested to provide some input by end of March 2013. During this first round of the questionnaire, only 26 tourist accommodation businesses responded. A second round followed in April, requesting for a certain answer by May 2013. The output of this round was only four new answers.

In conclusion, there was a rather limited interest in responding to the questionnaire, as the total number of responding businesses was only 30 out of 190 tourist firms (almost 16 %). This was partly justified by the pattern of tourist development that the island has followed for several decades now, being a mass pattern attracting low budget tourist flows, which had shown little concern on environmental issues in general; but also the lack of knowledge on potential environmentally friendly applications at the tourist accommodation level and the gains to be earned by their use.

Responses from the area of Laganas gulf (Fig. 3a), the most crowded tourist node in Zakynthos island during the summer time, were also rather limited, although this is one of the most important regions of the island in respect of its environmental value (NATURA region) (Fig. 2b). On the other hand, a higher response was noticed from tourist accommodation businesses in the eastern coast, where are located the less crowded tourist development nodes of the island

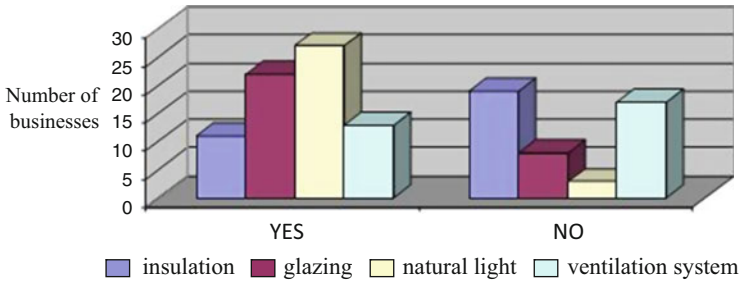
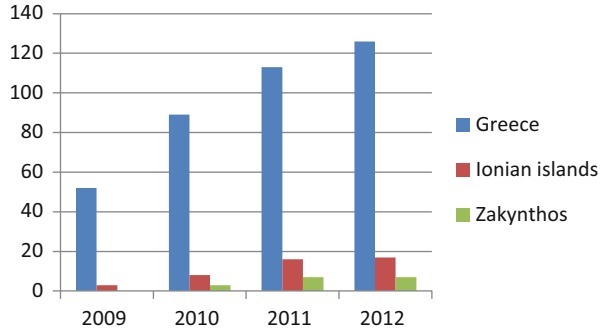


Fig. 4 Structural elements of hotels infrastructure. *Source:* Elaboration of data from questionnaires, Kapsaski (2014)

- *status* of the hotel infrastructure as to certain specific structural elements (Fig. 4):
 - only 3 % of the responding hotels has some sort of building insulation;
 - 73 % disposes double glazing for rooms insulation purposes;
 - 90 % takes full advantage of natural light through large windows;
 - only 43 % disposes a ventilation system;
- environmentally responsible *actions* carried out by tourist accommodation businesses:
 - introduction of energy-saving key cards for reducing energy demand (78 % of businesses);
 - use of energy-saving appliances for further reduction of energy demand (more recently established businesses);
 - switching off of the stand by equipment (60 % of businesses);
 - energy-saving lamps (99 % of businesses);
 - air conditioning system with sort of control for shutting off when necessary (73 % of businesses);
 - adoption of certain water-saving measures by the majority of businesses;
 - proper maintenance of hydraulic and heating systems by the majority of businesses;
- from the tourist businesses responded to the questionnaire:
 - only 20 % is equipped with an energy management system;
 - only 8 % makes use of the rainfall for various auxiliary water uses;
 - no action is undertaken for recycling purposes, as there is no recycling system available by the municipality of Zakynthos.

Finally, it has to be noted that there is a very low rate of adoption of distinct environmentally responsible management systems, such as the ‘green key’, the Eco-Management and Audit Scheme—EMAS, and the European Ecological Label—‘ecolabel’ by the local tourist business community. In fact, in 2012 there were only seven large hotels in the island of Zakynthos that have adopted the ‘green key’ management system (Fig. 5).

Fig. 5 Number of tourist businesses adopting the ‘green key’. *Source:* Data elaboration from www.eepf.gr/thegreenkey



5 Structuring and Evaluating Scenarios for the Future Tourist Development of Zakynthos Island

The sustainable management of natural and cultural resources for the development of the tourist sector in a specific region is certainly a complex planning issue, mainly due to the conflicting objectives that need to be served. In this respect, although the tourist sector is capable of contributing to the economic development of a region, serving also social cohesion objectives, especially in peripheral and lagging behind regions (Stratigea & Giaoutzi, 2006; Stratigea et al., 2006), it also places a heavy burden on the natural and cultural resources. A certain compromise needs to be made in this respect that is a really difficult planning exercise, searching for a balance among different stakes in a certain region (Stratigea et al., 2008). Such a balance is sought in the following, in the context of structuring and evaluating alternative scenarios for the sustainable tourist development of Zakynthos island.

5.1 Alternative Scenarios for the Sustainable Tourist Development of the Study Region

In searching of the sustainable development of Zakynthos island, three discrete future scenarios are structured, which are diversified as to the level of exploitation of local resources for the development of alternative tourist activities and their spatial structure. These have as follows:

- The *first scenario* is a trend-based scenario, building upon past and present trends, which is used to describe the future of the specific area in case that no planning interventions occur. In this respect, the scenario is representing a *mass tourist development pattern* (Fig. 6), which also exhibits a concentrated spatial structure, expanding in the southern eastern part of the island, along Laganas coast. Considering the location of a NATURA region and a marine park in this area (see Fig. 2b above), it is evident that the tourist sector is placing a

considerable risk relating to the tourist overload of a very environmentally sensitive region of the island, being a shelter for protected species. Moreover, the present pattern of tourist development of this part of the island has already had certain negative impacts, among others, on the social pattern, while it promotes an irrational exploitation of local resources, high seasonality of the tourist product, attraction of a low budget tourist flows, and it also exhibits a low rate of diffusion of any positive outcome in the rest of the island regions.

- The *second scenario* is built upon a *concentrated pattern of tourist development* of the region at hand, taking into consideration the existing pattern of tourist infrastructure deployment (Fig. 7). The mass tourist model is partially complemented with certain alternative tourist activities, keeping always in track with existing infrastructure and pursuing a shift to more qualitative and all year round tourist flows, while a *moderate* rate of diffusion of

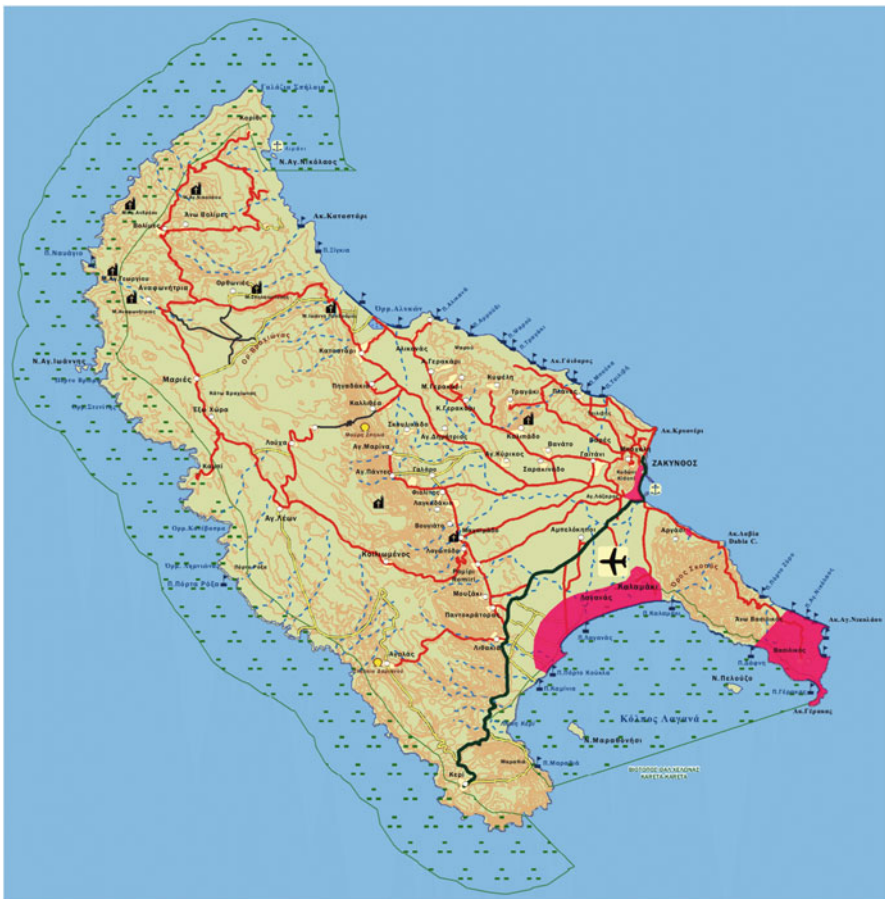


Fig. 6 First scenario (trend-based scenario)

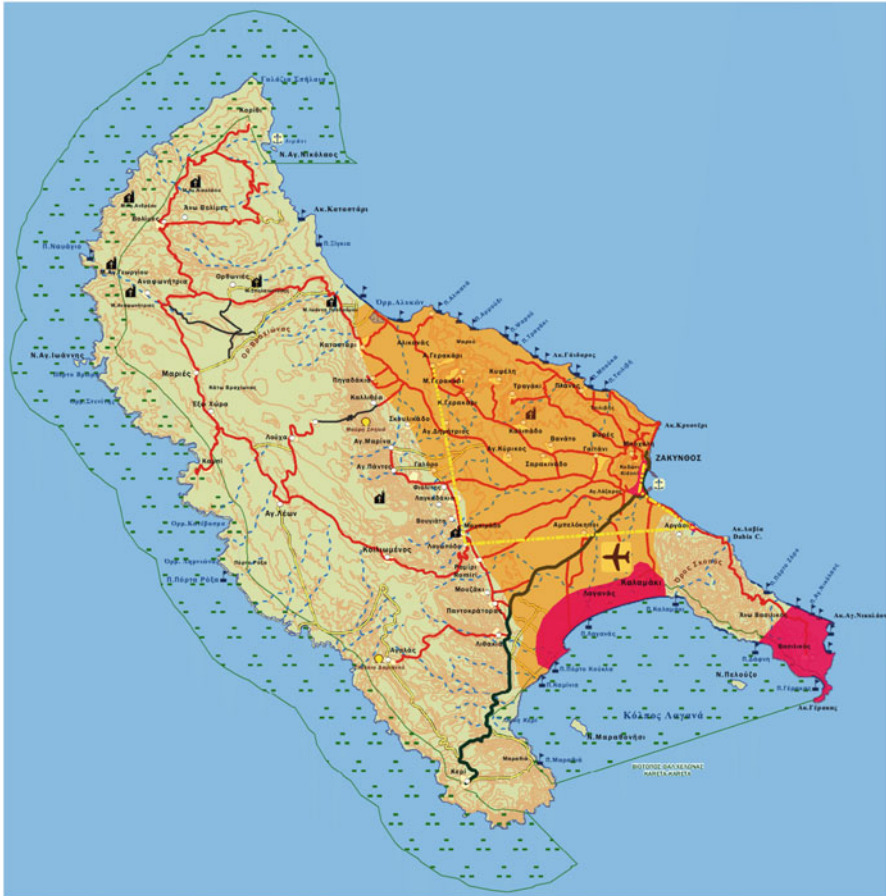


Fig. 7 Second scenario (Concentrated model of tourist development)

environmentally responsible behaviour in tourist businesses is considered. In this context, apart from Laganas region, a number of other mass tourist poles are developed, such as the settlements of Vasilikos, Tsilivi and Argasi, where the largely upgraded accommodation infrastructure calls for the attraction of more qualitative and high income tourist flows. Moreover, alternative tourist development is taking place in the surrounding of these poles, based on agrotourism and wine tourism in the exceptional wine fields of the area, resulting thus in the increase of interaction between the primary and the tourist sector in the area. Finally, emphasis is placed on the renewable energy dimension, where solar energy exploitation is taking place at the tourist business level.

