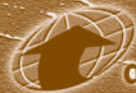


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Aims & Scope

Tourism Today serves as an international, scholarly, refereed journal aiming to promote and enhance research in the fields of tourism and hospitality. The journal is published by the College of Tourism and Hotel Management, Cyprus and is intended for readers in the scholarly community who deal with the tourism and hospitality industries, as well as professionals in the industry. *Tourism Today* provides a platform for debate and dissemination of research findings, new research areas and techniques, conceptual developments, and articles with practical application to any tourism or hospitality industry segment. Besides research papers, the journal welcomes book reviews, conference reports, case studies, research notes and commentaries.

Aims & Scope

The scope of the journal is international and all papers submitted are subject to strict double blind peer review by its Editorial Board and by international reviewers. The journal features conceptual and empirical papers, and editorial policy is to invite the submission of manuscripts from academics, researchers and industry practitioners. The Editorial Board will be looking particularly for articles about new trends and developments within the field of tourism and hospitality, and the application of new ideas and developments that are likely to affect tourism and hospitality in the future. The journal also welcomes submission of manuscripts in areas that may not be directly tourism-based but cover a topic that is of interest to researchers, educators and practitioners in the fields of tourism and hospitality.

Decisions regarding publication of submitted manuscripts are based on the recommendations of members of the Editorial Board and other qualified reviewers in an anonymous review process. Submitted articles are evaluated on their appropriateness, significance, clarity of presentation and conceptual adequacy. Negative reviews are made available to authors. The views expressed in the articles are those of the authors, and do not necessarily represent those of the Editorial Board of *Tourism Today* or of the College of Tourism and Hotel Management.

CONTENTS

Editorial board	2
Aims and scope	3
Note from the editor	6

Full Papers

A study of 'success' at England's most visited tourist attractions <i>Peter Dewhurst, Helen Dewhurst</i>	7 - 22
A review and profile of managerial burnout in the hospitality industry of Cyprus <i>Anastasios Zopiatis, Panikkos Constanti</i>	23 - 35
Exploring a relationship between quality of life, enjoyment of cultural tourism and demography <i>Sotiris H. Avgoustis, Amanda K. Cecil, Yao-yi Fu, Suosheng Wang</i>	36 - 55
Highest tertiary tourism education in the island of Crete: Curriculum reformation, perspectives and conflicts <i>Nikolaos Pappas</i>	56 - 67
Participants' profile and quality of service experience in skiing centres in Greece <i>Drakou Amalia, Tzetzis George, Glinia Eleni</i>	68 - 78
Tourism pattern in Uttaranchal: cure for seasonality syndrome <i>Saurabh Kumar Dixit</i>	79 - 90
Perceived service quality measurement in tourism higher education: Case study of Croatia <i>Suzana Marković</i>	91 - 109
The spanish youth market to Australia: An exploratory study of market needs <i>Sebastian Filep, Ian Mcdonnell</i>	110 - 125
A customer's expectation and perception of hotel service quality in Cyprus <i>Christou Loizos, Hadjiphanis Lycourgos</i>	126 - 141

- Choosing a cruise destination, and the level of passengers' satisfaction,
their needs and expectations: the Cyprus case
Petros Lois, Jin Wang 142 - 152

CASE STUDIES/RESEARCH NOTES

- Guest presentations via videoconference: an alternative to face to
face guest lectures in tourism studies
Michael Lück, Michael Laurence 153 - 161

CONFERENCE REPORTS/BOOK REVIEWS

- Managing global trends and challenges in a turbulent economy
Marianna Sigala, Vassilis Aggelis 162 - 164
- Tourism and recreation in the process of European integration
Craig Webster 165 - 167

CALL FOR PAPERS/ANNOUNCEMENTS

- Crete Conference
International conference of trends, impacts and policies on tourism
development 168 - 169
- Košice Conference
5th international geotour 2006 conference 170
- Contributors Information 171 - 174
- Notes for contributors 175 - 176

NOTE FROM THE EDITOR

Welcome to the fifth edition of *Tourism Today*, the journal of the College of Tourism and Hotel Management. One of the major improvements made to the journal is the way in which we disseminate it. Now, people throughout the world may receive the entire journal for free by accessing the PDF file that is available on the College of Tourism's website. Readers should see this as a benefit since the journal is available free of charge and available on demand.

In this edition, there is an impressive variety of articles showing an array of methods as well as an array of topics. What is notable is that there are three articles that deal directly with tourism and education. Suzana Marković, in her article on tourism higher education and Nicholas Pappas in his article on tourism education in Crete, deals with central issues in the business of education and the preparation of professionals for the tourism industry. Michael Lück deals with questions pertaining to the use of videoconferencing as an alternative to face-to-face guest lecturing. However, there are many other articles that should appeal to readers because of the geographical region under study or the more theoretical notions under investigation. For example, Anastasios Zopiatis and Panikkos Constanti, in their article on managerial burnout in the hospitality industry in Cyprus should be of interest to those who are interested in the hospitality industry in Cyprus or the question of managerial burnout in general. In a similar manner, Saurabh Kumar Dixit's article on a tourism patterns in Uttaranchal may be of interest to those with an interest in India or those who are interested in overcoming the seasonality problem in a general sense.

Tourism Today continues to improve but this improvement is dependent upon you, the readers, to supply it with quality submission. We encourage our readers to send their submissions to us. As always, any constructive comments that could help us improve the journal would be appreciated.

We wish you a good reading.

Craig Webster
College of Tourism and Hotel Management

A Study of 'Success' at England's Most Visited Tourist Attractions

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ABSTRACT

It is widely recognised that visitor attractions have a crucial role to play in the development and success of tourism destinations. However, UK visitor attractions are presently confronted by a growing variety and scale of challenges and there is no agreement as to how attraction managers might most effectively respond. This paper reports the preliminary findings of the second phase of a longitudinal study that sought to explore the management goals and associated strategies for success of England's most visited tourist attractions. It is envisaged that the findings of the research investigation will not only be of value to the managers of attractions who are seeking to emulate the success of the most visited English attractions, but they should also assist in developing a better understanding of how attractions are changing to meet the challenges that confront them.

INTRODUCTION: THE IMPORTANCE OF ATTRACTIONS

It is widely recognised that visitor attractions have a crucial role to play in the development and success of tourism destinations (Leslie, 2001; Swarbrooke, 2002; Leask, 2003). As Page et al (2001:117) note, "for the majority of tourists, the attractions at a destination are the reason for visiting". Furthermore, market research indicates that UK consumers remain enthusiastic about visiting attractions (Intel, 2002a). Given this widespread recognition of the role and value of attractions, it is noteworthy that this sector of the tourism industry remains under-researched and relatively poorly understood (Swarbrooke, 2002; Benckendorf and Pearce, 2003; Fyall, Leask and Garrod, 2002; Prideaux, 2003). A review of the limited range of research that does exist, reveals an emphasis on defining and classifying the sector, together with a focus on understanding visitor characteristics and management (Benckendorf and Pearce, 2003). It is also possible to identify an emerging focus on the management styles and practices of attraction managers (Braun and Soskin, 1998; Dimmock, 1999; Henderson, 1999; Benckendorf and Pearce, 2003). Research in this area is often characterised by a desire to understand the nature of visitor attraction management from the perspective of practising managers. This paper adopts a similar focus in that it reports some of the preliminary findings of a study that sought to understand the perceptions of attraction managers and especially their perceptions of success. Other authors have called for more work of this kind to help

develop an understanding of how attraction managers make decisions (Henderson, 1999). It is also hoped that the findings will provide an insight that may be useful to practising attraction managers and others with an interest in the future of this sector.

DEFINITION AND CHALLENGES

The most commonly cited definition of a visitor attraction is that used as the basis for the annual "Sightseeing in the UK" publication, produced until recently by the English Tourism Council (ETC). This states that a visitor attraction is:

A permanently established excursion destination, a primary purpose of which is to allow public access for entertainment, interest or education; rather than being primarily a retail outlet or a venue for sporting, theatrical or film performances. It must be open to the public without prior booking, for published periods each year, and should be capable of attracting day visitors or tourists as well as local residents. In addition, the attraction must be a single business, under a single management ... and must be receiving revenue directly from the visitors (ETC, 2001:8).

This definition has been criticised as restricted and outdated (Stevens, 2000) and amendments have been recommended (ETC, 2000) but it has yet to be replaced for the purposes of industry monitoring. It is used in this instance as the attractions surveyed for this study were selected from those listed in "Sightseeing in the UK 2000" (ETC 2001). The value of this definition is its ability to incorporate a wide range of attraction products, from museums and zoos through to theme parks. It is estimated by the ETC (2001) that there were 6,285 such attractions in the UK in 2000. The majority of these were small businesses (Monteith, 2001) but other than this common feature, the sector is characterised by its diversity in terms of ownership, product offering, location and operation.

Inevitably, the size and diverse nature of the sector makes it both complex and fascinating. It is also difficult and possibly inappropriate to make many generalisations about the sector. However, it is clear that the range and scale of the challenges facing the majority of contemporary UK visitor attractions appear to be intensifying and may threaten the survival of many (Stevens, 2000). It is also possible to identify some common aspects to these challenges, including rapidly shifting patterns of demand, the pressures of a highly competitive and ever more commercially orientated marketplace and the need to align multiple stakeholder interests with management priorities.

Shifting Patterns of Demand

Most commentators agree that a combination of structural changes in the population, rising consumer expectations and changing leisure patterns are the key factors behind a general slowing and shifting of the demand for UK attractions in a mature market (ETC, 2000; Mintel, 2002b, Fyall, 2003). The ETC (2000) has noted that although the overall number of visits to attractions in England grew by 14% between 1989 and 1999, this was less than the 23% growth recorded in the previous 10 years. In addition, Mintel (2002b) stated that

the size of the market increased by just 2% (by volume) between 1999 and 2000. Furthermore, demand for attractions is not evenly spread, with estimates suggesting that around 60% of all attractions receive less than 6% of all visitors, while the top 7% of attractions receive around 60% of total visits (Mintel, 2002a).

Ever Increasing Competition

An increasing emphasis on leisure activities and a growth in Personal Disposable Income (PDI) has persuaded many individuals and organizations to move into the attractions sector. Within the UK the Government has also contributed to an “explosion in the number of visitor attractions” (Mintel, 2002c), especially in the period up to the millennium celebrations of 2000, by directing income secured from the National Lottery into new attraction development schemes (see Table 1 for a UK-wide listing of such schemes). It has been reported that as many as 47% of all UK visitor attractions have opened since 1980 and 21% since 1990 (Key Note, 2001). Further evidence of this rapid growth in the number of attractions is provided by Mintel, which found that seventy-eight new attractions opened in the UK in 2000 (Mintel, 2002a).

Table 1: Funding of major new attractions by the Millennium Commission

Region	Total Awards (£m)	No. projects	Biggest Award (£m)	Attraction
Scotland	193	19	35	Glasgow Science Centre
N Ireland	78	17	45	Odyssey
N East	65	9	31	Centre for Life
N West	93	19	16	The Lowry
Yorks & Humberside	157	17	40	Earth Centre
E Midlands	47	11	26	Science Centre
S West	109	8	44	@Bristol
S East	95	25	38	Portsmouth Harbour
Gtr London	148	15	50	Tate Modern

Source: ETC (2001) in Mintel (2002a)

This increase in the number of visitor attractions, which as a consequence of the UK Government’s interventions has not been entirely demand driven, has led to a growth in competition for customers at a time when the market has been faced by an increasing variety of leisure products. Attraction operators have therefore experienced increased within sector competition for a shrinking customer base, a situation that has been exacerbated by a reduction in the cost of overseas travel. This has resulted in the competition for customers being extended across international frontiers, especially in regions such as Europe where barriers to international travel have also been reduced (Market Assessment International, 2000). The present position is therefore one of expanding provision and largely stagnating or falling demand. In such circumstances there are bound to be winners and losers and within

the UK it is estimated that around 60% of all attractions receive less than 6% of all visitors, whilst the top 7% of attractions receive around 60% of total visits (Mintel, 2002a). Examples of the mixed fortunes of even the most popular attractions are provided in Table 2 and 3, which identify the UK's most visited paid admission and free admission attractions.

Table 2: Top ten most visited paid admission attractions in the UK, 1999-2000

Attraction	Location	Visits 2000 000	Visits 1999 000	% change 1999-2000
Millennium Dome	London	6,516	Na	Na
British Airways London Eye	London	3,300	Na	Na
Alton Towers	Alton	2,540	2,265	+12.1
Madam Tussaud's	London	2,388	2,640	-9.5
Tower of London	London	2,303	2,429	-5.2
Natural History Museum	London	1,577	1,697	-7.1
Chessington World of Adventures	Chessington	1,500	1,550	-3.2
Legoland Windsor	Windsor	1,490	1,620	-8.0
Victoria & Albert Museum	London	1,344	1,251	+7.4
Science Museum	London	1,337	1,483	-9.8

Source: ETC (2001) in Mintel (2002a)

Table 3: The ten most visited free admission attractions in the UK, 1999-2000

Attraction	Location	Visits 2000 000	Visits 1999 000	% change 1999-2000
Blackpool Pleasure Beach	Blackpool	6,800	7,100	-4.2
British Museum	London	5,466	5,461	+0.1
National Gallery	London	4,898	4,95	-1.4
Tate Modern	London	3,874	Na	Na
Pleasureland Theme Park	Southport	2,600	2,500	+4.0
Adventure Island	Southend-on-Sea	2,500	2,000	+25.0
York Minster	York	1,750	1,900	-7.9
Pleasure Beach	Great Yarmouth	1,500	1,500	0.0
Tate Britain	London	1,204	1,823	-33.9
National Portrait Gallery	London	1,178	1,000	+17.9

Source: ETC (2001) in Mintel (2002a)

Multiple Expectations of Different Stakeholder Groupings

The stakeholder groupings that attraction operators must seek to address and satisfy include, perhaps most critically, their customers followed by their employees and the attractions' investors, together with local residents and special interest groups, such as wildlife conservation bodies in the case of zoos and safari parks and heritage conservation bodies in the case of castles and stately homes. The disparate range of groupings and the very real potential for them to hold conflicting views makes the attraction operators' task of securing their support or at least consent for their activities and developments, an extremely challenging one. However, failure to achieve this brings with it the potential for bad publicity, conflict and even business failure.

The UK Government's recent strategic exploitation of tourism as a vehicle for the economic development or regeneration of regions, has meant that many attractions have been faced by a whole series of additional, externally imposed expectations (refer to Table 1 for examples of such sites). These expectations have included both a growth in visitor numbers to the attraction itself and to the host environment, leading to an increase in local spending, economic activity and employment opportunities. The pressures associated with such an approach are twofold. Firstly, at the development stage, there is a danger that the externally imposed strategic priorities that serve as the rationale for the development, take precedence over sound business planning, thereby contributing to the possible failure of the attraction. Secondly, once the attraction is in operation the burden of the external pressures can serve to undermine its performance.

Summary of Challenges

The operators of visitor attractions are therefore confronted by an increasingly competitive environment, in which demand is stagnating and market expectations are both growing and shifting. Within this context it is hardly surprising that even some prominent visitor attractions in the UK have been forced into closure, with recent casualties including Tussauds Rock Circus in London, the Centre for Popular Music in Sheffield, the National Glass Centre in Sunderland and the Earth Centre near Doncaster.

MANAGEMENT RESPONSES TO CHALLENGES

There is considerable variation of opinion as to how attraction managers might most effectively respond to the challenges presented by such a dynamic operating environment. For example, some advocate a focus on human resource management (Watson and McCracken, 2003), others emphasise the importance of successful marketing (Boyd, 2003), whilst there is also a recognition that particular priorities are pertinent to particular 'types' of attraction (Drummond, 2001).

Much of the available literature takes a prescriptive approach, with many texts offering a listing of perceived factors for success or key influences upon the success of attractions. For example, Yale (1998) considers the success of attractions to be determined by their accessibility, opening hours, on-site amenities and off-site amenities (sign-posting, local accommodation

etc). In contrast, Swarbrooke (2002) identifies four key factors that influence the success of attractions: the organization and its resources; the product; the market; and the management of the attraction. He goes on to add that an intangible quality or 'magic' is also necessary and impossible to create artificially. Some authors offer very detailed comments, for example, Alexander (2003) goes as far as to specify certain key performance indicators that should be used to inform management planning and so ensure economic success.

There is also a growing recognition of the role that benchmarking can play in improving visitor attraction performance (ETC, 2000; Locum Destination Review, 2000). This recognition is premised upon an assumption that it is possible to develop a shared understanding of "good practice" and for managers to work towards achieving this. However, with the exception of some local initiatives (Locum Destination Review, 2000), little is known about attraction managers' perceptions of what constitutes success or how to achieve it.

WHAT IS SUCCESS?

Success in the attractions sector is most commonly measured in terms of visitor numbers (Johnson and Thomas, 1991; ETC, 2000; ETC, 2001). This is consistent with the fact that successive British governments (and indeed most governments worldwide) have consistently viewed the success of the tourism industry from an economic perspective (Williams and Shaw, 1998). Another key measure of success in the commercial sector is profitability, whilst individual operator's interpretations of success are likely to reflect a disparate range of additional or alternative priorities, including the promotion of animal conservation as expressed in the mission statement of Chester Zoo (2003) and the care, enhancement and study of its collection as cited in the National Gallery Review (2003). A further priority for most attractions is customer satisfaction with customers likely to measure success against their personal expectations and motivations for visiting an attraction. Leisure Consultants (1990) found that customer expectations were greatest in respect of quality, authenticity, presentational features and refreshment facilities, whilst their motivations were centred on the attractions' abilities to entertain and educate.

RESEARCH AIM AND METHODOLOGY

It is clear even from this brief consideration of the topic, that there is unlikely to be a simple interpretation of success that is appropriate to all attractions. Consequently, this research project began in 2002 with the intention of gaining an understanding of contemporary perceptions of success as held by the managers of England's most visited attractions. The focus on the most visited attractions was determined by the sector-wide acceptance of attendance figures as a key benchmark indicator of success. The research aim was therefore to add to the understanding of success within the context of contemporary visitor attractions and in so doing to identify key factors that are likely to contribute to the attainment of success across the sector and within any identified sub-groupings of attractions.

The study represented the second phase of a longitudinal project that began in 1989 (Dewhurst, 1996). The overall aim of the longitudinal study, which does not form the central focus of this paper, was to identify any time-related changes in management perceptions of success and to isolate the factors that have served to determine any such observed changes.

A consideration of what is understood by the term 'success', must necessarily be concerned with organisational goals as they provide the critical link between general mission statements and specific policy objectives (Johnson & Scholes, 2002). In other words, it is the goals that provide an uncomplicated expression of an organisation's aims (Stacey, 1993) and as such organisations will seek to ensure that their perceptions of success are translated into policy goals (Rowe *et al.* 1989). A similar emphasis was attached to the factors that the attraction managers perceive to be responsible for or conducive to the attainment of the policy goals. The goals and contributing factors for success for one attraction may or may not accord with those of another attraction and so it was considered necessary to set the various interpretations of success in some form of context. In order to achieve this it was decided to establish the physical characteristics of the attractions, as well as their management structures, sources of earnings and visitor profiles.

A mailed questionnaire survey served as the principal data-gathering instrument. The content of the questionnaire was shaped by a thematic content analysis of secondary source material and a two stage interview process with key informants: stage one comprised of a series of eight unstructured interviews with attraction operators and stage two involved semi-structured interviews with fifteen further attraction managers. This survey development work was originally undertaken in 1989 at the start of the longitudinal study (Dewhurst, 1996) and was supplemented during 2001 with an additional review of secondary sources. The majority of the survey questions were closed and made use of extensive lists of variables. They either required the importance of each variable to be registered by means of a one to five score value, a percentage figure, or the selection of one appropriate variable from lists of mutually exclusive response options. The questions elicited both nominal and ordinal level data that was capable of being subjected to univariate, bivariate and multivariate testing using a variety of statistical procedures.

A selective sampling procedure was utilised (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973) with the qualifying criterion for sites being specified as a minimum of 250,000 visitor admissions during 2000. The figure of 250,000 was selected as the preliminary round of interviews with key informants had revealed this total to be a significant indicator of success. In particular, all interviewees when asked to specify examples of successful attractions cited facilities that registered a minimum annual total of 250,000 visitors. Qualifying sites were identified by reference to the ETC's "Sightseeing in the UK 2000" publication (ETC, 2001). The questionnaire was issued in August 2002 with follow-up reminders subsequently issued to those who had failed to submit a completed questionnaire. An overall response rate of 61.2% was secured, with one hundred and four out of a possible one hundred and seventy questionnaires being received.

The collated data was coded and inputted into SPSS. A three phase analytical programme was then implemented to evaluate the relative importance of each identified variable, appraise the relationships between the different variables and evaluate the importance of the variables to identified sub-groups of attractions. The initial analytical work was used to secure descriptive information including frequency counts, percentage breakdowns, mean values, as well as standard deviations from the means. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) One-sample test was also used to determine the significance of the scores that had been allocated to a series of variable listings (Black, 1999). Bivariate procedures were utilised with cross-tabulated tables being generated and Pearson Chi-squared goodness-of-fit tests performed. Finally, a hierarchical agglomerative clustering procedure was used to determine the similarities and differences between key ordinal level response data from each respondent (Kaufman and Rousseeuw, 1990).

RESEARCH FINDINGS

The questionnaire's closed questions listed more than one hundred and twenty distinct variables all of which were analysed using a range of univariate and bivariate procedures. It is therefore not possible within the constraints of this paper to provide a full summary of findings. Instead, an attempt has been made to present the essential highlights of the quantitative data analysis. These highlights have been divided into descriptive characteristics and success oriented management perceptions.

Descriptive Characteristics

The visitor attractions were geographically dispersed both in terms of their regional locations and their proximity to urban centres. Almost 70% of the sites had been in operation for a minimum of twenty-five years, whilst just two were less than five years old. This emphasis on older attractions is borne out by previous work (Mintel 2002a) that has demonstrated a link between age and "success". Operational responsibility was broadly split between the public, private and voluntary sector with the former category showing a slight numerical advantage.

Country parks represented the largest single grouping (see Table 4), which when combined with "parks/gardens" and "zoos/safari parks" formed what might be considered to be an environmentally oriented category representing 38.5% of respondents. This figure was identical to the total number of what might be considered to be culturally oriented attractions i.e. the "religious centres", "historic sites/buildings/ monuments", "museums/galleries" and "interpretative/heritage sites".

