Tourism in Contemporary Cities.

Proceedings of the International Tourism Studies

Association Conference

University of Greenwich, London, UK 17–19 August 2016
Conference Proceedings
Editors: Dr. Samantha Chaperon & Dr. Nicola Macleod

Acknowledgments

Scientific Committee

Dr Samantha Chaperon (Chair)	University of Greenwich, UK
Dr Nipon Chuamuangphan	Nakhon Pathom Rajabhat University, Thailand
Dr Rob Davidson	MICE Knowledge, UK
Dr Katia Iankova	University of Greenwich, UK
Dr Catherine Kelly	University of Greenwich, UK
Dr Jithendran Kokkranikal	University of Greenwich, UK
Dr Ewa Krolikowska	University of Greenwich, UK
Dr Sven Kuenzel	University of Greenwich, UK
Dr Mimi Li	Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong SAR
Dr Nicola Macleod	University of Greenwich, UK
Dr David Newsome	Murdoch University, Ausitralia
Dr Han Shen	Fudan University, Peoples Republic of China
Dr Nion Srisomyong	University of Thai Chamber of Commerce, Thailand
Dr Jose-Andres Coca-Stefaniak	University of Greenwich, UK
Dr Miroslav Vujicic	University of Novi Sad, Serbia
Dr Clare Yiu	Auckland University, New Zealand

Introduction

The 6th International Tourism Studies Association (ITSA) Biennial conference was held at the University of Greenwich, London, England from 17-19 August 2016. This was the first time that the conference had been held in Europe and it provided a unique opportunity to meet, hear from and network with tourism scholars and professionals from across Europe, Asia, Australasia, and North and South America. ITSA has a mission to encourage interaction and cooperation between developing and developed countries and the conference was successful in attracting 130 delegates from 29 countries.

The main theme of the conference was 'Tourism in Contemporary Cities' with four conference sub-themes of 'Tourism Cities and Urban Tourism', 'The Chinese Market for European Tourism', 'River, Cruise and Maritime Tourism', and 'Heritage Tourism in Cities', The sub- themes were chosen to reflect the unique location of the conference on the UNESCO Maritime Greenwich World Heritage Site, and London which is Europe's most visited tourist destination. The conference also presented 'Dark Tourism and Cities' and 'Tourism and Communist Heritage' as special sessions.

Five keynote speakers presented on topics associated with the conference themes, as follows:

Professor Cara Aitchison, University of St Mark and St John: 'From Events Management to Cultural Diplomacy: Creating a Virtuous Cycle of Economic Growth, Social Cohesion and International Cooperation through Hosting Major Events'

Dr. Perunjodi Naidoo University of Technology, Mauritius: 'Resort Tourism and the Chinese Market'

Allan Brodie, Senior Investigator Historic England: 'Steamers, Rivers and the Origins of Popular Tourism in England'

Professor Alexis Papathanassis, Bremerhaven University of Applied Sciences Germany: 'High Hopes & High Seas: The Role and Impact of Cruise Tourism in Destination Management'

Professor Jon Wilson, Halal Tourism Officer for Indonesian Ministry for Tourism: 'Insights in to Halal Tourism and Global Urban Millenials'.

It is part of ITSA's agenda to encourage and recognise emerging young scholars in tourism and, in support of this, the conference hosted an 'Emerging Young Scholars Event', chaired by Professor Phillip Pearce (President of ITSA, James Cook University, Australia). This event brought together a number of young scholars from emerging and developed countries to provide them with the opportunity to discuss the challenges and opportunities facing young

tourism academics and to learn from each others' experiences, as well as to network and forge relationships for the future.

The following conference papers represent a wide range of international contributions from both established academics and emerging scholars whom we were particularly delighted to welcome to Greenwich. The papers included in this collection have been peer-reviewed but as for many contributors this was their first conference, and not in their native language, some of the papers included are work in progress. A wide range of topics are presented reflecting all four conference sub-themes, and papers are a mix of case studies, literature reviews, opinion pieces and research findings.

This collection also includes all of the abstracts for presentations given at the ITSA conference. As can be seen, delegates presented on a wide range of topics from diverse international perspectives.

The copyright of all the papers included in the volume remain with the author.

Contents

Abstracts

Understanding Tourism Image of Cities through Social Semantic Network Analysis: A Case Study of Shanghai

Han Shen
Fudan University, China
Xing Liu
Fudan University, China
Sitong Yi
Fudan University, China
Mimi Li
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, China

Abstract

Purpose: This paper aims to analyze tourists' perception of the tourism image of city destinations in social media, and to explore the differences of customer created content information over consumers from different regions in a virtual social network.

Methodology: This paper collected customer created contents to analyze the tourism images using content analysis, atlas analysis and semantic network analysis approaches. A framework of urban image elements in social media network were established to understand the city images.

Findings: (1) Consumer's perception toward the same A framework of tourism image elements was established through big data analysis. (2) Cultural elements plays an important role in the image perception of Shanghai, which implies the importance of the product design, promotion and image construction to build a three-dimensional tourism cultural image. (3) Semantic network analysis and content analysis can be applied to understand the destination image of cities.

Research implications: This paper applied semantic network analysis to study tourism images of cities. This paper provided a framework for social media marketing, destination image building and tourism product designing.

Originality: Based on the big data mining of social media platform, this paper established an in-depth analysis of urban tourism image through social semantic network analysis. A framework of urban tourism image element system was established and the internal links among the elements were analysed to provide a better understanding of the urban images of cities.

Keywords: Tourism image of cities; semantic network analysis; social media; content

analysis; customer created content

1. Introduction

As an important part of the tourist destination marketing (Gallarsa et al., 2001), study of the image of a tourist destination is the direct guide on the decision-making of the tourist destination (Wu, 2001). Researchers have investigated the relationship between destination image and destination choice behavior (Bigne, Sanchez, and Sanchez, 2001; Chen and Tsai, 2007; Prebensen, 2007). Tourism image is one of the key factors which attract tourists (Ahmed, 1996). It can stimulate or impede tourists' consumption decision-making behavior (Hong, Kim, Jang, and Lee, 2006; Shen 2012). The competition among tourist destinations is more about the image perception of tourist destinations (Gallarza, Saura, and Garcia, 2002; Zhang, 2013) and the perception of a destination's image can be modified through promotional or non promotional effects (Gerbner et al., 2002). Therefore, research on the image of tourist destinations can instruct their marketing and help build or strengthen their proactive and positive images through a series of marketing activities (Gao, 2009).

In recent years, social media has become an important form of information communication and plays a decisive role in image building and brand promotion of destinations. The market information spread on social network is instilled into the consciousness of consumers and affects consumers' behaviors. Some researchers found that social media impacted tourists through two basic behavioral orientations: social interaction and information search (Kurashima, Tezuka, and Tanaka, 2005; Puhringer and Taylor, 2008). Socia media has turned into an important channel in the urban tourism image promotion (Baker and Green, 2005). Modes of distribution including user-generated content and interpersonal interaction counteract dull, generic advertisements and news media, thus effectively publicizing the urban tourism image.

The main purposes of the study in this paper are to, first, analyze tourists' perception of urban tourism image in social media, and second, explore the mechanism of influences of urban information over consumers in a virtual social network. The research method is to conduct text analysis and atlas analysis of urban image in social media networks and build an urban tourism image structure. The study in this paper can provide beneficial references for network marketing policy-making, destination image building and tourism product design in related departments and tourism enterprises.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Tourist Destination Image

Beerli and Martin (2004) defined destination image as tourists' confidence in, philosophy of and impression on a destination (Asuncion and Josefa, 2004) and measured it in three original dimensions (cognition, emotion and intention) (Girish, 2007). In terms of information cognition, the total of varied information on destinations and their links, including multiple

ingredients and individual perception, constitute the destination image (Peter et al., 2000). Concerning the connotation of tourist destination image, there's both "hard" image constrained by physical aspects such as destination resources and facilities and "soft" image affected by cultural aspects such as tourism service products, management system and level, attitude of relevant tourism stakeholders and their welcome (Liu et al., 2009). Additionally, image perception differences exist before and after visiting. Some scholars proposed the concepts of original image and reevaluated image. "Original image" was used to indicate the impression and cognition of potential tourists on a tourist destination before visiting it and "reevaluated image" was used to suggest the impression of tourists on a tourist destination after visiting it (Selby et al., 1996).

The cognition of a destination's image is affected by the quantity and types of information resources received by tourists (William, 1993). Xie, Ma & Yin (2014) studied influences of publicity video, online comment and travel notes over changes in a destination's image and found that distribution mode, contents, credibility of information sources and personal factors comprehensively affected the extent of change in a destination's image especially in terms of the emotional image (Xie et al., 2014). Network and social media, as the major distribution environment in which tourists searched and gained information on tourist destinations, played an important role in tourists' cognition of a tourist destination's image (Su, 2010).

2.2 Measurement and Evaluation of a Tourist Destination's Image

The measurement methods related to a tourist destination's image are mainly the structural and non-structural methods. In structural method, the researcher selects a series of evaluation attributes and applies standard tools to work out a qualitative evaluation and obtain quantified data on a destination's image (Baker and Green, 2005). In the non-structural method, Free Elicitation/Open Ended Questions are adopted to record interviewees' description of a destination's image (Huang and Li, 2002). It is proved that the combination of structural method and non-structural method is more advantageous than only one of them. Non-structural method can pinpoint the entirety and uniqueness of a tourist destination's image while structural method can not only clarify the perceived image constitution but also provides quantitative data on image evaluation (containing cognition, emotion and overall evaluation). The two methods together can comprehensively evaluate a tourist destination's image from the perspectives of "quality" and "quantity" (Yanget al., 2007). The structural method includes the three-dimensional measurement model covering actual image, launch image and perceived image(Ding et al., 2007),and IPA (Importance, Performance and Analysis) method (Song et al. 2006) while non-structural methods mainly include literature analysis and tourists' perception mapping method.

With the explosive growth of internet information and rapid development of new media such as blogs and micro-blogs, network text analysis has gradually become an important mode of measuring a destination's image. Text analysis with application of online travel notes and the analysis of a destination's image with quantitative methods are the latest method of studying

a destination's image (Zhao and Li, 2013; Yang et al., 2013; Peng, 2011; Duan et al., 2013)

2.3 Social Network Study

Social network study, as an important part of the "new socioeconomics", was developed by Moreno in 1930s, an American social psychologist and based on social measurement method. Its basic stance is to regard the interactive bond between people and organizations as a social structure which exists objectively and thus analyse influences of such bonds over social behaviours. The society, industries, organisations and individuals are all embedded in an overlapping or parallel network system and the network relations play a structural role in members' behaviours (Granovetter,1977; Borgatti et al., 1997). The internet application of social media has triggered reform in ways of information communication and social interaction, which not only impacts the communication channels but also the live social network (Jie et al., 2011).

Social network analysis provides a more systematic research perspective for information distribution management. In recent years, the study on influences of the group network where economic individuals live and social interactive relations between individuals over individual behaviours has been developed into an important direction in the marketing field. Social semantic network analysis is a basic approach in social network analysis and a kind of digraph. The nodes represent key words while lines represent semantics or interactive relations of key words. The frequency and internal relations of key words are described in atlas, the analytic results showed in graphs by detecting the occurrence frequency, indicating relationships and connecting relations between key words (Jie et al., 2011). Cai & Lin (2013) took the social network comprising users on Friends Network for example and proved that the introduction of semantic net technology into online social networks could help with the accurate representation and in-depth analysis and understanding of online communities (Cai and Lin, 2013).

3. Methods

3.1 Research Framework

According to the in-depth interview and the previous studies of tourist destination image (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Feng, 2011; Zheng, 2013), the framework in Fig. 1 was designed in this paper. Overall tourism image elements include tourism function image, tourism service image, tourism convenience image, city infrastructure image, city brand personality and city cultural image.
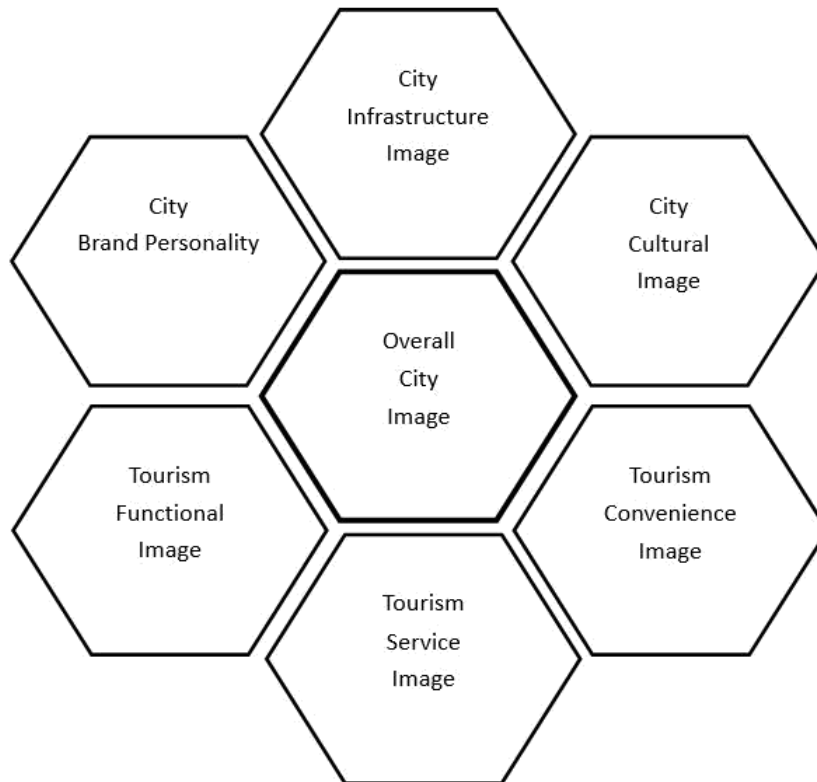
Figure.1 The framework of tourism image of cities

3.2 Content Analysis

In this paper, the tourism image of Shanghai is deemed as the research object; the text analysis software ROST Content Mining System (ROST CM) is adopted for Chinese and English word frequency analysis, social network and semantic network analyses. The key words are "Shanghai" and "tourism". Trip Advisor is the website for sample collection so as to collect users' perception data on the image of Shanghai. Trip Advisor is the most popular tourism community and tourism comment website in the world and the largest tourism community at present. It takes the lead in terms of commentary service.

Soukey Miner is a free and open source data acquisition software that can be used to collect information on a variety types of database. We used this software to capture comments on the main scenic spots in Shanghai on the destination homepage of Trip Advisor. The authors collected online reviews and comments posted in the period of 1st January- 31st December 2013. The captured data is divided into nine parts according to users' nationality, division of Shanghai's customer markets and data classification: North America (U.S. and Canada), Europe (Britain, France and Germany), Australia and New Zealand, Singapore, Southeast Asia (Indonesia, Philippines, Malaysia and Thailand), South Asia (India and Pakistan), Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan, South Korea and China mainland.

3.3 Data Collection and Pretreatment

After the sample is obtained, all contents are copied to a text document. First, similar words in the text are replaced with the same word for the convenience of statistics. In order to ensure the accuracy of word segmentation and word frequency analysis in the software, a self-defined dictionary including special nouns related to Shanghai's main districts, counties and scenic spots is created. In addition, new meaningless vocabulary, other tourism destinations and places of departure are included in the filtered word table to eradicate meaningless vocabulary in this study.

4. Research Results

4.1 High Frequency Feature Words in the Sample

After pretreatment of data, nine TXT documents with Chinese word segmentation are merged and common high frequency feature words ranking in the top 40 are extracted to form the summary of elements for the tourism image of Shanghai. According to the frequency of high frequency words and occurrence correlation, the following social semantic network graphs is worked out (Fig. 2).

Figure 2. The social semantic web of tourism image of Shanghai from TripAdvisor

It can be noted from the features of high frequency words and social semantic network atlas that words like "building", "city", "Bund", "store", "restaurant", "shopping" and "metro" are among the top 10 and are located in the secondary key words of "Shanghai". Therefore, it demonstrates that users of TripAdvisor have diversified perceptions of Shanghai's tourism image. Based on the high frequency words, the elements for the tourism image of Shanghai are concluded as follows:

Table 1. Summarized high-frequency words after extraction

Rank	High frequency words	Rank	High frequency words	Rank	High frequency words	Rank	High frequency words
1	Building	11	Beautiful	21	Bar	31	Souvenir
2	Like	12	History	22	Hotel	32	Yuyuan Garden
3	Museum	13	Park	23	Pudong District	33	Performance
4	City	14	Crowded	24	Acrobatics	34	Experience
5	Bund	15	Shopping	25	Street	35	Animal
6	Shop	16	Art	26	Oriental Pearl Tower	36	Viewing Platform
7	Interesting	17	Metro	27	Gallery	37	Free
8	Walk	18	Beauty	28	Light	38	Landscape
9	Garden	19	Scenery	29	Café	39	Train station
10	restaurant	20	modern	30	Temple	40	Nanjing Road

For most tourists, Shanghai is a beautiful metropolis and the high frequency word of "like" shows that the majority of tourists are active in terms of emotional tendency and positive about the tourism image of Shanghai.

In terms of tourism function, such key elements as food, hotel, travel, entertainment and shopping are all reflected; landmark scenic spots of "building", "museum", "Bund" and "Oriental Pearl Tower" are favored by tourists. With regards to tourism convenience, tourists' perception of Shanghai's image is mainly reflected in such high frequency words as "metro", "wondering" and "packed". As to the basic urban environment, tourists' impression on Shanghai is manifested in such words as "garden", "park", "street" and "lighting". In terms of

urban brand personality, most tourists choose "interesting," "discovery" and "experience" as their evaluation of Shanghai. Lighting and coffee house are intriguing and important carriers of urban personality. In the aspect of perception of urban cultural image, Shanghai is an international metropolis which is permeated with artistic atmosphere and replete with modern fashion and historical and cultural connotations.

4.2 Analysis of Image Perceptions of Tourists from Different Places

After conducting word segmentation and high frequency word statistics on nine main source places, the researcher concludes the following semantic network atlas for these nine destinations.
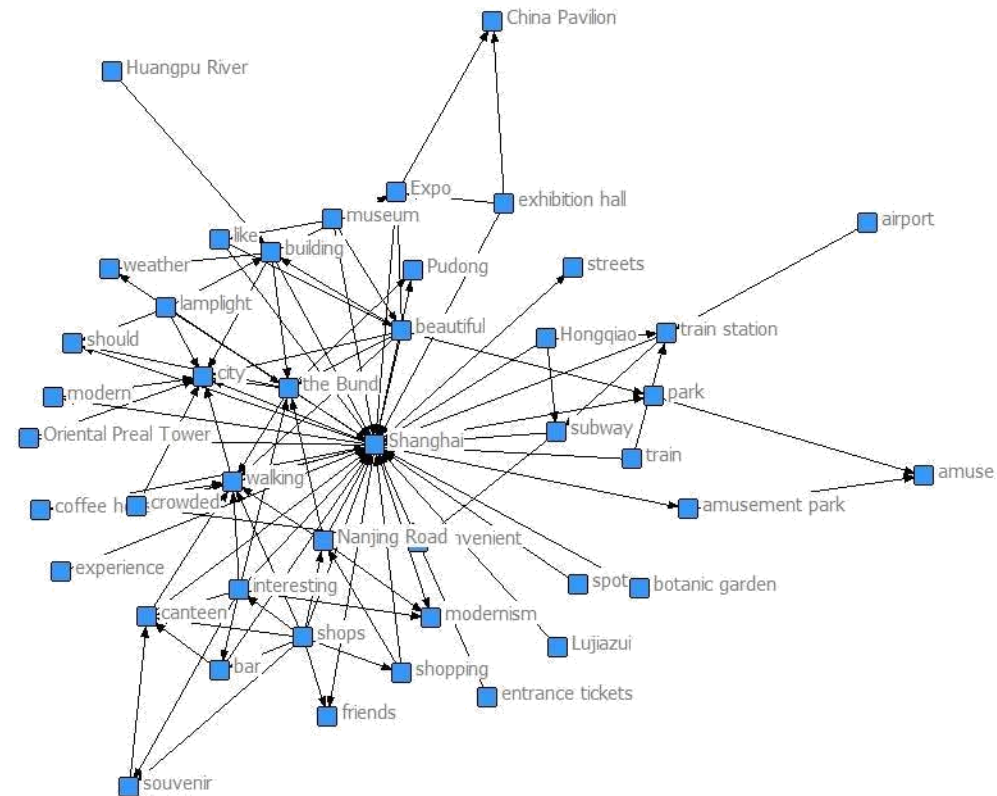
Figure 3. The social semantic network of Chinese Mainland tourists' perception of Shanghai tourist destination image
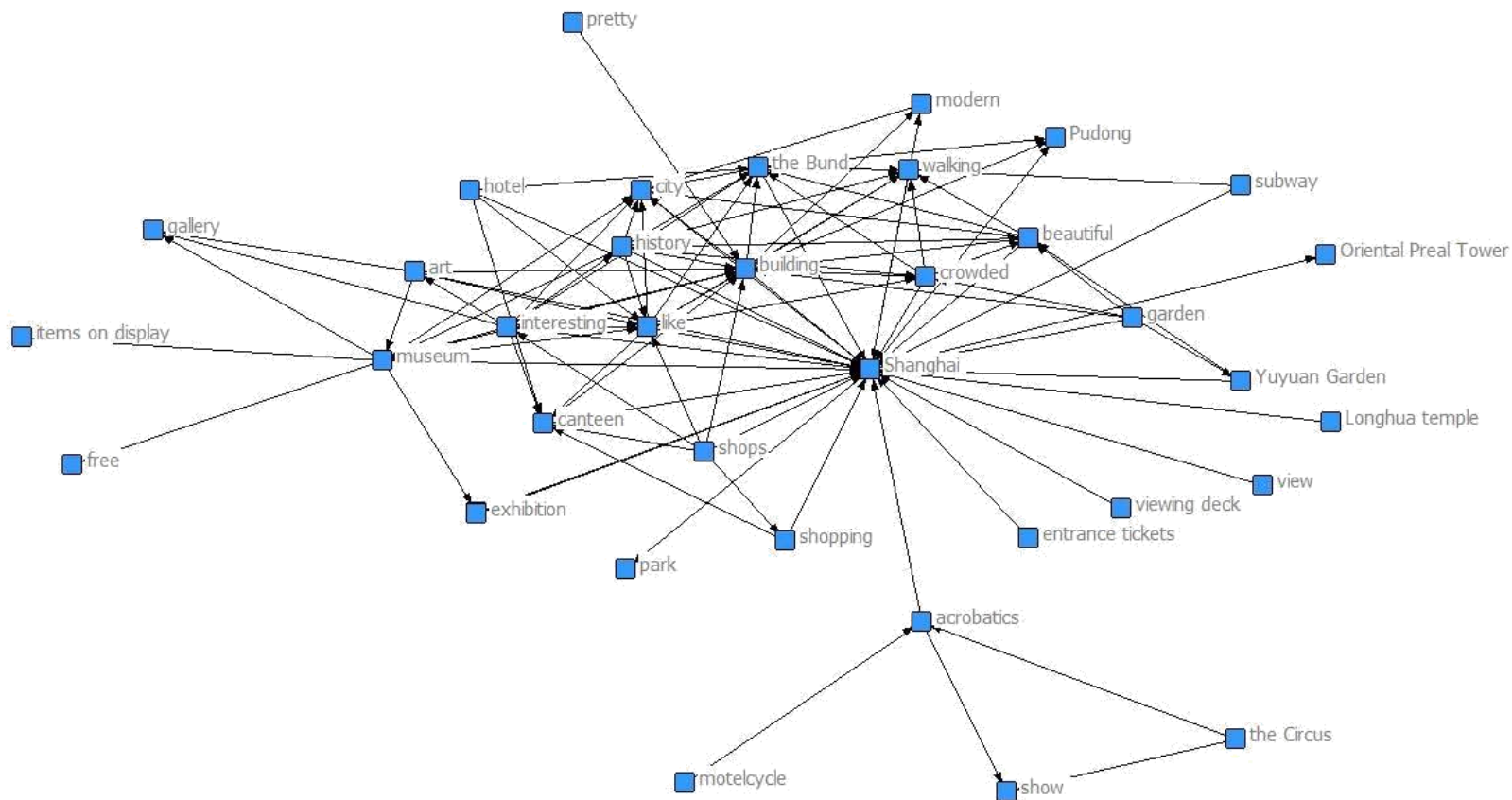
Figure 4. The social semantic network of North American tourists' perception of Shanghai tourist destination image

Figure 5. The social semantic network of European tourists' perception of Shanghai tourist destination image
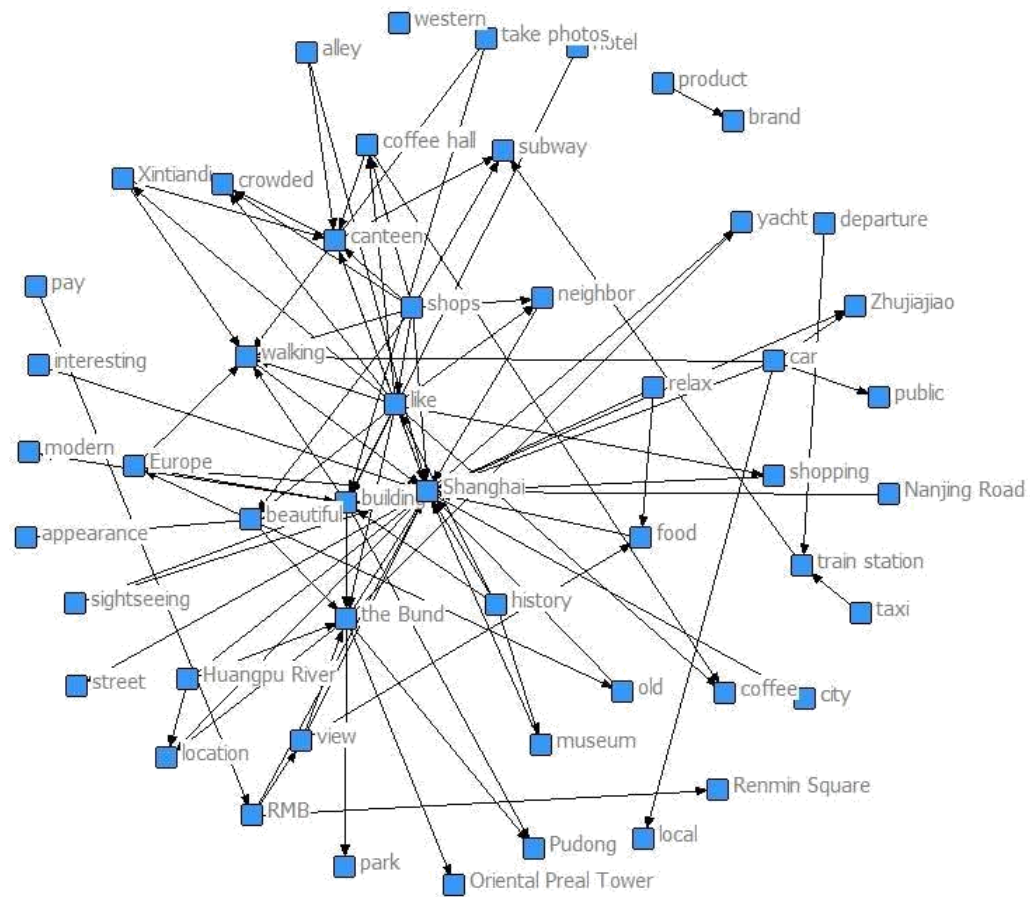
Figure 6. The social semantic network of Southeast Asian tourists' perception of Shanghai tourist destination image

Figure 7. The social semantic network of Australia & New Zealand tourists' perception of Shanghai tourist destination image
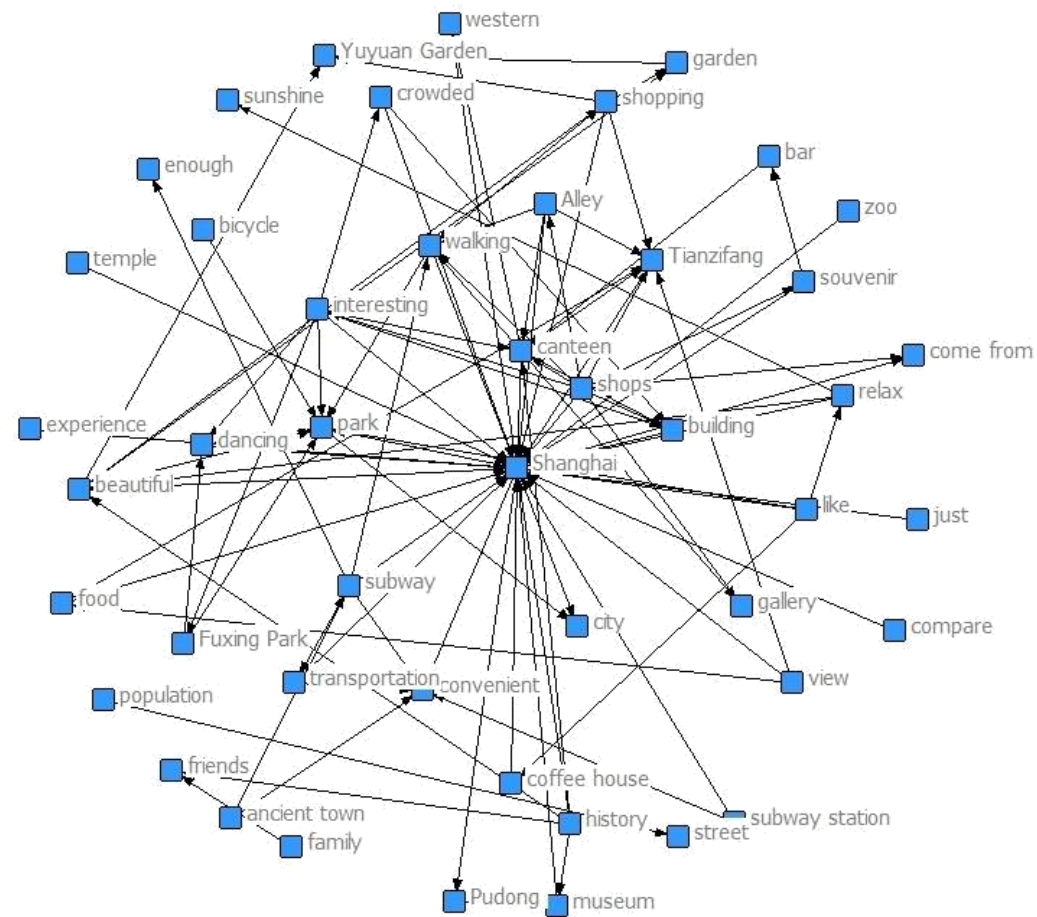
Figure 8. The social semantic Japanese and Korean tourists' perception of Shanghai tourist destination image
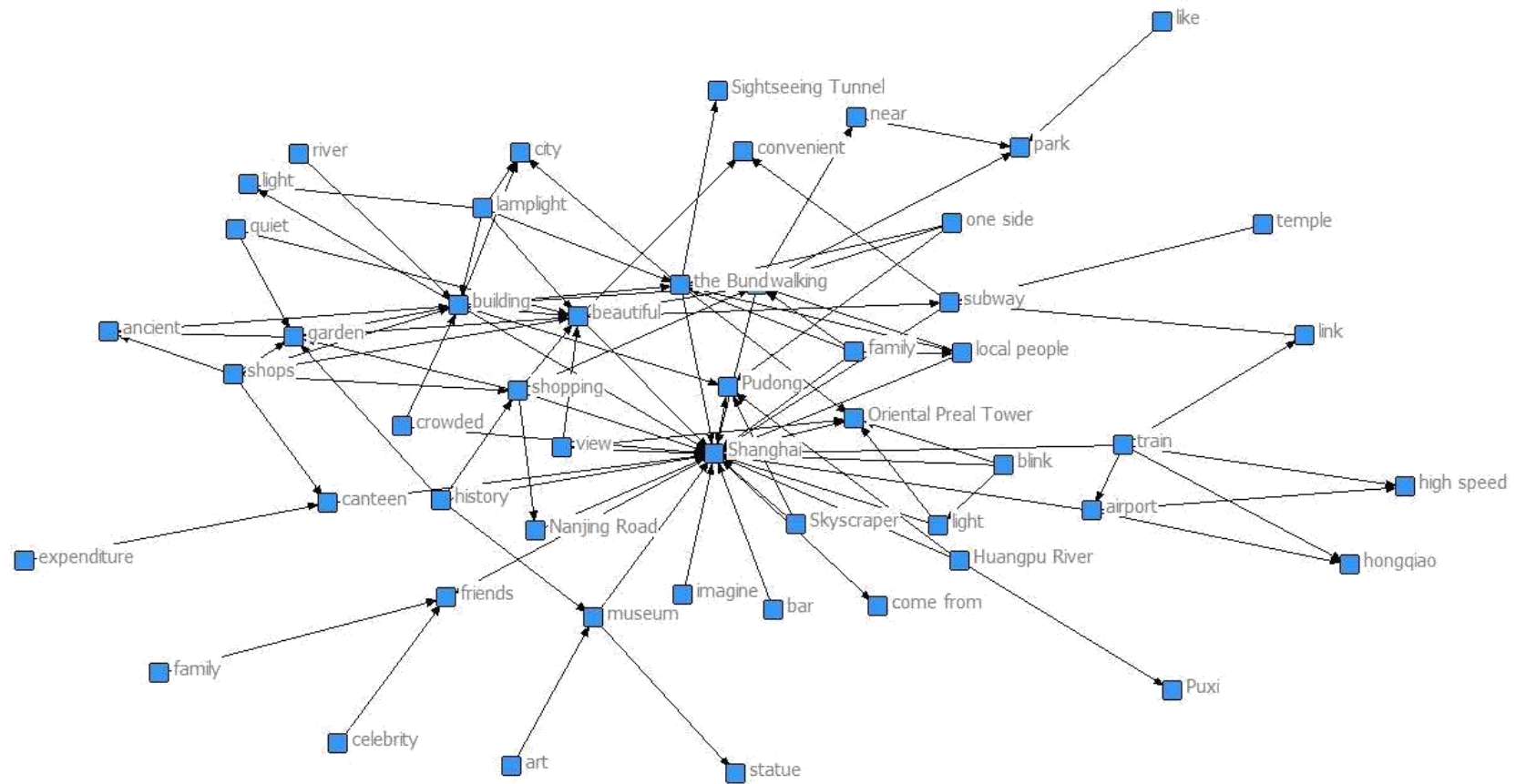
Figure 9. The social semantic network of India and Pakistan tourists' perception of Shanghai tourist destination image

Figure 10. The social semantic network of Singaporean tourists' perception of Shanghai tourist destination image
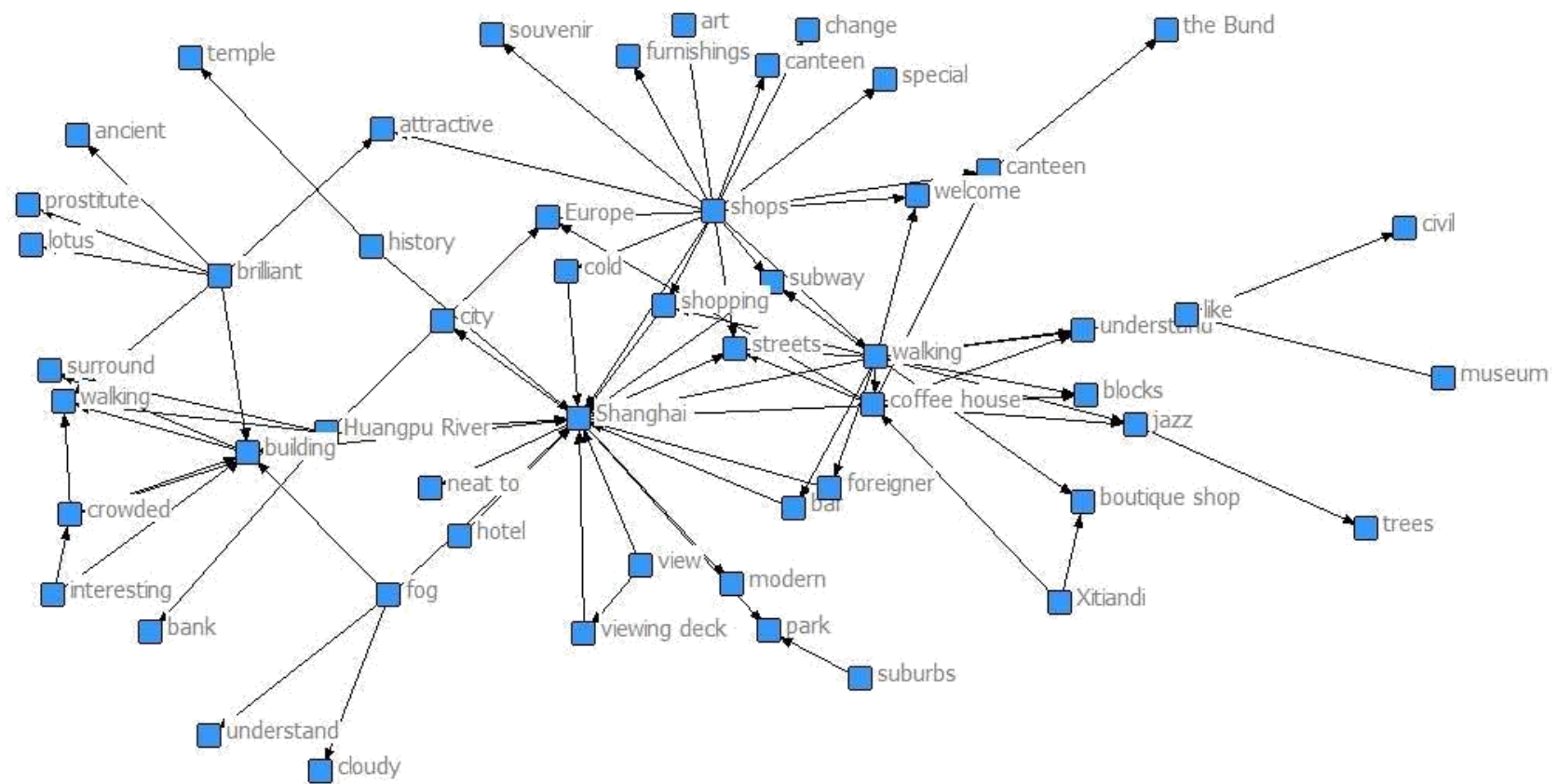
Figure 11. The social semantic network of Hong Kong and Taiwan tourists' perception of Shanghai tourist destination image

As shown in Fig. 3 to Fig. 11, the thickness of lines reflects the closeness between two words. The thicker the line, the closer their relation. The quantity of a word's lines manifests the frequency of the word. Tourists from different places have different tourism activities, choose different scenic spots and follow different schedules. The conclusion of features and differences based on the network atlas of source places is indicated in the following table:

Area	Distinction of image perception
China mainland	Centre on "Shanghai", tightly connected with "Bund", "city", "building" and "walk", with small accumulation points like "shop" and "restaurant".
North America	Centre on "Shanghai", "building" and "city", tightly connected with keywords such as "Bund", "museum", "history", "like", "interesting" and "beauty".
Europe	Centre on "Shanghai", "building" and "Bund", with keywords like "beauty", "city" and "scenery" around. An accumulation point centred on "street", "shop" and "café" is located on the lower left corner.
Southeast Asia	Centre on "Shanghai", tightly connected with "building" and "like". "Building" is surrounded by "Bund", "walk" and "cruise ship". "Like" is surrounded by "restaurant", "shop" and "walk". Others are equally distributed.
Australia and New Zealand	Centre on "Shanghai" and "Building". "Shop", "restaurant" "Bund" are surrounded tightly with "Shanghai", and "Art", "Hotel", "Bund" and "walk" are around "building".
Japan and South Korea	Centre on "Shanghai", with "park", "restaurant", and "shop" around. And others are equally distributed.
South Asia (India and Pakistan)	Centre on "Shanghai", with "building", "bund", "walk" and "beauty" around. Another centre named "Garden" is on the right, with "ancient", "beauty" and "peace" around.
Singapore	Centre on "Shanghai" and "Building". Shanghai is surrounded tightly with "light", "Bund" and "beauty". And "Building" is connected with "city", "beauty", "restaurant", and "temple".
Hong Kong and Taiwan	Centre on "Shanghai", surrounded with other secondary center like "building", "shop" "street", "café" and "Huangpu River".

Table 2. Distinction of image perception of Shanghai from different tourist generating regions

It can be seen from the table above that differences exist between the image constitutions of different source places. Tourists from China mainland, Southeast Asia, Japan and South Korea, India and Pakistan and Hong Kong and Taiwan center on "Shanghai". Shanghai owns a distinct and independent tourism image on these source markets. However, significant differences are shown on the secondary center, which means that when image promotion is conducted on different target markets, the focus points of target markets should be considered to carry out pertinent promotions and corresponding product designs.

5. Conclusion

This paper summarises the overall tourism image of Shanghai and builds detailed images of Shanghai on different markets through social semantic network analysis of elements for the images of Shanghai on different target markets in social media. The following conclusions are reached after detailed analysis of high frequency words and social semantic network:

First, in terms of tourists' perception of Shanghai in this study, there are such high frequency words as "city", "beautiful", "gorgeous" and "modern" as well as other extremely rich perceptions like "building", "museum", "garden", "metro", "Bund" and "store" which characterize its tourism functions and basic environment. It means that Shanghai, as an urban tourism destination, has been quite improved in its overall function construction and basic environment. In response, tourists' cognition of Shanghai as a destination is considerably positive.

Second, what's worth noting is that the expressions of Shanghai's urban cultural image are extremely abundant and moreover, form a strong secondary relation in the social semantic network. With significant perceptions from such target markets as Europe and America, Southeast Asia, Japan and South Korea, Hong Kong and Australia, it means that Shanghai has achieved spectacular effects in cultural product design, promotion and cultural image construction and built a three-dimensional and diversified tourism cultural image.

Third, this study finds that tourists' high frequency words about Shanghai's tourism service image and brand personality image are few and fall short of details. It indicates that Shanghai has weak publicity about its tourism service and urban brand personality so tourists accordingly have a weak perception of it.

At a deep level, both demonstrate tourists' vivid expression of Shanghai and such tendency is supposed to be formed out of graphic cognition and emotional filtering in the process of visiting or at the post- visit stage. The image building of a tourist destination is crucial, hence, related destination management organisations need to further explore it and improve and strengthen the tourism service image and brand personality of Shanghai in the process of tourism marketing and publicity.

To sum up, this study aimed to work out an element system of urban tourism image in social media

network. Based on the theoretical framework of urban tourism element system, text analysis and semantic structure analysis of information spreading network in social media were conducted. The study provided a systematic research method for studies on the structure of urban tourism image. In particular, based on the big data mining means of new media platforms and social semantic network analysis methods, it can provide an in-depth analysis of the urban tourism image element system and internal links. The research method affords a new perspective for studies of tourist destination image in the new media era.

However, the research method has its drawbacks. Capturing data through data mining and regarding the sample as an entirety for word frequency analysis and semantic network analysis are still forms of descriptive analysis; studies on internal factors influencing tourists' perception of the tourist destination image such as cultural, psychological and social aspects would entail new research approaches.

References

Ahmed, Z. U. (1996). "The need for the identification of the constituents of a destination's tourist image: A promotion segmentation perspective". *Journal of Professional Services Marketing*,Vol. 14, No. 1, pp37-60.

Baker, S., & Green, H. (2005). "Blogs will change your business". *Business Week,* Vol. 39, No. 31, pp56-67.

Beerli, A. & Martin, J.D. (2004), "Factors influencing destination images", *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.31, No.1, pp657-681.

Bigne, J. E., Sanchez, M. I., & Sanchez, J. (2001). "Tourism image, evaluation variables and after purchase behavior: inter-relationship", *Tourism Management*, Vol. 22, No. 6, pp607-616.

Cai, G.Y. & Lin, H. (2013), "Research on social semantic network analysis", *Computer Engineering & Science*, Vol.35, No.1, pp88-93.

Chen, C., & Tsai, D. (2007). "How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioral intentions?", *Tourism Management*, Vol. 28, No. 4, pp1115-1122.

Ding, C.J., Yang, Y.D. & Bai, L.M. (2007), "A Study of The Three-Dimensional Measurement Model Construction of Tourism Destination Image and Related Realization Technology", *Academic Forum*, Vol.30, No.9, pp108-112.

Duan, S.K., Zhang, S.L. & Jiang, L. (2013), "The New and Fashionable Tourist Group Who Obtain the Confidence and Warmth: An Elementary Research on Couchsurfer", *Tourism Tribune*,Vol.28, No.7, pp101-108.

Mark,S.G. (1977), "The Strength of Weak Ties", *Social Networks*, pp347-367.

Feng, J.Y. (2011), "Perceptions of the Image of Beijing's Tourist Destinations——An Analysis of the Multi-dimensional Discourses on the Blogs from Chinese and Western Tourists", *Tourism Tribune*, Vol.26, No.9, pp19-28.

Gallarza, M. G., Saura, I. G., & Garcia, H. C. (2002). "Destination image: Towards a conceptual framework". *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 29, No. 1, pp56-78.

Gartner, L. (1993), "Image formation process", *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, Vol.11, No.2, pp91-215.

Gao, J. (2009), "Tourism Destination Image, Positioning and Branding: Conceptual Analysis and Relationship Model", *Tourism Tribune*, Vol.24, No.2, pp25-29.

Gerbner, G., Gross, L., Morgan, M., Signorielli, N., & Shanahan, J. (2002). "Growing up with television: Cultivation processes". *In J. Bryant & D. Zillmann (Eds.), Media effects: Advances in theory and research* (pp43-67). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Hong, S., Kim, J., Jang, H., & Lee, S. (2006). "The role of categorization, affective image and constraints on destination choice: An application of the NMNL model". *Tourism Management*, Vol. 27, No. 5, pp750-761.

Huang, Z.F. & Li,X. (2002), "On the Image Perception and Promotion Pattern of Tourist Destination", *Tourism Tribune*, Vol.17, No.3, pp65-70.

Jie, L.Q., Yan, Q.H. & Chen, Y. (2011), "Studies of the predicament of communication through circusee model: analysis of the social semantic network of Weibo", *Science & Technology for China's Mass Media*, Vol.8, pp92-95.

Joseph, S.C. & Bluzaffer, U. (2002), "Market Positioning Analysis：A Hybrid Approaeh", *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.29, No.4, pp987-1003.

Kurashima, T., Tesuka, T., & Tanaka, K. (2005). "Blog Maps of Experience: Extracting and Geographically Mapping Visitor Experience from Urban Blogs". Berlin: Springer.

Liu, L, Lu, L. & Chen, H. (2009), "Tourism Crisis Management Based on the Theory of Destination mage—A Case Study of Sichuan Earthquake", *Tourism Tribune*, Vol.24, No.10, pp26-31.

Murphy, P., Pritchard, M.P. & Smith, B. (2000), "The destination product and its impact on traveler perceptions", *Tourism Management*, Vol.21, No.1, pp43-52.

Marlin,S., Nigel, J. & Morgan, J. (1996), "Recomtruing place image：a case study of its role in destination market research", *Tourism Management*, Vol.17, No.4, pp287-294.

Martins,G.G., Irene, G.S. & Hayde, C.G. (2001), "Destination image towards a conceptual framework", *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.29, No.1, pp56-78.

Prayag, G. (2007), "Exploring the relationship between destination image and brand personality of a tourist destination: an application of projective techniques", *Journal of Travel and Tourism Research*, Fall, pp111-130.

Prebensen, N. K. (2007). "Exploring tourists' images of a distant destination". *Tourism Management*, Vol. 28, No. 3, pp747-756.

Puhringer, S., & Taylor, A. (2008). "A practitioner's report on blogs as a potential source of destination marketing intelligence". *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, Vol. 14, No. 2, pp177-187.

Su, S.C. (2010), "A Research on Network Agenda and Image Perception of Tourist Destination: A case of Lijiang—An Analysis Based on Online Survey Data", *Southeast Communication*,Vol.12,

No.8, pp95-98.

Stephen, P.B. & Martin, G. (1997), "Network analysis of 2-mode data", *Everett Social Networks*, Vol.19, No.8, pp243-269.

Shen, P.Y. (2012), "A Study on the Effects of Social Responsibility of Tourism Enterprises on Destination Image and Tourist Loyalty", *Tourism Tribune*, Vol.27, No.2, pp72-79.

Song, Z.B., An, Y.M. & Zheng, P. (2006), "An IPA Analysis of Tourism Destination Image——A Case Study of Xi'an Residents' Perception on the Tourism Destination Image of Hainan, China", *Tourism Tribune*, Vol.21, No.10, pp26-32.

Wu, B.H. (2001),*Principles of Regional Tourism Planning*. Travel & Tourism Press, Beijing.

Xie, Y.J., Ma,T. & Wei,Y.D.(2014), "An Empirical Research on Destination Image Change of Promotional Videos, Online-Reviews and Travel Notes—A Case study for the Change of Taiwan's Image", *Journal Beijing International Studies University*, Vol.36, No.1, pp77-84.

Yang, K., Ji, M. & Chen, Y.L. (2013), "Study on Tourist Destination Image of Tibet Based on Online Travel Notes", *Tourism Forum*, Vol.6, No.3, pp60-65.

Yang, Y.D., Bai,L.M. & Su, Z. (2007), "A Comparative Study on the Structured and Unstructured Measurements of Tourist Destination Image: A Case of Yangshuo, Guilin", *Tourism Tribune*, Vol.22, No.4, pp53-57.

Zheng, P. (2013), "Study on City Spirit and Tourism Destination Image —Taking Zhengzhou City as Example", *Resource Development&Market*, Vol.29, No.3, pp310-313.

Zhao, R.Y. & Li, H.B. (2013), "A Research on Tourism Destination Image Perception of Lijiang: Based on the Technique of Network Text Analysis", *Journal of Guangxi Economic Management Cadre College*, Vol.26, No.1, pp83-90.

Stakeholders Opinion regarding Sustainable Heritage Tourism: The Case of Safranbolu

Ayşegül Acar

Karabuk University, Turkey

Umut Kadir Oğuz

Aberystwyth University, United Kingdom

Abstract

This study discusses the findings of interviews with the stakeholders regarding sustainable tourism practices in a World Heritage town, namely Safranbolu, Turkey. The purpose of the study was to better understand the perceptions and opinions of stakeholders such as hotel owners, academics, shopkeepers, locals and architects. The results of the study show that there are many concerns regarding sustainability of the destination. The respondents believe that the tourism industry is not economically viable, the culture is under the threat of mass tourists' visitation and tourism has a gradual impact on environmental concerns. To sum up, the study revealed that all stakeholders should act together for the sustainability of the destination.

Keywords: Heritage Tourism, Sustainability, Safranbolu, Stakeholders

Introduction

Heritage tourism is considered to be one of the fastest growing sectors of the global tourism industry (Timothy and Nyaupane, 2009). Initially, only historic monuments and sites were included and listed as World Heritage Sites, but today historic town centres, industrial landscapes and intangible aspects of heritage are also designated (Landorf, 2009). The sustainability of the heritage sites has been the main concern of United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. However, the implementation of sustainability into heritage tourism management presents many difficulties since many conflicts emerge with other elements of heritage tourism such as authenticity, accessibility and viability of the resources where tourism is the main industry that generates revenue (Darlow *et al.* 2012). This study aims to understand the perceptions of different stakeholder groups regarding sustainable tourism in a World Heritage town, namely Safranbolu. The study starts with the background of the term sustainable heritage tourism and stakeholders. Then, information regarding methodological issues will be presented. After that, the results of the interviews will be presented in four sections. These are economic sustainability, socio-cultural sustainability, environmental sustainability and concerns of tourism management and planning at the destination. The study ends with the conclusion and limitations of research.

Sustainable Heritage Tourism

It is argued that heritage and sustainability possess the common theme of inheritance, however, the sustainability imperative was relatively slow to be applied within the context of cultural heritage management (Fyall and Garrod, 1998). Applying sustainability practices in the heritage sector is appropriate as heritage management aims to achieve conservation and protection of the historic environment (Fusco Gerard and Nijkamp, 2009). Sustainable heritage tourism is not only protecting the physical maintenance of the sites, but also ensuring their social and cultural aspects (Tunbridge and Ashworth 1996). However, it should be noted that sustainable management of heritage sites is a complex issue that requires the integration of different managerial considerations (Leask and Fyall, 2012).

The triple bottom line theory (TBL) has been popular in sustainability studies since its first introduction in the commercial context (Elkington, 2004). This theory suggests that economic, environmental and socio-cultural aspects of sustainability objectives should be integrated in the core business strategy (Elkington, 2004). Darlow et al. (2012) evaluated the sustainable heritage tourism practices in the museums, historic houses and historic churches in the regions of Devon and Cornwall, UK, by using the triple bottom line approach (Table 1). The result shows that heritage managers suffer from a lack of financial resources to apply sustainability practices in their properties. Furthermore, among the 416 participants, heritage properties give more emphasis on cultural sustainability rather than environmental sustainability. In a recent study, Ghanem and Saad (2015) investigated sustainable heritage tourism in Egypt. Based on the interviews which are conducted with the stakeholders at the destination such as locals, government officials and travel agent representatives, the study revealed two main challenges. The first challenge is related to the community such as urbanisation of the town and the second challenge is related to management such as lack of managerial skills, conflict in authority and lack of funding.

Stakeholder Participation

The aim of this study is not to apply stakeholder theory; instead it assesses stakeholders' opinions regarding sustainability. A stakeholder in heritage tourism is anyone who is affected by the development of heritage tourism, positively or negatively (Aas, Ladkin and Fletcher, 2005). Chhabra (2010) classified the stakeholders in heritage tourism as heritage institutions (heritage sites, attractions, events, and shops), the public sector (chamber of commerce, city or government who decides on tax deductions), the ancillary sector (such as gasoline stations, restaurants, lodging, gift shops), tourism organisations (such as the convention and visitor bureaus, state tourism offices, national and regional tourism organisations), local community, and the academic community (educational institutions).

Several authors and non-profit organisations claimed the importance of stakeholder participation in sustainable tourism (Chhabra, 2010; Ghanem and Saad, 2015; Pedersen, 2002). Partnerships from a

sustainable tourism perspective imply the need to partner with various stakeholders to aim for the sustained use of resources (Chhabra, 2010). Pederson (2002) stated in the manual that was prepared for the management of world cultural heritage by United Nations Educational, Scientific, Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), that any sustainable tourism activity in the world heritage sites (WHS) must collaborate with stakeholders, or other interested groups including government agencies, conservation and other non-governmental agencies, developers and local communities. Similar views were echoed by other authors such as Hampton (2005) and Aas *et al.* (2005) who believe that sustainable heritage tourism can be achieved in a way that preserves a destination's heritage if all stakeholders recognise their responsibility for sustainable tourism. Thus, this study aims to understand the perceptions of different stakeholder groups regarding sustainable tourism in a world heritage town Safranbolu.

Initially, a limited number of stakeholders, such as governments, conservation experts and local authorities, were involved in the process but more recently local amenity and conservation groups, local businesses and residents, and tour operators have been involved in the nomination and management of WHS (Millar, 2006, p. 53). However, it is noted that if the number of stakeholder increases in the planning and management of WHS, the conflict may arise (Jones and Shaw, 2012). Therefore, Du Cros and McKercher (2015) state that stakeholder participation can be achieved if different stakeholders can comprehensively understand each other's needs and wants from the heritage assets or sites.

The Case Study: Safranbolu

Safranbolu is a town which is located in the Black Sea region of Turkey (Fig. 1). The city Safranbolu is a typical Ottoman city with peculiar wooden houses and streets, and it has been an important station for the caravan trade for many centuries. The city has been listed as a World Heritage Town since 1994 based on several criteria (UNESCO, 2016). The first criterion is its contribution to developments in architecture, town-planning, art and design. Second, Safranbolu houses represent an outstanding example of a building type and finally, it is an outstanding example of human settlement. Today, the city is a popular tourist destination for both domestic and international visitors because of its ability to retain the town's authenticity and integrity. Although the Ministry of Tourism and Culture has not published the up-to-date numbers of visitors to Safranbolu, Figure 2 shows the tourists numbers between 2009 and 2013.

Figure 1: Safranbolu

Figure 2: Tourist arrival numbers between 2009-2013

Source: Ministry of Tourism and Culture (2016)

Methodology

This study uses a secondary qualitative data in order to understand stakeholders' opinions regarding sustainable tourism in a World Heritage town. Data was collected primarily for another project in May 2014 by one of the authors. Stakeholders categorize three major stakeholder groups namely the tourism sector (travel agencies, hotels, food and beverage establishments, universities, retail shops), the local authorities and the host environment (non-governmental organization and associations, local community) (Timur and Gets, 2008). Thus, the sample includes 16 semi-structured interviews with the participants who are two academics, an expert architect, three local people, two restaurant owners, three accommodation owners, two shopkeepers, three non-governmental organisation managers and a member of Council of Cultural Property Protection. Two tourism professors were first interviewed in order to shape the study because they are experts in the topic and very knowledgeable about Safranbolu. Their advice and evaluations were considered, and then other stakeholders which are knowledgeable about sustainability, tourism development and Safranbolu to be interviewed were

selected. Besides, samples were chosen based on the criteria that they each represent a different stakeholder. The diversity of participants helps better understand different perspectives regarding sustainability.

Data analysis process includes two phases. First, all the interviews were transcribed. Then, the transcripts that were obtained from the interviews were analysed using ethnographic summary techniques, which involve the use of quotations to support the key issues derived from the examination of the data. The main findings are presented in four main categories namely, economic sustainability, socio-cultural sustainability, environmental sustainability and tourism planning, managing and diversification of tourism. The research conceptual is presented as below in the figure 3. It is based on the literature (Assante et al., 2012; Craik, 1995; Debes¸, 2011; Gezici, 2006; Lansing and De Vries, 2007; Rigall-I-Torrent, 2008; Sofield, 2003; Timur, 2010; Timur and Getz, 2008) that highlights the main issues under each dimension of the sustainability concept. A method has been drawn up that includes the purpose of studying based on the literature.