- In the *third scenario* the mass tourist pattern is restrained to selected poles, while a considerable effort is devoted in order alternative tourism in lagging behind and mountainous regions of the island to be promoted. In this respect, a more

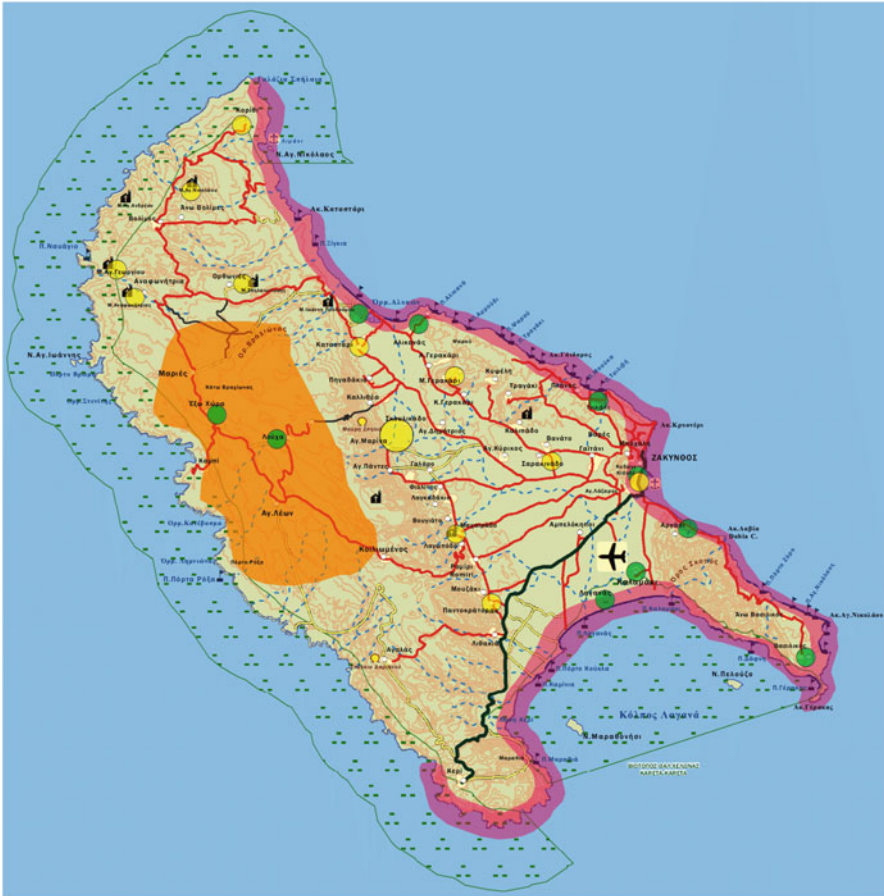


Fig. 8 Third scenario (De-concentrated model of tourist development)

deconcentrated spatial pattern of tourist development is pursued (Fig. 8), stressing the importance of the sustainable exploitation of natural and cultural resources, and the better interaction of the tourist with the rest of the sectors in the island. Based on that, emphasis is placed on the diffusion of tourist development in the whole coastal part of the island through the development of certain poles, while these are complemented with a range of alternative tourism activities such as conference tourism, wine tourism, agrotourism, ecotourism, cultural and religious tourism, marine tourism etc. In this respect, the region is creating a rich, experience-based (Petkus, 2002; Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Stratigea & Hatzichristos, 2011), more environmentally responsible tourist product, supporting a certain shift to the attraction of more qualitative tourist flows and the round the year tourist activity. These developments are combined with a *wide spread culture of environmental values* in the tourist sector, motoring environmental responsibility at the tourist

business level. Based on that, a wide range of environmentally friendly actions are undertaken at the tourist business level, such as exploitation of the solar energy covering part of the business energy demand, use of low energy footprint appliances, application of various building insulation technologies, adoption of water saving technologies, etc.

5.2 Evaluation of Alternative Scenarios

In the following, the three alternative scenarios are evaluated with respect to the objectives set for the sustainable tourist development of the island of Zakynthos. Evaluation is carried out by use of the multicriteria analysis method REGIME, which is capable of dealing with qualitative and/or quantitative information (Voogd, 1983). The *evaluation criteria* used in this respect are presented in Table 3.

For the definition of the evaluation problem at hand the *impact matrix* is structured presenting the performance (impact) of each alternative scenario in respect of the range of key domains relative to sustainability objectives at the specific case study (Table 4). This was used as an input to the REGIME multicriteria analysis model, together with some information on weights of criteria, i.e. the priorities of criteria in the specific evaluation problem. The weights applied in this context emanate from the goal and objectives of the study, where criteria of the environmental domain are rating first, followed by the criteria of the social domain, next come the criteria relating to the local economy domain, while the

Table 3 Evaluation criteria

a/a	Domain	Evaluation criteria
K1	Environment	Level of sustainable exploitation of natural and cultural resources
K2		Level of vulnerable ecosystems' protection
K3	Local economy	Level of promotion of an extraverted image of the region as a whole
K4		Rate of new entrepreneurship creation
K5		Level of new employment expected
K6		Promotion of local products—level of interaction of the tourist sector with the rest of the local economic sectors
K7		Development of alternative tourism
K8	Society	Level of social and economic cohesion created
K9		Level of population restraint
K10		Level of awareness raising (business and societal level)
K11	Spatial pattern	Level of integrated exploitation of natural and cultural resources
K12		Level of spatially balanced development of the tourist sector
K13	Renewable energy (at business level)	Level of energy saving actions
K14		Level of energy production actions

Table 4 Impact matrix

Domain	Criteria	Scenario 1 Business as usual	Scenario 2 Concentrated pattern	Scenario 3 De-concentrated pattern
Environment	K1	no	yes	yes
	K2	5	3	1
Local economy	K3	5	3	1
	K4	+	++	+++
	K5	5	3	1
	K6	5	3	1
	K7	0	+	+++
Society	K8	0	++	+++
	K9	-	+	+++
	K10	no	yes	yes
Spatial pattern	K11	no	yes	yes
	K12	---	+	+++
Renewable energy (at business level)	K13	--	+	+++
	K14	--	+	+++

1: very good, 3: good, 5: neutral, 7: bad, 9: very bad

---: very bad negative impact, --: bad negative impact, -: small negative impact

+++: very big positive impact, ++: big positive impact, +: small positive impact

lowest priority is assigned to the criteria relating to the spatial pattern and renewable energy domain.

The results of this evaluation are graphically presented in Fig. 9, where the three scenarios are rating as follows: first rates scenario 3—de-concentrated pattern of tourist development of Zakynthos island, presenting the most environmentally friendly and spatially balanced view of the future sustainable development of the tourist sector in the region; second rates scenario 2—concentrated view of tourist development; while the last position is possessed by scenario 3—business as usual scenario—presenting the *worst case scenario* among the three previously described.

5.3 Policy Guidelines for the Implementation of the Preferred Scenario

The final part of the proposed methodological approach relates to the provision of policy guidelines that need to be enforced for the implementation of the preferred, according to the evaluation criteria used, scenario. In this respect, policy measures that could promote the implementation of scenario 3 can be classified into policy measures applying at the macro level and policy measures applying at the micro level.

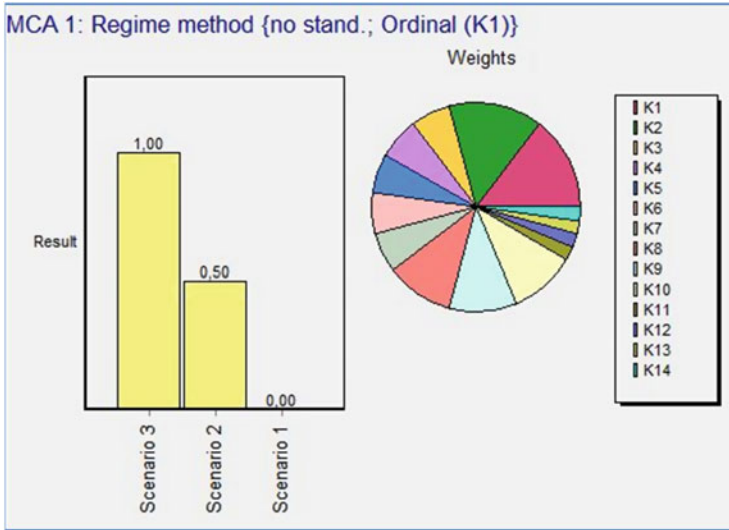


Fig. 9 Results of the multicriteria evaluation

As to the *macro level*, policy measures promoted are falling into the following groups:

- policy measures relating to the *enrichment of the tourist product* by means of promoting a range of alternative tourist activities, while restraining the mass tourist model;
- policy measures relating to the improvement of *accessibility* that are targeting the upgrading of both the internal transportation network as well as the ‘gates’ of the island to the outer world, i.e. the port and airport infrastructure and facilities as well as marines’ network;
- policy measures relating to specific *infrastructure development* e.g. walking paths in the mountainous part or hostel infrastructure in rural areas;
- policy measures relating to the *upgrading of human resources* with particular emphasis on those involved in the tourist sector, which will contribute to the bettering of the *quality of tourist services* offered;
- policy measures relating to the development of the *primary and secondary* sector;
- policy measures concerning the *land use pattern* of the island, setting the rules for the development of the various sectors.

Concerning the *micro level*, could be considered:

- policy measures promoting *entrepreneurship* in the tourist sector, with emphasis on the development of small tourist businesses in the less crowded regions of the island, taking advantage of the rural and mountainous resources;

- policy measures relating to increasing *awareness* on environmental objectives and relating actions that can be carried out at the tourist business level;
- policy measures for the *diffusion of information* on environmentally responsible management schemes that can be used in the tourist business sector;

6 Conclusions

The focus of the present paper is on the *sustainable tourist development* of a well known Greek tourist destination, the island of Zakynthos. In pursuing sustainability objectives, a methodological framework is proposed, which forms the ground for guiding policy decisions. Towards this end, the framework built upon both the macro level, dealing with the spatial structure of the tourist sector in this specific destination, and the micro level, exploring the rates of adoption of environmentally responsible tourist business practices. The study shows that there is a strong need to build a more *spatially balanced and environmentally responsible profile* of the tourist sector in the region, in order to preserve local resources and identity for a lasting tourist development that copes successfully with sustainability objectives i.e. environmental, economic and social dimensions of tourist development. And this need is really urgent, as the first signs of fatigue of the environmental but also the social state of the region are already quite visible.

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Sentiment Analysis of Hotel Reviews in Greek: A Comparison of Unigram Features

George Markopoulos, George Mikros, Anastasia Iliadi,
and Michalis Liontos

Abstract Web 2.0 has become a very useful information resource nowadays, as people are strongly inclined to express online their opinion in social media, blogs and review sites. Sentiment analysis aims at classifying documents as positive or negative according to their overall expressed sentiment. In this paper, we create a sentiment classifier applying Support Vector Machines on hotel reviews written in Modern Greek. Using a unigram language model, we compare two different methodologies and the emerging results look very promising.

Keywords Sentiment analysis • Text mining • Information retrieval • Machine learning • Natural language processing

1 Introduction

Whenever people need to make a decision, they usually ask for other people's opinion. Since their decision involves spending time or/and money, what other people think receives great significance.

The appearance of World Wide Web initially and its development later into Web 2.0 changed the existing situation up to this time. While some years ago there were few resources from where one had the option to ask for an opinion (e.g. family, friends, etc.), nowadays through the web a huge amount of data is accessible to everyone. The proliferation of Web 2.0 led to an excess increase of user-generated content as users are now provided with the potentiality to express online their opinion for different events, persons, products or services in blogs, forums, social media and review sites.

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A significant amount of research has been carried out in recent years into online reviews because they contain rich opinion information. Especially in the case of hotel reviews, exploiting such information can be proved very useful for both customers and service providers in different ways. On the one hand, viewing other people's travel experiences in a given destination or comments about a certain hotel can crucially influence a potential customer in his/her travel planning and booking. Kasper and Vela (2011) highlight the importance of hotel reviews as information sources especially for hotel booking. They mention that "such user reviews are relevant since they are more actual and detailed than reviews found in traditional printed hotel guides etc., they are not biased by marketing considerations as e.g. the hotels' home pages or catalog descriptions and reflects actual experiences of guests" (p. 45). Hotel managers, on the other hand, can readily gather feedback from their costumers concerning what they liked or disliked in their hotels in order to improve the quality of the services provided.

However, the process and manipulation of such information can indeed be a laborious and time-consuming task for humans because of its vastness. Thus, the need for automated opinion detection and extraction systems has led to the emerging field of sentiment analysis. Sentiment analysis provides techniques for the computational study of sentiments and opinions expressed in text utilizing various natural language processing and text analysis tools. Within sentiment analysis, two are among others the basic subtasks: (a) determining the polarity of a given text, i.e. whether it expresses a positive or a negative opinion on a certain topic and (b) identifying whether a given text (usually a sentence) is subjective or objective, i.e. whether it contains or not an expression of opinion.

Classifying a document according to the overall sentiment of its content is perhaps the most widely studied problem in the academic community nowadays. The greater part of the research in sentiment analysis has been focused on online texts written in English and especially on movie and product reviews and, thus, the literature on other languages and domains is rather limited. A typical example of a very challenging domain which has gained little research attention is the hotel domain.

Motivated by this observation and given that tourism is a very popular industry in Greece, we decided to examine hotel reviews, and by doing so we developed a prototype for predicting sentiment polarity in hotel reviews written in Modern Greek. Using unigram language modeling, we trained a machine learning algorithm following two different methodologies: (a) the frequency of individual words using the TF-IDF weighting scheme and (b) the occurrence of selected polarity words. The results of our study show that we can classify reviews written in Greek based on their sentiment polarity in a considerably efficient manner.

2 Literary Review

In recent years, there have been a large number of studies on sentiment-based classification. The approaches adopted by researchers could be grouped in two main categories: machine learning and semantic orientation approaches. The machine learning approach is a supervised task as it involves the training of a classifier using a collection of representative data. On the other hand, the semantic orientation approach involves the determination of the document's overall sentiment from the semantic orientation of words it contains without prior training and, thus, it is an unsupervised method.

Chaovalit and Zhou (2005) compare the two aforementioned methods using reviews from the movie domain. The results show that the unsupervised semantic orientation approach achieves low accuracy, but is much more efficient when used in real-time applications. In contrast, the supervised machine learning approach provides more accurate classification results but has the drawback that the training of the classifier tends to be very time-consuming. On account of this, researchers many times apply unsupervised techniques in order to label a corpus which is later used for supervised learning.

Most of the early work within sentiment classification used words as the processing unit. Hatzivassiloglou and McKeown (1997) propose a method that automatically determines the semantic orientation of adjectives. They utilize the use of conjunctions between adjectives in order to extract information indirectly from the corpus. More specific, when two adjectives are linked by conjunctions such as 'and', they are probably of the same orientation (e.g. *fair and legitimate*, **fair and brutal*), while, when they are linked by 'but' or other similar conjunctions, they have different orientation (e.g. *fair but brutal*). Using these constraints, combined with supplementary morphological rules, they achieve 82 % accuracy in predicting whether two conjoined adjectives are of the same or different orientation.