Table 4: Summary of responses to “Which single term best identifies the attraction?”

Attraction Type	Number	Percentage
Religious centre	12	11.5%
Historic site/Building/Monument	14	13.5%
Museum/Gallery	11	10.6%
Interpretative/Heritage site	3	2.9%
Country park	27	26.0%
Park/Garden	4	3.8%
Zoo/Safari park	9	8.7%
Farm attraction	0	0.0%
Workplace/Industrial visit centre	1	1.0%
Themed retail outlet	1	1.0%
Theme park	5	4.8%
Amusement park	4	3.8%
Leisure/Recreation complex	3	2.9%
Other	10	9.6%

Table 5: Summary of responses to “How important are the following elements in drawing visitors to your attraction?”

Product Components	Response distribution						Median	Sum	Ranking
	1	2	3	4	5	?			
<i>Religious significance</i>	78	8	1	2	9	6	1	119	18
Cultural/historic significance	12	17	25	16	30	4	3	220	6
Wildlife	36	12	16	14	20	6	3	189	10
Natural scenery	29	11	12	22	24	6	3	204	9
Undisturbed/preserved artefacts	45	21	10	9	12	7	2	213	8
Static displays	23	24	30	12	11	4	3	264	3
Audio-visual displays	40	15	22	15	6	6	2	226	5
Hands-on interactive displays	42	12	28	5	9	8	2	215	7
<i>Animated models</i>	70	14	8	3	2	7	1	144	14
Demonstrations	33	20	16	13	13	9	2	238	4
<i>Costumed performances</i>	59	18	9	3	7	8	1	169	11
<i>Stage performances</i>	62	12	11	6	5	8	1	168	12
<i>Arcade type amusements</i>	84	4	1	3	4	8	1	127	16
<i>White knuckle rides</i>	88	0	2	2	5	7	1	127	16
<i>Computer simulations</i>	74	11	5	5	1	8	1	136	15
Retail outlets	12	24	25	18	20	5	3	307	2
Café/restaurant/picnic facilities	4	12	29	32	25	2	4	368	1
Other	4	1	2	13	19	65	4	159	13

Key: 1 = unimportant; 2 = marginally important; 3 = important; 4 = very important; 5 = extremely important; ? = non-responses

When asked to identify the relative importance of various product components in attracting visitors to the sites (see Table 5), the two most highly ranked were identified as catering facilities and retail outlets. This appears to confirm broad ranging management recognition of the need to provide such facilities as part of a wider leisure experience. However, beyond this shared understanding, there was little consensus over the positive value of any of the other specific product components. Indeed, a consideration of the median scores revealed a majority with values of just one or two, indicating that they were either of no importance or of only “marginal importance” in attracting visitors to the respective sites. Yet in each of these instances, there were again exceptions and so the findings revealed a diversity of opinion, with all variables being credited by some respondents as being “extremely important” in drawing visitors to the sites.

Success Oriented Management Perceptions

The most highly ranked management goal was recognised to be “increasing income levels” (see Table 6), suggesting that success is defined in commercial terms for a majority of the most visited attractions. However, this was closely followed by the goal of “ensuring repeat visits”, indicating that a desire to maximise the returns from current markets is considered to be more important than attracting new customers. It may also indicate the widespread acceptance of a quality agenda, as repeat custom is broadly recognised as a key indicator of service product quality. Other highly ranked goals ranged from emphases on the need to ensure that visitors are entertained and educated, through to a need to maintain and generate profits and on to an acceptance of the part attractions play in encouraging positive images for host regions and investors. A review of the median score values confirmed these findings with all but three of the eighteen listed goals being regarded as at least important by the respondents. Yet this overview masks the fact that there was no uniformity of response profile.

Table 6: Summary of responses to "What are the goals for your attraction?"

Attraction Goals	Response distribution						Median	Sum	Ranking
	Score values								
	1	2	3	4	5	?			
To entertain visitors	7	14	19	21	38	5	4	366	7
To educate visitors	2	5	23	29	44	1	4	417	4
To provide authentic/authoritative archive	29	15	24	6	23	7	3	270	16
To act as vehicle for information/ideas exchange	23	31	18	14	9	9	2	240	17
To decrease visitor numbers	88	1	1	2	0	12	1	101	18
To maintain visitor numbers	16	2	19	24	30	13	4	323	14
To increase visitor numbers	6	4	11	21	61	1	5	436	3
To ensure repeat visits	2	0	8	29	62	3	5	452	2
To maintain income levels	13	0	18	14	51	8	5	378	6
To increase income levels	2	1	8	14	76	3	5	464	1
To ensure an operating profit	16	8	13	14	47	6	4	362	8
To ensure an overall profit	19	13	10	8	47	7	4	342	10
To safeguard jobs	6	13	32	22	28	3	3	356	9
To create new jobs	19	32	21	13	15	4	2	273	15
To encourage economic development of host region	11	17	33	16	24	3	3	328	13
To help maintain economic viability of host region	12	13	36	17	23	3	3	329	12
To encourage/maintain positive image of region	4	7	25	29	38	1	4	399	5
To encourage/maintain positive image of principal investor/s	19	9	16	21	33	6	4	334	11
Other	2	0	0	2	12	88	5	70	19

Key: 1 = unimportant; 2 = marginally important; 3 = important; 4 = very important; 5 = extremely important; ? = non-responses

When asked what factors contribute to the success of their attractions, a clear majority of respondents stated that both product and staff quality were "extremely important" (see Table 7). A disparate range of variables were considered by a majority to be at least "very important",

including the "quality of management", the "cultural and/or historic significance" of the attraction, the "varied nature of the product" and the "quality of product promotion", as well as the proximity of the sites to good transport networks and large centres of population. At the other extreme, technological innovations were dismissed by most as at best of marginal importance as were economic, regulatory and legislative changes. However, this picture is again complicated by the fact that many respondents did not agree with the majority perspective.

Table 7: Summary of responses to “What factors do you perceive as having had a bearing on the current success of your attraction?”

Contributing Factors for Success	Response distribution						Median	Sum	Ranking
	Score values								
	1	2	3	4	5	?			
Cultural/historic significance of the attraction	8	13	22	19	37	5	4	361	6
<i>Quality of the product</i>	1	4	6	27	64	2	5	455	1
Varied nature of the product	5	9	12	39	35	4	4	390	4
Technological innovations	45	19	18	9	7	6	2	208	16
Quality of management	3	2	22	31	44	2	4	417	3
<i>Quality of staff</i>	1	4	10	32	54	3	5	437	2
Quality of product promotion	7	14	18	27	34	4	4	367	5
Lack of an admission charge	37	10	8	14	30	5	3	287	11
Competitive pricing structure	24	9	22	29	16	4	3	304	9
Proximity to other tourist attractions/amenities	14	23	31	23	10	3	3	295	10
Proximity to large centres of population	9	9	28	28	27	3	4	358	7
Proximity to major transport networks	8	15	24	37	17	3	4	343	8
Changes in the local/regional economy	23	35	22	15	4	5	2	239	13
Changes in the national economy	24	27	23	20	5	5	2	252	12
Changes in the international economy	30	30	18	13	7	6	2	231	14
Regulatory/legislative changes	32	26	20	10	8	8	2	224	15
Other	3	0	0	1	7	93	5	42	17

Key: 1 = unimportant; 2 = marginally important; 3 = important; 4 = very important; 5 = extremely important; ? = non-responses

Indeed, it is clear that the data as presented in tables 5, 6 and 7, does not provide cognate perspectives on the combined total of fifty-one variables. This was confirmed when the response distributions for each separate variable were subjected to the Kolmogorov Smirnov One-sample test. This procedure revealed just fourteen of the fifty-one variables with K-S Z scores with statistically significant response distributions (identified within tables 5, 6 and 7 in italics). In spite of this it was felt that common perspectives might exist between respondents from particular sub-groupings of attractions. It was therefore decided to interrogate the data using a hierarchical agglomerative clustering procedure. The score values that were attributed by each respondent to the lists of “product components”, “goals for success” and “factors for success” were subjected to the procedure which identified clusters of attractions with similar response profiles using the between group clustering technique. The results of the clustering procedure were displayed using a dendrogram that provided a visual depiction of the response associations for seventy-seven of the one hundred and four attractions from which completed questionnaires were received. The other twenty-seven sites could not be mapped because their managers’ failed to provide score values for a sufficient number of listed variables.

The dendrogram that was generated through the clustering procedure was then subjected to a detailed analysis in an attempt to determine whether any of the response sets to particular survey questions reflected the pattern of clusters. The attractions' locations, ages and profiles of operational responsibility were mapped against the dendrogram with the latter two revealing a loose association with the pattern of clusters. However, it was only when the dendrogram was evaluated against attraction types that a truly close association was revealed.

The dendrogram comprised of a total of seven cluster groupings. Seventeen of the eighteen sites in the first grouping were identified as country parks, while five of the six attractions in cluster grouping two were identified as "zoos/safari parks". There was less commonality exhibited in cluster grouping three, whilst the fourth cluster grouping comprised fifteen attractions, seven of which were "historic sites/buildings/monuments", three each were "religious centres" and "museums/galleries", with a single "interpretative/ heritage site" and a single "zoo/safari park" also present. In spite of the diversity of attraction types within cluster grouping four, it could be argued that all but one of the sites had a cultural orientation. No such synergies could be identified within cluster grouping five, which was comprised of six distinct attractions. In contrast, six of the eight attractions within cluster group six were "religious centres", whilst the seven closely associated sites in group seven included four "theme parks" and three "amusement parks".

Having established that "attraction type" serves as a key determinant of managers' perceptions of success, there began a re-analysis of the data using "attraction type" as a categoric variable. Highlights of the initial interrogation are presented below:

- visitor entertainment was considered to be a significant goal for all attraction types other than religious centres, with amusement parks and theme parks placing the greatest emphasis on entertainment;
- visitor education was considered to be a significant goal for all attraction types other than theme and amusement parks;
- the provision of an authoritative/authentic archive and the transmission of information/ideas were considered to be significant goals for culturally oriented attractions;
- the profit motive was recognised as a priority for all categories of attraction with the exception of museums/galleries, country parks and parks/gardens;
- country parks and museums/galleries were the only attraction categories that consistently failed to recognise economic or employment related goals for success;
- cultural and historic significance was considered to be a significant factor in ensuring the success of culturally oriented attractions;
- technological innovations were considered to be a significant factor in ensuring the success of theme and amusement parks;
- changes in the local, regional and national economy were considered to be significant factors in ensuring the success of theme and amusement parks;
- wildlife and natural scenery were considered to be critical contributors to the success of country parks, parks/gardens and zoos/safari parks;
- static displays were only considered to be significant product components within historic sites, museums and galleries;

- arcade type amusements and white knuckle rides were considered to be significant product components within both theme and amusement parks;
- events and activity programmes were recognised to be a significant feature in attracting visitors to a cross-section of attractions;
- product diversity was recognised to be a key contributor to the success of all categories of attraction with the exception of religious centres;
- the quality of product promotion was recognised as a critical success factor for all categories except religious centres and country parks.

CONCLUSIONS

This study was initiated in response to a growing recognition that whilst attractions are fundamental to the success of the tourism industry, they are both under-researched and presently faced by a series of pressures that potentially jeopardises their future success and even survival. The findings of this research suggest that “success” is not a fixed concept, but that a degree of shared understanding exists amongst the managers of the most visited culturally oriented attractions (historic sites/buildings/monuments, religious centres, museums/galleries, interpretative/heritage sites), entertainment oriented (amusement parks, theme parks) and environmentally oriented attractions (country parks, parks/gardens, zoos/safari parks). These findings are in line with previous research (Dewhurst, 1996). However, there remains a need to continue this work in order to determine the depth of shared thinking around “success”, identify the underlying causalities and assess time-related shifts in the shared perceptions. It is only when this additional understanding has been secured that the research is likely to be of real value in helping to shape the policy agenda for tourist attractions.

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A Review and Profile of Managerial Burnout in the Hospitality Industry of Cyprus

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ABSTRACT

Hospitality professions are considered to be among the most stressful occupations, entailing a high degree of physical, mental, and psychological work. Extensive stress may cause emotional burnout, a leading contributor to turnover and operational costs to the industry. The primary objective of the paper is to present the findings of an extensive research study conducted in Cyprus, investigating burnout among hospitality managers. Descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized to analyze the data in an attempt to examine the burnout level of managerial hospitality employees and isolate the factors that contribute to this phenomenon. Based on the research findings a profile of hospitality managers most likely to experience burnout was developed, as well as suggestions for specific preventive measures in an attempt to eliminate or reduce the phenomenon.

Key Words

Cyprus; the Hospitality Industry; Burnout Causes and Effects; Hospitality Managers; Preventive Measures.

INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE

Burnout¹ For further definitions see also the work of Maslach and colleagues (Leiter and Maslach, 1988; Maslach, 1982; Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Maslach and Leiter, 1997) and Lee and Ashforth (1990), Burke and Richardson (1993), Cherniss (1980), Freudenberger and Richelson (1980), Shiron (1989), Pines and Aronson (1988), and Pines et al., (1981). is defined as the “syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization of others, and a feeling of reduced personal accomplishment” (Lee and Ashforth, 1990, p. 743). The term burnout has become more commonplace, and, as an extreme form of stress, was first identified by Bradley (1969) and then developed by Freudenberger (1974) to denote a state of physical and mental depletion caused by conditions at work. Freudenberger’s research on burnout concentrated primarily on individuals who provided care for others during the course of

¹ For further definitions see also the work of Maslach and colleagues (Leiter and Maslach, 1988; Maslach, 1982; Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Maslach and Leiter, 1997) and Lee and Ashforth (1990), Burke and Richardson (1993), Cherniss (1980), Freudenberger and Richelson (1980), Shiron (1989), Pines and Aronson (1988), and Pines et al., (1981).

their normal working day such as nursing and education. Later research found that burnout was also associated with increased mental demands (Garden, 1989). Cordes and Dougherty, suggest that those experiencing burnout, exhibit the following characteristics:

- Failure, wearing-out, exhaustion;
- Loss of creativity;
- Loss of commitment for work;
- Estrangement from clients, co-workers, job and agency;
- A response to the chronic stress of making it to the top;
- A syndrome of inappropriate attitudes toward clients and toward self, often accompanied with uncomfortable physical and emotional symptoms.

(Cordes and Dougherty, 1993, p. 623)

According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984) stress occurs when environmental demands are perceived by individuals to exceed their capacities. Furthermore, Cartwright and Cooper (1997), as cited in Cooper et al., (2001) have differentiated six primary work-related stressors:

1. Factors intrinsic to the job itself.
2. Roles in the organization.
3. Relationships at work, such as those with supervisors, colleagues and subordinates.
4. Career development issues.
5. Organizational factors, including the structure and climate of the organization as well as its culture and political environment.
6. The home-work interface.

(Cooper et al., 2001, p. 28)

In addition, Cooper et al., (2001) inform us that organizational roles are sources of stress. Specifically they cite role ambiguity, where one has insufficient information to perform; role conflict, which reflects incompatible demands on the individual, such as when there is a conflict between one's expectations or values and those of the organization; and role overload, where the individual has to fulfill a number of different roles. The uncertainty caused by the organizational roles can make one feel psychologically uncomfortable, not to mention the negative impact on the individual's physical and mental well-being.

As mentioned earlier, much of the research on burnout was carried out within the "caring" professions such as nursing and teaching. Specifically, Hargreaves and Tucker (1991) inform us that teachers begin to doubt their own competence; admitting to suffering from stress is tantamount to confessing that one cannot cope; experiencing competence anxiety, anxiety about appearing incompetent to one's colleagues and oneself.

The concept of “blaming the victim” has been espoused further by others (Cole and Walker, 1989; Gates, 2000), who make the observation that organizational employee assistance programs (EAP’s) are, at best either underutilized by individuals for fear of being stigmatized, or at worst, serve to perpetuate the image that stress-related work behaviors are a problem for the employee and not the organization.

Burnout-related research has since moved into other sectors, with a growing body of literature within the service sector in general, and within the hospitality industry in particular (Krone et al., 1989; Lang, 1991; Reynolds and Tabacchi, 1993; Tabacchi et al., 1990; Vallen, 1993), with Leiter and Maslach (1988) informing us that burnout leads to reduced organizational commitment. Consequently, as service sector occupations are on the rise (Mann, 1997) burnout is likely to become a more common condition in the workplace.

Krone et al., (1989) investigated burnout among food and beverage managers in an attempt to define the primary factors that contribute to this phenomenon. Utilizing the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), the authors concluded that factors such as work hours, actual working conditions, job classification, ethnic background, and occupational hazards such as role overload, role ambiguity, and role conflict contribute to the different degrees of burnout experienced by the managers. They suggest that “the cost to a firm of offering managers shorter hours and more support and assistance may ultimately be less than the cost in turnover, absenteeism, low productivity, and health insurance claims occasioned by manager burnout” (Krone et al., 1989, p. 63).

Tabacchi et al., (1990) examined the role of friends, co-workers and upper management in preventing burnout among food and beverage service managers. Their research study revealed that the level and quality of support expressed by others influences the managers’ feelings of burnout. In particular, they suggested that managers working with less supervisory support reported higher emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, while single managers experience higher levels of burnout since they received less supervisory and family support compared to their married colleagues. They reiterate the importance of support networks especially for young and single managers by concluding that “addressing burnout may not require more money so much as it requires more attention, care and support” (Tabacchi et al., 1990, p. 37).

Vallen (1993) who examined the relationship between organizational climate and burnout in the hospitality industry reached the conclusion that “management styles play a significant role in job satisfaction” (Vallen, 1993, p. 58). He argued that hospitality professionals wishing to reduce burnout and turnover must re-examine the quality of their organizational environment since there is high correlation between those issues and organizational characteristics. It is suggested that in a negative and autocratic environment, which clearly

characterizes the majority of hospitality establishments in Cyprus, individuals experience high emotional exhaustion and depersonalization caused by the direct and indirect effects of specific management styles.

The primary purpose of the research was to investigate burnout among hospitality managers within the distinct environment of the Cyprus hospitality industry. To our knowledge, a similar study in the Cyprus Hospitality Industry has yet to be accomplished. This paper is an attempt to close that gap, and to further investigate whether previous research findings are reflected in Cyprus. More specifically, as part of a wider study of human resource issues, such as satisfaction, emotional labor, motivation and the likely reasons for hospitality professionals' decisions to either stay or leave the industry, the research underpinning the paper set out to investigate the following:

- Whether burnout exists in the Cyprus hospitality industry;
- To what degree it exists;
- The profile of the manager at highest risk of burnout;
- Interventions that organizations can make in order to mitigate the effects of burnout.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Our study involved 200 individuals currently holding managerial level positions in the Cyprus hospitality industry. A quantitative questionnaire was developed and mail distributed to each one. The questionnaire contained three sections; one of which included Maslach's Burnout Inventory. Utilizing the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), we analyzed the collected data using both descriptive and inferential statistics. In addition, by analyzing the demographic data gathered the authors were able to profile the individual most likely to experience high burnout feelings and symptoms. Before administering the survey instrument it was tested for reliability by using the test re-test method.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) instrument was used to examine the degree of burnout among hospitality managers currently working in Cyprus. The MBI, which is the most widely used burnout measurement instrument, demonstrates a high degree of validity and unlike other instruments it measures burnout in the workplace and not in the personal life and daily activities of the respondents (Vallen, 1993). The construct validity of burnout has been empirically observed by Cordes and Dougherty (1993) and Meier (1984) who, in addition, hypothesized that burnout relates strongly to depression and job satisfaction, while Lee and Ashforth (1990) confirm the MBI's test-retest reliability. The MBI measures three dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, where one's emotions are 'used up' and feeling drained by contact with others; depersonalization, a result of the stressors of the job whereby one feels detached from work and people become objects to be dealt with, not humans; and

personal accomplishment, feeling incompetent and doubting one's abilities in achieving anything.

The inventory consists of 22 statements which examine the three burnout components of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment. Respondents were asked to state on a scale from 0 (never) to 6 (every day) how often they felt that a particular statement applied to them. A high degree of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization in relation to a low level of personal accomplishment indicates high burnout. In particular, according to Maslach (1982), high burnout exists when the scores of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization components fall in the upper third of the normative distribution and for personal accomplishment in the lower third. It is also important to note that reliability analysis (*Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient*) for the three burnout components was utilized in order to determine the extent to which the items in each sub-category relate to each other.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

The questionnaires were mail-distributed to 200 hospitality professionals currently working in managerial positions in Cyprus. Seventy-five were completed and returned to the researchers. Of these, two survey questionnaires were incomplete, and thus excluded from the study, reducing the number of usable surveys to seventy-three. The overall response rate of 36.5% was viewed as satisfactory considering the low response rates experienced by the majority of hospitality studies.

Table 1 displays the demographic profile of the participants in relation to six different variables: sex, age, number of years of hospitality experience, current employer, managerial level, and income level. It is important to note the high number of upper level managers participating, as well as the participation of female managers, bearing in mind the smaller proportion of female managers in Cyprus. We believe that the profile of the collected sample reflects the conditions of the Cyprus hospitality industry.

Table 1: Demographic Profile of the Respondents (n=73)

	Frequency	Valid Percentage
Sex		
Male	53	72.6
Female	20	27.4
Age		
20 – 30	20	27.4
31 – 40	34	46.6
41 – 50	16	21.9
Over 50	3	4.1
Number of years of hospitality experience		
Less than 5	9	12.3
5 – 10	29	39.7
11 – 20	25	34.2
More than 20	10	13.7
Current employer		
Hotel – 5 Star	25	34.2
Hotel – 4 Star	21	28.8
Hotel – 3 Star	6	8.2
Hotel Apartments	2	2.7
Restaurant (Full Service)	8	11.0
Fast Food Operation	5	6.8
Other	6	8.2
Managerial Level		
Entry level – Supervisory	10	13.7
Mid-Level	31	42.5
Upper Level	32	43.8
Income Level²		
Less than £10,000 ³	22	31.4
£10,000 – £15,000	26	37.1
£15,001 – £20,000	10	14.3
£20,001 – £25,000	4	5.7
More than £25,000	8	11.4

² Only 70 questionnaires had a response to this item.