Figure 3: Conceptual model
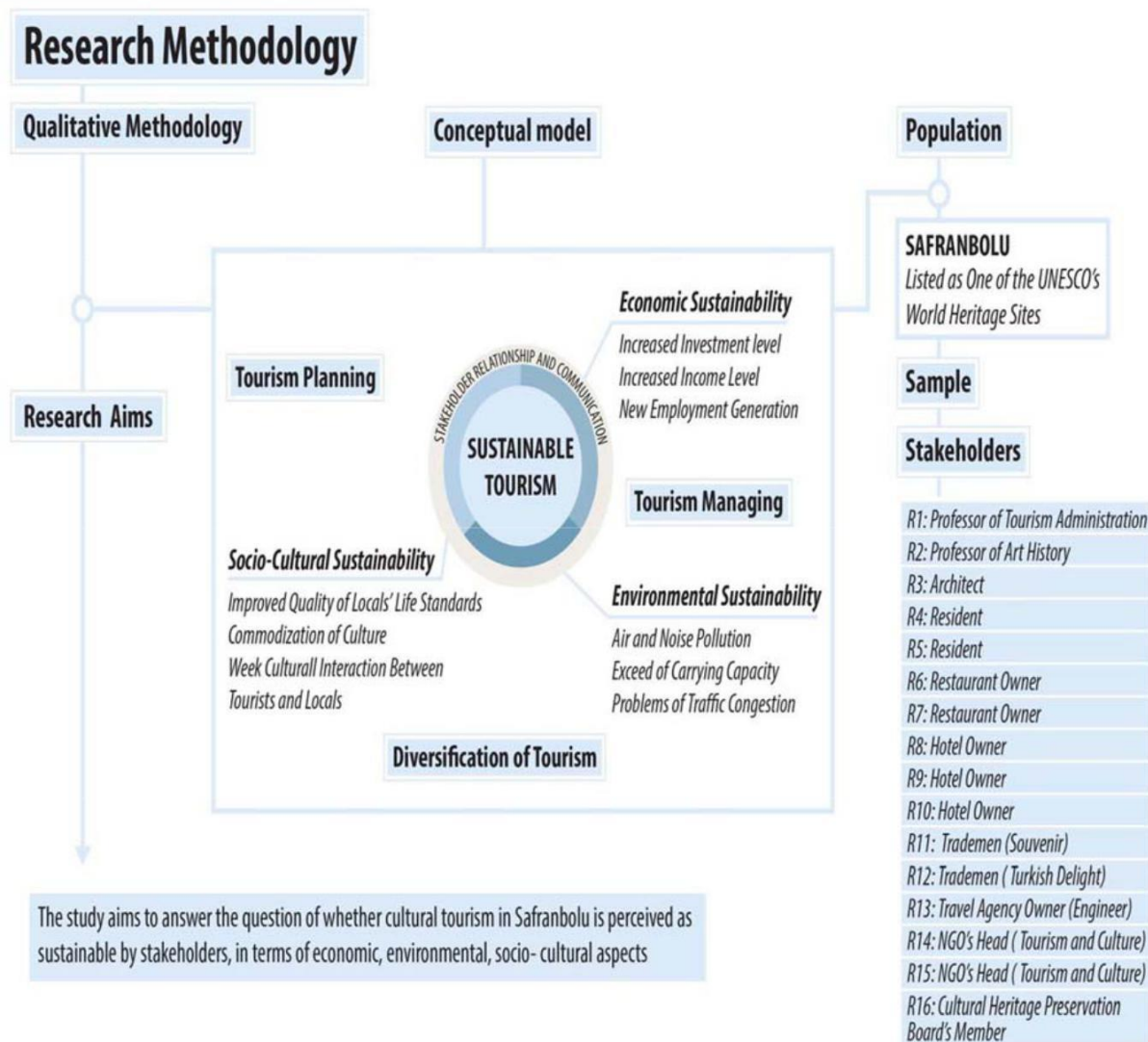
Figure 3 provides a detailed description of the sample, identifying the different respondents with a nomenclature of R1–R16, which is subsequently used when discussing the findings. Moreover, it summarizes the aim of the research, and gives information about target population of the study and samples.

Findings

Economic Sustainability

Some interview questions such as job opportunity, increase in earning level of local operators and increase in duration of stay and excessive number of accommodation offered by tourism development in Safranbolu were asked to determine participants' views on economic sustainability. Then, the

research reveals that a stable economy is one of the most fundamental matters. Availability of jobs, the development of services, substructure of the region, and existing enterprises are the topics that were stated the most by respondents. It is inferred from the interviews that the domestic enterprises such as retail shops, gift shops, hotel and food and beverage establishments play an effective role in the development of Safranbolu. The issue of job availability is mentioned by accommodation owners since more and more places with available occupations starts to open such as new hotels, gift shops, and restaurants. On the other hand, stakeholders differ in their ideas about who gains more from the developments in the region on the level of earnings. A participant who works in a tourism organisation (R9) states that *"the money earned from increasing numbers of tourists is only beneficial to the owners and managers, not to workers."*

Many old houses in were renovated and re-used in another function primarily as hotels and guesthouses. The owners of hotels believe that it has a positive impact on the local economy of the city. One of respondents (R8) claimed that *"the houses were wrecked and desolated, which caused a rather disturbing view for the destination, but now they are renewed and young people have occupations as well"*. Therefore, using old houses in a new concept might accord well with the idea of economic sustainability.

The respondents also stated some conditions where it is hard to achieve economic sustainability. Short-breaks or day excursionists do not have an economic impact at the destination. Therefore, some of the accommodation owners and shopkeepers argued that their businesses are not economically viable. According to an accommodation owner's opinion (R10) *"Safranbolu is in fact polluted by visitors coming from towns and cities near Safranbolu during weekends and holiday seasons. For instance, there were lots of visitors on the May 1ˢᵗ. But the strange thing is all of them spent the day eating only bagels, and all they wanted to do was to tour Safranbolu in two hours and travel to another, close city. These kind of low-quality tourists, whom we call day trippers, are only consumers for us. They visit the houses, and pollute the region. They do not do anything but exhaust Safranbolu"*. Another respondent who is a restaurant owner (R7) explains this situation as *"in contrast to the excessive amount of accommodation in Safranbolu, other touristic establishments such as restaurants, cafés, pubs, discos either do not exist or are not varied to meet the demands of different income groups. Thus, heritage site of Safranbolu is toured and consumed in a very short time. This can be counted as one of the most important reasons why the duration of stay is short.*

Socio-culturalsustainability

The results of the questions about life quality of local community and cultural degeneration asked by the participants to determine their opinion of socio-cultural sustainability are evaluated. Thus, several issues regarding socio-cultural sustainability has been stated by the respondents. One of the outcome of tourism development in the destination was that it led to the movement of the local community to the other areas. An official from a local organisation (R16) states that *"tourism generally affects the*

life quality of local community in a positive way but that is not the case for Safranbolu. The reason is that the local residents were disturbed by the extreme crowds and moved to the new residential areas we refer to as Old town (Eski Çarşı), which resulted in the termination of neighbourhood. Children used to play on these streets in the past, but now it's all cars and tour buses".

The interviews revealed that business operators also have a negative opinion of the locals' perception regarding tourism development. A restaurant manager (R6) said that *"according to logic of local community more tourists mean more money. But what we need is the increase in quality, not numbers. We need a certain number of visitors which we will be able to host because more tourists than that results in degeneration of the community. The locals can't take the situation due to the rapid development of tourism".*

According to the head of non-governmental organisations and local residents of Safranbolu, there have been many mistakes made during the restoration process of the old Ottoman mansions. For instance, hotel managers, deliberately or not, demolished or partly removed the stone walls to acquire bright and spacious common areas, and they pieced together the mansions so they appeal to low on cultural level visitors. These restorations resulted in the disordered architectonics of the houses, and most of the mansion hotels are now far from representing Ottoman culture. In a mansion hotel in which almost all common areas are turned into bedrooms, it is impossible to "visualize" the Ottoman family life. As a result, authenticity and integration of the world heritage sites which are the main criterions of being listed a UNESCO's World Heritage List are in danger.

Moreover, when participants' opinions are asked about the tangible values, they state that the only handcraft still alive is hand-printed head-scarf making but it is kept alive only by one maker. The efforts to improve hand-printed manufacture failed. The house models which appeared in 1990 have turned into commodities - a low-quality version of older replicas which have the same design. Beside those, other souvenirs that are sold are the ones originating from South-East Asian or textile products that are sold anywhere in Turkey.

Cultural tourists want to get acquainted with the intangible cultural heritage of local people living in the region they visit (Timothy and Nyaupane 2009, 9-10). In this context, participants mostly touched upon on the fact that even the regional food causes problems. An academic stated that (R1) "although *Safranbolu has a rich cuisine, most places do not offer regional food except for stuffed vine leaves (yaprak sarma), Turkish pancake (gözleme), and Turkish type ravioli (mantı). For example, you cannot find food with saffron in anywhere. This is another result of the mass-tourism concept and the demand for fast and cheap consumption of mass tourists. The only portion of valuable, intangible inheritance in Safranbolu might be the amateur musicians gathering in Yemeniciler Arastası coffeehouse to maintain the rich folk song tradition in the evenings."*

According to data obtained from stakeholders, the physical structure of the Old Town (Eski Çarşı) is also under threat due to the distorted and parallel approach in souvenir and service sector. In an

interview, The Council of Cultural Property Protection Board's member emphasises that (R16) "*the tradesmen in town (Çarşı) who are selling souvenirs, tea, or coffee invade the public space, and even make it impossible to walk on the streets on weekends or during holidays. Most importantly, the architectural and urban texture of Safranbolu is not perceived anymore because of the stands and tables on the streets, and the sunshades on shops*".

Respondents also argued that tourist-oriented developments had a negative impact on the socio-cultural structure of the city. Many renovations of the historic houses had a negative impact on the fabric of the built heritage. This issue was stated by an academic (R2) as: *"Unfortunately, what is good for tourist is not always good for the heritage site. Especially shaping the restorations and services in accordance with the liking and wishes of insensible tourists affects the sustainability of architectural heritage in a negative way. The facilities and specific texture, the "Genius Loci" of the region that appeals to culture tourists are slipping on a daily basis. The new texture that will emerge later will not attract the tourists anymore".*

Findings Concerning Environmental Sustainability

Outcomes from the interviews on the environmental aspects is that the interventions to connect the roads together resulted in the crowding of the historical centre with motor vehicles. A mansion manager states that (R10) *"Historical centre is jammed especially on weekends and during holidays. Besides the roars, vibrations, and pollution caused by motor vehicles, the chaos brought by randomly parked automobiles destroy the quiet and peaceful environment deserved by visitors who tours the historical town, and also disallow them to take even just one photo of the heritage site."*

Another academic says that (R1) "*the excessive amount of day trippers creates a concentration on certain areas and thus cause a physical pressure in region especially on the weekends. For example, in Old Town (Eski Çarşı) the stone parquets on the roads have lost their matte features and turned into shiny, slippery ground due to the heavy crowds. This situation both endangers the sustainability of preserved areas and the safety of visitors.*"

Participants mostly stated that the public authority falls short of solutions to environmental problems in Safranbolu and they can't take enough measures. Moreover, participants claim that "*tour buses are sources of noise and pollution*" (R5) and "*far too many cars and jam harms the historical texture and structure*" (R4). One of the officials from the travel agencies states that (R13) "*there are many tours happening at the same time to Old Safranbolu, which causes the locals to be short of services and the region can't host overcrowded groups simultaneously well.*"

Findings regarding tourism planning, management and diversification at the destination

Respondents were also asked their opinion regarding tourism management and planning at the destination. The results vividly showed that many respondents had a negative opinion regarding the management of the town. An architect (R3) argued that *"Tourism in the region is fumbling and*

developing without a professional management and tourism planning on its own, but it actually essential to have area management, destination management, and planning in the region. An amateur spirit is ruling the destination. It lacks the perspective of a professional. Unfortunately, managers are not aware of the fact that increasing the number of the tourists does not necessarily mean also an increase in the quality of tourism because of their rush to attract more visitors. What should be important is the quality of services. To be honest if I were a tourist in Safranbolu, I wouldn't be able to enjoy the city because of the bumps from people who crowds the streets."

Yet another academic (R2) states that "*Lately, culture tourism has been turning into mass tourism around the world due to globalization. Mass tourists prefer cheap products and the destination caught in this mass tourism spiral are consumed quickly. Another negative side of the conversion of culture tourism into mass tourism is that tour operators show tourists heritage sites but arrange accommodation in cheaper hotels around, not in the historical town. Accommodations for Western Black Sea tours which are organized at a really low price are arranged outside of Safranbolu."*

An architect who owns a tourism agency stated that (R13) "*when Safranbolu first stepped into tourism sector, the marketing was made by travel agencies. Each mansion owner rushed to fill the mansion with busload of visitors, and thus even people who are not dealing with running the mansion found them excited about appealing to tourists. This rush caused Safranbolu to fall into mass tourism spiral and endangered its speciality as a "Living City" which is one of the most important reasons why Safranbolu is listed as UNESCO's World Heritage. Lately all developments are made to use all mansions for touristic purposes and the irreversible damage of structuring for excessive tourist density has been neglected."*

Conclusion

Safranbolu, today, is an important area which keeps alive the Ottoman culture and arouse curiosity in this regard. The historical and cultural values it has are recognized at the international level and registered by UNESCO. After the registration of Safranbolu by UNESCO, the number of the visitors has increased day by day and the recognition level of the area has also increased. Conservation of the area by considering its protection-usage balance has significance in terms of sustainable cultural tourism. Over-commercialization and uncontrolled planning can damage the area in this regard. Safranbolu houses are not the sole source of this area for tourists, many tangible and intangible cultural heritage also exist in the region. Thus, these cultural elements should also be planned with taking protect-usage balance into account and be involved in tourism.

In this context, the study describes the perceptions of the Safranbolu's stakeholders who are concerned about the sustainability of the destination economically, environmentally, socially and culturally. The research states that destination stakeholders have very limited awareness and knowledge regarding the sustainability of the destination in both its cultural and social aspects. Besides, they do not consider the issue in all its important aspects. It clearly seems that the most of

the interviewees are primarily concerned about the tourism's capacity which aims to increase the profits of the area. A similar result is seen in research implemented in other areas. To make illustrate, Timur and Getz (2009) as well as Özdemir and et al. (2014) , in their study carried on among tourism Stakeholders in Calgary and Istanbul Historical Peninsula in Sultanahmet detected that these interested parties mainly viewed sustainability from the perspective of economic vitality for the destination.

According to the study, it can also be said that respondents perceive other aspects of sustainability, (environmental concerns for example), as a way of making the destination more attractive in the eyes of visitors. Therefore, a significant question exists about the implementation of sustainability practices in Safranbolu related to stakeholders' knowledge level and their understanding of sustainability. Based on the literature (Byrd, Cárdenas, and Greenwood, 2008; Kärkkäinen, Packalen, and Hamunen, 2013; McCool, 2009; Moscardo, 2011), it is essential that reach to knowledge and understanding of the issues at hand to be able to attend the sustainable development of the destination. But, Awareness about the conservation of the city is in the second plan since a space management plan does not exist in town. The current study reveals that the requirement of cooperation among all tourism stakeholders is indisputable for solving the problems of town.

Another result mentioned by the study is that the various local community and stakeholders are not allowed to participate in the decisions about tourism. Destinations occasionally come into existence a homogeneous group of individuals with similar ideas (Blackstock, 2005). Diversity of views among different stakeholder groups and conflicts of interest are obstacles to the practical application of sustainable tourism development (Blackstock, 2005; Dredge, 2006; Sautter and Leisen, 1999). The union of different stakeholders on common idea is necessary to enable a beneficial collaboration among stakeholders. (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Ladkin and Martinez Bertramini, 2002). Thus, in parallel to other destinations, Safranbolu is faced with the requirement of creating a shared meaning of sustainability which considers all its important sides, and which can be easily understood and adopted by the different interested parties. Institutional frameworks facilitating the consensus-building and the participation of all the interested parties should be explored. The municipality and other local governmental institutions can take a leading role in organizing meetings to discuss common goals and seminars for raising the awareness about sustainability principles and other educational activities.

Developing the area with making a tourism plan and accordingly promotional activities by considering the sustainable tourism logic and the protect-usage balance that is the most significant point to achieve a sustainable development. Diversification of the tourism, increasing the number of visitors in the area, attracting the people who are few in number but conscious and responsive about cultural heritage tourism and who are with high-income and visiting the Safranbolu because of the its features instead of diversification of the tourism activities are what is required for Safranbolu. In this way,

intense number of the visitors and the pressure of tourism on the town where is a sensitive historical area will decrease, so protect-usage balance will be ensured.

Sustainability is important for heritage tourism (Fusco Gerard and Nijkamp, 2009). The stakeholders are also important to understand to heritage tourism (Aas et al., 2005). Based on the above mentioned points grounded in the data, first attempt of this study is to understand the stakeholders' perceptions about sustainable heritage tourism.

Limitations

It should be noted that this study has several limitations. First, the number of participants is limited to 16. A higher number of participants would make future research more reliable. Another limitation is that the study adopts only qualitative research approach. However, combination of different research approaches would help understand the situation better. Finally, this study is limited to one case study, therefore it is not possible to generalise the findings of the study.

References

Aas, C., Ladkin, A., and Fletcher, J. (2005). Stakeholder collaboration and heritage management. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(1), 28-48.

Assante, L. M., Wen, H. I., and Lottig, K. J. (2012). Conceptualization of modelling resident attitudes on the environmental impacts of tourism: A case study of Oahu, Hawaii. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 9(2), 101–118.

Blackstock, K. (2005). A critical look at community based tourism. *Community Development Journal*, 40(1), 39–49.

Bramwell, B., and Sharman, A. (1999). Collaboration in local tourism policy-making. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 26(2), 392–415.

Byrd, E. T., Cárdenas, D. A., & Greenwood, J. B. (2008). Factors of stakeholder understanding of tourism: The case of Eastern North Carolina. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 8(3), 192–204.

Craik, J. (1995). Are there cultural limits to tourism? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 3(2), 87–98.

Chhabra, D. (2010). *Sustainable Marketing of Cultural and Heritage Tourism*, 1st ed. Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.

Darlow, S., Essex, S. and Brayshay, M. (2012). Sustainable heritage management practices at visited heritage sites in Devon and Cornwall. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 7(3), pp.219-237.

Debes¸, T. (2011). Cultural tourism: A neglected dimension of tourism industry. *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism & Hospitality Research*, 22(2), 234–251.

Dredge, D. (2006). Networks, conflicts and collaborative communities. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 14(6), 562–581.

Du Cros, H. and McKercher, B. (2015). *Cultural Tourism*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge

Elkington, J. (2004), Enter the triple bottom line. In Henriques, A. and Richardson, J. (Eds), The Triple Bottom Line: Does It All Add up?, Earthscan, London, pp. 1-16.

Fusco Gerard, L. and Nijkamp, P. (2009), *Cultural Tourism and Sustainable Local Development,* Aldershot: Ashgate

Garrod, B. and Fyall, A. (1998). Beyond the rhetoric of sustainable tourism? *Tourism Management*, 19(3), pp.199-212.

Gezici, F. (2006). Components of sustainability: Two cases from Turkey. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(2), 442–455.

Ghanem, M. and Saad, S. (2015). Enhancing sustainable heritage tourism in Egypt: Challenges and framework of action. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 10(4), pp.357-377.

Hampton, M. (2005). Heritage, local communities and economic development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(3), pp.735-759.

Jamal, T. B., and Getz, D. (1995). Collaboration theory and community tourism planning. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(1), 186–204.

Kärkkäinen, L., Packalen, T., and Hamunen, H. (2013). Indicators of the criteria for good participation in ecotourism planning at local level – a Nordic case study. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 10(4), 451–466.

Ladkin, A., and Martinez Bertramini, A. (2002). Collaborative tourism planning: A case study of Cusco, Peru. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 5(2), 71–93

Landorf, C. (2009). Managing for sustainable tourism: a review of six cultural World Heritage Sites. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *17*(1), 53-70.

Lansing, P., and De Vries, P. (2007). Sustainable tourism: Ethical alternative or marketing ploy? *Journal of Business Ethics*, 72(1), 77–85.

Leask, A. and Fyall, A. (2012). Managing world heritage sites.(1st eds.) Abingdon: Routledge

McCool, S. (2009). Constructing partnerships for protected area tourism planning in an era of change and messiness. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(2), 133–148.

Moscardo, G. (2011). Exploring social representations of tourism planning: Issues for governance. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19(4–5), 423–436.

Millar, S. (2006). Stakeholders and community participation. In A. Leask & A. Fyall (Eds.), Managing world heritage sites (pp. 37–54). Burlington: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Özdemir, G.,Yılmaz, M.,Yalçın, M., Alvarez, M. D. (2015). Stakeholders' Perception of Istanbul's Historical Peninsula as a Sustainable Destination. *Tourism Planning & Development*, Vol. 12, No. 1, 87–98.

Pederson, A. (2002), Managing Tourism at World Heritage Sites, World Heritage Centre, Paris.

Rigall-I-Torrent, R. (2008). Sustainable development in tourism municipalities: The role of public goods. *Tourism Management*, 29(5), 883–897.

Sautter, E. T., and Leisen, B. (1999). Managing stakeholders: A tourism planning model. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(2), 312–328

Sofield, T. H. B. (2003). Empowerment for sustainable tourism development. Oxford: Elsevier.

Timur, S., and Getz, D. (2009). Sustainable tourism development: How do destination stakeholders perceive sustainable urban tourism? Sustainable Development, 17(4), 220–232.

Timur, S. (2010). Analyzing urban tourism stakeholders: a network perspective. Working Paper. Haskayne School of Business, University of Calgary, Canada.

Timothy, D. J. & Nyaupane, G. P. (2009) *Cultural Heritage and Tourism in the Developing World: A Regional Perspective*. Routledge, London & New York.

Tunbridge, J., & Ashworth, G. (1996). *Dissonant heritage*: *The management of the past as a resource in conflict.* Chichester: J. Wiley.

UNESCO (2016). *City of Safranbolu - UNESCO World Heritage Centre*. [online] Whc.unesco.org. Available at: http://whc.unesco.org/en/list/614 [Accessed 15 Jul. 2016].

Where do Stressed People Prefer Travelling to—Rural Resorts or Urban Resorts?

Tomomi Hanai
Teikyo University, Japan
Takashi Oguchi
Rikkyo University, Japan

Introduction

Mental health tourism is a current trend and challenge that tourism and psychology collaborate towards. Travel's most common purpose involves relieving frustrations that are experienced every day. Furthermore, those who proactively engage in tourism tend to be physically and mentally healthy.

People traditionally prefer to travel for the purpose of their health. "Medical tourism" is one of the tourism in which people travel abroad to access medical treatment. Also, "health tourism" focuses on wellness and aims to maintain the participants' health conditions. "Mental health tourism" focuses on mental wellness and aims to reduce participants' negative mood and increase their positive mood. When people experience a positive mood during travel, they sometimes encounter flow experiences. It is suggested that those in flow experiences improve their attention and concentration and become more creative and productive (Oguchi, 2015).

People are increasingly attracted to mental health tourism because of a variety of modern social factors: reflections on mass tourism problems, mass tourism dissatisfaction, a greater diversity of values, changes in the concept of health, and the impact of social issues. Unfortunately, a number of people have emotional and mental problems. Figure 1 illustrates the number of patients who suffer from mental illness, based on a patient survey conducted by the Japan Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (2011). The number of patients is expected to increase by 50% of the number in 1996. The number of patients with depression is especially remarkable and is twice the number from 1996. Thus, mental health tourism is becoming increasingly popular.
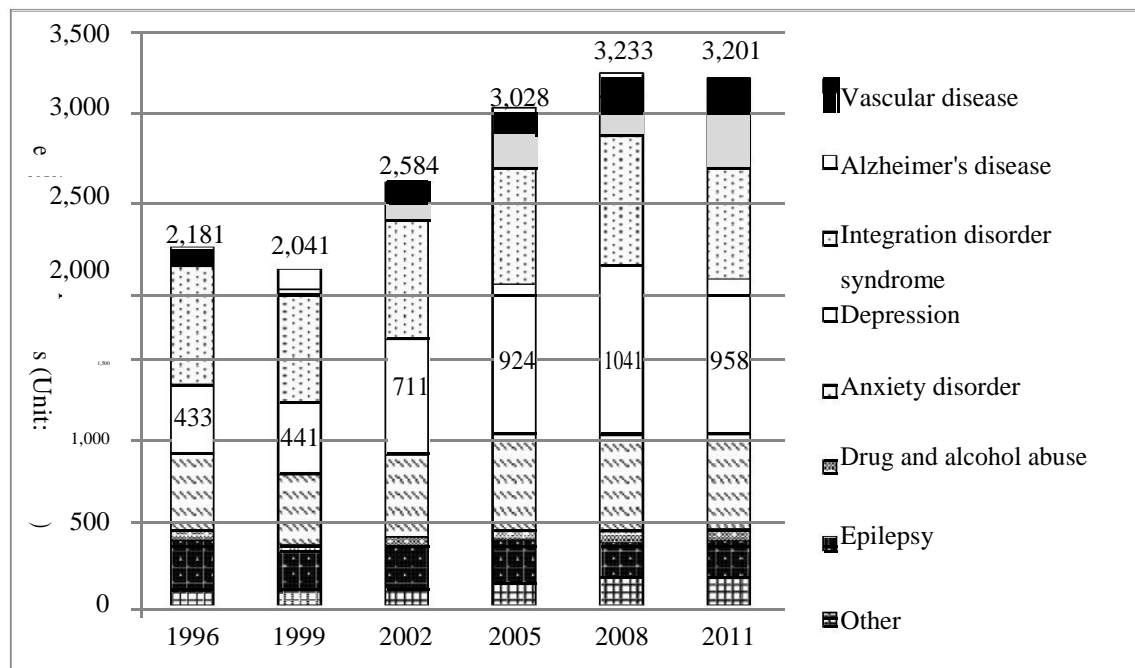
Figure 1 The number of patients with mental illness [Source: Japan Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (2011)]

However, there are some practical problems preventing them from going traveling and engaging in mental health tourism. One of the most prevalent problems is that some think that stressed people have no energy to go traveling. Sometimes the high stressed people complain of psychical and emotional exhaustion. For example, burnout is considered as one of stress responses and Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach and Jackson, 1982) defined the burnout as the three symptoms: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and lower personal accomplishment. On the other hand, some studies suggest that the problem-solving process using distraction in stress situations is useful (Oikawa and Hayashi, 2013). This research is conducted to examine if this is true.

Mental health tourism is closely associated with nature. Forest therapy (Ohe, 2015) and thalassotherapy (Arakawa, 2015) are well-known forms of mental health tourism. The psychological relaxation effect is detected in forests in Japan. Forest therapy reduces cortisol, blood pressure levels, and heart rate; promotes parasympathetic nerve activity; decreases parasympathetic activity; and calms prefrontal cortex activity (Park, Tsunetsugu, Lee and Miyazaki, 2011). Forest therapy for three days and two nights has been proven to improve immune function (Park, Tsunetsugu, Kasetani, Hirano, Kagawa, Sato and Miyazaki, 2007) Also, the subjective symptoms, which were measured using a shortened version of the profile of mood states (POMS), improved and continued for 5 days (Ikei, Koizumi, Song, Kouzuki, Teratani, Sakuma and Miyazaki, 2015).

This research has two purposes. Firstly, we examine the relationship between people's stress level and the strength of their motivation to go traveling. If there is no relationship between the two, the illusion that stressed people have no energy to go traveling might be eliminated. Next, we examine where

stressed people prefer to travel, that is, rural or urban resorts. As discussed above, mental health tourism is closely associated with nature. Stressed people appropriate targets for mental health tourism. Besides, if such people prefer to travel to rural resorts surrounded by nature, our findings will provide evidence to support and promote mental health tourism.

Method

An internet survey was conducted. Data collection was delegated to Rakuten Research, Inc. in early April 2016. A total of 300 individuals, 249 men and 51 women, with a full-time job and aged 20 to 69 years participated in the study. Table 1 show the distributions of the participants.

The General Health Questionnaire (GHQ; Goldberg and Williams, 1988) and subscales of the Brief Job Stress Questionnaire (BJSQ: Kato, 2000) were adopted to assess stress levels. The GHQ consists of 12 items and 4-point Likert scale, and Table 2 shows the items. The BJSQ is 4-point Likert scale and consists of three subscales: job stressors (17 items), stress response (29 items) and modification factors (11 items). In this survey, the items of job stressors and stress response were adopted, and Table 3 and 5 show the items. The GHQ and the BJSQ (Stress response) were asked with reference to the conditions in the past month.

The strength of the motivation to go traveling and the preference regarding where to go traveling ("Which do you prefer: going to exciting cities or going to rural areas surrounded by nature?") were examined. Additionally, destination characteristics were asked for the participants who had traveled within the past month. The destination preference scale (Yashiro & Oguchi, 2003; 28 items and 5-point Likert scale) was adopted, and Table 6 shows the items.

Table 1 Distribution of the participants.

Category		Number	%	Category		Number	%
Sex	Male	249	83.0%	Place of residence	Hokkaido	6	2.0%
	Female	51	17.0%		Aomori	7	2.3%
Age	20's	12	4.0%		Iwate	6	2.0%
	30's	50	16.7%		Miyagi	6	2.0%
	40's	120	40.0%		Akita	7	2.3%
	50's	100	33.3%		Yamagata	7	2.3%
	60's	18	6.0%		Fukushima	6	2.0%
					Ibaraki	6	2.0%
					Tochigi	6	2.0%

Gumma	7	2.3%
Saitama	6	2.0%
Chiba	6	2.0%
Tokyo	7	2.3%
Kanagawa	6	2.0%
Niigata	6	2.0%
Toyama	6	2.0%
Ishikawa	6	2.0%
Fukui	6	2.0%
Yamanashi	7	2.3%
Nagano	6	2.0%
Gifu	6	2.0%
Shizuoka	6	2.0%
Aichi	6	2.0%
Mie	7	2.3%
Shiga	7	2.3%
Kyoto	7	2.3%
Osaka	7	2.3%
Hyogo	6	2.0%
Nara	6	2.0%
Wakayama	7	2.3%
Tottori	6	2.0%
Shimane	7	2.3%
Okayama	6	2.0%
Hiroshima	6	2.0%
Yamaguchi	6	2.0%
Tokushima	7	2.3%
Kagawa	6	2.0%
Ehime	6	2.0%

Kochi	6	2.0%
Fukuoka	6	2.0%
Saga	7	2.3%
Nagasaki	7	2.3%
Kumamoto	7	2.3%
Oita	6	2.0%
Miyazaki	6	2.0%
Kagoshima	7	2.3%
Okinawa	7	2.3%

Findings

<u>Factor Analysis</u>

A factor analysis (principal factor method) was conducted on the GHQ and one factor was extracted (11 items, = .879). Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics and the result of the factor analysis. The GHQ scores are calculated by averaging those 11 items.

Table 2 Descriptive statistics and factor structure of the GHQ.

Item	*Mean*	*SD*	Factor loading	Commun-ality
Have you been feeling unhappy and depressed?	2.49	.820	.778	.605
Have you been losing confidence in yourself?	2.43	.860	.768	.590
Have you felt you could not overcome your difficulties?	2.42	.779	.677	.459
Have you lost much sleep over worry?	2.34	.841	.673	.453
Have you been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?	2.23	.848	.668	.446
Have you been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities?	2.70	.687	-.627	.393
Have you been able to concentrate on what you were doing?	2.63	.659	-.627	.393
Have you felt capable of making decisions about	2.63	.628	-.607	.368

things?

Have you felt constantly under strain?	2.75	.775	.581	.338
Have you been reasonably happy, all things considered?	2.35	.722	-.484	.234
Have you felt thing that you were playing a useful part in things?	2.32	.677	-.436	.190
Have you been able to face up to your problems?	2.46	.691		
Eigenvalue			4.468	
Contribution ratio			40.62%	

Factor analysis (principal factor method and promax rotation) was conducted on the job stressors subscale of the BJSQ, and four factors were extracted: "work load" (7 items, = .757), "job aptitude" (4 items, = .740), "controllability" (1 item) and "personal relationship" (2 items, = .591). Tables 3 and 4 show the descriptive statistics and a result of the factor analysis. The work load, job aptitude, controllability and personal relationship scores were calculated by averaging each factor item.

Moreover, factor analysis (principal factor method) was conducted on the stress response subscale of the BJSQ, and one factor was extracted (26 items, = .953). Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics and the result of the factor analysis. The stress response scores were calculated by averaging those 26 items.

Table 3 Descriptive statistics and factor structure of the BJSQ(Job stressors).

| Items | Mean | SD | Factor loading | | | | Commun-ality |
			work load	job aptitude	controlla-bility	personal relation-ship	
I have to do a lot of work.	2.76	.796	.735	-.018	.175	.088	.595
I have to work hard.	2.93	.710	.666	-.127	.188	-.186	.435
I have to think about work exclusively during work hours.	2.63	.740	.632	.003	-.162	.035	.429
My job requires a great deal of concentration.	2.86	.676	.601	.035	.061	-.001	.381
I am not able to handle all my work on time.	2.40	.854	.528	.109	-.236	.102	.378
My job is difficult and requires high-leveled knowledge and skills.	2.64	.787	.442	.268	.031	.084	.348
I am able to work at my own pace.	2.67	.806	-.410	.321	.366	.062	.404
I feel my job is meaningful.	2.61	.792	.077	.815	-.144	-.037	.635
I have a job that matches my aptitudes.	2.68	.762	-.070	.676	.070	.073	.464
My office incorporates my opinions into its job policy.	2.70	.753	.101	.479	.258	-.049	.451
My office atmosphere is friendly.	2.75	.709	.104	.456	-.074	-.342	.378
I am able to decide in which order and how I work by myself.	2.94	.740	.113	-.036	.899	-.005	.802
There is considerable disagreement within my department.	2.48	.743	.123	.043	.052	.797	.665
My department interacts poorly with other departments.	2.19	.753	-.042	-.094	-.067	.527	.323

		2.29	.883				
I am loaded physically.		2.29	.883				
I hardly utilize my skills and knowledge in my business.		2.22	.793				
My work environment, including noise, lightning, temperature and air ventilation, is uncomfortable.		2.32	.861				
Eigenvalue				2.659	2.342	1.621	1.323
Contribution ratio				21.49%	14.88%	6.44%	4.98%	47.79%

Table 4 Correlation coefficients among four factors of the BJSQ(Job stressors).

	work load	job aptitude	controllability	personal relationship
work load	-	.262	.037	.165
job aptitude		-	.419	-.195
controllability			-	-.163

Table 5 Descriptive statistics and factor structure of the BJSQ(Stress response).

Item	Mean	SD	Factor loading	Commun-ality
I feel depressed.	2.01	.879	.799	.639
I have sunk into gloom.	1.96	.897	.790	.624
I feel uncomfortable.	1.75	.849	.762	.581
I am not able to concentrate on things.	1.82	.841	.749	.561
I feel anxious.	2.03	.903	.747	.558
I feel slack.	2.20	.912	.741	.549
I won't lift a finger.	1.93	.890	.738	.544
I am used up.	2.05	.973	.710	.505
I feel angry.	2.07	.921	706	.498
I get irritated.	2.15	.890	.698	.488
I am not able to settle in my work.	1.62	.828	.690	.476
I feel sad.	1.74	.864	.690	.475
I am very tired.	2.28	.914	.689	.474
I have heart palpitation and shortness of breath.	1.52	.795	.688	.474
I feel faint.	1.53	.790	.666	.444
I have a headache.	1.85	.914	.658	.433
I strain my nerves.	2.13	.900	.639	.408
I feel infuriated at heart.	2.08	.904	.635	.403
I have poor digestion.	1.79	.872	.615	.378
My joints ache.	1.76	.854	.605	.366
I am not able to sleep well.	1.91	.931	.592	.351
I am constipated or have loose bowels.	1.91	.928	.580	.336
I have a poor appetite.	1.41	.681	.569	.323
I have eye strain.	2.46	.941	.531	.282
I have stiff shoulders.	2.41	.985	.519	.270

Item	Mean	SD		
I have a backache.	2.12	.962	.481	.232
I am exuberant.	2.05	.829		
I am spunky.	1.95	.852		
I am inspired.	1.98	.811		
Eigenvalue			11.672	
Contribution ratio			44.89%	

Of 300 participants, 164 had traveled in the past month. Factor analysis (principal factor method and promax rotation) was conducted on the destination preference scale, and three factors were extracted: "rural area" (11 items, = .903), "sightseeing spot" (7 items, = .854) and "urban area" (6 items, = .839). Tables 6 and 7 show the descriptive statistics and the result of the factor analysis. The rural area, sightseeing spot and urban area scores were calculated by averaging each factor item.

Table 6 Descriptive statistics and factor structure of the destination preference scale.

Item	Mean	SD	Factor loading			Commun-ality
			rural area	sightseeing spot	urban area	
Mountains	2.79	1.500	.940	-.189	-.182	.740
Forests	2.96	1.444	.933	-.094	-.178	.763
Farms	2.80	1.383	.849	-.104	-.050	.695
Rivers	2.80	1.370	.729	-.148	.142	.627
Hot-springs	2.87	1.610	.722	.017	.001	.599
Picturesque places	2.65	1.425	.634	.096	.053	.612
Glass lands	2.44	1.293	.592	.174	-.128	.488
Valleys	2.05	1.298	.579	.258	-.056	.634
Cold places	2.66	1.184	.509	.043	-.088	.593
Snowy places	2.19	1.231	.500	.113	-.051	.619
Shrines and temples	2.73	1.500	.424	-.004	.383	.529
Deserts	1.34	.737	-.243	.934	-.048	.606
Jungles	1.41	.782	-.120	.875	-.136	.595
(Calcareous) caves	1.66	.948	.099	.767	-.051	.648
Lakes	1.93	1.138	.173	.538	-.086	.521
Sacred spots	1.74	1.067	.152	.519	.153	.547
Antiquities	2.01	1.105	.328	.448	.189	.792
Beaches	1.88	1.265	.077	.411	.222	.469
Movie theaters	2.27	1.376	-.151	-.064	.826	.544
Concert halls	2.07	1.278	-.068	.025	.822	.627
High-rise buildings	2.54	1.479	-.202	-.075	.704	.499
Shopping malls	2.77	1.512	-.200	-.067	.671	.383
Galleries	2.07	1.199	.259	.062	.617	.712
Museums	2.21	1.295	.321	.024	.591	.685
Warm places	2.74	1.107				
Seas	2.33	1.478				
Historic sites	2.33	1.325				

		2.37	1.415			
Theme parks						
Eigenvalue				7.215	5.927	4.693	
Contribution ratio				33.90%	11.97%	6.21%	52.08%

Table 7 Correlation coefficients among four factors of the destination preference scale.

	rural area	sightseeing spot
rural area	.565	.343
sightseeing spot	-	.483
urban area		-

Relationship between Destination Choice and Stress Levels

The participants were grouped according to their response to the question, "Which do you prefer: going to exciting cities or going to rural areas surrounded by nature?" The participants who preferred exciting cities were classified as the "urban group" and those who preferred rural areas as the "rural group." One hundred and ten participants were categorized into the "urban group," and 190 participants were categorized into the "rural group."

An ANOVA was used to determine whether there were any significant differences between these two groups. The GHQ scores were higher in the rural group as compared to the urban group ($F_{(1,298)}$ = 2.99, $p < .10$; M(urban) = 2.44, SD(urban) = .306 and M(rural) = 2.50, SD(rural) = .295), and this meant that the rural group felt more stressed than the urban group (Figure 2).
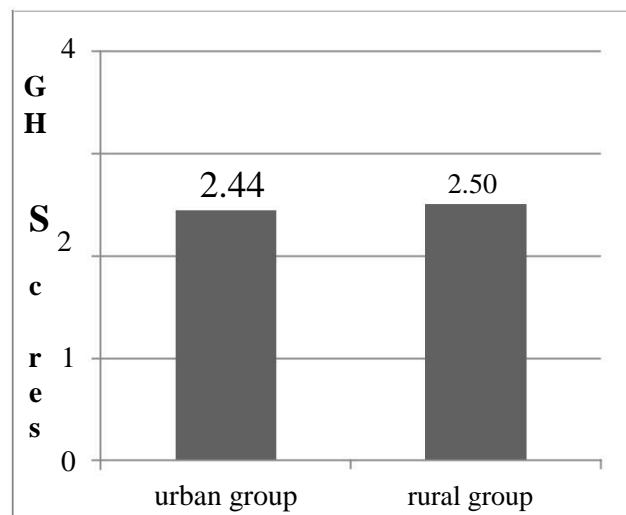
Figure 2 The GHQ scores on urban group vs. rural group.

The work load scores were higher in the rural group as compared to the urban group ($F_{(1,298)}$ = 5.41, $p < .05$; M(urban) = 2.56, SD(urban) = .464 and M(rural) = 2.70, SD(rural) = .500), and this meant that the rural group felt more overloaded than the urban group (Figure 3).
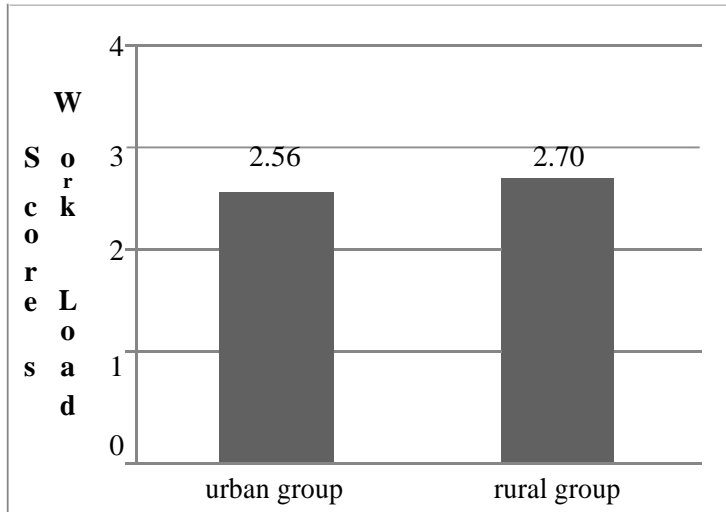
Figure 3 The work load scores on urban group vs. rural group.

There were no differences in the stress response, job aptitude, controllability and personal relationship scores (Table 8).

Table 8 The stress level scores on urban group vs. rural group.

| | urban group | | rural group | |
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
GHQ scores	2.44	.306	2.50	.295
stress response scores	1.95	.623	1.94	.591
work load scores	2.56	.464	2.70	.500
job aptitude scores	2.67	.558	2.69	.571
controllability scores	2.96	.716	2.92	.755
personal relationship scores	2.38	.674	2.31	.603

<u>Travel Destinations and Stress Levels</u>

In order to investigate the relationships between the travel destinations (rural area, sightseeing spot and urban area scores) and stress levels (GHQ, stress response, work load, job aptitude, controllability and personal relationship scores), the correlation coefficients were calculated. Table 9 shows the correlation coefficients. People whose mental health was worse and those who felt more stressed tended to go to rural areas for traveling. Additionally, people who were annoyed about personal relationships at work tended to go to rural areas for traveling.

Table 9 The correlation coefficients between travel destinations and stress levels.

	rural area scores	sightseeing spot scores	urban area scores
GHQ scores	.164*	.017	.015
stress response scores	. 144†	.178*	.024
work load scores	.044	.016	.060
job aptitude scores	-.004	.015	.119
controllability scores	-.013	-.096	-.020
personal relationship scores	.169*	.071	.105

Note * $p<.05$, † $p<.10$

Key Findings

The results show the following key points:

- There is no relationship between people's stress level and the strength of their motivation to go traveling.

- The stressed people prefer to travel to rural resorts surrounded by nature.

Conclusion

Firstly, we found no relationship between people's stress level and the strength of their motivation to go traveling. This finding suggests that there are misunderstandings regarding stressed people's preferences to travel. As mentioned above, one of the most prevalent problems is that some think that stressed people have no energy to go traveling, but this might be the wrong impression. At least, those who feel stressed but continue to work have energy to go traveling. Of course, this is not the case with those who feel too stressed to work.

Next, we found that stressed people preferred to travel to rural resorts surrounded by nature. The stressed people that we recommend to engage in mental health tourism prefer to go to rural resorts and be in contact with natures. As mentioned above, mental health tourism is closely associated with nature. Our findings revalidate the importance of mental health tourism.

Also, those who felt stressed had traveled to rural areas during their spring vacation. This finding might support the thought that people tend to travel and prefer to go to rural resorts surrounded by nature. However, it has another dimension; this finding might suggest that people's stress levels remain high even if they travel to rural area. One of the requisites for mental health tourism is to provide scientifically proven programs. Future research and development of special programs that are effective at maintaining and promoting mental health and that utilize nature in rural areas.

References

Arakawa, M. (2015). Restructuring Japanese Health Tourism and Advancing Mental Health Tourism in the Japan Revitalization Strategy. *Tourism Studies*, 27(1), 18-23.

Goldberg, D. & Williams, P. (1988). *A User's Guide to the General Health Questionnaire*. Windsor, UK: NFER-Nelson.

Ikei, H., Koizumi, H., Song, C., Kouzuki, M., Teratani, S., Sakuma, T. and Miyazaki, M. (2015). Psychological Effects of Forest Therapy Program on Workers. *Japanese Journal of Hygiene*, Vol. 70, No. 2, 161-166.

Japan Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (2011) The Patient Survey. Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare

Kato, M. (2000). *Research Report about Job Stress and its Health Effect*. pp.117-164.

Maslach, C., and Jackson, S. E. (1982). *The Maslach Burnout Inventory*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Ohe, Y. (2015). Opportunities and Challenges of Forest-Therapy Tourism: from Slogan to Evidence Based. *Tourism Studies*, 27(1), 24-29.

Oikawa, M. and Hayashi, J. (2013). The Problem-solving Process using Distraction in Interpersonal Stress Situations among Undergraduates: Focusing on the Relationship between Distraction, Rumination, and Knowledge of Effective Activity. *Japan Society of Personality Psychology*, 21(3), 316-319.

Oguchi, T. (2015). Meaning and Effects of Introducing Mental Health Tourism. *The Tourism Studies*, Vol. 27, No. 1, 8-12.

Park, B.J., Tsunetsugu, Y., Kasetani, T., Hirano, H., Kagawa, T., Sato, M. and Miyazaki, Y. (2007). Physiological Effects of Shinrin-yoku (Taking in the Atmosphere of the Forest)-Using Salivaly Cortisol and Cerebral Activity as Indicator. *Journal of Physiological Anthropology*, Vol. 26, No. 2, 123128.

Park, B.J., Tsunetsugu, Y., Lee, J. and Miyazaki, Y. (2011). Effect of a forest environment on physiological relaxation using the results of field tests at 35 sites throughout Japan. In Li Q (Ed.), *Forest Medicine* (pp. 55-65). Nova Science Publishers.

Yashiro, K & Oguchi, T. (2003). Individual Preferences for Sightseeing Destinations determined by "Individual Primal Scene" and Psychological Differences. *The Tourism Studies*, Vol. 15, No. 1, 27-33.

Acknowledgement

Camino Real de Tierra Adentro: Tourist Corridor of the Silver Cultural Heritage of Zacatecas, Mexico.

Jorge Fernando Cervantes Borja
Geography Postgraduate, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México
Rosalía Gomez Uzeta
Geography Postgraduate, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México
Marcela Flores Trejo
Graduate in Tourism, Universidad de Cataluña, Spain

Introduction

Strategies to innovate the tourist offering at a global level, must integrate touristic development models that could respond to the new expectations and requirements of an increasingly demanding and competitive tourism market, through territorial integration strategies of destination regions using routes and tourist corridors.

México, since 2010, is applying a touristic policy that involves thematic values, generating synergies in corridors with touristic centers and sub centers, which includes natural and cultural values.

This is the case of the *"Camino Real de Tierra Adentro"*[1] considerate a World Heritage site by UNESCO in 2010. This corridor includes the territories of the States of Aguascalientes, Guanajuato, Jalisco, Querétaro, San Luis Potosí and Zacatecas. All of them include mining centers which keep a great diversity of attractions of historical and cultural value from the XVII, XVIII and XIX centuries which are the main attractions for promoting the correct and sustainable development of the touristic activity.

Objectives

The present work seeks to contribute with methodological approach of the Tourism Systematic Management (OTu by its acronyms in Spanish), which tries to reduce the territorial asymmetries, caused in the actual model of *Development Poles* that concentrate touristic activities, heterogeneously in the receiving regions. This situation has generated great socio- economic inequalities with strong impacts on the natural environment, ending with degradation and loss, even of the natural or cultural resources used for tourism. This situation that has led to the fall of places such as Acapulco, Zihuatanejo and even Cancun itself is due to resource depletion, intensive touristic activity, centralized in the nuclear touristic destinations.

The proposed model (OTu) seeks instead to diversify the offer of attractive in a regional space with complementary nodes of attraction. This model integrates the main players in tourism planning and management; Government, entrepreneurs and society, who plan and make decisions for the use of the Regional Touristic Space (RTE), trying to be a development with mechanisms of investment, administration and sustainable management, that meets the

---

[1] http://whc.unesco.org/en/list

needs of the Receiver Population which has the balanced usufruct of the touristic revenues. (Delgadillo: 2003).

To this end, the application of this tourism planning tool (OTu) is proposed, considering the systemic-complex thinking paradigms and sustainable paradigm, using the systematic explanatory model called Tourism System with application to the Receiving Region, using Systems tools of Geographic Information (GIS) Leiper (1979), Boullón (1985), Molina (2002), Jiménez (2005), Gómez (2012), Cervantes (2014).

Methodology

The present proposal is based in the model of Tourism (OTu) (Leiper, N. 1979), as a planning tool that seeks to regulate or organize the use, occupation and transformation of the touristic territory in pursuit of the sustainable use of the natural and human resources in accordance with patterns of distribution of human settlements and economic activities, considering the potential and limitations of the tourism in the territory, as well as the aspirations and expectations of the receiving population, and the development objectives proposed for every single territory.

According with the works of: Boullon, R. (1985) and Jimenez Martinez A. (2005); the geographical-territorial analysis of OTu, which is proposed in this article, uses a systematic explanatory model called: "TOURIST SYSTEM" that generates representations of reality that include a set of elements at play, interactions and physical, biological, social and economic policies and policies related to tourism. This model includes the Regional Tourist Space (RTS) and the Receiving Region, for which, 4 categories of analysis are used:

1. Geographic: Geoecosiystemic Determination of the Receiving Region.
2. Functional Structure: Defined by the processes of the attracting flows to and from the centers of touristic action.
3. Symbolic: Topological network of optimal communications for the area of influence and its accessibility.
4. Geopolitics to diagnose and restructure existing and possible interrelations between the involved elements in planning, management and administration.

In this approach and under the paradigms of complex systemic thinking and sustainability, three key premises are recognized that must be included into the analysis: (See Figure. 1)

• Tourism is recognized as a complex phenomenon in a context of the sender-receiver region which systematically conforms the RTS.
• The Tourist Order (OTu) is recognized as the main thrust of the Planning of Public and Private Tourism Policy.
• It is part of the definition of the elements and limits of the Basic Tourist System (BTS) included as part of the Regional Tourist Space (RTS) in the receiving region, as well as the elements integrated to this one of the Transit Route

Figure 1. Tourism Regional System Elements (TRSE)
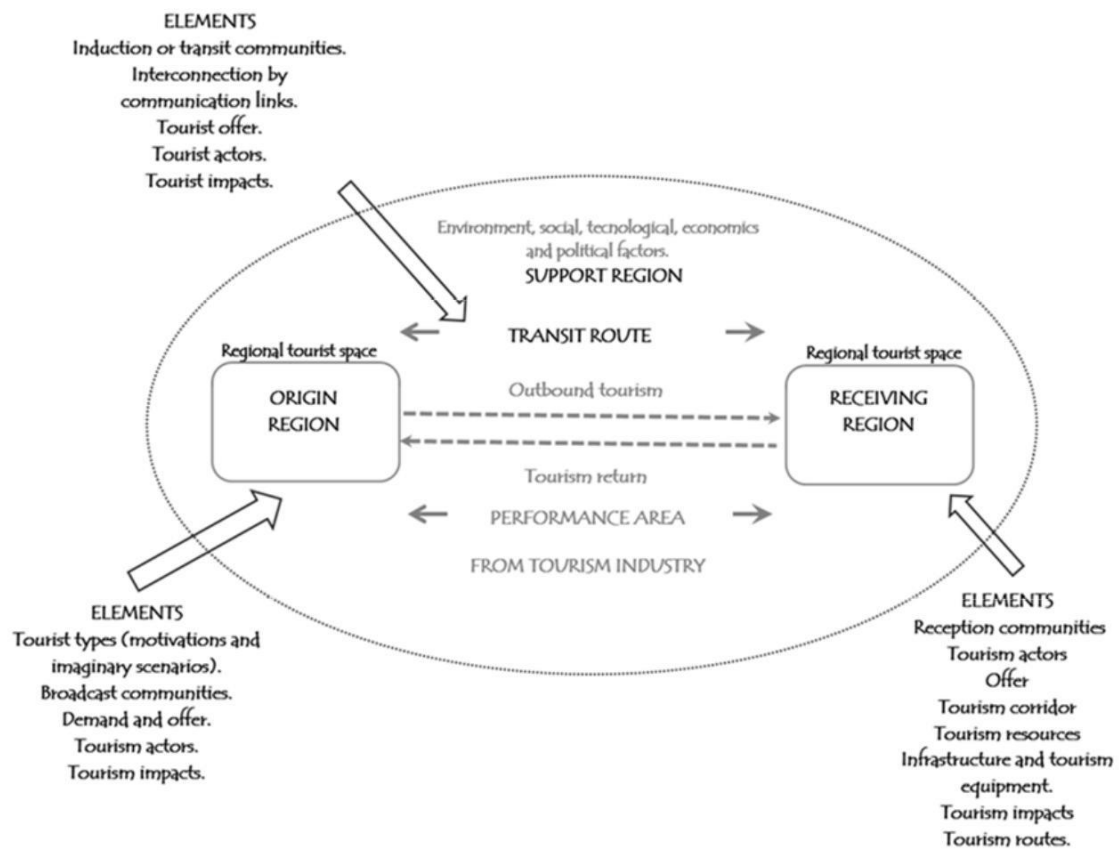
Source: Own design based on Jiménez Martínez Alonso de Jesús 2005

The structure of The Tourist Area of the Receiving Region, is defined in all the parts where the tourist activity is carried out; taking as key elements of their determination, the location of the attractions – classified in various categories and sizes, the presence of infrastructures, equipment and services that facility the arrival, permanence and displacement of visitors (Boullón. 2006). Incorporating also, all that tourist space where the tourist practice could be verified (potential tourist space)[2]; and the environmental and urban components of the non-tourist space of influence, although managed within the territorial planning instrument, as well as other elements included in the Transit Route within the Receiving Region (TR-RR).

---

[2] The first situation corresponds to the places where the tourists arrive, and the second to those parts that could arrive, but they do not; either because they are inaccessible to them, or because the lack of acceptable roads and paths that lead to them and facilitate their travel, as well as minimal amenities in the place, discourages your visit. In: Boullón, Roberto. 2006

In this way, it is considered that the TR-RR, presents different characteristics and temporal space influences in the Emitter and Receiver regions[3], that are differentiated and classified functionally from zones, tourist areas, complexes, conglomerates, centers, corridors, routes or touristic circuits and attractions; which are associated with tourist attractions, receiving localities with or without infrastructure, transit locations linked to the tourist displacement, support region and space of influence of the activity as well as with the population receiving the economic impacts, environmental and socio-cultural aspects of tourism.

In this way, the TR-RR analysis allows the organization of the interconnection between distribution centers, tourist centers and sub-centers, transit of tour centers, tourist units also with tourist attractions, induction of transit centers; it's surrounding space, which maintains environmental characteristics, and with the built environment (infrastructure – communication routes and equipment – tourism plant), thereby defining the distribution of tourist flows and public policy schemes that must govern them (environmental and urban).

According to the above, five categories should be defined for the analysis[4] of the Regional Tourist Space (Figure 2):

Formation of regions: This category first involves the delimitation of the receiving region, recognizing it as the territory that groups the various original (territorial and tourist) components with more or less homogeneous characteristics, which allow the formation of adjacent and integrated units defined by the physical, environmental, economic and sociodemographic media, determining the role of the territory as a support of the development of tourism.

---

[3] Concept of region. Authors: Joan Vilá i Valentí; Location: The region and the Spanish geography. Systemic region: explains reality as a whole regulated by material and immaterial flows of goods, persons, information, etc. Constituted by a heterogeneous unit that depends on its complementarities and functional relations, conditioned by the territory that defines its proximal (local) and distant (global) environment, by the cultural heritage and its potentialities. It is classified in terms of the existence of a:
*Rector's core
* A surrounding physical space limited by a certain distance
* Flows or functional relationships between its members

[4] Geographic Space Analysis: Mathematical, statistical, probabilistic, logical, cartographic and graphical techniques that are used to solve a problem that requires the analysis of geographic information. Its purpose is to provide knowledge about the parts of a problem and then integrate a solution to it.

Figure 2. Representation of regional tourist system
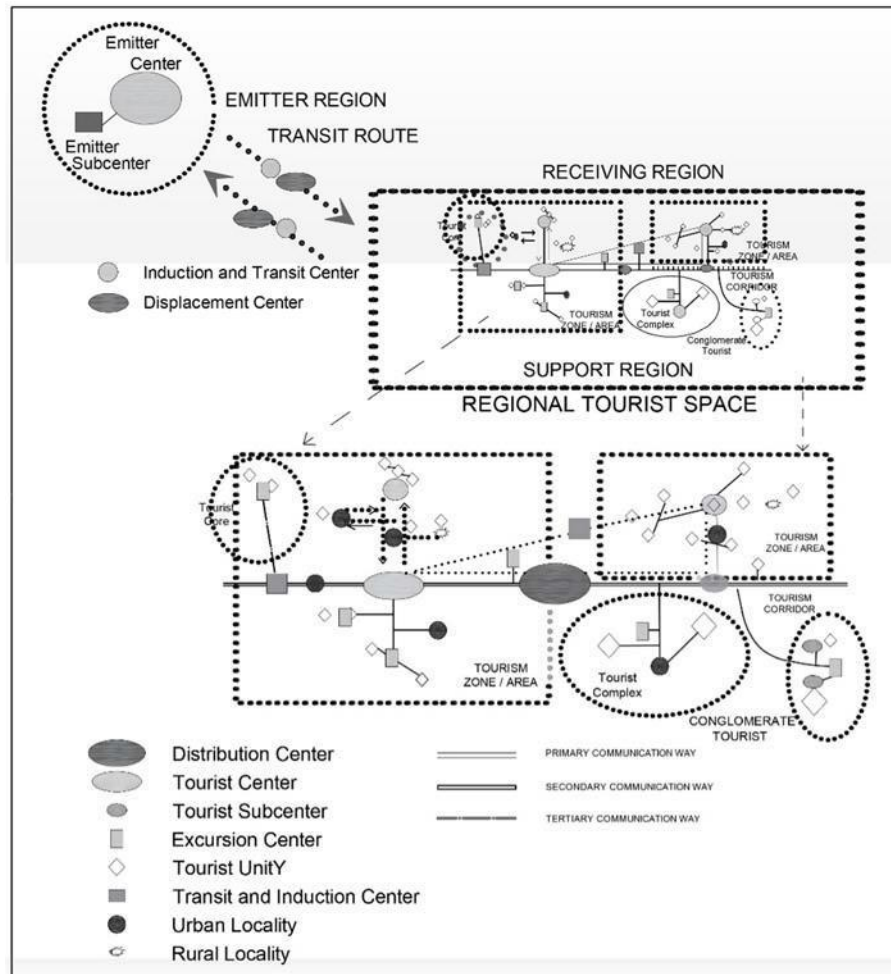
Source: Own design with base to Gomez Uzeta Rosalía et al. 2012

In this context, we define:

Receptive Region, groups the space where the tourism activities are linked directly or indirectly with the rural, urban, natural or productive spaces of the area of tourist influence; as well as tourism resources defined by the tourist attractions that are located near a human settlement with or without tourist facilities, maintaining proximity to infrastructure, transportation and means of communication. Delimiting them by means of the Tourist Zoning through the information of organizations of the tourist space, that are classified according to Boullón (1991) and to Cárdenas (2006) in:

Holyday resort: has one or more high level attraction, near a resort with tourist plant.

Zone / Tourist Area: is defined as the geographical space that has up to ten attractions of very high hierarchy, which are located near a resort that has plant desk, which maintains proximity to the infrastructure, transportation and communication within the area defined by two hours scroll tourist.

Touristic Conglomerate: It has two or more potential resorts with infrastructure and travel services, which keep a strong link with and attractive high hierarchy.

Touristic core: It has at least ten touristic attractions of low hierarchy or three to five of medium importance. They are territorial isolated with poor communication.