Closely related to the previous work is the method presented by Turney (2002). In this study, given that adjectives and adverbs are considered good indicators of opinions, two-word phrase patterns containing these categories were extracted with the second word providing the context. The semantic orientation of each extracted phrase is then estimated with the *pointwise mutual information* (PMI) measure. Using the NEAR operator of the AltaVista search engine, which constrains the search to documents that contain the words within ten words of one another, he examined whether a phrase has the tendency to co-occur in the context of the word 'excellent' or the word 'poor'. A phrase would have positive or negative semantic orientation if it was strongly associated either with 'excellent' or with 'poor' respectively. Finally, after calculating the average semantic orientation of all extracted phrases in a given review, the review is classified accordingly as recommended or not recommended.

The earliest work in automatic sentiment classification problem using supervised learning at document level has been carried out by Pang et al. (2002). They compare

the performance of three machine learning algorithms (Naive Bayes (NB), Maximum Entropy (MaxEnt) and Support Vector Machines (SVMs)) on a movie review corpus using different features such as unigrams, bigrams, part-of-speech information, position information, etc. The main findings of their study are that: (a) SVMs give better results than other classifiers (82.9 %); (b) unigram presence information is more effective in comparison to unigram frequency and (c) the accuracy in sentiment classification drops when bigrams are used.

A related study is presented by Boiy et al. (2007). They first give an overview of the various techniques that can be used to detect the sentiment of a text and later they compare the performance of SVMs, MaxEnt and NB on Pang and Lee's (2004) movie review corpus with the selected features being unigrams, unigrams along with subjectivity analysis, bigrams and adjectives. The frequencies of the features are used in the feature vector for SVMs and NB, while feature presence is used for MaxEnt. Their results show that there is little difference in accuracy of the three compared algorithms.

Several types of features or feature selection schemes have been also used in opinion mining research studies. In one of them, Mullen and Collier (2004) use SVMs to bring together several favorability measures for adjectives and phrases, the unigram model of Pang et al. (2002), lemmatized versions of the unigram models and, where available, knowledge of the topic of the text. Their hybrid SVMs reach an accuracy of 84.6 % on movie reviews data.

Ng et al. (2006) examine the role of four types of simple linguistic knowledge sources in the automatic polarity classification of movie reviews using a SVMs classifier. Their results show that bigrams and trigrams selected according to the weighted log-likelihood ratio as well as the manually tagged term polarity information are very useful features for the task.

Kennedy and Inkpen (2006) present a combined method for determining the sentiment of movie reviews. First, they use two different methods separately: a term-counting approach (66.5 % accuracy) and a machine learning approach using SVMs with unigrams as features (84.9 % accuracy). Then, by combining the two methods together, they achieve better results (85.4 % accuracy).

Finally, Rushdi et al. (2011) apply SVMs on three datasets with different sizes and domains; namely, they use the movie review corpus of Pang and Lee (2004), the multi-domain corpus of Taboada and Grieve (2004) and a digital camera review corpus (SINAI) created by them. They use three different weighting schemes (i.e. word frequency in document and in the entire corpus (TF-IDF), Term Occurrences (TO) and Binary Term Occurrences (BTO)) and three different n -gram techniques (i.e. unigrams, bigrams and trigrams) in order to examine how these features affect the sentiment classification task. Their results show that TO is the worst weighting method while TF-IDF and BTO give similar results. As far as n -gram techniques are concerned, trigrams are superior for the first two corpora while bigrams perform better in the SINAI corpus.

3 Methodology

The aim of our study is to build a prototype for the classification of hotel reviews based on the sentiment expressed in them. We preferred to apply a machine learning approach which has been shown that is more accurate than semantic orientation approaches (Chaovalit and Zhou 2005; Boiy et al. 2007; Kennedy and Inkpen 2006). Therefore, we started by collecting our data set, which was then used for the training of the SVMs classifier. Selecting unigrams (single words) as features, we followed two different methods. In the first method, the classification algorithm computes the frequency of individual words by applying the TF-IDF weighting scheme (TF-IDF bag-of-words model), while in the second method the algorithm counts the occurrence of selected individual words which express positive or negative sentiment.

3.1 Data Set

The corpus of hotel reviews was collected from the Greek version of *Tripadvisor* which is one of the world's largest travel sites (www.tripadvisor.com.gr). Our data set consists of 1,800 reviews (900 positive and 900 negative). Reviews translated in Greek were not taken into consideration as they contained grammatical and syntactic errors. Extremely short (i.e. less than 30 words) or very lengthy (i.e. more than 250 words) reviews were also excluded from the corpus. In order to ensure a proper training set, the data were manually checked by processing of the selected reviews, namely the correction of spelling and punctuation errors. The labeling of the reviews as either positive or negative derived from the combination of the reviewers' ratings and our personal intuition. Finally, in order to have a balanced typology of hotel reviews, we tried to include an equal distribution among different travel destinations as well as accommodations in Greece i.e. hotels, villas or apartments located close to mountain, sea or city centers.

3.2 Classification Algorithm and Features Selection

The majority of machine learning approaches treat sentiment classification problems by building SVM classifiers, which have been proved to produce better results than other machine learning techniques (Vapnik 1998; Pang et al. 2002; Pang and Lee 2004; O'Keefe and Koprinska 2009). Joachims (1998) mentions the significance of SVMs in text categorization tasks; he claims that "SVMs are robust and, with their ability to generalize well in high dimensional feature spaces, eliminate the need for feature selection" (p. 142).

In our research, data training is performed by a binary SVMs classification algorithm which labels sentiment polarity (positive or negative) on texts represented as feature vectors using feature selection on unigrams (Pang et al. 2002).

3.3 Experimental Setup

In order to run our experiments we made use of the RapidMiner software version 5 (www.rapidminer.com) with its text mining extension which provides different tools that are necessary for statistical text analysis. RapidMiner is an open source analytics platform which exploits statistics, machine learning, and natural language processing techniques to automate sentiment analysis on large collections of texts.

In both classification methods, we applied the SVM operator which is provided by RapidMiner and we also implemented the bag-of-words language model in which a text is represented as the bag of the words it contains, where each individual word (unigram) is considered as one feature. Furthermore, due to the fact that the raw data we have collected were not directly readable by the algorithm, which requires numerical feature vectors, some pre-processing of the data was needed.

In order to address this issue as well as to avoid unnecessarily large feature vectors, each text was automatically tokenized and filtered in relation to the length of its tokens. Tokens that consisted of less than four or more than 25 characters were removed. In addition, we used a list of Greek stop words in order to remove semantically empty tokens such as articles, pronouns, and prepositions. At the end of this procedure, our data set can be represented by a matrix with one row per document and one column per token that occurs in the corpus.

In respect to term weighting, RapidMiner uses four weighting methods for unigrams: Term Frequency (TF), TF-IDF, TO and BTO. We have decided to process our documents with the second and third weighting scheme.

3.4 The TF-IDF Bag-of-Words Approach

In the bag-of-words model that we have adopted, each document is represented as an unordered collection of features. In order to generate the feature vector, we used the TF-IDF weighting scheme. TF-IDF is the most common term weighting method in the field of Information Retrieval and previous research has demonstrated that it can significantly increase the classification accuracy of sentiment analysis systems (Paltoglou and Thelwall 2010).

The TF-IDF weighting scheme estimates the informativeness of a given term in a given document by combining two scores: its TF weight and its IDF weight. TF gives measure of the importance of the term within the particular document and is calculated by dividing the number of occurrences of a given term into the number of

total words in that document. IDF estimates the rarity of a term in the whole document collection and it is calculated by dividing the total number of documents by the number of the documents, in which a given term is occurred. The key idea behind IDF is that words that appear infrequently in a collection of documents tend to be more informative than the words that appear frequently across many documents. Each term in a document receives, hence, a specific weight by multiplying these two scores.

TF-IDF weight is higher when a term occurs either many times within a given document or a few times in a large number of documents. Conversely, a lower weight in TF-IDF is reached when a term occurs few times in a given document or many times in many documents. If a term appears in almost all the documents of the collection, then its IDF is close to one.

In our research, we have selected the first 1,000 features with the higher TF-IDF weight in the corpus regardless of their positive or negative label. Based on these features the algorithm is trained to predict the polarity of new unclassified documents as either positive or negative.

3.5 The Term Occurrence (TO) Approach

The term occurrence (TO) approach is the simplest approach that has been used in determining the sentiment of a document. In this approach each document is classified as either positive or negative according to the number of polarity terms that it contains. More specifically, if a document contains more positive than negative words, it is assumed to have positive semantic orientation. Alternatively, when in a document there are more negative than positive words, it is considered to express negative sentiment. Finally, if the number of polarity terms is equal, the document is considered to be neutral.

In order to apply this approach in our study for hotel reviews, we first had to manually build a sentiment lexicon with Greek words with positive or negative meaning. Subsequently, since Greek is an inflected language, we had to count for all the inflected types of each word; we utilized Wordforms Applet 0.2 (<http://users.otenet.gr/~nikkas/grammar/wordforms.html>), which is an open-source tool that inflects Greek words in a semi-automatic manner. Our resulting lexicon includes verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, comparatives, superlatives, and participles and comprises a total of 27.388 types of positive words and 41.410 types of negative words.

In the next step, the two lists with the polarity words were imported in the algorithm and we selected the TO weighting method, which gives us the exact number of occurrences of a given polarity term in a document. Finally, the algorithm counts the total occurrences of positive and negative terms in a given document and classifies it into the respective category.

4 Results

In order to validate our data set, we applied tenfold cross validation, i.e. our data were randomly separated into ten equal size folds with each of them containing 180 hotel reviews. Ninefold function as training data and the remaining functions as the validation data for testing the algorithm. The cross validation process is then repeated ten times resulting in the evaluation of the whole corpus.

The cross-validated performance of the classifier was evaluated using the measures of accuracy, recall and precision. Accuracy indicates how well our classifier can predict the category that a review belongs to. It is calculated by the ratio of the number of correctly classified positive and negative hotel reviews to the total number of hotel reviews being used. Recall is estimated as the ratio of the number of hotel reviews correctly classified as positive to the total number of hotel reviews that belong to that category. Finally, precision is defined as the ratio of the number of positive hotel reviews that are classified correctly to the total number of the reviews that are predicted to be positive.

Tables 1 and 2 present the results of the TF-IDF bag-of-words and the TO approach respectively according to the average accuracy over a tenfold cross-validation. Table 1 shows that the TF-IDF bag-of-words method achieves a remarkably satisfactory accuracy (95.78 %) as the algorithm classified correctly 1,724 out of 1,800 hotel reviews. The recall and precision rates are quite high too. More specifically, the recall rate is 93.78 % (844 out of 900 positive hotel reviews) and the precision rate is 97.69 % (844 out of 864 predicted positive hotel reviews). Table 2 shows the results of the TO method. In this case, the accuracy is 71.76 %, namely 1,222 correctly classified reviews. The value of recall is 100 % as all positive reviews were correctly classified by the algorithm (899 out of 899 positive reviews) while precision is 65.14 % (899 correctly classified as positive out of 1,380 predicted to be positive hotel reviews).

Table 1 Results of the TF-IDF bag-of-words approach

	Predicted negative	Predicted positive
Negative cases	880	20
Positive cases	56	844
Accuracy	95.78 %	
Recall	93.78 %	
Precision	97.69 %	

Table 2 Results of the TO approach

	Predicted negative	Predicted positive
Negative cases	323	481
Positive cases	0	899
Accuracy	71.76 %	
Recall	100 %	
Precision	65.14 %	

5 Discussion

By examining the results in Tables 1 and 2, a comparison of the two classification methods reveals that the TF-IDF bag-of-words language model obviously performs much better than the TO approach. Even though the second method gives to some degree good results, they are not as satisfactory as those of the first one. From the results of the second table, we can observe that there is a great deviation between recall and the other two measures. Although this method obtains 100 % recall, the precision rate remains relatively low. More specifically, while all positive reviews, except one, are correctly classified as such, the greatest part of the negative reviews was incorrectly predicted to be positive. It is notable, however, that whenever the output of the classifier is negative, the prediction is always correct.

This significant difference between recall and precision, which results in a decrease of the overall accuracy of the TO approach, occurs possibly due to two reasons. Firstly, as the results show, the selection of unigrams as features affects mainly the performance of the second method. By not taking into account the context of the selected polarity words, the algorithm faces problems in the classification task. For instance, the shift of the semantic orientation of a clause, which may be caused by the occurrence of negatives and intensifiers such as *not* and *but*, is not identifiable by the algorithm. Secondly, a substantial part of the reviews remain unclassified as a result of the occurrence of equal number of positive and negative sentiment words. The fact that 97 reviews (96 negative and 1 positive) fail to be classified in the respective category definitely affects the results of the TO method.

To sum up, as far as the classification of hotel reviews is concerned, it becomes clear that the TF-IDF bag-of-words method is more robust than the TO method.

6 Limitations

In a classification task the performance of the machine learning algorithm depends on the features that have been selected. In the present study, the bag-of-words representation of the documents entails that we did not take into account any word order dependency. In particular, we did not use any computational grammar and thus the effect of contextual valence shifters like negatives, intensifiers and diminishers is not examined.

Another reason which may constrain the results of our study is the sparsity of the feature vector due to the great number of features that are irrelevant and could be considered as noise to the classification task. More precisely, in order to reduce noise, we could first determine whether the sentences of the reviews express an opinion or some factual information and then examine only the opinionated sentences. Furthermore, we did not distinguish between on-topic and off-topic passages in our data. In many hotel reviews the authors usually provide information

such as descriptions of either their trip or the travel destination which are redundant and irrelevant.

The application of our automatic sentiment classifier in other domains should be done carefully as our results are domain-specific.