³ One Cyprus Pound = 0.57 Euro (approx)

All items in the MBI subscales, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment were tested for reliability. In particular, reliability analysis was utilized to determine the extent to which the items in the questionnaire are related to each other. Cronbach's Alpha, a reliability model of internal consistency based on average inter-item correlation; indicate a high reliability among the three burnout subscales. In particular, as exhibited in **Table 2**, Cronbach's coefficient alpha for emotional exhaustion was **0.882**, for depersonalization **0.831**, and for personal accomplishment **0.806**.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Coefficients of the MBI

Item	Mean	Std. Dev.	Range	Skewness	Kurtosis	α
Emotional Exhaustion	2.18	1.17	6.00	.741	1.016	.882
Depersonalization	1.53	1.25	6.00	.925	1.074	.831
Personal Accomplishment	4.35	.94	4.63	-.611	.385	.806

Note: n = 73

Based on the theoretical average sum MBI scores presented in **Table 3**, Cyprus hospitality managers experience a moderate level of emotional exhaustion, a moderate degree of depersonalization and an average sense of personal accomplishment. In particular the average level of emotional exhaustion according to the MBI is 19.58, way below the score of 27 which indicates a high degree of emotional exhaustion. The average participant's score of depersonalization is 7.68, which is close to the borderline between low and moderate while the score of personal accomplishment, 34.79, falls in the middle of the moderate scores.

Table 3: The Average MBI Sum Scores

Item	Mean	Std. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum	Level
Emotional Exhaustion <i>High (score ≥ 27)</i> <i>Moderate (score 17-26)</i> <i>Low (score ≤ 16)</i>	19.58	10.565	0	54	Moderate / Average
Depersonalization <i>High (score ≥ 13)</i> <i>Moderate (score 7-12)</i> <i>Low (score ≤ 6)</i>	7.68	6.249	0	30	Moderate / Average
Personal Accomplishment <i>High (score ≥ 31)</i> <i>Moderate (score 32-38)</i> <i>Low (score ≤ 39)</i>	34.79	7.568	11	48	Moderate / Average

Note: n = 73

Further analysis of the research findings, as presented in *Table 4*, suggests that hospitality managers of Cyprus experience low to moderate emotional exhaustion, low to moderate depersonalization and moderate to low personal accomplishment. In particular, 21.9% of the respondents rated high on the emotional exhaustion subscale while a similar percentage (20.5%) scored high on the depersonalization scale. Substantially different was the number of participants who scored low on the personal accomplishment subscale, almost reaching 40%. Comparing the findings with analogous studies conducted in the United States (Krone et al., 1989; Tabacchi et al., 1990; Vallen, 1993) we can identify a similar trend of results. In particular, most of the studies revealed that close to 30% of the participants experience high levels of emotional exhaustion, a fairly lower percentage, between 22 and 25% experience high levels of depersonalization while more than 50% recorded low personal accomplishment levels. From this comparison, we can conclude that hospitality managers of Cyprus experience a slightly lower level of burnout in all three subscales compared to their American counterparts.

Table 4: Classification of MBI Scores

Level of Experienced Burnout	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Emotional Exhaustion Subscale</i>		
High (score ≥ 27)	16	21.9
Moderate (score 17-26)	23	31.5
Low (score ≤ 16)	34	46.6
<i>Depersonalization Subscale</i>		
High (score ≥ 13)	15	20.5
Moderate (score 7-12)	20	27.4
Low (score ≤ 6)	38	52.1
<i>Personal Accomplishment Subscale</i>		
High (score ≥ 31)	22	30.1
Moderate (score 32-38)	22	30.1
Low (score ≤ 39)	29	39.7

Note: $n = 73$

Although the findings project a rather serene picture of burnout levels among hospitality professionals in Cyprus, it is very important to develop a profile of the individuals most likely to develop burnout symptoms. Such a profile will help hospitality managers to proactively intervene and prevent burnout effects on both the organization and the individual. With the help of cross tabulations we were able to develop a suggestive profile of the hospitality managers most likely to experience burnout symptoms. In general, individuals most likely to experience higher levels of burnout are those between the ages of 20 and 30, single, with college or higher-level education, preferably a degree in hospitality management, and with less than five years of hospitality experience. These individuals are mostly working

in four and five star hospitality establishments mainly in the food and beverage and marketing and sales divisions, earning less than £15,000 per year. These findings are in line with similar studies conducted in the United States, which concluded that the typical burnout victim is “young, single, female, relatively new on the job, and relatively new to the industry” (Tabacchi et al., 1990, p. 37).

Other Important Findings

In addition to those previously described, the study revealed other important and in some cases alarming findings, most of which require further scientific investigation. Some of the findings verify, while others reject some long-standing assumptions surrounding burnout and hospitality managers. The following is a summary of some of these findings:

- Individual hospitality managers holding degrees in General Business tend to experience higher levels of exhaustion and depersonalization and a relatively high degree of personal accomplishment compared to managers with hospitality related degrees. We perceive this as a logical outcome since individuals with business related academic backgrounds have experienced either limited or no interaction with the industry during their schooling years. These individuals enter the industry mostly ill prepared, and only later discover the mental and physical demands it makes on them.
- Another finding that requires further investigation is the fact that almost 40% of respondents scored low on the personal accomplishment subscale, raising multiple issues. It seems that a surprisingly high number of hospitality professionals evaluate themselves negatively, especially with regard to their interactions with other internal and external customers. Even more puzzling is the high number of senior managers, mostly individuals with extensive hospitality experience between the ages of 41 and 50 who experience low levels of accomplishment.
- Hospitality managers currently working in the food and beverage, and marketing and sales divisions scored higher on the emotional exhaustion subscale and lower on the personal accomplishment subscale. It has been suggested (Krone et al., 1989) that burnout is more prevalent in positions which entail extensive contact with people. It, therefore, came as no surprise to find that managers working in the above fields experienced higher levels of burnout.
- One of our primary objectives was to investigate whether burnout was related to the individual's monetary rewards and managerial position within the organization. Many hospitality experts suggest that the degree of burnout diminishes as individuals progress toward senior management positions, where the monetary rewards are substantially higher. Our research findings reject this argument since there is no statistical difference in any of the three burnout subscales to indicate variations of burnout among entry, middle and senior management professionals, and where the monetary rewards differ substantially.

- There are no substantial differences between male and female participants in two of the three burnout subscales; emotional exhaustion and accomplishment. As far as the depersonalization dimension is concerned, a Pearson chi square of **.013** indicates a significant difference between the two groups. Our findings indicate that male participants experience higher levels of depersonalization compared to women, whereas other research studies (Tabacchi et al., 1990) suggest that women tend to experience a higher level of burnout overall.

Based on the research findings reported above, the next section reviews the recommendations as well as suggested directions for future research.

RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

“Organizations that exhibit employee mistrust, tightly held control, and little teamwork, demonstrate significantly more burnout among their workers.”
(Vallen, 1993, p. 59)

One of the primary objectives of this research study was to suggest specific preventive measures to hospitality professionals who wish to eliminate or reduce the effects of burnout. If we accept the notion that people make the difference in the hospitality industry then we should also recognize employees' burnout as a major threat to organizational success. Hospitality organizations must develop their own pro-active protection mechanism, which reflects their operational uniqueness and interests. It is better to identify the signs of burnout and intervene rather than experience its symptoms at both the organizational and personal level.

Hospitality managers should fully comprehend the negative effects of burnout on both the organization and the individual employee. High levels of burnout may be costly for an organization because it can result in employees' negative behavior, poor work performance and reduced productivity, stress related illnesses, absenteeism, and turnover. Management should be aware of the signs and symptoms that could advance an individual's propensity toward burnout. Signs such as excessive and unexcused absences, diminished work performance, unprofessional behavior, emotional overextension, negative interpersonal work environment, exhibited feelings of reduced self-competence and achievement, feelings of distress and frustration, disorganization, compromised personal relationships, and other physical symptoms, should serve to alarm management thereby triggering informal mechanisms for pro-actively intervening to provide assistance and support to the individual employee.

Some may argue that preventive burnout is a time-consuming, tedious and expensive process that is overshadowed by short-term operational imperatives. On the contrary, most of the anti-burnout measures require no cost and limited organizational resources. Such proactive anti-burnout measures include the provision of a positive organizational environment to foster motivation within individuals themselves; innovative employee-centered human resource practices; mechanisms to support junior managers; a balance between intrinsic and

extrinsic rewards; full utilization of all operational resources; transparent evaluation and promotion procedures; flexible working schedules; role clarification; and investment in employee training and development.

Hospitality managers who wish to diminish or prevent turnover must first examine their organizational environment by way of a burnout audit (Neuhauser et al., 2004). As the literature has indicated, organizations are either unaware that the problem exists or believe that if it does it is internalized by the individual who suffers the consequences. Creating awareness through an audit is the first step toward intervention. It is the responsibility of management to develop and nurture a positive organizational environment in which burnout elements are minimized for all managerial employees. Practices such as delegation; mentoring; promotion of teamwork; interest in employees' professional development and personal well-being; development and nurturing of family ties; employee involvement in the decision-making processes; open channels of upward and downward communication; credible and creditable career progression schemes; and internal recruiting should bestow trust and confidence in employees and reinforce a positive organizational environment.

Mentoring is a cost-free, crucial but often forgotten practice that can become an effective tool in preventing burnout. Experienced senior managers acting as mentors could assist junior members to assimilate smoothly into the organization. Mentoring sessions might provide an excellent opportunity for senior hospitality managers to pro-actively intervene before burnout symptoms overtake a substantial number of their younger subordinates. Through the broad functions of vocational and psychosocial support in conjunction with role modeling, mentors may enhance the personal and professional development of their protégés (Lankau and Chung, 1998). In particular, psychosocial support, involving listening and counseling for on and off the job issues, may establish a strong informal relationship, that could strengthen the individual's trust and confidence toward the organization, thereby minimizing burnout related elements by aiding the development of coping mechanisms for handling stress.

The findings of this research activity may serve as a guide to others outside of the Cyprus specific environment, to investigate burnout within distinct hospitality environments. It is important to recognize that burnout is a multidimensional phenomenon. While quantitative data collection and analysis may reveal some insights, qualitative research, in the form of focus groups in conjunction with semi-structured interviews, is essential in thoroughly investigating the phenomenon's causes and effects. A similar follow-up study, enhanced with reliable qualitative elements, should be conducted in order to identify the degree of burnout compared to the findings reported here.

Furthermore, a similar study should be conducted again in five years in order to ascertain whether the results will be replicated. In addition, further research studies should aim to investigate why there is less burnout in Cyprus and whether the effects are different for males and females.

CONCLUSIONS

The paper set out to investigate burnout among hospitality managers within the distinct environment of the Cyprus hospitality industry, and to investigate whether previous research findings are reflected in Cyprus. More specifically, the research underpinning the paper set out to investigate the following:

- Whether burnout exists in the Cyprus hospitality industry;
- To what degree it exists;
- The profile of the manager at highest risk of burnout;
- Interventions that organizations can make in order to mitigate the effects of burnout.

The findings are in line with similar studies conducted in the United States. It would appear that burnout is indeed a problematic issue with broad repercussions for the Cyprus hospitality industry, and individuals at greatest risk are those under the age of 30; single; have college or higher-level education; less than five years of hospitality experience; and join the industry with high expectations. Interventions likely to mitigate the effects of burnout include strategic human resource management practices which maintain the individual's welfare as its focus. It is somewhat of a paradox that an industry which emphasizes the "hospitality" aspect of its activities should pay such scant service to one of its most valued assets, i.e., its people.

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Exploring a relationship between quality of life, enjoyment of cultural tourism and demography

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ABSTRACT

The city of Indianapolis has been the focus of considerable public investment and interest during the past several years. With the establishment of the Indianapolis cultural tourism initiative in 2002, policy makers and city leaders began taking a closer look at the issues that would need to be addressed to position Indianapolis as a cultural tourism destination. The initiative's two objectives are to improve the quality of life for Indianapolis residents and to enhance visitors' experience by capitalizing on the city's cultural amenities and attributes. The purpose of this study was to assess the extent to which residents' quality of life perceptions and enjoyment of the city's cultural tourism offerings differed among three demographic (income, gender and age) levels in Indianapolis. The findings of the study revealed that satisfaction with the three quality of life dimensions ("being", "becoming", and "belonging") is a positive function of satisfaction with enjoyment of cultural activity. In addition, significant differences were noted in satisfaction levels based on income and gender.

Key Words: Quality of life, cultural tourism, demography, Indianapolis

INTRODUCTION

The quality of life of an urban population is an important concern in achieving economic prosperity through tourism development. There are many components involved in measuring a city's quality of life. A large part is the standard of living and the population's amount of money and resources. These statistics are easily measured. Other statistics that attempt to measure alternative dimensions of urban living, such as mental and physical happiness, culture, and environmental health and safety, are far more difficult to measure.

Understanding that tourism development may result in numerous complex impacts suggest that city officials, the tourism industry, and residents need to work cooperatively and carefully plan for its growth and development. Planning can help create an industry that enhances a community with minimal costs and avoids disruptions in other aspects of city life. Having broad community involvement and embracing different perspectives from residents and stakeholders during planning helps identify and resolve concerns that would otherwise create future problems.

Many cities increasingly see cultural tourism as a driver of future economic growth. However, the full picture of the impact of cultural tourism upon urban environments is not well understood. In 2002, Indianapolis embarked on a cultural tourism initiative whose main goal was to improve the quality of life of its residents. Cultural tourism defined by the Indianapolis Cultural Development Commission is “experiencing the diverse mosaic of places, traditions, arts, celebrations and experiences that the Indianapolis area offers to residents and visitors. It is an important component of an overall tourism plan that emphasizes the total Indianapolis experience.” Furthermore, the commission states, “In addition to all the growth and expansion Indy is experiencing and will continue to experience, there is even more to celebrate. A powerful sports schedule, exciting national conventions, landmark anniversaries, and new summer celebrations will together tell the Indianapolis story. It’s a chance for the city to be recognized for the cultural destination that it is” (Indianapolis Cultural Development Commission, 2004).

The goal of this study was to evaluate non-economic quality of life measures for Indianapolis before the full implementation of the aforementioned initiative. A conceptual model developed by the Centre for Health Promotion at the University of Toronto was used as the theoretical foundation of this work. The framework of this concept is multidimensional and defines quality of life as “the degree to which a person enjoys the important possibilities of his or her life” (www.utoronto.ca). Three life domains, each of which has sub-domains, were identified by two key factors: importance and enjoyment. Using this model developed by Raphael, Steinmetz, and Renwick (1998), questionnaire items were aggregated into three life dimensions: “being” (physical characteristics), “belonging” (environmental characteristics), and “becoming” (emotional, mental and spiritual characteristics).

The “being” domain describes “who one is” through his or her physical health, nutrition, psychological health, self-esteem, cognitions, personal values, and spiritual beliefs. Connecting with one’s environments is the “belonging” domain of this model. It describes one’s relationship with their home, community, workplace or neighborhood. Additionally, it explains social and community belonging. Lastly, “becoming” is exploring ones’ personal goals and aspirations. This element involves domestic, work related, self improvement, and leisure activities.

A quality of life score for each dimension was also calculated. By analyzing these three dimensions, the study helps examine whether or not a relationship between quality of life, cultural tourism awareness, and resident demographics exists. This initial study is also intended to act as a springboard for future studies measuring the impact of the initiative on the resident’s quality of life.

This study addressed the following three hypotheses:

- H₁: Satisfaction with the three quality of life dimensions is a positive function of satisfaction with enjoyment of cultural attractions based on levels of income.
- H₂: Satisfaction with the three quality of life dimensions is a positive function of satisfaction with enjoyment of cultural attractions based on gender.
- H₃: Satisfaction with the three quality of life dimensions is a positive function of satisfaction with enjoyment of cultural attractions based on age.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Cultural Tourism

Cultural tourism is growing with the changing travel trends and tourist demographics. Tourists are currently taking shorter vacations, mainly in urban destinations and a more sophisticated and educated tourist is emerging (Boniface & Cooper, 2001). According to Luigi Cabrini (2003), the Regional Representative for Europe with the World Tourism Organization, Europe continues to attract increasing numbers of tourists to their cultural locations. The European Commission reported 20% of European tourists are responding to cultural motivations, while 60% of European tourists are interested in cultural discovery during their stay.

In the U.S., a study was conducted by Americans for the Arts in 2003 regarding the impact of cultural tourism. A total of 91 communities across 34 states were surveyed. This study found that the nonprofit arts industry generates economic impact of \$134 billion a year. Additionally it revealed that local attendees at arts events spent an average of \$21.75 per event, while out-of-towners spent \$38.05 per event. Furthermore, a study conducted by the Travel Industry Association of America and Partners in Tourism found that in 2000, there were 65% of adults travelers attended cultural events while taking a trip of 50 miles or more away from home, and 32 percent of which extended their trips because of those cultural events (Americans for the Arts, 2003). As tourism popularity and international travel continues to increase, cultural tourism interest will see a substantial increase (Cabrini, 2003). Moreover, interest in cultural tourism peaks for individuals between the ages 45 and 65. As the population life expectancy continues to rise, so will the interest in cultural tourism (Cameron, 1993).

Currently, there is a lack of statistical research focusing on the impact of cultural tourism and its projected popularity. However, several researchers are concentrating efforts on understanding residents' attitudes toward (cultural) tourism development (Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams, 1997; Schroeder, 1996; Smith & Krannich, 1998; Chen, 2000, 2001; Chen & Hue, 2002; Dieke, 1989). McCool and Martin's (1994) investigation of rural resident's attitude toward tourism development has served as a foundation for many studies in this area. They developed a 27 impact-attribute model representing four categories (impacts, benefits, equity and extent), which explains the relationship between community loyalty and rural residents' attitudes toward tourism development. Notably, Lankford and Howard (1994) and Chen and Hsu (2002) followed with variations of the model, which may be viewed as more appropriate to urban research.

Residents' attitude toward tourism and destination image depends on the resident's location. Urban, rural and third world resident perspectives significantly differ. According to Chen (2000) and Soutar and McLeod (1993), only a few studies exist pertaining to urban communities. Chen's (2000) work focused on an urban tourism impact scale from a four-factor model. Economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts (four dimensions) were extracted from twenty-four impact attitudes. The study was conducted in a highly developed

urban area and yielded interesting results. Urban residents are more demographically heterogeneous, causing significant differences in attitudes. Opinions of residents in urban areas are likely to be divided by demographic characteristics; income and ethnicity were identified as two significant dimensions in urban resident's attitude toward tourism (Johnson, Snepenger & Akis, 1994; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1990; Chen, 2000).

On the other hand, rural residents, regardless of demographic status, tended to have similar attitudes towards tourism development (Johnson et al., 1994; Perdue et al. 1990; Chen 2000). These citizens require a "clean" industry, not crowding out local fishing, hunting and other recreational areas of local interest (Smith & Krannich 1998; Martin & McCool, 1994; Marchak, 1990). A study by Smith and Krannich (1998) on the "tourism dependence" hypothesis for rural residents noted that increased dependence on tourism leads to increasing negative attitudes of rural residents. The community was concerned with higher levels of crime, lower levels of local satisfaction, and lack of support for continued tourism development. The researcher examined four dependent variables to reach their conclusions: tourism attitudes, population growth, economic development attitudes, and crime attitudes.

Another major difference between urban and rural residents is the economic dependence on tourism dollars. Urban areas may not have to rely on tourism business as heavily as rural areas due to a diversified economy (Chen, 2000). Employment opportunities, tax revenues, and economic diversity are critical to rural communities (Perdue et al., 1990). Finally, developing countries view tourism as a means to overcoming poverty and their economic woes. Because of the numerous attractions of cultural value, tourism is considered a "growth industry" and a prestige activity for many of these regions (Dieke, 1989).

Attitudes toward tourism may be directly related to how residents feel about their community and surrounding region (Jurowski & Brown, 2001). Residents' support for tourism development and the likelihood of recommending their region and supporting tourism funding is based on perceived image (Schroeder, 1996). There are two types of destination image: (a) organic, derived from non-tourism sources, and (b) induced, developed through promotional, advertising and publicity campaigns (Chen & Hsu, 2000). Jurowski et al. (1997) noted internal marketing campaigns are imperative to explain the social benefits of tourism to residents looking to reduce opposition and form a favorable destination image. Destinations must establish the right balance between community needs and interests, while promoting compatible community objectives, symbolic of the values of the residents (Cabrini, 2003; Cameron, 1993).

Defining and measuring Quality of Life (QOL)

Quality of life can mean many things to different people. Some would argue that in order for a community to enjoy a good quality of life, residents should feel safe, live in affordable and high quality housing, and should have access to education and employment. Indeed, these are basic expectations for a livable community. These measures go beyond economic status, age, race, household composition, or any other demographic indicator.

There are, however, other subjective ideas of what makes a city an enjoyable place to live. These ideas often revolve around the character of a city. Increasingly cities and regions throughout the developed world are developing locally-based measures to assess quality of life. For example, a volunteer civic project called "Sustainable Seattle" introduced the concept of sustainability indicators for a metropolitan region with a 1993 pioneering report. The volunteers were inspired by Jacksonville, Florida's "Quality of Life" measures and the State of Oregon's growth-oriented "Benchmarks." The volunteers of Sustainable Seattle were seeking to do something different: measure progress towards true sustainability, or "long-term cultural, economic, and environmental health and vitality."

Wennergren and Fullerton (1972) use three indices to measure a community's quality of life: economic, social, and environmental. The geometric mean of the three indices, weighted by the population of the community, is used as an overall measure of community well-being. A series of studies have addressed issues related to the ability of travel and tourism to both enhance and diminish the QOL of local residents in the host community (Cohen, 1978; Linton, 1987; Williams & Shaw, 1988; Jurowski et al., 1997; Perdue et al., 1999). Few studies have also addressed the effect tourism has on improving the overall life satisfaction of the traveler.

Anderson and Nurick (2002) consider that the conventional economic appraisal of cultural projects only focuses on the 'measurement of the measurable,' such as visitors attracted, jobs created and income generated. However, they argue that they do not reflect 'immeasurable' effects on the places and regions in which cultural projects are located, and the challenge lies in how to measure the changed image and aspirations of a place and the quality of life of its residents due to the impact of culture. They indicate that there is increasing evidence that quality of life is becoming an important factor in relocation-related decisions for both skilled workers and business investors, and that cultural projects can greatly strengthen a city's 'brand' or image and cause it to be perceived more favorably.