Tourist attraction: set of elements materials and/or intangible that are likely to be transformed into a tourist product, which must have the impact in the decision-making process that makes a tourist visit a place.

Tourism industry: location and diagnosis of touristic offering, services and touristic equipment, information and commercialization, on the media elements and touristic technologies; to know the viability of bid the touristic areas.

The support region has the natural and urban landscapes and also the space influence, which provides necessary resources to hold the tourism. Its definition incorporates symbolism of sustainability in the application of good practices, for the management of economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts generated by the tourism.

Determination of nodes: these are defined for being points of interconnection between the road arches. They can operate as starting, arrival or transit points of the touristic flow within the receiving region. These touristic nodes are classified according to Boullón (1991) and Cárdenas (2006) in:

Distribution center: are urban centers of enclave that are only accessible from the foreign markets to the system of the TR-RR. They are connected with other resorts from different regions; they have accommodation capacity, urban, commercial and touristic services for the coordination role, communication and distribution.

Resort: It's defined by the urban center, located within a radius of one hour of the Distribution Center; it has values and tourist infrastructure to motivate a trip way/return.

Touristic Sub-center: it has the function of enclave [5] , maintaining access and interconnection with other touristic centers in the TR-RR. It includes accommodation capacity and good quality touristic services.

Excursion center: is a human settlement that has peripheral excursion sites. It's a supply point for the exploration of these sites.

Tourist unit: human settlement with a concentration of equipment and basic services.

Transit and induction center: It's a rural or urban[6] settlement linked directly with the tourist flow, in which are provided services and they are main points for tourist's information.

---

[5] The tourist enclave does not establish links between companies providing tourist services, visitors and local populations, generating social problems due to the segregation generated by the type of tourism. They usually include service complexes directed to an elitist segment that does not come into contact with the local population and community. On the other hand, enclave tourism in some cases can avoid certain problems of frontal collisions when the culture between the visitors and the local inhabitants is too different, and soften the step to the development of tourism. In: Dieckow Liliana M., Nancy A. Brondani and Angelina N. Cáceres. 2012. "The Economic Impacts of Tourism Policies: Local Development or Tourist Enclaves. The Paradigmatic Case of Santa Ana, Misiones, Argentina "

[6] Urban center: Agglomerated spatial settlement with more than 2,500 inhabitants, which has services linked to the tourist centers by the connecting ways.

Network analysis: the objectives of this category are defined in the TR-RR of routes and optimal influence areas for the development of a trip. The communication network is the central element of analysis, defining:

- o Optimal transit route: is the tourist industry's action area through the transport, accommodation and intermediates.
- o Tourist corridor: Defined by the forms of possible interconnection between sites of tourist entering and its distribution throughout the TR-RR.
- o Identification of the existential interrelationships between the elements mentioned above to explain the operation of the whole system.

Modeling Scenarios: this analysis implies evaluate the parameters, factors and variabilities, ranking their importance in the explanation and prospection of the changes in the patterns of the touristic space by part of the analyzed TR-RR components.

The use of the Geographic Information Systems (GIS) to evaluate the Tourist System (TS) and the Regional Tourist Space

Under the focus of the GIS, the definition of the Regional Tourist Space (RTS) demand analysis of:

- Characterization of the elements to analyze of the Touristic System: Issuing region, transit route, receiving region.
- Functional characterization under the low-importance rating of the conjugated elements in the RTS, valuing receiver – transmitter nodes, types of induction centers weighting resources and tourist attractions; importance of the infrastructure, installations and touristic equipment; land uses and environmental – territorial policies linked to tourist zoning; other available natural resources determine the potential of an RTS to fully develop.[7]
- Perform topological analysis of networks identified in tourist corridors; which determine the flow and management of visitors. Also identify possible routes and tourist circuits.
- Multicriteria evaluation that allows the weighting of the decision variables to define the highest tourism resources.
- Crossing the results of the analysis and the multicriteria evaluation to obtain the optimum Regional Tourist Space, which allows, to obtain a greater flow of tourists, greater economic spillage and reduction in the times and costs.

Application of the SIG to define the TS and RTS TO THE ROUTE OF THE SILVER OR Camino Real de Tierra Adentro: Tourist Corridor of the Silver Cultural Heritage of Zacatecas, Mexico.

The use of Geographic Information Systems (GIS)[8], to define the categories Tourist System (TS) and Regional Tourist Space (RTS), in the state of Zacatecas, gave the following results:

Formation of regions: It groups diverse components of the territory conforming the following units:

Rural location: A human space that is characterized mainly by the development of agricultural and livestock production activities, which gradually have been incorporated into the economic and consumer relationship around new rooms and / or leisure and recreational activities.

[8] Digital mapping INEGI. CONANP. SEMARNAT. Esc. 1: 250,000. ArcGis 9.2 Software

Emission Region (Figure 3): The arrival of 407,500 tourists is reported in 2011, of which 96% are of Mexican origin (Jalisco, CDMX, and Coahuila), 2.3% North American, 0.45% Canadian and 0.45% Latin American. The type according to the profile of the tourist expresses that 60% are women, with education of 58.6% with university level or more, with 64% of tourists with ages between 25 and 60 years[9].

Figure 3. Emmission region

Source: own design

Receiver region (figure 4). It contains tourist resources, tourist attractions, infrastructure, transportation, communication, the space of influence that receives the economic and environmental impacts within the territory corresponding to 40 municipalities.

---

[9] SECTURZAC. 2011. "Degree of satisfaction and profile of the tourist:

Figure 4. Tourist receiving region
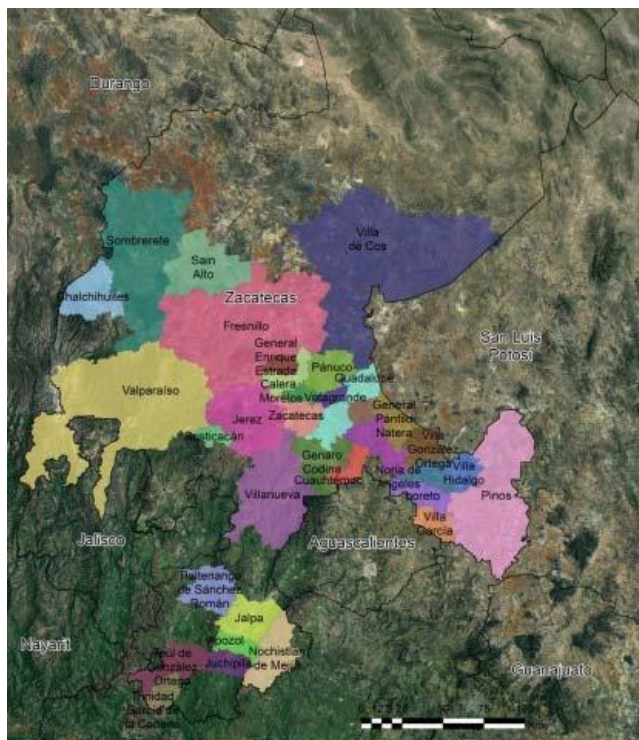
Source: own design

Tourist zoning see figures 5 and 6

It defines: a tourist complex, 2 tourist areas, 5 tourist conglomerates, as well as 4 tourist centers.

Figure 5. Tourist Zacatecas zones
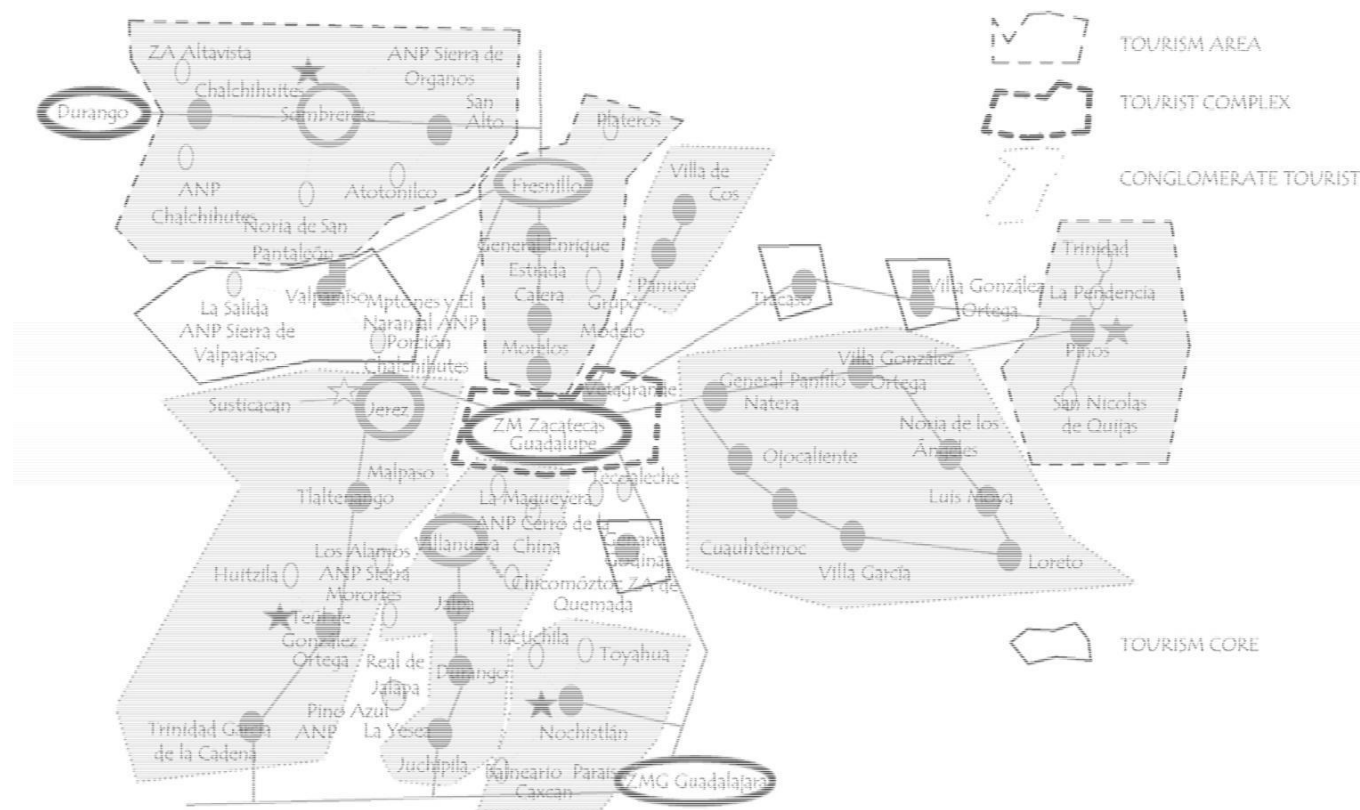
Source: own design

Figure 6. Tourist system zone
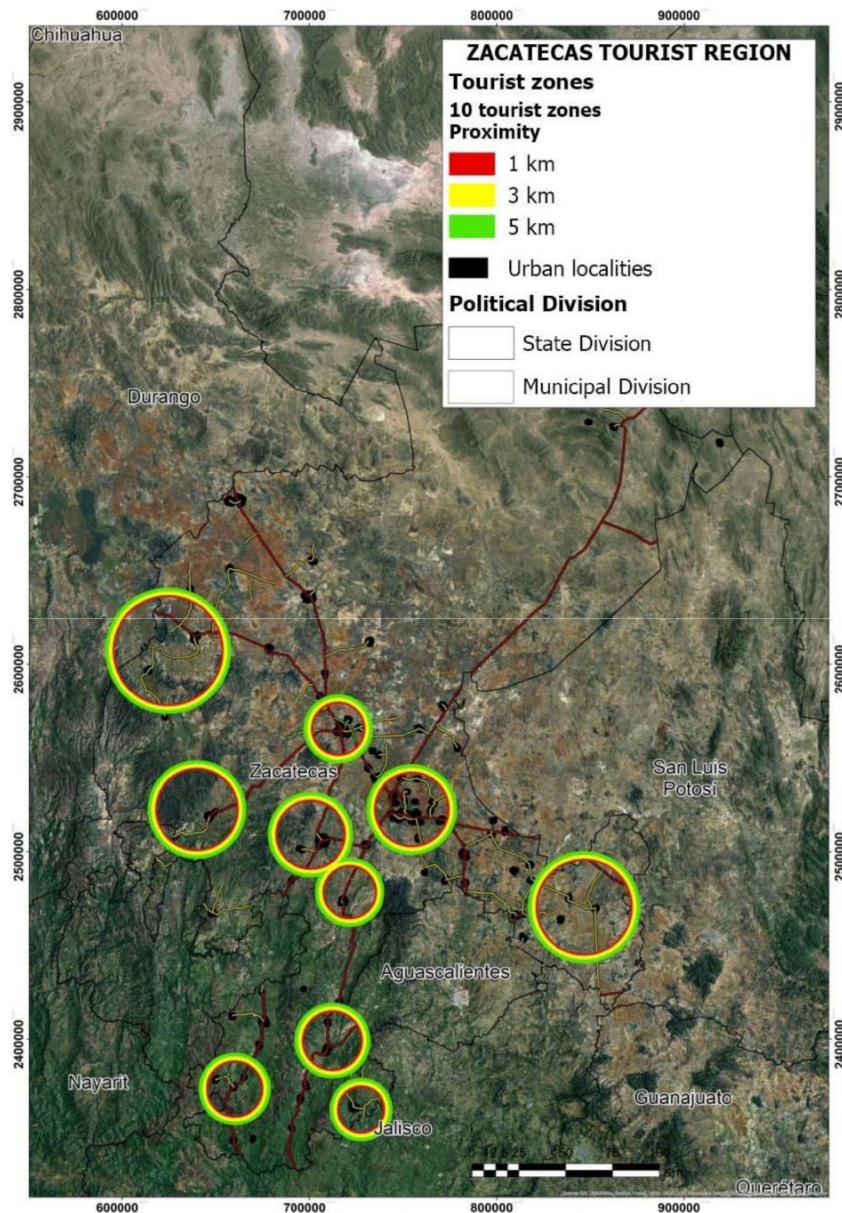
Source: own design

Support region (Figure 7): within the territory of 40 municipalities (Chalchihuites, Sombrerete, Sain Alto, Fresnillo, Calera, Guadalupe, Zacatecas, Vetagrande, Apozól, Jalpa, Juchipila, Villanueva, Jeréz, Nochistlán de Mejía, Trinidad García de la Cadena, Tlaltenango de Sánchez Román, Teúl de González Ortega, Valparaíso, Fresnillo, Zacatecas, Guadalupe, Vetagrande, Trancoso, Ojocaliente, Villa González Ortega, Pinos, Villa de Cos, Genaro Codina, Sain Alto, Villanueva, Huejuquilla El Alto, Susticacán, General Enrique Estrada, Pánuco, Morelos, General Pánfilo Natera, Cuauhtémoc, Ojocaliente, Noria de los Ángeles, Villa Hidalgo, Loreto and Villa García); the natural landscape implies the maintenance of the image of desert xeric scrub, low deciduous forest, of holm oaks and pine forest, as well as traditional agricultural landscapes, constructed landscapes linked to the historical center of Zacatecas (UNESCO World Heritage).

Figure 7. Support region
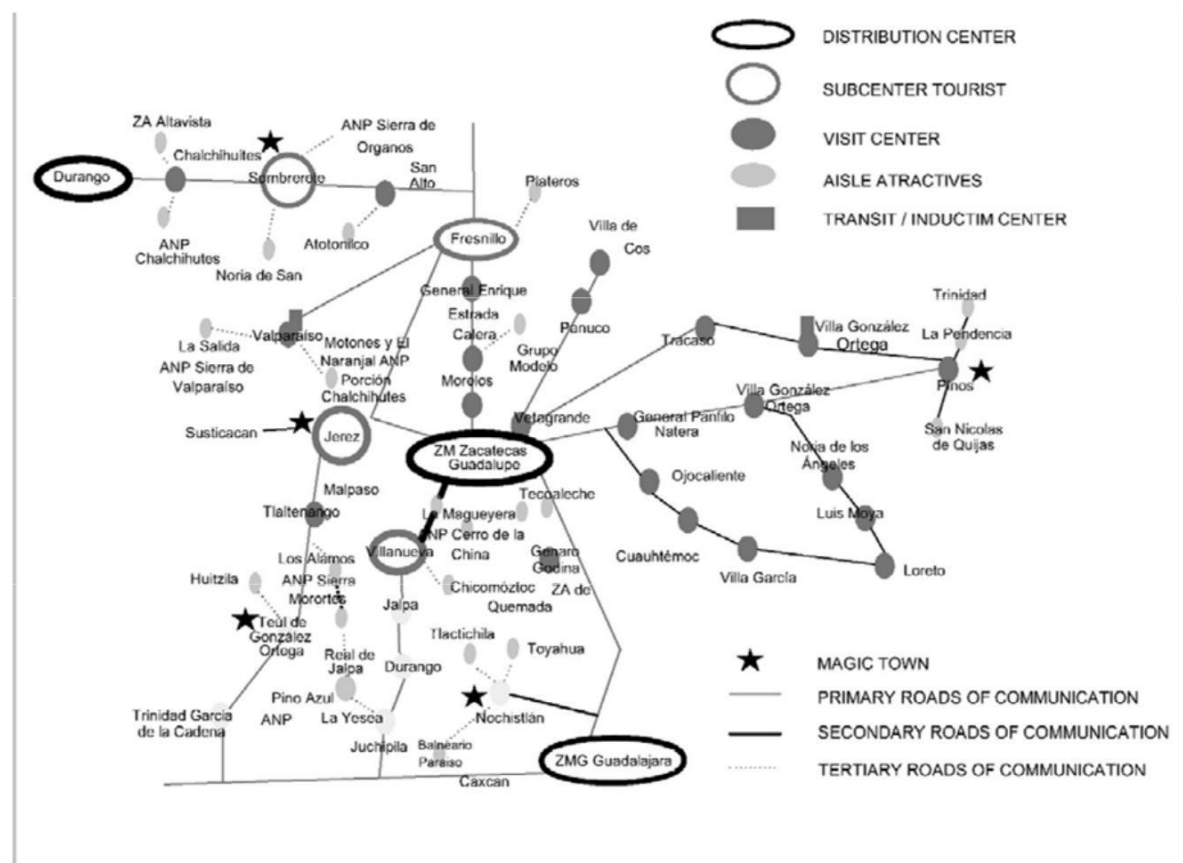
Source own design

1. Definition of nodes (Figure 8): 3 distribution centers, 4 tourist sub-centers, 2 centers of induction or transit, 28 visitor centers, 22 excursion centers and 6 protected natural areas with spaces dedicated to tourism. 7 elements of greater tourist weight are defined due to their integration, the number and category of attractions, transportation, lodging and food services, which are: Metropolitan Zone of Zacatecas - Guadalupe, as well as 5 magical villages of Sombrerete, Pinos, Jerez, Teúl de González and Nochistlán.

Figure 8. Zacatecas Tourist Regional Space
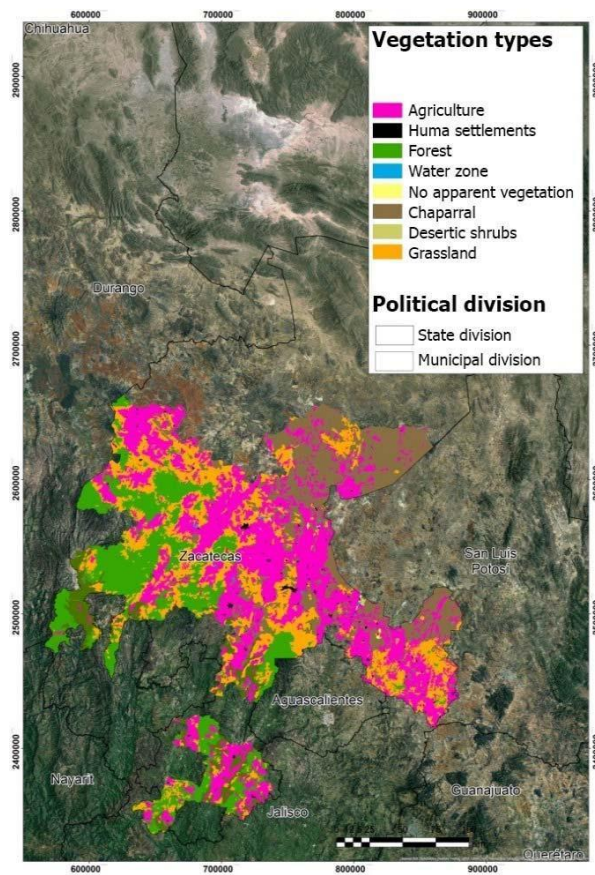
Source own design

As well as 255 tourist attractions, of which 24 are linked to natural spaces, 156 with cultural attractions, 29 with contemporary technical, scientific or artistic achievements and 46 scheduled events (Figure 9).

Figure 9. Zacatecas tourist attractions
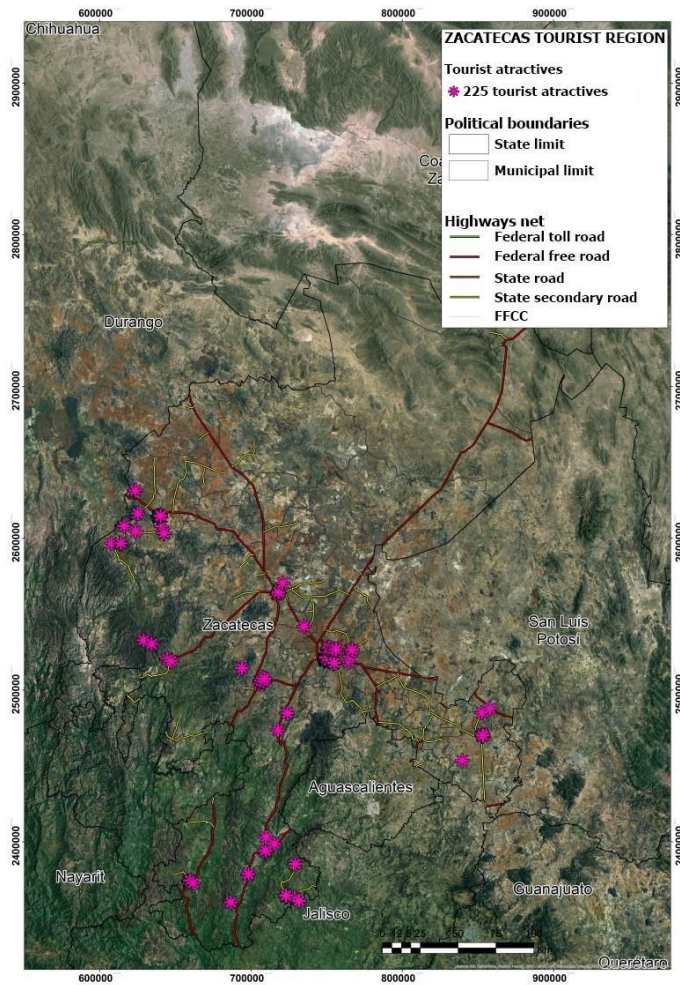
Source own design

2. <u>Network Analys</u>is: whose objective is to find an optimal route, where: Transit route: 32 tourist locations, with 3,027 rooms, 15 tour operators located in Zacatecas, Jerez and Sombrerete. It includes the influence on 2441 kilometers of road networks, 71 urban localities and 1938 rural localities (Figure 10).

Figure 10. Transit communication net
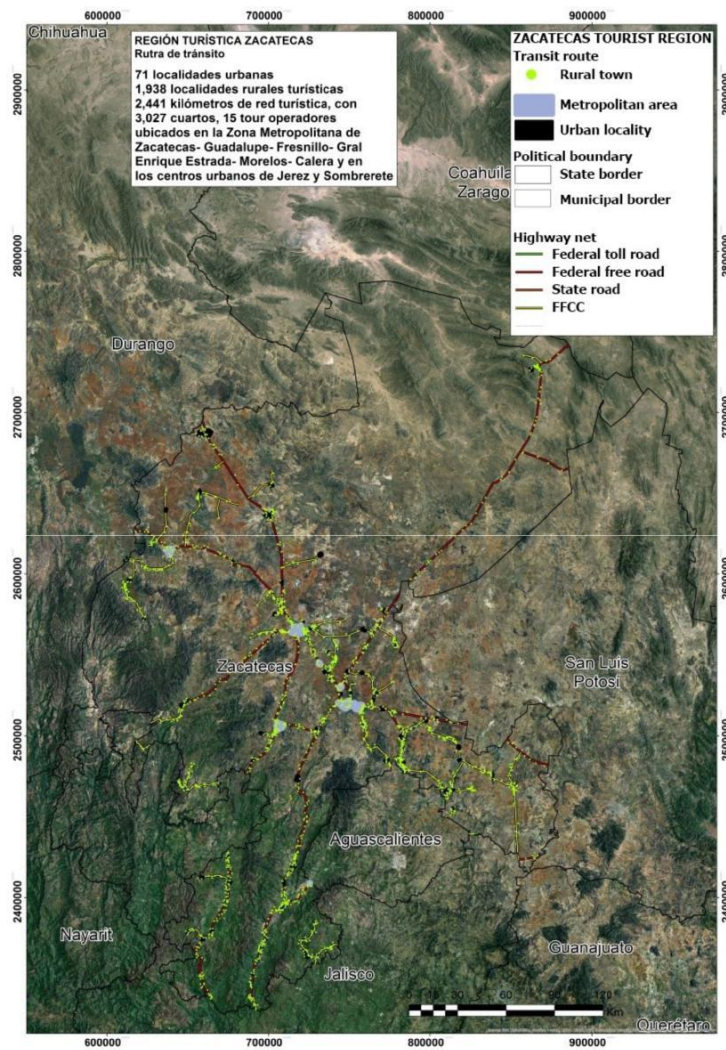
Source own design

> Tourist corridor in the receiving region: constituted by an international airport, 2,441
> kilometers of tourist network (communication routes 99% free and 1% of quota), 30
> bus stations, tourist facilities in 3 distribution centers, 4 tourist sub-centers, 28
> visitor centers, 22 excursion centers, 6 Natural Protected Areas and 255 tourist
> attractions (Figure 11).

Figure 11. Tourist corridor
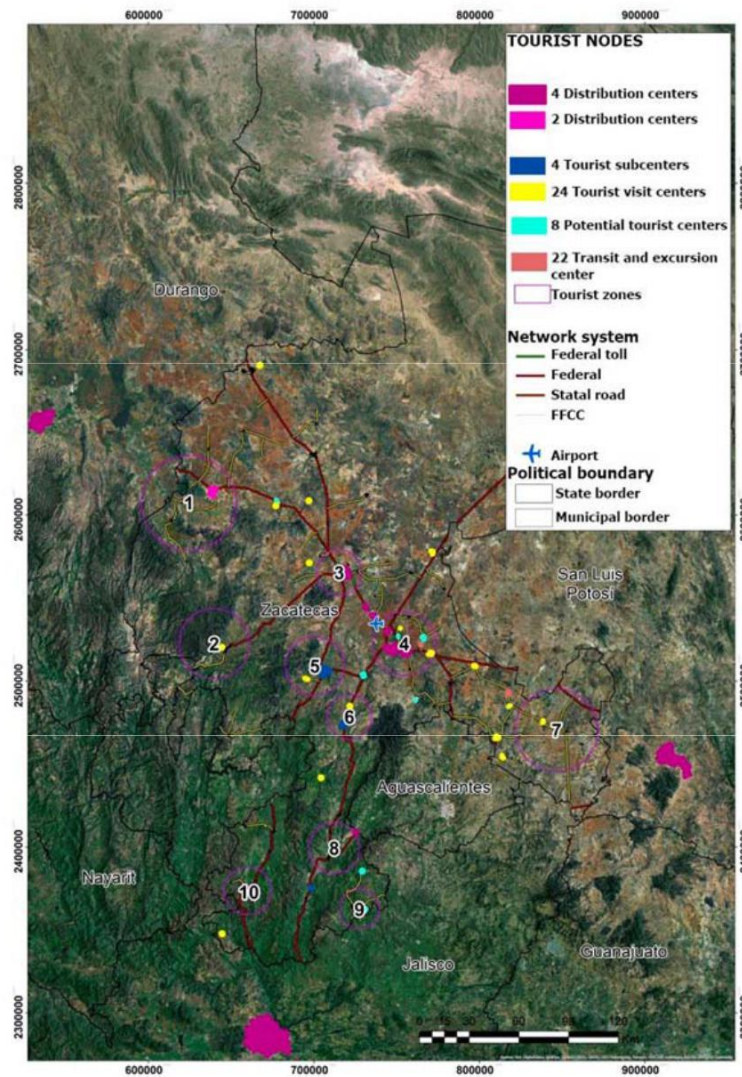
Source own design

3. Identification of interrelations: Land use pattern of 40 municipalities with low and medium marginalization, 73 urban localities (one with high marginalization) and 2,057 rural ones (Figure 12), occupying the following land uses (Figure 13): 33% (0.8% corresponds to Natural Protected Areas), 28% in degraded areas, 36% in agriculture and the remaining 3% in human settlements (2% urban areas).

Figure 12. Urban System
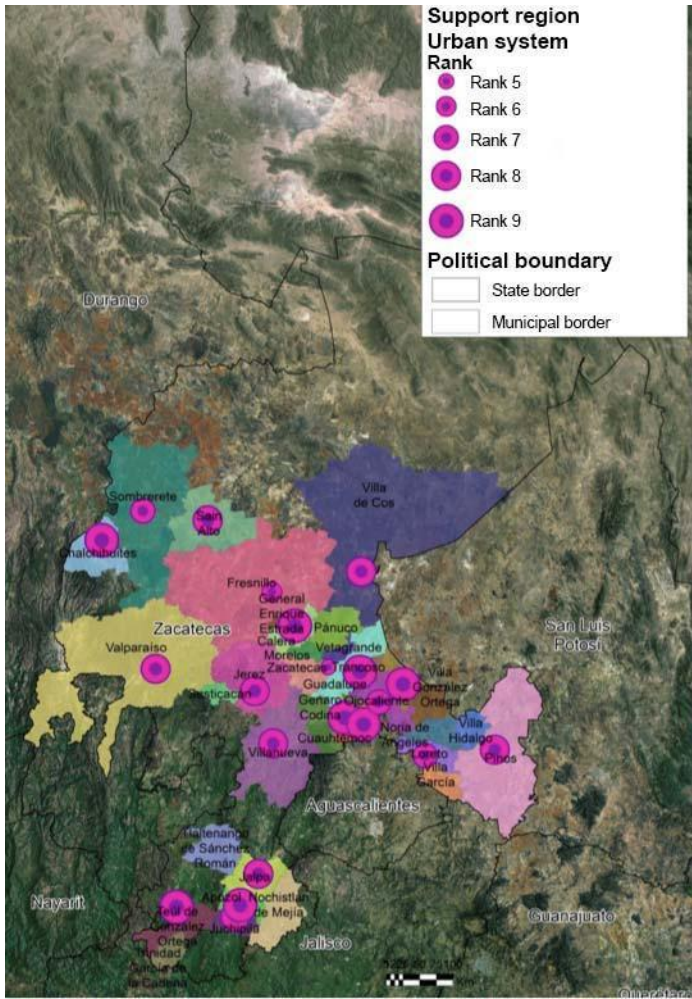
Source own design

Figure 13. Soil Uses (Environmental Policies)
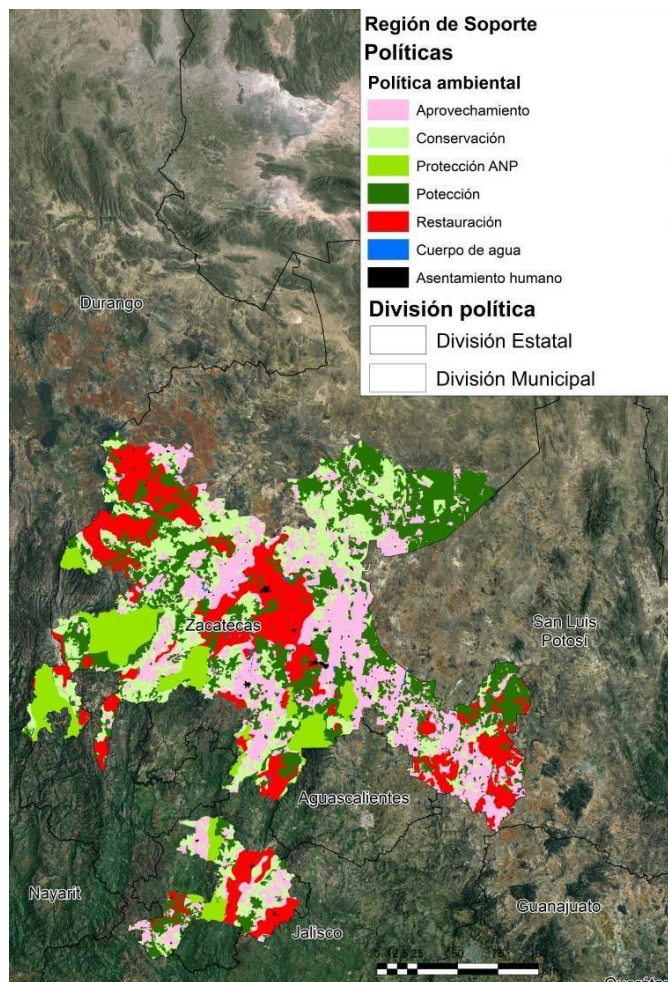
Source own elaboration

4. Creation of scenarios (Figure 14): It defines the hierarchical tourist zoning that includes a tourist complex, 2 tourist zones, 5 tourist conglomerates, as well as 4 tourist centers, defining its particular characteristics the actions required for its integration and improvement.

    The tourist nodes are ranked in 4 distribution centers (San Luis Potosí, Durango, ZM de Durango and ZM de Zacatecas), 4 tourist subcentres (Sombrerete, Fresnillo, Jerez, Villanueva), 2 centers of induction or transit (Valparaiso and Villa González Ortega), 28 visitor centers (including 5 magical villages of Sombrerete, Pinos, Jerez, Teúl de González and Nochistlán), 22 excursion centers and 6 Natural Protected Areas with spaces dedicated to tourism. This allows specific definition of urban, rural and natural spaces linked to the development of tourism in Zacatecas.

Figure 14. Regional Tourist System in Zacatecas

DISTANCIA DE LOS CENTROS DE DISTRIBUCIÓN A LOCALIDADES DE LAS ZONAS TURÍSTICAS (DISTANCIA EN Km)										
CENTROS DE DISTRIBUCIÓN	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
SAN LUIS POTOSÍ	Sombrerete	Valparaiso	Fresnillo	Trancoso	Jerez	Villanueva	Pinos	Jalpa	Nochistlán de Mejía	Santa Maria de la Paz
	365.78	341.73	251.73	166.58	247.83	253.83	98.7	299	254	356
DURANGO				Morelos						Santa Maria de la Paz
	128.59	331.87	241.87	285.54	344.54	350.54	494.8	446.54	506	444
ZM GUADALAJARA				Zacatecas						Teúl de González Ortega
	472	313	347	316	240	255	335	163	168	122
ZM ZACATECAS										Santa Maria de la Paz
	166	153	59.1	0	100	60	149	155	22	203

REGIÓN TURÍSTICA ZACATECAS
Nodos Turísticos
4 centros de distribucion (Centro / destino turístico)
2 centros de distribucion potencial (Cntro / destino turístico)
4 subcentros turísticos
24 centros turísticos de visita
8 centros turísticos de visita potencial
22 centros de tránsito y excursión
Zonas Turísticas
Vias de comunicación
TIPO
Carretera Federal cuota
Carretera Federal libre
Carretera Estatal
Carretera Estatal
FCCC
Aeropuerto
División política
División Estatal
División Municipal

Source own elaboration

The RTS also includes a total of 255 tourist attractions (24 linked to natural spaces, 156 to cultural attractions, 29 with contemporary technical, scientific or artistic achievements and 46 scheduled events), which defines the types of tourism activities that can be developed in Zacatecas, particularizing to frame the actions of tourist offer.

It also contains 2,441 kilometers of tourist network (99% free communication channels and 1% of quota) in good conditions and by the existence of 30 bus stations that provide transportation to the tourist; which allows a conditioned tourist flow.

Its influence includes 73 urban localities (one of high marginalization) and 2,057 rural areas (2% of the RTS), which must be benefited by maintaining the image and endowment of urban equipment, as well as the rural landscape. It is also influenced in areas in good state of conservation (33% of the RTS) that offer natural landscapes to the tourist route; (36% of the RTS) that have the necessary characteristics to provide food within the RTS and degraded areas (28% of the RTS) which must be rehabilitated to improve the natural landscape to the tourist route.

In this context, the tourist Corridor of the Silver Cultural Heritage of Zacatecas, complements the regional tourist space associated with three tourist routes: religious-cultural, archaeological, mezcal and one tourist circuit bullfighting.

The tourist Corridor of the Silver is formed by 12 urban centers: Metropolitan Zone of Zacatecas - Guadalupe, Vetagrande, Fresnillo, Trancoso, Villa González Ortega and Pinos, as well as 5 visiting centers of Trinidad, La Pendencia, San Nicolas de Quijas, Tacoaleche and Zoquite; and by 96 tourist attractions.

In addition, the urban center of Pinos is also classified as Pueblo Mágico (magic town) and Villa de González Ortega can serve as a tourist induction center.

Figure 15. Tourist Corridor of the Silver Cultural Heritage of Zacatecas
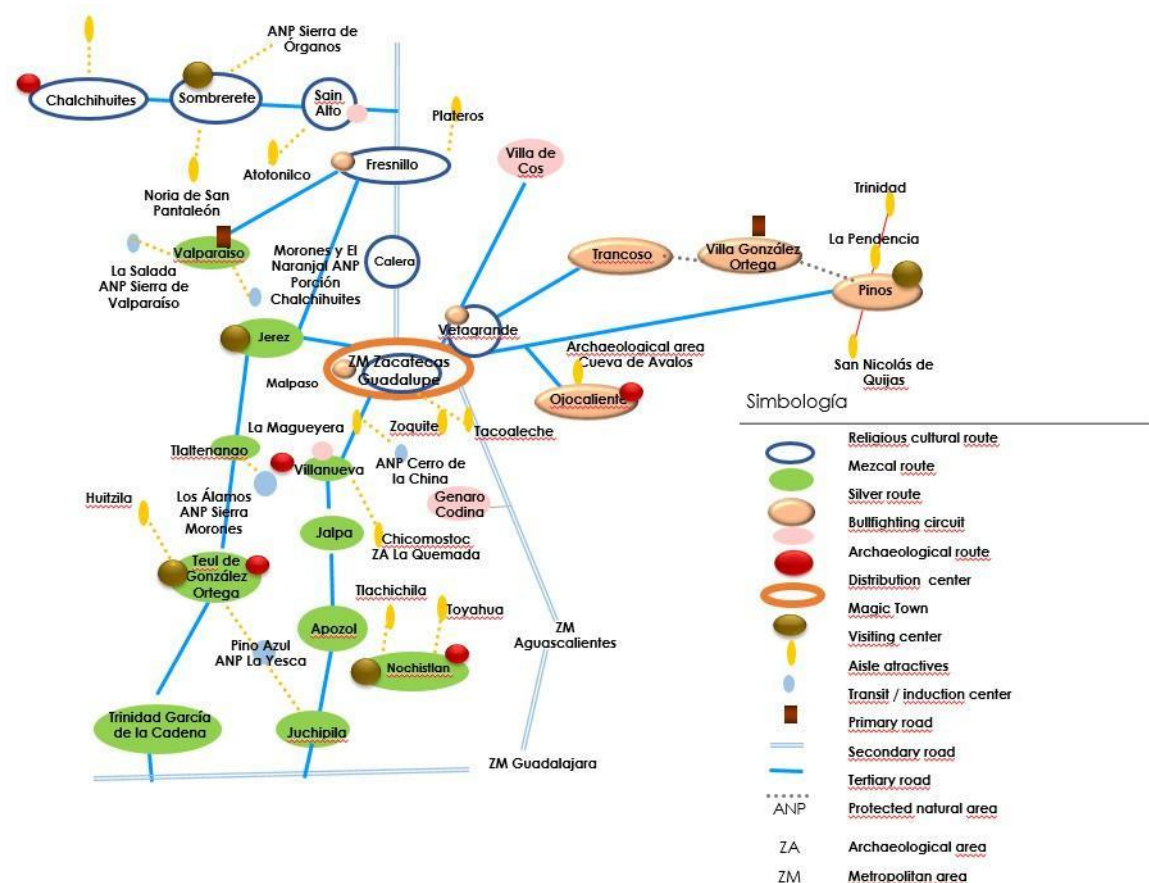
Source: own elaboration

Conclusions

The Regional Tourist System of the State of Zacatecas, proves to be of great potential to promote the regional development, due to the addition of sufficient elements to form the Regional Tourist Space of the Zacatecan Receiving Region, Nesting of nodes and tourist networks, are equipotential location Of the various tourist attractions; Landscape, productive areas and human settlements; A situation that allows the diversification of the tourist market, the increase of the proportional economic spill, as well as the reduction of negative impacts on the environment and on the host social groups.

These structural elements can be taken up by tourism stakeholders (government, business and society) to make decisions in terms of developing policies and strategies for investment and promotion of tourism as a development factor.

References

Non-recurrent publication: Antón Clavé Salvador and Francesc González Reverte (Coord). 2005. "Territorial planning of tourism". Editorial UOC. Barcelona, Spain. 216 p.

Non-recurrent publication: Gómez Uzeta, Rosalía; Cervantes Borja J.F. And Cervantes Luna, J. (2012), "The use of GIS tools to represent the Regional Tourist System of the South Central Coast of Sinaloa." II Mexican Congress of Complexity Sciences. Poster P43. Center for Complexity Sciences. UNAM. Mexico

Publication periodical: Boullón, Roberto (2006), "Tourism space and sustainable development. Contributions and Transfers "Redalyc. Vol. 10, No. 2, without month, 2006, pp. 17- 24. National University of Mar del Plata. Argentina

Non-recurrent publication: Delgadillo Macías Javier (Coord). 2004. "Territorial planning, public policies and regional development in Mexico". UNAM. CRIM.DGAPA. Mexico. 194 p.

Periodical publication: Dieckow Liliana M., Nancy A. Brondani and Angelina N. Cáceres (2012). "The Economic Impacts of Tourism Policies: Local Development or Tourist Enclaves. The Paradigmatic Case of Santa Ana, Misiones, Argentina ". In: Management Journal of the University of Palermo Number 6 Bilingual Special Issue. May 2012. Page 149- 162.

Electronic source: Vilà i Valentí Joan (1980), "Location: The region and the Spanish geography", ISBN 84-600-1923-3, Pág .: 13-34.

Compact Disc: INEGI. CONANP. SEMARNAT. 2008. Digital mapping of the State of Zacatecas. Esc. 1: 250,000. ArcGis 9.2 software. Mexico. [CD ROM] Electronic source: SECTURZAC. 2011. "Degree of satisfaction and profile of 2011". [Http://zacatecastravel.com/]

Compact disc: SECTURZ. 2012. "Study and inventory of tourism heritage-historical-cultural natural in the State of Zacatecas." Mexico. [CD ROM]

The Positive Impact of Cruise Tourism

Ruhet Genc
Turkish-German University, Beykoz-Istanbul, Turkey

Introduction

One of the fast growing sections of the travel industry is the cruise ship industry. The number of cruise passengers has been growing and there were 22 million passengers on cruise liners in 2014. There are a few popular spots for cruise liners in the United States, one being in Miami, Florida. There are some other spots in the Mediterranean and the Far East, but the major cruise line business takes place in the United States. The Caribbean and Bahamas are the most visited destinations. After travelling them, one can easily discover that these destinations are overrated, they are not the most delightful places to visit in the world (An example can be found here: http://www.huffingtonpost.com/David-Landsel/10-terribly-overrated-destinations_b_3030348.html) Proximity to the main tourist areas and investment made on the region make it somewhat popular. However after visiting same destinations over and over again within so many years, frequent travelers and local people get tired of seeing each other. Local people got tired of seeing the wealth while living in poverty and at the same time frequent travelers also got tired of trying to protect themselves against from some unexpected outcomes. To organize a positive impact on the cruise ship industry, the passengers, local communities and the researchers need to reorganize the destinations while searching new ones.

In accordance with export-based development strategies, cruise tourism can help a country to increase its share in the global market in terms of foreign exchange earnings, profits and taxes, domestic employment, as well as externalities, terms of trade (including currency) and economies of scale (Dwyer & Forsyth, 1998). Moreover, when the requirements of cruise tourism are compared with other touristic activities at a specific tourist destination, such as stopover tourism, there would be less need for infrastructure. Cruise tourism prevents investors (either state or private) from investing in higher amounts in order to build large touristic facilities which would not be used in the off-season. Hence, if the creative solutions are not developed for making hotels or touristic facilities work in all seasons, unit costs reflecting on tourists in the season will increase due to ineffective investment strategies.

Competing with the traditionally marketed "landlocked" resorts, cruise ships have been described as "marine resorts", and there is a complicated relationship between cruise lines and destinations (UNWTO, 2012). For example, not all cruise ships can be described as as marine resorts, as there are some specialized cruises for adventure or sailing. Moreover, there is an inequality among destinations in terms of demand, for instance European demand is better informed whereas Asian consumers are more likely to purchase brandname products. Significant differences among regions are also an important aspect of cruise tourism. Lastly, not all destinations are equal, as there are considerable differences between a city with a large hinterland and a small island (UNWTO, 2012).

In this paper, the positive impact of cruise tourism will be discussed. The research question of the study is in what ways cruise tourism affects the economy positively and what further strategies can be followed in order to increase the benefits received from cruise tourism. Starting with the effects of cruise tourism expenditure, three types of effects (direct, indirect and induced) will be presented, and then the regional and national effects of cruise tourism

will be analyzed in detail. After completing the analysis under various titles for both passengers and operators, a model will be suggested based on the Keynesian model of McDonald (1997) on cruise tourist expenditures, stopover tourist expenditures and total tourist expenditures. Finally, the discussion on the impact of cruise tourism will be provided, including the marketing for cruise tourism such as the employment of strategies for cost/price reductions, new product development and promotion of cruise tourism.

Effects of Cruise Tourism Expenditure

To begin with the effect of cruise tourism expenditure, it has direct, indirect and induced effects on the economy and regions within.

Direct Effects

The direct effects of expenditures are mainly on suppliers who sell goods and services directly to tourists or cruise operators. The value provided to tourists, in order to satisfy their demand, is distributed to the employees or owners of the enterprises as wages or profits, as well as received by the government as taxes, hence supporting the national economy. For instance, when tourists come to a destination, their expenditures are received as revenues by the suppliers of food and drinks, places for accommodation such as hotels or camping sites, shops (mainly gifts and clothes), transportation services, touristic tour companies, local restaurants, entertainment sites and so on. Therefore the revenues are directly received by all agents in the economy.

The direct expenditures generated by cruise tourism may be grouped into three segments: cruise passengers, crew members and cruise lines (CLIA & BREA, 2014). To begin with cruise passengers are purchasing pre- and post-cruise vacations, shore excursions, souvenirs, incidentals, other retail goods, as well as paying departure taxes. Crew members are purchasing a similar set of goods and services (Brida & Zapata, 2010) though with a particular tendency towards retail goods (CLIA & BREA, 2014). Cruise lines are purchasing a variety of goods in order to support their cruise operations, such as food and beverages, accommodation facilities, bunker fuel, and utilities while in port as well as making payments for a variety of services in order to enhance their global cruise operations, including commissions for travel agents, advertisement expenditures and other kinds of professional and business services (CLIA & BREA, 2014).

Indirect Effects

Some agents in the economy indirectly benefit from the touristic expenditure in a specific destination, when the direct suppliers of touristic goods and services purchase inputs from other agents, where these agents purchase the source of the inputs that they provide from other agents, and this goes on as a chain such as secondary services for those who work in cruise tourism sector. This secondary sector is fundamental for the continuity of cruise tourism since it provides the requirements for the major cruise tourism sector like food suppliers, housekeeping services and so on. As a result, these "flow ons" characterizes the basis of indirect effects. Considering the fact that the modern economy is too complex to supply any goods of services directly, intermediaries between the suppliers receive a considerable amount of share from these touristic activities (CLIA & BREA, 2014)

Induced Effects

Lastly, the induced effects of expenditures can be considered as accumulated revenues for further investment in a particular destination. When the recipients of the direct and indirect tourism expenditure, such as firms and their employees or even government agents, spend the income that they receive from touristic activity, "which in turn sets off a process of successive rounds of purchases by supplying industries and further induced consumption" (Dwyer & Forsyth, 1996:37). As the economy moves forward step by step, induced effects must be analyzed in order to fully grasp the impacts of touristic activity, including future transactions.

In general, the industries which are most likely to benefit from the visitor activities can be listed as: transportation such as buses or taxis, tour operators including guides, attractions, shops (especially those located close to the port and in particular jewelry shops, cloth sellers, craft merchants, local specialties shops such as spices, oils, dry foods etc.). On the other hand, some of the sectors related to tourism may not receive considerable gains from cruise tourism, for instance hotels (as cruise tourism provides accommodation for its customers), restaurants (generally tourists do not spend money on food but rather they return to the ship to eat food which they have already paid for), liquor stores (most of the ships do not let its passengers to consume their purchases from outside on board), casinos (most of the ships have their own casinos), and so on (Brida & Zapata, 2010). Furthermore, cruise lines are subject to create economic impacts through vessel related expenditures, crew expenditures and auxiliary expenditures including port charges (navigation and berthing charges, pilotage charges, towage charges), bunkering, food and water supplies, services such as disposal of waste and passenger related expenditures including security and baggage handling (Brida & Zapata, 2010).

Having argued the types of effects, the regional and national effect of cruise expenditure can be investigated. These effects will then be combined with the regional and national effects of cruise tourism and form the basis of the argument how the cruise tourism affects the economy positively.

Regional and National Effects of Cruise Expenditure

In order to explain the regional and national impact of expenditures associated with the cruise sector, recent reports from the Cruise Lines International Association will be used to analyze the development of cruise tourism destinations.

The direct expenditures created by the passengers and the crew of the cruise industry can be considered as the driving force of the industry's contribution to the global economy, as we have argued in the previous section. By the help of direct expenditures, direct employment and employee income related to providing the goods and services purchased by the passengers and operators of the cruise lines can be generated. Furthermore, indirect contribution appears as a result of subsequent demand for goods and services generated by the directly impacted enterprises. Lastly, the induced contribution of cruise expenditures is created when employees of the cruise lines and their suppliers spend their income within the economy. Consequently, the induced contribution of the cruise expenditure can be attributed to the final demand for final goods produced for the household sector (CLIA & BREA, 2014).

In 2013, direct cruise tourism expenditures have created $52.31 billion contribution to the global economy by generating 417,979 full-time equivalent jobs and paying $16.47 billion in

employee income, including the employees in shore side and crew of the cruise lines (CLIA & BREA, 2014). When the regional impacts of direct cruise expenditures are investigated, Europe appears to be giving the largest direct economic contribution with 40% of the global direct contribution of the cruise industry. In Europe alone, $21.2 billion in direct expenditures has been generated, as well as 164,804 full-time equivalent jobs paying an estimated $6.6 billion in employee income in 2013 (CLIA & BREA, 2014)

In 2014, Europe generated direct cruise industry employment by 169,831 full-time equivalent jobs and a total 348,980 employment regarding to the expenditure provided by cruise tourism. Furthermore, Europe directly generates €5.08 billion in compensation and €10.75 billion total income has been earned by the workers throughout Europe as a combination of direct, indirect and induced expenditures (CLIA & BREA, 2015).

This is the general trend of cruise tourism industry. It generates a significant economic impact mainly in the United States and in European countries. Despite not being quite as significant, potential positive impacts have also been indicated for Australia (Dwyer & Forsyth, 1996), Jamaica (Chase & McKee, 2003) and Costa Rica (Brida & Zapata, 2010), if the investment decisions targeted at cruise tourism, such as infrastructure, port arrangements are considered in a meticulous manner.

A Suggested Model for Measuring the Effect of Cruise Tourism

McDonald (1997) has developed a basic Keynesian model to reveal the effect of cruise tourist expenditures, stopover tourist expenditures and total tourist expenditures. By comparing these three models, the impact of cruise tourism can be measured on the basis of GDP and other elements that take part in the calculation of GDP, such as consumption, investment, government spending and net foreign trade.

Initially, the model starts with presenting general equilibrium of Keynesian economics for GDP as following:

$Y_t = C_t + I_t + G_t + X_t - M_t$ (1)

And,

$C_t = c_0 + c_1 (1 - T_t) Y_t + e_t$ (2)

$I_t = i_0 + i_1 (1 - T_t - c_1) Y_t + s_t$ (3)

$G_t = g_0 + g_1 T_t Y_t + u_t$ (4)

$M_t = m_0 + m_1 (1 - T_t) Y_t + w_t$ (5)

$X_t = X_t$ (6)

Where,

Y implies Gross Domestic Product

C implies Consumption

I implies Investment

G implies Government Spending

X implies Exports

M implies Imports

T implies Tax Rate

t implies Time

c_1 , i_1 , g_1 , m_1 imply coefficients

c_0 , i_0 , g_0 , m_0 imply intercept terms

e, s, u, w imply error terms

According to this model, at a particular time, consumption is a fraction of total income after extracting the tax levied by government; investment is the fraction of total income after extracting the tax and consumption at this particular time; government spending is equal to the fraction of total income with respect to the amount of tax rate; and imports are subject to tax as the form of tariffs.

The model has been altered in accordance with three additional variables: cruise tourist expenditures, stopover tourist expenditures, and total tourist expenditures in order to measure the impact of cruise tourism expenditures (Chase & McKee, 2003).

Considering the effect of cruise expenditures, the first modification of the model is as follows:

$$I_t = i_2 + i_3 (1 - T_t - c_1) Y_t + i_4 CR_t + s_t \quad (7)$$

$$G_t = g_2 + g_3 T_t Y_t + g_4 CR_t + u_t \quad (8)$$

$$M_t = m_2 + m_3 (1 - T_t) Y_t + m_4 CR_t + w_t \quad (9)$$

Where,

CR implies cruise tourist expenditures

i_3 , i_4 , g_3 , g_4 , m_3 , m_4 imply coefficients

i_2 , g_2 , m_2 imply intercept terms

This modification ensures that cruise tourist expenditures appear in the model as a part of investment, government spending and imports. Therefore, cruise tourism has direct impact on investment decisions of owner of the firms, government budget for transfers and net foreign exchange revenues, as it has been argued above. Furthermore, it may be claimed that the overall increase in the total income would reflect on individual spending by enhancing the financial capabilities of the agents in the economy. Thus, cruise tourism expenditures indirectly increase consumption. Although it is straightforward to consider an increase in the consumption, since it becomes more likely for the agents to spend more money for their needs, the model predicts that it will not be a direct, but rather, indirect impact. Nevertheless,

adding cruise tourism expenditures into the model leads to positive monetary impact in any case.

The impact of stopover tourist expenditures has been revealed by the second modification in the following manner:

$I_t = i_5 + i_6 (1 - T_t - c_1) Y_t + i_7 SO_t + s_t$ (10)

$G_t = g_5 + g_6 T_t Y_t + g_7 SO_t + u_t$ (11)

$M_t = m_5 + m_6 (1 - T_t) Y_t + m_7 SO_t + w_t$ (12)

Where,

SO implies stopover tourist expenditures

i_6, i_7, g_6, g_7, m_6, m_7 imply coefficients

i_5, g_5, m_5 imply intercept terms

Similar to the cruise tourism expenditures, stopover tourism expenditures have direct effect on investment, government spending and net foreign revenues whereas it has an indirect impact on consumption.

Last but not the least; the third modification extends the model by including total tourist expenditures, hence the model becomes:

$I_t = i_8 + i_9 (1 - T_t - c_1) Y_t + i_{10} AR_t + s_t$ (13)

$G_t = g_8 + g_9 T_t Y_t + g_{10} AR_t + u_t$ (14)

$M_t = m_8 + m_9 (1 - T_t) Y_t + m_{10} AR_t + w_t$ (15)

Where,

AR = Total tourist expenditures

Likewise cruise tourism expenditures and stopover tourism expenditures, total tourism expenditures directly affect investment, government spending and net foreign exchange, but it also indirectly affects consumption in a similar manner.

Discussion

In general, economic benefits of cruise tourism that are coming from various sources, such as spending of passengers and crews, operational spending of cruise lines, ship maintenance and related expenditures, port spending, tax spending to the government, insurances and some other service spending (Genç, 2015) positively affects global and regional economies, as statistics listed in UNTWO have shown. Cruise tourism provides new employment opportunities as well as compensation income for the agents that take part in the cruise tourism activity. The growth in the cruise ship industry is generally accompanied with demands for investment in ports (Seidl et. Al., 2006), and hence, cruise tourism provides strong impetus for reviving the economies of specific regions along with social, political and economic transitions (Dragin et. al., 2010).

However, cruise tourism generates some environmental impacts which tend to be negative. For instance, excessive amount of consumption and waste can be considered as the two main costs of the cruise tourism activity. Whenever there are people, there will always be waste, especially nowadays our capacity of having wastes increases ranging from packaged materials to technological waste (Genç, 2015). Furthermore, cruise tourism may lead to greenhouse gas emissions, which in turn, contributes to climate change in all over the world (Eijgelaar, Thaper & Peeters, 2010). Nevertheless, the impact of environmental sustainability has not been covered in this manuscript, since it requires a considerable amount of effort to explain the environmental impacts in detail and thus the scope of this paper has been limited to economic impacts.

In addition, as it has been mentioned before, oligopolistic tendencies of the economy lead all- inclusive hotels to dominate all economic activities (food and beverage services, entertainment etc.) around the port, hence insufficient facilities may prevent further development of cruise tourism although the activity itself has a capacity to generate employment opportunities and economic revenue, as the Keynesian model and UNTWO statistics suggest.

To develop a sustainable cruise tourism destination where multiple agents can benefit from the expenditures generated by cruise tourism activity, a non-profit organization (or government) should organize the economic activities in the purpose of developing cruise tourism at that particular destination, with a specific focus on financial support such as incentives and grants (Del Chiappa & Abbate, 2012). For instance, a part of revenues should be used for investment in cruise-tourism related areas (i.e. infrastructure, advertisement and promotion activities, etc.) which will maintain the revenues received by cruise tourism activity.

Marketing is of great importance in the development of cruise tourism likewise other type of touristic activities. Starting with the cost/price reductions, the particular destination can lure more tourists in the next rounds, despite not immediately. Facing with lower prices for port or tax charges, cruise lines would prefer these destinations to maximize their profits by decreasing their costs. Furthermore, these reductions would also reflect on tourists' preferences, as they would be more likely to visit cheap destinations to spend money and satisfy their needs. Thus, a general reduction in costs and prices would be an incentive for cruise lines, as well as for tourists to arrange their cruise journey accordingly.

Promotion of cruise tourism is also an important aspect for the development of cruise tourism. By using the means of technology and communication, a destination should promote its touristic capacity, such as natural and cultural richness; advertise its local specialties including local food and beverages; and highlight provided special services. Participating in tourism fairs to promote a destination's cruise tourism capacity would be also effective since face-to-face interaction is the best way of advertisement.

All in all, cruise tourism is capable of bringing significant positive impact; however the benefits are currently restricted in Atlantic area and a part of Europe. To increase the revenues derived from cruise tourism, marketing strategies such as price reductions and promotion should be followed. Although this paper could not have covered the positive impacts of cruise tourism with a case study, the results of this study will be intuitive for further investigations.