Finally, in relation to the second method, one additional limitation arises from the manual generation of the polarity lexicon, as it is possible that we may have omitted some sentiment words. Therefore, it is useful to extend the lexicon by adding more sentiment words including certain domain-specific entries.

7 Conclusion

Within the field of sentiment analysis little research has been done in the hotel domain. In this study we tried to develop an automatic sentiment classifier for hotel reviews written in Greek. Two different classification methods were compared, namely the TF-IDF bag-of-words model and the TO approach. Experimental results have shown the effectiveness of the first method which can be compared with state-of-the-art existing approaches. The resulting polarity classifier could be easily deployed in many domains and produce good results without using sophisticated, hand-picked sentiment wordlists.

The developed prototype could be exploited in many different and practical ways. Firstly, by integrating the algorithm into a recommender system, we could facilitate the classification of the hotels as either recommended or not recommended. Hotels that receive a lot of positive reviews will be recommended as opposed to hotels that receive many negative reviews. The exploitation of such kind of information could benefit both individuals and hoteliers; individuals for collecting more focused information for their travel plans, and hoteliers for gathering important feedback so that they can improve the quality of their services. Secondly, an expansion in the use of our classifier in reviews from product or service domains may facilitate further the understanding of how each product or service is perceived by customers.

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Development of Tourism in Apulia Region and Training of Tour Operators

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Abstract The research has been developed within So.Net.TO (Social Network for Tourism Operators) project, in partnership with the Technological Institute of Epirus (lead University), the Department of Humanities of the University of Foggia and the Department of Classical Philology and Philosophical Sciences of the University of Salento. The objective of the research was to identify and define innovative services capable of promoting the development of the territories involved through the adoption of collaborative models, with the help of ICT for creating communities of practice of tour operators, professionally capable of promoting sustainable local development processes. The implications appear to be linked to the possibility to raising the employment rate especially among young people in tourism segments (the high end) which appear to be in great expansion, compared to a generalized crisis of the tourism sector, consequent the more general and global economic and financial crisis that is facing the entire planet. The originality of the project is linked to the idea of investing in initial and continuing training of tour operators as a fundamental variable to capitalize on the natural and human resources of Apulia. It is to think about a model operator training that combines cultural awareness and entrepreneurship through the development of management skills able to qualify the professionalism of all those operators engaged in different ways in the tourism sector.

Keywords Sustainable Tourism • Training • Tour Operators

1 Introduction

The object of this paper is related to the research concerning the project SO.NET.T.O. (Social Network for Tourism Operators) financed by the European Territorial Cooperation Programme “Greece-Italy 2007-2013”.

The research was completed in March 2014. The partners of the project are: T.E.I. (the Technological Educational Institute of Epirus—University leader), the University of Foggia (Departments of: Humanities, Cultural Heritage, Education

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Sciences) and the University of Salento (Department of Classical Philology and Philosophical Sciences).

The idea was to create a niche social network site for those who operate in the tourism industry. In this perspective, the SO.NET.T.O. Community has predisposed the suitable conditions to enable the sharing of files, information and experiences. Specifically, the aims of the project were to increase the Niche Tourism through the creation of new formats compliant to the requirements of that specific target. In regards to the formative plane, the expected results led up to the augmentation of skills connected to the media languages and to the digital resources of those who operates in the tourism industry in Apulia and Epirus, conjointly to the promotion of business models complementary to the enhancement of the local excellences.

In this domain, a peculiar topic of interest and study has been the one concerning the professionalism of the tourism operators and the exigency of a constant education, capable to promote *the culture of the entrepreneurship* that still appears to be lacking through the Apulian tourism operators.

This grant, therefore, wants to start from the analysis of literature and data concerning southern tourism, in order to: present the results of SO.NET.T.O. Research conducted by the research team of University of Foggia and to finally discuss the peculiar theme of professionalism of the tourism operators and their education.

2 The Italian and Southern Touristic Vocation: Literature and Reference Data

The situation regarding the tourism in southern Italy still shows contradictory aspects and underlines positive and critical elements. The undeniable southern touristic vocation does not correspond to a sufficient awareness in: anthropic, social, cultural or environmental resources available in the south of Italy and, in particular, in the Apulian territory, this therefore relapses in economical and entrepreneurial terms.

Nevertheless, there is an important fact to remember: the Mediterranean area is the leading tourist destination in the world since the early 1990s. Besides, in Europe tourism is the third most relevant economical activity; it's able to receive young people especially, given that those in this field are the double of the manpower compared to others productive sectors. In Italy, the entrepreneurial associations are investing massively in this area, just in reference to the development of youth employment. From the results of the "*Fourth observatory about labour market of tourism in Italy*"—prepared by Federalberghi, Fipe (Italian federation of public exercises) and Ebnt (Bilateral National Tourism Organisation)—it was noted that in 2011, tourism was worth 5 % of employment: 57 % represented by women, 63 % by young employers in various sectors: from the travel industry, with travel agents and tour operators, to the hotel and catering industries.

Italy keeps on being of the most visited countries in the world (in 2011, it had the fifth largest influx of foreign tourists in the world) because of cities of artistic and historical value, museums and archaeological excavations, churches and cathedrals. Indeed, Italy is the Nation possessing the world's largest number of sites (49) included in the list of World Heritage. On top of that there are also 8,000 km of coasts in seaside resorts, lagoons, lakes, spas and mountains facilities furnished for winter sports. However, this positive result is against a most recent one that shows a slackening of the Italian touristic business compared to some *new entries* (such as Croatia or Turkey) which penalizes particularly the south of Italy. During the International conference on tourism organized from the Bank of Italy on June 2012, it was confirmed that Italy- especially the south—fails to exploit its own environmental and historical-cultural treasures. The big capacities of southern Italy (natural and anthropic attractions) don't turn into real ability to charm tourists and this causes the distance of the data related to the southern tourism from the national's average. Despite some efforts, there is not a clear awareness about the strategical role of tourism regarding economic, social and cultural development of the South. According to data of Svimez (Association for the development of southern industry), the south on the whole is lacking more than the mid-north, with a total of foreign arrival and presences for artistic-cultural tourism respectively equal to 19.4 % and to 10.8 % in 2010 in all, against 49.1 % and 37.1 % for the mid-north.

Southern tourism is still not yet fully considered a resource of territorial and economical growth, and at the same time, cultural and professional. Small companies, run by families, are lacking an organizational "breath" which is imperative to guarantee a high quality touristic offer, partly because this is not very integrated with other cultural, landscape or gastronomical resources. This is evidence of a poor entrepreneurial high-level *vision*, able to satisfy new forms of niche tourism, such as the form bounded to elite tourism.

Right the excessive territorial richness of south Italy (first matters such the sun, the sea, the woods, the artistic beauties) has developed, according to some analysts (Association of Studies and Research for the South, 2009, p. 27), not a very reactive attitude on the side of local companies, less striving for competitiveness, innovation, development and strengthening of the market . This limited vision does not allow to make qualitative and quantitative transformations of international touristic application that is now more alert to minor tourist routes, wellness tourism, religious trails and food-and-wine one. There is no unitary governance of touristic offer: to build this, it needs to liven up a network of moving forces and touristic systems able to propose an *integrated touristic product*. The quality of touristic offers seems to be greatly conditioned from the difficulty to integrate territorial (structures, services, etc.) and entrepreneurial development.

2.1 *Analysis of the Touristic Market in Apulia*

“Sea” offer remains the first touristic attraction of Apulia and, at the same time, its potential risk element: indeed, recently, countries which are investing specifically in this field (Croatia and now, more and more, Slovenia and Montenegro) start to look at the same sea. The tendency to no correlate the sea resources to other material and immaterial recourses of Apulian territory remains. In the interview to Beppe Zullo, realized within SO.NET.T.O., it’s clearly repeated the necessity of entering into a development of seasonally-adjusted tourism in a province (like Foggia) through the investment of food-and-wine routes, that improve local products, correlating them to traditions, history and to memories of visited places. Besides, in Apulia there are several parks and protected areas (Gargano and Alta Murgia national parks, regional parks, protected coastal areas, regional reserves, etc.), which could be proposed as good choice (or integration) for seaside holidays, in order to exploit the whole natural landscape and the cultural material and immaterial patrimony of Apulia; this could allow Italian and foreign tourists to travel whenever they wish and see more.

Thermal places, also—widespread on territory—keep on offering seasonal products (confined to summer time) due to the difficulty to transform them in a more general wellness offer, not limited to “curative” function but extended to a wide concept of psychophysical wellness very popular in the last years. This request of wellness should be linked to the possibility of taking advantage of it in natural contexts, to guarantee calm and clean and quiet spaces, far from the chaos and stress of the cities, assuring ecological traits,¹ as it likes to appear in a last trend of eco-chic tourism.

In the field of luxury tourism, instead, particular importance should be done to golf tourism, which seems to be strongly sub-dimensioned, if you think in Apulia there is only 2 % of the whole national offer.² The huge potentialities of the luxury field appear clearly in the Report of tourism in Apulia 2012, provided by the Regional Observatory for tourism: in this area, the percentage of foreign in high-level structures (5-star and luxury 5-star) is more elevated than that of national tourism (5,1 % for foreigners and 2,3 % for Italians), and it is followed by bigger qualification of structures (reduction in 3-star structures facing an increase in 4 and 5-star areas).

¹ European paper of sustainable tourism is a declaration of guide lines and principles turned into tourism and organization of touristic places respectful of environmental and cultural resources. These are actions that can turn into education of the tourists for the comprehension of the traditions of people living in visited places and for the attention of local the environment. Tourism firms, operating in the area of Paper, have to be reference to principles of sustainable tourism.

² Data is: Pugliapromozione, Regional Agency for tourism (2012), *Analysis of the touristic market in Apulia*. Pugliapromozione is the body through which Apulia works for the touristic field and realized studies and research, such as this last one, commissioned to Ciset (International Centre on Touristic Economic Studies) and to University of Venezia, Ca’ Foscari.

So, it is clear that there needs to be intervention policies, able to oppose the negative trends that characterize the world and Italian economy in recent years:

- investing in fields of full growth (as regards *luxury* tourism and *mass market*) and preparing specific interventions to attract tourists from the BRIC countries (Brasil, Russia, India and China, that have bigger spending capacity);
- Providing incentives for restructuring ancient farms and for the creation of new high-level touristic structures (by appropriate and integrated marketing strategies);
- Developing the strategic role of transport in order to support international tourism. Apulia, indeed, in its decentralized provinces compared to the chief town, seems to be lacking in transportation, aerial transportation in particular. An important tour operator in the province of Foggia, pointing out a series of proposals that invest in *luxury* tourism in Apulia, he has related some initiatives for this aim, for example the possibility to furnish from its own operative office a 24 h telephone service, the possibility to hire luxury cars or boats for tours, personal shoppers, typical dinners in charming locations and other “quality” services that are not always offered from structures in the list; the availability to place its staff at disposal for technical and specialist contributions and to contact other qualified operators.

This integrated approach is supported by European documents in the last few years: for example, the Communication on tourism of April 2010 (*Europe, first touristic destination in the world-a new political frame for European tourism*) is oriented to promote a coordinated approach to the initiative on tourism, in the context of new abilities assigned to the E.U. from the Lisbon treaty. To stimulate competitiveness of tourism in Europe, the document requests the promotion of a diversification in touristic offers, appealing to common patrimony and, so, to the improvement of a “brand of European patrimony”; it requests also the development of technological innovation, in order to help the adaptation of touristic business to the development of information and communication technologies; it underlines also the necessity to invest in the strengthening of professional skills of tour operators (with reference to technological expertise); in the end, the European document underlines the opportunity to improve “the imagine and the visibility of Europe as a whole of sustainable and exclusive destinations” (a perfect brand for quality).

The southern touristic market has, therefore, new potentialities of development: for this reason, it needs to increase promo-communicative activities, developing initiatives of territorial marketing, cultural, environmental and commercial assets, as well as the planning of complex activities absorbing local operators, tour operators and all public and private subjects. For a long time it wishes a “systemic vision applied to touristic contexts” to integrate territorial and product marketing, investing in the training of tour operators.

3 Realized Products and Used Methodology by the Research Team of the University of Foggia

On the basis of conducted analysis and of utilized literature, the products expected for SO.NET.T.O have been realized.

As for Foggia unity, the following has been realized:

- 43 e-presentations, multimedia presentation describing places (Margherita di Savoia, Torre Alemanna, Trabucchi, Oasi Lago Salso, castles of Daunia, Manaccore, natural and archaeological parks, etc.), good touristic practices (food-and-wine tourism, luxury tourism, sport activities and wellness, constructions of networks of associations and companies that work for tourism in Apulia), festivals and events (religious practices and traditional village festivals, guided tour of territory, etc.). Utilized formats have been: interactive presentations in English, present on online platform www.prezi.com; offline multimedia presentations in English through keynote software and loaded on YouTube; videos containing interviews with experts (often in Italian), loaded on YouTube and completed with a textual synthesis document in English.
- 41 learning objects, educational pills published in video form on YouTube channel, of varying duration (from 1 to 10 min). In these videos, specialists of tourism (tour operators, restaurateurs and hotel keepers), experts on processes for improvement of territory (managers of local administration, of museum structures, of territorial agencies), experts on formative and cultural fields (university teachers) they all deal with short disciplinary questions about matters of formation, about the state of tourism in Apulia, about opportunities of developments and about key points for its strengthening, like seasonal adjustments, new destinations for a more personalized tourism, transportation, revenue management. Some videos are recorded in English; others, in Italian, are accompanied by textual English documents that shortly summarise features and themes on paper.
- 5 videogames play and interactive multimedia objects. In the specific instance, it is a question of videogames: *Cross SO.NET.T.O.*, a two-levels crossword (easy, hard) with definitions about touristic apulian places and attractions; *Quiz SO.NET.T.O.*, 4-levels time quiz; *Find your place*, interactive guide to determine ideal places for tourists looking for a destination; *SO.NET.T.O. Nature*, a game discovering Apulian nature and territory through natural imagines and elements of three natural areas (Torre Guaceto sea areas, Gargano national park, Alta Murgia national park); *Puzzle SO.NET.T.O.*, several puzzles of Apulian historical and its places and cities, collected in a regional map;
- 2 documentaries: online videos on YouTube: “Lama degli Ulivi”, an Italian documentary accompanied by an English textual document on botanic garden gathering exotic plants and typical environments of the Apulian experience (rupestrian churches, hypogeous oil presses, karst areas); “Il Melograno e la

Peschiera”, English documentary showing first-class resorts of Bari, where nature, farms and wellbeing melt in a suggestive experience.