Kim (2002) investigated how tourism development influences the quality of life of residents in different stages of development. Overall satisfaction with life was used as the measurement for quality of life. The results show that tourism development did affect people's overall life satisfaction. During the initial stage of tourism development, residents may feel stress caused by change and demand for more public services and infrastructure. People's life satisfaction is higher during the maturity stage of the tourism development. When tourism development enters its declining stage, residents' quality of life may start to decline. Many trends influence urban tourism development. To combat an increasingly competitive marketplace, many destinations are relying on a business model that allows them to become consumption centers (Gartner & Lime 2000). Consumption centers bring together products and tourists and in doing so increase the efficiency of available distribution channels and all tourism service providers that utilize these channels. As competition continues to increase, it becomes paramount for destinations to accurately identify their target markets, understand their visitors' perceptions of the destination and meet their demands and expectations.

However, as noted by Law (1996) and Ashworth (1989), the scale and significance of tourism in cities have often been ignored. Since the 1990s, a number of books and articles dealing with urban tourism have been published (Ashworth & Tunbridge 1990; Ashworth 1992; Kotler, Haider, & Rein 1993; Law 1993; Stern & Krakover 1993; Page 1995; Law 1996; Mazanec 1997; Tyler 1998; Judd & Fainstein 1999). Earlier studies have also addressed issues related to the ability of tourism to both improve and deteriorate the QOL of local residents in the host community (Cohen 1978; Linton 1987; Williams & Shaw 1988; Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams 1997; Perdue, Long, & Kang 1999) and to enhance the QOL of travelers (Neal, Uysal, & Sirgy 1995; Neal, Sirgy, & Uysal 1997; Neal, Sirgy, & Uysal 1999).

Such studies have assessed over 200 indicators of quality of life. They have looked at quality of life at the neighborhood, city, county and metropolitan level. Some have collected unique measures of quality of life, reflective of local environmental, social, and economic conditions.

Notably, most communities have relied on data from the U.S. Census. The concept of “quality of life” as a multi-faceted concept seeks to include a wide variety of critical affecter variables within a unified framework. In this case, the Indianapolis quality of life research methodology defines quality of life as a nexus where physical, environmental, mental, spiritual and emotional characteristics are all considered.

To date, little is known about the impacts of tourism on a community’s subjective well-being. Since the tourism domain consists of both tourism and non-tourism activity, it is unclear at the present time if the findings from past studies can be directly applied to a community’s overall well-being. This study focuses on identifying the overall well being of the Indianapolis community and its effects on its residents.

Resident Perceptions of Their City Based on Demography

Resident perceptions are likely to vary as a function of a variety of different individual- and community-level quality of life variables. In a number of studies, researchers found that the experience of personal and property crime victimization influenced residents’ perceptions of neighborhood safety (Baba & Austin, 1989; Baba, Holyer, & Austin, 1991; Kalinich & Karr, 1981). Satisfaction with the physical appearance of a neighborhood has also been found to be related to crime fears, as well as to neighborhood quality of life perceptions (Perkins, Meeks, & Taylor, 1992; Perkins & Taylor, 1996). Other studies found that the amount of green spaces in a neighborhood influenced perceptions of neighborhood safety, environmental satisfaction, and sense of community (Kuo, Bacaicoa, & Sullivan, 1998; Kuo, Sullivan, Coley, & Brunson, 1998).

Even though researchers have found that resident demography can predict residents’ and neighborhood health (Elliot, 2000; Evans & Kantrowitz, 2002; Pickett & Pearl, 2001; Robert, 1998), and residents’ social and physical activity levels (Estabrooks, Lee, & Gyurcsik, 2003), a number of recent studies stopped short of linking the effect of the residents’ demography to these perceptions.

Demographics of Cultural Tourists

Cultural tourism is a rapidly growing sector of the world tourism industry and its growth is linked to a variety of factors. Two of the leading factors are the increasing market demand for unique travel destinations and the relatively high interest of baby-boomers in culturally enriching travel. In 1992, a Lou Harris Poll for Travel and Leisure Magazine, when contrasted with an identical poll taken a decade earlier, confirmed the growing importance of culturally enriching travel. Asking the question "What is very important when planning trips?" the Poll revealed significant growth in seven travel motivators related to cultural enrichment. Among these motivators, a desire to "understand culture" generated the single highest response.

Zuzanek and Lee (1981) noted that interest in arts and culture for baby-boomers has long been correlated with education. At the same time, the purchase price of many cultural products requires above-average levels of disposable income. Accordingly, as the best-educated and wealthiest generation in North American history, "boomers" possess the two attributes most associated with the appreciation and consumption of culture. The third attribute is gender. A higher percentage of women than men make up the cultural tourism market (Lord Cultural Resources and Planning Management Inc., 1993).

Furthermore, in North America, the travel behaviors of cultural tourists, when contrasted with non-cultural tourists, demonstrate higher trip expenditures, longer trip durations, a preference for hotel and motel accommodation, and a much greater interest in shopping. Estimates of the dollar impact of cultural tourism confirm its economic value. In the New York/New Jersey Metropolitan Region, \$2.3 billion was generated from cultural tourism in 1992. In 1993, cultural tourists to California spent \$243 million on in-state transportation alone (Moskin & Guettler, 1995).

Projections for the future of cultural tourism are highly optimistic. The World Tourism Organization estimates that 37 percent of all trips have a cultural component, and that this type of travel will grow by 15 percent annually (Industry Canada, 1995). With rising education levels among North Americans expected to remain a constant, an increasing number of double income families, an increasing number of women involved in travel decision making, an aging population, and the total dollar value of tourism expected to double by the year 2010, all indicators point to a growing demand for cultural tourism products (Leitch, 1997).

METHODOLOGY

The following two objectives were established to address the purpose of the study: a) design a 35-question survey to be administered to Indianapolis residents and b) utilize a number of statistical techniques, including central tendency measures and multivariate statistical analysis to detect whether resident demographics impact perceptions towards the city's quality of life dimensions and enjoyment of available cultural tourist attractions. The demographic profiles under discussions include gender, age, and household income.

a) Instrument Design

Concerning the choice of quality of life dimensions used in this research project, Stanley (1979) finds that we cannot measure every element and must therefore limit our choices. The appropriateness of any indicator will depend on the objectives of interpretation and the theoretical values used for the study. The social and economic priorities are not the same in every geographic region under investigation at any given time. From these principles, he deduces a few general practices that can guide the choice of such indicators: a) empiricism and previous experience; b) choosing an appropriate set of indicators that reflect a pre-approved interpretation or action plan; and c) compliance with a theoretical model.

André, Delisle, Revéret and Bitondo (1999) stated that quality of life indicators should also meet the following criteria: a) be representative of quality of life; b) be simple and easy to interpret and communicate; c) illustrate long-term trends; d) react to changes in dimensions affecting quality of life; e) suit the scale of the study; f) derive their real meaning from a comparison with defined targets or specific thresholds; g) receive theoretical recognition and comply with standards generally accepted by the experts; h) be readily available or involve low acquisition costs; i) be recognized for their quality and supported by sound documentation; and j) be periodically updated at spatial and temporal intervals, using measuring and sampling procedures suited to the scale of quality of life.

Diener (1995) conducted an inventory of indicator selection practices for the quality of life index and found no standard way of choosing indicators for this index. As a rule, he concluded that indicators are chosen intuitively by the researcher.

The researchers relied on an adaptation of a model developed by Raphael *et al.* (1998) to first design the instrument. The questionnaire was pilot-tested to 15 Indianapolis residents. The original model used a health-based approach to assessing community quality of life and it was applied to Toronto, Vancouver and other North American cities. This community approach to quality of life is centered on people's perception of what would or would not make their lives satisfactory.

The model assumes that certain community dimensions affect people's quality of life, and it draws attention to these. Quality of life is then assessed on the basis of three major indicators:

"being," which reflects "who the individual is" and has physical components; "belonging," which involves people's relationship with their environments; and "becoming," which involves individual activities to achieve individual emotional, mental and spiritual goals, hopes and aspirations

b) Instrument administration

The research team attracted subjects through a systematic random sampling technique that identified every 10th potential participant to complete the intercept survey. All research participants were volunteers, 18 years of age or older, and residents of Indianapolis. Four public, high pedestrian traffic areas were identified to administer the survey during a span

of six weeks. The administration of the intercept survey was carried out during all days of the week and in three daily shifts, mornings (8 am to Noon), afternoons (Noon to 4 pm) and evenings (4 pm to 8 pm). Twenty surveys were completed during each shift. The team collected 760 useable surveys whose data was entered into SPSS for analysis.

c) Statistical analysis

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is a statistical technique that can be used to simultaneously explore the relationship between several categorical independent variables and two or more metric dependent variables. MANOVA is used to look at relationships among dependent variables simultaneously instead of one at a time to control for correlations among dependent variables and avoid type I error. MANOVA is an extension of univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA). The most commonly used values in MANOVA are Wilk's Lambda, F value and p-value. Following a significant overall multivariate result, univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) is conducted to determine which of the individual variables are contributing to the significant multivariate differences. After the null hypothesis is rejected, a post hoc test is performed to determine where the differences lie. The Bonferroni test is used to control for experiment-wide Type I error of multiple comparisons by adjusting the selected alpha level down (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

In this study, MANOVA was used to assess whether an overall difference could be found on the variable of "cultural attractions" with each of the three QOL dimensions, "being," "becoming," and "belonging" based on the three demographic characteristics. Univariate ANOVA was used to examine the mean differences in both the QOL dimensions and the variable of "enjoying cultural attractions" across different groups of subjects with different demographic profiles, i.e. household income, gender and age.

RESULTS

a) Demographic profile

As shown in Table 1, male and female respondents were almost equally distributed, with male respondents accounting for 53.2% of the total sample. In terms of age groups, the mode of age groups was the younger group (18-30 years old), representing 40% of the total. The middle age groups of 31-43 and 44-56 years old made up 25.9% and 25.2%, respectively. Fewer respondents came from the older age group of over 56 years old (8.2%). With respect to ethnicity, most respondents were Caucasian (75.5%). The next large ethnic group was African American (14.7%). Other ethnics included Hispanics (4.2%), Asian or Pacific Islander (1.2%) and other Native Americans (2.5%).

Most of the respondents have lived in Indianapolis for at least 2 years (87.5%). Among them, about 60.9% have lived here for 10 years or more. From Table 1, it can be seen that respondents were about equally distributed in terms of family income. For instance, 33.4% of the respondents had less than \$30,001 household income, another 33.4% had household income of \$30,001-60,000, and the other one-third with household income over \$60,000.

TABLE 1: Respondents' Demographic Profile

		Frequency	Valid Percent (%)			Frequency	Valid Percent (%)	
Gender	Male	402	53.2	Ethnicity	Hispanic	32	4.2	
	Female	353	46.8		Black	111	14.7	
Age	18-30	303	40.0		White	571	75.5	
	31-43	196	25.9		Asian/pacific	14	1.9	
	44-56	191	25.2		Native American	9	1.2	
	Over 56	67	8.9		Other	19	2.5	
Residency	<1 year	45	6.4		Household Income	\$0-\$30,000	246	33.4
	<2 years	43	6.1			\$30,001-\$60,000	246	33.4
	<4 years	76	10.8			\$60,001-\$90,000	128	17.4
	<10 years	111	15.8			\$90,001-\$120,000	77	10.5
	≥ 10 years	428	60.9	\$120,000-\$150,000		39	5.3	

b) Quality of life dimensions

Table 2 summarizes the questionnaire items aggregated into the three general dimensions of quality of life: “being” (physical characteristics), “belonging” (environmental characteristics), and “becoming” (emotional, mental and spiritual characteristics) and the overall rankings from the question on cultural tourism. The lower the score selected the more favorable the response. The means and standard deviations of each item and an overall quality of life score for each dimension were also calculated.

The mean score of participants' enjoyment of cultural tourism is 2.36 on a five-point scale. This indicates that residents' of Indianapolis moderately enjoyed the city's cultural attractions. Mean scores of items that measure the first quality of life factor “being” ranged from 2.04 to 2.43, which showed that respondents seemed to have good overall health, lifestyle, and physical activity frequency. For the second quality of life factor “becoming,” means of the items ranged from 2.47 to 2.92. This revealed that participants felt quite happy, calm, and

their stress level was moderate. Scores for the third quality of life factor “belonging” ranged from 1.57 to 3.20. The results show that respondents had good sense of community and felt quite safe in the city. The two items with the highest mean scores suggested that participants were not very satisfied with the traffic conditions in the city.

TABLE 2: Descriptive Statistics of Quality of Life Items

	Mean	Standard Deviation
I enjoy the cultural attractions the city has to offer	2.36	.87
Quality of Life Factor 1: Being	2.27	.72
Overall health	2.04	.72
Lifestyle	2.37	.88
Physical activity frequency	2.43	1.25
Quality of Life Factor 2: Becoming	2.66	.62
Being happy	2.58	1.01
Being calm and peaceful	2.92	1.07
Stress level	2.69	.96
Have a friend to talk to	2.47	1.36
Quality of Life Factor 3: Belonging	2.49	.53
I feel a sense of community	2.74	1.12
I should feel a sense of community	2.40	1.05
Feeling safe in home during daytime	1.57	.80
Feeling safe in my neighborhood during daytime	1.68	.82
Feeling safe in downtown during daytime	1.96	.80
Feeling safe in my home after dark	1.92	.92
Feeling safe in my neighborhood after dark	2.24	1.05
Feeling safe in downtown Indianapolis after dark	2.70	1.02
Trash or litter lying about on the streets	2.70	1.04
Graffiti on walls, schools, shops etc.	2.51	1.01
Broken windows in shops, public buildings or other vandalism	2.36	1.00
Car theft, damage to cars or theft from cars	2.72	1.06

Dangerous driving including drunk driving, speeding	3.14	1.09
Risk from traffic for pedestrians or cyclists	2.91	1.07
People who you feel unsafe around because of this behavior, attitude or appearance	2.69	1.04
Air pollution	2.70	1.09
Noise pollution	2.62	1.01
Drab/needs sprucing up/better maintenance needed	2.58	.10
Empty buildings/closed shops	2.73	1.06
Old buildings pulled down/unattractive new buildings	2.52	1.02
Safety concerns/crime violence	2.88	1.03
Traffic problems/congestion	3.20	1.07
Loss of green areas/trees/need more trees/parks	2.83	1.13
Impact on Indianapolis from diversity of lifestyles and cultures	2.70	1.04

c) Quality of life, enjoyment of cultural tourism and demography

MANOVA was used to assess whether an overall difference could be found on the variable of “cultural attractions” with each of the three QOL dimension, “being”, “becoming”, and “belonging”, based on the demographic characteristics of household income, gender, and age, respectively. The results of MANOVA on these variables are displayed in Table 3.

1) Overall Effects on “Enjoying Cultural Attractions” and QOL dimensions based on the Demographic Characteristic of Income

As indicated in Table 3, with the demographic characteristic of “household income,” the Wilks’ Lambdas for the separate sets of dependable variables of “Enjoying Cultural Attractions” and each of the QOL dimensions were 0.960, 0.971 and 0.949, respectively, which were all significant at the level of 0.05. Thus, H_1 was accepted. In other words, there were systematic differences on the variables of “enjoying cultural attractions” and QOL dimensions across the levels of household income.

TABLE 3: Tests of Multivariate Effects (MANOVA)

Hypotheses	Effect	Dependent Variables	Wilk's Lambda	F	Sig.
H ₁ : Satisfaction with the three quality of life dimensions is a positive function of satisfaction with enjoyment of cultural attractions based on levels of income.	Income	Being, Cultural Attraction	0.960	3.359	0.001*
		Becoming, Cultural Attractions	0.971	2.216	0.024**
		Belonging, Cultural Attractions	0.949	3.727	0.001*
H ₂ : Satisfaction with the three quality of life dimensions is a positive function of satisfaction with enjoyment of cultural attractions based on gender.	Gender	Being, Cultural Attraction	0.985	5.319	0.005*
		Becoming, Cultural Attractions	0.967	10.257	0.001*
		Belonging, Cultural Attractions	0.980	5.779	0.003*
H ₃ : Satisfaction with the three quality of life dimensions is a positive function of satisfaction with enjoyment of cultural attractions based on age.	Age	Being, Cultural Attraction	0.983	1.465	0.165
		Becoming, Cultural Attractions	0.984	1.239	0.273
		Belonging, Cultural Attractions	0.986	1.034	0.408

* significant multivariate effect at the level of 0.01; ** significant multivariate effect at 0.05.

2) Overall Effects on “Enjoying Cultural Attractions” and QOL dimensions based on the Demographic Characteristic of Gender

Table 3 showed that the Wilks' Lambdas for the separate sets of dependable variables of “Enjoying Cultural Attractions” and each of the QOL dimensions based on the demographic characteristic of gender were 0.985, 0.967 and 0.980, respectively, which were all significant at the level of 0.01. Thus, the second hypotheses with the demographic characteristic of gender was accepted. In other words, there were systematic differences on the variables of “enjoying cultural attractions” and QOL dimensions between male and female respondents.

3) Overall Effects on “Enjoying Cultural Attractions” and QOL dimensions based on the Demographic Characteristic of Age

The Wilks’ Lambdas for the separate sets of dependable variables of “Enjoying Cultural Attractions” and each of the QOL dimensions across different age groups were 0.983, 0.984 and 0.986, respectively, which were not significant. Thus, H₃ with the demographic characteristic of age could not be accepted. In other words, there were no systematic differences on the variables of “enjoying cultural attractions” and QOL dimensions across age groups.

Based on the significant results of MANOVA, the univariate ANOVA tests were employed to address the individual issues for each dependent variable based on the demographic characteristics of “Household Income” and “Gender.” Since MANOVA did not show a significant multivariate effect with the treatment of “Age,” further discussion on its univariate effects was suspended.

d) Univariate ANOVA Analyses across the Levels of Household Income

The results of the univariate ANOVA analyses were shown in Table 4. At the different levels of “Household Income”, the F value and p-value showed statistically significant differences on the variables of “Enjoying Cultural Attractions” in the set of “Being” and “Enjoying Cultural Attractions”, “Becoming” in the set of “Becoming” and “Enjoying Cultural Attractions”, and “Belonging” in the set of “Belonging” and “Enjoying Cultural Attraction” at different significant levels of 0.01 and 0.05.

TABLE 4: Tests of Between Subjects Effects (ANOVA)

Effects	Subgroups	Being	Cultural Attractions	Becoming	Cultural Attractions	Belonging	Cultural Attractions
Income	≤ \$30000	2.34	2.47	2.76	2.46	2.61	2.44
	\$30001-\$60000	2.34	2.24	2.66	2.23	2.50	2.26
	\$60001-\$90000	2.11	2.38	2.56	2.31	2.46	2.35
	\$90001-\$120000	2.14	2.32	2.59	2.29	2.36	2.32
	≥\$120001	2.01	2.47	2.49	2.42	2.21	2.46
	F value	1.826	2.795	1.055	1.327	6.208	1.293
	Sig.	0.122	0.025**	0.025**	0.116	0.001*	0.272
Gender	male	2.24***	2.45	2.76	2.42	2.45	2.42
	female	2.29	2.25	2.55	2.25	2.54	2.27
	F value	0.690	8.913	18.06	5.847	5.114	4.471
	Sig.	0.406	0.003*	0.001*	0.016**	0.024**	0.035**

*: significant univariate effect at the level of 0.01;

** : significant univariate effect at 0.05;

***: dependent variable’s mean of each subgroup

e) Univariate ANOVA analyses across genders

The univariate ANOVA analyses also showed that the mean scores of each specific variable in each separate set of dependable variables between male and female respondents were all significant either at the level of 0.01 or 0.05 (see Table 4). There was one exception which showed no significant differences of the mean scores of the variable of “Being” in the dependent variable set of “Being” and “Cultural Attractions.” In other words, it was found that people of different genders perceived the “cultural attractions” and the QOL dimensions of “belonging” and “becoming” differently. No perception difference was found between males and females at the QOL dimension of “being.” By looking at the mean scores of those significant variables, it further revealed that all female respondents seemed to be more positive than male respondents when concerning these dimensions, except for “Belonging” which was perceived more positively by male respondents.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The findings of the study revealed that satisfaction with the three quality of life dimensions (“being”, “becoming”, and “belonging”) is a positive function of satisfaction with enjoyment of cultural activity. In addition, significant differences were noted in satisfaction levels based on income and gender. Residents in high-income brackets generally reported higher quality of life levels than residents of lower incomes. In the case of gender, women generally reported higher quality of life levels than their male counterparts. These results have obvious policy implications for Indianapolis business leaders, neighborhood planners, members of neighborhood associations, and others interested in the issues that are likely to be perceived by residents as having higher quality of life levels and those which are not. In the past, economic development was primary. The thinking was that if Indianapolis could attract enough corporations and create enough jobs, quality of life would follow. While the equation remains the same, the order is now reversed. Indianapolis, and any other city that wants to attract jobs and sustain growth, must put quality of life first. Economic development, jobs and growth will follow.

These results also have implications for those who are interested in making Indianapolis a healthy place to live for all residents. It seems clear that continued interventions designed to maintain and even increase city-wide quality of life are necessary, as the city -according to the results of this study - will continue to face increased pressure to combat challenges associated with population growth (e.g., higher traffic levels, higher fear of crime, and lower sense of community).

The interactive relationship between residents’ perceptions of quality of life and enjoying cultural attractions across residents’ demographic profiles has shown some practical significance.

First, this reminds the city agencies in charge of the cultural tourism initiative of the interrelationship between people’s quality of life and development of cultural tourism. One implication of this is that quality of life is a foundation of the initiative for increased cultural activity. In order to build Indianapolis into a successful cultural tourism destination, the city government should be committed to the improvement of residents’ quality of life. Second, based on the different perceptions of each demographic group, the city agencies will know where to concentrate in order to effectively promote the concept of ‘cultural tourism’. For example, this study revealed that residents with higher income are more likely to enjoy the city’s cultural attractions, which indicates that the cultural tourism initiative

may get relatively stronger support from this demographic group. In terms of gender, this study showed that female respondents ranked higher than males the quality of life indicators of “being” and “becoming”, while males felt more positively than females toward the quality of life indicator of ‘belonging’. In other words, people of different genders may hold different expectations when it comes to measuring their quality of life and these expectations can theoretically be improved by concentrating on each gender’s perceptions.

This study makes several contributions. This is the first study that explores the relationship between residents’ quality of life perceptions, and its relationship with residents’ enjoyment of cultural tourism activities, and demography. Additionally, it helps the city of Indianapolis to understand its residents’ quality of life issues and whether they enjoyed cultural attractions in the city. However, there are limitations. The survey was conducted at four high-traffic spots that are located in downtown area of the city. Residents who were surveyed at those four locations may be limited to those who work in downtown or those who visit downtown for certain purposes. The demographics of those participants may not represent the entire city population.