References

Brida, J.G., & Zapata, S. (2010). Economic impacts of cruise tourism: the case of Costa Rica. Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research 21(2), 322- 338.

Chase, G.L., & McKee D.L. (2003). Economic impact of cruise tourism in Jamaica. The Journal of Tourism Studies, 14(2), 16-22.

CLIA – Cruise Lines International Association & BREA – Business Research and Economic Advisors (2014), The global economic contribution of cruise tourism 2013

CLIA – Cruise Lines International Association & BREA – Business Research and Economic Advisors (2014), Contributions of cruise tourism to the economies of Europe 2014 edition

CLIA – Cruise Lines International Association & BREA – Business Research and Economic Advisors (2015), Contributions of cruise tourism to the economies of Europe 2015 edition

Del Chiappa, G., & Abbate, T. (2012). Resident's perceptions and attitudes toward the cruise tourism development: insights from an Italian tourism destination. In *Proceedings of the XXII International Conference Marketing Trends, Paris–Venice. Paris–Venice: Venezia: Marketing Trends Association*.

Dragin, A., Jovičći, D. & Bošković, D. (2010) Economic impact of cruise tourism along the Paneuropean Corridor VII, Economic Research-Ekonomska Istraživanja, 23:4, 127-141, DOI: 10.1080/1331677X.2010.11517438

Dwyer, L., & Forsyth, P. (1996). Economic impacts of cruise tourism. The Journal of Tourism Studies, 7(2), 36-43.

Dwyer, L., & Forsyth, P. (1998). Economic significance of cruise tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 25(2), 393-415.

Eijgelaar, E., Thaper, C. & Peeters, P. (2010) Antarctic cruise tourism: the paradoxes of ambassadorship, "last chance tourism" and greenhouse gas emissions, Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 18:3, 337-354, DOI: 10.1080/09669581003653534

Genç, R. (2015, April). *Sustainability in cruise ship management.* Paper presented at the conference IIBA 5, Florida, USA.

McDonald, J.F. (1997). Fundamentals of urban economics. New Jersey: Prentice

Hall. Seidl, A., Giuliano, F. & Pratt, L. (2006).Cruise tourism and community economicdevelopment in Central America and the Caribbean: the case of Coast Rica. PASOS Revista de Tourism y PatrimonioCultural, 4(2):

213-224 UNWTO (2012). Asia-Pacific Newsletter. Issue 25.

A Study on Festival Activities for Tourism in AOQI Pasture Village

Ao Qi (Aldrich)

Located in Xilinhot, which is a national tourism city, "China's Horse Capital", and the home of the People's Government of Xilin Gol League, Inner Mongolia, the AOQI Pasture Village, as a scenic spot for grassland folk culture, rests among the Xilin Gol grassland, formerly known as Xiadu ("Summer Capital") in China's Yuan Dynasty (this major capital of the Yuan Dynasty has also been selected by UNESCO and listed under "Intangible Cultural Heritage"). By focusing his research on grassland festival activities, the author has established the AOQI Pasture Village and has participated in the organization, planning, and implementation of all festival activities.

Contents and Development Situation of Festival Activities

During my involvement in comprehensive festival activities for tourism, I have focused on developing opening ceremonies, folk festival activities, and major festival activities.

1. Opening ceremonies
Opening ceremonies or celebrations are considered as the leading event of a festival activity, which brings wonder and touches the heart. It is the monumental work at the beginning of all festival activities. Taking our first opening ceremony for example, it stresses three key points: solemnness and warmth, distinctiveness, and true affections with touching emotions.

2. Solemnness and warmth
The opening ceremony of the grassland festival activities should be provided as a "solemn" ceremony as well as with "warm" sports and entertainment. Only by combining these two elements can the festival atmosphere be reflected. To provide tourists with the most enjoyable experience, the ceremony comes first. Scenes that influence the visual, the audio, and the spiritual aspects of the ceremony is concentrated as follows: when playing the theme song of the AOQI Pasture Village, when raising the Himori flag and playing the "Song of the Rising Himori", when a venerable old man offers fresh milk to the heaven and earth in the center of the opening ceremony, and when the herdsmen and tourists burn incense to sacrifice the Himori flag, all audiences become immersed in a solemn and sacred atmosphere. Naturally, at such time, almost everyone present feels the same emotion, expression, and breath. Everyone accepts the baptism of the ceremony, like a pilgrimage or a form of meditation. The sky of the spirit is clear and bright. There has never been a folk scenic spot on the grassland that has composed its own scenic spot song — a song of the pasture village. When playing melodious and powerful grassland music, "White clouds float among the blue sky. Our green hometown resides under those white clouds...The pastoral song flies away. The scent of fermented milk reveals the innermost feelings of the herdsmen...All sorts of flowers burst into a gorgeous bloom, and their fragrant smell stretches a great distance. The Naadam Festival is an ocean of exultation..." People's hearts soar upward and surge with the song, lingering there long after. "Himori" means the "horse of destiny" as well as the "horse of good fortune", and refers to the horse painted on the flag as a symbol of people's happiness, prosperity, and high morale

in their life. The horsehair on top of the flagpole is called "sulde" (or "tug"), which once served as the army flag or emblem of Genghis Khan, but now is merely a peaceful mascot. Each household on the ancient Mongolian grassland has its own Himori flag, a symbol of the family's psyche that has been passed down generation after generation. Ordinarily, they would burn incense to sacrifice the Himori at dawn's first light in the east everyday. They would also hold a memorial ceremony for each festival. In the festival activities of the AOQI Pasture Village, when raising the Himori flag, herdsmen would play the Himori song. With solemnness and vigor, they would sing, "The bright Himori is like the sun and the moon. The beautiful and fragrant Himori is like fresh flowers. The Himori has a kindness of the vast grassland. The Himori is the happiness of men and women, the young and the old…" As symbols capturing the spirit of the pasture village, the Himori and the Himori song steer people to a new artistic concept. At the time of burning incense to sacrifice the Himori, the feelings of the masses surge like invisible tidal water. When the banquet begins, it is especially warm. Singing the imperial court song, which must be sung on a banquet or festival folk song, is the chorus of all participants. The singing surges wave upon wave. People raise their glasses and drink in merriment with cheerful chatter. Everyone is exceptionally intoxicated, with solemnness or warmth as the purification of the mind and the moments of pure bliss.

3. Distinctiveness

Villagers and environment of the pasture village: (1) the workers are uniquely different as they are herdsmen there, and the entire family, both children and adults alike, are herdsmen; (2) the tourists room and board in traditional Mongolian yurts ("tentlike dwellings") of the herdsmen, and every family has designed indoor ornaments and decorations according to their usual lifestyle; and (3) inside and outside the pasture village are grassland, herdsmen, Mongolian yurts, cattle, horses, sheep, and camels, completely demonstrating the real grassland ecology.

Tourist service of the pasture village: (1) the pasture village has its own village song, welcoming songs, and the Himori flag as a symbol of the pasture village; (2) it has self-ordained ceremonies and procedures for reception, farewell, celebrations, and banquets; (3) the pasture village has its own website and traditional dietary products; (4) the herdsmen of the pasture village are not only receptionists/waitresses, but also wrestlers, horsemen, lassoers, tamers, singers, horsehead fiddlers (or "morin khuur"), and "players" of various ceremonies. All festival activities held in the pasture village are non-performative, and thus touching; and
(5), whenever tourists reach the pasture village, a grassland culture lecture will be held, and visits to the grassland and herdsman households will be arranged. In addition, academic exchanges with some tourism cultural delegations will take place.

Furthermore, various festival activities are planned with characteristics, highlights, and transcendence. Festival activities with the same nature in the AOQI Pasture Village provide a distinct experience in terms of uniqueness, style, and features. They will bring tourists different feelings and unique tastes. A very simple welcoming ceremony will bring a feeling of true dedication and affinity to tourists. A very simple toast song sung by herdsmen sounds so simple but yet touching. People's costumes are so gorgeous and colorful. Wrestling, horse racing, and lassoing scenes are so breathtaking and earthshaking as to unceasingly dazzle tourists. The indomitable struggle of wrestling, the splendidness and unique skills of horse

racing, and the thrilling lassoing with dauntless courage leave memorable impressions on guests.

4. True affections with touching emotions

At the opening ceremony of the pasture village, hundreds of herdsmen and tourists come here for congratulatory purposes, with their various congratulatory gifts, including cattle, sheep, and dairy products. Some of them even bring their entire family to offer their congratulations. At the celebration ceremony, the crowd is filled with zeal and excitement. With cheese and khata (a ceremonial scarf) in hand, they constantly chant "hooray", which aims to summon happiness. Even people from towns, who come to watch the fun, cannot help but join the celebration. Even the reporters who hurry here for the television program put down their cameras and microphones, and participate in the festival activities.

II. Cultural Activities of Folk Customs and Festivals

It is one of the main festivals with a profound historic connotation, a strong cultural flavor and the richest emotive elements.

1. Nadam Fairs of Different Scales

Broadly speaking, Nadam Fair refers to folk customs, sports and entertainment activities, also known as "HAIR". The basic contents of a traditional Nadam Fair include BUH (wrestle), horse racing and archery. Tourists like watching Nadam Fairs of different scales and contents when they travel to a nomadic village. A highlight of Nadam Fair is that most herdsmen are wrestlers, horse racers and archers. They need not search for sportsmen for Nadam Fair from the downtown, for at the nomadic village you can find as many as possible. There are also many horse racers and archers in the village. You won't feel any trace of performance in the Nadam Fair. The sports are real and wonderful, attracting and touching the tourists a lot. The strength and wisdom of the wrestlers are always applauded and praised by the tourists. Some wrestlers are neck and neck, and come out even after wrestling for half an hour or even a longer time, which makes the tourists nervous, and cheer for their preferred wrestlers. Some wrestlers might also get hurt in the fierce confrontation. The tourists admire their spirit and understand the meaning of wrestling in the grasslands. The more lively scene on the wrestling pits is the wrestle between tourists and herdsmen. Quite some tourists are also strong, but they usually cannot defeat the herdsmen. Children of tourists and herdsmen also wrestle. Children of herdsmen are little and short though, they can always defeat the bigger and taller children of tourists depending on their best combination of techniques and strength, which surprises the tourists a lot. A simple Nadam Fair has become a joyful get-together for tourists and herdsmen.

2. Horse Cultural Activities

Horse cultural activities are also a tourism item popular among the tourists. Firstly, they are for appreciation; secondly, they are for experiencing. The items for appreciation are mainly traditional items such as lassoing horses, taming horses and cutting horsehair. Herdsmen drive a herd of horses to the site for exhibition. Hundreds of horses are driven, which is an amazing scene. The scene of lassoing horses is soul-stirring. The struggle between the herdsmen and

the fiery horses is wonderful. The more fiery and bigger the horses are, the more difficult they are for the herdsmen to lasso. Some horses are too strong and big, which are almost wild horses. After chasing and failing for times, the herdsmen will finally manage to lasso the horses. Several herdsmen grasp the horsehair, while one herdsman ride on it to tame it for a while. The bravery and wisdom of the herdsmen and their skilled performance on the horse have won applauds from the tourists. Besides, the tourists also like items such as horse riding, riding a horse around the grassland, riding a horse for herding and drinking horse milk.

3. Three Folk Customs Ceremonies

A nomadic village is good at offering birthday congratulations, wedding and banquet. Birthday congratulations are mainly offered to the elderly above 80 years old. A grand wedding ceremony will be held for a new couple of the nomadic village. And a special folk custom banquet will be held for the tourists. Offering birthday congratulations--respect, wedding-- ceremonious, and banquet--solemn and joyful. The first ceremony highlights the traditional virtue of respecting the elderly at the grasslands since ancient time. A birthday celebration ceremony will be held successively for the elderly at 80 years, 85 years, 90 years and 95 years. Weddings are all held by nomadic households to highlight festive and diversified folk customs. The focus of a banquet lies in its etiquette details and procedures. The common features of various banquets are the ceremonies such as all sheep feast, beautiful expression of good wishes, singing royal songs, toasting and dancing.

III. Significant Festival Activities

Including welcoming ceremony, greeting cultural inspection delegations, tourism inspection delegations and news inspection delegations and various visiting activities and TV interview programs recording, etc. All these activities are held to receive a tourist group in the form of folk custom and festival activities. It has held successively large-scale greeting ceremonies for tourist groups; visiting activities of cultural inspection delegations; visiting activities organized by regional governments; media inspection activities of national news units and groups; special CCTV programs about Ha Zhabu and Hu Songhua; the special shooting program of Aoqi Nomadic Village, one of the large-scale report activities *Walk into Inner Mongolia*, shot by TV media nationwide organized by CCTV.

The grassland charm of the nomadic village characterized by three festival activities have left a deep impression on the tourists:

As tourists see, workers in the pasture village are all native herdsmen, and look different from others in appearance. Grassland, grassland herdsmen, grassland Mongolian yurts, grassland pastoral songs, and horsehead fiddles, all of which are real and authentic, present tourists with real grassland life, affections, emotions, and grassland landscape, as well as excellent traditional etiquette. In addition, sincerity, hospitality, and friendliness are well expressed at the ceremony. Like the magnet, the pasture village attracts people and tourists on the grassland. Upon arriving at this pasture village, many tourists from other places say, "We see the real grassland for the first time." After some foreign teams come here from other scenic spots, tourists kick up their heels for they think this is the real home of the grassland herdsmen.

In addition, a folklore expert, who quietly comes to the pasture village for observation, tells someone in charge of the tourism bureau that the herdsmen wearing colorful Mongolian costumes (old men aged 80+, children, cattle, and sheepdogs) make tourists feel right at home.

What do contemporary grassland people look like? What are the Mongolian people? This is what tourists also wish to know. Services provided by the pasture village are suitable for meeting such tourists' demands. Once tourists arrive at the pasture village, they are sure to take keepsake photos in front of the flag of the "destiny horse", take photos of the villagers in the group, and visit the pasture village, meadows, and Mongolian yurts. They have meals, chitchat, get together for events, and stay at the homes of herdsmen. Some even join herdsmen in putting animals out to pasture, boiling tea, and making dairy products.

What is behind tourism activities? It is the exchange and communication between people. Quite a few tourists come to the grassland out of admiration, wishing to experience the colorful festival activities of the grassland personally. They come to seek true love in the world. The grassland is broad and boundless, and the air is clean and cool. Here, simple and hospitable herdsmen play pastoral songs on a horsehead fiddle with magnificent artistry while offering people fermented milk with everlasting appeal. All of this immerses people into a quiet and beautiful fairyland, making them feel as optimistic as the wilderness and as pure as spring grass. In this pure and vast grassland, people journeying here feel reluctant to leave. A group of Japanese tourists spent three days at the pasture village, chatting and seeking entertainment with the herdsmen every night. An eighty-year-old man, who even invited the village head to visit Japan, was willing to cover all costs. In addition, a nine-year-old boy, who visited the pasture village with his mother, returned to the pasture village alone and stayed for nearly two months during the summer. He stayed and played with the children of the herdsmen, and even learned a little Mongolian. Despite a decent job, one young professional, who saw the AOQI Pasture Village's website, asked to put cattle out to pasture in the pasture village in exchange for merely room and board and no other requirements. By meeting the herdsmen, the tourists personally experienced the Naadam Festival, Mongolian weddings, birthday ceremonies, "destiny horse" fiestas, and other festival activities, while cultivating feelings towards the grassland culture. These enthusiastic and straightforward people attach importance to friendship, present true feelings, keep promises, observe politeness, respect seniors, and worship nature, all of which rocks their soul. Here is the affection that generates sentimental attachment; here is the smile that carries pure happiness; here is the song that sings in one's heart; and here is a dream that creates an everlasting yearning. All of this occurs upon singing the *Welcome Song of the Pasture Village*.

Analysis and Thinking of the Grassland Festival Activities for Tourism

I. Grassland festival activities are naturally joined by other forms of entertainment.

The grassland festival culture, which is comprised of sports competition and cultural entertainment, is generally referred to as Naadam (or just "Nair"), and it aims at keeping physically fit and mentally pleasant. Festival activities will result in joint forms of entertainment, an open mind, a high morale, inspiration and ambition, communication of information, and closer friendship, but enhance friendship and unity as the ultimate result.

Anyway, the fundamental purpose is to improve quality, reinforce emotional connections, and achieve solidarity and cohesion.

The grassland festival culture represents mankind's common activities, encompassing culture, sports, and entertainment while expressing a form of acculturation. Mankind's ancient culture of sports and entertainment is developed from the hunter-gatherer culture in the earliest period, so many of our festival activities continue to evolve even today. Among them, the Olympic Games and the Naadam Festival have a long history with lasting influence. The Naadam Festival dates back even further than the Olympic Games. Nowadays, the Olympic Games have become an international sports event, while the Naadam Festival represents an agglomeration and general name of various grassland festival activities. Evolving from ancient religious and sacrificial activities, both of them become strong brands of games, entertainment, and sporting events. The Olympic Games and the Naadam Festival, which evolve from the primitive age through winding paths that lead to a secluded spot, become equally significant events for different purposes. They are two dazzling flowers on a big tree; however, the difference is that the Naadam Festival needs further promotion and development. According to Yuval (2014), "The flourishing field of evolutionary psychology argues that many of our present-day social and psychological characteristics were shaped during this long pre-agricultural era. Even today, scholars in this field claim, our brains and minds are adapted to a life of hunting and gathering". The Olympic Games and the Naadam Festival are vivid examples.

The competitive nature of festival parties is a major feature of human survival and development. Why can man develop and transform faster than beast? "Gathering" is the main reason. Humans hold small gatherings at ordinary times and grand gatherings on a regular basis. Gathering for individuals is to exchange information and to supplement themselves, but gathering all of mankind develops advantages, abandons disadvantages, and promotes development. Festival parties can form an atmospheric field and amass a huge amount of energy, which is like nuclear fusion. Everyone is supplemented by this huge energy the same way as nuclear fission. More communication and exchanges develop faster, which is the advantage of mankind. The grassland culture, however, is a dynamic culture, and is unceasingly reborn while developing in a dynamic state. Festival parties are one of the propellants for dynamic cultures.

II. Grassland festival activities represent cultural activities involving strong participation of the masses.

The grassland festival culture includes entertainment competitions that feature happiness, friendship, harmony, unity, and interactive learning, all of which open the floodgates to affections and emotions that mutually mingle, surge, transcend, and develop, while demonstrating the human spirit of passion for nature, sincerity, enthusiasm, kind-heartedness, and dauntlessness. Such culture is the conventionalized self-entertainment and self-education activities people love to see and hear. On the Xilin Gol grassland, more than a hundred festival activities in varied forms are convened in succession every year, where participants numbering in the hundreds, thousands, and even tens of thousands gather.

Why do cultural activities of the festival in the grassland touch our heart? It is mainly due to the dynamics of the cultural activities. Such dynamics makes cultural activities vivid and bright, so all festival activities become dynamic and meet people's spiritual demand at a high level. "Resources and activities come first" indeed makes reasonable sense.

III. Grassland festival activities represent the biggest force to boost industries.

Scenic spots represent the core of all tourism, while cultural activities are the core of scenic spots. In addition, festival cultural activities are the core of cultural activities, whereas dynamic cultural activities of the festival are the core of festival cultural activities. Such cultural activities start at a high position with high cultural content and high added value. In addition to the strong influence and branding effects, such activities enjoy a great market share, which enable them to serve as the best business model.

Static things can be imitated and replicated, but it is difficult to imitate and replicate dynamic things. Festival activities of the same kind provide people with a different experience. Festival activities of their own unique features will not be imitated by others at will. One special skill can indeed earn bread anywhere, so the market will always come to you. If you develop the market, the market will bring you huge returns. The market-oriented culture of festival activities comes from creativity. Different kinds of creativity will yield different results and generate different returns. Unique creativity is always a selling point.

As a general representative for grassland festival activities, the Naadam Festival has become virtually synonymous with large and comprehensive festival activities, and has been added by UNESCO to its list of "Intangible Cultural Heritage". "Naadam" is also called "Nair". While the word "Naadam" highlights an outward manifestation, namely amusement, happiness, and recreation, the word "Nair" highlights a connotation, namely friendship, love, and friendship. The Naadam Festival must claim the brand name of festival entertainment activities convened in a modern and comprehensive manner on the grassland, as it not only contains sports competitions like those in the Olympics, but also comprise cultural entertainment of the World Carnival, Disneyland, and Universal Studios. It not only may be held at a fixed site like the Olympics Games, but also may be conducted in the mode of a mobile tour like the World Carnival. In addition to friendship, solidarity, fair competition, as well as faster, higher, and better spirit of the Olympic Games, it has revelry, feasting, and celebrating, as well as cultural and artistic performances of the World Carnival. In view of the above, the Naadam Festival is not only an effective form of a grassland cultural show, but also an effective platform to display Chinese culture and even world cultures. The Naadam Festival can be completely built into a high-end Chinese brand of cultural entertainment in the Oriental world. By inheriting, refining, transcending, enriching, transforming, and developing the historical and cultural brand of "Naadam" as well as considering the needs of modern life, we will build a trump card of grassland cultural activities for the festival–the Naadam Festival.

IV. Attributes of industry for festival activities

The attraction of the festival activities lies in that they are on-site living cultures, including dynamic culture, activity culture, service culture, and experience culture. In tourism, I

summarize on-site living cultures into the following 10 living cultures, which reflect 10 personalities: (1) ornamental culture (artistry); (2) entertainment culture (entertainment); (3) education culture (perception); (4) enlightenment culture (philosophy); (5) health care culture (health care); (6) cultivation culture (nourishing the heart); (7) friendly culture (friendship); (8) emotional culture (thought); (9) experience culture (sensitivity); and (10) authentic culture (nature).

These 10 cultures can form 10 industry forms in cultural tourism and become the top 10 cultural economies, namely (1) trust economy, (2) moral economy, (3) emotional economy, (4) experience economy, (5) exhibition economy, (6) entertainment economy, (7) competition economy, (8) ornamental economy, and (9) health care economy. The vitality and charm of the above cultures can demonstrate the activeness in activities alone while emitting fascinating flavors only in the dynamic state. Of course, the core of the 10 living cultures is moral culture, which is deeply moving and stirring. The greatest external attraction is the etiquette culture and entertainment culture, which are novel in form and full of charm. One type of festival culture features several properties. Some types of festival culture need to be combined with other cultures to form a better industry. For example, Mongolian costumes have great ornamental value. There are various large and small clothing performance groups on the grassland, providing performance for one or two hour(s) at a time. The music of horsehead fiddles is greatly appreciated. Now, there are many performance groups of horsehead fiddles on the grassland. First, a horsehead fiddle academy has been established on the Xilin Gol grassland, training both performers and admirers of the horsehead fiddle. Horse milk has special applications in health care. Large and small tourist attractions all have horse milk for tourists to drink. Xilin Gol Grassland Mongolian Medicine Hospital has a horse milk rehabilitation department to provide services for health workers. *Allium mongolicum* Regel (an Asian species of wild onion) is fresh and green on the grassland. A dish made with *Allium mongolicum* Regel is a particular favorite of tourists. Currently, dishes and buns featuring *Allium mongolicum* Regel are staple foods year-round. Some tourists visit the grassland scenic site to experience Mongolian life — residing in Mongolian yurts, drinking milk tea, riding a horse, grazing the land, and living there for two months at a time.

To form an industry, an individual intellectual brand, like "Naadam", is needed. It should have its own theory system for its cultural activities, scientific research products, and exterior modes of expression. An innovative system of theoretical thought and a mode and technology for creative thinking should form the heart and soul of that industry. It should be the source of intangible assets, and cultural activities for the festival should be the most lively and lifelike part. Knowledge, intelligence, wisdom, and creativity comprise the core advantages and the form for gathering capital and resources. Creativity, wisdom, and products and services should help the industry enter, secure, and maintain the market, respectively. With creativity as the core, the advantages of assets include creativity and innovation, branding, novelty and uniqueness in organization and planning, extensive social influence, and the convergence of high-caliber talents and social resources. Moreover, it includes a unique inspirational force, shock power, sensational cultural activities, high-level experience, and strong interactive cooperation between consumers at home and abroad. It also contains powerful social attraction and an interactive force of folk activities for the festival, while featuring a resonance

and emotional degree of new thought, new ideas, new methods, and new modes as well as thinking modes and technology.

References

Berentugs, G. (Ed.) (1999). *Mongolian folk encyclopedia (the spirit of volume)*.   Hohhot: Inner Mongolia Science and Technology Press.

Delger. (2012). *The origin and early development of the Naadam grassland culture study*. Hohhot: Inner Mongolia Education Publishing House, (7): 672-678.

Xiao, K. (2008). *Eighteenth century Naadam and its future development: The Naadam grassland*. 679-697.

Menhmandah. (2011). *A comparative study of the Naadam culture and Olympic culture*. Zhuang, K.-S. (Ed.). (2006). *An introduction to anthropology.* Beijing: China Renmin University Press.

Ridgway, J. (2011). *The cheese companion: A connoisseurs guide.* (Trans.). Shanghai: Shanghai Science and Technology Publishing House (Original work published in 2004)

Yuval, N. H. (2014). *Sapiens: A brief history of humankind*. New York: HarperCollins Publishers.

A Study on Ethical Tourism and Strategies

Lin Sun

Guilin Tourism University, China

Abstract

Ethical tourism has been developed in line with the global concerns about the effects of mass tourism. Mass tourism can bring potential negative impacts to host societies, environment, culture and economy instead of benefits. Using the secondary research, this paper analyses the negative effects of mass tourism and then, discusses how to efficiently manage tourism so as to benefit local communities. A number of case studies of tourism businesses' environmental policies have been analysed to compare and contrast their green approaches. Green tourism businesses will be a trend of customers' consumption and provide financial as well as environmental benefits in the future.

Key words: Ethical tourism; Negative effects; Strategies, Green hotels

Introduction

In recent years, people have become aware that mass tourism has negative effects to local communities. On the one hand, mass tourism has resulted in enormous impact on local environment. Environmental deterioration is worse and non-renewable resources have become more and more exhausted. Tourism brings great pressure on local resources, such as energy, food, and some raw materials, which may have been in short supply. Malviya (2005) points that tourism results in water shortages and degradation of water supplies, as well as producing water waste. Moreover, due to trade and hunting, a lot of wildlife habitats are disrupted. Some of the world's most ecologically fragile areas, including parks and natural world heritage sites are damaged. Furthermore, pollution has become a serious problem for local communities, such as emissions, noise, solid waste and littering. The air pollution from transportation, especially carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions, will contribute to severe local environment pollution. Malviya (2005) argues that the quality of the environment is necessary to tourism, whether it is natural and man-made. Many activities that can have adverse environmental effects and it includes the construction of general infrastructure such as roads and airports, and of tourism facilities, including resorts, hotels, restaurants, shops, golf courses and marinas. The negative impacts of tourism development can gradually damage the environmental resources. It also has an impact on local archaeological and historical places.

Natural environment should be protected by participants of tourism because of a sustainable development of destination and social responsibility. For tourism development less waste should be created. Furthermore, tourist visits' limit is given for less stress on the natural environment of tourism destinations. Build tourism infrastructure itself in a manner in order to protect the natural and cultural heritage of tourist destinations (Stipe, B., 2015).

In the other hand, mass tourism also can lead to social, economic and culture problems to local communities. Local communities are facing the rise of consumerism and the commodification of local cultures and environmental damages, which contributes to climate change and structural inequalities (Best & Paterson, 2010). Novelli (2005) states that local tourism industries can also be disruptive by raising prices in an area, and by forcing local businesses to compete with multi-nationals. Moreover, tourism has caused major changes in the structure, values and traditions of societies. Due to cultural conflict, tourism can lead to

loss or change in indigenous identity and value in local communities (Malviya, 2005). A decline in moral and religious values may increase crime levels. In many countries, tourists are not aware of local customs, traditions and standards, so offence is given without intent. What we should pay attention to is the scale or volume of tourism. Tourism carrying capacity is determined by locations and the availability of infrastructure. It is possible to product overcrowding and cause destruction of the physical, economic, socio-cultural environment to host cities and an unacceptable decrease in the extent of visitors' satisfaction if the numbers of tourists beyond the local tourism carrying capacity (Noreen, M. B. and Hugh, E. B. ,2015).

Literature Review

Definition of Ethical tourism

Ethical tourism come from the movement of European tourists who realized that tourism expenditure does not benefit local communities. It has grown quickly especially in Europe. As one of the main driving forces in tourism industry success, ethical tourists felt that they have responsibility to influence industry behaviour (Ivanovic, 2008). It is an attempt to manage tourism so as to benefit all stakeholders. Sustainable, community, green, responsible are various forms of ethical tourism. Environmentally ethical tourism includes nature tourism and green tourism.

The international ecotourism society promotes the ethical testimonial of green holidays. Society claims that eco-tourism and ethical tourism offer different ways to recover the negative effects of mass tourism, such as helping to replenish ecosystems, supporting ancient species and keeping their living places safe, preserving local culture and developing sustainable local economies (Tribe, 2009)

The United Nations World Tourism Organization's 'Global Code of ethics for Tourism' was carried out in July, 2001. It points out that tourism should be implemented the following so as to become more ethical:

Contribute to mutual understanding and respect between peoples and societies; Operate as a vehicle for individual and collective fulfillment; Be a key factor in sustainable development; Contribute to the enhancement of the cultural heritage of humankind; Be a beneficial activity for host countries and communities; Take account of the obligations of stakeholders in tourism development; Work towards tourism as a human right; Protect the liberty of tourist movements; Protect the rights of the worker and entrepreneurs in the tourism industry; Implement the principles of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism (Best & Paterson, 2010).

Benefits of Ethical Tourism

In theory, tourism can bring benefits for local community, such as money for the local economy, new jobs and new business opportunities. It is a positive tool to raise public awareness of the significance of heritage conservation (Cityweekend, 2006). "Tourism favors the creation of jobs, the development of infrastructure, the promotion of culture, and the safeguarding of natural areas, thus representing an important opportunity to combat poverty (ZENIT news agency, 2009)."

Ethical Consumer issues

In the UK, it is an increasing trend that consumers actively look for ethical products. More than one in four consumers strongly supports ethical consumption. 27% tourists argued that

a travel operator's ethical policies are a significant aspect for them when choosing which one they will be with (Novelli, 2005).

The ethical nature of tourism's interactions, especially between host and guest, and social responsibility in tourism, are the centre of ethical tourism. Due to ethical concern, the local people should be educated to learn local culture, speaking the local language and respect local tradition (Ateljevic, 2008). Malviya (2005) points out that tourists' consumer behaviours can affect local communities in an ethical way. They can also make a positive contribution to local development by using local services and staying in locally-run guesthouse, respecting local people, learning local culture and caring about environment on their holiday. With local government support, halting multinational control of tourism and choosing locally produced products and services will contribute to local community's economy (Ateljevic, 2008). Ethical tourism attaches importance to the way of protecting and increase local economies and communities. You can insist on living in a locally owned hotel or going shopping in a store where they employ local people and sells local goods (Porter & Prince, 2009).

Methodology

To explain ethical tourism and strategies in the development of ethical tourism to promote sustainable environments, a secondary research approach was adopted. In this section a number of tourism businesses' environmental policies are presented and analysed.

Findings

Tour operators

Well-organised tourism can favour contacts between holidaymakers and the local communities, encourage cultural exchange, lead to friendly and responsible enjoyment and consider the environmental conservation. Ivanovic (2008) argues that tour operators are called upon to prove they will not damage the natural resources of host destinations for their benefits. More and more famous tour operators and travel agencies are trying their best to consider the interest of host destinations.

In less than a decade, ethical awareness has turned into obligatory strategies, policies which manage and conduct tourism industry to benefit local communities and people.

Discovery Initiatives is one of specialist operators. They sell quality, tailor-made holidays and their directors attach importance to trading ethically and wildlife conservation. Discovery Initiatives plan their trips following the objectives in mind (Novelli, 2005).

To gain the full backing and cooperation of the host nation's authorities where necessary, and to obtain permission for our work and to undertake (by DI or their agents) full and proper reconnaissance of each area of operation.

To use local accommodation, food and services in planning the programme,

To plan their ventures so that both the local people and the traveler participants achieve the maximum benefit in terms of cultural interaction, awareness and understanding

To ensure that participants see the full picture, are made aware of the issues and concerns facing the tribal communities DI visit and the conservation of wildlife and resources in each area.

To ensure that all participants have been fully briefed about country, its customers, cultures and its sensitivities and sensibilities, through pre-departure gatherings, tour leader briefings and /or tour dossiers

To teach participants wherever necessary to act correctly and with due reverence and respect to cultures and customers, and encourage the learning of key words of the local language to facilitate this

To involve the local community in planning and decision-making at all times, employing them wherever necessary at acceptable rates of pay

Continually to assess the environmental, social and economic impact of their visit, so as to avoid over dependency

To avoid any activity that results in cruel treatment of animals, or interference in their natural way of life

To undertake each venture, wherever possible, with the maximizing benefits accruing to the host communities.

Discovery Initiatives work with local communities and conservation organizations, such as Conservation Worldwide, the Worldwide Fund for Nature, The Wilderness Trust and the Endangered Wildlife Trust, which can help them fund important projects and improve the awareness of conserve environment. In the same time, the company spent money on various global conservation initiatives so as to provide local communities with the economic, ethical and environmental motives to protect their environment and culture. It is not only offers special experience for travelers, but also actively benefits local well-being (Novelli, 2005).

Green Hotels

Greenpeace movement commenced in 1971 and now they have 120 million members. Without government funding, the Greenpeace movement has grown rapidly, because of members who are passionate and strongly committed to the cause of 'greening'. It was reported that an increasing number of tourists may refuse travel to a destination repeatedly because green issues are ignored in this area (Jayawardena, 2003). With increasing customer's demands in green issues, it puts emphasis on running a businesses by pollution-free, green environment and environmentally sensitive ways. Tourism has the potential to produce positive effects on the environment by protecting and conserve environment. It offers a chance to raise awareness of environmental values and it can finance protection of natural places as a tool and increase their local economy (Novelli, 2005).

In different countries, green legislation can be found in their national laws, regulations and rules, as well as states, local and industry standards which stimulate the development of green hotels.

In China, March 2006, the National Tourism Administration of the PRC promulgated the first hospitality industry standards for green hotels. In September 2007, the PRC published the first state standards on green hotels. The local government provided quasi "symbolic" financial incentives for green hotels. At the end of 2007, nearly 200 four or five stars were awarded to green hotels. In 2008 the National Tourism Administration of the PRC suggested tourism corporations and hotels in China use various measures to save energy. The specific measures included energy-saving measures, boiler oil-saving measures, air-conditioner electricity-

saving measures, lighting electricity-saving measures, water saving measures and building energy conservation measures (Kirk, J.,2009).

XU Lingling (2014) stated that URBN Hotels, Shanghai opened in 2008 brought the concept of environmental protection. The interior design of the hotel is as far as possible recycling and reuse. The floor and wall are decorated with old bricks. The chairs in guests' rooms are made from paper, with handmade sofa cushions. Especially the clothes poles are old bamboos, which makes elder guests recall the situation of hanging out clothes at home. It not only embodies the idea of advocating environmental protection, but also exudes a strong smell of old Shanghai.

Govert Deketh, Chairman of the Environment Committee, Marriott London Business Council pointed out their focus on environment sustainability, their "spirit to preserve". They added an environmentally-sensitive approach to all of their business functions. In the aspect of food and beverage, they encouraged the usage of organic products through working with locals and local restaurants so as to satisfy the needs of the customers requesting green foods. As for the facilities of hotels, they support the linen re-use programs, recycling areas and enhanced efficiency of the laundry service (Doggrell, 2009).

Hoteliers of large-scale hotels, such as Hilton Hotels, InterContinental Hotels and Ramada Hotels, have made various regulations and environment-friendly designs to help build green hotels and reduce the negative impact on the local environment. Simon Vincent, Area President, Europe, Hilton Hotels Corporation stated they had noticed that hotels were high consumers of utilities, especially energy and water, and also generated a high volume of waste across the operation. It is important to reduce impact and leave a positive long-lasting effect on the local environment (Lain, 2014).

In 2008 there was a global sustainability program across all Hilton Hotels. Doggrell, K. (2009) points out by 2014 this initiative aims to:

Reduce energy consumption from direct operations by 20%

Reduce CO_2 emissions by 20%

Reduce output of waste by 20%

Reduce waste consumption by 10%

Ramada has energy-conservation strategies throughout their group. In the Caribbean, they applied solar energy to power lighting and ceiling fans. In tropical areas, sliding doors and windows are fitted with connectors. Timers are also used to shut off power to lights and equipment when not in use. In the UK, Ramada hotels preserve energy through the installation of low-energy lighting products (Parsippany, 2014).

David Jerome, Senior Vice President, Corporate Responsibility, InterContinental Hotels Group stated that they gathered the knowledge and expertise to help their hotels manage their energy consumption more effectively and they developed Green Engage, their own standard specific for hotels. The system gives hotels good guidance on how to improve their programs, which includes operations and process, water, electrical and mechanical (Doggrell, 2009).

The Impacts of green hotels

There are some benefits from the development of green hotels (David, 1996). Firstly, the hotel owners and local cities can benefit from reduced operating expenses. It has been found that some accommodations adopt energy efficiency, water conservation and waste management systems that reduce the costs of hotel operation and local resource wastage (Erdogan & Tosun, 2009). In turn, these reduced costs could be used in improving or expanding hotel facilities and local communities' infrastructures.

Secondly, in this respect, it can help hotels and local community to win a higher level of repeat business because guests can benefit because the efficiently controlled hotels satisfy their needs at a lower cost. Thirdly, local workers benefit through increased job satisfaction, lower rates of absenteeism and lower workers turnover.

Last but not least, there are significant benefits to the environment. In the UK & Ireland, action that focuses on energy management over the past three years has led to a total elimination of over 45,000 tons of CO2. In continental Europe, this program led to savings of more than 15% and cut water consumption by 8%, the equivalent of 280 Olympic sized swimming pools (Doggrell, 2009). It is proved that effectively managing and carrying out green hotel initiatives can have a positive effect in the environment of local communities.

In addition, this increases consumers' environmental awareness. XU Lingling (2014) points out that in order to implement the management of the green business philosophy and achieve the goal of the greening hotel, hotels have to form a specific regulations system, which make employees gradually establish and strengthen the concept of green. At the same time, hotels should carry out the full training on employees for green consciousness, so as to establish the green marketing concept and green service awareness such as Hongkong ISL hotel's establishment of a Green Committee, in which was set up a full-time environmental management Personnel, EMS manager and ISO14001 supervisor. Through repeated staff training, it strengthened the significance of the hotel green plan and awareness of green management and operation. On the other hand, it did a good job of green propaganda, promoted green consumption concept for the public. Similarly, many hotels in Australia offer discounts on guests' rooms to guests who support environmental protection.

Travelers increasingly notice how their travel decisions impact on local environment. The situation continues to focus on reducing carbon around the world as a hotel company's approach to sustainability will increasingly become an important factor of customers' choice of quality accommodation. A new hotel development which doesn't connect closely with the natural environment may not attract tourists, who may choose accommodation that respects environmental principles, especially increasing concern for the environment shown by tourists throughout the world.

Conclusion

Mass tourism has negative influence in local communities from the aspects of environment, society and economy and culture. With the awareness of mass tourism's negative effects over positive effects, ethical tourism derives from Europe and has developed rapidly. The attempt to carefully manage tourism will benefit local communities. First, promoting ethical consumption, such as using local service, local products, learning local traditional culture, is a key to local communities' development. Second, for tour operators, stimulating them to consider the interest of host destinations and make obligatory strategies, policies which manage and conduct tourism industry will benefit local communities and people. Third, with

increasing environmental awareness of consumers, Green hotels have become an important part of customers' choice in local hotel accommodation. Increasing numbers of green hotels help hotels and host communities obtain the optimum benefit to the environment whilst trying not to threaten the financial benefit of the hotels. These strategies come from environmentally-friendly design, green legislation and energy management, which can provide financial as well as environmental benefits.

References

Ateljevic,I.(2008) Backpacker Tourism: Concepts and Profiles[M]. Channel View, UK. Best, J.& Paterson, M.(2010)Cultural Political Economy[M]. Routledge, London. Breakey, N.M. and Breakey, H.E., (2015) Tourism and Aldo Leopold's "cultural harvest":
creating virtuous tourists as agents of sustainability[J]. Journal of Sustainable Tourism. Vol.23, No.1. 85-103.

Doggrell, K. (2009) Green Giants[J]. *Hotel Report.* Vol.28, No.3.

Erdogan, N. & Tosun, C. (2009) Environmental Performance of Tourism Accommodations in the Protected Areas: Case of Goreme Historical National Park [J]. *International Journal of Hospitality Management.* Vol.28, Issue.3.

Ivanovic, M.(2008) Cultural Tourism[M]. Juta & Company, South Africa.

Jayawardena (2003) Sustainable Tourism Development in Canada: Practical Challenges[J].*International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management.* Vol.15, No.7.

Kirk, D. (1996) Environmental Management for Hotels[M]. Musselburgh, ButterworthHeinemann.

Lain.T.(2014) Energy Efficient Controls for Hiltion Hotels. http://blog.titanproducts.com/energy-efficient-control-hilton-hotels/-access 2016- 11-20.

Malviya, S.(2005) Tourism: Tourism, Environment and the Society[M]. Isha Books, India.

Novelli, M.(2005) Niche Tourism: Contemporary Issues, Trends and Cases[M].ButterworthHeinemanm, Oxford.

Parsippany, N.J.(2014)Wyndham Hotel Group. http://wyndhamworldwide.com/taxonomy/term/158/all- access 2016-11-20.

Porter, D. & Prince, D.(2009) Frommer's Germany[M]. Wiley Publishing, New Jersey. Stipe, B. (2015) An Analysis of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism in the Context of Corporate Social Responsibility. Acta Economica Et Turistica[J]. Vol.1, No.1-2, 41- 57.

Tribe, J.(2009) Philosophical Issues in Tourism[M]. Channel View, UK.

Xu Lingling(2014)The Research of Existing Problems and Strategy in Implementation of Green Management in Domestic Hotels[J]. *Journal of Fujian Institute of Socialism*. No.5. 106-120.

ZENIT News Agency(2009) Vatican Appeals for Ethical Tourism[J]. *Global Scene.*Vol.19, No,1.

Development on the Recreational Diving Tourism in Mainland China

Sha Fang
City University of Macau
Xin Li
City University of Macau

Abstract

In recent years, diving tourism has developed rapidly in Mainland China, but it didn't receive enough attention to academia in Mainland China. The article used a literature study to reveal the developmental profile of Chinese recreational diving tourism. The development of Chinese recreational diving tourism could be divided into four stages: The initial stage (before 1995), the starting stage (from 1995 to 2002), the developing stage (from 2002 to 2010), and the popular stage (from 2010 to present). The facing problems, possible solutions and future development about recreational diving tourism in Mainland China were also discussed in the paper.

Keywords: recreational diving tourism, Mainland China, development stages.

Background

The purpose of this paper was to reveal the development profile of Chinese recreational diving tourism by means of literature study. "Participation in recreational SCUBA diving increased dramatically during the 1980s and continued to rise in the 1990s, promoting authors to claim that SCUBA diving was fastest growing recreational activity in the world" (Stolk, Markwell & Jenkin, 2007, p. 336).

Diving is a tourist and recreational activity of growing significance in many countries. According to Windsor (1996), in 1994 the GBRMP (Great Barrier Reef Marine Park) dive industry generated annual revenue in excess of AUD$103 million (100 AUD ≈ 73.67 USD). Professional Association of Dive Instructors (PADI), the largest SCUBA dive certification agency in the world, reported some 526,904 new diver certifications in 2000 (refer to www.padi.com for details).

40 million American tourists dived all over the world, and in France there were 2,000 SCUBA (Self-Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus) diving clubs while the population of France is only about 40,000,000 (Gao & Wu, 2004). The number of SCUBA diving coaches in Hong Kong was as many as five times of that in Mainland China (Ying, 2003). In recent years, there were more than 40,000 tourists diving in Sanya, China, producing output values of 100 million RMB (1 US dollar ≈ 6.9 RMB, 1 GBP ≈ 8.9 RMB). In addition, diving and associated programmes stimulated by diving generated more than 300 million RMB profit (Su, 2009). But this issue has not attracted enough attention in the field of academic research in Mainland China.

The Definition of Recreational Diving in Mainland China

Wen et al. (2004) defined recreational diving as underwater entertainment activity which rose world-widely from 1950s. Zhai (2010) pointed out that recreational diving was an underwater entertainment sport activity which can be divided into snorkeling and SCUBA diving. Liu et al. (1999) believed that recreational diving was an underwater entertainment sport which included underwater tourism, underwater photography, underwater shooting, cave diving and

ice diving. However, cave diving and ice diving require more professional skills and trainings. In most cases, cave diving and ice diving need a professional group to support in order to accomplish the diving activity, so it might not be included in recreational diving. And free diving is also a popular diving form which was not mentioned much in the previous literature. Therefore, combining the adventure sport nature of diving activity, the paper defines recreational diving in Mainland China as an underwater adventure sport activity including SCUBA diving, underwater photography, snorkeling and free diving.

Four Development Stages of Diving Tourism in China

Recreational diving does not have a long history in Mainland China. According to the present literature, the development of diving tourism in Mainland China could be divided into four stages: the initial stage, the starting stage, the developing stage and the popular stage.

The initial stage (before 1995) The first diving school was established in 1960 in Zhanjiang (Chen & Su, 2010) for military purposes only. In 1986, the Chinese diving coaches from Zhanjiang guided 26 American tourists diving in Sanya, which was the first diving tourism activity in Hainan Province (Chen, 2016). With the arrival of the first professional diving coach at Sanya, the first diving company was set up in Sanya of the year 1988 (Wang, 2012). In this stage, some foreign divers from developed countries, such as U.S.A. and France, tried to practice diving activities in Mainland China. However, because of the insufficient diving equipment in Mainland China at that time, divers had to carry all the necessary equipment including SCUBA oxygen tank and diving decanting facilities all the way from their home countries, which made diving in Mainland China very expensive and inconvenient. And diving activities of Mainland China in this stage was mainly for professional or military purposes, such as salvage operation and rescue wreck.

The starting stage (from 1995 to 2002) The first SCUBA diving club – Chinese International Diving Club – was founded on March 18, 1995 (Zhai, 2010), which marked the starting point of the development of Chinese recreational diving. At this time, the diving training was administered by CMAS (Confédération Mondiale des Activités Subaquatiques, also called World Confederation of Underwater Activities, which is the only official diving organization recognized by the World Olympic Movement Committee. C.M.A.S. was established in 1958. It currently has 134 members worldwide, including China, and there are more than 100 million CMAS diving members all over the world).

In 1995, some businessmen from HongKong and Taiwan tried to combine diving industry and tourism industry together in order to create a new tourism form in Hainan Province (Wang, 2012). Recreational diving tourism began to develop from that moment on. The most common forms of diving in Mainland China in this stage were experiential SCUBA diving, club type diving and voluntary organized diving (Su, 2009). The experiential SCUBA diving was that the SCUBA diving company cooperated with travel agencies to manage diving tourism. Travel agencies took charge of marketing and promotion to attract tourists. And SCUBA diving companies were responsible for providing very limited training to the tourists, then the diving coaches helped diving tourists practice diving actions underwater. The experiential SCUBA diving was normally conducted in the depth of five to twelve meters underwater. In Mainland China, the experiential SCUBA diving was mainly conducted in Sanya. It could meet the tourists' desires of being into the ocean without any diving skills or trainings. In western countries, certain certificate (e.g. PADI Open Water Certificate) was required if people wanted diving. Thus, the experiential SCUBA diving was a special tourism product mainly opened to the tourists from Mainland China. Diving clubs provided training and organized diving activities for only club members. In U.S.A. and European countries, this was the most common form of diving tourism

activity. Voluntary organized SCUBA diving meant that a group of divers used their own dive equipment to organize diving activities voluntarily. Divers knew each other during various diving activities, and they practiced diving activity in groups or with diving buddies for their personal enjoyment.

In this stage, diving was known as the "elite sport" or "rich man's game". Just few people could afford this kind of diving tourism. At this stage the diving equipment industry in Mainland China just started, and could not meet the demands of divers. Most diving equipment had to be imported (Su, 2009).

The developing stage (from 2002 to 2010) Up to 2006, there were 103 registered diving clubs in Mainland China. And the club distribution could also reflect the diving market distribution in Mainland China (see Table 1). The diving clubs were mainly in coastal cities (81%), and Guangdong and Hainan provinces have nearly half clubs (47.6%). And Up to 2010, the number of registered diving clubs increased to 132 in Mainland China (Zhang & Tao, 2013).

Table1 Distribution of Diving Clubs in Mainland China in 2006.

No.	Province	No. of Clubs	Percentage	No.	Province	No. of Clubs	Percentage
1	Guangdong	27	26.2 %	2	Hainan	22	21.4 %
3	Beijing	15	14.6 %	4	Shanghai	11	10.7 %
5	Liaoning	9	8.7 %	6	Guangxi	5	4.9 %
7	Shandong	5	4.9 %	8	Fujian	2	1.9 %
9	Hunan	2	1.9 %	10	Zhejiang	2	1.9 %
11	Chongqing	1	1 %	12	Jiangsu	1	1 %
13	Yunan	1	1 %				

Source: Adapted from Su (2009).

In this stage, the diving training was open to other international diving organizations, such as PADI (Professional Association of Diving Instructors), NAUI (National Association of Underwater Instructors), SSI (SCUBA Schools International) ADS (Association of Diving School International) and AIDA (Association Internationale pour le Developpement de l'Apnee; free diving).

In Mainland China, the most popular diving sites were mainly in Hainan Province in this stage. Ximaozhou Coral Island of Sanya received over 200,000 divers each year, and the Amusement Sea World in Ximaozhou Coral Island became the biggest SCUBA diving club in the world (Su, 2009). Based on the sample survey of tourism statistics in 2008, there were 12 diving enterprises in the city of Sanya, and every four tourists in Sanya would participate diving related activities (Wang, 2012). Recreational diving played a very important role in Sanya tourism. At the same time, Hainan Shan Haiwo Water Sports Development Company was formally established in Sanya Little East Sea diving base. This is the first diving enterprise that could officially issue PADI open water diving certificate. Sanya has become one of the most

visited diving destination in the world. Meanwhile, Sanya gained more than 600 million RMB (1 US dollar ≈ 6.9 RMB, 1 GBP ≈ 8.9 RMB) in 2009 just from recreational diving related tourism (Wang, 2012).

From 2006, the revenue from the experiential SCUBA diving had an average annual growth rate of 30 percent, and experiential SCUBA diving related revenue was 450 million RMB in 2010 in Mainland China (Chinese Underwater Association).

The popular stage (from 2010 to present) The number of Chinese divers has increased dramatically in this stage. In Mainland China, there are 1.5 million tourists participating experiential SCUBA diving every year, and among them about 30 percent participants were willing to get diving certificate in order to become a real diver (Zhang, 2013). Moreover, the number of registered diving clubs increases to 193 in Mainland China until now (Chinese Underwater Association).

In this stage, Chinese divers began to dive in overseas destinations. Sabah tourism board of Malaysia announced that there were 2,075 Chinese tourists diving in Sabah in 2010, and that number increased to 20,462 in 2012, which made China the largest diving tourist market of Sabah (Gu, 2013). Apart from Southeast Asia, Chinese divers could be seen all over the world, such as Australia, Palau, Cuba, Egypt, Sudan, Bahamas, South Africa and Ecuador. Diving is becoming a new fashion among the middle class in Mainland China.

According to the research of the present situation about recreational diving in the west region of Guangdong Province by Chen (2012), the diving tourism activities might be categorized into three forms in this stage: experiential SCUBA diving, certificate oriented diving and tourism oriented diving. The price of experiential SCUBA diving ranges from 80 RMB to 280 RMB (1 US dollar ≈ 6.9 RMB, 1 GBP ≈ 8.9 RMB).per dive in the west region of Guangdong Province, which is much cheaper than that in Sanya. Certificate oriented diving means that tourists take part in diving activities in order to get an authorized diving certificate. Take CMAS for example, the price of getting the first star certificate ranges from 2500 RMB to 4000 RMB (Chen, 2012). Tourism oriented recreational diving is that tourists go to a destination for the purpose of diving. Tourism oriented recreational diving normally include liveaboard (In the recreational scuba diving industry, a liveaboard service offers its guests to stay on board for one or more nights, unlike a day boat operation. This allows time to travel to more distant dive sites), underwater photography, etc. Certificate oriented diving and tourism oriented diving are the main forms of diving tourism in Mainland China now. Moreover, in this stage, almost all the international diving organizations can be found in Mainland China

Recreational diving tourism was developing well in Hainan Province, and the diving sites and diving companies are already very mature in Sanya (see Table 2 and Table 3). In addition to Hainan Province, other famous diving sites in Mainland China included Qiandao Lake in Hangzhou, Double Moon Bay in Huizhou, Miaowan Island in Zhuhai, Weizhou Island in Beihai, etc.

Table 2 The Diving Sites Development Status in Sanya, Hainan Province

Location	Recreational diving activities	Major Diving Company/Club
Dadonghai	Reef diving, high seas diving, fringing reef diving, artificial fish reef diving, luxury boutique diving	Haiyu 18 degrees Diving

	package (including two diving sites), wreck diving				
Yalong Bay	Dongpai coral reef diving, Xipai coral reef diving, Dongpai and Xipai (PADI) professional diving, experiential SCUBA diving, license diving		The Aegean Sea Diving Resorts		
Wuzhizhou Coral Island	Half diving sightseeing boat, shore diving, boat diving, night diving, professional diving, snorkeling, boutique diving package, luxury open water diving		Wuzhizhou Coral Island Diving		
West Island in Sanya	Experiential SCUBA diving, fringing reef diving, coral reef diving, boat diving, luxury high seas boat diving package (including two diving sites)		Sanya West Island Diving Center		

Source: Adapted from Wang (2012).

Table 3 The Price of Recreational diving tourism in Sanya, Hainan Province (RMB)

	Experiential SCUBA diving	Fringing reef diving	Reef diving	Boat diving	Professional diving
Dadonghai	320	320	460	580	
Yalong Bay	350	350	450		
Wuzhizhou Coral Island	320	380		580	780
West Island in Sanya	260	360	420	540	

Source: Adapted from Wang (2012).

In 2015, the revenue of the experiential SCUBA diving was 2.133 billion RMB in Mainland China (Chinese Underwater Association). And diving suit market increased rapidly in this stage (see Figure 1). Figure 1 shows that the revenue of diving suit industry in Mainland China increases almost 5 times from the year 2006 to 2015.
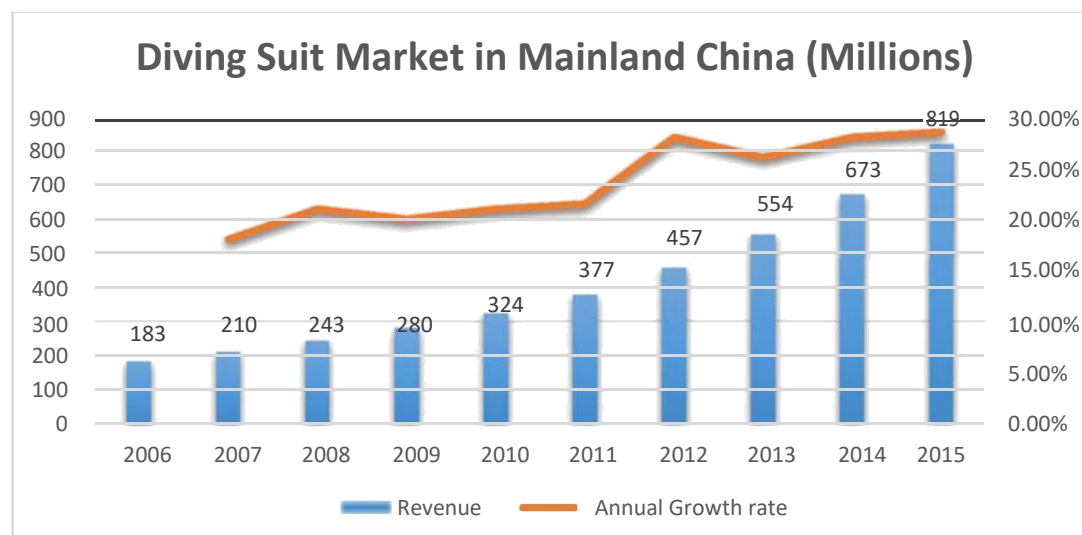
Figure 1 The Revenue of Diving Suit Industry in Mainland China (2015).

Source: China Diving & Salvage Contractors Association

The Main Problems of Recreational Diving Tourism in Mainland China

The most obvious problem of recreational diving in China is that most diving sites are less attractive because of the location, overfishing and over-diving (Jameson, et al., 2007; Serour, 2004). In terms of climate, most Chinese maritime territory is not suitable for year round diving activities (most parts of China are too cold to do recreational diving). In Northern China (e.g., Qingdao and Dalian) there are only about 3 months which are suitable for recreational diving. Furthermore, the underwater environments and visibility in Northern China are not good enough. The main dive sites in Mainland China are around in Guangdong and Hainan Provinces. However, because of overfishing and over diving activities (Jameson et al., 2007), the diving sites in Guangdong have been destroyed badly, and the diving sites conditions in Hainan are not going well either. Based on the research of Giglio, Luiz & Schiavetti (2015), there are kinds of marine life preferences and perceptions among recreational divers, then, if Chinese diving sites have no much marine life to see, divers would go somewhere else.

The second problem is that the diving related tourism in China was lack of administration and supervision. In 2012, Fenjiezhou Island and Wuzhizhou Island in Hainan were received a class action about forced consumption, over charging and using the composite photos to cheat tourists (Zhang & Tao, 2013). Diving tourism is a new form of tourism in Mainland China, and the rules and regulations on how to control or manage the diving business are not elaborated clearly.

The third problem is that Chinese divers need improving the awareness of the issues of environmental preservation / protection. Lots of Chinese divers take out some part of corals as a diving souvenir (Zhai, 2010), and sometimes they even touch or hunt underwater animals. These activities can bring serious damage on the underwater environment. Another underwater damage was made by divers' underwater behaviors. "Certain dive and diver characteristics have been linked to underwater damage. Inexperienced divers, those with less than 100 dives, may be more likely to damage the reef than experienced divers. Male divers, camera use and the initial phase of the dive are also associated with increased levels of reef damage. Fins cause most damage to the reef, followed by hands, knees and equipment gauges" (Barker & Roberts, 2004, p. 490).

The fourth problem is that diving safety has become a serious consideration in Mainland China. Cases of diving tourist missing or death have been reported in Mainland China every year. According to the research of Su (2010), there are ten major reasons of diving accidents in Mainland China (see Table 4).

Table 4 Top Ten Reasons of Diving Accidents in Mainland China.

No.	Reasons	No. of Accidents	Percentage
1	under-training	102	32.7 %
2	false diving plan	66	21.2 %
3	panic underwater	23	4.4 %
4	wrong guided	21	6.7 %
5	high pressure barrier	20	6.4 %
6	physiological dysfunction	19	6.1 %
7	insufficient air	18	5.8 %
8	overconfidence	17	5.4 %
9	equipment failure	16	5.1 %
10	tracked underwater	10	3.2 %

Source: Adapted from Su (2010).