For the realization of multimedia products a research of Apulian territory has been undertaken, from a point of view of the improvement for tradition, natural routes, art and culture, making use of the comparison with specialists. The experienced knowledge in software and in 2.0 mass media allowed to translate these knowledges into easily enjoyable and impactful modalities for final users.

4 Theme Under Discussion: The Formation of an Entrepreneurial Culture

An important point, mostly from a pedagogic point of view, is connected to a construction of an entrepreneurial culture, of which the south is lacking in.³ An auto-referential and limited form for the running of touristic business remains; it lacks an appropriate management that can optimize not only the direction of a company but also the way of being system in the entire supply chain, combining *cultural and entrepreneurial sensibility*.

Recent research has underlined the necessity to strengthen *the territorial thematic vocation* despite the continuous changes of trends in the touristic field too.

So, it serves to have a mentality (people) and an organization (management) able to conform to changes, anticipating, addressing and ruling them. This thematic vocation is, for example, at present, a new tourism bound, which is addressing high-level tourism and aiming to develop an alternative thematic tourism: smaller cultural, musical, food-and-wine and golf routes. Besides, thematic tourism exploits smaller localities that are subject to seasonal work, in comparison with big tourism attractions (coastal areas, mountain, etc.). Thematic tourism, instead, allows to deseasonalized touristic offers on the condition that the thematic differentiation is taken care of and supported by appropriate policies. Obviously, the development of thematic tourism (the only one that develops integrated touristic offers and, consequently, seasonally-adjusted) needs the mentality to do this: that is to say, it needs a social and relational maturity, able to develop those intangible resources (Dato 2009) like cultural sensibility, territorial sense of belonging, hospitality culture and, therefore, professionalism and entrepreneurial spirit.

Once more, it is a problem of *training*, as a long-term process involving subjects (socially, culturally, territorially connoted) and *institutions* to which it is entrusted the task to train people (Loiodice 2004).

³ A similar research made in relation to agribusiness, of which results are published in *Formation and work. Focus group as research instrument* by I. Loiodice and in *Occupational frames and formative needs of agro-industrial companies of Capitanata area* by Franco Angeli, (edited by) Crocetta (2009).

In that way, training can guarantee to all people a role of critical and responsible self-promotion in the circle of a global society, whose levels of permanent change—in all fields: personal, professional, social, cultural—ask for sufficiently informed people on cognitive, socio-relational and emotional-affective level to face up to the staggering speed of change and, above all, to support the challenge of *doubt* and of permanent transformation: both behaviours of individual people and social, economic, entrepreneurial and cultural systems.

With reference to the field of this paper, therefore, we make reference to training as a *permanent process*: not (not only, at least) professional formation but in wide sense of term, that is to say formation of citizens, able to exercise their own right/duties of active and conscious citizenship, “guardians” of their own environment, interested, above all, as person to respect their own habitat, the people who live in it, other human beings (animals, plants), and to invest emotionally in the development of their own environment and as a consequence to invest culturally and economically.

For example, professional training of entrepreneurship and tour operators (both who running a touristic company and whom managing intermediation between supply and demand like travel agencies, tour operators, etc.) must be developed and reconsidered in the light of the transformations after the coming of internet: today more and more users are able to connect to touristic offers, “jumping” the intermediation of tour operators. Obviously this is if you think traditional touristic request or low cost one (*last minute* holidays that user tries to find alone on the internet): it is to invest in a different use, both economic possibilities and alternative tastes in comparison with these traditional ones. The difficulties, recorded by Apulian touristic structures (generally southern ones), are bounded to scarce capacity to satisfy a more advanced touristic request, as regards to which it needs to prepare an elaborated and integrated offer, that is to say able to offer luxury structures but also alternative landscape routes, peace and the possibility to shift by helicopter or boat, food-and-wine “historical” offers, (relating the story of that product, of that recipe, unknown places but with an original and new story. . .)

This means the transformation of tour operators, from sellers to *consultants*. But this involves, in terms of professionalism, getting different capabilities, privileging these strategic competences that join to basic and technic-professional competences.

4.1 Competences of Tourism Professionals

Redefinition of “professionalism”—directly connected and consequent to whirly modifications of market-defers, on one hand, characteristic elements of profession (typical of intellectual work) which are decisional, autonomous and control capacities, flexibility and originality; on the other hand, characteristic elements of the profession, which are operativeness and the capacity to take place within a productive circle.

Being beyond the strict distinction between manual/intellectual, the idea of professionalism refers to a complex set of variables bounded to capacity in operating and adapting within more moving and flexible contexts than in the past, but more uncertain and exposed to risks.

This supposes a reflection of “competence”, that undertakes a more complex function because of the “combination” between knowledge, abilities and motivation in various fields of knowledge and experience, and it utilizes and “applies” them to a variety of contexts, to a variety of users, to a plurality of requests (in this case, they are connected to different needs of “touristicity” than in the past).

The SO.NET.TO. research proposes to invest in competences that tour operators have to be in possession of, in order to execute the intermediation between touristic supply and demand in a qualified and new form, repositioning them to the transformations in tourism and reinventing a role more creative and gainfully. The diffusion of sustainable tourism-fitted to integrate profits and protection of the environment- can have positive repercussions in the redefinition of touristic management; which, to tie tourism, local development and respect and protection of the environment, must invest in experienced professionalism of tour operators, in order to develop a specific ethical and cultural sensibility to these themes. In this way, it can contribute to realize a real “cultural revolution” as it concerns touristic experience: that is to say, establishing a different relation between tourists and the places to be visited, not only with reference to quality of services (hotels, transports, accessibility, etc.) but also to culture, history and identity of a visited place, causing an experience born in individual meeting; and it emerges as a unique and unrepeatable experience. It’s a matter of considering a different audience, such as elite tourism, which don’t have difficulty in contacting touristic places but which *look for* somebody to organize a deeply different holiday, in order to exploit original characteristics of a territory (from luxury structure with a golf course, to the possibility of having a boat or a personal helicopter to visit unexplored places, little known from mass tourism; to the possibility to taste typical products and also, to follow production processes of products themselves, going by routes from birth to marketing). To do this, professionalism of tour operators gathers a complexity level that rediscovers their professional profile and makes necessary their starting and enduring education. Qualified training of tour operators is a fundamental variable to develop and increase those activities of *incoming* (that is to say, organizing touristic packets for people visiting our territory, foreigners in particular) rather than *outgoing* ones (organization of travel in Italy and abroad for resident population), as it is at present. It’s a matter of making reference to the formation of knowledge and competences that, as said before, are functional to transformation of tour operators from sellers to consultants, to develop knowledge and competences, starting from deep knowledge of Apulian territory, together with its traditions, landscape routes, anthropological and spiritual routes, food-and-wine peculiarities, proposed through personalized solutions with possibilities to benefit by an integrated packet of relaxed occasions and also culture, sport, and new and unique experiences.

4.2 *More Professional Profiles for a Complex Touristic Offer*

For a long time more professional profiles as opposed to traditional ones have been talked about, like tour operators or reception directors, etc. as well as innovative profiles connected to new forms of touristic marketing (online and in presence territorial nets) and also to new forms of tourism to which it has been referred (underlining cultural dimensions and environmental sensibility, for *slow* tourism forms rather than fast ones).

“New frontiers” of touristic professionalities are represented by that niche tourism, like *luxury* tourism, that, although limited, seems to be growing and more desirable for profitability.

In all cases, management competences are demanded, since the function of a touristic professional is to manage “holiday systems” that is the base of a touristic event rather than a single product (hotel structure, thermal residence, beach, etc.). A variety of profiles emerges, some really innovative in comparison to traditional ones and perceiving transformations and evolutions of tourism in the variety of requests expressed by public different in social, professional, cultural belonging, in tastes and personal and family needs.

A very interesting work about the definition of new professional profiles (and its relative competences) has been made in a ISNART research on tourism in central Italy, realized by the Interregional Association of Central Italy Chambers of Commerce in March 2012. For example, the profiles more related to the cultural dimension seem those relative to: “planner of touristic experience”, with the mission to “conceive, plan, organize and test holidays and residences”, promoting integrated touristic routes, qualified to exploit territorial cultural resources; to “*voyage designer*”, able to plan to the last details of touristic routes for wealthy customers, or to “*slow travel programmer*”, able to define touristic packets that enhance the heritage of the area (and not the individual tourist product).

As it concerns professional profiles connected to management of touristic offer, the “Unesco *heritage list promoter*” seems to be particularly innovative, able to individuate the aspects of material and immaterial cultural patrimony of the area examined and to prepare and then to follow insertion offers, as well as profiles connected to “fund raisers” for the individuation of financial support for conservation, exploitation and promotion of cultural and environmental assets and intangible patrimony of a community or area or profiles connected to the image and promotion of the area, of its routes, of its touristic peculiarities. This last professional feature can be further specified in the *network web advertiser & internet offer consolidator* version, that is to say that professional which knows how to exploit the image and promotion of the area on the internet, organizing campaigns and utilizing means of promotion on the web.

Traditional and new profiles play on the necessity to involve the emotional dimension of tourists; among professional features indicated in ISNART research there is also the “*builder of stories and the promoter of place’s emotionality*”. Mostly, between required competences to more professional profiles related to new

trends of tourism there are relational and communicative competences, able to stimulate emotions from the clarification and valorization of emotional biography of a place: that can tell its history and that of the people who live there. Competences of relational types are to be able to communicate, to explain its own point of view learning, and at the same time, to comprehend and to respect other points; to be able to collaborate and to work in a group. Competences of relational types are still to be able to talk and to negotiate ideas, experiences, actions but also projects, processes and products.

5 Conclusions

In the end, in this contribution we start from the analysis of some data related to tourism of southern Italy (its possibilities and its criticalities) to present some products of SO.NET.T.O. research, in order to arrive to highlight, in the professionalism of tour operators, the first variable for a renewed development of southern tourism.

In the pedagogic point of view—we talk about it as researchers of formative processes—this means to prefigure a set of fitted knowledges/competences to form expert and high level professionalities, that have strategic and oblique competences typical of mature professionalist. The transverseness of those strategic competences is fortified from the communicative-relational valence, possessed by strategic competences and involved, directly or indirectly, in interaction with other social actors.

It is, therefore, a question of knowledge and competences that can be exercised and perfected by different professional profiles afferent to the touristic area through a high level, continuous and permanent formation.

A *university education* is necessary for different professional profiles, comprehending and integrating humanistic, economic and socio-environmental knowledge between them, and so traditional and technologic codes. This level is ratified by some national and international documents, as well as by researches connected to touristic supply and demand realized by research companies, class associations, etc. This is in relation to the versatility of functions and works of those features, referable to the wide and varied touristic field, with reference to a professionalism bounded to the valorization of socio-cultural assets as well as environmental and food-and-wine aspects, able to promote an idea of tourism as “meeting culture”, at more levels. This aim can combine—investing in professionalism of tour operators—economic growth, territorial development and preservation of environment, able to remember the past, to preserve the present and to project a more livable future and wellbeing of people and of the land.

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Natural and Cultural Resources as a ‘Vehicle’ for Paving Alternative Local Tourist Development Paths: A Participatory Methodological Framework

M. Panagiotopoulou and A. Stratigea

Abstract The focus of the present paper is on the development of a participatory methodological framework, founded on the scenario-based planning approach and participatory evaluation tools for planning the integrated development of a specific region, the Region of Sterea Ellada—Greece. Towards this end, particular emphasis is placed upon the sustainable exploitation of natural and cultural resources for the spatial planning of alternative tourist development paths, which are effectively integrated into the local economic structure and its future perspectives. The proposed framework results in the synthesis of scenario-specific policy guidelines which, by taking into consideration variables of the internal and external environment of the study region and the particular decision contexts these outline, support policy makers by providing a range of policy directions and policy measures that can serve effective decision making within each specific decision context. Moreover, the participatory evaluation approach adopted in the proposed framework, supports public and stakeholders’ engagement in the decision making processes, rendering them thus more pluralistic, legitimized and transparent, which in turn are to the benefit of the planning process, the final policy decisions and their implementation at the local level.

Keywords Natural and cultural resources • Spatial planning • Participatory planning • Alternative tourism • Scenarios • Evaluation • Policy guidelines

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Feasibility Study of Creating Audio Tourism with Emphasis on Urban Sounds

Case Study in Three Cities: Tehran, Mashhad and Isfahan

Mohammad Hossein Tamjidi and Zeinab Lotfalkhani

Abstract Historical, cultural and environmental attractions absorb investments in tourism industry in certain regions. The tourism industry has always been based on visual attractions. This article, however, tries to study the feasibility of audio attractions in absorption of investment in tourism industry. The question is whether sounds can attract tourists to a particular region? Music and different musical instruments in various regions may well have this potential. Besides, would it be possible to attract tourists to a region through environmental and peripheral sound effects? Is it possible to relate a specific sound to a definite region to be known as its attribute? Creating audio tourism can only be done through the historical, social and cultural backgrounds of a city. The case study on three cities of Tehran, Mashhad and Isfahan demonstrates that audio tourism can not only help tourism industry grow but is also rich enough to be considered as a separate subject matter. Audio parameters can be used in tourism industry for advertising in different multimedia including in travel agencies and museums as well as in souvenir and gift shops. This article elaborates how these sounds can be applied to individual cities and in what ways audio tourism may develop.