Furthermore, there is a broad variety of cultural attractions such as museums, historical sites, galleries, shops, and parks. People may have very different definitions of what counts as cultural attractions. Therefore, the interpretations of cultural attractions may widely vary among our respondents. Finally, this is the first study that measures quality of life issues for the city of Indianapolis. The measurements used for the survey are based on quality of life studies that were conducted for other cities. Thus, the measurements included in this study may not capture all of quality of life concerns that residents of Indianapolis had.

Cultural tourism development has its greatest impacts at the community level. These impacts reach far beyond jobs, wages, and revenues. Social and environmental consequences such as crime, congestion, and pollution also can have serious impacts on the quality of life of residents as well as on the quality of vacations for tourists. Community leaders and planners have a need for information about these impacts. Follow-up studies are required to monitor progress and identify problem areas.

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Highest Tertiary Tourism Education in the Island of Crete: Curriculum Reformation, Perspectives and Conflicts

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ABSTRACT

The importance of studies in the tourism and hospitality sector is recognized globally. The provision of able labor force to confront the needs of the production, in consideration with the need of tertiary academic education, creates a conflict existence in curriculum change between the decision making groups. Nowadays, all the countries, especially the dependent ones of tourism, create tourism educational systems in order to confront the production's increasing needs of capable personnel. This paper is concentrated in the provision of Tourism and Hospitality Education in the island of Crete, Greece. Through the primary research conducted with the tourism academics, it presents the conflicts between them and the actual reasons that enlarge it, the perceptions of the present curriculum (during the period the research was conducted), and the necessity of the future curriculum orientation and reformation.

Key Words: Tourism, Curriculum, Tertiary Education, Academics' Perceptions.

INTRODUCTION

Education can be considered as one among a number of features of a social formation that contribute to human development. Education produces an increase in general and in job-specific knowledge which individuals can subsequently apply in an expanding economy, both to better utilize new technical developments and to generate innovations (Sultana, 1997). A definition of education is '...the reconstruction or reorganisation of experience which adds to the meaning of experience, and which increases ability to direct the course of subsequent experience' (Dewey, 1916: 89 - 90). Christou (1997: 172) believes that 'the practical training and acquisition of experience are valuable for the creation of future systems, and tourism and hospitality education continues to be the *corner stone* of the system'.

Education and training systems in Greece as a source of supply of skilled labour to the tourism and hospitality industry over the years are causing a considerable concern (Goldsmith & Smirli, 1995). It is only in recent years that the development of tourism education in Greece has seen a real transition in focus and importance. One of the effects the complexity of the tertiary education in the country creates is the division of the tertiary education in *higher* (mainly vocational training organizations) and *highest* (Technological Education Institutes and Universities). The rapid growth of tourism during the last decades has created

the need of vocationally trained personnel as well as academically educated in tourism affairs. It is obvious that the tourism and hospitality services' supply is a basic and inseparable part of the Cretan tourism industry.

Crete is the largest island of the country, and the tourism destination that hosts more than 20% of the total tourist arrivals in Greece. The last decade because of the employment opportunities in the island's tourism industry, the unemployment rate was the $\frac{3}{5}$ of the national total (N.S.S.G., 2003). Direct employment in the Cretan Tourism industry increased from 5% in 1981 to 8.1% in 1991 (Athanasiou et al., 1995), and exceeded 10% in 2001 (N.S.S.G., 2003). The Region of Crete (2000) estimated that approximately 40% of the Cretans is directly or indirectly involved in the tourism industry.

There are two Tourism and Hospitality tertiary institutes in the island of Crete. The first one is the *Higher School of Tourist Professions (A.S.T.E.A.N.)*, located in the town of Agios Nikolaos, and the second one is the *Tourism Affairs Department of the School of Administration and Economics of the Technological Education Institute (T.E.I.) of Crete*, located in the city of Heraklion. The T.E.I. of Crete is the only *highest* tertiary institute that provides tourism and hospitality education in the prefecture of Crete.

THE TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY CURRICULUM

It is undoubtedly an area of the curriculum which has been highly resistant to change, and according to Young (1998) it should provide evidence of relations between patterns of dominant values, the distribution of rewards and power, and the organisation of knowledge, as well as the explanatory potential of the concept of the stratification of knowledge. The education must be thought as a journey, not a destination (Pavesic, 1993). The academic curriculum is usually based on the assumption that learning should become highly specialised as early as possible and give minimum emphasis to relations between different subjects. The involving changing valuations of a less stratified, less specialised, and more connective organisation of knowledge can conceptualise the changes in the academic curriculum (Lawrence, 1994). According to the managers in the Greek hospitality industry, the development of students' transferable skills is considered to be of major importance (Christou, 1999).

Required competencies in the educational institutions are differential from those in the tourism and hospitality industry. When the question of what competencies employees need to be effective has been asked among various management groups, the answer seems to have changed over time (Chung, 2000). However, all tourism and hospitality education systems are not based on the same model (Christou, 1997). Some of them emphasize vocational training through apprenticeships. Some others develop an academic approach to tourism and hospitality management and the remaining aim to combine both the academic and the vocational elements (Hofmann, 1998). Actually, the main objective of all models (Zacharatos et. al., 1994) is the same: the maintaining of the hospitality industry's competitiveness in both national and international arenas.

There is a series of outcomes expected through tourism and hospitality education such as the attainment of service quality, the employee empowerment through well-educated staff at all levels, the effective relationship marketing which depends heavily upon empowerment, the effective cooperation and teamwork within hospitality organisations, the industry as an entity, and the educational institutions, the preparation for vocational mobility within Europe mainly through the improvement of language skills, the upgrading of hospitality operating standards, and the recognising of the importance of sustainability of human resource policies for hospitality (Baum, 1995).

As in most developing countries where educational development occurred later than in industrially developed nations, Greece's accelerated expansion of educational services has been achieved at the expense of quality provision. Many governments, (Rajan, 1989; Gaiko et. al., 1995) including the Greek government (Falirea, 1998), have assisted in the development of formal hospitality management education systems.

The recent and rapid development of tourism education clearly presents some important challenges and uncertainties and, not surprisingly, provides scope for differences of opinion. (Airey & Johnson, 2000). In brief the boundaries between the types of courses in the tertiary education's curriculum are not clear-cut. As Tribe (1997) suggests, there are two types of studies in tourism & hospitality curriculum. One, the business-type lends itself well to the idea of a common core. The other, without a unifying element at present, is threatened by it.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The aim of the research was to produce more information about curriculum design in tourism higher education in Crete for further assessment and more specific research attempts in the future. The purpose was to explore the influence of the industry to tourism curriculum structure and reformation. There was also the aim to identify the differentiation of the academics' perspectives in curriculum change, and the problems occurred. Furthermore, there was an attempt to recognize the character of the education provided from the present curriculum in the tourism department. An effort of clarification between vocational training and academic education was made in order to present the purposes that the curriculum was serving (during the period the research was conducted), and the perspective of curriculum changes in the future.

For the study's purposes, the method of structured face-to-face interviews was considered the most appropriate in order to obtain research data. The technique of personal interviewing was undertaken in order to reach the objectives since it is the most versatile and productive method of communication, it enables spontaneity, and also provide the skill of guiding the discussion back to the topic outlined when discussions are unfruitful (Sekaran, 2000). The questions of the interview were mainly 'close-ended', structured with the Likert Scale (1 – 5), and they were selected because it was easier to be elaborated (Clark et. al., 2000) due to the limited time of the study that was to be made. It is a field study, because it is done

in an organisation, which provides education (T.E.I.). The setting is non contrived, because the research took place in the natural environment where work proceeds normally.

As referred, the tertiary education in Greece is divided in ‘higher’ and ‘highest’. The only tertiary institute in tourism ‘highest’ education in Crete is the Tourism Industry Department of the T.E.I.. This reason has led the interviewer to include to its interviews, respondents only from the academic staff of the Tourism Department of the Technological Education Institute of Crete. From the total of 61 academics, 50 interviews were completed. Since the researcher took interviews from specific persons that were in specific academic posts who can provide the appropriate data needed operating on a judgmental basis, the study population is a non-probability one. The attempt of the researcher was to cover a large enough amount of modules in the department. Since the amount of the interviewed persons was more than 80% of the total, it is apparent that the value of the research’s conclusions is maximised and the issue of randomness of the sampling is being annihilated.

Table 1: Academic personnel in the Tourism Department in the T.E.I. of Crete

	Academics in Vocational Modules	%	Academics in Theoretical Modules	%
Academics (Total)	17	100	44	100
Interviewed	14	82,35	36	81,81

Supporting the information obtained, secondary data are also considered important. The most important secondary data were provided from the *Commanding Council* of the *Students’ Union* of the School of Administration and Economics. It includes the views of the students about the provided education in the Tourism Industry Department coming from a primary quantitative research of the commanding council to the students.

The respondents were virtually handpicked in order to ensure they represent a reasonable cross-section of views. They were also selected for their willingness to identify with the aim of the survey. Structured interviews justify the reason that the tourism curriculum is important for the tourism process and development, and finally to make suggestions on the way that curriculum can be structured having a great consideration in academic education and serving long-term aims of tourism development.

Since the research involves primary data from people then consideration had to be given to the issue of confidentiality. The conflict about the curriculum between the theoretical and technical teachers of the Tourism Department of the Technological Education Institute of Crete, has led some of the respondents to ask for anonymity. ‘The guarantees of anonymity increase the reliability and truthfulness of respondents’ inputs to the research’ (Clark et. al., 2000: 42).

Since the research was conducted by personal interviews there was the disadvantage of the possibility in introducing interviewers' biases. The task of interviewing respondents from the tourism academic community was also made more difficult due to the fact that the research was being undertaken during the semester's examination period in highest education institutes in Greece (1 – 25 June 2001) and the following summer vacations of the academics.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

INFLUENCES IN THE CURRICULUM REFORMATION

According to law 1404/83 (article 9, paragraph 2), the general assembly of the department is the authorized assembly of curriculum structure and design. When the proposals of the curriculum change are formed, they are sent to the Ministry of National Education for official approval. Only the permanent teachers have the right, and furthermore, the obligation to participate and vote to the general assembly. There is also a representation from the students to the general assembly. The percentage of the students' representation is 40% of the total number of the teachers. The representatives of the students are elected from the Commanding Council of the students or the Students' General Assembly of the Department.

The total number of the permanent teachers of the department is fifteen (twelve were interviewed). According to the 40% participation of the students, the representatives are six. All the students' representatives were interviewed. There were also interviews according to the influences in the curriculum changes from the chancellor and the two vice-chancellors of the T.E.I., the general secretary of the technical personnel of the institute, and the Principle Head of the School of Administration and Economics. The total sample for the influences in the curriculum reformation includes a population of 23 academics and students.

According to the research findings, the academics believe that the curriculum influences from the industry are considered very low. There is not an actual considerable provision of speakers from the industry in the department's modules. The needs of the local industry do not play a primary role in curriculum structure since the tourism industry's managers do not participate in curriculum changes. Furthermore, the actual communication of the department with tourism enterprises in the region out of Crete is also minimal, and the provision to the students of possible visits to the enterprises during their studies does not actually exist. Its involvement in educational evaluations in the tertiary sector is deteriorated and anaemic. As a result of the respondents' answers it is clear the tourism industry's influence in curriculum changes cannot be considered as high as it was expected.

The scenery actually changes as far as it concerns the students' training placements and the provision/participation of the industry to the assessment of students. This change comes up because of the obligatory students' placement they have and the students' evaluation of the industry. Furthermore the students' placement actually is used from the students as previous work experience and they interested in having good recommendations. Additionally the teachers are really interested in having their students' positive recommendations, because they maximize their opportunities to participate to the industry's research, investment

programs, stock finance applications, and vocational training seminars, organized and funded by large tourism and hospitality chains.

Because of the state influence in the structure, organization and operation in the tertiary education in Greece, the respondents believe that the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs plays an extremely important role in curriculum structure. Its objectives and guidelines have a great impact in the final decisions taken from the general assembly of the department. There is also a considerable influence from the Tourism Secretary General and the G.N.T.O. (Greek National Tourism Organisation).

The interviewed population believes that the head of the department and the departmental committees mainly influence any curriculum structure, design and reformation. The international tourism theories and the development of the tourism phenomenon have a considerably big impact to the general assembly's final decision. The representatives of the students mainly focus in the connection of the production needs with the students' needs of academic education.

Table 2: Curriculum Influences
(Likert Scale: 1 minimum – 5 maximum)

Curriculum Influence	Ministry of Education	Local Industry	National Industry	Head of the Department	GNTO	International Theories
Total Mean	4	1,3	1,3	3,8	4,1	4,2

THE PRIORITIES OF THE ACADEMICS

The academics believe that the students' primary contact with the tourism production is very important. However, they believe that the tertiary education does not have to focus in vocational training. It also has to provide academic education and opportunities to the students to expand their career to the wider possible sectors of their field. The knowledge provided is very essential but it has to be followed with the development of the students' judgement. They believe that since the tourism industry belongs to the tertiary production (service sector) the employees have to know how to behave in each client individually according to its personal needs and points of view.

The graduates of the department have to know the way to participate in the tourism development and to upgrade their knowledge in tourism and hospitality current issues including themselves into the developmental process. The academics believe that lectures have to provide to the students, the techniques they are going to use in order to find the knowledge appropriate for their career. Thus the vast majority of the teachers try to provide an academic background to the students. The tourism theories and the acceleration of the development constitute the necessity of having the students, a background suitable with the development needs of the industry.

CURRICULUM MODULES

The academics believe that modules have to provide to the students, the techniques they have to use in order to find the knowledge appropriate for their career. They also believe that generally, the modules provide to the students the appropriate knowledge to enter the industry. They perceive that the employees not only need a theoretical background able to formulate as a basis to their career, but also vocational training in order to fully understand the needs and difficulties in their occupation

On the other hand, they do not believe that the whole curriculum provides the students the appropriate knowledge in order to enter the industry. Concerning the type of education that has to be provided in tourism, the lecturers of vocational modules believe that tourism is mainly a service and the graduates do not actually need a very high theoretical background. According to them, the department has to be divided in “Tourism” and “Hospitality” sector providing two bachelor degrees instead of one that does now. The department has to maximize the vocational training it provides, especially in the hospitality sector. The theoretical teachers perceive that there is a necessity to maximize the theoretical knowledge of the graduates. They insist that when the graduates have a higher level of theoretical knowledge, they can be more flexible in the labor market. Furthermore the curriculum development has to increase its conduct and familiarity with the tourism industry but not to be fully dominated by the production needs. Their primary aim is to preserve and increase the academic education provided by the department.

Both, technical and theoretical teachers agree that the department of tourism industry has to serve the objective of regional tourism development. They both insist that their views serve this objective. On the other hand, the technical teachers perceive that the industry has to determinate the needs of academic education, while the theoretical teachers mostly focus in the international bibliography and the acceleration of needs in the tourism phenomenon.

All groups insist that, the Ministry of National Education has to reduce its influence to the department’s curriculum reformation. The bureaucratic system in the Greek public sector creates plenty enough confusion to the academics and the students that are members of the general assembly of the department. The respondents to the interviews believe that the head of the department and the departmental committees have the basic influence to any curriculum and module structure, design and changes.

CURRICULUM PROBLEMS

There is a diversity of opinions according the problems that the curriculum faces. Technical teachers believe that the theoretical orientation of the curriculum creates a non-flexible and industrially unacceptable graduate. Following the specific point of view, the graduates face a variety of problems especially in their first job experience in tourism. The tourist enterprises prefer the post-secondary education graduates in order to stem their posts, primary because they are cheaper labor force and secondary, because of their better vocational training.

The theoretical teachers are divided in two groups. The first group believes that the main

problem of the curriculum is the shortage of financial support of the department from the state. Because of the lack of sufficient investments, the students do not have the proper support in order to properly increase their knowledge and experience in tourism affairs and theories. The second one believes that the major influence and control of the Ministry of National Education creates an obstacle in the autonomy of organization and departmental policy. Thus the departmental committees and assemblies can not formulate a strategic policy, which can provide the appropriate knowledge to the graduates in order to participate to the long-term tourism development in the region of Crete and furthermore in national level.

Some academics believe that the major problem the department faces is not actually the curriculum itself, but the vivid conflict between the theoretical and technical teachers. Some other academics perceive that the main problem is the outdated theories taught to the students, not capable to foresee tourism development in the 21st century but it mostly functions as a historical overview in past tourism techniques.

Finally, a small number of academics has pointed out that the curriculum suffers from organizational and structural problems. The main expressed reason was the participation of the academics in curriculum changes. Only the permanent teachers can participate. From the 61 academics in the department only 15 have the right to participate, vote and express their ideas in the general assembly.

Table 3: Curriculum Problems

	Theoretical Teachers	Technical Teachers	Total	%
Financial Support	9	5	14	28
Lack of Theoretical Orientation	9	1	10	20
Ministerial Control	7	5	12	24
Participation of Academics	5	2	7	14
Outdated Theories	3	1	4	8
Conflict between the Academics	3	0	3	6
<i>Total</i>	36	14	50	100

Surprisingly, problems such as the lack of industry relevance in the curriculum change and formation, and infrastructure problems of the department were not mentioned by the interviewed population.

CURRICULUM ORIENTATION

The research findings have provided interesting information dealing with the academics' perceptions in the judgemental basis of curriculum focus. A differentiation of opinions has revealed concerning the curriculum orientation in the form it had when the research was conducted, and the academics' perspectives dealing with the basis of a future curriculum.

The perspectives of the academics concerning the present focus of the curriculum (when the research was conducted) are differentiated according to the group they belong. Most of the technical teachers (71,4% of the total) believe that the curriculum has Academic Orientation. They support a curriculum change in an equal balance between academic education and vocational training. They insist that a curriculum, which provides more vocational training, is the most proper because it gives more labour opportunities to the students.

The technical teachers perceive that the amount of vocational training modules have to be increased. According to them, a parallel reduction of academic orientation is necessary in a future curriculum focus because of the low demands of academic qualifications in the tourism and hospitality industry.

Table 4: Curriculum Focus Perspectives

	Vocational Orientation		Academic Orientation		Equal Balance	
	Technical Teachers	Theoretical Teachers	Technical Teachers	Theoretical Teachers	Technical Teachers	Theoretical Teachers
Present Focus	2	27	10	2	2	7
Future Focus	9	1	1	26	4	9

The opinion of the theoretical teachers is exactly the opposite. A considerably large population of them (75% of the total) believes that the existed curriculum of the tourism industry department mainly provides vocational training. They perceive that the tertiary institutes have the obligation to provide academic education as in all the other departments in Universities and T.E.I. They insist that the vocational orientation actually serves the short-term needs of the tourism industry. They support a more academic orientation of the curriculum. The theoretical teachers believe that this can be settled out with an aggressive policy. They also support a curriculum transformation in two stages. The first stage has to give the opportunity to the students to learn the international academic theories in tourism, and the ability to create long-term strategic policy. The second stage has to deal with the tourism industry change according the policy it follows, and the new tourism industry managers must change the tourism orientation in a more sustainable form.

THE STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVES

In 1996 and 1997 the Commanding Council of the Students' Union in the School of Administration and Economics has formulated a questionnaire and provided it to the students

of the tourism industry department. This questionnaire was divided into two parts. According to the curriculum evaluation, the students responded that the curriculum of the department needs a more theoretical orientation. The students express the need of better facilities, and handbooks provided by the department. They also believe that the knowledge provided in lecture theatres mainly expresses out passed theories in tourism and hospitality issues and does not give the perspectives to the graduates to actively participate in tourism development.

They do not underestimate the necessity of vocational training, but they insist that the role of the tertiary education is to provide a more academically oriented education. They feel the necessity in having an education able to stretch minds, encourage creativity and original critical thought, aggregate the co-operation among the students, create the basis of sustainable provision of knowledge, and allow people to reach their full potential. Most of the students seem to support the perspectives of the theoretical teachers.

According to the interviews taken from the students' representatives (when the research was conducted), their perceptions did not change over the last five years.

CONCLUSIONS

The curriculum appears to have problems in creating competent graduates, able to adequately meet the needs of the tourism industry and face the challenges of the future. But the curriculum change must not only serve the industrial development. A curriculum in the tertiary education primary has to encourage creativity and original critical thought, and provide high academic education. The tertiary education cannot and must not be seen as an industrial mechanism.

The administration must not only be the guarantor of the sufficient operation of the tourism industry department but also to promote and express the needs of an appropriate provided academic education to the students. The administration of the department in cooperation with the senate of the Technological Education Institute's administration has to increase the autonomy of the department from the directives of the Ministry of National Education. In addition, it has to increase its financial ability in order to provide better infrastructure, textbooks and handbooks to the students.

The academics of the department have to decrease their conflict, which is situated between the theoretical and the technical teachers. The totality of the temporary teachers has to participate in the departmental decisions. Finally, all the academics must maximize the already relatively high support in their opinion that the provided knowledge has to connect the production needs with the students' needs of academic education.

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Note:

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Participants' Profile and Quality of Service Experience in Skiing Centres in Greece

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ABSTRACT

In contrary to the traditional service quality assessment methods, this study uses an experiential approach to assess satisfaction of participants in tourism activities. The aim of this research was to examine quality of service experience in skiing activities in Greece and to describe participants' profile. It was also attempted to investigate if any of the service experience factors could contribute in predicting intention to repeat the visit to the ski resort. These could function as a marketing tool to the companies that own ski centres or others who desire to enter the market. The sample consisted of 338 participants and the instrument used was the Service Experience Questionnaire(QOE) of Otto & Ritchie (1996) which includes 4 factors: hedonics, peace of mind, involvement and recognition. It was found that "hedonics" is the factor that is satisfied the most, while "peace of mind" showed the lowest satisfaction. Best predictors of intention to repeat visit were hedonics and involvement. More attention should be given to safety rules and procedures (peace of mind) by the providers. Proper qualification and in-job training could have a substantial affect to participants' perception of service experience. Strategies should be planned to make the specific services more attractive for older people and female potential participants, who could become future clients.

Key Words: service experience, skiing centres, winter tourism, Greece

INTRODUCTION

It is true that, even in the late 80s, the traditional tourist destinations in Greece were Greek islands, or places of the mainland that were attractive because of their archeological monuments. Not only for inlanders but also for foreign tourists, sandy beaches were the ideal place to visit and spend their holidays (Dritsakis, 1995). The stereotype "sea and sun" followed the market promotion strategies in the Greek tourism area and created the perception that this was the one and only tourist product that Greece could provide, mainly in summer time. However, all year tourism of archeological interest existed long ago.