The fifth problem is diving coach shortage in Mainland China. There are only 10 PADI diving coaches in Beijing in the year 2003 (Liu, 2014). The average diving coach salary is 5,000 – 6,000 RMB(1 US dollar ≈ 6.9 RMB, 1 GBP ≈ 8.9 RMB) per month in Beijing. However, a diving enthusiast needs at least 50,000 RMB in order to be a PADI open water diving instructor, not mention the time consuming. Diving takes more time and money than other sports. Until 2014, there are 181 diving enthusiasts obtained the qualification of recreational diving instructor, of which 78 recreational diving instructors are in Beijing, and they worked in 24 different diving clubs. In addition, the number of recreational diving instructors increases 15 percent every year (Shao, 2014). Nevertheless, it could not meet the diver's growth requirement in Mainland China.

The Possible Solutions to Those Problems

In order to improve the diving tourism in China, five solutions might be tried. First, building artificial reefs and underwater theme park might be a solution to the destroyed and unattractive underwater environment. Stolk, Markwell and Jenkins (2007) pointed out that artificial reefs were beneficial for both environmental protection and recreational SCUBA diving. According to the research of Australia recreational SCUBA divers, diving in artificial reefs area had a good divers' satisfaction (Stolk, Markwell & Jenkin, 2005). Van Treeck and Schuhmacher (1998) suggested that underwater theme park be developed with specifically designed modules' that addressed diver training, environmental education and ecological rehabilitation.

Second, safety and surveillance might be strengthened to safeguard the diving related tourism (Su, 2010). Safety procedures should not only be framed for preventing diving accidents, but there is also the need to learn how to best deal with the aftermath of diving accidents. For minor errors, divers can follow the safety procedures learned in training class, which is diver self-help first, and then ask diver partners for help. If diving accident occurs, divers or related people should follow the procedures as Figure 2 indicated. When the accident confirms, the rescue measures should be implemented timely, and the relevant departments or personnel need to get in touch. The relevant departments or personnel include Chinese national or local search and rescue center, Marine Police, Rescue center, Hospital, Chinese local government, on-the- spot rescue, families or unit of accidents (Please see Figure 2 for details). In addition, one way of keeping safe for both divers and corals is by divers' education.
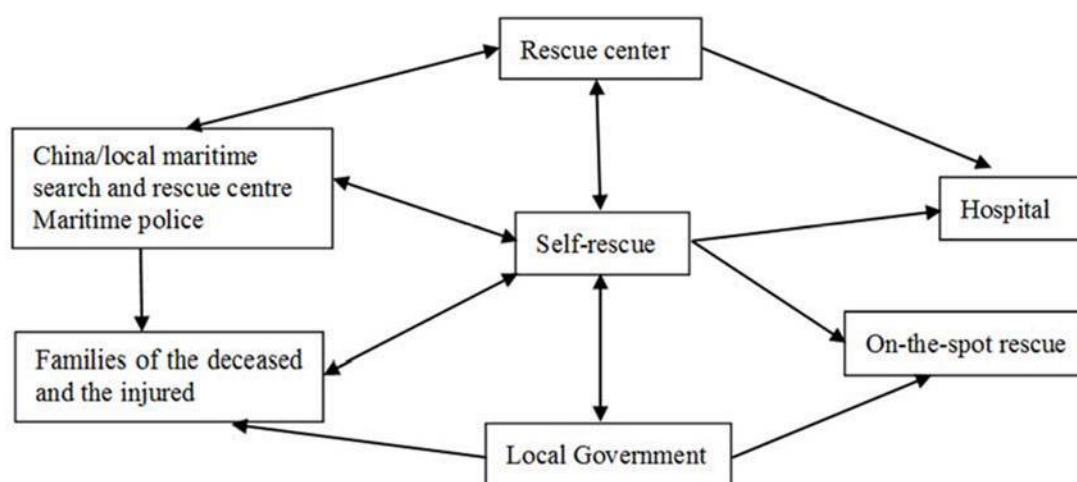
Figure2 Diving accident treatment procedures.

Source: Adapted from Su (2010).

Third, marketing and promotional efforts need to be strengthened to enhance the popularity of diving activities and Chinese diving sites. According to the research of Chen and Su (2010), most people in Zhanjiang were willing to participate recreational diving activity, but they don't know how to join it. Moreover, because of some political reasons, the most attractive diving sites of China – Xisha and Nansha Islands – have not been opened to the tourists yet, but it is said that Xisha has prepared to open to Chinese tourists recently (Li, 2005). These virgin diving sites will become the world famous diving paradise in the near future. Besides, recreational diving related companies should do more advertisement for the market of Mainland China. According to the research of Ong & Musa (2012) and Phillips (2009), recreational diving advertisements would be more efficient if it were seen in proper social media. In Mainland China, the proper social media about recreational diving might be all kinds of online forums outdoor for outdoor sports, and the most famous one would be Doyouhike.Net. Moreover, the three biggest social medias in Mainland China - Wechat, Weibo and Renren are also suitable for recreational diving tourism promotion.

Fourth, sustainability of diving tourism might be one of the most important considerations in the development of new diving sites in Mainland China (Lucrezi, et al., 2016). Many researchers pointed out that there were negative impacts of diving tourism on the underwater environment (Hawkins, et al., 2005; Jameson et al., 2007; Stolk et al., 2007; Serour, 2004). Before developing a new diving base, such as Xisha Islands, the government and developers

should first understand the limit of the carrying capacity of reefs to support recreational use (Hawkins, et al., 2005). According to the research of Barker and Roberts (2004), simple measures implemented by dive companies through their dive guides could greatly reduce impacts on reefs. "They include underwater intervention when divers contact the reef, leading by example in keeping fins and equipment clear of the reef, and extra vigilance toward camera users, on night dives and at the beginning of dives. The size of the dive group will influence the ability of dive leaders to perform their supervisory role, so smaller groups are better for the reef, and are preferred by divers in any case" (Barker & Roberts, 2004, p. 488).

Fifth, more recreational diving instructors have to be trained for the purpose of increasing potential divers enthusiasts. Diving has a certain degree of risk, therefor the diving coaches have to go through rigorous trainings before being allowed to perform their duties. And five to six years are required to be a qualified diving instructor (Su, 2008). Universities and colleges play an important role in high quality new type talent. If diving could become a specialty course in the colleges or universities, it would not only meet the needs of the increasing potential divers, but also increase the employment rate of college students. At present, the only formal diving professional education school in Mainland China is Guangzhou Diving School. Some scholars in Mainland China have discussed about the possibility of opening professional diving courses in other colleges or universities. For example, Su (2008) did a research of the feasibility and implementation plan of colleges and university leisure diving course, and the research showed that Guangdong Ocean University had a high feasibility of opening the new major course of diving.

Future Development of Diving Tourism in Mainland China

According to the data from Professional Association of Dive Instructors (PADI) in 2012, the people who participated diving related activities mainly composed of middle class, and the average age of the diver was 29 (the average age of male diver was 30, the female diver was 27; male divers accounted for 66 percent and female divers accounted for 34 percent) (please refer to www.padi.com for more details).

China's GDP (Gross Domestic Product) has become the second largest in the world, and according to the National Bureau of Statistics in 2012, Chinese per capita disposable income of urban households is 24, 565 RMB(1 US dollar ≈ 6.9 RMB, 1 GBP ≈ 8.9 RMB). Take Beijing for example, the per capita disposable income of urban households is 36,469 RMB, which is approaching to the income level of moderately developed countries. Besides there are around 5.4 million middle classes and the rich live in Beijing. According to the prediction of International Diving Coach Association, it should have nearly 4 million people who owns a diving certificate referring to the proportion of diving certificate in moderately developed countries, and it should have more than 400,000 divers to join a diving tour (Shao, 2014). In recent years, the island tour continues to heat up in Mainland China, and there are more than 10,000 tourists from Beijing diving at all kinds of islands in the year of 2013 (Shao, 2014). Up to 2050, it should have more than 2 million tourists joining a diving tour based on the predicted growth rate.

In Mainland China, there were 16.6 million outbound tourists in the year of 2002, and the outbound tourists reached 98 million in 2013 (China National Tourism Administration), the growth rate was amazing. Among all the Chinese outbound tourists, foreign islands are one of their most favorite destination. Then, it can be seen that recreational diving tourism market has a huge potential in Mainland China.

Recreational diving tourism makes up the majority percentage of diving industry in many

countries. Take Australia and Thailand for instance, the recreational diving tourism accounted for 60 percent and 70 percent respectively of diving industry (Shao, 2014). In Mainland China, diving tourism only accounted for 20 percent of diving industry ten years ago, and now diving equipment and diver training market occupied more than 60 percent of the diving industry (see Table 5). Compare to Australia and Thailand, recreational diving tourism still has much more room to develop further in Mainland China.

Table 5 The Market Share of Diving Industry in Mainland China

Market	Diving Equipment	Diver Training	Diving Tourism	Recreational Diving Performance
Mainland China	26 %	35 %	36 %	3 %
Hainan Province	22 %	19 %	58 %	1 %
Beijing	23 %	41 %	34 %	2 %

Source: Adapted from Shao (2014).

References

Barker, N. H. L., Roberts, M. C. (2004). Scuba diver behaviour and the management of diving impacts on coral reefs. *Biological Conservation,* 120(4), 481-489.

Chen, Y. W. (2012). Research on the present situation about recreational diving in the west region of Guangdong. *Journal of Guangzhou Sport University,* 32(2), 37-42.

Chen, Y. W. & Su, X. (2010). Analysis on ordinary people and the tourists to participate in leisure diving in Zhanjiang. *Journal of Guangzhou Sport University,* 30(3), 53-57.

Chen, Y. (2016). Xuwen has a great potential of diving tourism. http://news.gdzjdaily.com.cn/zjxw/content/2016-02/24/content_2098852.shtml

Giglio, Luiz & Schiavetti (2015), Marine life preferences and perceptions among recreational divers in Brazilian coral reefs. *Tourism Management,* 51, 49-57.

Gu, J. (2013). Chinese divers increase ten times in two years, and diving tend to be the new fashion in China. http://www.china.com.cn/travel/txt/2013-05/15/content_28829025.htm

Hawkins, J. P., Roberts, C. M., Kooistra, D., Buchan, K., & White, S. (2005). Sustainable of SCUBA diving tourism on coral reefs of Saba. *Coastal Management,* 33, 373-387.

Li, C. H. (2005). An assumption of Xisha Islands ecotourism development. *Ocean,* 4, 62-67.

Jameson, S. C., Ammar, M. S. A., Saadalla, E., Mostafa, H. M., & Riegl, B. (2007). A Quantitative ecological assessment of diving sites in the Egyptian red sea during a period of severe anchor damage: A baseline for restoration and sustainable tourism management. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism,* 15(2), 309-323.

Liu, C. Y. (2014). The development status of recreational diving in Beijing. *Fitness and Leisure*, 1, 204-205.

Liu, J., et al. (1999). *Diving sport history in China.* Wuhan: Wuhan Press.

Lucrezi, S., et al. (2016). SCUBA diving tourism systems and sustainability: Perceptions by the SCUBA diving industry in two marine protected areas. *Tourism Management,* 59, 385-403 Ong, F. T., Musa, G. (2012). Examining the influences of experience, personality and attitude

on SCUBA divers'underwater behaviour: A structural equation model. *Tourism Management,* 33, 1521-1534.

Phillips, A. (2009). *Measuring brand value and user motivation for facebook groups within the recreational SCUBA diving industry.* Unpublished Master dissertation. Dalhousie University.

Serour, K. R. (2004). *An environment economic assessment of the impacts of recreational SCUBA diving on coral reed systems in Hurghada, the red sea, Egypt.* Unpublished Master dissertation, University of Maryland.

Shao, W. (2014). *A study on development strategy of leisure diving in Beijing.* Unpublished Master dissertation, Beijing Sport University

Stolk, P., Markwell, K., & Jenkins, J. (2007). Artificial reefs as recreational SCUBA diving resources: a critical review of research. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism,* 15(4), 331-350.

Stolk, P., Markwell, K., & Jenkins, J. (2005). Perceptions of artificial reefs as SCUBA diving resources: a study of Australian recreational SCUBA divers. A*nnuals of Leisure Research,* 8(2-3), 153-173.

Su, X. (2008). The Research to the feasibility and implementation plan of colleges and university leisure diving course – taking Guangdong Ocean University as the example. *Journal of Physical Education Institute of Shanxi Normal University,* 23(4), 81-83.

Su, X. (2009). Study on leisure diving. *Sports Culture Guide,* 7, 19-22.

Su, X. (2010). Study on the security of leisure diving. *Sports Culture Guide,* 6, 25-28.

Van Treeck, P., & Schuhmacher, H. (1998). Mass diving tourism – a new dimension calls for new management approaches. *Marine Pollution Bulletin,* 37(8-12), 499-504.

Wang, X. (2012). *Research on the development trend of leisure diving under the policy of international tourism island.* Unpublished Master dissertation, Hainan Normal University

Wen, Z. H., Chen, M. Z., & Wen, Y. H. (2004). *Leisure Diving.* Beijing: Beijing Sport University Press.

Windsor, D. (1996). A study into the number of dives conducted on the Great Barrier Reef in 1994. *South Pacific Underwater Medicine Society Journal,* 26, 72–74.

Ying, T. (2003). Diving, it is not easy to say loving you. *China Ocean News,* 2003-04-04.

Zhai, Q. W. (2010). Discussion on sustainable development of coastal recreational diving in China. *Bulletin of Sport Science & Technology,* 1, 22-24.

Zhang, H. E., & Tao, Y. (2013). Discussion on the problem of Chinese leisure diving tourism development. *Industry Observation,* 12(6), 80-81.

Zhang, L. M. (2013). Diving development in Mainland China. http://jjckb.xinhuanet.com/2013- 10/25/content_472726.htm

"Best Life in Old Town" – Tourism Development Modes for an Historic Cultural Townscape: Case Study of Laochengxiang, Shanghai

Lin Zhang
Tongji University, Shanghai, China

Abstract

Laochengxiang, an old historic cultural townscape area town called "Root of Shanghai" . With over 700 years of history, Laochengxiang has the most impressive indigenous regional landscape and the richest local cultural context in Shanghai. Despite the passage of time, grand architecture, impressive landscapes and lanes, and rare historic buildings and relics have been preserved and are now valuable cultural heritage. However, for various reasons, shabby buildings, poor living conditions, and narrow lanes prohibit visitors from entering this area, preventing the historic townscape from being visited and meaning that these tourism resources are being wasted. The key issues surround how the tourism resources can be utilized and made more attractive to tourists and how the old town can form a unique tourism space, whilst minimizing the conflict between conservation and development. This paper presents the concept of "Best Life in Old Town", which aims to focus on the conservation of Laochengxiang's architecture, the improvement of local residents' living conditions, and the enhancement of the tourist experience. Thus, recreation-friendly public space is created in the currently limited outdoor environment of Laochengxiang, and a regional, cultural, and intriguing historic tourism area can emerge.

Key words: Old Town, Tourism Development, Urban Heritage, Cultural

Heritage **Introduction**

In 2003, Laochengxiang was one of 12 areas that were confirmed as Shanghai's historic cultural townscapes, the others included People's Square, Hengshan Road-Fuxing Road, West Nanjing Road, Yuyuan Road, Xinhua Road, Shanyin Road, Tilan Bridge, Jiangwan, Longhua and Hongqiao Road. These townscapes cover a total area of 27km^2 and account for one third of the old city of Shanghai(Chen Fei, Ruan Yisan,2008). These historic cultural townscape areas, which integrate vivid styles of architecture and social flavors of various eras in the urban development of Shanghai, highlight the unique charms of Shanghai as a metropolitan city, but also as a renowned historical and cultural city, with a wealth of urban tourism heritage recourses. The development of the historic and cultural townscapes for tourism is not only conducive to realizing the protection and revitalisation of such areas but can also benefit the Shanghai tourism economy. Among them, Laochengxiang is the only historic cultural townspace area at Shanghai highlighting traditional regional culture. It is the place where modern Shanghai originated and it's also the earliest survival space developed by Shanghai people. Shiku Gate (stone framed gate) and lane houses are scattered everywhere here. The citizens with the most "Old Shanghai" inclinations were settled here, which can be best represented in the traditional urban life appearance and the diversified living styles of ordinary people of Shanghai City at the end of Qing Dynasty and the beginning of Ming Dynasty. As the starting point and footstone of Shanghai Municipality, Laochengxiang represents the city's local architectural landscape and the traditional vitality. In this sense, it is the city's soul. At meanwhile, Laochengxiang also epitomizes the city's fluctuations and is thus known as the "Root of Shanghai". (Xi Zhen,2009).

1. Characteristics and Development Status Quo of the Heritage Resources of Laochengxiang, Shanghai

1.1 Historical Changes of Laochengxiang, Shanghai

Laochengxiang, located in Shanghai's city centre, features a history of over 700 years. Shanghai Town was established in the 3rd year of the Xianchun Period of South Song Dynasty (Year 1267) and Shanghai Country was established in the 29thyear of Yuan Dynasty (Year 1292). Laochengxiang area has always been the political, economic and cultural centre of Shanghai going through several dynasties from Yuan Dynasty, Ming Dynasty, Qing Dynasty and early Min Dynasty, etc. In 1553, the city was built to defend against the invasion of Japanese pirates while the moat was excavated along the wall. The area within the wall was called "City" and the bustling area outside the wall was called "Xiang", where Laochengxiang originated(Zhen Xi,2009).

Creeks were intersecting mutually with water flowing within Laochengxiang. As connected with the moat and Huangpu River, the hustle and bustle of merchant ships and merchants gathered herein, which created the flourishing economy and culture here. Later, the wall was dismantled and the moat was filled to form a circle road around the city, that is, Renmin Road at the north semicircle and Zhonghua Road at the south semicircle, which enclosed the existing Laochengxiang covering an area of 220 hectare.
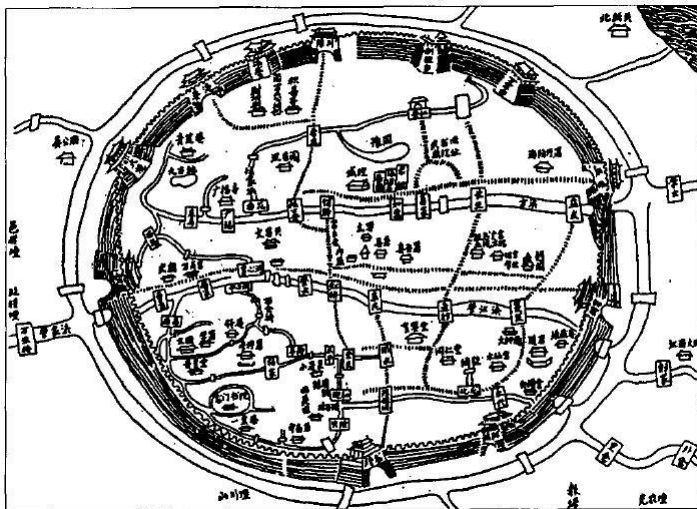
Fig. 1: Historic Map of Laochengxiang (Gu Qiliang,1992)

Characteristics of Laochengxiang's Cultural Heritage

Laochengxiang represents the most traditional architectural landscape characteristics and the most profound humanistic characteristics of Shanghai City. At one time, the area had over 10 academies, over 10 private gardens, over 80 temples such as Chenghuang Temple, over 10 celebrities' residence like Shuyin Chamber, over 10 commercial streets such as Shiliupu and Mid Fanghong Road, etc. and over 177 villas such as Shanshang Villa and Siming Villa were located at this area. With the change of history, many architectural landscapes have faded away but there are some well preserved historic buildings, relics, and historic lanes that represent the very precious urban heritage of the area. There are several key sites that could be attractive to tourists and these are identified in the next sections. Yu Garden, Chenghuang Temple and Wen Temple, etc. constitute the renowned historic scenic spots of Shanghai and the must place that the travelers have to visit. In addition, the streets and lanes of Laochengxiang are also embedded with the former residences of celebrities, such as Zi Garden

(former residence of Wang Yiting), Shuyin Chamber(former residence of Huang Yanpei) and Xu Guangqi's former residence, etc.,which all represent the outstanding characteristics and achievements of local architecturesin Ming and Qing Dynasties; besides, Shiku Gate (stone framed gate), New-style Lane, Cake Store, Clothes Store and Rice Store, etc. have all recorded the traditional life and stories of Shanghai. All of these are attracting multiple domestic and overseas tourists.(Sua Ganlin,2011)

Religious Buildings

The existing Chenghuang Temple, Shenxiangge, Wen Temple and Dongjiadu Catholic Church within Laochengxiang exactly represent the Taoism, the Buddhism, the Confucianism and the Catholicism, indicating the people's aspiration of belief, peace, culture and happiness. Chenghuang Temple, as the Taoist temple, was constructed around 600 years ago during the Ming Dynasty. Chenghuang Temple, the God of moat believed by folk Chinese, attributed to the local heroes and famous officials in feudal times. Chenxiangge, also named Ciyun Monastery, started to be constructed during Wanli period of Ming Dynasty as one of the five most famous Buddhism temples and is a key temple nationally. Asthe ancient emperors and their mothers accepted the imperial court's felicitation here, exuberant joss sticks and candles have been burnt here. Wen Temple, constructed in Yuan Dynasty, was not only the place to sacrifice Confucius but the institute where Xiucai (who passed the imperial examination at the county level in the Ming and Qing dynasties) were studying. It was the highest architecture of Shanghai in ancient times. The Dongjiadu Catholic Church, constructed in Qing Dynasty, was the first Catholic church of its kind in China capable of hosting 2000 people and was also the first cathedral of Shanghai parish.

Fig. 2:Chenxiangge

Chinese Classic Gardens

Yu Garden, the famous Jiangnan (regions south of the Yangtze River) classic garden and the national key cultural relic protection unit, started to be constructed in Ming Dynasty covering an area of over 30mu. The garden features over 40 ancient buildings including pavilions, terraces, open halls, artificial hills and ponds, etc. such as Moon Pavilion, Exquisite Jade, Water Gallery, Wave-hearing Pavilion, Hanbi Building and Ancient Theatre Platform. Yu Garden has a zigzag bridge with eighteen zigzags tops, with each curving angle different to each other. The bridge surface is paved with granite, with each slab stone at the crook carved with a seasonal flower, such as the narcissus in January, the apricot blossom in February and the peach blossom in Marcg, stretching to the Tea House of the Mid-Lake Pavilion. During the annual

Lantern Festival, magnificent lantern shows are held at Yu Garden and the Zigzag Bridge is a main attraction and is often crowded with people.

Fig. 3: Yu Garden

Celebrities' Residences

Laochengxiang was a popular location among thigh ranking officials, notable public figures and prosperous merchants and this meant for some very impressive and well known residences, such asYijia Hall, the former residence of shipping magnate Yu Songnian in Qing Dynasty. Laochengxiang is also home to the former residence of Wang Yiting, Chairman of Shanghai Merchants Commission, called Zi Garden, the former residence of General Qiao Yiqi in the Ming Dynasty, the former residence and the ancestral hall of Xu Guangqi (a renowned scientist) and Implicit Library Building, one of the three renowned Jiangnan libraries in the Ming and Qing Dynasties (Gu Lisan,2008). These buildings represent the architectural characteristics of Ming and Qing Dynasties; they represent the traditional layout and structure, they are uniquely elegant with exquisite carvings and are of great artistic and cultural value. Despite many changes over time, these celebrities' residences and buildings remain part of the old town's heritage.

Fig.4: Shuyin Library Building

Attractive Streets and Lanes

The road network of Laochengxiang was created by burying the former rivers. When the wall was dismantled, the road was built to form the circular road around the city, Zhonghua Road- Renmin Road; the internal main road refers to the intersection between East Fuxing Road and South Henan Road to form the road structure of a circle plus a cross. The footpaths in the town have replaced the creeks; they are narrow and full of twists and turns, and the names of some of the streets and lanes tell their own stories, adding to the mysterious and unusual street

landscape, lived in by the Shanghai people(WuDan,2015). For instance Fangbang Road, Menghua Street, Qiaojia Road and Songxue Street…Local people bask, chat, play chess or amuse birds in streets and lanes. Although the space for activities is very confined but filled with joy of life.

Fig.5: Traditional Lanes

Dajingge Wall

Laochengxiang remains the sole surviving town with part of the old wall of Shanghai - Dajingge Wall. At 8m in height and 4.5km in lengthit was built to defend against the invasion of Japanese pirates. In addition to the wall, four buildings (including Danfeng Building, Goddess of Mercy Pavilion, Zhenwu Temple and Dajingge) were built on the four arrow rests of the wall at the northeast side. The arrow rests and the pavilion were dismantled but over 50 metres of the ancient wall remains as witness of Shanghai's history.

Fig.6: Dajingge Wall

Issues Associated with Tourism Development in Laochengxiang

The buildings, streets, culture and life of Laochengxiang are precious urban heritage resources and some are unique in Shanghai, but such tangible and intangible heritage resources have not been well protected and they are not interpreted for visitors. There are several issues that relate to the development of tourism in this old town and these will now be discussed.

Poor Interpretation and Overcrowding

At present, the sightseeing tourism take the priority without demonstration of the heritage value. The majority tourists visit Laochengxiang for a very short period of around two to three hours which permits a hurried tour of Yu Yuan, Chenghuang Temple and the small hardware market; other buildings and cultural attractions in Laochengxiang are rarely known to them. Furthermore, the spatial layout, the historic context and the cultural characteristics of Laochengxiang are rarely interpreted and tourists are not always aware of what they are looking at nor what they are missing. As a result, large numbers of tourists gather at the better known attractions such as Yu Yuan and Chenghuang Temple, putting pressure on the environmental and cultural assets, and meaning that tourists fail to fully understand and experience Laochengxiang's cultural heritage.

Poor Standard of Architectural Preservation

Many historical sites are remained at Laochengxiang. However, many historic buildings except partial cultural relic protection units have been left shabby in shortage of maintenance and repair expenses. The tourists feel reluctant to access due to narrow space, low living standards of the residents, confined and crowded streets and lanes. At meanwhile, the function of the majority historic buildings at Laochengxiang has changed because of historic transformation and other reasons. In reference to the international development experience, the urban historical blocks can be revitalized by taking advantage of developing the tourism industry while the protection and maintenance of historical buildings can be carried out by financing so as to create high-quality outdoors space for public activities and assist local residents to improve their living conditions and enable the tourists to profoundly feel the life and culture at Laochengxiang.

Proposed Modes of Tourism Development for Laochengxiang

As unfortunately, the historical changes and the current development in disorder enabled it subject to damages; besides, the extensive tourism development mode and assimilation even enabled its heritage value impossible to be sufficiently protected, represented and utilized. Therefore, the tourism development of Laochengxiang is deeply explore the value of its tourism resources, form the tourism space with unique characteristics and seek new approaches of protecting historical bocks in the course of tourism development.

It is accepted, internationally, that historical & cultural resources can't be protected in such as way that it makes them lifeless & static but, instead they need to continue to be lively & dynamic. The main development modes include: 1) keep complete ancient appearance and represent previous historical scene (such as American Williamsburg); 2) maintain traditional character, and accept emergence of modern style (such as Japanese Tsumago). More locally, in China, since the establishment of the Historic Cultural Street District in 1985, more attention is being paid to the protection and utilization of historical & cultural assets. Mr. Wu Liangyong presented the Organic Renewal theory, a combination of residential and tourism functions by reasonably switching historical street district in traditional function t(Wu Liangyong,1991). As proposed by Professor Ruan Yisan, the urban heritage shall not only be deemed as the protected object but the important resource and the development impetus. The original feelings shall be maintained in the development(Ruan Yisan,2011). Professor Yan Guotai suggests that we should respect history and culture and obey a law of nature(Yan Guotai,2005). In practice projects, we mainly emphasis on the co-existence of residential life and tourism

sightseeing, as Zhouzhuang in Suzhou, and Tunxi Old Street in Anhui Province.

This planning of Laochengxiang's tourism development adopts the "public recreation space mode". Divide the areas based on the protection planning and renewal of Laochengxiang, adjust and promote the function characteristics, spatial layout and landscape environment of the historic cultural townscape area according to the demands of modern recreation activities so as to form a public activity space capable certain tourists, and thus to realize the optimization, interaction and conformity of such three factors as "material space", "cultural characteristics" and "tourism activities" (Liu Binyi,2003),of Laochengxiang historic cultural townscape area, in which, the material space is the carrier, the cultural characteristics are the core which is represented by the tourism activities. The key is to combine the spatial optimization, the cultural undertaking and promotion of the tourism functions so as to enable Laochengxiang not only to represent its unique regional characteristics and cultural connotations, but stimulate the tourism space which the tourists are interested in(Zhang Lin, Liu Binyi,2013). By this way, the public rest space can be added at Laochengxiang to increase the possibility of the tourists' access, especially to the interior traditional streets and lanes. They rarely entered the interior Laochengxian. At meanwhile, the tourists can be encouraged to experience and participate in the recreational items so that they can feel the historic tradition and authentic living culture of Shanghai in person. On the contrary, they simply visited here for sightseeing before.

Planning for Improvements to the Tourist Space

The historic buildings highlighting a long history and filled with mysterious feelings,, the various residences featuring regional characteristics, the intersecting and zigzag streets and lanes, the landscape scenery integrating western and oriental styles while filled with folk daily life in Laochengxiang are of direct, vivid and strong attractions to the tourists; however, the tourism activities may greatly affect the building landscape and the spatial form within the historic cultural townscape area, form the tourism space gradually, and thus change the original spatial form, property and functions, such as the increase of recreational space, the outdoor space for activities and the improvement of public space; therefore, the analysis of the effect of the tourism activities on the architectural landscape and spatial form of the historic cultural townscape area shall be carried out to control the function characteristics of its tourism space and propose the countermeasures. On the one hand, it is important to protect and maintain its characteristic buildings and spatial form according to the principle of "authenticity" in adherence to the requirements of original materials, original craft, original structure and original style. If this is done, the area should look like it used to be, with the authenticity. Also, the digital, intelligent and low-carbon modern tourism technical approaches can be adopted to reduce the interference of tourism activities to the historic buildings., At meanwhile, the method of "organic renewal" can be applied to promote the spatial space in combination with the demands of tourism activities, endow the unique "site spirit" and create the characteristic theme space to improve the diversity of historic cultural townscape tourism with the exchange of different tourism spaces. In terms of the tourism space planning strategy, the focus should be on improving the commercial landscape areas, the areas with poor accessibility, and the road infrastructure, while renewing the spatial form byre-designing the point space, improving the sanitary conditions, increasing the afforestation and service facilities so as to create a public space appropriate for tourism and also aim to coordinate the development of architectural space with consideration given to protection and the promotion of the characteristics which could attract tourists. In terms of spatial planning, the protection requirements of Laochengxiang, the residents' living demands and the tourists' recreational characteristics shall be taken in to consideration so as to develop the space in a differentiated and gradual manner(Shi Jiaming,2008).

Enhancing the Cultural Characteristics

Laochengxiang best represents the historic culture and folk customs of Shanghai, which contain abundant cultural heritage. Such traditional culture and long history have to be protected, undertaken and interpreted vividly both in form and in spirit so as to form a kind of greatly differentiated cultural tourism product. On the one hand, efforts shall be devoted to deeply probing into the traditional cultural characteristics, such as the living style, the traditional art, the folk essence and the anecdotes, etc. so as to undertake the historic context, design the tourism projects highlighting profound regional cultural characteristics, form the historic cultural tourism space filled with stories and interests, vividly perform the anecdotes and folk life here while avoiding cultural hollow, excessive commercialization or confusion of "folk custom" and "Kitsch". On the other hand, the cultural landscape shall continue growing and developing. The traditional culture can be stimulated with newly-emerging cultural creative industry while endowing it with characteristics of the time so as to form a new type of culture which can reflect the living flavors of modern people and thus realize the deep conformity between the traditional cultural characteristics and the innovation of tourism activities.

The tourism resources of Laochengxiang are unique and unduplicated, which can grant the tourism the unique experience of scenery landscape and culture; at meanwhile, the development of Laochengxiang tourism can also stimulate the new living behaviors and concepts. The theory of "experience economy" can be introduced to propose the innovative development methods of Laochengxiang historic cultural townscape tourism. As to the tourist's demand of recreation, education, retreatism and aesthetics, efforts can be made to design such tourism activities of historic environment experience and folk culture experience(Steven Tiesdell, Tim Heath,1996), etc. So as to upgrade the tourist offer in the historic cultural townscape area from the single sightseeing visit to recreation and further tourism experiences. Meanwhile, combine the upgrading of the tourism offer, the regeneration of the material environment and the interaction of the cultural core to form the experiencing space of historic cultural townscape area.

Planning for the Tourism Project of Laochengxiang Historic Cultural Townscape Area

With the theme of "best life in old town", on the basis of the protection planning and the renewed districts of Laochengxiang, efforts shall be made to protect and optimize its tangible space, traditional culture and lifestyle. With the valuable historic buildings under protection as the centre to integrate the internal space and the development mode, on the one hand, connect the scattered points in a linear manner to continue the protection and stimulate the vitality in terms of the neighborhood space, life and culture, etc. while optimizing the neighborhood space quality; on the other hand, utilize characteristic space of lanes and control the space change sequence in combination of life and culture to create an interesting tourism route by means of the construction of interesting neighborhood. In this sense, the current unitary development mode and the confused plight of recreational activities can be broken through to grant new tourism value to Laochengxiang and stimulate its own vitality of organic renewal in the course of overall protection and organic utilization of its heritage value.

Tourism Project Details

(1) The section of life - 100 doors and 101 stories

To display the art of life in the neighborhood in the street, select the neighborhood street façade that can be developed (refer to the protection planning division), such as South

Guangqi Road, Yujia Lane and Yaoju Lane, etc. Based on the citizen's intentions, make creation in combination with the live action and the wall painting to represent the vivid scenes of life as if the section and enable the tourists to understand the building structure form of Laochengxiang. With the artistic pen point, make efforts to seek the original life at Laochengxiang after the black tiles and white walls, such as the section collection of creative life, the commemorative postcards, the section stories, the photographic exhibition of times marked on the films to be held at Zuiyue Hall, the appraisal of the most touching situation and the most beautiful lane, etc.

(2) Homestay - To Live at My Home

As requested by the protection unit of Laochengxiang, partial buildings located within the construction control area and the environment coordination area shall be selected to develop homestay projects, such as the traditional neighborhood buildings and the old houses at Shikumen. The tourists, if living there, can taste the traditional Shanghai breakfast, read newspaper and magazines of old times, appreciate old-style furniture and utensils, feel the stories within the dwellings and the history of the neighborhood.

(3) Ride though Laochengxiang - Shuttle in the Neighborhood

Laochengxiangfeatures complicated road networks with highroads connected with traversing streets and is easily accessible from any direction. Old streets, old lanes and old road names are interesting features of the town, with almost each street of Laochengxiang having its own literary quotation and legend. Protection of the road and place names is also one of the primary aims of protecting the historic cultural townscape of Laochengxiang. The tourists may lease an old-style bicycle, DIY the riding route or sketch the riding map, etc. to shuttle in the labyrinth that is Lachengxiang, as if visiting the old road name museum and seeking those old stories in the neighborhood.

(4) Workshop Street - Old Times of Shanghai at the Fingertips

Choose some typical lanes within Laochengxiang, such as Xundao Street and Penglai Road to reconstruct them to be the workshop streets in an overall manner highlighting the commercial and craftwork functions so as to vividly display Laochengxiang's handwork and handicraftsman, represent the workshop craft and recover the trading scene by hawking. In this sense, the tourists can hear the disappeared industries and hawking again at Shanghai Laochengxiang, such as the cobbler booth, popcorn, barber's store, tailor's store, knife milling booth, handmade paper-cutting and dough figurine, etc. which highlight great experience value and profound living culture so that the tourists can participate in the fabrication or DIY small souvenirs in person.

(5) Traditional Snacks - Laochengxiang on the Tongue Tip

Abundant dining modes can be planned to fulfill the demands of different tourists, such as developing traditional snacks on Shanghai Sipai Road, Qiaojiazha, North Yingxun Road and Xueqian Street. Select partial existing buildings in the neighborhood for reconstruction and add the quantity of snack streets to exhibit characteristic local cooking culture of Shanghai including Nanxiang steamed buns, boiled glutinous rice balls in fermented glutinous rice, Chinese rice pudding, crispy cake, fried wheat gluten puff and tofu skin and escargots, etc.

Planning of Characteristic Tourism Route

(1) Route for Ancient Architectures of Laochengxiang

To guide tourists to visit such representative architectures as Yu Garden, Chenghuang Temple, Xu Guangqi's Former Residence, Shuyin Chamber and Bell Tower, etc., especially the architectural complexon Qiaojia Road as maintained from Ming and Qing Dynasties to the Republic of China(1912-1949).

(2) Route for Side Wall of Laochengxiang

To guide the tourists to visit Dajingge Wall and Dajingge, the only reserved old wall in Shanghai, where the manuscripts of "the 5thYear of Xianfeng Emperor and Shanghai City Wall Brick" can be found. The tourists can understand the history that Shanghai people built the city wall for resisting Japanese invaders and protecting their homeland about 400 years ago.

(3) Route for Light & Shadow of Laochengxiang

To guide the tourists to access the streets and lanes of Laochengxiang, appreciate the old photos and exhibitions, participate in the residents' cultural, sports and holiday festivals to experience the joy of old Shanghai life.

(4) Route for Cycling of Laochengxiang

To design the riding routes around Laochengxiang, guide the tourists to shutter within Laochengxiang, walk and stop, experience the history of Laochengxiang gradually by means of slow-moving traffic.
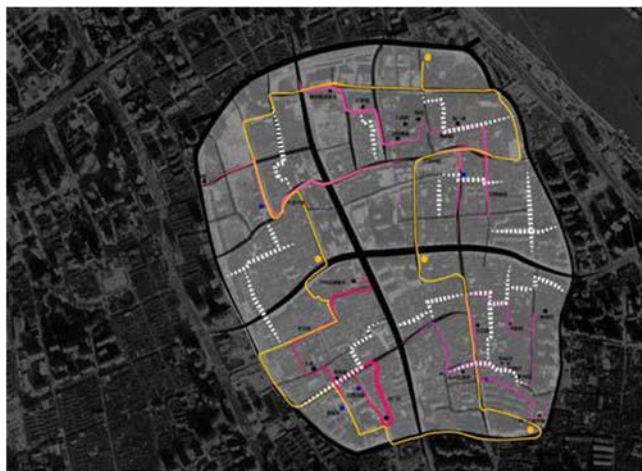
Fig.7: Characteristic Tourism Route

Lanes Gap Park System

Introduction of Lane Gap Park System shall optimize layout of landscape space, improve the quality of street by landscape so as to build proper public recreation space in the limited outdoor environment within Laochengxiang. As the streets at Laochengxiang are narrow with dense buildings around, it is difficult to increase large-size green belt and activity square; therefore, the characteristics of existing layout shall be fully utilized to provide diversified and high-quality activity space to the tourists by adding linear green space and landscape design along the streets, lanes and alleys.

Fig.8: Lanes Gap Park System

Conclusion

Laochengxiang historic cultural townscape area has represented landscape of historic figures and cultural heritage, the regional cultural characteristics and the traditional living flavors of Shanghai in a centralized manner while remaining the historic buildings and cultural heritage. The planning closely surrounds the characteristics of heritage value of Shanghai Laochengxiang historic cultural townscape area to better protect, represent, narrate and utilize the urban heritage value. With the adoption of the tourism mode of "public recreational space" to combine the spatial optimization, the cultural undertaking and the tourism function upgrading, based on the basic mode of scattered development in space and the linear connection, efforts will be devoted to integrating the dual experience of living and culture here so as to stimulate its mechanism and vitality of independent renewal in an organic manner by means of tourism development.

References

Chen Fei, Ruan Yisan. A Comparative Study on Conservation Planning of Historic and Cultural Areas in Shanghai and the Response of Conservation Planning [J]. Urban Planning Forum, 2008(2): 104-110

Zhen Xi. The Everlasting Charming Folk-Shanghai Historic Cultural Scenery Zone [M]. Shanghai: Shanghai Orient Publishing Center, 2009,8:1-6

Gu Qiliang. The Cultural Relics of Shanghai's Old City Area [M]. Shanghai: Shanghai Far East Publishers, 1992,11

Sun Ganlin. Laochengxiang—The Root of Shanghai City [M]. Shanghai: Tongji University Press, 2011

Gu Lisan, Protection Plan for Shanghai Old Historical Implicit Library Building, Shanghai Construction Science & Technology, 2008,(5):48-50

Wu Dan, Research On The Human Settlement In Old City Of Shanghai Qiaojia Road Block,SHEJI,2015, (6): 138-140

Wu Liangyong, From "Organic Renewal" to New "Organic Order"—Salvation Approach of Residential Areas in the Old City of Beijing (2) [J]. Architectural Journal, 1991 (2): 7-13

Ruan Yisan. Thinking on the Protection of Historical Cultural Heritage [J]. Shanghai Urban Planning, 2011(4): 3-6

Yan Guotai. Tourism Planning Theory and Practice of Historic Towns [J]. China Tourism Publishing, 2005

Liu Binyi. Planning and Design of Historic Cultural Landscape and Tourism [M]. Beijing: China building Publishing, 2003

Zhang Lin, Liu Binyi,The Tourism Development Mode of Historic Cultural Area in Shanghai, Chinese Landscape Architecture, 2013，029(011):60-63

Shi Jiaming, Preliminary Study on the Relationship Between the Collage of the Old City Area and Its Conservation and Renewal—based on analysis of the northwest part of old Shanghai city.2008(2):58-62

Steven Tiesdell, Tim Heath, Taner OC. Revitalizing Historic Urban Quarters [J]. Architectural Press, 1996

Abstracts

Exploring Responsible Tourism, Small-scale Fisheries and Sense of Place

Tim Acott
University of Greenwich, London, UK
Adriana Ford
University of Greenwich, London, UK

Small-scale fisheries (SSFs) in Europe are under threat from quota allocation and competition with industrial scale fishing. In addition to the economic gain of selling fish SSFs contribute to the sense of place of towns and villages in coastal locations. Although this sense of place can form the basis of unique and meaningful experiences for tourists, the connection between small-scale fishing and the broader tourist economy are often overlooked. There is considerable potential for developing the idea of a fisheries sense of place as a vehicle around which tourist experiences can be created. Reporting on the work carried out as part of three European funded projects (CHARM, GIFS and TourFish) along the English Channel and a pilot project in the Turks and Caicos Islands, this presentation will explore the contribution that Responsible Tourism can make to a sustainable future for SSFs. It will draw upon empirical data collection (over one hundred interviews and photo records) to describe the many intimate ways that SSFs are tied to sense of place and reflect on how this might be translated into a responsible tourism experience. Fisheries are often depicted in the media in a negative way. This presentation will counteract that narrative and will argue that many SSFs are fishing sustainably and their experiences and knowledge form and important link between people and the sea. If greater attention was given to understanding the responsible tourism potential of SSFs to connect a largely unseen marine world to people visiting coastal places this could form the foundation for new economic opportunities and help to develop deeper connections between people and the marine environment.

References
Ford, A.E.S. and Acott, T.G. (eds) (2015) Responsible Tourism: a guide for tourism and sustainability in small-scale fisheries and agri-food. TourFish cluster of the INTERREG IV A 2 Seas Programme. London: University of Greenwich (Executive summary available at http://www.gre.ac.uk/ data/assets/pdf_file/0008/1153763/Responsible-Tourism-Guide-Full-version-ENG-LoRes.pdf or available as an Apple ibook)

Acott, T.G. & Urquhart, J. (2015) 'People, place and fish: exploring the cultural meanings of inshore fishing through photography', In: Warren, S. & Jones, P., (Eds.) Creative economies, creative communities: Rethinking place, policy and practice, Ashgate.

Urquhart, J. & Acott, T.G. (2013) 'Re-connecting and embedding food in place: Rural development and inshore fisheries in Cornwall, UK', Journal of Rural Studies, 32, 357-364

Decentralization and England's Governance of Tourism Case Study: Greater Manchester

Dimah Ajeeb
PhD Candidate, University of Greenwich, United Kingdom

This research, employing multi-level governance (MLG) approach, intends to investigate the implications, and efficacy, of Coalition's decentralization on England's governance of tourism. In the context of devolution, MLG model is claimed as a valuable organizing perspective for understanding the changing nature of policy making in Britain (Bache and Flinders, 2004b), as well as to enhance decentralization for more effective governance of policymaking and service delivery (Charbit, 2011).

In 2010, the Coalition government came to power after 13 years of Labour government. The Coalition changed the national policy towards decentralization to the local level. Their approach to decentralization and rebalancing economic development resulted with a set of enforcing institutional and reform policies and hence with radical changes in governance and financial arrangements (Goodwin et al., 2005; Hildretha and Bailey, 2013; Shutt et al., 2012). The reforms include; the shift from regional to sub-regional level of governance through the abolition of England's Regional Development Agencies and the establishment of Local Enterprise Partnerships, changes in the local economic delivery landscape, a massive cut in public funds, and the further engagement of private sector in economic development (Goodwin, 2013: 4; Pugalis and Bentley, 2013: 669; HM Government, 2010; Ward and Hardy, 2012: 4; Bentley et al., n.d.; Hildreth and Bailey, 2012).

Consequently, England's governance and financial arrangements for tourism have changed radically (Kennell and Chaperon, 2013; VisitEngland, n.d.-c; Coles et al., 2012; Penrose, 2011; Dinan et al., 2011; Cameron, 2010), as well as the relationship between tourism and the local economic development (Kennell, 2015; Kennell, 2011; VisitEngland, m.d.).

Given the contradictory attitudes towards the changes in England's governance of tourism, and the substantial research which avers that decentralization involves opportunities for the development of tourism governance, this research is to examine the implications, the opportunities and challenges, and the efficacy that the Coalition's decentralization delivers to the English governance of tourism.

Adopting the multi-level governance approach, and utilising a realist research methodology, this study will draw on in-depth interviews and participant observations of the implications of Coalition's decentralization on Greater Manchester's governance of tourism. At the end, the research would contribute with a more reliable and accurate answer to whether Coalition's decentralization was effective to develop the English governance of tourism.

References

Bache I and Flinders M. (2004c) Multi-level Governance and British Politics.
        Multi-level Governance. Oxford University Press.
Bentley G, Bailey D and Shutt J. (n.d.) From RDAs to LEPs: A New Localism? Case
        Examples of West Midlands and Yorkshire Forthcoming in Local Economy.
Cameron D. (2010) Tourism vital to British Economy, . BBC News 2014.
Charbit C. (2011) Governance of Public Policies in Decentralised Contexts: The
        Multi-level Approach.

Coles T, Dinan C and Hutchison FC. (2012) Tourism and the public sector in England since 2010: a disorderly transition? Current Issues in Tourism 17: 247-279.

Dinan C, Hutchison F and Coles T. (2011) The Changing Landscape of Public Sector Support for Tourism in England: Insights from Local Enterprise Partnerships (LEPs) and Destination Management Organisations (DMOs) in England.

Goodwin H. (2013) Wise Growth Destination Case Study 01: Manchester. VisitEngland.

Goodwin M, Jones M and Jones R. (2005) Devolution, constitutional change and economic development: Explaining and understanding the new institutional geographies of the British state. Regional Studies 39: 421-436.

Hildreth P and Bailey D. (2012) What are the economics behind the move to LEPs? , 26-34.

Hildretha P and Bailey D. (2013) The economics behind the move to 'localism' in England. Cambridge Journal of Regions, Economy and Society.

HM Government. (2010) Local growth: realising every place's potential. Available at: https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/32076/cm7961-local-growth-white-paper.pdf.

Kennell J. (2011) Tourism and Local Economic Development in the United Kingdom. XIII International Scientific-practical conference- Tourism and Services: Training, Problems and Prospects. Moscow.

Kennell J. (2015) UK Tourism Policy and the 2015 General Election. Available at: http://jameskennell.com/2015/01/07/uk-tourism-policy-and-the-2015-general-election/.

Kennell J and Chaperon S. (2013) Analysis of the UK Government's 2011 tourism policy. Cultural Trends 22: 278-284.

Penrose J. (2011) Government Tourism Policy. In: Sport DfCMa (ed).

Pugalis L and Bentley G. (2013) Economic development under the Coalition Government. Local Economy 28: 665–678.

Shutt J, Pugalis L and Bentley G. (2012) LEPs – living up to the hype? The changing framework for regional economic development and localism in the UK. 11-24.

VisitEngland. (m.d.) How Tourism is Managed. Available at: http://www.visitengland.com/biz/tourism-england/how-tourism-managed.

VisitEngland. (n.d.-a) Greater Manchester Case Study. Available at: http://www.visitengland.com/tourism-england/strategic-framework-tourism-england/strategic-framework-case-studies/greater-manchester-case-study#/.

VisitEngland. (n.d.-b) Visitor Economy Background Briefing. Available at: https://www.visitengland.com/sites/default/files/downloads/120201_visitor_economy_background_briefing.pdf.

VisitEngland. (n.d.) About Destination Organisations. Available at: http://www.visitengland.com/biz/tourism-england/how-tourism-managed/about-destination-organisations.

Ward M and Hardy S. (2012) changing gear – s localism the new regionalism? In: Ward M and Hardy S (eds) changing gear – s localism the new regionalism? , 4-10.

Eco-Tourism, Culture, Rurality: The Creation of an Alternative Development Model. The Case of Matera, European Capital of Culture 2019

Flavio Roberto Albano
University of Bari, Italy

Vito Roberto Santamato
University of Bari, Italy

This paper aims to observe the vase of tourist development of the city of Matera elected European Capital of Culture for 2019.

The document starts with the analysis of the previous experiences of cities European capital of culture in order to observe the real effects of the event and understand how this will affect the future of the communities involved changing their development model.

The research will start with the analysis of the local tourist scene in relation to current trends in order to try to connect the variation of tourist flows with the cultural increased interest began with the nomination.

The cultural motivation in association with the characteristics of eco-sustainability and rurality now appears to have an increasingly important role in the choice of the tourist consumers and as such can be analysed in the real case of Matera.

From the methodological point of view, the analysis will identify different models of development and shape of tourism product based on attractors of different types, in order to understand how a cultural event can influence the flow of tourists and push the local economy towards new forms of development linked to territorial identity.

References

Albano F.R. (2014), Turismo & Management d'impresa, Ycp, Italy.
Amodio T. (2007), "Turismo e territorio", cap.2 in Bercardino F., Geografia del turismo, McGraw-Hill, Milano.
Apt Basilicata, (2016), Perri sui dati turistici 2015, più turisti che residenti, comunicato stampa 10/02/2016;
Bagnoli L. (2010), Manuale di geografia del turismo, Utet, Torino.
Butler R. W. (1990), Alternative Tourism: Pious Hope Or Trojan Horse? Journal of travel research n. 28
Croutch G.I., Ritchie J.R.B. (1999), "Tourism, competitiveness, and society prosperity", Journal of business research, vol.44, n.3.
Dioguardi I., (2016) Hobby antichi e nuove scoperte. Il fenomeno del turismo esperienziale in la Repubblica 13/04/16;
Formez & Federculture, (2014) Cultura & turismo locomotiva del Paese; Franch M.
(2010), Marketing delle destinazioni turistiche, McGraw-Hill, Milano. Garibaldi R.,
(2013), Capitale europea della cultura: effetti ricadute ed obiettivi, Risposte turismo, n. 3 – 2013;
Gartner, W.C. (1993) Image formation process, Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 2 (2/3), 191, 215;

GfK Eurisko (2014), Il Viaggio in Italia, ricerca per Fondazione Italia Patria della Bellezza;

Gunn, C.A. (1988) Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions (2nd Ed.), Van Nostrand, NY;

Inea, (2001), Beni culturali, una risorsa per lo sviluppo rurale, Roma.

Insee, (2004) Impact de Lille 2004, Assoc.Lille Horizon 2004;

Kramer B., (2014) There is No More B2B or B2C: It's Human to Human #H2H, Curtney Simth edition;

Leiper N. (1995), Tourism management, RMIT Press, Melbourne. Lozato

Giotart J.P. (1993), Geografia del turismo, FrancoAngeli, Milano.

Magnaghi A. (2000), Il progetto locale, Bollati Boringhieri, Torino.

Martini U., (2002) "Da luoghi a destinazioni turistiche", in Franch M. (a cura di), Destination Management.

Governare il turismo tra locale e globale, Giappichelli, Torino.

Palmer R., (2004), European Cities and Capitals of culture: Study Prepared for the European Commission, Part I;

Parlamento Europeo, (2013) Gli effetti a lungo termine nelle capitali europee della cultura; Pearce D. (1989), Tourist development, Wiley, New York. Preiti A. (2014), "Disney Italia", Il sole 24 ore, 21 marzo.

Santamato V.R., Albano F.R. (2013), Eco-sustainability and cooperation in tourism: cultural heritage as a source for competitive advantage, I° Foro Internacional de turismo, Maspalomas, Gran Canaria.

Santamato V.R., Messina S. (a cura di), (2012), Esperienze e casi di turismo sostenibile, Franco Angeli, Milano.

Scorranese R., (2016) Siamo il Paese più sognato al mondo ma il turismo rende solo 76 miliardi, Il Corriere, 16 aprile 2016;

Unioncamere & Symbola, (2015) Unioncamere & Symbola, 2015;

Following the path of O Conspirador: visiting Marvão (Portugal) in the footsteps of the writer Branquinho da Fonseca

Maria Mota Almeida
Universidade NOVA de Lisboa, Portugal

"Literary Tourism is a complex cultural phenomenon which presents in a variety of forms, showing its lively connections with past and contemporary culture" (Gentile & Brown, 2015, p.25)

This work is part of a broader study that aims to strengthen the relationship between tourism and the literary work of Branquinho da Fonseca, now complemented with a contemporary 'perspective'. It is assumed that a literary tourist-destination is endowed with an increased value and can attract and diversify visitors, or extend their stay by contributing to the discovery of local heritage and culture. Therefore, we start off from the tale 'O Conspirador', written in the 1930s, inserted into the Caminhos Magnéticos, to suggest an itinerary through the different heritage sites to be found at Marvão (Portugal), which the author addresses in his work. Such heritage sites are now reinterpreted by the present photographic renderings of his grandson, Luis Branquinho da Fonseca Soares de Oliveira.

Goals | The recognition of the role of literature in the diversification of resources, promotion and boosting tourism, by creating itineraries, is widely based, both on national and international bibliography on documents issued by institutional bodies, including UNESCO. "The Conspirator" (Fonseca, 1938) clearly identifies an area near the border with Spain: Marvão (Portugal). From there we proceeded to structuring routes: one that unfolds in an urban landscape, covering the village of Marvão; another that develops in a geographical context predominantly rural, following one of the smuggling routes between Marvão and Valencia de Alcántara (Spain).

Specific Objectives

(i) Propose tourist promotion of Marvão and the surrounding area;

(ii) Building a literary itinerary enabling photo accompanying the story, complemented with a contemporary approach, reinterpreted by the present photographic renderings of the grandson of the author, Luis;

(iv) Relate habits, lifestyles, heritage, and memories of the years 1920/1930 with a contemporary reading;

(v) (Re) value the historical and cultural identity of Marvão and the surrounding region through tourism promotion;

(viii) Promoting cross-border projects;

(ix) Contribute to reducing seasonality;

(x) Use the new information and communication technologies in the promotion, dissemination and accessibility of the itinerary, to empowering the visit.

Methodology | Research undertaken falls within the so-called 'case study'. Proceeded to a thorough literature search in order to sustain theoretically research. A collection of photographs, contemporary to the time when the tale was written by Branquinho da Fonseca, which allowed to 'illustrate' the writing, as well as a comprehensive survey of the material on this short story and the author's experiences in Marvão.

We decided to make several journeys to Marvão and forays into the territory that establishes the connection between this village and Valencia. Informal interviews were used to the inhabitants of Marvão as a method of gathering information, with qualitative results, and its treatment: find out the actual existence of the characters of the tale; realize route (s) of contraband that Paul, the main character of the story, used in his frequent movements between Marvão and Valencia de Alcántara; investigate the experiences of the years 1920-1930 in Marvão, notably the everyday of smugglers; involve the residing community in the project.

Main results and contributions |

• Development and implementation of the two routes, which were presented and worked out with the Department of Culture and Tourism of the Municipality of Marvão (the route of smugglers is also being crafted by Valencia de Alcántara);

• The integration of the smuggler's route on routes of the Cultural Association of Backpackers ', a partnership between Valencia de Alcántara and Marvão;

• The formation of a partnership between the two border towns, in this case, for a fictional plot.

Conclusions | Literature can assume one of the driving forces of a city that did not have any experience in the evaluation of literary tourism, and that this heritage must be recognized in the broader context of cultural tourism consumption. The proposed itineraries, while innovative products, aim to complement, improve and diversify the tourist offer of Marvão and the surrounding territory by (re) evaluation of natural and cultural heritage.

This work must be understood, always, in a perspective of past – present, in which the fictional work helps us to better understand and interpret the space, having managed to make an adjustment between the fictional places narrated and what exists in reality on both sides of the border, their identity and memory, contributing to the diversity and depth of the tourist experience.

One values not only the work but also the author, who will leave a state of almost anonymity that a marble plaque, located in the house where he lived, had him placed.

References

Busby, G. & Hambly, Z., 2000, Literary Tourism and the Daphne du Maurier Festival, in Payton, P. (Ed.) Cornish Studies Eight, University of Exeter Presse, Exeter, pp. 197-212

Busby, G. & Klug, J., 2001, Movie-induced tourism: The challenges of measurement and other issues, Jornal of Vacation Marketing, 7 (4), pp. 316-332

Busby, G. & Shetliffe, E., 2013, Literary Tourism in Context: Byron and Newstead Abbey, European Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Recreation, vol.IV, Issue 3, pp.5-45

Butler, R., 2000, Literary Tourism. In Encyclopedie of Tourism (p. 360). London / Nova York: Routledge.

Butler, R., 1986, Literature as an influence in shaping the image of tourist destinations. Marsh, J.S. (ed.) Canadian Studies of Parks, Recreation and Tourism in Foreign Lands, Canada: Departmente of Geography, Trent University

Cavaco, C., 2006, Práticas e Lugares de Turismo: turismo, espaço e território, Desenvolvimento e Território: espaços rurais pós agrícolas e novos lugares de turismo e lazer, Centro de Estudos Geográficos da Universidade de Lisboa, pp.299-360

Cohen, E., s/d, Traditions in the qualitative sociology of tourism, Annals of Tourism Research, vol.15, nº1 (special issue) Ferreira, A.M.S.,2004, Arte Maior: os contos de Branquinho da Fonseca, Lisboa: mprensa Nacional Casa da Moeda Fonseca, A. J. B. da.,1938/2010, O Conspirador in Caminhos Magnéticos. Obras Completas I, Lisboa: Imprensa Nacional Casa da Moeda

Gonçalves, A., Gentile, R., & Brown, L., 2015, A Life as a Work of Art: Literary Tourists' Motivations and Experiences at Il Vittoriale Degli Italiani, European Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Recreation, Instituto Politécnico de Leiria, Vol. 6, Issue 2, pp. 25-47, 2015

Gonçalves, A., 2005, Turismo Cultural em Complemento ao 'Sol e Praia', Revista Turismo e Desenvolvimento, vol.II(2), pp. 45-60, Aveiro: Universidade de Aveiro.

Henriques, C., & Quinteiro, S., 2012, Olhão Cidade de Turismo Literário: uma Realidade Longínqua? In Revista Turismo e Desenvolvimento (nº 17/18, pp. 1583-1596). Aveiro: Associação de Gestão e Planeamento em Turismo da Universidade de Aveiro.