Keywords Audio tourism • Urban sounds • City personality • Historical memory

This research was supported in part by the faculty of TV & Radio production, IRIBU.

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1 Urban Sound Attractions

Tourism industry consists of different parts and sound plays an important role in it. Over the past decades, sound has come to have a particular role in diverse disciplines such as sociology, anthropology, cultural studies and visual studies (Feld & Brenneis, 2004). Raymond Ledrut as a sociologist propounds the idea known as *city personality* and he mentions a form of historical continuity that can be mostly found in old cities. Personality of a city is in close relevance to the historical memory of the people of that city. As Fakouhi mentions, “The expression of citizens in their own city during their city life inevitably gives distinct *personality* or *personalities* to the city and this unconscious identification can be transferred from a specific group to all the citizens and even be determined by other people from other cities.” (Fakouhi, 2003) This can be referred to as the expression of the citizens of a city from their urban sound perception. And it can also affect the tourist sound perception of that particular city. Fakouhi also says: “Accumulation of memory can be explained through a complex sensational collection such as pictures, sounds, scents, flavours and historical memory which can be shared among the members of a group.” (Fakouhi, 2003).

Tehran, Isfahan and Mashhad are three cities with great historical backgrounds in Iran. Therefore, each has a particular personality for itself. But collecting the historical memory of the citizens is not an easy task. For instance, metropolitans such as Tehran are crowded at the first glance. Urban sound in these cities are often considered intrusive, undesirable and are referred to as noise (Jennings & Cain, 2013). Most citizens don't recall the former sounds of their city and they become more and more familiar with undesirable sounds.

It's difficult to consider a specific sound for metropolitans or big cities such as Tehran as their identical audio characteristic. The first sound that pops up in any mind would be traffic noise. But for touristic and historical cities such as Isfahan or religious and touristic cities such as Mashhad it is easier to find sound attractions.

Although it is a clear fact that not all the existing sounds in a city has a sonic attraction to the citizens and the tourists. It is also probable to find unique sounds in each individual city. The repetition of a sound such as abating noise made by public transport doesn't mean that this sound should remain with the sonic understanding of a city. Despite those sounds, other sounds can also be found. Therefore, we put emphasis on gathering various data from the interviewees about their perception about the sounds of Tehran, Isfahan and Mashhad. Both citizens and tourists were asked whether they can define that particular city with a specific sound (a sound which only belongs to that particular city). Thus this research tries to find out whether the tourists and citizens of each of the mentioned cities are able to define a specific sound for them or not?

Audio tourism is a new challenging topic which needs a great deal of study and research. It has always been with us, but its individual entity has been neglected because of taking it as a part of audio-visual tourism. This subject has the capacity of being studied by its own potentials. We believe that particular sounds can be

found in a city and can become a source for stimulating memories of a place being heard from cards, toys, souvenirs, websites, weblogs, podcasts and other digital mediums.

2 Literature Review

Many research projects has been done on audio capacities and on tourism separately. But audio tourism is a new term to be studied on. To gather information for this research there were many useful information from other disciplines and areas. Jennings and Cain (2013) made a very interesting research on the probability of improving urban sounds. They believe that public sound can be perceived to be *positive*. Their research proposes that the meaning of *positive* for a public space is quite different for three types of people, each with a different level of direct engagement with the soundscape: planners; serious listeners and users of the space (Jennings & Cain, 2013). This research indicates that understanding urban sounds differs from one group of people to another. This was a useful finding that structured our next steps for this research.

In a similar context, Trevor Cox (2010) discusses about *positive soundscape*. He mentions that urban design is only really concerned with abating noise made by public transport or industry; the subtle and interesting sounds that can enhance cities are overlooked (Cox, 2010).

Interestingly, Feld and Brenneis (2004) in doing anthropology in sound, discussed sound from an anthropological perspective. Their conversation explores general outlines in anthropology of sound and they discuss about sound as a new medium for ethnographic researches (Feld & Brenneis, 2004). Their discussions are helpful in doing an audio case study.

In another discipline, Chang, Jang, and Chiu, (2012) study aims to understand users' intention to adopt podcasting in the context of e-tourism by using media selection theory and innovation diffusion theory. In their research they mention that "although traditional guidebooks contain valuable references for travellers, podcasting provides users an easier and more convenient and flexible way to acquire necessary information for their trips." (Chang et al., 2012)

Yu and Kang (2010) in their case study discuss about factors influencing sound preferences in urban spaces. Their results shows that with increasing age or education, people tend to prefer natural sounds and are more annoyed by mechanical sounds in general. It has also been found that gender, occupation and residence status generally would not influence the sound preference evaluation significantly. Their study also shows that in terms of physical factors, behavioural, and psychological factors, their influence on the sound preference evaluation is insignificant, except for limited case study sites and certain sound types (Yu & Kang, 2010).

In further studies, Ismail (2014) investigated the soundscape preference of the sonic environment in Cairo. His results confirmed a direct relevance of the linguistic semantic auditory judgment. Cairenes were also found to express their sonic

environment linguistically based on physical properties rather than semantic features and values.

3 Methodology

In collecting information to complete this research, both library research method and field research were used. Three cities with three different functions in Iran were chosen for the case study: Tehran as the capital city is a populated metropolitan. The second city was touristic and historical city of Isfahan. And the third city Mashhad, was chosen because of its religious function. All these three cities have touristic and historical attractions but their main roles define their functions in different levels.

To gather data on audio perception for each of the three cities, in-depth interviews was done in each of them during two different seasons. Two different seasons (winter and spring) were chosen to increase the possibility of sound data collection due to seasonal changes. The questions were asked from both of the citizens and tourists. Each of the interviews took place in a separate location, to eliminate the possible errors that might have been occurred by soundscape perception of that particular region. Also, it helped to observe if the answers may differ from the first collected data from one soundscape to another.

People

The interviewees were chosen by availability sample method. 16 individuals including tourists and citizens were interviewed in Tehran each time which means 32 individuals in total in Tehran were interviewed. In Isfahan 28 people were interviewed in total. Fourteen individuals for each session. And in Mashhad 30 people in total were interviewed. 15 people each time.

Analysis

For analysing the achieved data we used histogram and variable case data matrix to give a better understanding of the collected information and at the end, results were categorized separately for each city through their similarities and functions.

4 Audio Tourism: Tehran Case Study

“*City personality* doesn’t necessarily adapt to a city as a whole.” (Fakouhi, 2003) Tehran as a metropolitan is a host to various ethnicities. Its *historical memories* are in danger of vanishing among different ethnics and accents. On the other hand this ethnic variety is interestingly building up a new *memory* for itself. Anyhow, recording the *historical memories* before merging and vanishing is of paramount importance.

Table 1 Tehran sound categories

General categories	Sub categories	Data
<i>Obtrusive or intrusive sound</i>	Human	Hawkers, Buskers, Town cires: Namaki, Lahafdoози, Paddlers and Junk-buyers Commotion, uproar, crowd, bustle
	Industrial and mechanical	Car horn, car brake, traffic noises
<i>Desirable sound</i>	Historical	Zurkhaneh, Shahre-Farang
	Natural	Birds, Water raceways, Rain
	Human	Accent, Azan

Location and People

Two different locations were chosen for the interviews. The first interview took place in *Tehran's Old Bazaar*,¹ and the second in *Tajrish Bazaar*.² In Tehran Old Bazaar we interviewed 16 individuals in which 5 were tourist and 11 were Tehran citizens. In second interview in *Tajrish Bazaar* we also interviewed 16 individuals in which 6 were tourist and 10 were Tehran citizens.

Findings in Tehran

The interviewees mentioned various sounds in both interviews in Tehran. Many of the mentioned sounds can be heard in other cities as well and they do not have any distinguishable characteristic. Some of the mentioned sounds were natural sounds, thus, they cannot play a role concerning the research aims in collecting urban sounds. In general on the basis of all the gathered data, Tehran sounds could be categorized in two major groups (Table 1).

- A. Urban obtrusive sounds
- B. Urban desirable sounds

A- Urban Obtrusive Sounds

Obtrusive sounds are undesirable sounds that every visitor or citizen hear every day. These sounds are normally industrial or mechanical sounds referred to as traffic transportation sounds. But beside the industrial and mechanical sounds in Tehran, some undesirable human sounds can also be heard. Some of these sounds might seem nostalgic to some inhabitants despite their annoyance and during time their functions have changed. These sounds convey different feelings from one person to

¹ Tehrans'Old Bazaar is located in district 12 known as historical part of the city (Region 12, 2014). This Bazaar with its other monuments is one of the most important artistic and historical attractions in Tehran.

² TajrishThis Bazaar is located in district 1 and is also one of the ancient places in Tehran. Tajrish Bazaar is one of the oldest markets in Shemiran district and it still maintain its ancient appearance (Mollahosseini, 2011). Many tourists and citizens visit this Bazaar everyday as visitors or quotidian citizens. This Bazaar is located in the north of the city.

another. As mentioned, Tehran urban obtrusive sounds can be divided to two major categories:

1. Human obtrusive sounds
2. Industrial and mechanical obtrusive sounds

1- Human obtrusive sounds. Tehran is a host to a huge number of immigrants who have settled in this city and are looking for new opportunities and jobs. Thus, some new jobs have emerged such as *hawkers* and *town criers*.³ In Tehran there are some different sort of hawkers, some known as *Namaki*⁴ collect the used breads from homes, some shovel the roofs during winter, some other are peddlers with vehicles cry out in their loud speakers suggesting to buy second hand materials from homes. Among those jobs there are quilt-makers known as *Lahafdoози*. They have a warm old sound that cries out their job until a door gets open in the street and people offer them to fix their cotton made coverlets. Quilt-makers used to have a very special instrument for their job. Furthermore to their own interesting sound, the instrument had also an interesting and weird sound. Buskers who sing in the streets are another sound that can be heard in Tehran. These sounds are all familiar for the citizens. *Namaki* and *Lahafdoози* (quilt-makers) are two vanishing jobs that can hardly be heard these days and they seem nostalgic to the older people. But those loud peddlers and junk-buyers with their loud speakers will remain intrusive although they are functional and some citizens may sell some useless things to them, still their sound remain obtrusive in people's mind. These jobs may be found in other cities but not to this huge extent and interestingly some tourists have also mentioned these sounds in their interviews.

Another human sound which was considered obtrusive was described in different words such as commotion, uproar, crowd, congestion, and bustle.

2- Industrial and mechanical obtrusive sounds. These sounds are the main cause of sound pollution. They are consisted of sounds such as car horn, car brake, anti-theft device alarm, harsh automobile sounds and such other sounds.

B- Urban Desirable Sounds

These are sounds which can have a kind of attraction and usually do not cause any confusion or exhaustion. Some of these sounds are not urban indicators and they can be categorized as natural sounds which normally exist in a city. These sounds in general can be categorized in three major groups.

1- Historical sounds. These sounds are originate from historical backgrounds of Tehran. Fortunately they still linger in social and historical memory of the city and its elder inhabitants. Some of these sounds belong to a place named *Zurkhaneh*.⁵

³Town crier is a person who talks out loud or shout in the streets to sell goods.

⁴Namaki literally means Salty. This term is referred to a person who collect used breads from homes in exchange of Salt.

⁵Zurkhane literally means Power house. It is a place to gain strength, reinforce the virtues of sportsmanship, modesty, humbleness and avoid arrogance.

Zurkhaneh is a place for Iranian traditional sports. Inside this place various attractive sounds such as bell, drums and epic singings can be heard. *Morshed* is the name of a spiritual guide who directs the activities, uses a drum and a bell (Hosseini, 2004). *Zurkhaneh* is not Tehran's specific heritage but this sport has been also practiced in other cities as well. However Tehran champions and *Zurkhanehs* are famous among the others. The bell, *Morshed's* epic songs and drum-like instrument all together shape *Zurkhaneh* beat. A musical beat that is known for its uniqueness (Palm, 2004). This sport follows an interesting and special rhythm and *Zurkhaneh* sounds can definitely be considered as touristic sound attractions.

Another sound that was mentioned during the data collection, was *Shahre-Farang*. *Shahre-Farang* simply means Foreign-City. *Farang* originally meaning France, was a generic term for Europe. Iran's cultural contact with west in the nineteenth century was first with France and *Shahre-Farang* was a big box on a wheelbarrow that a hawker used to push in the streets while shouting: "Come and see the *Shahre-Farang!*... Travel with me to the land of *Farangi* and see its marvels!..." (Guppy, 2004) *Shahre-Farang's* sound is another survived sound in the historical memory of Tehran Citizens. Due to the role of a hawker to shout about his presence, *Shahre-Farang* can also be included in Human sounds category.

2- Natural sounds. The sort of sounds in collected interviews, like Bird sounds such as crow and myna and sound of water in raceways were some of the natural ones. One interviewee sorted Tehran sounds by their seasons. Rain in spring, rustles in autumn, automobile horn in summer (industrial obtrusive sound), and finally silence and crow in winters. Although natural sound plays a role in urban sounds but they can be found in nature and cannot be considered as urban sound attraction.