Winter tourism in Greece

Ski centers in Greece did operate before 80s. But it is only some years ago that vacations in the mountains where someone could combine rest and physical activities as skiing, started getting more popular, within Greek people. Today, there are 21 ski centers in Greece which include 103 lifts of 145 seats in a distance of 56 km (Hellenic Tourism Organization, 2004). However, there are more than 40 locations that could be developed in such centers as well. Skiing is one major reason of why people choose to have active vacations in winter time (Weed & Bull, 2004, Standeven & De Knop, 1999), so it is very important to promote it in the context of sport tourism industry.

Literature review

According to literature review the profile of winter sport tourists are male, from young to middle age, who live in urban areas. Those data are in line with Greek studies (Cordes & Ibrahim, 1996; Jusof & Douvis, 2001; Girgolas, Kouthouris, & Alexandris, 2004; Standeven & De Knop, 1999; Papadopoulos, Dimitriadis, Gianniou, & Bourdouvali, 2003). Given the fact that the percentage of foreign winter tourists in Greece compared to the overall annual number of tourists is only 9%, when the mean of this percentage for the main competitive countries is 25% (Pavlopoulos, 2001), we can understand firstly that ski resorts in Greece depend on local people and secondly, that Greek tourism experiences an unconstructive seasonality. Naturally competition for winter tourism is imbalanced because still, the ski centers in Greece operate for a shorter period of time than abroad and due to limited visits, sometimes just throughout weekends. However, thousands of people are involved in the winter sports business.

The importance of this research is straightforward: to use the knowledge of service experience in order to help in creating a governmental master plan, including strategies for promoting and positioning this recreational service to the international market as well. In order to attract more participants and to receive repeated visits to the ski resorts, providers should find out what is the most important aspect of the service.

The service experience in sport tourism

The diversity of projects and possibilities in leisure and recreation for modern society brings about bigger and more specific demands by the participants. Organizational practices, as well as the degree to which customer needs are taken into account, both lead to customer satisfaction with the service and probably to customer retention (Costa & Glinia, 2003). Despite the growing demand for outdoor recreation and leisure services, and the significance of customer satisfaction in international tourism the majority of studies have focused on existing facilities, equipment (Papadopoulos, Dimitriadis, Gianniou, & Bourdouvali, 2003) and customers' profile (Gibson, 1998; Jusof & Douvis, 2001).

The study was theoretically supported by Otto and Ritchie's (1996) approach about the quality of service experience (QOE), which is actually a development of the leisure experience theory of Gunter (1985). The latter, in his attempt to define leisure, is not confined in the description of the activity (for example skiing) and its tangible components (equipment,

lifts, seats, slopes), but he goes further by describing how and where this specific activity establishes itself in the psychological space of the participants. Feelings of pleasure, freedom of choice, spontaneity and self-realization are some of leisure's characteristics that Gunter's theory supports.

According to Otto and Ritchie (1996), service experience depicts the subjective, personal reactions and feelings, experienced by consumers when they consume a service. In tourism and in sport tourism as well, it is of particular importance to understand experiential phenomena, since emotional reactions (that shape the decisions), often prevail among consumers (Wakefield & Blodgett, 1994). A service experience approach, rather than a service quality or attribute-based measure of satisfaction evaluations, may enlighten the customer-specific experience and may lead to a more effective positioning and communication strategy of a service or a company (Vogt et al, 1993). Furthermore, as Barlow and Marlow state (2000, p. 16-17), when consuming, "emotions are always present" ... and function as "the basic motivators for action".

In other words, the service quality (QOS) approach defines the quality criteria in those that the providers think that are useful for them, while the quality of experience approach enriches the criteria, including subjective, holistic, internal (self), general and experiential criteria. Therefore, satisfaction that derives from service in winter skiing centres, may not only be determined by the five characteristics of service quality (tangibles, responsibility, assurance, reliability and empathy) (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1988), but it may include experiential phenomena as well. In the case of outdoor recreational activities, weather conditions, temperature, the natural environment, scenery and other subjective estimations may influence the final level of quality and thus, satisfaction as well. As stated by many researchers in sport tourism, providers of activities should look up to satisfy guest' needs for: action, creativity, social interaction, relaxation, return to the self, adventure and discovering new aspects of life (Finger & Gayler 1993; Opaschowski, 1996; Costa, 2000; Glinia & Laloumis, 1999). A similar model for areas of customer satisfaction is referred by Costa et al (2003) regarding recreational activities in resort hotels.

Furthermore, satisfaction is influenced by the expectations of customers, which is internal to the individual and supported by previous experiences. Therefore, a more holistic and customer – oriented instrument was chosen in order to drug up the emotional and psychological contribution in participants' satisfaction. The Otto & Ritchie's (1996) QOE instrument is not found to be referred in other studies, but we suggest that it can provide a finer understanding of what is essential to the participant in order to satisfy their individual needs. It is generally accepted that the tourism businesses are based on the retention of their clients (Dritsakis, 1995). Also in this study, in order to back up overall customer satisfaction, intention to repeat the visit to the ski resort was measured.

The aim of this study was threefold: first of all to describe participants' profile, in order to promote skiing activities in a more effective way. Secondly, to assess service experience in skiing activities in Greece, in order to understand the feelings and reactions of the participants.

Additionally, this could function as a marketing tool to the companies that own these facilities or others who desire to enter the market. And thirdly, to investigate if any of the service experience factors could contribute in predicting intention to repeat the visit to the ski resort. The results would be essential for reconsidering the strategies for promoting these recreational services.

METHODOLOGY

The sample was collected from 5 ski centres in Northern Greece, during November and December 2003. Participants (N=338) were randomly selected at the reception, the cafeteria and the parking of the ski centres, after having finished their activities. People who participated were first introduced to the purpose and the nature of the study. They were then given an anonymous questionnaire to fulfil, while the researchers were waiting for them to answer, and help in explaining, only if they were asked to do so. However, 338 of them returned the questionnaire (response rate of 67.6%). Questionnaires were collected on the spot. The instrument used was the Service Experience Questionnaire (QOE) developed by Otto & Ritchie (1996). The particular instrument was designed to measure the nature of service experience and was tested for validity and reliability across three sectors of the tourist industry: a) hotels, b) airlines and c) tours and attractions. It consisted of 23 items that are located in 4 factors: *hedonics* (the need for somebody to be doing what s/he loves, to be thrilled by the service, to create precious memories, i.e. "I felt a feeling of escape"), *peace of mind* (the need for both physical and psychological safety and comfort, i.e. "I felt relaxed"), *involvement* (willingness to be active participant in certain service systems, desire to have choice and control in the service offering, i.e. "I felt that I am being educated and informed") and *recognition* (feeling important and confident that s/he will be taken seriously, i.e. "I felt that I am being taken seriously"). Those four factors of QOE explained 61.3% of the total variance and had a reliability coefficient of 0.899 in the study of Otto and Ritchie (1996). The format was a six-point scale ranging from 0='totally disagree' to 5='totally agree'. Six-point scales are often used by hotels and hospitality industry in order to make a clearer distinction between satisfied and unsatisfied percentages of customer groups (Glinia et al, 2001). The research was addressed to Greek participants; therefore, the questionnaire was translated in Greek using back to back technique. We added one item to measure the intention of the participants to repeat the activity in the future.

RESULTS

The analysis of the data included descriptive statistics for demographics, scale means, and multiple regression analysis for the predictive validity of the service experience dimensions regarding intention to visit the resort in the future. The intention to repeat the activity was regressed on the facets of service experience using them as predictors: hedonics, involvement, recognition and peace of mind. According to theory a stepwise approach was conducted, adding one by one every variable that could possibly predict the intention to repeat visit (Koustelios, Kellis & Bagiatis, 1999; Dormann & Kaiser, 2002). Regression analysis is used when independent variables are correlated with one another and with the dependent variable.

In stepwise regression the number of independent variables entered and the order of entry is determined by statistical criteria generated by the stepwise procedure (Coakes & Steed, 1999)

Demographics

According to demographics, the majority of the participants were male (60.9%), the age was relatively very young (M=24.30), and most of the participants lived in urban areas (70.8%). Regarding familiarity with the activity, the overwhelming majority had been to a similar place before (74.9%), whereas regarding familiarity with the particular ski centre, 58.4% of the participants had been at that place before. According to the participants' residence, 68.6% live in big cities, 21.9% live in smaller towns and only 8.9% live in villages.

Scale descriptives

Using descriptive statistics, it has been found that hedonics is the factor that showed the highest satisfaction, while the "peace of mind" dimension showed the lowest (table 1). In the question: "The activities I did, encourage me to come again" the vast majority answered that they intended to repeat the activity in the same location (88.5%) (0= 'totally disagree' to 5= 'totally agree')

Table 1: Factor means and percentages of service experience in skiing activities

Service experience factor	M (SD)	[0-2] dissatisfied	[3-5] satisfied
Hedonics (i.e. thrilled by the service)	3.57 (.707)	9.5%	90.5%
Involvement (i.e. I was informed)	3.44 (.779)	11.4%	88.6%
Recognition (i.e. important/confident)	3.33 (.1.00)	14.2%	85.8%
Peace of Mind (i.e. I felt relaxed)	3.29 (.818)	11.8%	88.2%
Intention to repeat the activity	3.88(.979).	11.5%	88.5%

Predictive validity of service experience dimensions

In order to estimate the relative importance of the quality of service experience dimensions, we contacted a stepwise hierarchical regression analysis, with depended variable the "intention to repeat to activity in future". Results are shown on table 2.

Table 2: Relative importance of the service experience dimensions in predicting intention to repeat visit to the ski resort

Step	Variables	R ²	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
1	hedonics	.220	.220	93.216	.000
2	involvement	.310	.089	42.660	.000
3	recognition	.328	.018	8.699	.003
4	Piece of mind	.394	.067	36.061	.000

1 Predictors: (Constant), hedonics

2 Predictors: (Constant), hedonics, involvement

3 Predictors: (Constant), hedonics, involvement, recognition

4 Predictors: (Constant), hedonics, involvement, recognition, piece of mind

Notes: Mult. R = 0.628; R square = .394; Adj. R = 0.387; F(4,327)=53.235, p<0.001.

Table 2 depicts the statistics of the stepwise regression analysis. Firstly the independent variable “hedonics” was entered to the model. The R square statistic indicates the percentage of variance explained by a combination of predictors and the R square change statistic indicates the percentage of variance explained by one predictor. The significance of this change is interpreted by the value of F, which is evaluated at the level of 99%. The R Square statistic of model 1 presents that “hedonics” explains 22% of the variance of the intention to repeat the activity, which was statistically significant, F Change (1,330)=93.216, p<0.001. When “involvement” was entered to the model 2 an additional 8.9% of the total variance was explained, which sums up for 31% of the total variance of “intention to repeat the activity” and was also statistically significant F change(1,329)=42.660, p<0.001. When “recognition” was entered to the regression model, R square increased only an extra 1.8% and F change was not statistically significant. When “piece of mind” was entered to the model, an additional 6.7% was explained, which summed up for 39.4% of the “intention to repeat the activity” and was statistically significant, F change (1,327) =36.061, p<0.001.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

By analyzing the demographics, an interesting finding is that the overwhelming majority is young male participants. Perhaps, one should investigate what could make the specific services more attractive for older people and female potential participants, or what alternative activities could be offered at the same locations, to lure the particular categories. Concerning women’s participation, the findings of this study seem to be in accordance with those of other researchers (Wesely & Gaarder, 2004, Johnson et al, 2001). Women are most likely to feel constrained by personal safety reasons and inadequate facilities. Having in mind that there are significant changes in the world age structure (for the benefit of third age) and that there is an income augmentation in western societies; it is not unexplainable why an increase in third age tourists occurs lately. As for older people, a recent research by the

Hellenic Institute for Tourism Research and Predictions (2004) revealed that the third age tourists, compared to younger age ones, provide to the place they visit more benefits, because they like consuming local products, food and excursions. On the other hand they create no problems to the local communities. In other words they seem to be very important clients. In another study regarding skiing centres in Greece (Girgolas, Kouthouris, Alexandris, 2004), it was revealed that motivation of the participants does not seem to be affected by the age of the participants. People do enjoy active winter holidays while getting older as well. This comes to highlight the value of this specific target group.

It is important for taking a managerial decision, to have a thorough look at the true nature of the consumers' reactions. The present article aimed at assessing service experience in skiing activities in Greece and investigating the effects of service experience dimensions on intention to repeat the visit to the ski resort. As it was shown from the results, the overwhelming majority of the participants (88.5 %) intended to revisit the same ski centre, which indicates that the ski centres of the study manage their services well.

Describing the service experience factors, it was revealed that most of the participants were satisfied with what they experienced. Even though they were quite satisfied in all of the four dimensions of service experience (mean > 3 in all the dimensions), hedonics had the highest mean, whereas peace of mind had the lowest. Otto & Ritchie (1996) found similar results in their initial use of QOE questionnaire for tours and attractions. The most important factor for tours and attractions was hedonics and second important factor was piece of mind, while for Greeks in ski resorts, hedonics was the most important and involvement was the second important factor. Also, piece of mind is the least satisfied of all, which calls for managerial action by the providers.

One could argue that the dimension of hedonics is more related to the nature of the activity (being thrilled, doing a favourite activity, having precious memories) according to Otto and Ritchie (1996). On the other hand involvement, recognition and merely peace of mind, they all have to do with the human factor that is involved in the service process (instructors, ski centre personnel, tourist agency personnel, etc). Peace of mind, which includes physical and psychological safety and comfort, had the lowest mean, fact that leads to the assumption that more attention should be given to safety rules and procedures by the services' providers. Proper qualification and in-job training could have a substantial affect to participants' service experience. Generally, the differences among factors are not very significant, indicating that the ski activity experience is much wider ranging than multidimensional overall.

What is valuable for agencies that provide leisure services is participants' intention to repeat the activity. Having this in mind, the four service experience dimensions, when taken as predictors, jointly explained almost 40% of the variance of the intention to repeat the visit. Hedonics, which predicted 22% of the intention to repeat visit and involvement, which predicted 9% of the intention to repeat visit, could indicate some new techniques that could be taken more serious in account when agencies try to receive repeated visits.

The percentage remaining unexplained, shows that there is an almost 60% of the intention to return to the ski resort inexplicable. This can be related to constraints such as the price of the participation to the activities as well as the distance to be driven to arrive to the resort. As can be seen on table 2, recognition does not contribute substantially to the prediction of repeated visits. Most likely, this is because a larger percentage of visitors (14.2%) were dissatisfied by this experiential dimension. On the other hand, hedonics contributes the most in predicting participants' intention to come back. Analysing this result one could argue that people who love the specific activity (skiing) intend to come again no matter how they feel about the rest dimensions. Nevertheless, "involvement" and "peace of mind" also contribute significantly in predicting the intention to repeat the activity. This means that hedonics itself is not enough to reassure that people intent to come back to the skiing centres. In other words, agents should take into account that the need of participants to be thrilled by the service and to create precious memories is not enough to bring them back to the skiing centres. If they have to choose among different skiing centres, their crucial criterion may be the place where the need for both physical and psychological safety and comfort is fulfilled.

It is generally accepted that the tourism businesses are based on the retention of their clients. In Greek hotels, almost 30% of the customers are repeaters (Dritsakis, 1995). Our findings support this notion, adding importance to the fact that repeaters tend to have a more positive influence to the image of the service providers. Despite the power repeaters have in attracting other customers, no extra provisions are needed for this particular group to retain them in the activity, given that they are satisfied. These findings are in accordance to Barlow & Maul' findings (2000) and other tourism authors' (McIntosh & Goeldner 1990; Morisson, 1996).

Concluding, we found a moderately but significant ($p < 0.001$) relationship between service experience and intention to repeat visits. Hedonics (the need for somebody to be doing what s/he loves, to be thrilled by the service, to create precious memories, i.e. "I felt a feeling of escape") and involvement (willingness to be active participant in certain service systems, desire to have choice and control in the service offering, i.e. "I felt that I am being educated and informed") were best predictors of repetitive visits. We highlight the importance of studying service experience, especially in new activities, because, as Ozment & Morash (1994) argue, understanding consumer may be of high cost for a company, but the pay off is high as well. As for the specific activity that was studied in this paper, it would be important for the people involved in the market to realize that first and before all; it is an experience and then a service.

Implications for practice and future research

It is important to remember that this study was both exploratory and correlational; it did not explain a lot about intention to repeat the visits. A limitation of this study was the fact that it was contacted using quantitative methods. However, it should be wiser to contact further research in outdoor activities, in a service experience context, using more qualitative methods such as interviews, perhaps contacted by the very same providers of the service. This could help us gain in depth and reveal any special and unique characteristic related to each outdoor activity and service provider.

An interesting point would be to investigate whether a possible improvement in the service elements, where the human factor is involved (peace of mind, recognition and involvement) would change the way of how participants, or possible participants, feel about the actual activity (hedonics). This could be achieved by special training courses on communication, sociability, empathy and other human skills.

Also, proper qualification and in-job training could have a substantial affect to participants' experience from the service.

This way, more emphasis should be given not only to natural resources that are crucial to people's feelings when skiing, but also to what people of the market can do to enhance this experience in the most authentic and less artificial way, acting as accommodators and not as vendors.

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Tourism pattern in Uttaranchal: cure for seasonality syndrome

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ABSTRACT

Uttaranchal, the mountainous state of India is divided into Garhwal and Kumaon regions. Uttaranchal has innumerable tourism destinations, which include Hill Stations, Pilgrimage Centers, Ski Resorts, Water, Land and Aerial Adventure Sports Centers. This state is known for its snow clad mountains and unexploited natural beauty all around. The products and services of Tourism Industry in Uttaranchal face seasonal fluctuations of demand. The problem of seasonality is resulted mainly due to climatic conditions, public holidays and attitude of tourism operators and tourists towards the destination. This paper aims to analyze the tourist recourses of the state on one hand and to appraise its seasonality syndrome on the other. The study is based on the secondary analysis of the literature on the tourism seasonality as well as on tourism pattern in Uttaranchal. In addition to this a primary study was carried out with 300 questionnaires covering Garhwal region, the tourism hub of Uttaranchal. This paper examines whether seasonality poses a problem for the Uttaranchal or whether it is simply a way of life. The results imply the public sector and private sectors will have to cooperate each other to tackle the problem of seasonality.

Key Words: Seasonality Syndrome, Garhwal, tourism pattern, demography, tourist circuits.

INTRODUCTION

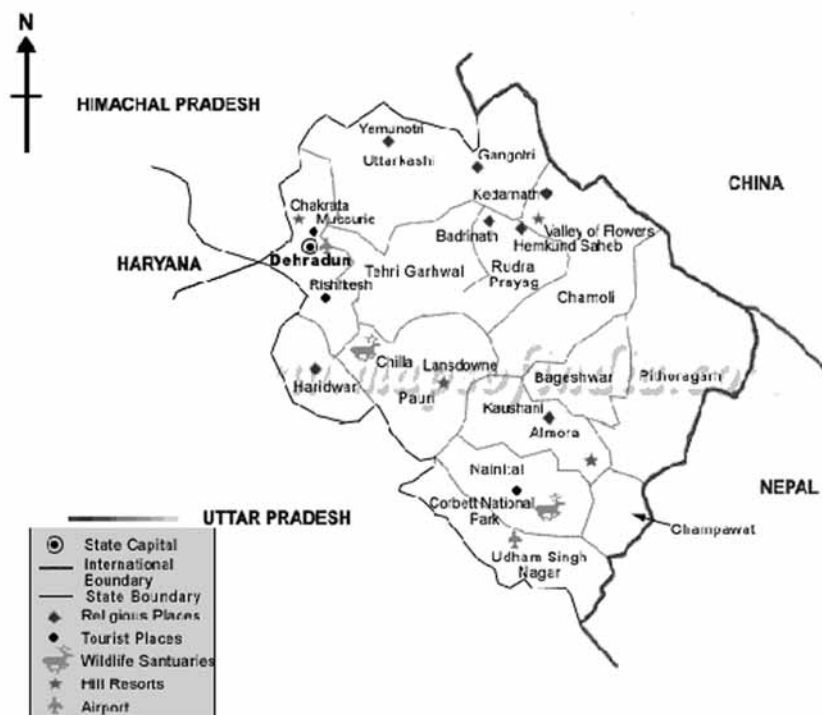
Lying in the north of the vast and bountiful expanse of India and cradled in the awesome beauty and calm serenity of the stately Himalayas, Uttaranchal-the Holy land has attracted tourists and pilgrims from world over since times immortal. Situated between north latitude 28° 53' 24" to 31° 27' 50" and east longitude 77° 34' 27" to 81° 02' 22". Out of its total area 47,325 sq. kms. is covered by mountains while 3800 sq. kms. is *plain*. The western part of the Himalaya, is included in the Garhwal Region, which lies between latitude 29° 26'N - 31° 28'N and 77° 49'E - 80° 6'E with a total area of 29,089 sq. Km. River Tons separates Garhwal and Himachal Pradesh in the west. The snow – clad peaks of the higher Himalaya make the Indo-Tibetan boundary in the north while in the south, this region starts from the foothill zone of the Himalaya. Uttaranchal State, comprising of Garhwal and Kumaon divisions. Garhwal Division has 7 districts namely Tehri, Chamoli, Pauri, Dehradun, Haridwar, Utrakashi, and Rudraprayag while Kumaon Division consists of Nainital, Almora, Pithoragarh, Udham Singh Nagar, Bageshwar and Champawat. (Dept. of Tourism Government, Uttaranchal).

TOURISM PATTERN IN UTTARANCHAL

Uttaranchal is a paradise for Adventure Tourism. One can easily find the sheer variety of adventure sports ranging from Mountaineering (Bhagirathi, Chowkhamba, Nandadevi, Kamet, Pindari, Sahastratal, Milam, Kafni, Khatling, Gaumukh etc.), Trekking, Skiing (Auli, Dayara Bugyal, Munsyari, Mundali), Skating, Water Sports (in all major rivers and lakes) to Aero Sports like Hand Gliding, Paragliding (Pithoragarh, Jolly Grant, Pauri) make Uttaranchal one of the most attractive destination for adventure sports in India. The visit to Badrinath temple will be incomplete if Valley of Flowers and world famous skiing resort at Auli are not gone through (Bagri S.C., 2002).