Henriques, C., 2008, Património Cultural e Turismo: Uma Relação Simbiótica. Análise de dois percursos turístico- culturais: James Joyce e Fernando Pessoa. In Revista Turismo e Desenvolvimento (nº 10, pp. 25-39). Aveiro: Associação de Gestão e Planeamento em Turismo da Universidade de Aveiro.

Henriques, C., 2003,. Turismo, Cidade e Cultura – Planeamento e Gestão Sustentável. Lisboa: Edições Sílabo.

Nora, P. (1984). Lex Lieux de Mémoire. París: Gallimard.

Pereira, C. (org). 1966, Setembro, Rotep - Roteiro Turístico e Económico de Portugal - Marvão (nº137).

Robinson, M., & Andersen, H.C., 2002,. Beyond and between the pages: Literature and tourism relationships. In Robinson, M., & Andersen, H.C. (eds.). Literature and Tourism: Essays in the Reading and Writing on Tourism (pp.39-79). London: Continuum.

Robinson, M., & Andersen, H.C., 2004, Literature and Tourism: Essays in the Reading and Writing on Tourism, London: Thomas Learning.

Santos, F., 2007, Turismo: Mosaico de Sonhos – Incursões Sociológicas pela Cultura Turística, Lisboa, Eds. Colibri Santos, F., 2010, Turismo e Transfigurações Culturais, in Santos, M.G. (org.) Turismo Cultural, Territórios e Identidades, Lisboa, Afrontamento, I. P. Leiria, p.39-62

Tobelem, J-M., 2003, Quand la mémoire littéraire se met en tourisme, Cahiers Espaces - Tourisme de mémoire, vol. 80, Décembre 2003, pp.109 -111.

WebgrafiaHerbert, D. (2001). Literary Places, Tourism and the Heritage of Experience. In Annals of Tourism Research (vol. 28 -2 -, pp.312-333). Retirado de www.tlu.ee/~kpata/uusmeedia/literaryplace

The Identity Construction of Major Indonesian Cities as Revealed in Tourist-Created Content (TCC) Websites

Luh Micke Anggraini

Sekolah Tinggi Pariwisata Nusa Dua Bali (Bali Tourism Institute)
Bali, Indonesia

Introduction

Cities as tourist places are socially constructed from the perspectives of the industry and the visitors. Nowadays, the Internet provides new methods for travellers to learn about tourism destinations from previous visitors. Recent studies suggest that data available from the user generated content websites can be utilized as the credible sources of information for investigating travellers' perceptions and attitudes about tourism destinations, however the extent of its use in developing strategies for tourism destination marketing and management for cities has not been much explored.

Purpose

This paper investigates how tourists might contribute to the construction city identity from their visiting experience shared in the tourist-created content (TCC) website. Informed by the concepts such as tourist co-creation of experience, sense of place and the social construction of tourist places, this study argues that visitors' experience expressed in TCC might shape the identity of a city as tourism destination.

Methods

To analyze the process, characteristics, and factors of the virtual creation of the place identity by visitors, five major cities in Indonesia namely Jakarta, Yogyakarta, Bandung, Surabaya, and Denpasar were selected as case studies. City reviews by domestic and foreign visitors with narratives and visual data (photographs) in TripAdvisor were analyzed using content analysis concerning some destination features such as attractions, accommodation, access, and activities. Discourse analysis was conducted to indicate tourist experiences that provide useful function in the production of the city's identity.

Findings

The results showed that the visitors specified both positive and negative information regarding their attachment to the city they visited by highlighting the place-specific qualities and people-place nexus. The visitors' shared discourse regarding the meaning attributed to place, sense of belonging, representation, personal stories and Indonesianess about the selected cities are also examined.

Conclusions and Implication

By considering the intensive use and dependability of TCC as travel references, this study suggests that tourists have an important role in the construction of city's identity derives from their visiting experiences as expressed in this social media. This research also verifies the social construction of the identity of tourist places through visitors' perception of the place based on their expectation and experience. The practical implications for Destination Management Organization (DMO) in managing and marketing city tourism in Indonesia are also discussed.

References

Dholakia, N., & Reyes, I. (2013). Virtuality as place and process. Journal of Marketing Management, 29 (13-14), 1580-1591.

Filieri, R. (2015). Why do travelers trust TripAdvisor? Antecedents of trust towards consumer- generated media and its influence on recommendation adoption and word of mouth. Tourism Management, 51, 174-185.

Greider, T., & Garkovich, L. (1994). Landscapes: The Social Construction of Nature and the Environment. Rural Sociology, 59 (1), 1-24.

Howard, R. (2010). Urban Tourism Districts: A Taxonomy and a Study of a New Proposed Type. Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development, 7 (4), 415-428.

Kyle, G., & Chick, G. (2007). The Social Construction of a Sense of Place. Leisure Sciences, 29, 209-225.

Liu, S., & Cheung, L. (2016). Sense of place and tourism business development. Tourism Geographies, 1-20.

Morgan, N., Hastings, E., & Pritchard, A. (2012). Developing a new DMO marketing evaluation framework: The case of Visit Wales. Journal of Vacation Marketing, 18 (1), 73-89.

Munar, A. (2011). Tourist-created content: rethinking destination branding. International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 5 (3), 291-305.

Sampson, K., & Goodrich, C. (2009). Making Place: Identity Construction and Community Formation through "Sense of Place" in Westland, New Zealand. Society & Natural Resources, 22 (10), 901-915.

Suntikul, W., & Jachna, T. (2016). The co-creation/ place attachment nexus. Tourism management, 52, 276-286.

van Klinken, G. (2009). Decolonization and the Making of Middle Indonesia. Urban Geography, 30 (8), 879-897.

Young, M. (1999). The social construction of tourist places. Australian Geographer, 30 (3), 373- 89.

The Quality Attributes in the Destination of Jericoacoara / Brazil

Sara Joana Gadotti dos Anjos
Universidade do Vale do Itajaí – UNIVALI, Balneário Camboriú, Brazil.
Jéssica Vieira de Souza Meira
Universidade do Vale do Itajaí – UNIVALI, Balneário Camboriú, Brazil.
Melise de Lima Pereira
Universidade do Vale do Itajaí – UNIVALI, Balneário Camboriú, Brazil.
Pablo Flôres Limberger
Universidade do Vale do Itajaí – UNIVALI, Balneário Camboriú, Brazil.

Introduction

The topic focused on quality has been subject of studies by several research in the field of tourism. Researchers believe that the destinations must meet the expectations of tourists, differentiating itself from the competition through the quality (Limberger, Anjos, Anjos & Meira 2014; Meira & Rossini 2015). The countries, especially the emergent economies, must invest more in tourism as economic growth strategy because of the importance that the industry has achieved in the development of those nations (Goffi 2013; Mota, Vianna & Anjos 2013; Oliveira, Zouain & Barbosa 2012).

Some research related the quality of services to the satisfaction of tourists (Blesic, Ivkov-Dzigurski, Stankov, Stamenkovic & Bradic 2011; Curakovic Sikora, Garaca, Curcic & Vukosav 2013; Markovic & Jankovic 2013), others with loyalty (Kuo Chang, Chen & Lai 2013; Wilkins, Merrilees & Herington 2010), there are those who use it as a management tool (Alonso-Almeida, Rodríguez-Antón & Rubio-Andrada 2012), or as a competitive advantage (Zhong, Chen & Xie 2010). The guest behavior is also commonly associated with the quality of services (Kuo Chang, Chen & Hsu 2012; Grobelna & Marciszewska 2013; Johann & Anastassova 2014; Stupariu & Josan 2014).

When examining the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction, it was found that the quality of services is a significant factor for achieving customer satisfaction (Markovic & Jankovic 2013). The study of Kuo et al. (2013) examined the relationship between satisfaction, service recovery, perceived value, service quality and loyalty and concluded that satisfaction relates to the quality of service and loyalty. The research of Grobelna and Marciszewska (2013) evaluated the perception of guests and managers about the quality of services and found that the reliability and empathy received negative evaluations.

In order to contribute to the deepening of discussions, this research seeks to identify the attributes related to the quality of the destination Jericoacoara / Brazil. It was chosen to this destination because of being internationally renowned (Stein & Vianna 2015). The beach of Jericoacoara is considered one of the best destinations to rest due to its calm and natural environment (Huffington Post 2014). Recognized for having international quality standards (Buosi & Silva 2013), Jericoacoara attracts tourists from different parts of the country as well as abroad (Stein & Vianna 2015).

Methodological Procedures

This research is characterized by being descriptive, with quantitative approach. The survey instrument was developed by a group of researchers of the Universidade do Vale do Itajaí (UNIVALI) and the Universidade de Caxias do Sul (UCS). The sample is characterized by being simple random probability, formed by 391 tourists. The research instrument consists of two

parts, the first related to the demographic characteristics of the respondents and the second consisting of 25 questions presented in a five-point Likert scale (strongly agree to strongly disagree) related to the quality of the tourist destination Jericoacoara.

The information related to the characterization of the respondent were analyzed using descriptive statistics. To analyze the quality of the destination it was used exploratory factor analysis (Hair Jr., Anderson, Tatham & Black 2005). In addition, it used the oblique rotation method, because there is no correlation between the factors and also for this rotation to present more accurate solutions (Costello & Osborne 2005). Finally, the confirmatory factor analysis was applied, in order to validate the factors by showing the internal consistency of these (Hair et al 2005).

Results

Respondents mostly are female (53.3%), aged between 16 and 34 years (66.1%) and university graduates (61.4%). The percentage of married (50.6%) and single (41.9%) was very close. Most tourists are employed with a formal contract (30.9%), followed by public employees (22.4%) and self-employed (20.8%). The average family income is between R$ 3,391.00 and R$ 10,170.00 (53.3%).

The Jericoacoara tourists are coming, mostly from other regions of Brazil, totaling 356 respondents (91%). However, we note that 18 respondents were tourists from Europe (4.6%), 16 tourists from other regions of South America (4.1%) and 01 tourist from Africa (0.3%). Most visited for the first time (71.5%), but 14.9% for the second time and 13.6% had visited the destination 03 times or more. Most been in the destination between 01 and 03 days (60.3%) and from 04 to 06 days (27.4%).

The reliability of the factors was evaluated using the Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al 2005). In all, they identified five factors that characterize the attributes related to quality of Jericoacoara destination. Analyzing the extracted variance of each factor, it can be seen that by forming variable factor "Service Offer" are the most responsible for the quality of Jericoacoara destination (explained variance of 26.63%). The second factor is the "Sustainability", with explained variance of 8.80%. Factors "Attractiveness" (6.97% variance), "Management" (variance of 5.48%) and "Hosting" (variance of 5.38%), were less influent.

The results from the confirmatory factor analysis show that the data obtained by exploratory factor analysis are confirmed, although in one different arrangement. The factors were the same internal structure, through a reliable above 0.7, the minimum value recommended in the literature (Hair et al. 2005). This fact shows that the scale used in this study was confirmed and therefore may be used in further studies.

Final Considerations

This study aimed to contribute theoretically and empirically with the discussions related to the quality of destinations, as well as assist them in making strategic decisions. The adopted methodological procedures were able to make the proposed goal was achieved. The amount of tourists questioned brings strength to the research and can provide a general idea of what tourists from Jericoacoara think about the quality of the destination. The statistical tools were used to analyze the data, find the results and confirm the same in order to demonstrate transparency in the presentation and discussion of information.

References

Alonso-Almeida, M. M.; Rodríguez-Antón, J. M. & Rubio-Andrada, L. (2012). Reasons for implementing certified quality systems and impact on performance: an analysis of the hotel industry. Service Industries Journal, 32(06), 919-936.

Blesic, I.; Ivkov-Dzigurski, A.; Stankov, U.; Stamenkovis, I. & Bradic, I. M. (2011). Research of expected and perceived service quality in hotel management. Journal of Tourism, 11, 05-13.

Buosi, M. C. A. & Silva, A. L. L. (2013). A avaliação dos atributos da imagem e sua relação com a imagem global do destino de turismo internacional: Praia de Jericoacoara. Turismo em Análise, 24(01), 25-40.

Costello, A. & Osborne, J. (2005). Best practices in exploratory factor analysis: four recommendations for getting the most from your analysis. Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation, 10(07).

Curakovic, D.; Sikora, I.; Garaca, V.; Curcic, N. & Vukosav S. (2013). The degree of consumer satisfaction with hotel services. Journal of Tourism, 15, 06-11.

Goffi, G. (2013). A model of tourism destinations competitiveness: the case of the Italian destinations of excellence. Anuario Turismo y Sociedad, 14, 121-147.

Grobelna, A. & Marciszewska, B. (2013). Measurement of service quality in the hotel sector: the case of Northern Poland. Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 22(03), 313-332.

Hair Jr., J. F.; Anderson, R. E.; Tatham, R. L. & Black, W. C. (2005). Análise multivariada de dados. Porto Alegre: Bookman.

Huffington Post. The 40 best beaches on earth. (2014). Disponível em http://www.huffingtonpost.com/minube/the-40-best-beaches-on-ea_b_5670807 Acesso em Abril 2016.

Johann, M. & Anastassova, L. (2014). The perception of tourism product quality and tourist satisfaction: the case of polish tourists visiting Bulgaria. European Journal of Tourism Research, 08, 99-114.

Kuo, N.; Chang, K.; Cheng, Y. & Lai, C. (2013). Investigating the effect of service quality on customer loyalty in the hotel industry: the mediating role of customer satisfaction and the moderating roles of service recovery and perceived value. Journal of China Tourism Research, 09(03), 257-276.

Kuo, N-T.; Chang, K-C.; Chen, M-C. & Hsu, C-L. (2012). Investigating the effect of service quality on customer post-purchasing behaviors in the hotel sector: the moderating role of service convenience. Journal of Quality Assurance in Tourism & Hospitality, 13, 212- 234.

Limberger, P. F.; Anjos, F. A.; Meira, J. V. S. & Anjos, S. J. G. (2014). Satisfaction in hospitality on TripAdvisor.com: an analysis of the correlation between evaluation criteria and overall satisfaction. Tourism & Management Studies, 10(01), pp.59-65.

Markovic, S. & Jankovic, S. R. (2013). Exploring the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction in croatian hotel industry. Tourism & Hospitality Management, 19(02), 149-164.

Meira, J. V. S.; Rossini, D. M. Competitividade no turismo: uma aplicação do sistema territorial turístico no município de Balneário Camboriú (SC), Brasil. In: Fórum Internacional de Turismo do Iguassu, 09, 2015, Foz do Iguaçu. Anals... Foz do Iguaçu: FIT, 2015.

Mota, K. C. N.; Vianna, S. L. G. & Anjos, F. A. Competitividade das destinações turísticas e qualidade de vida de seus residentes: análise dos fatores que fortalecem sua correspondência. In: Seminário da Associação Nacional de Pesquisa e Pós-

Graduação em Turismo, 10, 2013, Caxias do Sul. Anals... Caxias do Sul: ANPTUR, 2013, 01-19.

Oliveira, C. T. F.; Zouain, D. M.; Barbosa, L. G. M. Gestão e competitividade de 65 destinos turísticos brasileiros: uma abordagem sistêmica. In: Tourism & Management Studies International Conference, 2012, Algarve. Anals... Algarve: TMS, 2012, p.1085-1098.

Treating Chinese outbound travellers as a moving national market –
New approaches to understand the changing travel and shopping
patterns of affluent Chinese travellers abroad

Wolfgang Georg Arlt
West Coast University of Applied Sciences, Germany

China continues to be the biggest international tourism outbound source market in the world, with (COTRI forecast) more than 150 million border-crossings from Mainland China expected in 2016. China is home to the highest number of billionaires and in 2015 overtook the USA also as the biggest source market for MICE travel. Travel and shopping patterns have seen big changes in the past months, with Hong Kong and Macau SAR losing out in arrival numbers, market share and turnover, whereas other off-the-track destinations like Iceland or Czechia almost doubling their arrival numbers and brands like Louis Vutton no longer valued by Chinese travelling customers, with smaller lifestyle-orientated brands and regional products gaining in importance.

Luxury brand companies have started to treat Chinese outbound travellers as a unified market instead of having every national sub-organisation developing strategies without much regard for the similarity of issues in neighbouring countries. Destinations move from spatially- centered to activity-centered marketing in addressing Chinese potential visitors.

For luxury shopping, the wish for gaining prestige and lifestyle (self-)confirmation, the hunt for bargains even in high-price segments, the avoidance of fake products and the thrill of buying goods at the "source" has in recent time to stand up against the anti-corruption and anti-hedonism campaign of the Chinese government and ruling party and the more stringent application of customs restrictions for the import of goods when returning from overseas travels to China. For high-end travel, gaining prestige is moving from visiting famous sights to engaging oneself in adventures or other deep (but short) immersion into local culture.

The paper will draw on the recent literature on Chinese outbound tourism, recent results of a number of research projects of COTRI China Outbound Tourism Research Institute and especially on the monthly results of the i2i COTRI Chinese outbound luxury travel and shopping survey, which reflect the ongoing changes in the travel and shopping patterns of a more and more sophisticated and travel-savvy segment of the Chinese outbound market. Based on a database of about 500,000 affluent Chinese WeChat group members, the analysis can shed light on current and future travel and shopping trends of the top 1% of the Chinese society. They will be compared then with current reactions to such trends by luxury brand companies and NTOs and global tourism service providers.

References
Li, Robert (ed.): *Chinese Outbound Tourism 2.0*, Apple Academic Press, Oakville 2016
Arlt, Wolfgang Georg: China's Outbound Tourism: History, Current Development, and
        Outlook, in: Li 2016 (ed.): *Chinese Outbound Tourism 2.0, pp. 3-20*
div. COTRI publications, 2015, 2016 (see www.china-outbound.com)
I2i COTRI Chinese outbound luxury travel and shopping survey (2016, div. monthly issues)

Push-pull motivations, satisfaction of experience and post behavioural intention: the study of dark tourism at war memorial sites of WWII Death Railway tragedy, Kanchanaburi province, Thailand

Raweewan Chanuanthong
Assumption University, Bangkok Thailand

Introduction

The study is aimed to investigate the motivations of visitors and how they were influenced on related variables. Also, the study focused on "push" motivations and "pull' motivations and their influence on the satisfaction of experience and post behavioral intention. Additionally, the study also attempted to explore the relationship between satisfaction of experience and post behavioral intention. The research was conducted at the war memorial sites of WWII Death Railway museums and cemeteries in Kanchanaburi Province.

Methods

A quantitative approach was employed in the form of self-completion surveys (handed-out) distributed to 400 international and domestic visitors. The statistical techniques used to analyze the data were descriptive analysis, factor analysis, and multiple linear regression and Pearson R' Correlation. Applying factor analysis led to the categorization of the push and pull motivations from the tourists visiting the museums and cemeteries of Death Railway tragedy.

Findings

The research revealed there were 6 motivational factors but there were only 4 factors were accepted in analysis to explore influence on satisfaction of experience as well as on post behavioral intention. Among 4 motivational factors, 2 of them were grouped under push motivational factors and the other 2 were grouped under pull motivational factors. After hypotheses testing, the findings showed that push and pull motivational factors have a significant influence on the satisfaction of experience. Both motivational factors also revealed the significant influence on post behavioral intention. Moreover, satisfaction of experience had the positive relationship with post behavioral intention.

Implications and conclusions

It is recommended that tourism-related providers related to sites of Death Railway tragedy should understand the importance of the motivational factors of the visitors and combine these into travel programs to increase the satisfaction of experience and post behavioral intention in dark tourism. Apart from the development of convenient access of war memorial sites, adoption of new tourism themes to market and promote especially in war memorial sites is the need to study. Furthermore, in order to increase the post behavioral intention in dark tourism, it is important to add satisfaction of experience by combing the innovative add- ons and knowledge activities in the places. Finally, tour operators should act as a specialist in a special type of war or dark tourism to fulfil the desire of contemporary tourists.

References

Braithwaite, R., & Leiper, N. (2010). Contests on the River Kwai: how a wartime tragedy became a recreational, commercial and nationalistic plaything. Current Issues in Tourism, 13, 311-332.

Bigley, J. D., Lee, C.-k., Chon, J., & Yoon, Y. (2010). Motivations for War-related Tourism: A Case of DMZ Visitors in Korea. Tourism Geographies, 12(3), 371–394. doi:10.1080/14616688.2010.494687

Crompton, J. L., & McKay, S. L. (1997). Motives of visitors attending festival events. Annals of Tourism Research, 24(2), 425-439.

Deutsch, B. (2014). Tourists' motivations for engaging in Dark Tourism: Case Study of Apartheid memorials in South Africa. (Bachelor Degree), MODUL University Vienna. Retrieved July 3, 2015, from h ttps://www.modul.ac.at/uploads/files/Theses/Bachelor/Thesis_final_Barbara_De utsch.pdf

Erdmenger, E. (2014). Tourist Motivation to Visit War Heritage Sites. Retrieved July 8, 2015, from http://wiki.du.se/index.php?title=%C3%84mnen_-_Subjects/Tourism_studies/KG3012/Seminar_2_Geography_of_the_heritage/The_Concerns_of_Heritage_Conservation/Tourist_Motivation_to_Visit_War_Heritage_Sites

Hartmann, R. (2014). Dark tourism, thanatourism, and dissonance in heritage tourism management: new directions in contemporary tourism research. Journal of Heritage Tourism, 9 (2), 166-182.

Farmaki, A. (2013). Dark tourism revisited: a supply/demand conceptualization.
International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 7(3), 281 - 292

Maunier, C. & Camelis, C. (2011). Towards an identification of elements contributing to the tourism experience satisfaction: a global approach. Paper presented at the 5ème journée AFM sur le Marketing du Tourisme et du Loisir (5th AFM Day on Tourism and Marketing Recreation), Archamps, France. Retrieved March 15, 2016, from http://cemoi.univreunion.fr/fileadmin/Fichiers/CEMOI/Publications/Documents_de_travail/2011/2011-01_-_2011_WP1_CC_CM_Towards_an_identification-1.pdf

Miles, W. (2002). Auschwitz: Museum interpretation and darker tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 29, 1175 –1178.

Miles, S. (2014a). Battlefield Sites as Dark Tourism Attractions: An Analysis of Experience. Journal of Heritage Tourism, 9(2), 134-147.

Minić, N. (2012). Development of "dark" tourism in the contemporary society. J. Georg. Inst. Cvijic, 62(3), 81-103. doi:10.2298/IJGI1203081M.

Morgan, M., Lugosi, P., & Brent Ritchie, J. R. (2010). The tourism and leisure experience. Canada: Channel View Publications.

Stone, P. R. (2010). Death, dying and dark tourism in contemporary society: A theoretical and empirical analysis. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Central Lancashire (UCLan), United Kingdom, Retrieved July 2, 2015, from UCLan's website: http://clok.uclan.ac.uk/1870/

Stone, P., & Sharpley, R. (2008). Consuming dark tourism: A Thanatological Perspective. Annals of Tourism Research, 35(2), 574–595. Stone, P., & Sharpley, R. (2008). Consuming dark tourism: A Thanatological Perspective. Annals of Tourism Research, 35(2), 574–595.

Tang, J., & Qiu, C. (2015). Research on Motivation, Experience, Satisfaction and Behavioral Intention of Museum Tourism—A Case of Macau

Museum. In G. Zeng (Ed.), Tourism and Hospitality Development Between China and EU, (pp. 137-153). Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag.

Uysal, M., Li, X., & Sirakaya-Turk, E. (2008). Push-Pull dynamics in travel decisions. In H. Oh (Ed.), Handbook of Hospitality Marketing Management (pp. 412-439). Massachusetts: Elsevier.

van der Merwe, C. D. (2014). Battlefields Tourism: The status of heritage tourism in Dundee, South Africa. In C. M. Rogerson & D. Szymańska (Eds.), Bulletin of Geography. Socio- economic Series (pp. 121-139). Toruń: Nicolaus Copernicus University.

Zeithaml, V., Berry, L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioural consequence of service quality. Journal of Marketing, 60, 31-46.

Zdebski, J., & Winiarski, R. (2008). Psychologia turysty. Warszawa Wydawnictwa Akademickie i Profesjonalne.

Cross-cultural validation of the perceived destination restorative quality scale (PDRQS): evidence from China

Ganghua Chen
Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou, PR China
Songshan (Sam) Huang
University of South Australia, Adelaide, Australia

This study aims to establish the cross-cultural validity of the perceived destination restorative quality scale (PDRQS), a recent measurement scale developed by Lehto (2013) to acess the restorative qualities of vacation destinations. While the original scale was developed by studying Americans with vacation experiences within the past one year, this study focuses on Chinese vacationers who were taking a vacation when surveyed to further validate the scale and advance the studies of destination restorative qualities. Guided by the attention restoration theory, the study involves two samples in two stages (Study 1, n=230; Study 2, n=148) to verify the psychometric properties of the PDRQS. Results show that while the five dimensions of the PDRQS, i.e., compatibility, extent, mentally away, physically away, and fascination, are also valid with Chinese vacationers when acessing the restorative qualities of a vacation destination, discord is confirmed not a restorative quality dimension. Generally, the findings of the study suggest that the PDRQS in its revised form can be utilized to assess the restorative qualities of vacation destinations in a cross-cultural setting.

References
Berman, M. G., Jonides, J., & Kaplan, S. (2008). The cognitive benefits of interacting with nature. Psychological science, 19(12), 1207-1212.
Chen, C. C., W. J. Huang, and J. F. Petrick. (2016). Holiday Recovery Experiences, Tourism Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction–Is There a Relationship? Tourism Management, 53: 140-147.
Hartig, T., M. Mang, and G. W. Evans. (1991). Restorative effects of natural environment experiences. Environment and Behavior, 23(1): 3-26.
Hartig, T., G. W. Evans, L. D. Jamner, D. S. Davis, and T. Garling. (2003). Tracking Restoration in Natural and Urban Field Settings. Journal of Environmental Psychology, 23 (2): 109-23.
Kaplan, R., and S. Kaplan. (1989). The Experience of Nature: A Psychological Perspective. New York: Cambridge University Press.
Kaplan, S. (1995). The Restorative Benefits of Nature: Toward an Integrative Framework. Journal of Environmental Psychology, 15: 169-82.
Lehto, X. Y. (2012). Assessing the perceived restorative qualities of vacation destinations. Journal of Travel research, 52(3) 325 –339.
Pals, R., L. Steg, F. W. Siero, and K. I. Van der Zee. (2009). Development of the PRCQ: A Measure of Perceived Restorative Characteristics of Zoo Attractions. Journal of Environmental Psychology, 29 (4): 441-49.
Petrick, J. F., & Huether, D. (2013). Is Travel Better Than Chocolate and Wine? The Benefits of Travel A Special Series. Journal of Travel Research, 52(6), 705-708.

Modelling Cruise Lines' Decision Making and Cruise Ports' Competitiveness in Regional Markets

Jamie M. Chen
VU Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands
Mark G. Lijesen
VU Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands
Peter Nijkamp
Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznan, Poland

Cruise tourism has become one of the significantly increasing industries in the world, particularly in the growing Asian markets. The success of cruise tourism has led to the development of cruise ports, which play a big role in designing cruise routes. The big economic impact of cruise tourism on coastal destinations has attracted many cruise ports to join, and it induces a competition in regional markets.

Our study aims to model the cruise lines' decision making in selecting cruise ports and to identify the determinants of cruise ports' competitiveness, from the perspective of the emerging markets in cruise tourism. As an ideal target region for study, Japan has a large set of cruise ports. By modelling cruise lines' decision making on cruise ports and cruise routes, we may find the essential features of successful cruise ports and further evaluate the competitiveness of cruise ports in an interlinked system of cruise routes. Two sources of relevant data are used in our research. First, the model of the cruise lines' decision making is based on the longitudinal information of cruise ships' visits in all 135 Japanese cruise ports during 18 years (1998--2015), and on some cruise ports' networks with preceding and subsequent cruise ports (e.g. Yokohama, Fukuoka, Nagasaki, Muroran, Wakkanai, Tokachi, Abashiri, etc.). Second, we evaluate the cruise ports' competitiveness by using some typical cruise ports' cruise visits data and these cruise port cities' relevant ratings obtained from TripAdvisor. Thus, our focus switches from mature regions (i.e. North America, Europe) to the emerging Asian competitive region, in particular Japan. Based on the datasets from cruise ports and cruise port cities in Japan, our study aims to analyse and quantify the driving factors of cruise lines' decision making in selecting cruise ports and cruise ports' competitiveness in regional markets. Our research provides cruise lines with guidance on designing cruise routes, while it also offers useful policy knowledge based on quantitative methods of evaluating the cruise ports' competitiveness.

The results show that cruise lines' decision making is influenced by different features of cruise ports, the attractiveness of cruise port cities, and the network links of each cruise port with other cruise ports, viz. the previous and next cruise ports in a chain of cruise routes in our research. It leads to a new understanding of cruise line competitiveness in regional markets, where especially the relationship between cruise ports appears to be more based on collaboration than on competition.

Construction and validation of a scale to measure individual heritage responsibility in World Heritage Sites

Peng Chen
Sun Yat Sen University, PR China
Chaozhi Zhang
Guangzhou University, PR China

Moral and ethical conflicts become more obvious accompanied with heritage tourism development (Zhang, 2014). Gilligan (1983) believe that "the moral problem arises from conflicting responsibilities rather than competing rights" (p.19). Introducing and emphasizing of responsibility can attribute to the realising sustainable tourism, minimal negative tourism impacts and maximum sustainable development, maintaining the world's diversity, and providing memorable tourist experience in the globally valuable, sensitive or fragile tourism sectors (Blankstock et al., 2008; Goodwin, 2011). Previous studies attempted a holistic consciousness for local communities, states and overall well-being, and all the tourism actors and stakeholders are involved, such as tourists, governments, local communities, local operators in political and practical levels (Frey & George, 2010; Sin, 2010; Leslie, 2012). Most of prior studies, however, highlighted that different stakeholders should assume different obligations for heritage tourism, and even some parties should be exempted from responsibility issues (Haukeland, 2011; Xu et al., 2012). Goodwin (2009) argues that all tourism stakeholders should take responsibility for creating better places for people to live, and better places for people to visit. "The encouragement of responsibility in the practice of tourism (both production and consumption) is both logical and desirable" , but "sound or responsible environmental practice results more often than not from control and legislation" (Sharpley, 2013: 389). Moreover, tourists, community residents, and institutional or organizational responsibility issues were discussed in tourism studies (Wells et al., 2016; Grimwood et al., 2015b), a general ethical level of responsibility has not been mentioned in tourism context.

For the critics, however, responsibility in tourism usually be viewed as a marketing ploy (Wheeller, 1991), expansion of neoliberalism (Duffy, 2008), and power differentials reminiscent of colonialist regimes (Sin, 2010). Fennell (2008) argues that lackness of philosophical engagement with the meaning of responsibility lead to the failure of responsible tourism's outcomes. Although term of "responsible" has ubiquitous position in tourism research, but "lack of sufficient ontology in structuring a way forward" and "failure to have knowledge of what responsibility means is itself a lack of responsibility" (Fennell, 2008: 4). Agreed with Fennell's (2008) standpoint, Grimwood et al. (2015b) reveals how touristic norms associated with responsibility operate and to what effect on tourist behavior in nature-based tourism area drawing on discursive and postcolonial perspectives. Therefore, a well grounded philosophical framework should be involved and may provide useful help for a better understanding of responsibility in tourism area.

Drawing upon before insights, the purpose of this study is to illuminate individual responsibility and try to build a scale to measure individual heritage responsibility in World Heritage Sites. Emmanual Levinas's framework of responsibility draws out a useful framework for understanding the responsibility issues among different tourists and inhabitants activities in nature and cross-culture environment (Grimwood & Doubleday, 2013). With respect to Levinas, the origin of responsibility is an experience -- the experience of an encounter with the other, "face to face" (Raffoul, 2010: 184). Moreover, Levinas conceptualizes responsibility as a being "for-the-other", the other's face as codes and commands for one's responsibility and responsibility is a response to the face of the other (Levinas, 1985). Levinas's responsibility

theory offers two valuable resources for understanding, interpreting and then measuring the responsibility issue amidst heritage tourism's multiplicity:

First, responsibility does not arise out of the freedom of the subject or agent, but out of the subject's pre-originary openness to the Other (Raffoul, 2010: 177), and lies in the intersubjective relation (Raffoul, 2010: 166); Second, the authentic relationship to the other is in language, or in discourse (Raffoul, 2010: 189). And Soares (2008) believes that Levinas puts language as primordiality basis for ethics priority. Same to this viewpoint, Castree (2003) believes that ethics cannot emanate from non-linguistic "outside". The origin of responsibility lies in the vulnerability of the other, which calls to me insofar as "the face speaks" (Levinas, 1985: 87). Therefore, world heritage, as the production of "powerful discourses" (Peng & Zheng, 2008; Xu et al., 2012; Zhang, 2014), can be understood as "face".

Therefore, heritage responsibility stresses the heritage's expression of its uniqueness and vulnerability to related subjectivities, and calls their responsible awareness and concerns for heritage, and doing responsible heritage-based activities in individual's ethical perspective. For the tourist's perspective, more concrete evidence of responsibility fouced on leaving no tracing to nature (Grimwood & Doubleday, 2013; Grimwood et al., 2015b), education (Miller et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2011), accountability for the well-beings of one's self and one's travel partness (Grimwood et al., 2015b), express promoting or protecting of the natural environment through economic measures (Chen, 2011; Whitmarsh & O'Neill, 2011). For local residents, meaning of responsibility lie in transfering knowledge to younger generation and tourists (Grimwood & Doubleday, 2013), care for environment and wildlife (Grimwood & Doubleday, 2013), selfless love for the other (Fennell, 2008). And responsibility of tourism agents, guiding and interpretation as expert was discussed recently (Grimwood & Doubleday, 2013). This study adopted the comprehensive procedures of measurement scale development recommended by prior studies. The scale development procedure yielded a seven factor measurement scale with acceptable levels of reliability and validity. Seven dimensions of heritage responsibility were labelled: respect (items adopted from Donohoe, 2011, and Grimwood et al., 2015), knowledge transferring (Ricoeur, 1999; Graham, 2002; Caruana et al., 2014), protection and conservation (Swarbrooke, 1999; Henderson, 2006), learning and education (items collected from Lee et al., 2013; Grimwood & Doubleday, 2013) , persuasion (Lee & Lin, 2001), reciprocity (Lee & Lin, 2001; Henderson, 2006; Caruana et al., 2014), and care for the other (Grimwood & Doubleday, 2013).

References

Blackstock, K. L., White, V., McCrum, G., Scott, A., & Hunter, C. (2008). Measuring responsibility: An appraisal of a Scottish National Park's sustainable tourism indicators. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 16(3), 276-297.

Castree, N. (2003). A post-environmental ethics? Ethics, place & environment. Ethics, Place & Environment, 6(1), 3-12.

Chen, C. L. (2011). From catching to watching: moving towards quality assurance of whale/dolphin watching tourism in Taiwan. Marine Policy, 35, 10-17.

Cheong, S., & Miller, M. L. (2000). Power and tourism: A Foucauldian observation. Annals of Tourism Research, 27(2), 371-390.

Duffy, R. (2008). Neoliberalising nature: Global networks and ecotourism development in Madagascar. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 16(3), 327-344.

Fennell, D. A. (2006). Evolution in tourism: the theory of reciprocal altruism and tourist-host interactions. Current issues in tourism, 9(2), 105-124.

Fennell, D. A. (2008). Responsible tourism: A Kierkegaardian interpretation. Tourism Recreation Research, 33(1), 3-12.

Gilligan, C. (1983). In a different voice: psychological theory and women's development,
Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Goodwin, H. (2011). Taking responsibility for tourism. Oxford, UK: Goodfellow
Publishers Ltd.

Goodwin, H., & Francis, J. (2003). Ethical and responsible tourism: Consumer trends in
the UK. Journal of Vacation Marketing, 9(3), 271–284.

Grimwood, B. S. R. (2015a). Advancing tourism's moral morphology: relational
metaphors for just and sustainable arctic tourism. Tourist Studies, 15(1), 3-26.

Grimwood, B. S. R., & Doubleday, N. C. (2013). Illuminating traces: enactments of
responsibility in practices of Arctic river tourists and inhabitants. Journal
of Ecotourism, 12(2), 53-74.

Grimwood, B. S. R., Yudina, O., Muldoon, M., & Qiu Ji. (2015b). Responsibility in tourism:
A discursive analysis. Annals of Tourism Research, 50, 22-38.

Hufford, M. (1994). Conserving Culture: A New Discourse on Heritage. University of
Illinois Press.

Kearney, R. (1994). Dialogue with Emmanuel Levinas: Dialogue with Contemprary
Continental Thinkers. Manchester University Press, Manchester.

Langford, R. F. (1983). Our heritage - Your playground. Australian Archaeology, 16 (Jun.), 1-6.

Lee, T. H., Jan, F. H., & Yang, C. C. (2013). Conceptualizing and measuring environmentally
responsible behaviors from the perspective of community-based tourists.
Tourism Management, 36, 454-468.

Leslie, D. (2012). Responsible tourism: Concepts, theory and practice. Cambridge, MA: CABI

Levinas, E. (1969). Totality and infinity: an essay on exteriority. Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Levinas, E. (1981). Otherwise than being or beyond essence, translate by A. Lingis. The
Hague, Martinus Nijhoff.

Levinas, E. (1985). Ethics and infinity: Conversations with Philippe Nemo. (R. A. Cohen,
Trans.). Pittsburgh, PA: Duquesne University Press.

Levinas, E. (1986). The trace of the other. "La Trace de L'Autre", translated by A. Lingis.
605- 623.

Massey, D. (2004). Geographies of responsibility. Human Geography, 86(1), 5-8.

Miller, G., Rathouse, K., Scarles, C., Holmes, K., & Tribe, J. (2010). Public understanding
of sustainable tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 37(3), 627-645.

Peng, Z., & Zheng, X. (2008). Legacy and Tourism: collocating and deviating of tradition
and modern. Guangxi Ethical Research, 3, 33-39.

Raffoul, F. (2010). The origins of responsibility. Indiana University Press.

Sharpley, R. (2009). Tourism Development and the Environment: Beyond
Sustainability? Earthscan.

Sharpley, R. (2013). Responsible tourism: whose responsibility? Edited by A. Holden, & D.
Fennell, The routledge handbook of tourism and the environment. Routledge:
382- 391.

Sin, S. L. (2010). Who are we responsible to? Locals' tales of volunteer tourism.
Geoforum, 41, 983-992.

Smith, L. (2006). Uses of heritage. Routledge.

Soares, C. (2008). Corporate legal responsibility: a Levinasian perspective. Journal
of Business Ethics, 81, 545-553.

Stanford, D. (2008). 'Exceptional visitors': Dimensions of tourist responsibility in the
context of New Zealand. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 16(3), 258-275.

Tapp, N. (2010). Yunnan: ethnicity and economies, markets and mobility. Asia Pacific J.
Anthropol. 11 (2), 97-110.

Toumayan, A. (2004). "I more than the others": Dostoecsky and Levinas. Yale French
Studies, 104, Encounters with Levinas, 55-66.

Vespestad, M. K., & Lindberg, F. (2011). Understanding nature-based tourist experiences: an ontological analysis. Current Issues in Tourism, 14(6), 563-580.

Waller, B. N. (2004). Consider ethics: theory, readings, and contemporary issues. Pearson Education, Inc.

Wang, Y., & Bramwell, B. (2011). Heritage protection and tourism development priorities in Hangzhou, China: A political economy and governance perspective. Tourism Management, 33(4), 988-998.

Weeden, C. (2013). Responsible tourist behaviour. New York, NY: Routledge.

Wheeller, B. (1991). Tourism's troubled times: Responsible tourism is not the answer. Tourism Management, 12(2), 91-96.

Whitmarsh, L., & O'Neill, S. (2011). Green identity, green living? The role of pro-environmental self-identity in determining consistency cross diverse pro-environmental behaviours. Journal of Environmental Psychology, 30, 305-314.

Xu, H., Wan X., & Fan X. (2012). Rethinking the implementation of authenticity in China's heritage conservation. Human Geography, 27(1), 107-112.

Zhang, C. (2014). Heritage responsibility: conception, characteristics and research issues. Tourism Tribune, 29(11), 45-51.

Tourism Data: Nova Scotia Since 1950

Nancy Chesworth
Mount St.Vincent University Halifax, Canada

In the mid-1860's the province of Nova Scotia, Canada recognized that tourism was providing economic benefits to both rural and urban areas. Data on the number of visitors to the province and later, their mode of transport and expenditures was collected starting in 1864.

The Canadian Pacific Railway (CPR) saw the potential for greater profits by encouraging a growing middle class to travel. The company spurred growth by constructing resorts in some of the most scenic parts of the country including Nova Scotia. This strategy worked and tourism grew at an even pace, with the exception of World Wars I and II, which halted tourism until 1946.

In the 1950's, the increased availability of automobiles and the growth of motels and services lead to the development of Nova Scotia as a motoring destination. Motoring holidays focused mostly around family holidays and motor coach tours. The advent of mass tourism in 1957 did not immediately pose a challenge and Nova Scotia persisted as a motoring destination. This is still the case today.

Growth in both numbers of tourists and revenue continued at a steady pace for the most part until the 2000's. After that year, the number of visitors fluctuated, as well as year-to-year revenue. In essence, tourism in Nova Scotia has stagnated since 2000 growing at an average rate of 5% or less per year, when the data is corrected for inflation (Chesworth, 2013). In contrast, other destinations have experienced tourism growth amounting to as much as 15% per annum.

The "Now or Never Nova Scotia" report was commissioned to examine ways to improve the faltering economy of the province. It pointed out the economic impact of tourism in Nova Scotia and the poor state of the tourism product in the province, which was described as tired and worn. (Ivany , et al, 2014) Further, it proposed that the goal for tourism should be to increase revenue from tourism to $4 billion per year by 2022.

The primary objective of this study was to develop a historical context to provide perspective for current planning for future planning initiatives. Secondary objectives focus on issues raised both by the Ivany Report and an examination of the annually reported tourism data. Three questions emerged that are the focus of this paper.

1.   To what extent has tourism grown since 1950?

2.   In terms of constant dollars, what is the extent of the increase in economic impact of tourism since 1950?

3.   Does the growth of tourism in Nova Scotia relate to Butler's Tourism Area Life Cycle and if so how?

Method

The method used to develop this paper consisted of an examination of data on tourist visitation collected annually by the Province of Nova Scotia. This secondary data was obtained from annual reports of various departments responsible for tourism over the decades since

1950 in the archives and legislative library of the province. The data were entered into Excel and graphs were constructed to provide a visual means of interpretation.

Findings

When corrected for inflation, the data indicated a general upward trend in growth from the 1950's, through the end of the 1990's, with downturns in years of recession. The general downturn in tourism starting in the year 2000 persisted until 2015. The past decade in particular has seen more positive and negative years than in previous decades.

In terms of the TALC, the province as a destination may have reached its zenith. Tourism appears to be wavering between good and poor visitation and positive and negative revenue. Further it appears that tourism at this point is in need of intensive planning if a major down turn is to be avoided.

Conclusions

The province of Nova Scotia is in a difficult situation. Economically, the province as a whole is on the verge of economic downfall. Economically, tourism has not provided the benefits assumed by some to be automatic. The reasons behind increases and decreases are numerous and require further study.

Tourism in Nova Scotia faces increased competition from developing destinations offering more spectacular experiences. In light of this trend, the historical data, coupled with increasing competition from developing destinations makes the arbitrary goal of doubling tourism revenue by the early 2020's to $4 billion unrealistic. Cost effective and ease of access to formerly distant locations adds another layer of complexity to the difficulty of marketing a destination having less to offer consumers groomed to expect spectacular offerings. By contrast, Nova Scotia offers a relaxing holiday, a slower pace, and less stress full experiences.

Given that the tourism product has been noted for its tired and worn qualities, much work needs to be accomplished to return tourism to a more stable state. This is especially true of accommodations outside of Halifax, which are of poor quality and frequently overpriced in view of what is provided.

This study may be of use in examining trends and providing perspective for planning for the future. Obviously, more research needs to be undertaken to pinpoint the specific aspects of the tourism product that may be creating unfavourable impressions in the minds of tourists, leading to negative word of mouth and thus fewer repeat and new visitors.

References

Beeton, S. (2005) The case study in tourism research: a multi-method case study approach. In: B. Ritchie, P. Burns and C. Palmer, Eds. Tourism Research Methods, CAB International, Wallingford p. 37 – 48

Chesworth, N. (2013) The impact of tourism on rural economies of Nova Scotia. Tourism Industry Assoc. of Nova Scotia, Halifax, Canada p.22.

Chuang, S-T. (2010) Rural Tourism: Perspectives from social exchange theory. Soc Beh & Pers: an international journal. Vol. 38 No. 10, p. 1313 - 1323.

Douglas, N., N. Douglas et al (2001) Special Interest Tourism. Wiley, Brisbane.

Fleischer, A., Felsenstein, D. (2000) Support for rural tourism: does it make a difference? Anls Tour Research, Vol. 27, No. 4, p. 1007 – 1024.

Journals of the Nova Scotia House of Assembly, 1950 – 2000. Retrieved from the Nova
Scotia Legislature Library, Halifax, Nova Scotia.

Ivany,   R. et al, (2013) Now or never: a call to action. Nova Scotia,
https://drive.google.com/file/d/0B48TTKtbWS0kOC1vVWJMYTB3aUk/edit?pli=1,
accessed 20 Nov. 2014, p. 65.

Kauser, D.V., Kishikawa, Y. (2010) Heritage tourism in rural area: challenges for improving
socioeconomic impacts. Asia Pac Jour. of Tour. Res., Vol 15, 2, p.195 – 213.

Kneafsey, M. (2001) Rural cultural economy; tourism and social relations. Anls of Tour
Research, Vol. 28, No. 3, p. 762 - 783.

Nova Scotia Archives, http://novascotia.ca/archives/virtual/tourism/government.asp?

Nova Scotia Department of Tourism And Culture Accountability Report. (2001- 2015),
Retrieved from the Nova Scotia Legislature Library, 2016.

Reeder, R. J., Brown, (2005) Recreation, tourism and Rural well-being. Economic Research
Report, USDA: http://www.ers.usda.gov/media/302182/err7_1_.pdf p.24.

Statistics Canada (2013) http://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/nova-scotia/tourism-figures-dip-
in-n-s-but-u-k-and-german-visitors-up-1.2572753 accessed 27 Feb 2013.

Sullivan, P. (2013). Long term strategy for tourism. Speech presented at the annual conference
of Tourism Nova Scotia, Nov. 2013, accessed at:
http://tourismns.ca/sites/default/files/page_documents/final_pat_presentation.p
df accessed 26 Nov 2014.

Tourism Research Services (2013) 2010 visitor exit survey. Dept Econ & Rural Dev't & Tour,
Halifax.

Smart interactions? – An exploratory study of residents' and visitors' engagement via social media with smart destination brands in Spain

J. Andres Coca-Stefaniak
University of Greenwich, London, United Kingdom
Sebastian Molinillo
University of Malaga, Malaga, Spain
Rafael Anaya-Sánchez
University of Malaga, Malaga, Spain

Smart cities (Harrison et al, 2010; Correia et al., 2011; Neirotti et al, 2014) and the application of this concept in tourism through smart destinations (Buhalis and Amaranggana, 2013) have started to generate debate among academics and practitioners alike with regards to the evolving role of place branding in this arena, including opportunities for channels such as social media. Smart destinations have used Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) to address service quality issues (Huang et al, 2012; Wang et al., 2013) and offer tourists new avenues for interacting with places (Zygiaris, 2013). The growth of the Internet has revolutionised how tourists search for information related to places, which has been shown to have an impact on travel decisions and planning (Munar and Jacobsen, 2014; Amaro et al., 2016). In some cases, tourists will use social media to get informational as well as hedonic benefits (Chung and Buhalis, 2008), and the enjoyment of this information searching process is an issue of growing importance for tourists and visitors alike.

However, technology is arguably not the sole raison d'etre for smart destinations. In fact, major knowledge gaps continue to exist with regards to our understanding of how these destinations are consumed by tourists, what visitors' preferences and priorities are, and the implications of fast changing consumer trends for the management of destinations (Boes et al, 2015). Furthermore, and in spite of two decades of evolution in place branding and marketing research (Lucarelli and Berg, 2011; Gertner, 2011) with current thinking leaning towards a more participatory approach to this process (Kavaratzis and Kalandides, 2015), the association of strategic place branding to smart destinations and smart cities remains an emerging field of research. Evidence of this trend can be found in a recent special issue on this topic in the Journal of Place Branding and Public Diplomacy and a forthcoming special issue on smart destinations and their branding in the International Journal of Tourism Cities.

In line with this, destinations are increasingly adopting social media to promote their image to tourists and visitors alike (Zhou and Wang, 2014), though the success of this approach is largely dependent upon the level of engagement achieved, which research has shown to be still patchy and in need of improvement (Treem and Leonardi, 2012; Cabiddu et al., 2014).

This exploratory paper provides a glimpse into the early stages of an on-going study, which tries to elucidate how smart cities and smart destinations use social media in order to improve their place brand as well as the level of engagement and participation of residents and visitors alike. This methodology adopted in this research builds on a study of community engagement with local authorities via Facebook by Bonson et al. (2014), with minor amendments to include other social media channels (e.g. Twitter and Instagram), to gauge people's levels of engagement and participation with place brands in five smart destinations in Spain – Barcelona, Bilbao, Malaga, Santander and A Coruña. These cities were chosen on the basis of their high smartness ranking by local residents.

Initial results appear to indicate that although the five smart destinations studied here achieve acceptable levels of engagement among residents and visitors, they fail to capitalise on their social media profiles in terms of improving their brand image and highlighting the very factors that make them 'smart' destinations.

References

Amaro, S., Duarte, P. and Henriques, C. (2016), "Travelers' use of social media: A clustering approach", Annals of Tourism Research, 59, pp. 1-15.

Boes, K., Buhalis, D. and Inversini, A. (2015), "Conceptualising smart tourism destination dimensions", In: Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2015, pp. 391-403, London: Springer International (publ.)

Bonsón, E., Royo, S. and Ratkai, M. (2014), "Facebook practices in Western European municipalities: An empirical analysis of activity and citizens' engagement", Administration & Society, p. 1-28.

Buhalis, D. and Amaranggana, A. (2013), "Smart tourism destinations", In: Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2014, pp. 553-564, London: Springer International (publ.)

Cabiddu, F., De Carlo, M. and Piccoli, G. (2014), "Social media affordances: Enabling customer engagement", Annals of Tourism Research, 48, pp. 175-192.

Chung, J.Y. and Buhalis, D. (2008), "Information needs in online social networks", Information Technology & Tourism, 10(4), pp. 267-281.

Correia, G. and Viegas, J.M. (2011), "Carpooling and carpool clubs: Clarifying concepts and assessing value enhancement possibilities through a Stated Preference web survey in Lisbon, Portugal", Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice, 45(2), pp. 81-90.

Gertner, D. (2011), "Unfolding and configuring two decades of research and publications on place marketing and place branding", Place Branding and Public Diplomacy, 7(2), pp.91-106.

Harrison, C., Eckman, B., Hamilton, R., Hartswick, P., Kalagnanam, J., Paraszczak, J. and Williams, P. (2010), "Foundations for smarter cities", IBM Journal of Research and Development, 54(4), pp. 1-16.

Huang, J., Qian, F., Gerber, A., Mao, Z.M., Sen, S. and Spatscheck, O. (2012), "A close examination of performance and power characteristics of 4G LTE networks", In: Proceedings of the 10th international conference on Mobile systems, applications, and services, ACM, pp. 225-238.

Kavaratzis, M. and Kalandides, A. (2015), "Rethinking the place brand: the interactive formation of place brands and the role of participatory place branding", Environment and Planning A, 47(6), pp. 1368-1382.

Lucarelli, A. And Berg, P.O. (2011), "City branding: a state-of-the-art review of the research domain", Journal of Place Management and Development, Vol. 4 No. 1, pp. 9-27.

Munar, A.M. and Jacobsen, J.K.S. (2014), "Motivations for sharing tourism experiences through social media", Tourism Management, 43, pp. 46-54.

Neirotti, P., De Marco, A., Cagliano, A.C., Mangano, G. and Scorrano, F. (2014), "Current trends in Smart City initiatives: Some stylised facts", Cities, 38, pp. 25-36.

Treem, J.W. and Leonardi, P.M. (2012), "Social media use in organizations: Exploring the affordances of visibility, editability, persistence, and association", Communication Yearbook, 36, pp. 143-189.

Wang, D., Li, X.R. and Li, Y. (2013), "China's "smart tourism destination" initiative: A taste of the service-dominant logic", Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 2(2), pp. 59-61.

Zhou, L. and Wang, T. (2014), "Social media: A new vehicle for city marketing in China", Cities, 37, pp. 27-32.

Zygiaris, S. (2013), "Smart city reference model: Assisting planners to conceptualize the building of smart city innovation ecosystems", Journal of the Knowledge Economy, 4(2), pp. 217-231.

The reinvention of the city through culture and tourism: an analysis of cultural and tourist policies of urban revitalization

Bruno Couto
University of Brasilia, Brazil

Introduction

This present paper adopts as object of analysis what George Yúdice (2008) designated as "cultural and tourist policies of urban revitalization". These are basically policies of renovation and regeneration of abandoned urban spaces which have as their "central feature" the adoption of the sectors of art, culture and tourism as a vector of development and restructuring of the site. Our interest is mainly pointed to "revitalization" projects of historical centers, port areas and industrial zones that aim to transform these spaces into cultural and tourist "centers" or complex. Basically, they invest in the renovation and modernization of the cultural and tourist infrastructure of these sites in order to install a business and services complex with emphasis on the areas of entertainment, culture and tourism.

During this process, a great number of spatial, architectural and symbolic resources are mobilized to create the "new space" as a special ambience, distinctive and spectacular, dedicated to enjoyment and contemplation practices. Multiple elements considered as extraordinary (such as a modern structure or an eighteen century building, a contemporary art gallery or a traditional craft fair) are "integrated" in order to enhance the "new place" as a zone of culture and tourism, coordinated by the social time of leisure (FARIAS, 2011).

This kind of initiative has been developed in several cities around the world at least since the late 80's. In some cases, the projects were widely covered by the international media, being crowned as "success cases". The best known example is the "Port Olimpic" in Barcelona. In Brazil, the most famous example is the historical site of "Pelourinho" in Salvador.

In this research, we chose to focus on the city of Rio de Janeiro and its preparation for the Olympic Games. More specifically, we have been analyzing the current context of restructuring of the entire port area located in downtown, a process coordinated by the local government through the project "Porto Maravilha" which aims to "revitalize" and "requalify" an urban area of 5 million m².

From our point of view, the combination of a) actions of expansion and modernization of cultural facilities (Rio Art Museum, Museum of Tomorrow, etc.), b) restoration of historical buildings and "local material heritage", c) strategies to promote the installation of restaurants, hotels and shops, and d) the development of a new transport infrastructure, suggests that the project seeks to reconfigure and transform the port into the new great cultural and tourist center of the city of Rio.

Methods

To understand this urban project in its multiple aspects, we adopted two types of methodological approach. The first one is the "historical analysis" of the various and extensive processes which shaped this specific urban space (socially and geographically). The second method is basically composed of "field visits" in order to observe and explore the elements of that social and urban context. Within the first approach, we primarily work with the research procedure known as "content analysis". In the second approach, we adopt qualitative research procedures such as "participant observation" and "semi-structured interviews", as a

tentative to better know the environment, its dynamics of sociability and the different social agents and groups there existent.

Findings

Using the case of Rio as a start point, our findings indicate that the studies on urban renewal projects with tourist and cultural emphasis should try to contemplate four elements or aspects in order to develop a solid, consistent and complete analysis. From our point of view, these four aspects should figure as "conditions of possibility" that are extremely decisive for the emergence of these specific urban projects.

i) Historical and structural elements: it's necessary to take into consideration the consolidation of tourism and "culture" as institutional fields increasingly relevant and substantial within contemporary capitalism, recognizing the centrality that those fields have acquired both in social and economic life of countries and their cities, and in the behavioral and affective formation of its inhabitants.

ii) Cultural element: linked to the historical and structural elements, we find the wide spread of cognitive-affective structures marked by the consolidation of consumption (especially the cultural and aesthetic types) and leisure as "forums" for self-realization of the subject. In this scenario, we watch the formation of political and commercial arenas in which subjectivities are build, engendering a whole range of reframing process of collective-individual memories and ethnic, local and regional identities. Therefore, it is necessary to understand how the expansion of these new behavioral and identity dynamics goes on, contextualizing this whole process within the socio-urban contexts.

iii) Political and discursive elements: it's also necessary to study the emergence of a political and discursive rationality which is increasingly gaining space on governments and corporations' agenda: the theory of "creative cities". This theory has being spread by specialists around the world and basically proposes a new way of thinking the urban policies, combining urban development and planning with the areas of culture and tourism.

iv) Local aspects: finally, our studies must understand and map the local dynamics of material and symbolic dispute between a myriad of social actors and social groups.

Conclusion

At the end, we should try to analyze the "renovated spaces" through the multiple and various aspects that are socially and geographically shaping them. Taking the historical, structural, cultural, political, discursive and local-contextual elements into consideration, we are able to capture the complexity and "non-linearity" of these reinvention processes, which transform urban landscapes through the frame of culture and tourism.

References

FARIAS, Edson Silva de. Ócio e negócio: festas populares e entretenimento-turismo no Brasil. Curitiba: Appris, 2011.
LIPOVETSKY, Gilles; SERROY, Jean. 2011. La culture-monde: réponse à une societé désorientée. Paris: Odile Jacob.
YUDICE, George. 2008. Modelos de desarrollo cultural urbano: ¿gentrificación o urbanismo social?. Cidade do México: Alteridades. v.18, n. 36, jul-dez.

Comparison of Hosts' and Tourists' Attitudes Towards Tourism Development Approaches in Local Communities in the Ming Tombs World Heritage Site

Linlin Dai
Peking University, PR China
Li Wan
University of Cambridge, UK
Karine Dupre
Griffith University, Queensland, Australia
Bixia Xu
Griffith University, Queensland, Australia

Since the launch of the Convention Concerning the Protection of World Cultural and Natural Heritage by UNESCO in 1972, many countries have devoted to competing for the acquisition of World Heritage Site (WHS) status as a highly appreciated accolade and a major tourism marketing device (Hall & Piggin,2003). Till the year of 2016, 1031 sites have been designated the WHS status (WHC, 2016). In the past decades, heritage tourism development at WHS has attracted considerable research interests. The main research focus includes the effects of WHS status on tourism, tourism impact on heritage, heritage conservation and tourism policy, management and marketing issues (Yang et al.,2010;Kim et al.,2007; Leask & Fyall, 2006; Shackley, 2001; Buckley,2004; Harrison & Hitchock,2005). However, few researches have explicitly addresses the views of local communities in/around WHS (Jimura, 2011). Furthermore, existing literatures indicate that the perception and attitudes of multiple stakeholders (i.e. individual or cooperate service providers and tourists) play an important role in sustainable tourism development (Perdue et al.,1987; Hall & Page,1999; Devesa et al.,2010;Waayers et al.,2012; Komppula,2014; Park et al.,2015). A number of researchers also suggest that tourists and local residents should be involved effectively in the tourism planning process such that the development scheme can account for both the demand and the supply aspects. The associated costs-and-gains on dual side can thus be investigated on a consistent basis. (Arnstein, 1969; Sewell & Coppock, 1977; Wates, 2000; Ryan & Harvey, 2000; Weaver&Lawton, 2004). But few empirical studies have adopted this dual-side approach.