3- Human sounds. *Azan*, the Muslim call to prayer is one of the sound attractions in Tehran. But this sound does not only belong to Tehran and it can be heard in other cities and even in other Muslim countries. This particular sound can be suggested for Qom that is the centre of Islamic studies and it has a religious function amongst other cities. It can also be mentioned that the way people talk counts for distinguishing where they are coming from. In this case Tehran peoples' accent is distinguishable by internal travellers. Another sound that does not come out instantly from human throat but is produced by human actions is sweeping. Tehran's sweepers mostly work during the midnight and some people are familiar with their presence in the street. A tourist said "It was midnight and I was awake, then I heard a sweeping sound, it was nice to know that someone else is also awake in middle of the night".

5 Audio Tourism: Isfahan Case Study

Isfahan is an ancient city with innumerable historical monuments and it's one of exemplar touristic cities known in the world (Culture, 2014). As mentioned before, 14 people were interviewed during the first time and 14 during the second. Among the

Table 2 Isfahan sound categories

General categories	Data
<i>Natural</i>	Zayanderoud river, Birds, leaf rustles in Chaharbaq
<i>Artificial</i>	Carriage in Naghshe-Jahan square, Bicycle and its bell ring, Coppersmith engraving in bazaar, Ali Qapu musical instruments, Vank Cathedral bell
<i>Human</i>	Accent, Singing under the bridges, Imam mosques' echo stone

first interviewees there were 8 tourists and 6 citizens. Second time we interviewed 7 tourists and 7 citizens. The location for these interviews were *Naghshe-Jahan*⁶ square for the first interview. Particular sounds can be heard in this square, to study whether those mentioned sounds by the interviewees were at the same soundscape or not, we decided to interview for the second time in Flower-Garden.

Findings in Isfahan

Isfahan sounds can be categorized in three groups by their natural or descriptive resemblance (Table 2).

1- Natural Sounds

Isfahan natural sounds on the basis of gathered data can be grouped in three subcategories: Water sound, Bird sound and rustle of leaf during autumn. Water sound were suggested by both tourists and citizens because of *Zayanderoud* River which recently is drying out to keep its memory as a great river. Fountains and drops of water were the other water sounds that can be heard in *Naghshe-Jahan* square in Isfahan. Sound of the nature has always been an attraction to the people but these sounds need to be heard in their true environment in nature to be considered as attractions.

2- Artificial Sounds

These sounds are made by human's activities or brought to the place intentionally. The most repeated sound heard by tourists that described their sound perception of Isfahan is described as "Imam square⁷ Carriage sound" as a desirable nostalgic sound. The second sound mentioned is coppersmith etching and engraving sound in bazaar which make a special sound is bicycle bells and spokes sound in the city. *Vank*⁸ Cathedral bells. And the last mentioned sound in this category was a suggestion made by one of the interviewees to reconstruct the sound of music of

⁶ Naghshe-Jahan square literally means "image of the world" square. This square is a masterpiece of urban construction situated at the heart of the legendary city of Isfahan (Organization, 2012).

⁷ Imam square is the recent name for Naghshe-Jahan square.

⁸ Vank means monastery in the Armenian language.

*Ali Qapu*⁹ Palace, by using the same musical instruments which were used back then in this Palace.

3- Human Voice

Singing under river bridges in Isfahan is known as citizens' habit. People gather around the person who is singing, show their applause or disproof to the singer. Another indicator that distinct Isfahan is *Isfahani* accent which is recognizable for internal voyagers and also tourists by knowing some little information will come to notice it. In *Naghsh-e-Jahan* square, there is a mosque named Imam. In this mosque there is a stone under the dome on which whoever stands and talk, his voice will reflect louder.

6 Audio Tourism: Mashhad Case Study

Mashhad is the second religious metropolitan in Muslim countries. It is located in northeast of Iran (History, 2014). This city has its reputation by having the shrine of *Imam Reza*¹⁰ in its soil. This city has the first position among the rest religious cities in Iran for having millions of visitants and pilgrims every year (History, 2014).

Location and People

In order to gather information about sound perception in this city, two interviews were done in two locations. The first interview took place in *Bazaar-e-Reza* and 15 people were interviewed 9 pilgrim and 6 citizens. The second interview was in Mashhad railway station again with 15 people including 9 pilgrim and 6 citizens.

Findings in Mashhad

On the basis of the collected data we can group Mashhad sounds in two categories (Table 3).

1- Relevant Sounds to Imam Reza's Shrine

The interesting fact in data collecting is that all the suggested sounds are somehow related to *Imam Reza's* holy shrine. The first sound mentioned in the interviews that

Table 3 Mashhad sounds categories

General categories	Data
<i>Relevant Sounds to Imam Reza's Shrine</i>	Naqare-Khane: Naqare and drums, Shrine's clock, pigeons, Prayer and invocation
<i>Other sounds</i>	Different accent of pilgrims, Train sound

⁹ Ali Qapu is a grand palace in Naghshe-Jahan square in Isfahan. In its sixth floor there is a music room which deep circular niches are found in its walls, having not only aesthetic value, but also acoustic.

¹⁰ Imam Reza is Shi'ites' eight Imam lived 765–819 A.D. Shi'ites have 12 Imams and Imam Reza is the only Imam buried in Iran (Biography of Imam Reza, 2004).

can truly recognized by many in Iran is the sound of *Naqare-Khane*¹¹ which is the sound of a sort of trumpet and drums played in *Imam Reza's* shrine. This musical instrument has a very specific sound and it is usually played with drums. Once this sound is heard in the shrine it will represent a nostalgic role and all the interviewees mentioned that when they go to the shrine they try to be there in those specific hours to hear that sound. The other mentioned sound is the sound of praise and invocation to God which can be heard in the shrine and as one interviewee mentioned "I like the spiritual experience to be among many others and hear their voices praying together or individually". There are some places made for pigeons in the Shrine and many interviewees mentioned the pigeon sounds and their fluttering. Another sound that can be heard in Mashhad is *Azan*, so as in other cities. There is a clock known as shrine's clock and the sound of its strikes was mentioned by interviewees. Monody and dirge were the last mentioned sound.

2- Other Sounds

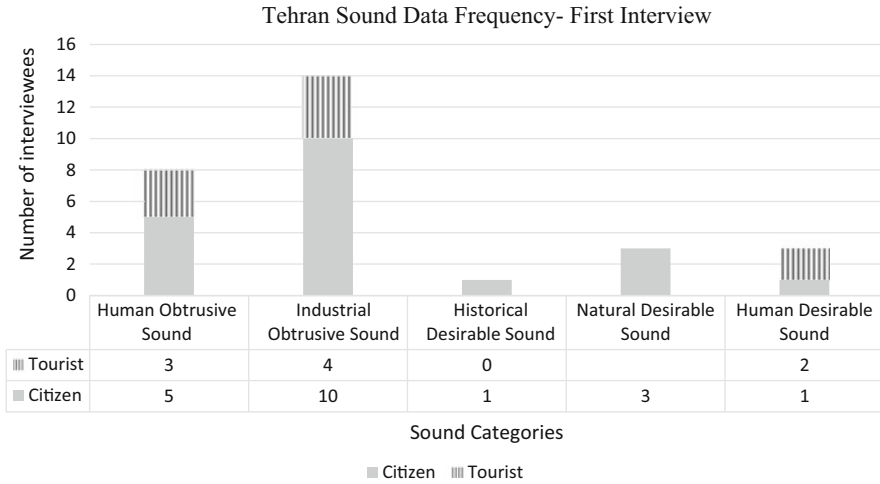
In this category two sounds were mentioned by the interviewees. The interesting point is that even these sounds were explained in relevance to the shrine. The first sound is train's sound to represent Mashhad and the reason mentioned by the interviewee was "because I always trip to Mashhad to go to *Imam Reza's* shrine by train. So trains remind me of Mashhad". The second sound mentioned by a visitor/tourist was the sound of different accents that can be heard in this city because of the huge number of pilgrims that come to visit the shrine.

7 Discussion

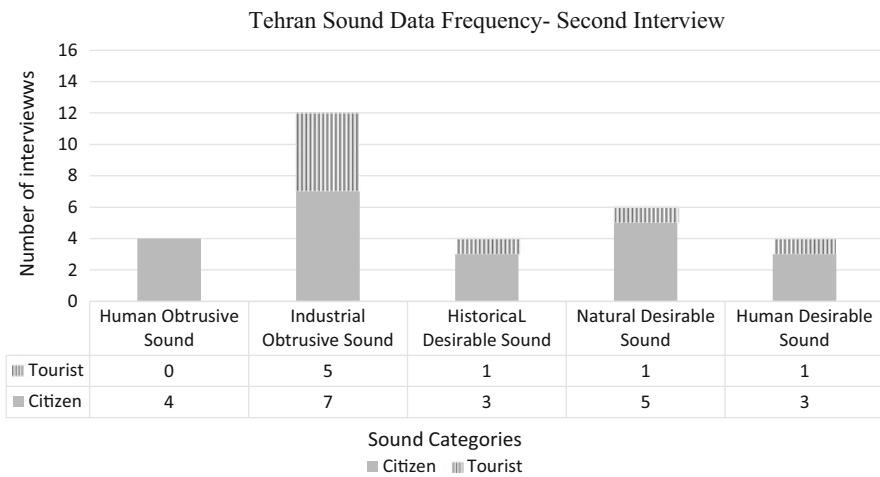
'Urban environments are heavily impacted by road traffic, where motor vehicles constitute a major source of air pollution in large cities.' (Xia and Shao as cited in Torija & Ruiz, 2012) But it is possible to find desirable sounds for cities. Finding an attractive urban sound for cities such as Tehran seems impossible first. Even the majority of the interviewees couldn't mention any sounds other than sound pollutions for Tehran (Histograms 1 and 2).

But in this research the quantity and the repetition of data didn't play a great deal, while the quality of the given information was important. Among the interviewees in Tehran only a few people pointed out some sounds that belong to the historical memory of the city. Although these sounds are not mentioned by all the interviewees, but these sounds are not completely vanished yet and with a little bit of attention they might come back to people's sound perception of the cities. *Zurkhaneh* and *Shahre-Farang* are among these sounds. Tehran case study shows that some of the sounds were considered intrusive years before but in comparison to the modern sound pollutions they seem nostalgic and desirable these days to the

¹¹ Naqare-Khane literally means the house of drums. This place in Imam Reza's shrine is dedicated to play musical instruments in specific hours.



Histogram 1 Tehran sounds data frequency—first interview—winter

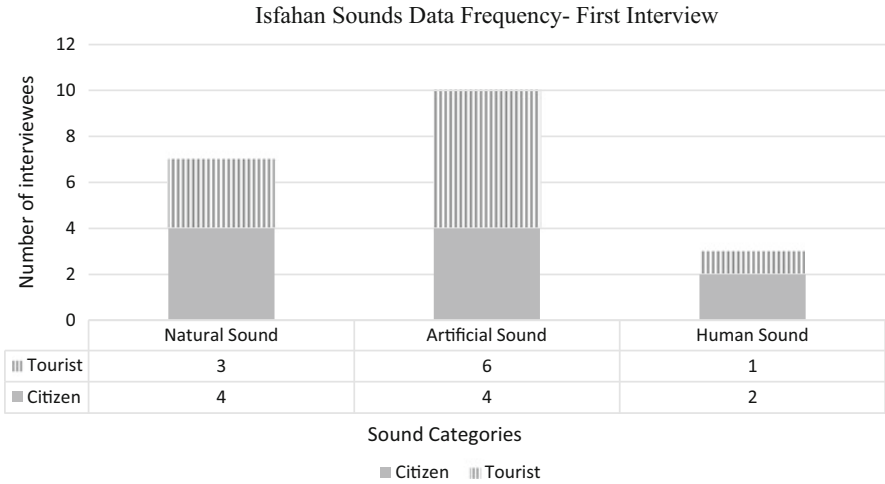


Histogram 2 Tehran sounds data frequency—second interview—spring

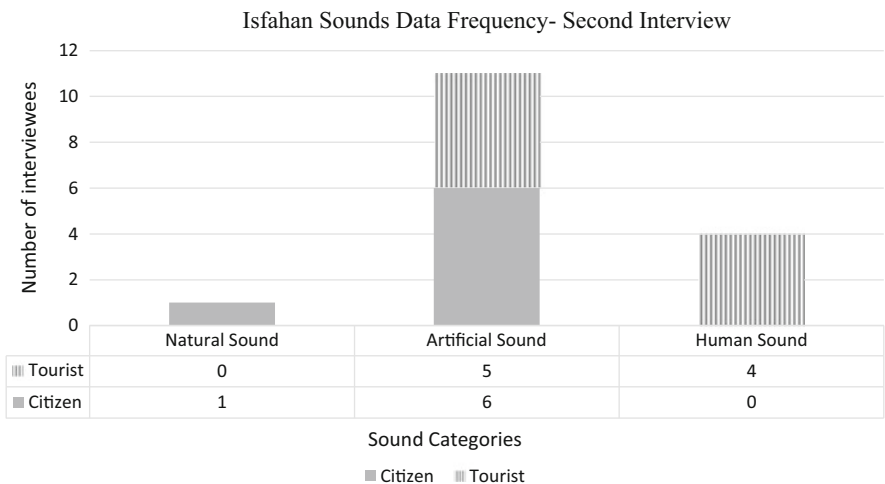
elders. Sounds like the *town criers* such as *Namaki* and *Lahafdoози* are among these sounds that have shifted their function from intrusive to desirable.

In Isfahan however, the sound perception of the citizens differ in some aspect from the tourists (Histograms 3 and 4).