This state has rich and array of cultural and natural wealth. Along with the world famous Corbett National Park, Uttaranchal has several breath taking destinations for Wildlife Tourism. These are Rajaji National Park, Valley of Flowers National Park, Kedarnath Musk Deer Sanctuary, Nandadevi National Park, Govind Pashu Vihar, Asan Barrage Chilla and Saptrishi Ashram, the last four being a delight for bird watchers (Singh T.V., 2003). The following *Figure - 1* shows the tourist map of Uttaranchal:

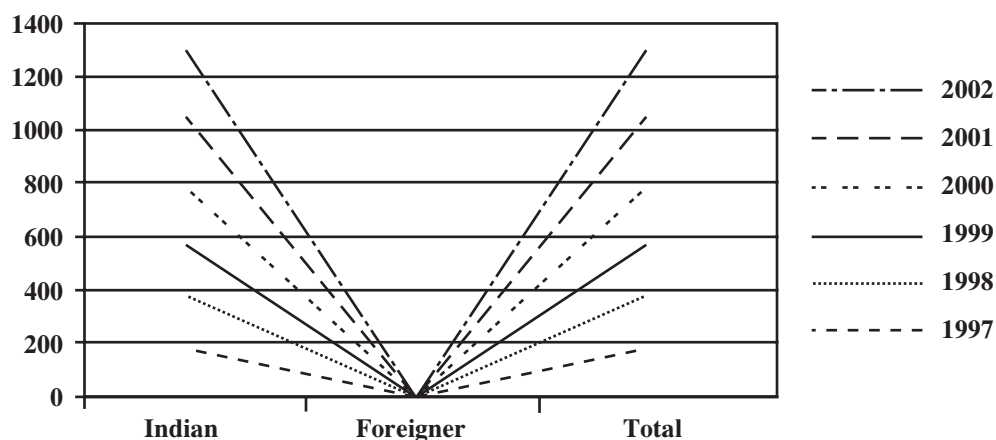
Figure –1 Location Map of Uttaranchal



Source: Dept. of Tourism, Government of Uttaranchal Dehradun.

The recently formed state of Uttaranchal is a home of different religions including the famous Hindu's Char Dham (Four Pilgrimage Journey) i.e. Gangotri, Yamunotri, Kedarnath, Badrinath the sacred Sikh pilgrimage of Hemkund, Lokpal, Nanakmata, Meetha Reetha Sahib and Piran Kaliyar have attracted seekers for spiritual fulfillment to Uttaranchal. Uttaranchal State is known for fascinating tourist destinations in the world, wherein lacs of tourists and pilgrims come for religious and recreational activities round the year (Gupta S.K. 2003). The break up of Indian and foreigners visiting Uttaranchal can be appraised by the following *Figure - 2*.

Figure –2 Tourist Arrival Pattern in Uttaranchal (In Lac)



Source: Dept. of Tourism, Government of Uttaranchal Dehradun.

The above shown figure describes the comparative figures of the tourist arrivals from 1997 to 2002 in Uttaranchal. From year 1997-2002 the Domestic tourists count is 176.58, 191.47, 205, 225, 247, 265 lac whereas foreigners share is 0.51, 0.56, 0.58, 0.64, 0.7, 0.1lac respectively.

MAJOR TOURIST CIRCUITS IN UTTARANCHAL STATE

In order to exploit the maximum of tourism potential the Uttaranchal state is divided into several tourist circuits according to geographical location and road route to the destination places. The major circuits identified and developed by *Department of Tourism, Government of Uttaranchal* are as follows:

1. Dehradun-Rishikesh-Haridwar Circuit
2. Yamunotri-Uttarkashi-Gangotri Circuit
3. Devprayag-Pauri-Lansdowne Circuit
4. Rudraprayag –Kedarnath Circuit
5. Kedarnath-Badrinath Circuit
6. Almora-Nainital-Ranikhet Circuit

1. Dehradun-Rishikesh-Haridwar Circuit: Mostly located in the plains, Haridwar and Rishikesh are the religious cum natural places while Dehradun is natural tourist Destination. World Renowned sages and saints live here and preach the devotees. The famous Kumbh fair is organized in Haridwar after every twelve years. Millions of devotees take dip in the holy river Ganga during the fair. Besides these giant religious places Dehradun is known for its natural beauty and educational institutions. In this circuit Mussoorie, Dak Pathar, Chakrauta and Narendra Nagar are the other major centers of tourist interest.

2. Yamonotri-Uttarkashi-Gangotri Circuit: This circuit has the originating place of the two huge Indian rivers Ganga and Yamuna. It is famous for its Pilgrimage, Natural Surroundings and moderate to cold climate. Utterkashi town is districts headquarter and the main stay point to reach Gangotri and Yamunotri.

3. Devprayag-Pauri-Lansdowne Circuit: This is also very beautiful circuit, starting from Devprayag, the confluence point of River Alaknananda and Bhagirathi, from this place the river Bhagirathi is called the sacred Ganga. Srinagar Garhwal is on the mid way from Devprayag to Pauri, is situated on the bank of river Alaknanda, and is an educational town. Pauri town is situated on a hill slope. The chain of Himalayan Mountain system can be seen from Pauri. A way from pauri leads to Lansdowne, which is an army headquarter. Lansdowne is remained covered by snow during the winters.

4. Rudraprayag –Kedarnath Circuit: Along the valley of river Mandakini, this circuit is extending from Rudraprayag to Tungnath, Okhimath, Madmaheshwar, Guptkashi, Tryuginarayan, and Kedarnath. To reach Kedarnath, 14 km trekking is there from Gaurikund. Similarly to reach Madmaheshwar, about 50 km trekking with one-day stay in Rownleek. Tungnath is also located in the hill top having 5 km trekking from Chopta.

5. Kedarnath-Badrinath Circuit: Badrinath is world famous pilgrimage located in the Chamoli District. This circuit is known for its magnificent natural beauty and many religious places. Sikh's famous pilgrimages Guru Govind Gaht and Hemkund Saheb are located in this region. The two big passes; the Niti Pass and Mana Pass are located here. The world most famous Valley of Flowers is also the main attraction of this circuit. Auli, the world's highest skiing point located in this circuit where the trend of winter games celebration is getting impressive position. Many Alpine Meadows of the tourist interest such as Badni Bugyal, Roopkund and Auli Bugyal are some of them.

6. Almora-Nainital-Ranikhet Circuit: This circuit is located in the Kumaon region of Uttaranchal. Nainital is land of lakes where 7 lakes are located. Naukuchiya Tal, Bhimtal, Mukteshwar, Ramgarh and Corbett National Park are some places of tourist interest located near Nainital. Ranikhet is a hill resort located at an altitude of 1,829 metres. Being cantonment, the Kumaon Regiment Center, Museum and Memorial are the jewels Ranikhet. Almora, one time capital of Kumaon perched on a 5 km long horse saddle shaped ridge.

The above-described circuit no. 1 and 6 are popular among vacationers, and leisure tourists

round the year due to its easy accessibility. The tourist circuit no. 2,3,4 and 5 are accessible only during the months of April to November every year due to its location at high altitude. Therefore the problem of seasonality is more prominent in last four tourist circuits.

METHODOLOGY

Overall Data Collection Approach: In order to explain the seasonality in Uttaranchal two methods were adopted. First, secondary sources, such as published and unpublished studies and statistics, were collected and analyzed. Second, this paper reports some of the findings of a survey of Hospitality entrepreneurs, which was undertaken in June 2002 to investigate seasonality issue in Uttaranchal.

Sampling: The sample used in this study included the five types of hospitality enterprises: Government Hospitality Units (G.M.V.N. and K.M.V.N.), Restaurants, Private Hotels, Kiosks and Guest Houses. The sample was based on four popular destinations of Garhwal and Kumaon Division of Uttaranchal. The sample of 350 hospitality enterprises was drawn from a list assembled from various sources. To select firms from the lists, systematic stratified sampling method was found most appropriate. The basis for stratification was the category determined by the Department of Tourism, Government of Uttaranchal.

Questionnaire Design: The questionnaire was designed to investigate the condition of Hospitality industry in Uttaranchal. However; the present paper reports only those questions, which deals with the issue of seasonality. These included the seasonal proportion of workforce, for which months of the year the enterprises remained open, the monthly occupancy rates and variations in turnover in various hospitality enterprises.

Data Analysis: The entire data was transferred to SPSS programme with which comparisons between different variables were studied. As methods of analysis, interpretations of direct distributions and cross tabulations and in some cases the chi square test were used. However, the results of this study are only descriptive, as the number of interviews is insufficient to represent the whole population of the Uttaranchal state.

DEMANDS OF TOURISTS VISITING UTTARANCHAL

The tourists visiting to Uttaranchal can be categorized into three major categories. This categorization will be helpful in understanding diverse needs of the tourists visiting to the state. These tourist classes are:

- Pilgrims / Religious tourists
- Pleasure Tourists / Holiday Makers,
- Special interest Tourist / Adventure and Nature Lovers

Religious tourists require budget lodging, low priced but hygienic food and relatively easier and cheaper means of transport. Pleasure Tourists generally belongs to rapidly expanding,

Upwardly mobile upper middle class tourists whose requirements are more sophisticated as its members are willing to pay a little extra for reasonably good accommodation and food (Bagri S.C. 1992).

The third category of Special interest Tourist / Adventure and Nature Lovers is the fastest growing sector. These tourists engage themselves in wide range of activities involving teamwork, Spirit of adventure and love for outdoor activities. Non-traditional tourist attractions like river rafting, snow skiing, aero sports, mountaineering, trekking, etc. are some of the emerging concepts of Special interest tourism in the region (Bagri S.C. 1992).

Major motivational factors influencing tourists in choosing their destination to visit are as per the following *Figure - 3*:

Figure-3 Motivational Factors Among The Tourists

S. No.	Motivational Factors	Per cent	Uttaranchal
1.	Personal Security and Safety	73.7	+
2.	Friendly and Interesting People	53.1	+
3.	Comfort	63.6	+
4.	Variety of food	35.6	-
5.	Communication system	62.0	-
6.	Shopping facilities	61.1	-
7.	Local transport facility	35.6	-
8.	Tourist attractions	59.0	+
9.	Culture and History	40.8	+
10.	Cleanliness	23.9	+

Source: FICCI, New Delhi *Note*-"+" Strength "- " Weakness

Pilgrims and religious tourists have to travel mostly during the season time since the desired destinations are not accessible during the off-season. However, the second and third categories of tourists travel throughout the year in various parts of Uttaranchal (Self Survey, June 2002).

SEASONALITY AND ITS ANNIHILATION

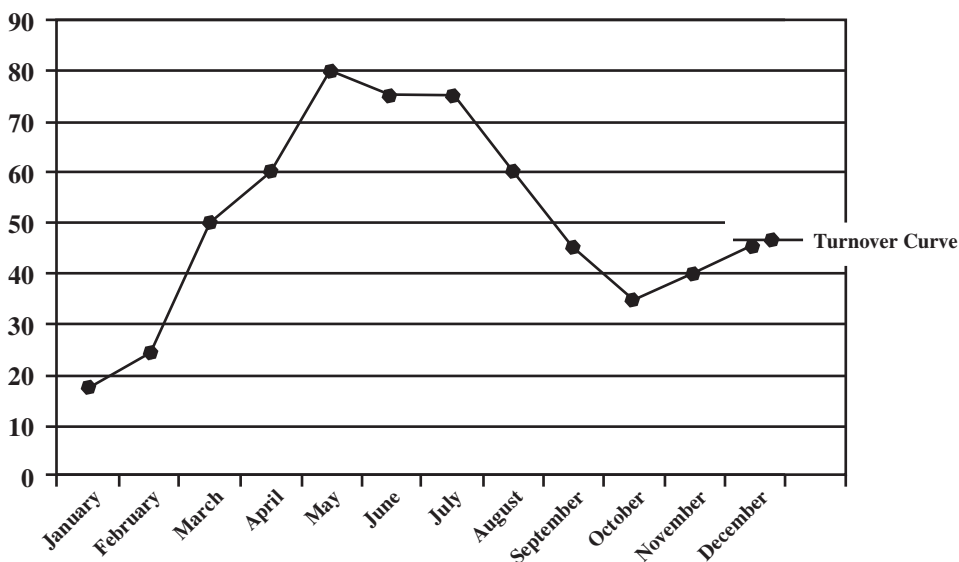
Every year, the shrines of Gangotri, Yamunotri, Kedarnath, Badrinath and the sacred Sikh pilgrimage of Hemkund and Lokpal are opened some time during last week of April to first week of May and are closed in mid November, leaving only six-month season for the tourists. This shows the highly seasonal nature of these tourist destinations. During season hotel operators, transport operators and local vendors have to cater to large number of tourists

whereas during lean season they feel idle and jobless (Self Survey 2002).

International tourism, could not pick-up in the region to the desired extent mainly due to (i) image of Uttaranchal as a religious sanctuary, (ii) non accessibility of most part of the region during winter months when maximum foreign tourist visit India; and (iii) lack of effective promotional strategies. In fact, the leading travel agencies/ tour operators too are either not aware of the tourist potential of Uttaranchal or do not take it up owing to lack of suitable facilities/amenities (Bagri S.C. 2002).

In order to have the idea of business of hospitality properties round the year a survey was conducted. The results of which has been presented by the means of the following **Figure -4**. From this figure it is quite clear that the turnover of hospitality operations starts rising from the month January (18%) and it continue increasing up to month May (80 %) and June (75%) and July (75%) are the stagnation months followed by downfall in the months of August (60%), September (45%), October (35%), November (40%) and December (45%).

Figure -4: Monthly Variations In Turnover Of The Sampled Hospitality Enterprises



Note: Jan. N =18; Feb. N =25; March N =50; April N =60; May N =80; June N =75; July N =75; August N =60; Sep N =45; Oct N =35; Nov N= 40;Dec N= 45

Source: Self-Survey

DETERMINANTS OF SEASONALITY:

Seasonal fluctuations of demand are a prominent feature of hospitality industry. Seasonality results from the desire of holidaymakers to travel during the summer months and is linked to temporal variations in the attractions of particular tourism resource (Bell, 1989; Higham and Hinch, 2002; Jang, 2004). The tendency of tourist flows to become concentrated into relatively short periods of the year (Allcock, 1989, p 387) seems to be among the major problems faced by the tourism industry.

There are various determinants of seasonal fluctuations in the demand of hospitality products. The most widely cited of these are regular and recurring temporal changes in the natural phenomena at a particular destination, which are usually associated with climate and the true seasons of the year (Allcock, 1989; Ashworth and Thomas, 1999; Baum and Hagen, 1999; Butler, 1994; Frechtling, 1996; Lim and McAleer, 2001). This is not only because of the good weather, but also because of human decision factors such as the lengthy school holidays and business and public holidays.

However, seasonality in hospitality is not always attributable to the desire of holidaymakers to take their vacations in the high season. It is also due to restrictions that make it complicated or even impossible to take off-season holidays (Lundtrop *et al*, 1999). From the supply side these restrictions include the inability of the governments to persuade entrepreneurs to keep their businesses open during the off season, the availability of the labor and unwillingness of tour operators and carrier providers to keep on servicing a destination during the low season.

Apart from having innumerable places of pilgrimages, Uttaranchal has many effective and potential holiday resorts. It is a non-industrial state and has something to offer to every type every age and every interest group of tourists. Though, Uttaranchal attracts tourists both during summer and winter season, there is still the need of reframing tourism policy in the state. Due to this seasonality syndrome, very small fraction of the tourism resources of Uttaranchal has been explored. Everyone concerning to the tourism has the desire to continue the tourism throughout the year.

OUTCOMES OF SEASONALITY:

The dramatic increase of population at specific periods of the year experienced by tourist destinations causes environmental problems, traffic congestion and resource scarcity that place a strain on the destinations' regular infrastructure and services (Andriotis, 2000). The per capita electricity consumption of tourists is much higher than that of the residents and that electricity blackouts are aggravated by high tourist demand during the peak season. Similar problems occur with regard to water supply, since seasonal arrivals of tourists require high quantities of water.

Seasonality is considered by many researchers (Bonn *et al*, 1992; Butler, 1994; Jang 2004) to be the most pervasive dilemma confronting destination promoters and managers of hospitality and tourism businesses. The compression of the operating period into a few months leads difficulties in gaining access to capital, low return on investment and consequently high risk, overuse of facilities at certain period and underuse at others. All this means that increased

earning need to be obtained during the high season to offset losses in the off season (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). Consequently the suppliers, in order to make the most of peak tourism demand, are forced to reduce the quality of their services, and this frequently leads to visitor dissatisfaction.

The seasonal nature of tourism creates fluctuations in the levels of local employment and hospitality workers often have to find other employment or remain unemployed during the off season. Thus there is high unemployment in the off-season and lack of staff in the peak season.

MEASURES TO BE ADOPTED TO TACKLE THE SEASONALITY IN UTTARANCHAL

To overcome the problem of seasonality, promotion of adventure tourism and other alternate forms of tourism (M.I.C.E. Tourism, Yoga and Meditation, Ayurveda and Spa Tourism) are the best options for this region. If we analyze the tourism resources of the state we find that it has everything for conducting as well as promoting Trekking, Skiing, Rock climbing, Rafting, Mountaineering and Nature camping for the tourists. In order to employ stakeholders throughout the year it is necessary that tourism activities be performed throughout year.

During the survey the respondents were also asked to specify the measure adopted by them to tackle the problem of seasonality. As shown in the **Figure -5**, the most common action that was taken was the provision of new services/products or improvements to the existing ones (56 %). This is perhaps not unexpected, given the tourism and hospitality industry's tendency to see product improvement as the principal competitive tool. The second most common tool used to increase turnover, was offering discounts and special price schemes to the customers, used by 22% of operators. However, it should be kept in the mind that lower prices may lead to compromise with the quality of products and services offered. Some enterprises (16) had made efforts in collaboration with more tour operators to sell their products and services during off-season. On the other hand some (8%) operators opted to have cooperation with public sector enterprises to get more business during the off-season. Other action mentioned by small number of respondents was remaining open longer or around the year (8%).

Figure-5 Measures Taken by Hospitality Operators to Combat Seasonality

Actions	Percentage
Provision of new or improved services/ products	46%
Discounts/Special prices	22%
Cooperation with public sector agencies	8%
Cooperation with more tour operators	16%
Open for longer period or all year round	8%

Source- Self-Survey

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this research shows that the areas incorporated in the survey have highly seasonal attributes, with the tourist season lasting from April to November and peaking from July to October. Local enterprises of the Uttaranchal appears to be satisfied with the situation or scarcity of resources compel them to accept it. The tourism operators counter the seasonality by providing new products and services or by providing low price packages during the off-season time. To combat seasonality in Uttaranchal close cooperation in Public sector, Private sector and Government is required. They should come close to take initiatives to take initiatives to expand the season by designing new packages like programmes to attract new markets, such as Conference/Incentive Tourism, Adventure sports, Ethnic Tourism, Rural Tourism, Eco Tourism, Mountaineering and Trekking activities.

Since, most of the tourist spots of the region are non accessible during the winter months. This problem has to be removed first in order to tackle the problem of seasonality. To make the various parts accessible entry of small charter planes to various spots should be encouraged which will make journey comfortable and speedy. In addition to this condition of roads, buses and coaches has to be mode tourist friendly.

In addition, studies should be undertaken to investigate whether tourism workforce actually want to work out of season and whether tourism entrepreneurs are willing to keep their businesses open during the off season period, since there is no reason to expand the season if there is no support from the local population (Andriotis, 2005,p 221).

Though ice capped mountains during winters have capabilities to attract enough tourists to this region. On the pattern of the accepted hill stations such as Mussoorie and Nainital some other spots such as Dhanolti, Harshil, Pauri, Lansdown, Chopta, Chaukori, Pithoragarh, Kausani, Almora, Ranikhet, Mukteshwar may be promoted as new hill stations to handle the seasonality issue. There can be promotion of Jungle Camping, Hiking, Paragliding, Cycling, Rock-climbing and other adventure activities. These arrangements may be helpful in increasing the length of tourist stay in during the lean season.

If we analyze the tourism resources in Uttaranchal, we find that it is more beautiful and tempting during the lean season. Because at this time one can easily enjoy the nature and stay closely with it without traffic congestion and rush. However, we can see a large number of camps conducting adventure activities just after crossing Rishikesh. One can easily enjoy the rafting and beautiful camping sites located at different places like Shivpuri and Kaudiyala.

Ecotourism is another big activity needed to be promoted in this region to cope up with seasonality. Uttaranchal has flora and fauna that is diverse as well as rare. This makes the state an ideal location for Ecotourism Promotion. Ecotourism in Uttaranchal will include Jungle Safaris, Trekking on forest trails, Nature Walks, Catch and Release of Mahaseer and other fish species (at Pancheshwar). Ecotourism will not only bring in foreign exchange but also promotes economic activity in the region and help preserve natural systems and wildlife. Ecotourism is growing here and there is, therefore, a need for trained professionals for this specialized segments.

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Perceived service quality measurement in tourism higher education: case study of croatia

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ABSTRACT

Importance of service quality issues in higher education facing practitioners to identify and implement the most appropriate measurements tools in order to gain a better understanding of the quality issues that impact on students' experience.

This paper starts with the background theory and the outlines the results of an exploratory study conducted on students at the Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Opatija (Croatia).

The aims of the study are to: (1) provides a brief review of the existing tools for measuring students experience, (2) assess the students' perceptions of service quality in tourism higher education, (3) test the reliability of an modified SERVQUAL scale, (5) establish the number of dimensions of service quality in higher education.

This study has contributed to knowledge about the service quality construct in tourism higher education in Croatia by refining and developing the SERVQUAL scale.

The final section of the paper is devoted to developing and proposing new directions for future service quality measurement in tourism higher education.

Key Words: service quality, SERVQUAL, multivariate statistical analysis, higher education, Croatia

INTRODUCTION

There is a growing acknowledgement that economies of the 21st century need to be knowledge based rather than commodity based and be driven by knowledge development, innovation and commercialization. Knowledge will become the fundamental factor underpinning successful tourism and hospitality organizations. Tourism and hospitality management education is now at a point where there is a sufficient base of theory that it can easily move well beyond vocational training and expose students to a wide range of ideas, knowledge and theory. The key challenge therefore, for tourism and hospitality education is not to stay with narrow vocationalism simply to satisfy the employments needs of industry but to harness the development of the knowledge that will provide a contribution to the successful development of tourism and hospitality industry as a whole.