The aim of this study, therefore, is to examine the attitudes of both the hosts and tourists to the approaches of heritage tourism development in local communities at WHS and explore the difference between the two groups. The research would shed new light on how to improve the heritage tourism development in the local communities at WHS.

This paper considers the WHS of Ming Tombs in the northwest mountains of Beijing, China, which was awarded World Cultural Heritage Status in 2003. Ming Tombs feature with the well- preserved imperial tombs of 13 emperors in the Ming Dynasty. The whole scenic area attracts over 3.5 million tourists a year. There are 19 traditional villages locating around the Mind Tombs with a current population of 13065. With the development of heritage tourism of the WHS, half of the residents have taken part in providing tourism accommodation. During the fieldwork, we found that more than 85% local residents support strongly the development of tourism and think that government should take effective improvement approaches. And we also found an obvious development gap in terms of the service level of the official WHS attractions and the local tourism businesses. The official attractions are well planned and managed by the government. The local hosts perform in a spontaneous manner and are often lack of specialized knowledge on marketing or operation management.

With particular focus on how local hosts and tourists respond differently to the key development approaches, this study adopts a questionnaire survey carried out in the selected 8 Tomb villages inside the WHS. The survey was conducted during the Chinese National Holiday (October 1 to 7, 2014), which represents the yearly peak tourism period. In terms of sample size, we got 127 hosts' and 132 tourists' valid respondents. Respondents were guided to express their attitudes towards the improvement of local tourism development using a 5- point Likert scale. Seven approaches to the development of tourism were chosen and summarized from extensive literatures, which include (1) improving service quality; (2) diversifying tourism products and travel experiences; (3) increasing accommodation capacity;
(4) restoring traditional features; (5) reducing prices; (6) marketing; (7) organized tourism activities (Inskeep,1988; Lane,1994; Sharpley,2002; Svensson et al., 2006; Ruth & John,2011;Li et al.,2015).

Firstly, we conduct the descriptive statistic analysis to the survey data and identify the shared positive attitude of both groups. Secondly, one-way analysis of variance is adopted to examine whether or not there are significant differences between the two groups.

We find that the majority of hosts and tourists are supportive of taking steps to improve the quality and sustainable development of local tourism. The mean value for each item of the hosts is slightly lower than the tourists except the two items of marketing and organized tourism activities. The first item of improving service quality is particularly welcomed, with a high agreement of the lowest standard deviation, while the fifth item of reducing prices is to the opposite with a high divergence of the highest stand deviation. The Mauchly's test for sphericity and the tests of within-subjects effects confirm the significant main effects of group on the attitude to some specific approaches. Among the statistical hypothesis testing, we find that there are significant attitude difference in diversifying tourism products and travel experiences, restoring traditional features, reducing prices and marketing.

As a WHS, Ming Toms is a world famous tourist attraction. But the local communities are relatively unknown and neglected on the marketing platform of the scenic area, even though they are very close to the heritage sites. Therefore, local hosts feature with limited scope in tourism development i.e. they do not care much about the marketing of the whole area. In addition, hosts have a greater interest in diversifying tourism products and travel experiences, restoring traditional features and reducing prices than tourists. This indicates that hosts have a strong concern about the competition with their peers and they eagerly want to enhance their competitiveness through the above approaches. Tourists concern more about the pricing of tourism products and the traditional features of the villages.

Contrasting to the rapid development of the WHS of Ming Tombs, the nearby villages have seen a rather modest development momentum since the grant of the WHS status. We identify the similarities and the differences of attitude towards the tourism development approaches between the local communities and the tourists. The perceptions from both the local communities and the tourists should be incorporated in the policy-making process for local tourism development.

Acknowledgements

References

Arnstein, S. R. (1969). A ladder of citizen participation, Journal of American Institute of Planners, 35(4), 216–24

Buckley, R. (2004). The Effects of World Heritage Listing on Tourism to Australian National Parks, Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 12:1, 70-84

Devesa, M., Laguna, M.& Palacios, A.(2010),The role of motivation in visitor satisfaction: Empirical evidence in rural tourism, Tourism Management,31(4),547-552

Hall, C. M., & Page, S. J. (1999). The geography of tourism and recreation: Environment, place and space. London: Routledge

Hall, C.M.,& Piggin, R. (2003). World Heritage sites: Managing the brand. In Fyall,A., Garrod, B. & Leask, A. (eds).Managing Visitor Attractions: New Directions. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann

Harrison, D., & Hitchock, M.(2005).The politics of World Heritage: Negotiating tourism and conservation. Clevedon: Channel View Publications

Inskeep, E. (1988). Tourism planning: An emerging specialization, Journal of the American Planning Association, 54(3), 360–372.

Jimura, T.(2011). The impact of world heritage site designation on local communities e A case study of Ogimachi, Shirakawa–mura, Japan, Tourism Management,32,288-296

Kim, S., Wong, K. F., & Cho, M. (2007). Assessing the economic value of a world heritage site and willingness-to-pay determinants: A case of hangdeok Palace.Tourism Management, 28(1), 317e322.

Komppula, R.(2014).The role of individual entrepreneurs in the development of competitiveness for a rural tourism destination, Tourism Management, 40(1),361-371

Landorf, C.(2009).Managing for sustainable tourism: a review of six cultural World Heritage Sites, Journal of Sustainable Tourism,17(1),53-70

Lane, B. (1994). Sustainable rural tourism strategies: A tool for development and conservation, Journal of Sustainable Tourism,2(1,2),102-111

Leask, A., & Fyall, A. (2006). Managing World Heritage Sites. Oxford:Butterworth-Heinemann Li, X.,Yang, Z.&Guo, X.(2015).Research on the improvement countermeasures of Beijing rural tourism service quality based on the experience perspective, Economic Research Guide, 268(14),118-120

Park,D.B., Nunkoo, R. & Yoon, Y.S.(2015).Rural residents' attitudes to tourism and the moderating effects of social capital, Tourism Geographies, 17(1),112-133

Perdue, R.R., Long, P.T. & Allen, L.(1987), Rural resident tourism perceptions and attitudes, Annals of Tourism Research, 14(3),420-429

Ruth, M.A.& John, M.D.(2011).Sustainable rural tourism: Lessons for rural development, Journal of European Society for Rural Sociology,51(2),175-194

Ryan, C.& Stephen,P.(eds). (2000). Tourism management: Towards the new millennium. New York: Pergamon

Sewell, D.W. R., & Coppock, J. T. (1977). Public Participation in Planning. Chichester, UK: Wiley Wates, Ni. (2000). The community planning handbook. London:Earthscan

Shackley, M. (2001) Sacred World Heritage sites: Balancing meaning with management, Tourism Recreation Research,26(1), 5–10

Sharpley, R. (2002). Rural tourism and the challenge of tourism diversification: the case of Cyprus, Tourism Management, 23(3), 233-244

Svensson, B., Nordin, S. & Flagestad, A. (2006). Destination governance and contemporary development models. In: L. Lazzeretti & C. Petrillo (Eds.), Tourism local systems and networking. Oxford: Elsevier

Waayers, D., Lee, D., & Newsome, D. (2012). Exploring the nature of stakeholder collaboration: A case study of marine turtle tourism in the Ningaloo region, Western Australia. Current Issues in Tourism, 15(7), 673-692

Weaver, D.B.&Lawton,L.J.(2004).Visitor attitudes toward tourism development and product integration in an Australian urban-rural fringe, Journal of Travel Research, 42(3),286- 296

WHC.(2016).Retrieved at http://whc.unesco.org /en/list/

Yang,C.,Lin, H.& Han, C.(2010).Analysis of international tourist arrivals in China: The role of World Heritage Sites, Tourism Management,31(6),827-837

Family or Youth Market?
An Analysis of Differences in Image Perception of Shanghai Disney Resort

Ning Dang
East China Normal University, Shanghai, P.R. China
Cuicui Kuang
East China Normal University, Shanghai, P.R. China
Alastair M. Morrison
Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana, USA
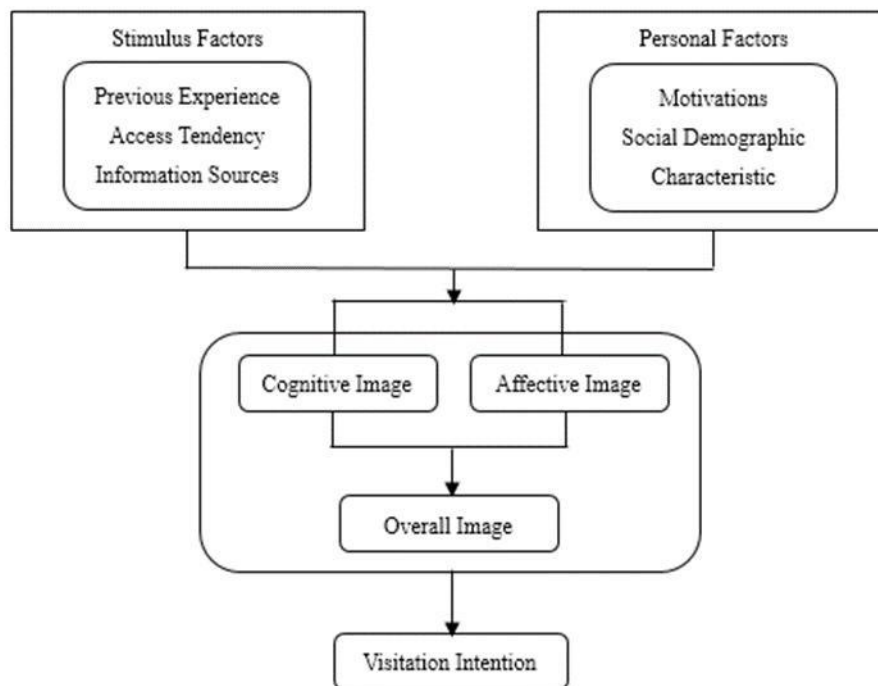
Figure 1 Research Framework of SHDR Destination Image and Visit

Intension **Methods**

The research uses data from a self-administrated consumer survey conducted in March and April, 2016 in Shanghai. A total of 602 questionnaires were distributed randomly to visitors, and 561 usable ones, i.e., 297 from the youth market and 264 from the family market, were collected with a response rate of 93.2%. The survey instrument was designed based on previous studies (e.g., Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Russel, 1980; Zhang & Lu, 2011) and the situation at SHDR. Four variables for stimulus factors, 19 variables for personal factors, 18 items for cognitive image, five items for affective image, one item for overall image and two items for visit intention were included. Factor analysis, correlation analysis, and multiple regression analysis explored the relationships among stimulus factors, personal factors, destination images, and visit intention. Gray's correlation analysis was used to examine the differences in visitors' image perceptions of SHDR between the family and youth markets.

Findings

Stimulus and personal factors significantly affected visitors' image perceptions of SHDR. Cognitive and affective images were related to visitors' travel motivations and visit intentions, while marriage/family status had a positive effect on affective images of SHDR. The overall

destination image of SHDR was influenced not only by visitors' intention to visit, affective image, cognitive image, and travel motivation, but also by their marriage and family status. Additionally, visitors' image perceptions of SHDR significantly affected visit intentions.

Since image perceptions were significantly influenced by family/marriage status, differences between the family and youth markets were investigated with Gray's Correlation Analysis. Wonderful performances and parades and various themed-story experiences appeared to be the main elements of the youth market's perceptions of SHDR, while various themed-story experiences and full of fun and fairy tales mainly influenced the image perceptions of the family market. The family market had more favorable affective image perceptions than the youth market. The youth market had slightly higher scores for cognitive images. Compared with the youth market, the family market demonstrated more positive images, understanding, and interest in SHDR, which leads to higher visit intentions.

Conclusions and Implications

This empirical research attempts to contribute to the knowledge on destination image in two ways: (1) by examining in depth the multi-dimensional nature (cognitive–affective structure) of destination image in a Chinese context; and (2) by exploring the role of stimulus factors and personal factors, especially marriage and family status in destination image formation.

Several managerial implications concerning the promotion and positioning of SHDR are evident. One of the most important challenges in the promotion of SHDR (and Shanghai as a larger destination) is to pinpoint target markets and recognize the theme park's and city's strengths and weaknesses in the minds of visitors from different markets. Since marriage and family status play an important role in influencing destination image, specific communication strategies for each visitor group should be developed for the positioning and marketing of SHDR and Shanghai.

References
Bryman, A.E. (2004). The Disneyization of Society. London: Sage Publications.
Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K.W. (1999). A model of destination image formation. Annals of Tourism Research, 26(4): 868-897.
Beerli, A., & Martin, J.D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. Annals of Tourism Research, 31(3): 657-681.
Cain, S. (2005). Looking Back at 50 Years of the Disneyland Effect. San Diego Business Journal Special Report, 4: 25.
Court, B., & Lupton, R.A. (1997). Customer portfolio development: modeling destination adopters, inactive and rejecters. Journal of Travel Research, 36(1): 35-43.
Chen, J.S, & Hsu, H.C. (2000). Measurement of Korean tourists' perceived images of overseas destinations. Journal of Travel Research, 38(4): 411-416.
Chen, J.S., & Uysal, M. (2002). Market positioning analysis: a hybrid approach. Annals of Tourism Research, 29(4): 987-1003.
Echtner, C.M, & Ritchie, J.R.B. (1993). The measurement of destination image: an empirical assessment. Journal of T ravel Research, 31(3): 3-13.
Enrique, J.B., Sanchez, I. & Sanchez, J. (2001). Tourist image, evaluation variables and after purchase behavior: inter-relationship. Tourism Management, 22 (3): 607-616.
Gallarza, M.G., Saura, I.G., & García, H.C. (2002). Destination image: towards a conceptual framework. Annals of Tourism Research, 29(1): 56-78.
Goodrich, J.N. (1978). The relationship between preferences for and perceptions of vacation destinations: application of a choice model, Journal of Travel Research. 17(2): 8-13.

Hui, T.K., & Wan, T.W.D. (2003). Singapore's image as a tourist destination. International Journal of Tourism Research, 5: 305-313.

Lee, C.K.，Lee, Y.K，& Lee, B.K. (2005). Korea's destination image formed by the 2002 World Cup. Annals of Tourism Research, 32(4): 839-858.

Leisen, B. (2001). Image segmentation: The case of a tourism destination. Journal of Services Marketing, 15(1): 49-66.

Oriental Land Co. Ltd. (2015, March 31). Happiness takes us higher: annual report 2015. The OLC group website. Retrieved March 15, 2016, from http://www.olc.co.jp/en/ir/e-book/annual2015e/_SWF_Window.html

Rittichainuwat, B.N., Qu, H., & Brown, T. J. (2001). Thailand international travel image. Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, April, 82-95.

Russel, J.A. (1980). A circumplex model of affect. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 39(6): 1161-1178.

Tapachai, N., & Waryszak, R. (2000). An examination of the role of beneficial image in tourist destination selection. Journal of Travel Research, 39(1): 37-44.

Telisman-Kosuta, N. (1994). Tourist destination image. In S. Witt, & L. Moutinho (Eds.), Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook (pp. 557-561). Cambridge: Prentice Hall.

Zhang, H., Lu, L., Cai, L., et al. (2011). Tourism destination image structural model and visitors' behavioral intentions: based on a confirmatory study of localization of potential consumers. Tourism Science, 25(1): 35-45. (In Chinese)

Stakeholder Perspectives on the Decentralization of Tourism Governance in Romania

Dragos Dumitrachi
People 1st London, United Kingdom
James Kennell
University of Greenwich, London, United Kingdom

In many of the former communist countries of Europe, tourism governance remains highly centralised. In Romania, since 1998, the government has begun to implement plans to create more decentralised arrangements for tourism governance. This paper examines tourism stakeholder responses to this change, and suggests potential challenges that will be faced in the implementation of these new arrangements. The research took an interpretative, qualitative approach based on interview data collected from purposively sampled stakeholders in the Central Region of Romania, the main tourism region of the country. By analysing the results of this case study, it is possible to identify issues surrounding the decentralisation of tourism policy that will also be important to understand in the context of other countries in the region who are considering similar changes in their tourism governance arrangements.

The change in governance is part of a broader political project to modernise the country and align Romania with European Union standards. The centralised governance in Romania is the legacy of the administration of previous communist governments. The majority of decisions in the country are taken in Bucharest and then implemented in 41 counties. The proposed regionalisation would simplify the administrative apparatus giving more power to regional and local leaders. The 41 counties would merge in to 6 new regions. The first step in this process was to create a regional development agency. Unfortunately, the next step was never taken. The regional development agencies have limited power and their only perceived role is to absorb and implement EU funds.

This research applies Bramwell & Yuksel's (2005) framework for the evaluation of the decentralisation of tourism governance, through the analysis of stakeholder perspectives. In complex, emerging processes in tourism, such as governance, it is important to consider the perspectives of stakeholders, as these represent the industry which will be impacted on through changes in the process (Dinca et al 2014). This paper considers the distribution of authority within the new arrangements based on an analysis of published proposals and plans, concluding that a mixture of decentralisation and deconcentration is taking place. Secondly, it considers the distribution of control and power in the arrangements, through both documentary analysis and primary research with 50 tourism stakeholders in the Central Region of Romania. This analysis concludes that the stakeholders support the idea of regionalisation but mistrust the political act. Finally, the framework is used to investigate the ways in which the decentralisation of tourism governance impacts on public participation in the policy process and the political legitimacy of the arrangements.

The paper concludes that, although decentralisation of tourism governance can have many positive benefits for a tourism destination, the manner in which the decentralisation is implemented, and the ways in which power is distributed within the newly created networks of governance will have significant implications for the success of the decentralisation. In the case of Romania, tourism stakeholders were often cynical about the aims and outcomes of the decentralisation policy. In addition, the new institutional arrangements (Dredge and

Jenkins 2007) were not yet perceived as completely legitimate by stakeholders, who did not feel that they were sufficiently empowered by the new policy to participate in their operation.

References

Yuksel, F. & Bramwell, B. (2005) 'Centralised and Decentralised Tourism Governance in Turkey' in Annals of Tourism Research, 32: 4, 859-866

Dinca, A., Surugiu, C, Surugiu, M. & Frent, C. (2014) 'Stakeholder Perspectives on Climate Change Effects on Tourism Activities in the Northern Romanian Carpathians: Vatra Dornei Resort Case Study' in Human Geographies, 8: 1, 2067-2284

Dredge, D. & Jenkins, J. (2007) Tourism Planning and Policy, London: John Wiley & Sons

Employability Issues and Managerial Turnover:
The Case of Tourism Management Undergraduates in the UK

Khairy Eteiwy
University of Greenwich, London, United Kingdom

Research shows that tourism management graduates (TMGs) are currently facing employability issues. It doesn't simply make sense that these graduates are finding it difficult to secure a job at an appropriate level to their qualifications, in an industry that is suffering a costly high labour turnover, especially at managerial levels.

Real-life evidence also shows that major tourism employers disregard TMGs in their graduate schemes' publications. This clearly emphasise that one reason for the persistence of this unhealthy economic problem, is that both entry and exit of the tourism industry are wide open. Graduates continue to come to this industry from varied academic specialisation to mainly start their career and then leave. They leave as soon as they gain "easily-accessed" work experience and when better opportunities in their relevant industries arise. Their footprints include continuous skills' gaps, destabilised workforce and chaotic work environment.

On a positive note, research in the meantime shows that given the opportunity, TMGs are more likely to stay longer in their chosen industry. With most of the current tourism management undergraduates (TMUs), are born in 1995-2000, they are classed as Generation Z (GEN Z). Hence; examining the employment characteristics of this vibrant and digitally-fluent generation would certainly help the strategic plans of both the industry's recruitment practices and the Higher Education Institutions'(HEIs) effective employability programmes.

As most work on this topic has so far focused on one side or another, this research has taken a multi-faceted approach to generate an up-to-date insight into this issue. Accordingly and by means of a mixed methodology approach, it explores the actual competencies developed by the current top 5 (BA/BSc tourism management) curricula in the UK and contrast it with the views of recognized tourism academics and major tourism employers/ resource managers (in- depth interviews), as well as a sample of current tourism management undergraduates (online survey) to bring the whole picture in one coherent frame.

References

Airey, D. (2008b). Tourism Education: Life begins at 40. Teoros, Vol.27 (1), pp 27-32.
Baum, T. (2006), Human Resource Management for Tourism, Hospitality, and Leisure: An International Perspective, Thomson Learning, London.
Becker, G.S. (1993). Human Capital: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis with Special Reference to Education (3rd Ed.), Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
Bibbings, L. (2005) 'The Future of Tourism in Higher Education', HE Academy Subject Network HLST, LINK12, Vol.1 (12), pp 14-16.
Dacre Pool, L., & Sewell, P. (2007). The key to employability: developing a practical model of graduate employability. Education+ Training, 49(4), 277-289.
Davidson, M., Timo, N. and Wang, Y. (2010) "How much does labour turnover cost?: A case study of Australian four- and five-star hotels", International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, Vol. 22 (4), pp.451-466.
Fallows, S., and Steven, C. (2000). Building employability skills into the higher education curriculum: a university-wide initiative. Education+ training, 42(2), 75-83.

Felisitas, C., Molline, M., & Clotildah, K. (2012). The hospitality and tourism honours degree programme: Stakeholders' perceptions on competencies developed. Journal of Hospitality Management and Tourism, 3(1), 12-22. Fidgeon, P (2010), Tourism Education & Curriculum Design: A Time for Consolidation & Review. Tourism Management Vol.31 (6), pp.699-724.

HESA Report (Sept., 2014, p15), What Do Graduates Do? Available at: http://www.hecsu.ac.uk/assets/assets/documents/wdgd_september_2014.pdf (Accessed:14/04/2015)

Hjalager, A-M. (2003) Global Tourism Careers: opportunities and dilemmas facing higher education in tourism, Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education, Vol.2 (2), pp. 26-38.

Inui, Y., Wheeler, D. and Lankford, S. (2006); Rethinking Tourism Education: What should schools teach?, Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education, Vol. 5 (2), pp. 25-35.

Jiang, B. and Tribe, J. (2009) "Tourism jobs – short-lived professions': Student attitudes towards tourism careers in China", Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education, Vol. 8 (1), pp. 4-19.

Lu, T., & Adler, H. (2009). Career Goals and Expectations of Hospitality and Tourism Students in China. Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 9(1/2), 63-80.

Mason, G., Williams, G., & Cranmer, S. (2009). Employability skills initiatives in higher education: what effects do they have on graduate labour market outcomes?. Education Economics, 17(1), 1-30.

Moira, P., Milonopoulos, D. and Anastasiou, S. (2004) Producing Graduates for the Tourism Industry in Greece: A Case Study, Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education, Vol. 3 (2), pp 55-60.

Petrova, P. and Mason, P. (2004) "The value of tourism degrees: a Luton-based case study", Education + Training, Vol. 46 (3), pp.153 - 161.

Sandwith P., (1993). A hierarchy of Management Training Requirements: The competency Domain Model. Public Personnel Management., 22 (1): pp.43 - 62.

Tourism Alliance (2014), UK Tourism Statistics Tourism. < http://www.tourismalliance.com> [06/10/2014].

Weaver, A. (2009), "Perceptions of job quality in the tourism industry: The views of recent graduates of a university's tourism management programme", International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, Vol. 21 (5), pp. 579-593.

World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), Travel & Tourism Economic impact (2013): http://www.wttc.org/site_media/uploads/downloads/world2013_1.pdf [07/02/2013].

Evaluation of Sustainable Tourism Development in Iran: Obstacles, Challenges and Solutions

Hassan Esmailzadeh
Beheshti University, Tehran, Iran
Arman Moslemi
Beheshti University, Tehran, Iran
Mahdi Hosseinpour
Beheshti University, Tehran, Iran

Unilateral policies of growth and development in many newly independent countries after World War II caused damage to natural resources. As a result, the international community revised its policy and sustainable development with the slogan of preserving natural resources for future generations entered the world's scientific literature. This issue entered quickly in most fields, including tourism. Sustainable tourism changed into an area that most of the countries carried out a lot of planning to achieve it. Iran has also been planned programs, but as statistics show this goal is not achieved. This paper uses descriptive - analysis and emphasizes the sustainable development of tourism. This study first describes the sustainable tourism development and then analyzes the barriers to achieving this goal. The results show that Iran is far from achieving sustainable tourism and according to studies, it is tried to suggest the model to attract tourists and create sustainable tourism development in Iran.

References

Azhdari, A. (2009). Sustainable tourism, Tehran: Mosei Publications.

Amin Khaki, S. (2010). Ecotourism, obstacles and strategies, Tehran: Azarakh Publications.

Heidari, R. Hussein-Zadeh, K. (2003). Tourism in Iran, challenges and hopes, Journal of Geography and Regional Development, No. 1, pp. 59-93.

Shojaei, M. Nouri, N (2007). Investigating government policies in the tourism industry, knowledge management, Volume 20, Number 78, Pages 63-90.

Sharif-zadeh, A. Moradnezhad, H. (2002). Sustainable development and rural tourism, socio- economic jihad magazine, June and July, No. 251, pp. 55-62.

Alizadeh, K. (2003). The presence of tourists effects on environmental resources Torghabeh a Case Study of Mashhad, Geographical Journal, Issue 44, pp. 55-70.

Qaderi, E. (2003), the role of tourism in sustainable rural development, thesis, PhD, the junior A. Roknaldin Eftekhari, Tarbiat Modarres University.

Mohseni, R.A. (2009), Sustainable Tourism in Iran: Functions, challenges and solutions, the Journal of the geographic space, the ninth year, Issue 28, Pages: 149-171.

Mousaee, M. (2000). Investigating the demands of the tourism industry in Iran ", a study, Issue 16, pp. 205-220.

Alvani, S.M. Pirouzbakht, M (2006). Process management, tourism, Tehran: Cultural Research Bureau, First Edition.

Vatankhah, M. (2000), the journal of the International Explorers, tourism and hotel management, October and November.

Abdullaev, Akhmad, 2004, Rural Tourism and Sustainable Development in Hookkaido, Candidate for the Degree of Master, Division of Urban and Environmental Engineering, PP. 162-165.

Butler R W Ecotourism- has it Achieved Maturity or has the bubble Burst? Keynote Address pacific rim Tourism (2000): Rotorua New Zealand 1996.

Choi, H.S. & Sirakaya, E., 2006, Sustainability Indicators for Managing Ccommunity Tourism, Tourism Management, Vol. 27, PP. 1274–1289.

Inskeep, E., 1994, National and Regional Tourism Planning: Methodologies and Case Studies, London: Routledge.

Mosely, M. (2002): Sustainable Rural Development, The role of Community Involve Mentand Local Partnerships.

Rattanasuwongchai, N., 1998, Rural Tourism - the Impact on Rural Communities II. Thailand, Food & Fertilizer Technology Center, PP. 2.

Walpole, M.J. & Goodwin, H.J., 2000, Local Economic Impacts of Daragon in Indonisia, Journal of Annals of Tourism Research, Vol. 27, No. 3. Pn.5.

Yunis, E., 2004, Sustainable Tourism and Poverty Alleviation, Paper presented at the World Bank-ABCDE Conference-Europe. Brussels, 10 May 2004, PP. 6-7.

Tourism in Difficult Areas Revisited - Take Two!

Paul Fallon
Sheffield Hallam University, Sheffield, United Kingdom
John Heeley
Sheffield Hallam University, Sheffield, United Kingdom

This paper revisits Buckley and Witt's (1985) seminal publication entitled 'Tourism in Difficult Areas'. This 1985 article proposed tourism, and its associated marketing activity, as a feasible strategy to regenerate places not renowned or recognised for their tourism potential. This proposal was reconsidered by further subsequent publications in 1989 and 2001, with the second article acknowledging a general challenge in finding suitable data to evidence successful attempts to develop tourism. It was therefore inconclusive if the proposed tourism strategy was successful or not. Consequently, this paper picks up the proverbial 'gauntlet' thrown down originally by Buckley and Witt to demonstrate that the success of the strategy has been mixed, with destinations fitting within three different categories of success-failure.

Although destination marketing is a well-established management activity (the first DMO was established over a century ago), the mid-1980s in the UK saw a significant development in urban destination marketing activity and the launch of what were essentially DMOs, although they were often known by other names and/or as part of other development activities. It is not coincidental that this period also saw a wider and more mature general appreciation and understanding of the impacts of tourism e.g. Jafari (2001). A major driver of this afore-mentioned development in the UK was the recognition for certain places - mainly towns and cities which had originally emerged as economic powerhouses due to the Industrial Revolution but which had suffered due to the decline of manufacturing in the post-WW2 period - that the "development of tourism …. is a feasible strategy to increase employment
and prosperity" (Buckley and Witt, 1985, p.213). These so-called 'difficult areas' were defined by three criteria: little or no existing tourism 'base' in terms of receipts, a poor image and/or unfavourable socio-economic contexts and the need for infrastructural development. Hardly surprisingly, marketing was identified as the mechanism to create a positive image and drive visitation from tourists.

The 1980s was a period of innovation in terms of destination marketing, with destination marketers essentially 'making it up as they went along' and consequently inspiring counterparts in similar places to follow suit. At the time, there was little or no literature proving guidance and supporting theory on this activity; ironically - like their industrial predecessors whose legacy they were trying to in many ways overcome - these marketers were 'pioneers' at the 'cutting edge' of a growing phenomenon, and dare it be said, a revolution of its own. Two of the key cities providing such initial inspiration were Bradford (Yorkshire, England) and Glasgow (Scotland); however, their fates were to be very different. Glasgow, which had been established on its shipbuilding until a decline in the 1960s, went from 'strength to strength' in terms of its marketing, in particular pioneering city branding and short break promotions. On the other hand, Bradford, once famous as 'Woolopolis', went from 'strength to weakness' despite its innovative approach to offering short breaks in England. Bradford's tourism zenith was as the subject of one programme within the BBC's 1980s educational documentary series entitled 'The Marketing Mix'. However Bradford's nadir was a description in 'The Daily Telegraph' in March 2010 as "'dangerous, ugly and boring' and where travellers least want to go". As a further blow, or possibly a backhanded compliment, one of the further marketing ironies for Bradford is that its own initial competitive advantage i.e. its marketing innovation (aka 'doing a Bradford') contributed to

Bradford's downfall as other cities started to copy the Bradford model and 'outdo' its originator (Hope and Klemm, 2001).

Based on a variety of sources of secondary data relating to the supply and demand for tourism, and notwithstanding that finding 'hard' supporting evidence to measure its effectiveness represents destination marketing's 'achilles' heel', this paper proposes that a 3-way categorisation exists in terms of the contribution of marketing activity to urban destination development since this time. The methodology includes the aforementioned appearances in various forms of media. In the first category exist places for whom destination marketing 'brings in the business' (Pike, 2008), with Glasgow being the epitome of such places. In the second are those destinations for whom destination marketing has not worked; these include Bradford (apart from an initial spell in the mid- to late 1980s), Hull, Leeds and Nottingham. In the final categorisation are destinations where marketing per se has not worked, although there have been major infrastructural improvements; these places notably include Manchester and Newcastle.

In conclusion, the proposal that destination marketing represents a significant part of a tourism strategy to regenerate 'difficult areas' is presented as an over-optimistic one, with diverse results for destinations. However any such appraisal of marketing needs to be considered within its wider destination context.

References

Buckley, P.J and Witt, S.F. (1985) Tourism in difficult areas: Case studies of Bradford, Bristol, Glasgow and Hamm. Tourism Management, September, pp.205-213.

Hope, C.A. and Klemm, M.S. (2001). Tourism in difficult areas revisited: the case of Bradford. Tourism Management, 22, pp.629-635.

Jafari, J. (2001). The scientification of tourism. In Hosts and Guests Revisited: Tourism Issues of the 21st Century (V.L. Smith and M. Brent, eds) pp. 28–41, Cognizant.

Development of Recreational Diving Tourism in Mainland China

Sha Fang
City University of Macau, PR China
Xin Li
City University of Macau, PR China

Participation in recreational scuba diving increased dramatically during the 1980s and continued to rise in the 1990s, promoting authors to claim that scuba diving was fastest growing recreational activity in the world" (Stolk, Markwell & Jenkin, 2007, p. 336). In recent years, diving and related tourism producing value reached 300 million RMB in China (Su, 2009). But it has not attracted enough attention in the field of academic research in China.

The purpose of this article was to reveal the development profile of Chinese recreational diving tourism by way of literature study. The article defined recreational diving as an underwater adventure sport activity including scuba diving, underwater photography, snorkeling and free diving.

The development of diving tourism in China could be divided into four stages. The first stage was before 1995. The first diving school was built in 1960 in Zhanjiang (Chen & Su, 2010). In 1986, the Chinese diving coach guided 26 American tourists diving in Sanya, which were the first diving tourists in Hainan (Chen, 2016). The second stage was from 1995-2002. The first scuba diving club - Chinese International Diving Club was founded on March 18, 1995, which marked the starting point of the development of Chinese recreational diving (Zhai, 2010). At this time, the diving training system was administered by CMAS (Confédération Mondiale des Activités Subaquatiques). And the most common diving forms in China were experiential scrub diving, club type diving and voluntary organized diving (Su, 2009). The third stage was from 2002 to 2010. Up to 2010, there were 132 registered diving clubs in mainland China (Zhang & Tao, 2013). And the diving training system was opened to other international diving organizations, such as PADI (Professional Association of Diving Instructors), NAUI (National Association of Underwater Instructors), and SSI (Scuba Schools International). The most popular diving sites were mainly in Hainan Province. Ximaozhou Island of Sanya received over 200,000 divers per year, and the Amusement Sea World in Ximaozhou Island has become the biggest scuba diving club in the world (Su, 2009). The fourth stage was from 2010 to now. The number of Chinese divers has increased dramatically in this stage. In China, there were 1.5 million tourists participating experiential scuba diving every year, and about 30% participates were willing to involve in further scuba diving activity (Zhang, 2013). Chinese divers began to dive abroad. Sabah tourism board of Malaysia announced that there were 2,075 Chinese tourists diving in Sabah in 2010, and that number increased to 20,462 in 2012, which making China became the largest diving tourist market of Sabah (Gu, 2013). Besides Hainan province, other famous diving sites in China included Qiandao Lake in Hangzhou, Double Moon Bay in Huizhou, Miaowan Island in Zhuhai and Weizhou Island in Beihai.

The most obvious problem of recreational diving in China was that the diving sites were less attractive because of the location, overfishing and over-diving (Jameson, et al., 2007). The second problem was that the diving related tourism in China was lack of supervision (Zhang & Tao, 2013). The third problem was that Chinese divers need improving the awareness of environmental preservation (Zhai, 2010). The fourth problem was that diving security has become a potential danger in China (Su, 2010).

In order to improve the diving tourism in China, there were four ways which might be tried. First, building artificial reefs (Stolk, Markwell and Jenkins, 2007) and underwater theme park (Van Treeck and Schuhmacher, 1998) might be a solution to the unattractive diving sites. Second, security and surveillance might be strengthened to safeguard the diving related tourism (Su, 2010). Third, marketing and promotional efforts need to be strengthened to enhance the popularity of diving activities and Chinese diving sites. Fourth, sustainability of diving tourism might be one of the most important considerations to develop new diving sites in China (Hawkins, et al., 2005).

References

Chen, Y. W. & Su, X. (2010). Analysis on ordinary people and the tourists to participate in leisure diving in Zhanjiang. Journal of Guangzhou Sport University, 30(3), 53-57.

Chen, Y. (2016). Xuwen has a great potential of diving tourism. http://news.gdzjdaily.com.cn/zjxw/content/2016-02/24/content_2098852.shtml

Gu, J. (2013). Chinese divers increase ten times in two years, and diving tend to be the new fashion in China. http://www.china.com.cn/travel/txt/2013-05/15/content_28829025.htm

Hawkins, J. P., Roberts, C. M., Kooistra, D., Buchan, K., & White, S. (2005). Sustainable of scuba diving tourism on coral reefs of Saba. Coastal Management, 33, 373-387.

Jameson, S. C., Ammar, M. S. A., Saadalla, E., Mostafa, H. M., & Riegl, B. (2007). A Quantitative ecological assessment of diving sites in the Egyptian red sea during a period of severe anchor damage: a baseline for restoration and sustainable tourism management. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 15(2), 309-323.

Van Treeck, P., & Schuhmacher, H. (1998). Mass diving tourism – a new dimension calls for new management approaches. Marine Pollution Bulletin, 37(8-12), 499-504.

Stolk, P., Markwell, K., & Jenkins, J. (2007). Artificial reefs as recreational scuba diving resources: a critical review of research. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 15(4), 331- 350.

Stolk, P., Markwell, K., & Jenkins, J. (2005). Perceptions of artificial reefs as scuba diving resources: a study of Australian recreational scuba divers. Annuals of Leisure Research, 8(2-3), 153-173.

Su, X. (2009). Study on leisure diving. Sports Culture Guide, 7, 19-22.

Su, X. (2010). Study on the security of leisure diving. Sports Culture Guide, 6, 25-28.

Zhai, Q. W. (2010). Discussion on sustainable development of coastal recreational diving in China. Bulletin of Sport Science & Technology, 1, 22-24.

Zhang, H. E., & Tao, Y. (2013). Discussion on the problem of Chinese leisure diving tourism development. Modern Economics, 12(6), 80-81.

Zhang, L. M. (2013). Diving development in China. http://jjckb.xinhuanet.com/2013- 10/25/content_472726.htm

Measuring the Service Quality of the 10th China (Wuhan) International Garden Expo Using SERVPERF Scale

Wei Feng
Hubei University, Wuhan, PR China
Yingjie Wu
Hubei University, Wuhan, PR China
Shu Zhang
Wuhan Business University, Wuhan, PR China

Mega-event industry is still an emerging industry in China. In recent years, China has hosted several Mega-events such as The 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, the 2010 Shanghai World Expo which generated great social and economic benefits to the host city. Service quality is of vital importance to the success of Mega-events. Therefore, the enhancement of service quality of these Mega-events has become the constant concern of the organizers of the Mega-events.

China International Garden Expo is an international Mega-event jointly hosted by the Ministry of Housing and Urban-rural Development (MOHURD) and Provincial (Municipal) government of People's Republic of China. It was founded in 1997, held once every two years, So far, has been successively held in Dalian, Nanjing, Shanghai and other major cities in China.

 The 10th China International Garden Expo was held in Wuhan, opening from September 25, 2015 to May 28, 2016. The 10th Expo is known as the largest scale Garden expo in China, covering the area of 213 hectares, with a total of 117 gardens, including 82 city-theme garden, 10 international garden, 9 creative parks, 6 citizen's gardens, 4 master gardens, 4 theme parks, 1 Hubei Park as well as 1 Children park.

The Construction of the Expo venue has also widely aroused the public attention due to its ecological concept. The 10th Wuhan Garden Expo was constructed on the landfills, adopting the advanced landfill aerobic repair technology, highlighted the theme of the expo---
"ecological garden, the green life". In December 2105, on the 21st session of the UN climate conference held in Paris, France, the construction project won 'Solid Waste Treatment' awards for the use of landfill ecological restoration technology.

The aim of this research is to measure and evaluate service quality of the 10th China (Wuhan) International Garden Expo using SERVPERF scale. The findings of the study could help to further understand the most important factors that affect the visitors' overall satisfaction of the Expo and thus offers valuable implications for the enhancement of service quality of the Mega-event.

Measuring service quality is one of the most researched areas in service marketing field. Researchers over the past three decades have developed various measurement instruments to measure service quality and its relationship with that of customer satisfaction. SERVQUAL and SERVPERF are the two widely used instruments for measuring service quality. The SERVQUAL Scale put forward by A. Parasuraman, Zeithaml, V. and L. Berry has got some critics even though it is the most adopted one till date. Many felt that expectations have multiple dimensions hence it is hard to measure. Cronin and Taylor then came up with SERVPERF as they strongly believed that performance model is more convenient in measuring service quality.

The study was conducted to measure the perceived service quality of the visitors to the 10th China (Wuhan) International Garden. The Study was an empirical example of Mega-event service quality ranking problem in visitors' perspective. The objectives of the study are:

(1) To identify the key contributes of the service quality of the Expo using SERVPERF Scale.
(2) To find out the importance of each of the five dimensions of the perceived service quality.
(3)To find out the relation between the five dimensions of service quality and the visitors' overall satisfaction.

The Study was conducted in the garden Expo and online. The questionnaire which was based on the SERPARF scale were distributed on site or online to respondents who had visited the garden Expo. 23 attributes of five dimensions (Tangibility, Reliability, Responsiveness, Empathy and Assurance) of service quality were used to develop the questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of three sections: (1) Questions dealing with the Demographic data of the respondents; (2) Questions focusing on the visitors' perception of service quality of the Expo; (3) Questions relevant to the overall satisfaction of the visitors.

This study adopts survey questionnaire first to get primary data, and subsequently analyzes it. The design of the questionnaire asks participants to answer on a 5 point Likert scale. The statistical data of returned questionnaire is collected; its reliability, descriptive statistics, t test, and regression analysis are analyzed by using the SPSS to examine the hypotheses in this study. Every dimension of the Service Quality is regarded as an independent variable, the satisfaction is a dependent variable, and multiple regression analysis is utilized.

Based on the empirical results, implications for the enhancement of the service quality of Mega-events were provided.

References

Boulding, W., Kalra, A., Richard, S. & Zeithaml, V. A. (1993). A Dynamic Process Model of Service Quality: From Expectation to Behavioral Intentions, Journal of Marketing Research, 30(1), pp.7-27.

Carman, J. M., (1990). Consumer Perceptions of Service Quality: An Assessment of the SERVQUAL Dimensions, Journal of Retailing, Vol. 66, No.1 pp.33-55.

Cronin J. Joseph, Jr. and Steven A. Taylor (1992). Measuring Service Quality: A Reexamination and Extension , Journal of Marketing, 56 (July),pp. 55-68.

Cronin J. Joseph, Jr. and Steven A. Taylor (1994). SERVPERF Versus SERVQUAL: Reconciling Performance - Based and Perception - Minus - Expectations Measurement of Service Quality, Journal of Marketing, 58 (January),pp. 125-131.

Gronroos, Christian(1982). Strategic Management and Marketing in the Service Sector. Research Reports No.8, Swedish School of Economics and Business Administration, Helsinki.

Gronroos, Christian(1984). Service Quality Model and Its Marketing Implications. European Journal of Marketing , (18),1984, pp.36-44

Gronroos, Christian (2000). Service Management and Marketing: A Customer Relationship Management Approach(Second Edition),England : John Willey & Sons, Ltd,.

Johnson, Robert(1995). Exploring the Relationship Between Perceptions and Performance, in proceedings from Workshop on Quality Management in Services. V, Tilburg, The Netherlands, May 11-12, 1995, pp.187-196.

Marry Jo. Bitner (1990). Evaluating Service Encounters : The Effects of Physical Surroundings and Employee Responses , Journal of Marketing , Vol.54,pp.69-82

Parasuraman, A., Valarie A. Zeithaml and Leonard L. Berry(1985). A Conceptual Model of Service Quality and Its Implications for Future Research, Journal of Marketing, Vol.49(Fall), pp. 41-50.

Parasuraman, A., Valarie A. Zeithaml and Leonard L. Berry（1988）. SERVQUAL, A Multiple- Item Scale for Measuring Consumer Perceptions of Service Quality. Journal of Retailing, Vol.64, 1(Spring),pp.12-40.

Parasuraman, A., Valarie A. Zeithaml and Leonard L. Berry（1990）. An Empirical Examination of Relationships in An Extended Service Quality Model. Report No. 90- 122(December). Cambridge, Massachusetts: Marketing Science Institute.

Parasuraman, A., Leonard L. Berry and Valarie A. Zeithaml（1991）.Refinement and Reassessment of the SERVQUAL Scale. Journal of Retailing, Volume 67, No.4(Winter),pp.420-450.

Roberts, K., S. Varki and R. Brodie(2003). Measuring the quality of relationships in consumer services: An empirical study, European Journal of Marketing, 37,169-196. Roland

T. Rust，Anthony J. Zahorik and Timothy L. Keiningham(2001). Return On Quality, Irwin Publishing.

Teas, R.K. (1993).Consumer Expectations and the Measurement of Perceived Service Quality, Journal of Professional Service Marketing, 8(2), pp.33-54.

From Farmland to City-land: Dissecting Leisure Travel Experiences of Chinese Urban Re-settlers

Xiaoxiao Fu
University of Central Florida, Florida, USA
Xinran Y. Lehto
Purdue University, Indiana, USA

Introduction

Amid the Chinese tourism research, rural-to-urban resettled residents are little known while the majority of studies relied on urban or student samples. The current study brings academic attention to a neglected traveler segment i.e. the Chinese rural-to-urban resettled residents. Due to the urban-rural division in China, the resettlement of rural communities is more than a change of physical place, it entails adjustments of economic, social, and cultural status (Xu, Tang, & Chan, 2011). Our research set our sights on bringing attention to and establishing a greater understanding of the well-being of China's urban re-settlers. The specific study objectives are fourfold: 1) to understand their motivations for leisure travel experiences; 2) to examine whether/how destination activities facilitate personal needs and interests; 3) to develop a classification of urban re-settlers based on their destination activity tendencies, 4) to explore how these groups differ in trip outcomes (trip satisfaction and subjective well-being after resettlement), and 5) to illuminate their leisure travel characteristics in light of their life situations and life style changes. The outcome of the present research could provide an insightful interpretation of the specificities of this group's leisure vacation experience during their transition to urban life.

Methodology

Pertaining to the respondents' most recent leisure travel experience after resettlement, this study contained several sections. Respondents were asked to indicate their participation in 29 destination activities, measured by the question "How much did you participate in the following activities during your most recent leisure travel?" on a five-point Likert-type scale from "never" (1) to "a great deal" (5) (Lehto, Fu, Li, & Zhou, 2014). A list of 32 motivation items identified in a study of Chinese tourist motivations (Fu, Cai, & Lehto, 2016) were used on a five-point Likert-type scale from "never important" (1) to "always important" (5). The questionnaire also assessed overall trip satisfaction, subjective well-being, and demographic and trip-related information. The data were collected in a resettled community in eastern China from February 2014 to May 2014. Out of the 300 self-administered questionnaires, 219 were deemed as usable for analysis.

Principle component factor analysis was performed on activity and motivation dimensions. Next, a canonical correlation analysis (CCA) was employed to assess the relationship between activity and travel motivations. Cluster analysis was also conducted directly on the raw activity items to derive groups based on similarity of responses to activity participation. Group differences were assessed using one-way ANOVA.

Findings

Eight activity dimensions were identified, including Active outdoor pursuits, City sights and sounds, Water-based recreation, Interaction with locals, Sampling local culture, Taking pictures/videos, Shopping, and Social activities, while nine motivation dimensions were identified, including Family togetherness, Harmony with nature, Relationship/guanxi,

Face/mianzi, Self-development, Material fulfillment, Escape and retreat, Youth learning, and Exploration and discovery. Canonical correlation analyses yielded six significant linkages between activity and motivation, which presented logical alignments between psychological drivers and behavioral choices.

The resettled farmers were clustered into three groups based on activity participation, namely Socializers, Relaxation seekers, and Learning enthusiasts. Group differences were found across the three groups in terms of trip satisfaction and subjective well-being. For overall satisfaction and the vacation's role in overall leisure needs after resettlement, Socializers had a higher level of perceptions than the Relaxation seekers. In terms of specific aspects of subjective well-being, urban re-settlers who were more involved in socialization perceived a higher level of perceived enhancement of their social well-being, more so than the Relaxation seekers and the learning enthusiasts. Among those who participated to a larger extent in learning-oriented and exploratory activities, their trip experience seemed to contribute to their after-resettlement leisure well-being more so than in the case of Socializers and Relaxation seekers.

Conclusions

Using China as a case in point, this study represents a beginning yet important step in examining the leisure travel experiences of urban re-settlers. It revealed unique psychological and behavioral characteristics of this traveler segment. This research contributes to the existing urban resettlement literature by examining the role of leisure travel during such a transitional life stages. It also provides important information to public policy making. In the full paper, the findings will be deliberated contextually in relation to their life transitions and lifestyle changes brought about by displacement and resettlement.

References

Fu, X., Cai, L.A., & Lehto, X.Y. (2016). Framing Chinese Tourist Motivations through the Lenses of Confucianism. Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing. DOI: 10.1080/10548408.2016.1141156

Lehto, X., Fu, X., Li, H., & Zhou, L. (2014). Vacation benefits and activities: Understanding Chinese family travelers. Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research. DOI:10.1177/1096348013515921

Xu, Y., Tang, B., & Chan, E.H.W. (2011). State-led land requisition and transformation of rural villages in transitional China. Habitat International, 35(1), 57–65.

The Positive Impacts of Cruise Tourism

Ruhet Genc

Turkish-German University, Beykoz-Istanbul, Turkey

One of the fast growing section in the travel industry is the cruise ship industry. The number of cruise passengers has been growing and there were 22 million passengers travelled on the cruise lines at 2014. There are few popular spots for cruise liners in the United States. One of them is Miami, Florida. There are some other spots in the Mediterranean area and Far East. But the major cruise line business takes place in the United States. The Caribbean and Bahamas are the most sailed destinations. After travelling them, one can easily discover that these destinations are overrated destinations, they are not the most delightful places to visit in the world. Proximity to the main tourist areas and investment made on the region make it somewhat popular. However after visiting same destinations over and over again within so many years, frequent travelers and local people get tired of seeing each other. Local people got tired of seeing the wealth while living in poverty and at the same time frequent travelers also got tired of trying to protect themselves against from some unexpected happenings. To organize a positive impact on the cruise ship industry, the passengers, local communities and the researchers need to reorganize the destinations while searching new ones.

Introduction

Cruise tourism is a vast growing tourism branch in the sector. Since it is only discovered partially, the importance and the impact of the whole potential, the area needs to be discovered in order to fulfill the needs of cruise tourism itself. The sustainability in general and specifically for cruise ship management is an area one should concentrate in order to make it more appealing for humanity. This sector is the locomotive of dozens of other sectors. Even only for that reason, one can focus on it.

Methods

This paper is intended to be a review paper. Related articles and books were taken into account and analyses of them were done.

Findings

Cruise tourism could be applied in a sustainable way. Actually the companies which are active in this sector are giving close attention to sustainability. Every cruise ship is like a recycling factory. They classified even the waste water into different groups and release them according to their chemical substances. Almost seventy percent of the whole cruise ships are taking place in the triangle of Florida-Bahamas-Caribbean's. It means many other areas around the world need to be gained into cruise ship routes.

Implications

The tourism professionals could add new destinations and mods of travelling into their program to enrich their agenda and give more opportunity for the traveler. The new comer into the sector will be aware of sustainability of the industry.

Conclusions

Cruise ship travelling use to for rich men's adventure until recently. Ship builders enable the sector to have sizable ships for making more passengers travelling on the same board. At the same time ships are self-sufficient and self-contained and offer us a sustainable way of travelling around the world. Some of them are marketing even time share. Tourism sectors

are in a nice competition, the cruise ship has advantages in many ways to be the leading sector.

References

Angelo, Rocco M, & Andrew N. Vladimir (1994). Hospitality today: an introduction.

Making Tourism More Sustainable - A Guide for Policy Makers, UNEP and UNWTO, 2005, p.11- 12.

UNEP. Industry as a partner for sustainable development: tourism. A report prepared by World Tourism Council, International Hotel and Restaurant Association, International Federation of Tour Operators and the International Council of Cruise Lines; 2002.

Butt, N. (2007). The impact of cruise ship generated waste on home ports and ports of call: A study of Southampton. Marine Policy, 31(5), 591-598.

Cruise   Lines International Association, Global Cruise Impact Analysis 2013, http://www.cruising.org/sites/default/files/pressroom/Global_Cruise_Impact_Anal ysis_2013.pdf http://www.sustainablecruise.eu/?page_id=795&lang=en carnival cooperation sustainability report 2013

Davies, J. (2002). Exploring open spaces and protecting natural places. Journal of Ecotourism, 1(2-3), 173-180.

Donaldson, J. F., Rendle, J., & McIntyre, A. D. (1994). Safer ships, cleaner seas: report of Lord Donaldson's inquiry into the prevention of pollution from merchant shipping. HMSO.

Dowling, R. K., & Vasudavan, T. (2000). Cruising in the new millennium.Tourism Recreation Research, 25(3), 17-27.

Dwyer, L., & Forsyth, P. (1998). Economic significance of cruise tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 25(2), 393-415.

Gee, Chuck Y. International hotel management. Amer Hotel & Motel Assn, 1994.

Genç, R. (2013). International Hotel and Restaurant Management. Amazon. com. ISBN, 1820433670.

Genç, R. (2015). The contribution of NGOs in general and SKAL International particularly, in tourism development. Asia-Pacific Journal of Innovation in Hospitality and Tourism, 4(1), 113-124.

Le Blanc, David., Roehrl, A., Richard., Ritz, Julie., Jussila, Riina., Plutakhina, Marina., UNEP-DTIE., Zubcevic, Irena., Soltau, Friedrich., Martinho, Maria., O'Connor, David. (2015). Global Sustainable Development Report. Retrieved from h ttps://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/globalsdreport/2015.

International   Institude   for   Sustainable   Development.(2015).What   is   Sustainable Development? Environmental, economic and social well-being for today and tomorrow. Retrieved from https://www.iisd.org/sd/

James, J., & Baldwin, D. (2003). Streetwise Restaurant Management: A Comprehensive guide to successfully owning and running a restaurant. Adams Media.

Orams, M. B. (1997). The effectiveness of environmental education: can we turn tourists into" greenies'?. Progress in tourism and hospitality research, 3(4), 295-306.

Johnson, D. (2002). Environmentally sustainable cruise tourism: a reality check. Marine Policy, 26(4), 261-270.

Ritter, W., & Schafer, C. (1998). Cruise-tourism: a chance of sustainability.tourism recreation research, 23(1), 65-71.

Stopford, M. (1997). Maritime Economics, 2nd.

Wood, R. E. (2000). Caribbean cruise tourism: globalization at sea. Annals of tourism research, 27(2), 345-370.

Austerity and Heritage Tourism at UNESCO World Heritage Sites in Greece

David Gill,
Suffolk Business School, Ipswich, UK

Introduction

Greece has faced serious economic and social challenges during the present economic crisis. Heritage sites are seen as a major asset in the tourism strategy for Greece to generate income from outside the country. There are 15 World Heritage sites in Greece: in Attica (the Athenian Akropolis), central Greece (Delphi), the Peloponnese (Bassae, Epidauros, Mycenae and Tiryns, Mystras, Olympia), Macedonia (Vergina, Thessalonika), and the islands (Delos, Rhodes, Chios, Corfu, Samos, Patmos).

Methods

The project has analysed the visitor figures and income generation for archaeological sites and museums, including the key World Heritage sites, in Greece. These data are available from the Hellenic Statistical Service.

In recent years detailed figures are no longer reported for every site and museum in Greece. However it is possible to identify trends for the Athenian Akropolis, Delphi, Epidauros, Mycenae (but not Tiryns), Mystras, and Olympia.

Some major archaeological sites such as Knossos on Crete are not designated as World Heritage Sites but do attract large numbers of visitors (632,288 in 2015).

Findings

There were 23.5 million arrivals by non-residents in Greece in 2015, and increase from 22 million in 2014. Visitors from Germany, the UK, France and Italy account for some 8 million in 2015.

In 2015 there were 10.3 million visits to (paid) archaeological sites, and 4.4 million visits to museums. This was an increase from 2014 with 14.1 million combined visits. Back in 2008 the same figures showed that only 8 million visits were made.

The core World Heritage sites in Greece attracted more than 3.77 million visitors in 2015: this reflects an increase of more than 1 million visits over a decade (2.7 million in 2006). There has been a marked resurgence since the low point of 1.9 million visits in 2010.

In 2015 heritage sites and museums generated more than 56 million Euros in ticket sales alone; in 2014 the total revenue was 54.6 million Euros. The lowest point was 2012 with an income of only 40.5 million Euros. However there are some sites and museums, especially on more remote islands or in the mountains of the Peloponnese, where visitor numbers are extremely low.

Conclusion

There are clearly heritage 'hot-spots' with Athens (Akropolis; Akropolis Museum; National Archaeological Museum), Knossos, Rhodes and Olympia leading the way. The figures suggest that visitors tend to enjoy visiting sites rather than museums, though at Delphi nearly two-thirds of visitors also make their way to the museum to see the finds from the excavations.

The figures suggest that heritage (including museums) are positive attractions in the tourist offer for Greece, and provide a key income stream for preserving this part of the universal heritage. Key sites, and especially those designated as World Heritage Sites, are key in the economic strategy to protect important sites and archaeological collections that are less well visited in Greece.

References

Gill, David W.J. 2013. Cultural tourism in Greece at a time of economic crisis. Journal of Eastern Mediterranean Archaeology & Heritage Studies 1: 233-42.
Timothy, Dallen J. 2014. Contemporary Cultural Heritage and Tourism: Development Issues and Emerging Trends. Public Archaeology 13, 1-3: 30-47.
Hellenic Statistical Service. http://www.statistics.gr/
UNESCO: World Heritage Sites in Greece. http://whc.unesco.org/en/statesparties/gr

Building the Competitive Identity of a Destination Through Hosting Touring 'Blockbuster' Exhibitions: a Case Study of Canberra, Australia

Valentina Gorchakova
Auckland University of Technology, Australia

Touring blockbuster exhibitions (TBEs) are major exhibitions that bring together a collection of rare art works, significant cultural objects or memorabilia to tour a limited number of cities. These exhibitions may be organised by museums, art galleries, fashion houses, film studios, or private companies. TBEs can attract tourists and enhance the image of a city, they offer exciting once-in-a-lifetime experiences, are of a limited duration and occur infrequently. The questions about TBEs' roles in destination marketing and event strategies have received little attention from scholars; the present research project aims to make a conceptual contribution in this context and seeks to reveal the potential such major special events as TBEs have for the host cities' tourism development.

The research takes as its theoretical basis the following frameworks and concepts: the concept of an 'eventful city' (Richards & Palmer, 2010), the 'experiential realms' framework of Pine and Gilmore (1999), the destination/event co-branding model (Jago, Chalip, Brown, Mules, & Ali, 2003) and the event leverage model by Chalip (2004). This study seeks to make a theoretical contribution developing a conceptual framework, which demonstrates the interrelationships between these concepts, TBEs and the marketing of a city to tourists.

Case study is an appropriate methodology in marketing subject areas, including marketing strategy development and implementation (e.g., Bonoma, 1985; Dul & Hak, 2008; Johnston, Leach, & Liu, 1999). An exploratory qualitative multiple case study was conducted in four cities: Auckland and Wellington in New Zealand, and Canberra and Melbourne in Australia.

For the purposes of this research, it was crucial to collect data about the ways touring blockbuster exhibitions are being used in the marketing of a city to tourists and how they contribute to the city's tourism offering and image. Therefore, the viewpoints of decision makers in a city government and in local cultural institutions hosting TBEs were to be found and understood. To achieve that, interviewing was chosen as primary data collection method, and document analysis as secondary data collection method.

The paper aims to present the preliminary findings of the research in Canberra and Melbourne, Australia. First, there were determined a number of variables in the city, state and country contexts that have either positive or unfavourable effects on the tourism marketing of the cities. TBEs prove to have been efficient in maximising the advantages and tackling the existing challenges. Second, TBEs appear to support the essence of both cities' tourism offers. In the case of Canberra, they help to draw visitors and make them explore the country's capital city and its national attractions, while in Melbourne, these exhibitions are used as a means to showcase the city's lifestyle. Third, the regional marketing and major events organisations have been supportive of the cultural institutions' aspirations to host major international exhibitions, and their work was praised by the interviewees for achieving significant results in destination marketing and in strengthening inter-agencies relationships. Finally, the approaches of Canberra and Melbourne to hosting TBEs have their similarities and differences, but they both are demonstrating strategic vision of how to employ these events in the creation of the cities' competitive identities.