Tourists mostly mentioned the sound of *Naghshe-Jahan* square’s carriage, while citizens didn’t mention that sound even once. Both citizens and tourist mentioned coppersmith engraving sound as it is the handicraft of Isfahan. The interviews in Isfahan were done in two locations. It was thought that the most tourists were mentioning the carriage sound because they were interviewed in *Naghshe-Jahan* square and might be affected by the location while they are hearing the carriage



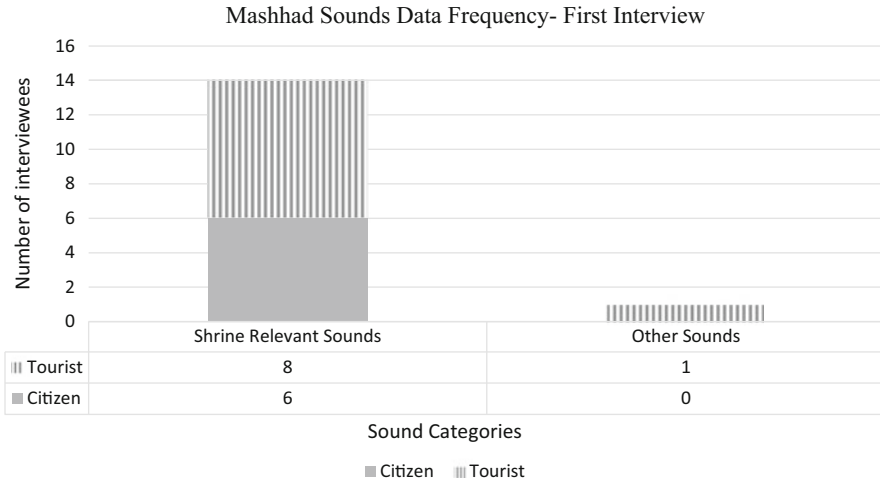
Histogram 3 Isfahan sounds data frequency—first interview—winter



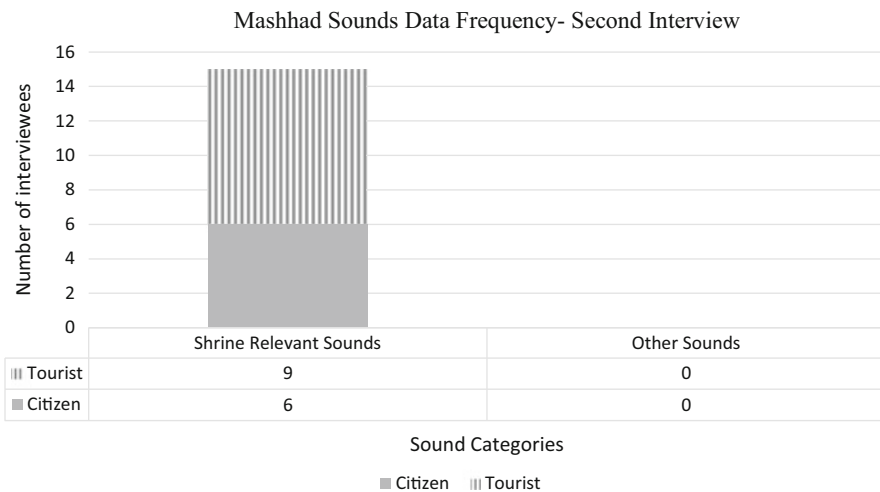
Histogram 4 Isfahan sounds data frequency—second interview—spring

voice. Thus the second location was an approximated neutral sound location. But the results were the same and tourists kept mentioning the carriage sound. Therefore, there were one attractive sound (carriage) mentioned by tourists and another sound mentioned by both tourist and citizens (coppersmith engraving sound) in Isfahan. Other sounds were also mentioned that can be added to Isfahan sound characterization.

Mashhad particular sound was found out easier than the two other cities (Histograms 5 and 6).



Histogram 5 Mashhad sounds data frequency—first interview—winter



Histogram 6 Mashhad sounds data frequency—first interview—winter

Both citizens and tourists agreed on *Naqare-Khane* sound as the main sound attraction for this city.

One of the tasks of audio tourism is to find attractive sounds for touristic cities. Some of these sounds are fading out with passage of time and audio tourism in relation to other disciplines such as anthropology and folklore will be able to gather these sounds before they vanish from people’s mind forever. Cultural phenomenon and information only can be conveyed through human relations. The concept of human relation hasn’t changed in meaning but is changed with the new sort of media. Audio information are being conveyed not only through radio, but also

podcasts as a new medium made this process faster and easier. “Due to Podcasting’s natural characteristics of low entry barriers and high flexibility in the delivering rich-media content, it has been treated as a new medium for modern travellers.” (Chang et al., 2012)

Limitations

Tehran as a metropolitan was the most complicated city in collecting data. Despite the social classes, region of living and other factors, the first given sounds by the interviewees were urban distracting noises such as car horn, high speed sound of cars, car brake and other related traffic and transportation noises. The other complication in gathering the information was the various ethnics that are living in Tehran and their historical memory hasn’t shaped with the city’s historical background yet.

Urban citizens and tourists cannot be interviewed easily due to time limitations. Urban citizens are normally in rush due to their speed of life and tourists have a limited time. Therefore the questions were prepared to ask in a way accurate to their speed of life and to respect their precious time.

Doing field studies and making trip to other cities is time consuming and in every research, there is a financial limitation. Both of these problems, caused some difficulties in realising this research.

Some tourists were not familiar with the sounds in the city they were visiting since it was their first time of visiting. And some of the mentioned sound had no valuable touristic attraction to be used in audio tourism.

Implementation

Sounds of a city can be introduced to the tourists before and during their trip to a city or even after. It’s important that the citizens get familiar to their own sound heritage first to be able to convey it afterward. Therefore, introducing these sounds through websites, podcasting, radio and television would be helpful. For instance the sound of *Naqare-Khaneh* is well-known in Iran as it is being broadcast time to time through Radio and Television. Other sounds can come to people’s memory by doing the same. The citizens should recall these sounds as their own *city personality*. Because if the citizen won’t recall their own city’s sound heritage they won’t be successful to convey it to the tourists and travellers. “Although traditional guidebooks contain valuable references for travellers, Podcasting provides users an easier and more convenient and flexible way to acquire necessary information for their trips.” (Chang et al., 2012) Making podcast applications presenting these sounds will be a useful idea to be used in websites, weblogs, travel agencies, gift shops and other places.

8 Conclusion

Although further studies will enhance the qualitative studies, this research has reached its aims. The findings show that desirable sounds can be for the three cities of Tehran, Mashhad and Isfahan to be used as audio attractions and audio tourism.

Table 4 Mashhad sound variable by case data matrix: First interview

Interviewee	Age	Gender	Status	Sound
1	25	F	Tourist	Naqare
2	43	M	Citizen	Azan, Naqare
3	15	F	Tourist	Naqare
4	57	F	Tourist	Different accents and train sound
5	48	F	Citizen	Naqare
6	39	F	Tourist	Naqare
7	26	F	Tourist	Spiritual calmness in the Shrine
8	14	F	Tourist	Naqare
9	32	F	Tourist	Pigeons' fluttering in the Shrine
10	19	M	Tourist	Azan in the Shrine
11	34	M	Citizen	Naqare, prayer
12	60	F	Citizen	Naqare
13	18	F	Citizen	Naqare
14	23	M	Citizen	Naqare
15	17	F	Tourist	Azan in the Shrine

Table 5 Mashhad sound variable by case data matrix: second interview

Interviewee	Age	Gender	Status	Sound
1	29	F	Tourist	Naqare
2	26	F	Citizen	Naqare
3	45	M	Citizen	Naqare
4	32	F	Tourist	Naqare, pigeons
5	43	F	Tourist	Naqare and drums
6	39	M	Citizen	Naqare
7	17	M	Tourist	Naqare
8	23	M	Citizen	Prayer and invocation, Naqare
9	34	M	Citizen	Shrine's clock bell, Pilgrims' voices praying, Naqare
10	67	F	Tourist	Naqare, monody and eulogy
11	36	F	Tourist	Naqare, pigeons, azan
12	36	M	Citizen	Pigeons, Shrine's clock bell, people's whispering prayers
13	28	F	Tourist	Naqare
14	23	F	Tourist	Naqare
15	28	F	Tourist	Naqare

The answer to the feasibility of creating urban audio tourism is *positive*, but it differs in quantity for each of the cities. Tehran as the capital city, needs many other field researches while Mashhad seems to have one outstanding sound (Tables 4 and 5: Mashhad sound variable by case data matrix).

From Tehran categories discussed in the text, this research suggests two historical sounds for Tehran which are *Zourkhaneh* and *Shahre-Farang*. For the touristic city of Isfahan two special sounds can be suggested. First sound which both tourist

Table 6 Isfahan sound variable by case data matrix: first interview

Interviewee	Age	Gender	Status	Sound
1	40	F	Citizen	Zayanderoud river
2	26	M	Tourist	Birds
3	47	F	Tourist	Carriage
4	32	M	Tourist	Carriage
5	16	F	Tourist	Carriage
6	30	F	Tourist	Zayanderoud river
7	21	M	Tourist	Water fountain
8	56	M	Citizen	Coppersmith making, Zayanderoud river, Bazaar crowd
9	40	F	Citizen	Water drops, bicycle and its bell
10	55	M	Citizen	Crow, Zayanderoud, Coppersmith
11	42	M	Citizen	Singing traditional songs under the bridges, bicycle
12	16	M	Tourist	Coppersmith
13	25	F	Tourist	Carriage
14	32	F	Tourist	Carriage, coppersmith, Singing traditional songs under the bridges

and citizens are familiar with is coppersmith engraving sound (in bazaar ambience). The second sound which was suggested by tourists is the *Naghsh-e-Jahan* carriage sound. And for the city of Mashhad the sound of *Naqare-Khane* is the unique suggested sound (Tables 6 and 7: Isfahan sound variable by case data matrix).

One of audio tourism tasks is to obtain the historical and touristic urban sounds in cities to be introduced through radio, podcasts, tourism websites, tourism agencies, gift shops and other possible ways. All these sounds can be used in different audio medium. Social networks and podcast are the best interactive media for these sounds to get through and being shared.

This research suggests further studies in Tehran and the questions to be asked from elders. As the finding show (Tables 8 and 9: Tehran sound variable by case data matrix) the elder citizens might point out some sounds from historical memory of the city and if no one collects these data they might vanish from *city personality*. Elder citizens have valuable information because of their rich *historical memories*, they are a great resource for collecting information. This study also can be done in any other village, city or country throughout the world.

Table 7 Isfahan sound variable by case data matrix: second interview

Interviewee	Age	Gender	Status	Sound
1	35	M	Citizen	Zayanderoud river, Leaf rustle in Chaharbaq
2	28	F	Tourist	Accent, carriage
3	23	F	Tourist	Traditional sounds, Ali Qapu musical instruments, Imam mosque's echoing stone
4	31	M	Tourist	Carriage
5	46	M	Tourist	Carriage, coppersmith engraving sound in bazaar
6	29	F	Tourist	Carriage, Accent
7	33	F	Citizen	Bicycle bell, Coppersmith engraving sound in bazaar
8	25	F	Citizen	Coppersmith engraving sound in bazaar
9	37	F	Tourist	Carriage
10	36	M	Citizen	Vank cathedral bell, Carriage, bicycle ring
11	37	M	Citizen	Bicycle bell ring, Coppersmith making sound
12	51	F	Tourist	Carriage
13	35	F	Citizen	Coppersmith making, Zayanderoud river
14	42	M	Citizen	Coppersmith making, bicycle

Table 8 Tehran sound variable by case data matrix: first interview

Interviewee	Age	Gender	Status	Sound
1	31	F	Citizen	Car horn, automobile high speed sound, car brake
2	34	F	Citizen	Car horn, car brake, birds: crow and myna
3	30	F	Citizen	Car horn, Helicopter sound
4	40	M	Citizen	Pigeon, car horn, car brake
5	35	M	Tourist	Azan
6	29	F	Citizen	Harsh sound, car horn
7	36	M	Citizen	Crowd, car horn
8	27	F	Citizen	Car horn, Shout
9	30	F	Citizen	Truck, crow, sweeper
10	21	M	Tourist	Car horn, crowd, Congestion
11	15	M	Tourist	Sound pollution: car horn, crowd
12	25	M	Tourist	People's voices, uproar
13	38	M	Tourist	Car sounds, Azan
14	27	F	Citizen	Noise, Car, Bustle
15	24	M	Citizen	Theft-device, Car horn
16	65 ^a	M	Citizen	Zurkhaneh

^aElder citizens as historical memory of the city

Table 9 Tehran sound variable by case data matrix: second interview

Interviewee	Age	Gender	Status	Sound
1	37	Tourist	F	Car, crowd, high speed cars
2	24	Citizen	F	Season: Rain/Spring, Car horn/Summer, Crow & silence/ Winter, Leaf rustle/Autumn
3	30	Citizen	F	Uproar, Metro crowd, car horn, Bazar crowd and coolies who say open the way
4	23	Citizen	F	Uproar, traffic noise
5	31	Citizen	M	Dynamism, no silence, car horn, crowd
6	26	Tourist	M	Traffic noise, car horn, noise, crowd
7	29	Citizen	F	Traffic, car horn, noise
8	24	Tourist	M	Traffic, uproar, car horn
9	45	Citizen	F	Namaki
10	29	Tourist	M	Accent, Traffic
11	23	Tourist	M	Accent, car horn, airplane, sweeper
12	36	Citizen	F	Kids sound, silence
13	52 ^a	Citizen	F	Shahre-Farang , water raceway, car horn, traffic
14	45	Citizen	F	Church bell, silence
15	38	Tourist	F	Crowd, Rain
16	36	Citizen	M	Bus, old carriage, town criers, hawkers, Namaki, Lahafdoози, crow, water raceway

^aElder citizens as historical memory of the city

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