References

Bonoma, T. V. (1985). Case research in marketing: Opportunities, problems, and a process. Journal of Marketing Research, 22(2), 199-208.

Chalip, L. (2004). Beyond impact: A general model for sport event leverage In B. W. Ritchie & A. Daryl (Eds.), Sport tourism: Interrelationships, impacts and issues (pp. 226-252). Clevedon, England: Channel View.

Dul, J., & Hak, T. (2008). Case study methodology in business research. Oxford, England: Butterworth-Heinemann/Elsevier.

Jago, L., Chalip, L., Brown, G., Mules, T., & Ali, S. (2003). Building events into destination branding: Insights from experts. Event Management, 8(1), 3-14. doi:10.3727/152599503108751658

Johnston, W. J., Leach, M. P., & Liu, A. H. (1999). Theory testing using case studies in business-to-business research. Industrial Marketing Management, 28(3), 201-213. doi:10.1016/S0019-8501(98)00040-6

Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1999). The experience economy: Work is theatre & every business a stage. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Richards, G., & Palmer, R. (2010). Eventful cities: Cultural management and urban revitalisation. Oxford, Great Britain: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Mapping Analysis of the Knowledge Domains of Heritage Tourism Research

Jing Guan
Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou, P. R. China
Chaozhi Zhang
UIUC-SYSU International Joint Laboratory of National Park Research, Guangzhou, P. R. China.

It is widely acknowledged that demand for heritage tourism has grown exponentially in the last several decades. Since 2000, a number of literature related to heritage tourism have been increasingly published. Given this rapid development and interest in this field, the purpose of this article is to apply a set of scientometric methods to review the literature and find the most influencing and highly cited articles in this flourishing field.
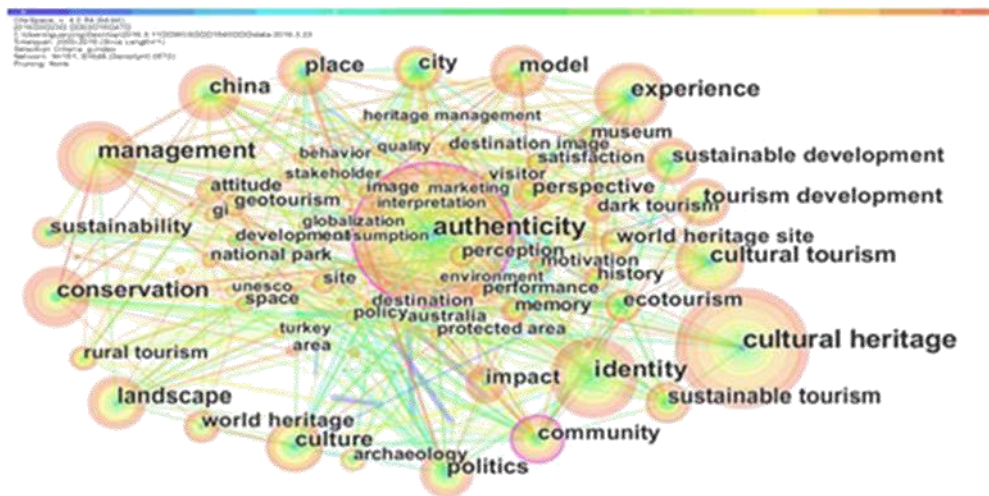
In order to fully understand the current situation of the heritage tourism research, 1540 various pieces of information were collected from related field articles using Web of Science database, and subsequently by using Citespace4.0 software analyzed the network of co-author's countries, co-occurring keywords, author co-citation network and co-occurring subject category. Citespace software is able to present the information panorama of scientific knowledge, and recognize the key literature，moreover Citespace can explore an unknown field in the complex scientific research. This method will help to highlight the research direction and the academic focus over a specified time interval. Moreover, this paper will certainly contribute to understanding of the heritage tourism knowledge domains.

Firstly, the results suggest that countries such as the USA, China, the UK, Australia, Italy, Canada, Spain and Turkey have conducted a vast study in the this field, where the USA have the strongest influence, not only by amount of published papers, but also by number of citations. China is the country with the second highest number of world heritage sites, but when compare the research to the USA，we found out that although Chinese academia has published a large number of papers in heritage tourism, the influence has not reached significant level in the whole field.

Secondly, the paper identified "authenticity" as the main topic of heritage tourism. Most of the key nodes in the literature were found to be related with topic of authenticity that shows its outstanding position in the field. Authenticity and cultural heritage are the core research perspectives in the field, and the keywords such as identity, experience, community, place, conservation and politics present the popular topics (Fig.1).

Thirdly, from the perspective of authors co-occurrence, the main researchers were identified such as J.Urry, E.Cohen, B.McKercher, J.E.Tunbridge, G.J. Ashworth, Y.Poria, N.Wang, D.MacCanell, who remarkably contributed to heritage tourism research. Given the noticeable correlativity in the above scholars' research topics and content, the co-citation rates between them is quite high (Fig.2).

Lastly, we can notice that the co-citation authorship between J.Urry and other scholars has been the most significant. His 'tourist gaze' and 'tourism mobility' theories have caught wide attention of academia and became a milestone in tourism research.

Fig.1: Knowledge domain map showing co-occurence of key words in heritage tourism field

Fig.2 Knowledge domain map of heritage tourism according to co-citation authorship

References

Chen C (2006). CiteSpace II: Detecting and visualizing emerging trends and transient patterns in scientific literature .Journal of the American Society for Information Science & Technology, 57(3):359-377.

Chen C(2012). Predictive effects of structural variation on citation counts. Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology ,63:431-449.

Timothy D J.(2014). Contemporary Cultural Heritage and Tourism: Development Issues and Emerging Trends. Public Archaeology ,13(1):30-47.

Reisinger Y, Steiner C.(2006) .Reconceptualizing object authenticity. Annals of Tourism Research, 33(1):65-86.

Poria Y. & Ashworth G(2009). Heritage tourism – Current resource for conflict. Annals of Tourism Research, 36(3), 522–525.

Poria Y, &Butler R,(2003). The core of heritage tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 30(1):238-254.

Taylor J.P(2001). Authenticity and Sincerity in Tourism. Annals of Tourism Research ,28(1):7- 26.

Ashworth G J(2000). Heritage, Tourism and Places: A Review. Tourism Recreation Research,25(1):19-29.

Cohen E H(1979). A phenomenology of tourist experiences Sociology, 13(2):179-201.

Apostolakis A(2003). The convergence process in heritage tourism. Annals of Tourism Research ,30(4):795-812.

Thomas Birtchnella & John Urry(2015). The mobilities and post-mobilities of cargo. Consumption Markets & Culture.18(1):25-38.

Olsen H.& Timothy J(2002). Contested religious heritage: Differing views of Morman heritage. Tourism Recreation Research, 27(2):7–15.

Azmi M(2012). Tragedy of the commons: Commercialization of cultural heritage in Malaysia. Queen Mary. Journal of Intellectual Property. 2(1), 66–78.

Pendlebury J., Short M & While A(2009). Urban world heritage sites and the problem of authenticity. Cities,26(6), 349–358.

Porter B W & Salazar N.B(2005). Heritage tourism, conflict, and the public interest: An introduction International Journal of Heritage Studies,11(5): 361－370.

Study of the Impact of Tourism Destination Residents' Well-being on Their Affinity for Travel & Tourism: A Case Study of Wuhan, Hubei Province

Qingxia Guo
Huberi University, Hubei, PR China.
Yan Wang
Huberi University, Hubei, PR China.

With the rapid development of economy and society, "the pursuit of well-being" instead of "GDP worship" becomes the core of today's society development.People is higher and higher to stress quality of life,well-being has received widespread attention from all walks of life.As a strategic pillar industry of the country's economic development and modern service industry of improving people's satisfaction,tourism industry is especially concerned about the experience quality of tourists and the development of tourist destination,all of which are related to the destination residents.As the host of the local tourism development,affinity for travel&tourism from the local directly affecting tourism mood,feeling and consumption of the tourists, which can bring more tourism income for the destination, is indispensable tourism resources to the local tourism development.The World Economy Forum(WEF) released since 2007 consecutive four times in the tourism competitiveness report, the overall competitiveness of China's tourism industry performance is remarkable, but surprisingly affinity for travel&tourism still lags behind.

With the impact of destination residents' well-being on their affinity for travel&tourism as the breakthrough point,this paper conducted the questionnaire survey from the perspective of tourist destination residents to study whether residents' well-being has an impact on the affinity for travel& tourism and what effect on the basis of existing research.This paper selected residents in Wuhan city as the research object and study the effects of residents' well-being on their affinity for travel& tourism based on the perspective of residents in Wuhan city.Through the analysis of SPSS20.0 and AMOS17.0 software,the following main conclusions are reached:

Firstly,through in-depth interviews from the perspective of tourists and the analysis of grounded theory,the scale of affinity for travel&tourism has been developed after the test before and the formal inspection with four dimensions and seventeen items.

Secondly,tourist destination residents' well-being mainly includes three factors which are "subjective well-being", "psychological well-being" and "social happiness";affinity for travel& tourism from residents has mainly four factors which respectively are:"public order", "verbal communication", "place identity" and "dedication spirit".

Thirdly,After operation by using structural equation model,the following conclusions are found:in the three major factors of residents' well-being,the subjective well-being towards public order,verbal communication and dedication spirit have significant effect,no significant impact on local identity;psychological well-being towards public order, dedication spirit have significant effect,no significant influence on verbal communication and place identity;social well-being has significant effects on verbal communication and place identity,no significant impact on public order and dedication spirit.

Finally, according to the results of the empirical research, some suggestions aiming at the government and related tourism enterprises are proposed respectively.

References

Allen L.The impacts of tourism development on residents' perceptions of community life[J].Journal of Travel Research,1998,27(1):16-21.

Brotheridge C M,Lee R T.Testing a conservation of resources model of the dynamics of emotional labor[J].Journal of Occupational Health Psychology,2002,7(1):57-67.

Brunstein C.Personal goals and emotional well-being:The moderating role of motive dispositions[J].Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,1998,55(6):109-110.

Diener E&Lucas E.Culture and Subjective Well-Being[M].Cambridge MA:MIT Press, 2000:87- 112.

Diener E,Fujita F.Resources,personal strivings and subjective well-being:A nomothetic and idiographic approach[J].Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,1995,68 (5):860-871.

Diener E,Robert B.New direction in subjective well-being research[J].Indian Clin Psychology,2000,27(1):21.

Diener E,Sub E,Lucas R,et al.Subjective well-being:Three decades of progress[J]. Psychology Bulletin,1999,125(2):276-294.

Dixon J,Durrheim K.Dislocating identity:Desegregation and the transformation of place[J].Journal of Environmental Psychology,2004,(24):455-473.

Eid M&Larsen J.The science of subjective well-being[M].New York: Guilford Press, 2007:62- 79.

Frey S&Stutzer A.Happiness and Economics:How the Economy and Institutions Affect Well- Being [M]. New Jersey: Princeton University Press.2002:145.

Hugo K.Implicit Explicit Motive Discrepancies and Volitional Managers[J].Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin,2004,28(10):122-125.

Julia S.A high implicit affiliation motive does not always make you happy:A corresponding explicit motive and corresponding behavior are further needed Published online[J].Springer Science Business Media,2008,32(3):231-242.

Keyes M&Shapiro D.Social Well-Being in the United States:A Descriptive Epidemiology[M].Chicago: University of Chicago Press.2004:350-373.

Where do Stressed People Prefer Travelling to: Rural Resorts or Urban Resorts?

Tomomi Hanai
Teikyo University, Itabashi Japan
Takashi Oguchi
Rikkyo University, Toshima, Japan

Introduction

"Mental health tourism" focuses on mental wellness and stressed people are recommended to engage in this type of tourism. However, there are some practical problems preventing them from going traveling and engaging in mental health tourism. One of the most prevalent problems is that some think that stressed people have no energy to go traveling. This research has two purposes. Firstly, we examine the relationship between people's stress level and the strength of their motivation to go traveling. If there is no relationship between the two, the illusion that stressed people have no energy to go traveling might be eliminated. Next, we examine where stressed people prefer to travel, that is, rural or urban resorts. Mental health tourism is closely associated with nature (Arakawa, 2015; Ohe, 2015).

Method

An internet survey was conducted. Data collection was delegated to Rakuten Research, Inc. in early April 2015. A total of 300 individuals, 249 men and 51 women, with a full-time job and aged 20 to 69 years participated in the study.

The General Health Questionnaire (GHQ; Goldberg & Williams, 1988) and a subscale of the Brief Job Stress Questionnaire (BJSQ: Kato, 2000) were adopted to assess stress levels. The strength of the motivation to go traveling and the preference regarding where to go traveling ("Which do you prefer: going to exciting cities or going to rural areas surrounded by nature?") were also examined.

Findings

A factor analysis was conducted on the GHQ and one factor was extracted (11 items, α = .879). Moreover, a factor analysis was conducted on a subscale of BJSQ and four factors were extracted; "work load" (7 items, α = .757), "job aptitude" (4 items, α = .740), "controllability" (1 item) and "personal relationship" (2 items, α = .591). Correlation coefficients between these factors were not significant.

Next, the participants who preferred exciting cities were classified as the "urban group" and those who preferred rural areas as the "rural group." An ANOVA was used to determine whether there were any significant differences between these two groups. The GHQ scores were higher in the rural group as compared to the urban group ($F(1,298) = 2.99$, $p < .10$; urban = 2.44 and rural = 2.50), and this meant that the rural group felt more stressed than the urban group. The workload of the rural group was higher than that of the urban group ($F(1,298) = 5.41$, $p < .05$; urban = 2.56 and rural = 2.70).

Conclusions

Firstly, we found no relationship between people's stress level and the strength of their motivation to go traveling. This finding suggests that there are misunderstandings regarding stressed people's preferences to travel. Next, we found that stressed people preferred to travel to rural resorts surrounded by nature. The stressed people that we recommend to

engage in mental health tourism prefer to go to rural resorts and be in contact with natures. Our findings revalidate the importance of mental health tourism.

References

Arakawa, M. (2015) Restructuring Japanese Health Tourism and Advancing Mental Health Tourism in the Japan Revitalization Strategy. Tourism Studies, 27(1), 18-23.

Goldberg, D. & Williams, P. (1988) A User's Guide to the General Health Questionnaire. Windsor, UK: NFER-Nelson.

Kato, M. (2000) Research Report about Job Stress and its Health Effect. pp.117-164. Ohe, Y. (2015) Opportunities and Challenges of Forest-Therapy Tourism: from Slogan to Evidence Based. Tourism Studies, 27(1), 24-29.

Study of the Demand for Leisure Tourism in Wuhan ReBAM, from a Postmodern Perspective

Fen Hu
Huberi University,Hubei , PR China
Chun Yu
Huberi University,Hubei , PR China
Liangyan Song
Huberi University,Hubei , PR China.

Purpose: This paper takes Wuhan as a case and analyses the different demand and characteristics of leisure tourism of Wuhan Recreational Belt Around Metropolis (ReBAM) from postmodern perspective. The purpose is to find better ways to upgrade and optimize the development model of the leisure tourism of ReBAM.

Design: This article is divided into six parts.The first one is introduction, it introduces the background information and the main problem—how to find and satisfy the demand of the leisure tourists of ReBAM. The second part analyses the demand of the tourists from postmodernism perspective. It suggests that the postmodern tourists are more likely to "design their own products" and more interested in the experience value of activities .The third part is about the research method.It takes Wuhan as a case and study the basic situation of the development of leisure tourism of Wuhan ReBAM. Through using the method of questionnaire investigation, it analyses the demand of leisure tourism of Wuhan ReBAM from postmodernism perspective. The questionnaire covers demographics, tourism perception, tourism decision-making, tourism information and other aspects.The forth part is the results.The last two parts are the conclusions and the outlook.

Findings: It is found that the demand of leisure tourists of Wuhan ReBAM shows some characteristics of postmodernism tourism, especially on project experience and value perception. In general, it can be summed up as diversification, individuation and flexibility of product demand of leisure tourism of ReBAM.

Limitation: This research is based on the perspective of consumer decision-making process, and the questionnaire is mainly about tourism perception, tourism decision-making and tourism information. In the future study, the research angle can be expanded, such as from the point of economic development of the tourism destination.

Value: This study puts forward three possible ways of developing the leisure tourism of the ReBAM: enriching the content of the products, innovating the types of the projects and getting instant information. It also provides theoretical guidance for the development of the leisure tourism of Wuhan ReBAM.

References

Shien Zhong, Jinhe Zhang.Study on the relationship between traditionalism, modernity and postmodernity: based on the ancient town tourism consumption, Tourism Tribune,29 (7)(2014),pp.5-7.
Fei Qi.Tourism consumption behavior:the convergence and differentiation under the postmodernism,Tourism Tribune,29 (8)(2014),pp.11-12.

Xingzhong Wang.Research on the market threshold of planning projects:based on the postmodern tourism consumption culture—cases of tourism projects,Human Geography, 6(2010),pp.93-97.

Ying Xiao,Sihua Liu..The Development of Recreational Belt around Metropolis in Changsha ,Economic Geography, 6(2012),pp.173-176.

Xiaohua Feng, Jingfeng Yu, Xiaomin Meng..Study on the ReBAM Formation Mechanism and Sustainable Development of the Typical Inland City in China: Take Urumqi City as Example, Ecological Economy, 2(2013),pp.131-136.

Meditation Tourists' Experience in Chinese Temples: Sacred or Secular?

Ting Jiang
Sun Yat-Sen University Guangzhou, PR China
Chaozhi Zhang
Sun Yat-Sen University Guangzhou, PR China

Meditation has become a widely popular form of tourism in recent years. Like meditation camp, meditation class, meditation center and etc., diverse kinds of meditation tourism is showing up, especially in China. What makes it noteworthy is the fact that meditation tourists motivated by relaxation even entertainment, unexpectedly, redeem their soul and become the followers of Buddhism after the journey. Researches related to visitors to holy places in the West may explain the situation to some extent. Researches have suggested that these visitors meditate with monks and arrange their journey feely, then obtain the sacred spiritual experience which helps them start to believe in a religion. However, unlike religious tourism in the West, Chinese meditation tourism is often organized with fixed event and strict rules, how Chinese meditation tourists get sacred spiritual experience remains unknown.

Two meditation camps at two temples in Jiujiang and Shenzhen of China respectively were chosen. Both temples have been holding meditation activities for over ten years and have already got a reputation for meditation in China. Participant observation, informal and formal interview were adopted for data collection.

The findings are:

> Two main kinds of experience are figured out during meditation tourism. One is secular experience, like taste sense and entertaining feel; the other is sacred experience, like the calling of God and relief from this life.

> Compared with the Holy site visitors, Chinese meditation tourists' experience is constructed by the contexts (情境) where they follow specific (Buddhist) rules in specific space(i.e., Buddhist temple). The specific context (情境) includes tourist context (情境) of atmosphere and the tourist context (情境) of behavior. The tourist context (情境) of atmosphere is consisted of three kinds of atmospheres: great nature, silence and religious culture; while the tourist context (情境) of behavior is also composed of three kinds of behaviors: meditation activities, landscape aesthetic and interaction.

> Based on meditation tourists' motivation (pilgrimage vs. tourist) and interactive mode (inward or outward), four types of meditation tourists are identified: outward tourists, inward tourists, outward pilgrims and inward pilgrims. Different types of meditation tourists have different ways to achieve sacred experience: outward tourists build trust to Buddhism by interacting with the real monks, which helps them justify the Buddhism doctrines and reflect on secular life; inward tourists create a space isolated from the secular to interact with the self, which redeem their soul from depression and helplessness; outward pilgrims and inward tourists consider temples and monks as the representatives of God, they get sacred experience as long as coming into the meditation tourism context (情境).

The findings indicate that Chinese meditation tourists' experience is varying, in the construction process, experience shifts from secularism to sacredness. The experience generates in a specific tourism context (情境). Tourist context (情境) works differently for different kinds of meditation tourists to obtain sacred experience, but separation and interaction function of the context (情境) still plays a key role in the generation process.

References

Andriotis, K. (2009). Sacred site experience. Annals of Tourism Research, 36 (1), 64-84.

Blackwell R.(2007). Motivations for religious tourism, pilgrimage ,festivals and events. In R. Raj & N. D. Morpeth(Eds.). Religious Tourism and Pilgrimage Festivals Management: an International Perspective (pp. 35-47). Cambridge: CAB International.

Badone, E. & S. Roseman (2004). Intersecting journeys: The anthropology of pilgrimage and tourism. Urbana : University of Illinois Press.

Barber, R. (1993). Pilgrimages. London: The Boydell Press.

Beh, A. & B. L. Bruyere (2007). Segmentation of visitor motivation in three Kenyan national reserves. Tourism Management, 28 (6), 1464-1471.

Bond, N. & J. Packer(Eds.). (2015). Exploring Visitor Experiences, Activities and Benefits at Three Religious Tourism Sites. International Journal of Tourism Research, 17 (5), 471-481.

Boorstin, D. (1964). The Image: A Guide to Pseudo-Events in America. New York: Harper& Row.

Buzinde, C. N. & J. M. Kalavar(Eds.). (2014). Emic understandings of Kumbh Mela pilgrimage experiences. Annals of Tourism Research, (49), 1-18.

Chen, G. & J. Bao(Eds.). (2014). Segmenting Chinese Backpackers by Travel Motivations. International Journal of Tourism Research, 16 (4), 355-367.

Cohen, E. (1972). Towards a Sociology of International Tourism. Social Research, (39), 164- 189.

Cohen, E. (1979). A phenomenology of tourist experiences. Sociology, 13 (2), 179--201.

Cohen, E. (1992). Pilgrimage centres: concentric and excentric. Annals of Tourism Research, 19 (1), 33-50.

Cohen E (2003). Tourism and Religion: A Case Study - Visiting Students in Israeli Universities. Journal of Travel Research, (42), 36-47.

Collins-Kreiner, N. (2010). Researching pilgrimage: Continuity and Transformations. Annals of Tourism Research, 37 (2), 440-456.

Collins-Kreiner, N. & N. Kliot (2000). Pilgrimage tourism in the Holy Land: The behavioural characteristics of Christian pilgrims. GeoJournal, (50), 55-67.

Cook, J. (2010). Meditation in Modern Buddhism: Renunciation and Change in Thai Monastic Life. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crompton, J. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. Annals of Tourism Research, 6 (4), 408-424.

Delaney, C. (1990). The Hajj: sacred and secular. American Ethnologist, (17), 513-530.

Digance, J. (2003). Pilgrimage at contested sites. Annals of Tourism Research, 30 (1), 143-159.

Eade, J. (1992). Pilgrimage and tourism at Lourdes, France. Annals of Tourism Research, (19), 18-32.

Eade, J. & J. Sallnow (1991). Contesting the Sacred: The Anthropology of Christian Pilgrimage. London: Routledge.

Eddy, G. (2012). Becoming Buddhist : experiences of socialization and self-transformation in two Australian Buddhist centres. New York: Continuum International Pub. Group.

Eliade, M. (1969). The Quest: History and Meaning in Religion. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Fleischer, A. (2000). The tourist behind the pilgrim in the Holy Land. Hospitality Management, (19), 311-326.

Gladstone, D. L. (2005). From pilgrimage to package tour: Travel and tourism in the third world. New York: Routledge.

Goodrich, J. N. (1993). Socialist Cuba: A Study of Health Tourism. Journal of Travel Research, 32 (1), 36 -41.

Haitao J. (2008). Tourism Field: A New Perspective for Research of Tourist Experience. Journal of Guilin Institute of Tourism, 19(03), 321-325

Haq, F. & J. Jackson (2009). Spiritual Journey to Hajj: Australian and Pakistani Experience and Expectations. Journal of Management, Spirituality and Religion, 6 (2), 143.

Heelas, P. (1996). The New Age Movement: The Celebration of the Self and the Sacralization of Modernity. Oxford: Blackwell.

Hyde F & Harman S. (2011). Motives for a secular pilgrimage to the Gallipoli battlefields. Tourism Management, (32), 1343-1351.

Jaakson, R. (2004). Beyond the tourist bubble? Annals of Tourism Research, 31 (1), 44-60.

James, W. (1982). The Varieties of Religious Experience, Temple of Earth Publishing. Jianhong W. & Jiangzhi L.(2009). The Generation Model of Tourist Experience. Social Science Journal, (3), 46-49.

John, U. (1990). The tourist gaze. London: Sage Publications.

Jordt, I. (2007). Burma's Mass Lay Meditation Movement: Buddhism and the Cultural Construction on Power. Athens: Ohio University Press.

Kasim, A. (2011). Balancing Tourism and Religious Experience: Understanding Devotees' Perspectives on Thaipusam in Batu Caves, Selangor, Malaysia. Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 20 (3-4), 441-456.

Liutikas, D. (2014). Lithuanian valuistic journeys: traditional and secular pilgrimage. Journal of Heritage Tourism, 9 (4), 299-316.

Lois-González C. & Santos X. (2014). Tourists and pilgrims on their way to Santiago. Motives, Caminos and final destinations. Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change, 13 (2), 149-164.

MacWilliams, M. (2002). Virtual pilgrimages on the internet. Religion, (32), 315-335.

Margry, J. P. (2008). Shrines and pilgrimage in the modern world: New itineraries into the sacred. Amsterdam: University of Amsterdam Press.

Morinis A. (1992). Sacred journeys: The anthropology of pilgrimage. Westport: Greenwood Publishing Group.

Morris, J. (2012). Secularization and religious experience: arguments in the historiography of modern British religion. The Historical Journal, 55 (1), 195-219.

Mu, Z. & H. Li(Eds.). (2007). Religious tourism and cultural pilgrimage: A Chinese perspective. Wallingford: CAB International.

Ning, W. (1999). Rethinking Authenticity in Tourism Experience. Annals of Tourism Research, 26 (2), 349-370.

Nolan, M. L. & S. Nolan (1992). Religious sites as tourism attractions in Europe. Annals of Tourism Research, 19 (1), 68-78.

Olsen H. (2010). Pilgrims, tourists and Max Weber's ideal types. Annals of Tourism Research, 37 (3), 848-851.

Pearce, P. L. (1982). The Social Psychology of Tourist Behavior. New York: Perga-mon.

Percy, M. (1998). The morphology of pilgrimage in the "Toronto Blessing" .Religion, (28), 281-288.

Poria, Y. & Butler R(Eds.). (2003). Tourism, Religion and Religiosity: A Holy Mess. Current Issues in Tourism, 6 (4), 340-363.

Qingming C & Honggang X (Eds.). (2014). Secular Pilgrimage: Tourist Experience in Tibet. Tourism Tribune, 29(2), 110-117.

Reader, I. & T. Walter (1993). Pilgrimage in Popular Culture. London: The Macmillan Press.

Rinschede (1992). Forms of Religious Tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 19 (92), 51-67.

Ryan, C. (1991). Recreational touism : a social science perspective. London, New York : Routledge.

Schedneck, B. (2012). Constructing Religious Modernities: Hybridity, Reinterpretation, and Adaptation in Thailand's International Meditation Centers. Tempe: Arizona State University, Doctor of Philosophy.

Sharpley, R. & P. Sundaram (2005). Tourism: a sacred journey? The case of ashram tourism, India. International Journal of Tourism Research, 7 (3), 161-171.

Shuo & Ryan C. (Eds.). (2009). Taoism, temples and tourists: The case of Mazu pilgrimage tourism. Tourism Management, 30 (4), 581-588.

Singh, S. (2005). Secular pilgrimages and sacred tourism in the Indian Himalayas. GeoJournal, 64 (3), 215-223.

Smith, M. (2015). Holistic Holidays: Tourism And The Reconciliation of Body, Mind and Spirit. Tourism Recreation Research, 28 (1), 103-108.

Smith, V. L. (1992). Introduction: The quest in guest. Annals of Tourism Research, 19 (1), 1- 17.

Sopher, E. (1967). Geography of Religions. London: Prentice Hall.

Tian, M & Yanjun X. (2015). Social Construction of Tourism Experience: An Analysis of Systematic Theory. Tourism Tribune, 30(8), 96-106.

Tilson J. (2005). Religious-Spiritual Tourism and Promotional Campaigning: A Church-State Partnership for St. James and Spain. Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 12 (1-2), 9-40.

Turnbull, C. (1981). Holy places and people of India. Natural History, 90 (9), 76-81. Turner (1973). The Center Out There: Pilgrim's Goal. History of Religion, 12 (3), 191-230. Turner W. & E. Bruner (1986). The Anthropology of Experience. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

Turner, W. & E. Turner (1969). The Ritual Process. London: Routledge.

Turner, W. & E. Turner (1978). Image and Pilgrimage in Christian Culture: Anthropological Perspectives. New York: Colombia University Press.

Unruh, D. (1980). The nature of social worlds. Pacific Sociological, (23), 271-296.

Urry, J. (2000). The Tourist Gaze : Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies. London: Sage Publications.

Veronica D. (2012). Setting and blurring boundaries: Pilgrims, tourists and landscape in Mount Athos and Meteora. Annals of Tourism Research, 39 (2), 951-974.

Vukoni, B. (1996). Tourism and Religion. London: Elsevier Science Ltd.

Yanjun X. (2005). Tourist Field: The Situational Model of Tourist Experience. Research on Financial and Economic Issues, (12), 64-69.

Forecasting Demand for Inbound Tourism Based on General-to-Specific Method: The Case of the Shanghai Inbound Tourist Market

LiuHe Jing
Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, PR China
Zhe Gao

Based on the statistics of the 5 major tourist source countries (Australia, France, Singapore, Korea and the Philippines), this paper employed Auto-regressive Distributed Lag Model (ADLM) with the General-to-Specific modeling method to analyze the main influencing factors of the demands of inbound tourism of Shanghai and generate a predictive value of tourists. Empirical studies show that the actual economic status of the resource country, the income of the tourists and the seasonality of tourism are the main contributing factors of the demands of inbound tourism; prices, word-of-mouth effect, public opinion dynamics, and uncontrollable factors have various impact on the demands of inbound tourism market to Shanghai. Through the elastic analysis on the tourist demands of the source market of the five countries, this paper offered suggestions and references to the making of policies and the strategies for development of Shanghai's tourist industry, and pointed out the prospects and defects of the research.

References

Gunduz, L., & Hatemi-J, A. (2005). Is the tourism-led growth hypothesis valid for Turkey? Applied Economics Letters, 12(8), 499-504.

Li, G., Song, H. Y., & Witt, S. F. (2005). Recent developments in econometric modeling and forecasting. Journal of Travel Research, 44(10), 82-99.

Ogawa, K., ., Sugamata, K., ., Funamoto, N., ., Abe, T., ., Sato, T., ., Nagashima, K., ., & Ohkawa, S., . (2010). Research note: Testing the tourism-led growth hypothesis for Singapore - an empirical investigation from bounds test to cointegration and Granger causality tests. Human Pathology, 16(16), 1095-1101.

Song, H., Wong, K. K. F., & Chon, K. K. S. (2003). Modelling and forecasting the demand for Hong Kong tourism. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 22(4), 435-451.

Witt, S. F., & Witt, C. A. (1995). Forecasting tourism demand: A review of empirical research. International Journal of Forecasting, 11(3), 447-475.

Han Meili.(1996). A Tentative Analysis of Enterprise Management Strategies Under the Elasticity of Different Tourism Demand, Journal of Beijing International Studies University(4), 52-58

Huang Heping. (2015). Identification of Seasonal Influence Factors of Inbound tourism in Shanghai and Development Strategies for Offseason. Resource Development and Market, 31(8), 1017-1020.

Huang Kai, & Lou Jiajun.(2007). Analysis of Inbound Tourist Market of Shanghai Based on the Preference Scale. Journal of Guilin Tourism University, 18(5), 678-681

Jin Yibo.(2011). An Empirical Study of Inbound Tourism in Shanghai Based on the Gravity Model. Journal of Leshan Normal University, 26(2), 82-84

Li Xiulan.(2000). Reflections on Demand-Income Elasticity. Journal of Socialist Thoery Guide(3), 64-65

Liao Qin, & He Yu. (2013). Analysis of Shanghai Inbound Tourism Market Structure Based on SSM Method. Journal of Tourism College of Zhejiang(2).

Liu Sifeng, & Deng Julong. (2000). The Scope of Application of Modeling. System Engineering Theory and Practice, 20(5), 121-124

Ouyang Runping, & Hu Xiaoqin.(2007). A Summary of Domestic and International tourism Demand. Journal of Nanjing University of Finance and Economics(3), 80-83.

Qi Lili, & Zheng Huanyou.(2011). The Development of Inbound Tourism in Shanghai and the Evolution of Its Policies and Measures. Journal of Chongqing University of Science and Technology: Social Science(6), 105-106.

Ren Lailing, & Liu Chaoming. (2006). A Comparative Analysis of Tourism Demand Forecasting Methods. World Sci-tech R & D,28(6), 84-88

Song Haiyan, Fei Baogang. A Study on Inbound Tourism Demand Forecasting in China: a Case Study of Specific General Method. China Tourism Study,3(1), 3-40

Su Qian. (2012). Analysis on Influencing Factors of South Korean Tourists to China. International Business and Trade(6), 28-29.

Sun Lan, Dong Xiaobo, Gao Congyan & Dong Yi.(2012). Quantitative Assessment of the Influence of Tourism Industry of World Expo -- a case study of the number of overseas tourists in Shanghai. Journarl of Huahai University of Technology: Natural Science, 21(3), 52-56

Tang Rui, & Feng Xuegang.(2014). Research on the Relationship Between the Development Potential of Inbound Tourism Market and Tourism Foreign Exchange Income in Shanghai -- Based on the grey forecasting and grey relational analysis. Resource Development and Market(12)

Tao Wei, & Li Biyin.(2005). Study on Outbound Recreation Demand for 20 Years -- the Academic Trend Reflected in Annals of Tourism Research. Tropical Geography, 25(2), 128-132

Wang Heng, & Tang Yu'e. (2001). Application of Price Elasticity of Demand in Tourism Economy. Journal of University of Foreign Studies(3), 1-6

Wang Chuanyang, & Huang Fucai. (2009). An Analysis and Forecast of Chinese Inbound Tourism Demand Influence Factors -- a case study of foreign tourists market. Business Economy and Management, 2009(9), 88-96

Wang Chunyan, & Huang Fucai. (2010). A Research on Inbound Tourism Demand Based on "General to Simple" Modeling Method. Statistical Research, 27(5), 87-95

Wang Zheng, Yuan Yujie, & Xiong Wen. (2010). Impact of Major Events on Inbound Tourism Demand in Shanghai -- an analysis based on ADL model. Tourism Tribune, 25(4), 44-49

Xu Jun, & Jia Tiefei.(2011), Research on the Spatial Temporal Distribution Pattern and Evolution of Inbound Tourism Market in Shanghai. Toursim Research, 03(3), 30-35

Yang Guoxi, & Yu Xueyuan.(2010). The Development of Inbound Tourism Market of World Expo in Shanghai Under the Financial Crisis. Tourism Forum(02), 220-224

Yu Yong.(2006). The Analysis and Application of the Theory of Price Elasticity of Tourism Demand. Technology and Market Monthly(10), 63-65

Zhang Chen.(2009). An Empirical Study on the Relationship Between Inbound Tourism and Economic Growth in Shanghai, Shanghai Journal of Economics (3), 87-91

Tao Wei, Ni Ming(2010). A Comparative Study of Tourism Demand Dorecasting in China and the West: Theoretical Basis and Model. Tourism Tribune 2010(8) 25:12-17

Song Haiyan, Fei Baogang(2007). Research on Chinese Inbound Tourism Demand Forecasting - A case study of General Specific. China Tourism Research. 2007, 3(1):3-40 Luo

Shouquan. Principles of Economics[M]. Beijing: Capital University of Economics and Business Press

Yuan Yuan, 2015 The Reasons Behind the Lack of Willingness to Visit China of the French. China Trade News 2015(008) 3/31

Investigation Report on Public Opinion on Tourism to China in Australia (2014) China Tourism News 2014(010) 11/14

Investigation Report on Public Opinion on Tourism to China in France (2015) China Tourism News 2015(101) 2/27

Investigation Report on Public Opinion and Communication Effect of Tourism to China in Korea China Tourism News 2014(014) 10/10

Investigation Report on Public Opinion on Tourism to China in Singapore China Tourism News 2014(101) 12/19

The official website of Shanghai Municipal Tourism Administration: http://lyw.sh.gov.cn The official Website of China Tourism：http://www.ctaweb.org/

Sports Leisure: The Important Element for the Improvement of Coastal Tourism In Zhuhai

Wang Jingwen
Jinan University, Guangzhou, Guangdong, China
Liang Mingzhu
Jinan University, Guangzhou, Guangdong, China

Coastal tourism, the fastest growing area of contemporary tourism, whose concept is the comprehensive travel and recreational activities that take place at the seashore and offshore water. According to United States National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, in 1997, "In all activities occurred at the seashore and offshore water, no one can surpass coastal leisure tourism activities in the growth of number and diversity." With the coming of leisure times, sports leisure becomes an important part of life style. Integrating the elements of sports leisure into the development of coastal tourism can enrich its activity contents and make it diversity and attractive.

Zhuhai is a prefecture-level city on the southern coast of Guangdong province in China. Located in the Pearl River Delta, Zhuhai borders the Macau Special Administrative Region (north and west), and 140 kilometers (87 miles) southwest of Guangzhou. Its territory includes 146 islands and a coastline of 690 kilometers (429 miles). Therefore, water is the most important natural landscape element of Zhuhai, which is also one of China's premier tourist destinations, being called the Chinese Riviera.

According to the literatures, the original development of coastal tourism has kept the pace of leisure travel development. Today, the mass tourism has developed in all kinds of forms, coastal tourism is still the main choice for many tourists. Coastal sports leisure tourism refers that it can meet the need of human motions, at the same time, it can also meet other needs of tourists, which is, entertainment, recreation, holiday and health care. Through the sports activities, tourists can be engaged in a variety of activities including entertainment, body exercise, sports competitions, sports rehabilitation and sports cultural communications, which can generate the comprehensive utility values because of its flexible selective and diverse content. Therefore, sports leisure can improve the development of coastal tourism.

This study analyses the present developing situation of Zhuhai coastal tourism by literature review, depth interviews, participant observation, and questionnaire survey. Firstly, interview the leader or manger of Sports Department, Tourism Department and Civil Organizations, to understand the situations and effects of sports leisure activities related to coastal tourism. It finds that some local activities, such as Coastal Hiking, Island Cycling, not only attract the residents, but also the tourists, which formed a join force to tourism development of Zhuhai and meet the leisure demand of residents through the interactions between the residents and tourists. According to the interview from residents of Zhuhai, most of them are keen to daily exercise with strong local characteristics, such as sea fishing, hiking, cycling, which reflects the fitness recreation activities of local people is an adaptation of local natural resources.

Due to different views of a resource from each individual and group, it is necessary to understand the users' cognitive differences to the developed coastal resorts and the environment, to avoid the conflicts of resource usage that can't satisfy the user's needs and expectations. Therefore, based on the previous interview and combined with the AP's "Tourism Impact Scale", design the questionnaire, to get a knowledge of residents' perception of coastal tourism development and the attitude (support and satisfaction) of sports leisure

activities development. Using the method of snowball sampling, the respondents is mainly targeted to the people who join the sports leisure activities frequently. After statistical analysis of data, using factor analysing, this study extracted 4 dimensions of perceptions: participation perception, environment perception, culture perception, social participation. Then, analyse the degree of correlation between perceptive factors and attitudes (support and satisfaction) of residents by using regression analysis. Finally, using Social Exchange Theory, explain the results. According to Social Exchange Theory, Social behaviour is the product of exchange process, and the purpose of exchange is to minimize the cost and maximize the benefit. Based on this theory, weigh the pros and cons, and propose the suggestions of management and development in the future.

According to the research, residents have a positive perception to Zhuhai coastal tourism development in general, and have a higher degree of satisfaction and support to the sports leisure activities development. The main factor decreasing customer satisfaction is homogeneity of coastal tourism product. Among the 4 perceptive dimensions, the negative effect of social dimension is most obvious, specifically shown in the imperfection of travel public service and travel reception service facilities, weak traffic accessibility, insufficiently usage of sports venue (aviation exhibition halls, sports venues are excessively idle); In the aspect of participation perception, most obviously, there are more high-end sports leisure activities, such as golf and yacht, which is not suitable for mass participation. In the aspect of environment perception, some people would like to carry out activities on island instead of around the water near the shore because of trash problem affected by the earth's rotation (Zhuhai located in the southern Pearl River Delta). In the aspect of culture perception, the main negative perception is that existing activities can't fully display the city characteristics of Zhuhai.

Therefore, in the future development of Zhuhai coastal tourism, the government should increase the financial investment to the construction of public service facilities and strengthens supervision of constructions. Besides, considering the demand of the masses to create collaborative leisure activities, involving both residents and visitors. The higher Marine sports enthusiasm and Marine sports awareness of Zhuhai residents will attract the arrival of the tourist, and enrich the local people's leisure life at the same time. What's more, due to the risk of sports, it is necessary to make clear laws and rules, clarify and specify the responsibility, to avoid troubles when civil organization carry on activities.

References

Honey M, Krantz D. Global trends in coastal tourism [J]. Washington DC: Center
        on Ecotourism and Sustainable
Development, 2007.
Hall C M, Page S J. The Geography of Tourism and Recreation: Environment, Place, and
        Space (3rd ed.)[M]. London;
Abingdon, Oxon; New York, NY: Routledge, 2006.292.
Pearce D G., Kirk D. Carrying capacities for coastal tourism[J].Industry and
        Environment, 1986, 9(1):3-6.
Shaw G, Williams A. Critical Issues in Tourism: a Geographical Perspective (2nded.) [M].
         Oxford: Blackwell Publishers, 2002.

Role of Tourism in Increasing of Price of Land and Housing in Iran: Case Study of Shahmirzad City

Hamidreza Joudaki
Islamic Azad University, Islamshahr branch, Tehran, Iran

Tourism industry is considered as the greatest and most various industry in the world. Most of these countries know this dynamic industry as main source of income, occupation, growth of private sector and development of infrastructure.

One of the old methods of investment in countries such as Iran have transitional economy, is buying land and house, sometimes is resulted to high profit and of course for this reason hustler's are very interested in this background. Nowadays buying and selling land in the areas with pleasant climate in our country is considered.

Since, Shahmirzad is a city with fair and desired environmental attractions is located in the border of deserted cities, mainly has special climatic position and these conditions are resulted to attraction of passenger, tourist for passing their leisure hours from Semnan and other cities of the area and from other provinces in hot seasons and with regard to these suitable conditions in the city buying land and housing also have been considered by most of residents of Semnan and cities around Shahmirzad by now.

The aim of present research is investigation the role of tourism in increasing price of land and housing in Shahmirzad city. By studying on price of land and housing especially in central area, that gardens of the city are located in this area, we have concluded that role of tourism have caused in price of land and housing specially these prices in central and old areas are more expensive than towns around the city.

References

Beik Mohammadi, Hossein, (2000): New looking on Tourism development economic effects by looking at Iran/Political and economic information magazine/No. 157-158.

Davies b. Richard and ofarrel, Patrick N, (1981),/A spatial and temporal Analysis of second homes ownership in west wales. Geoforum, Vol 12.

Dieter K. Muler (2002), /Second home ownership and sustainable Development. Hamkaran Consultant Engineers (2006):/Feasibility Plan of Shahmirzad city eroded areas. Irangardi and Jahangardi Organization, (2002):/National plan of tourism development/ Irangardi and Jahangardi Organization.

Mozhda Consultant Engineers(2006):/Scale design-Shahmirzad City Tourism/ Volume 3.

Mozhda Consultant Engineers (2006):/Scale design-Shahmirzad City Tourism/ Volume 2.

Papli Yazdi, Saghaei, Mohammad Hossein and Mehdi, (2006): /Tourism (nature and conceptions)/ Samt Publication

Rezvani, mohammadreza, (2003):/ Investigation of trend of establishment and expanding second house in rural areas of north of Tehran/Geographical Researches/No. 45

Rezvani, Safaei, Mohammadreza, Javad, (2005):/ Second house tourism and its effects on rural areas; opportunities and threats/ Geographical Researches/No. 54

Sobouti, Hojja, (2008):/Investigation of effective factors in tourism development/Toursim site

William, A.M. and Hall, C.M (2000), Tourism and migration: New relationships between production and consumption, Tourism Geographies.

The Measuring of Eco-efficiency of Tourism and Its Comparative Research: A Case Study of Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan

Liu Jun

Hubei University, Wuhan, Hubei Province, PR China

The data from WTTC shows the tourism industry has made an important contribution to the world economy in 2014, and the value is up to 2.36 trillion, accounted for 3.1% of the GDP. It is predicted that such rate will continue to increase. As for mainland China, the value-added of the tourism industry accounted for 4% of the GDP, and its contribution to hotel industry, rail transport industry and airline industry was over 80%, consequently, employment of related industry increased by 80 million. From all the above we can see that tourism is becoming one of the important industries of the region's economic development, however the environmental impact brought by that can't be ignored at the same time. Tourism industry is always considered to be low energy consumption and no pollution industry, in fact, transportation, accommodation, recreation, and beverage can all produce carbon emission. And the biggest contributor of carbon emission is tourism transportation. Well, is it essential for the tourism destination to take the rigid emission reduction measures? Obviously, the rigid emission reduction measures will limit the development of tourism destination. Based on the perspective of tourism sustainable and the tourism growth, this study introduces the eco- efficiency to evaluate the relationship between the sustainability and the economic growth.

The study firstly reviews the related literature of eco-efficiency and eco-efficiency of tourism, found that there's a blank in the research of the eco-efficiency of tourism thus this becomes an innovation of the study. By reviewing the literature, we found that there is not enough literature in measuring methods, results analyzing and measuring situations about the eco- efficiency of tourism. Based on these above, the study constructs the measuring methods system of the tourism eco-efficiency. And then it introduces the DEA, SFA and the ratio method. Secondly, the study estimates the carbon emissions and energy consumption of tourism of Hongkong, Macau and Taiwan with the method of "bottom to up". We find that the tourism transportation contributes more than 95% to the total carbon emissions of tourism taking the outbound carbon emissions of transportation to the consideration. However, the transportation carbon emission of the Hongkong and Macau will decrease much and Taiwan`s carbon emissions remain much if not taking the outbound carbon emissions. Based on the carbon emissions data, the study measures the eco-efficiency of tourism of Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan with the method of DEA, SFA and ratio. The results which come from the DEA and SFA is not comparative because of the different indices, but the results from the ratio is comparative. So from the comparative perspective, the study adjusts the indices and measures the eco-efficiency of tourism of Hongkong, Macau and Taiwan again. The results show the eco-efficiency of tourism is very different in different situations. In the end, the study comes up with a hypothesis, is there any relationship between tourism revenues per person and the eco-efficiency of tourism based on the consideration of Kuznets curve and the IPAT model. And then the study tests the hypothesis with the independent variables are population of tourists, tourism revenues per person and the technology of tourism and the dependent variable is eco-efficiency of tourism. The results of regression analysis shows different depend on the situations.

Based on the above, the study has the following conclusions: firstly, the carbon emissions of the transportation take the most proportion, and the second is accommodation, the recreation carbon emissions take the least proportion. Secondly, the eco-efficiency of tourism shows differently in different situations. Taking much into considerations, the Macau`s eco-

efficiency is better than the Hongkong`s, and the Hongkong`s is better than the Taiwan`s from the ration method. And the transportation eco-efficiency of Hongkong is better than Macau and Taiwan, but the accommodation of Taiwan is better than Hongkong and Macau from the departments view. If we doesn`t take the outbound carbon emissions into consideration, the eco-efficiency of Hongkong and Macau is sustainable, but Taiwan is unsustainable. And if we take the outbound carbon emissions into consideration, the results are worse; Hongkong, Macau and Taiwan are all unsustainable. Thirdly, the results of eco-efficiency of are all nearly to the frontier with the method of DEA. Though there are differences in different situations. Taking much into consideration, the Macau`s eco-efficiency is better than the Hongkong`s, and the Hongkong`s is better than the Taiwan`s. And the improvements of the eco-efficiency only have relation with the advances in technology. Fourthly, the results of the eco-efficiency show little differences in different situations from the respective measurement with the method of SFA. But from the comparative perspective, the eco-efficiency of Macau is better than Hongkong`s, and the Hongkong`s is better than Taiwan`s taking the gambling into the consideration. On the contrary, the Hongkong`s is better than Macau`s. Fifthly, there is a strong relation between tourism revenues per person and the eco-efficiency of tourism. It shows a U-curve if the dependent variable is the results of SFA. It shows an inverted U-curve if the dependent variable is the results of the ratio method taking the outbound carbon emissions into considerations. Or it shows a U-curve, the same with the method of SFA.

In the end, the study comes up with the policy suggestions and enlightenments. We should decrease the carbon emissions from the need side of tourists, the supply side of transportation and accommodation, and the technology of tourism. Then, we improve the eco-efficiency of tourism taking the relationship between economic growth of tourism and the quality of the environment into considerations.

References

Bai Shixiu.(2011).Evaluation on the Eco-efficiency to Heilongjiang Areas. Harbin:Northeast Forestry University

Becken Susanne,Simmons David-G,Frampton Chris. (2003).Energy use associated with different travel choices. Tourism Management, 24(3): 267-277

Becken Susanne, Patterson Murray. (2006). Measuring National Carbon Dioxide Emissions from Tourism as a Key Step towards Achieving Sustainable Tourism. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 14(4): 323-338.

Braungarta Michael, Mcdonoughb William, Bollinger Andrew.(2007). Cradle-to-cradle design: creating healthy emissions – a strategy for eco-effective product and system design. Journal of Cleaner Production, 15(13): 1337-1348.

Bruijn Kim-de,Dirven Rob,Eijgelaar Eke,etal.(2013). Travelling large in 2011. The carbon footprint of Dutch holidaymakers in 2011 and the development since 2002. Breda, Netherlands: NHTV Breda University of Applied Sciences.

Cadarso María-Ángeles, Gómez Nuria, López Luis-Antonio.(2015).Quantifying Spanish tourism's carbon footprint: the contributions of residents and visitors: a longitudinal study. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 23(6): 922-946.

Chen Qi.(2014) .Eco-efficiency and Sustainable Development of Enterprises-An Analysis Based on the Sustainable Development Report of BAO STEEL from the Year of 2006 to 2011.East China Economic Management ,28(3):39-44.

Coˆteˊ Raymond, Booth Aaron, Louis Bertha.(2006). Eco-efficiency and SMEs in Nova Scotia, Canada. Journal of Cleaner Production, (14): 542-550.

Efthymios G. Tsionas, A. George Assaf.(2014). Short-run and long-run performance of international tourism:Evidence from Bayesian dynamic models. Tourism Management, 42(4): 22-36.

Jones Calvin, Munday Max.(2007). Exploring the Environmental Consequences of Tourism: A Satellite Account Approach. Journal of Travel Research, 46(2): 164-172.

Kelly Joe,Haider Wolfgang,Williams Peter-W.,etal. Stated preferences of tourists for eco-efficient destination planning options. Tourism Management, 28(2): 337-390.

Kytziaa Susanne,Walzb Ariane,Wegmanna Mattia.(2011). How can tourism use land more efficiently? A model-based approach to land-use efficiency for tourist destinations. Tourism Management, 32(3): 629-640.

Li Peng, Yang Guihua, Zheng Biao.(2008).GHG emission-based eco-efficiency study on tourism itinerary products in Shangri-La, Yunnan Province, China. Acta Ecologica Sinica, 28(5): 2207-2219.

Liu Yi.(2008). Route Selection for Regional Sustainable Development from Perspective of Ecological Efficiency. Reform, (1): 97-102.

M. Melanen, J. Seppälä, T. Myllymaa, et al.(2004). Measuring regional eco-efficiency-case Kymenlaakso: Key results of the ECOREG project.The Finnish Environment Institute, Helsinki, 2004.

Mickwitz Per, Melanen Matti, Rosenstrom Ulla. Regional eco-efficiency indicators - a participatory approach. Journal of Cleaner Production, 14(18):1603-1611.

Patterson Murray, Mcdonald Garry. (2004). Landcare Research Science. Lincoln, Canterbury, New Zealand: Manaaki Whenua Press.

Perch-Nielsena Sabine, Sesarticb Ana, Stuckic Matthias.(2010). The greenhouse gas intensity of the tourism sector: The case of Switzerland. Environmental Science & Policy, 13(2): 131-140.

Reilly Jennifer,Williams Peter,Haider Wolfgang.(2010). Moving towards more eco-efficient tourist transportation to a resort destination: The case of Whistler, British Columbia. Research in Transportation Economics, 26(1): 66-73.

S Gössling,P Peeters,P Ceron-J, etal.(2005) The Eco-efficiency of Tourism. Ecological Economics, 54(4): 417-434.

Wang Liangjian.(2001).On the Indicator System of Sustainable Development of Tourism and the Evaluating Method. Tourism Tribune, 16(1), 67-70.

WBCSD. (2000). Eco-efficiency：creating more value with less impact. Geneva:WBCSD

WBCSD.(1996).Eco-efficiency: Leadership for improved economic and environmental performance. Geneva: WBCSD.

Xiao Jianhong, Yu Aifen, Wang Min.(2011).Carbon Footprint Evaluation in Tours: A Case Study of Zhoushan Islands.Tourism Science, 25(4),58-66.

Using ICTs to Promote Destination: The Case of Macau

Cynthia Chan Ka I
Institute for Tourism Studies, Macau, PR China
Shanshan Qi
Institute for Tourism Studies, Macau, PR China
Rachel Luna Peralta
Institute for Tourism Studies, Macau, PR China

Background Introduction

Tourism is a complicated and comprehensive industry, thus it provides intangible product for consumer whilst it relies on linkage different kinds of industry to support like food and beverage, accommodation, transportation and entertainment, among others. It gets through distinct information to operate the entire tourism industry. Hence, the channel or tool to disperse that kind of information is an importance crucial. A growing the Information Communications Technologies (ICTs) bring out a huge impact with worldwide especially in tourism industry, this technologies significant change the behaviours of tourist consumer, and provide opportunity for supplier efficiency to planning, managing, promoting and marketing.

Since 1980s, Porter has noticed that ICTs have altered the tourism in to worldwide, at the same time; the business operation and tactics also the industry construction have changed with this trend (Buhalis and Law, 2008).ICTs is a wide terminology that covers diversified communication technologies specifically included "Internet", "Wireless (WiFi and WiMAN)", "GPS", "GIS", "Convergence (data, voice, media)", and "Digital radio" (Shanker et al, 2008). This technology was being an essential relationship with entire tourism system, creating a new opportunity for stakeholders. Also, it goes into a digital environment for marketplace to enhance the rivalry of tourism organization and destination. For tourism destination organization, this enhances the competitiveness of the destination. Furthermore, ICTs offering new platform to promoting destination and contribute with different channels.

The Tourism Industry in Macau is the lifeblood of the Macau economy. Simultaneously, the relationship with tourism and gaming industry is inseparable. Gaming Inspection and Coordination Bureau Macao SAR (DICJ) (n.d) stated that in 2009, more than 70 per cent of the Macau Government total fiscal revenue generated from the gaming tax (para.1). So Macau is well known as "Monte Carlo of the Orient" and "Las Vegas of the East". Furthermore, Macau has an advantageous located at the western bank of Pearl River Delta nearby Hong Kong. Macau has different unique historical and cultural landscape. In 2005 the Historic Centre of Macau was inscribed on the UNESCO World Heritage List. Macau Government Tourism Office (MGTO) as official tourism office that is a main source of travel information provider including promotion, marketing and positioning the destination. Furthermore, in recent year, MGTO actively promote international city image with multilateral face contain historical heritage, culture and so on. Thereby, the role of MGTO is significance for destination, via the big trend to communicate and build relationship to interact with those consumers with the Internet, social media and mobile application.

The purpose for this study is to analyze how ICT is used in the tourism industry to promote destination; thus, focusing the case study on the Macau Government Tourism Office utilizing the marketing channels like mobile applications and the website as tools which influence to the local destination branding and marketing. The major reason why MGTO is selected for research target is that tourism offices are primary sources of travel information. The duties of tourism offices contain "positioning destination image", "promoting" and "marketing the

destination" via various channels (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2009 as cited in Tang, Scherer & Morrison, 2011). Hence, the role of MGTO is significant for destination. Moreover, the impact of these tools can bring benefits to MGTO. In addition, Macau is an international tourism city, promoting, and building the good reputation, creating a unique destination image and those kinds of tasks are imperative. With the Internet being a widespread communication tools, MGTO follows this trend using mobile applications, the website and other popular communicate channel to attractive more visitors.

Macau tourism industry is closely relevant to local residents, thus tourism industry create lot of work opportunities for Macau people. Thereby, to utilizing ICTs as a strategic tool improving promotions of local culture. Likewise, benefit for the destination of Macau enhances reputation, as well it may affect local resident to support culture and creation industry; also people may more concern with sustainable development of tourism and people's livelihood. Furthermore, people will become more proud of their place if this is further developed, encouraging them to sustain their loyalty for live, as well more loyalty for local business. In addition, tourists may also benefit from this study because they will have a more convenient access to information involving the heritage, history, and culture of Macao. Through this, more visitors are expected to visit Macao because they will find that Macao has a diverse image. Thereby, this paper will focus on how technologies through mobile applications and MGTO website, also other commination channels help promote Macau as a destination.

There have a few researches relate to the different marketing tools relationship, application and impact in the destination. In order to find out more those communication channels can influence tourism industry development and promoting the destination. Principally in this paper has used qualitative content analysis and this research method majority subjective explanation a real event or data of document to identifying themes or patterns.

Research findings
This study lists the link among different channels including the official website, Facebook, YouTube, mobile apps, Wechat and Weibo which are currently using on promoting Macau (Figure 1). This study makes contribution to understand the diverse channel influence into the destination promotion focusing the case study of Macau and to establish a model that can be adopted by different destination. Figure 1 show the model of destination promotion in MGTO, discussion and sum up interactive relationship among these channels is also provided.
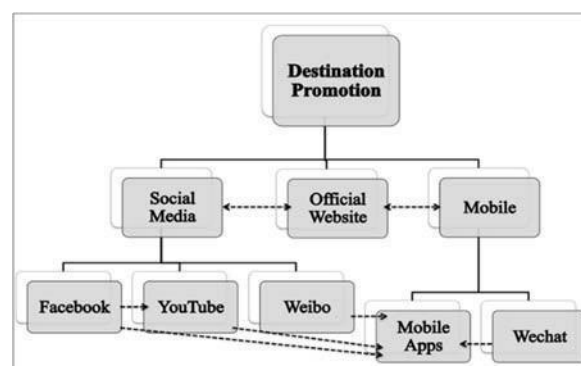

Figure 1- The Model of Destination Promotion in MGTO

References

Buhalis, D., & Law, R. (2008). Progress in information technology and tourism management: 20 years on and 10 years after the Internet—The state of eTourism research. Tourism management, 29(4), 609-623.

Tang, L., Scherer, R., & Morrison, A. M. (2011). Web Site–Based Destination Images: A Comparison of Macau and Hong Kong: 基于网页的目的地形象—澳门与香港之 比较. Journal of China Tourism Research, 7(1), 2-19.

Shanker, D. (2008, May). ICT and Tourism: challenges and opportunities. InConference on Tourism in India–Challenges Ahead (Vol. 15, p. 17).