Croatia's current major educational reform campaign is aimed at restructuring the school system. One of its central tasks is to diversify higher education in response to the growing divergence in youths' professional orientation and values of choice. Following other reforms during the transition process, higher education in Croatia began a process of transformation, modernization and diversification. When completed, it will fundamentally alter the profile of the traditional university. In these circumstances many discussions about the future of Croatian higher education concern the issues of finance and management.

In today's competitive environment, where all students have many options opened to them, factors that enable higher education to attract and retain students should be seriously studied. Tourism and hospitality management higher education institutions, which want to have competitive edge in the future, may need to begin searching for new and creative ways to attract, retain and foster stronger relationships with students.

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the applicability and reliability of the SERVQUAL instrument (Parasuraman et al., 1988) in higher education quality measurement and to determine the relationship between perceptions of academic service quality and institutional quality in a tourism and hospitality management higher education in Croatia. Academic service was defined as service that is not directly related to the classroom activity. This included adaptation of Parasuraman et al. (1988) constructs of tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy.

Various statistical analyses were performed including descriptive statistics, paired samples statistics, factor analysis and reliability analysis. Results of this study will help management to understand the perceptions of their customers about the quality of services they provide and it will also help them make improvements when the results indicate service quality shortfalls.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Service quality concept in tourism and hospitality higher education

The field of tourism and hospitality education is a unique, rather close-knit academic area. The size and scope of the tourism and hospitality industry itself has always been difficult to define since few people can agree on what it encompasses. An early definition of tourism and hospitality included any and all business and services whose primary objective was serving people outside of a private home.

Tourism and hospitality management education is one segment of the larger tourism and hospitality industry. It could be argued that the formal preparation of industry professionals, via tourism and hospitality education programs, is the single most important segment.

So what is tourism and hospitality education? Carl Riegel (1995) has defined it as *"a field of multidisciplinary study which brings the perspectives of many disciplines, especially those*

found in the social sciences, to bear on particular areas of application and practice in the hospitality and tourism industry". Simply put, it is a field devoted to preparing students, generally, for management positions in tourism and hospitality.

Higher education, like most business and organizations today, is increasingly concerned about the quality of its goods and services. There is increased competition for a shrinking pool of students and those students are becoming more sophisticated and demanding. While some organizations make products that are largely tangible, higher education's product is largely intangible. As a result, assurance of quality can be more difficult than in traditional manufacturing industries. Further, unlike tangible goods, the higher education product cannot be returned if the customer is dissatisfied.

To understand this objective, quality, the term must be defined and discussed. Webster's dictionary defines quality as "*not only the basic character or characteristic that makes something good or bad, commendable or reprehensible, but also the degree of excellence a thing processes, or superiority*". Webster's goes on to define quality control or assurance as "*a system for maintaining desired standards in a product*". The two definitions comprise the most simplistic basis for achieving quality assurance in any organization, including higher education. Obviously an organization must define itself, as through a mission statement and then set goals and objectives that will support that mission before it can hope to measure its outcome against the stated goals. This is quality assurance. "*Quality is everybody's job, part of our job requirements. You cannot create quality without a quality culture in your organization. Change in culture starts from a change in leadership culture and continues only with continuous measurement and feedback*" (Lomas, 1999).

The global quality assurance movement is increasing business's capacity to survive increased competition. So too, it will be with higher education. In both, customer expectations have been raised. "*Quality process management is fast becoming an organizational survival skill*" (Lickson et al., 1994). The purpose is to deliver perceived quality and value to the customer.

The service component of a tourism and hospitality educator's job plays a critical role in professional development, in a faculty member's level of visibility in an institution and the greater tourism and hospitality industry, and contributes significantly to the effectiveness of the various academic units. However, the role of service may finally be getting some of the attention that it has deserved for so long.

Many of the tourism and hospitality managers who will be responsible for meeting the challenges of tomorrow are the tourism and hospitality management students of today. How well they are prepared to meet these challenges depends on the quality of the current tourism and hospitality management curriculum and educators.

Service Quality Concept

"*Quality is an elusive and indistinct construct*" (Parasuraman et al., 1985). "Quality" is not a

singular but a multi-dimensional phenomenon. Explication and measurement of quality also present problems for researchers, who often bypass definitions and use unidimensional self-report measures to capture the concept.

Efforts in defining and measuring quality have come largely from the goods sector. According to the prevailing Japanese philosophy, quality is "*zero defects - doing it right the first time*". Crosby (1979) defines quality as "*conformance to requirements*".

Quality in a service organization is a measure of the extent to which the service delivered meets the customer's expectations. Knowledge about goods quality is insufficient to understand service quality. Three characteristics of services - *intangibility*, *heterogeneity* and *inseparability* - must be acknowledged for a full understanding of service quality.

First, most services are intangible (Berry, 1980). Because they are performances rather than objects, precise manufacturing specifications concerning uniform quality can rarely be set. Most services cannot be counted, measured, inventoried, tested and verified in advance of sale to ensure quality. Because of intangibility, the firm may find it difficult to understand how consumers perceive their services and evaluate service quality (Zeithaml, 1981).

Second, services, especially those with high labor content, are heterogeneous: their performance often varies from producer to producer, from customer to customer, and from day to day. Consistency of behavior from service personnel (uniform quality) is difficult to ensure (Booms and Bitner, 1981) because what the firm intends to deliver may be entirely different from what the consumer receives.

Third, production and consumption of many services are inseparable (Gronroos, 1984). As a consequence, quality in services is not engineered at the manufacturing plant, and then delivered intact to the consumer. In labor intensive services, for example, quality occurs during service delivery, usually in an interaction between the client and the contact person from the service firm. The service firm may also have less managerial control over quality in services where consumer participation is intense because the client affects the process.

Service quality has been discussed in only a handful of researchers (Lewis and Booms, 1983; Sasser, Olsen and Wyckoff, 1978). Examination of this researchers and other literature on services suggests three underlying themes:

- Service quality is more difficult for the consumer to evaluate than goods quality.
- Service quality perceptions result from a comparison of consumer expectations with actual service performance.
- Quality evaluations are not made solely on the outcome of a service; they also involve evaluations of the process of service delivery.

Researchers and managers of service firms concur that service quality involves a comparison of expectations with performance: "*Service quality is a measure of how well the service level*

delivered matches customer expectations. Delivering quality service means conforming to customer expectations on a consistent basis" (Lomas, 1999).

In line with this thinking, Grönroos (1984) developed a model in which he contends that consumers compare the service they expect with perceptions of the service they receive in evaluating service quality. Grönroos (1984), for example, postulated that two types of service quality exist: *technical quality*, which involves what the customer is actually receiving from the service, and *functional quality*, which involves the manner in which the service delivered.

Sasser, Olsen and Wyckoff (1978) discussed three different dimensions of service performance: levels of material, facilities and personnel. Implied in this trichotomy is the notion that service quality involves more than outcome; it also includes the manner in which the service is delivered.

Lehtinen and Lehtinen's (1982) basis premise is that service quality is produced in the interaction between a customer and elements in the service organization. They use three quality dimensions: *physical quality*, which includes the physical aspects of the service, *corporate quality*, which involves the company's image or profile and *interactive quality*, which derives from the interaction between contact personnel and customers as well as between some customers and other customers.

Higher education can be termed a "pure" service, as distinguished by the degree of "person-to-person" interaction (Solomon *et al.*, 1985). Viewing higher education (or education in general) as a service (Dotchin and Oakland, 1994) can facilitate generalizing service quality dimensions for this sector. The specific characteristics of any service industry necessitate findings its unique dimensions in addition to the common features with other services. More careful generalization is required to the case of higher education regarding its complex characteristics.

Service Quality Measurement

There is a plethora of measurement tools and techniques for assessing service quality and consumer satisfaction levels. The leading protagonists in the area of service measurement studies have been Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) with development and subsequent refinement in 1988 and 1991 of the SERVQUAL instrument (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1991).

The SERVQUAL instrument consists of 22 statements for assessing consumer perceptions and expectations regarding the quality of a service. Respondent are asked to rate their level of agreement or disagreement with the given statements on a 7-point Likert scale. Consumers' perceptions are based on the actual service they receive, while consumers' expectations are based on past experiences and information received. The statements represent the determinants or dimensions of service quality. Refinement of this work reduced the original service dimensions used by consumers to judge the quality of a service, from ten to five. The five key dimensions (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1991) that were identified are as follows:

1. *Reliability* – the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately.
2. *Tangibles* – the appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel and communications materials.
3. *Responsiveness* – the willingness to help the consumers and to provide prompt service.
4. *Assurance* – the knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence.
5. *Empathy* – the provision of caring, individualized attention to consumers.

One of the purposes of the SERVQUAL instrument is to ascertain the level of service quality based on the five key dimensions and to identify where gaps in service exist and to what extent. The gaps are generally defined as:

- *Gap 1 (positioning gap)* – pertains to managers' perception of consumers' expectations and the relative importance consumers attach to the quality dimensions.
- *Gap 2 (specification gap)* – is concerned with the difference between what management believes the consumer wants and what the consumers expect the business to provide.
- *Gap 3 (delivery gap)* – is concerned with the difference between the service provided by the employee of the business and the specifications set by management.
- *Gap 4 (communication gap)* – exists when the promises communicated by the business to the consumer do not match the consumers' expectations of those external promises.
- *Gap 5 (perception gap)* – is the difference between the consumers internal perception and expectation of the services (Zeithaml et al., 1990).

The lower the mean score, the larger the gap in service quality and conversely the higher the mean score, the smaller the gap. Gaps 1 do 4 within the control of an organization and need to be analyzed to determine the cause or causes and changes to be implemented which can reduce or even eliminate Gap 5. The surveying of employees can help to measure the extent of Gap 2 to 4 (Zeithaml et al., 1990). This may reveal a difference in perception as to what creates possible gaps.

As with any research tool, there are concerns expressed by other researchers. Lam (1997) and O'Neill and Palmer (2001) have reviewed the criticisms of the original instrument. Criticisms include the failure to draw on the various disciplines of psychology, social sciences and economics. Other issues relate to measuring time, stability over time, the measuring scale, the service quality dimensions and the use of difference scores. Another criticism was the generic nature of the instrument. It was suggested that the survey instrument needed to be customized for use in the specific industry to which it was being applied by including additional related questions (Carman, 1990; Babakus and Boller, 1992; Brown et al., 1993). Other researchers refuted the criticism when they proposed that practitioners require a generic model to ensure reliability, which allows both cross-industry and cross-functional comparisons to be made (Pitt et al., 1997).

Fick and Ritchie (1991) examined the operation of the SERVQUAL instrument in three major tourism sectors: airline, restaurant and ski area service. They found that the two most important expectations concerning service were reliability and assurance for all four sectors. Some of the inadequacies they identified included problems with positively and negatively worded statements; the inability of the 7-point Likert scale to distinguish subtle differences in expectations and perceptions; its inability to take into account any relationship existing between the levels of expectations and performance and the cost of that service; and an inadequate attempt to include those tangible factors contributing to the overall quality of the service expectations. It should be noted that Parasuraman *et al.* (1991) have since addresses some of the problems in their modified version.

Bojanic and Rosen (1994) examined the nature of the association between service quality as perceived by consumers and its determinants by applying SERVQUAL in a restaurant setting. The dimension that rated highest on expectation was assurance, followed by reliability, tangibles, access, knowing your customer, and responsiveness. In this study, the empathy dimension segmented into two: knowing the customer and access.

Lee and Hing (1995) assessed the usefulness and application of the SERVQUAL instrument in measuring and comparing the service quality of two fine dining restaurants. The findings suggest that for both establishments, assurance and reliability were the highest expectations and tangibles were the lowest.

An adapted/modified version of SERVQUAL instrument was used in lodging (Knutson, Stevens, Wullaert, Patton and Yokoyama, 1990) and restaurant settings (Stevens, Knutson and Patton, 1995). In the former, only the expectation items (and not the perception) were adapted to capture the consumers' expectations of service quality in a hotel experience. Reliability had the highest mean score, followed by assurance, responsiveness, tangibles and empathy. The findings of the restaurant study revealed that reliability ranked first, followed by tangibles, assurance, responsiveness and empathy. Both the lodging and restaurant customers ranked reliability as first on the hierarchy; the only difference between the two was that tangibles ranked second for the restaurant and fourth for the lodging customers.

In their research in the hotel sector, Gabbie and O'Neill (1996) reported that the highest expectations of consumers related to the dimensions of reliability and assurance while the dimensions of tangibility and empathy were lowest in their ranking.

This discussion demonstrates that most of the studies used a modified or adapted version of the SERVQUAL scale in the hospitality and tourism area.

Viewing higher education (or education in general) as a service (Dotchin and Oakland, 1994; Zimmerman and Enell, 1988) can facilitate generalizing service quality dimensions for this sector. However, the specific characteristics of any service industry necessitate findings its unique dimensions in addition to the common features with other services. More careful generalization is required for the case of higher education regarding its complex characteristics.

McElwee and Redman (1993) used a model of service quality dimensions (SERVQUAL) developed by Parasuraman *et al.* (1985, 1988) as a basis for an adapted model for higher education. In view of the framework structure of SERVQUAL, their main emphasis was placed on functional (interactive) aspects of quality. Hill (1995) also investigated the implications of service quality theory for higher education. In another study, Anderson (1995) used SERVQUAL to evaluate the quality of an administrative section in a university (office of student service). Rigotti and Pitt (1992) to evaluate an MBA program successfully used a version of the SERVQUAL instrument. It was decided that a modified version of the SERVQUAL instrument should be tested on current students and an evaluation should be prepared.

The use of a measure of service quality that is the difference between expectations and perceptions was seen as a better way to measure satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the course experience. The students who form the population for this study have already had experience of higher education. Thus it was felt that they would base their expectations on this experience and so the service quality scores should provide a guide as to whether students see the quality of their experience declining or improving.

EXPLORATORY STUDY: SERVQUAL application

A modified version of SERVQUAL scale was developed for this purpose. The paper focuses on the multivariate analysis of SERVQUAL scale, its reliability, its application, and the service quality perceptions of students. In addition, the implications on future research are discussed.

Methodology

This exploratory study analyzed the students' perceptions of service quality provided by Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Opatija (FTHM) in Croatia. Questionnaires were designed according to the SERVQUAL model of measuring the service quality perceptions (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988). Students were asked to rate statements that would measure their perception of the actual services delivered to them by FTHM.

The survey instrument (self-administered questionnaire) consisted of two sections: (1) statements focused on student perceptions of service quality at FTHM, and (2) demographic data about the respondents (mode of study, year of study, gender, lectures attended).

Statements in SERVQUAL scale in this study were as followed: 22 original SERVQUAL statements (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988) and 18 new statements adapted for tourism and hospitality management higher education in Croatia. The scale has a total of 40 statements in final SERVQUAL scale. In order to minimize the impact on the reliability, the changes to the wording were reduced to the minimum necessary to provide the appropriate context. Statements were positively and negatively worded and pre-tested for wording, layout and comprehension.

A totally new instruction page was prepared and a 5-point Likert scale adopted rather than the 7-point scale used originally. The scale was arranged so that “strongly agree“ was coded as five, while “strongly disagree“ was coded as one. Each question was associated with the number one to five and to complete their answers users were asked to circle the number that best matched their opinion.

Sample Characteristics

Service quality surveys were conducted in academic year 2002/2003 with all year graduate students at the end of summer semester. Students were given verbal and written instructions, and completed the questionnaires during the first few minutes of class. The respondents remained totally anonymous. Of the 500 students surveyed for this study, 444 returned usable questionnaires giving a response rate of 89 per cent. This was considered an adequate sample size, since other scale developers in the marketing area had used a sample size of 200 to analyze group data (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1986).

A sample of 444 graduate students of a Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management Opatija, comprising 28.2 per cent male and 71.8 per cent female respondents. Within the sample there were 30.6 per cent of students from first year, 37.2 per cent from second year, 14.6 per cent from third year and 17.6 per cent students from the final year. Most of the students (95.5 per cent) are full-time graduate students, and majority of them attend more than 75 per cent lectures.

Table I: Student respondent profile (N = 444)

Description	Number of respondent	
	<i>Frequencies</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Mode of study:		
<i>Full-time graduate student</i>	424	95.5
<i>Part-time graduate student</i>	20	4.5
	444	100.0
Year of study:		
Year 1	136	30.6
Year 2	165	37.2
Year 3	65	14.6
Year 4	78	17.6
	444	100.0
Gender:		
Male	125	28.2
Female	319	71.8
	444	100.0
Lectures attended:		
75 per cent	207	46.6
50 – 75 per cent	155	34.9
25 – 50 per cent	63	14.2
25 per cent	19	4.3
	444	100.0

Data analysis

The statistical package, SPSS (11.0), was used to analyze the data received from the questionnaire. To enable ease of data entry, questions were pre-coded beforehand. This also confirmed that the design of the questionnaire was suitable for such analysis. Each questionnaire was individually numbered, with the first variable on the SPSS package reflecting this. This enabled the successful identification of errors, which when they did occur, were easy to correct.

Appropriate statistical analysis was used to provide useful information which relates directly to the objectives detailed at the start of this report. Following the completion of the data entry, frequencies of all the variables were produced to provide a starting point for analysis. Data were analyzed using descriptive and multivariate statistical analysis. Paired samples statistics (Paired samples correlations and Paired samples t-test) comparing the service statements were performed to see if there were any significant differences among them. Additional variables were created to re-code the negatively scored questions to the equivalent positive code.

The 40 service quality variables were factor analyzed to determine the existence of underlying dimensions of service quality. A principal component analysis with orthogonal varimax rotation was conducted on the 40 perception statements (perceptions scale) measuring the service quality of higher education.

The objective of the analysis was to summarize the information contained in the original 40 variables into smaller sets of explanatory composite factors, which define the fundamental constructs assumed to underline the original variables. Factors with an eigenvalue equal to or greater than 1 were chosen for interpretation. Only variables with factor loading coefficients of 0.45 were considered; that is, items with less than 0.45 were excluded. A reliability analysis (Cronbach's alpha) was performed to test the reliability and internal consistency of each of the expectation and perception attributes. Alpha ranges from 0 to 1, and is a measure of the internal consistency of multi-item scales. A coefficient alpha of .50 or higher is considered to be adequately reliable for group data purposes.

Results

The study findings are presented in the following order: (1) students' perceptions, (2) SERVQUAL gaps, (4) identification of perceived service quality dimensions, and (5) reliability of modified version of SERVQUAL scale.

Table II shows the means for students' perceptions by questionnaire statements. The range of service quality perception statements was from 1 (very low perceptions) to 5 (very high perceptions). The mean scores in this study ranged from 1.87 to 3.77, with an overall of 2.88 for perceptions scale.

In perceptions scale, the most important statement was P1 "*FTHM has up-to-date equipment*" and the last important statement was P39 "*students are given opportunity to register exams on-line*".

Table II: Service quality perceptions in Croatian higher education

Statements	Perceived SQ Mean score
P1 FTHM has up-to-date equipment.	3.77 ^a
P2 The facilities of FTHM are visually appealing.	3.41
P3 The employees of FTHM are well dressed and appear neat.	3.60
P4 The appearance of FTHM facilities correspond to the services provided.	3.17
P5 When FTHM makes a commitment to provide a service at the scheduled time, it does so.	2.82
P6 FTHM shows consideration for students' problems.	3.06
P7 FTHM is reliable.	3.08
P8 FTHM provides services at the scheduled time.	3.00
P9 FTHM keeps its records accurately.	3.38
P10 (-) Working hours of FTHM are not adjusted to all students.	2.99
P11 (-) The employees of FTHM do not provide prompt service.	2.81
P12 (-) The employees of FTHM are not always willing to help students.	2.73
P13 (-) The employees of FTHM are too busy to answer students' requests.	2.77
P14 Students can have confidence in employees at FTHM.	3.13
P15 While performing transactions with employees at FTHM you feel confident.	3.03
P16 Employees of FTHM are polite.	3.00
P17 Employees are provided adequate support by FTHM in order to perform their jobs successfully.	3.27
P18 (-) FTHM does not give students individual attention.	2.59
P19 (-) FTHM does not inform students about the time of a service to be provided. (-)	3.16
P20 (-) Employees of FTHM do not give you individual attention.	2.64
P21 (-) FTHM does not take thoughtful care of you.	2.73
P22 (-) Employees of FTHM do not know your needs.	2.61
P23 Curriculum at FTHM keeps up with the latest scientific achievements.	3.02
P24 Curriculum at FTHM provides the possibility of multi-disciplinary study (the possibility to take subjects at other faculties).	2.49
P25 Students at FTHM are given opportunity to choose subjects in accordance with their interests.	2.38
P26 FTHM enables virtual (on-line) study.	2.04
P27 Students at FTHM are enabled to exercise a profession.	2.88
P28 Students at FTHM are enabled to take part in scientific projects.	2.53
P29 Students at FTHM are enabled to take part in writing reviews and scientific papers.	2.52

P30	FTHM organizes extra-curricular activities for students at the faculty.	3.28
P31	Teaching procedures at FTHM support independent learning.	3.13
P32 (-)	Teaching procedures at FTHM do not support team-work.	3.09
P33	FTHM enables students to access on-line data bases.	3.38
P34	School fees at FTHM do not include additional services in accordance with students' needs.	2.50
P35	FTHM provides students with the possibility to purchase literature at the price suitable for students.	2.18
P36	FTHM enables international exchange of students.	2.93
P37	Students at FTHM can give grades to each teacher.	2.40
P38 (-)	At FTHM, only the teachers give grades to students, but not vice versa.	2.55
P39	Students are given opportunity to register exams on-line.	1.87 ^b
P40	Students at FTHM are given opportunity to contact the teachers using e-mail.	3.45
Overall		2.88

Notes: Perceptions scores are measured on a 5-point Likert scale. Mean value of 1 = "strongly believe that the statement is wrong"; Mean value of 5 = "strongly believe that the statement is not wrong". ^a Statement with the highest mean score, ^b Statement with the lowest mean score. (-) negatively worded statement.

As shown in Table III the study used factor analysis to reduce the 40 statements into a set of underlying dimensions or factors that portray the perception of the tourism and hospitality students in Croatia. In addition, for the purpose of quality control of the factors, the data were first tested by Bartlett's test, a statistical test for the overall significance of all correlations within a correlation matrix. This indicated that factor analysis could be performed to further analyze the data.

Factor analysis was applied to 40 statements on perceptions of higher education services, with responses on 5-point Likert scale. Principal component analysis with varimax rotation was used in the analysis. Suitability of factor analysis was determined by correlation and alpha reliability. The criteria for the number of extracted factors were based on the characteristic value, variance percentage, factor importance and factor structure. Significant factors were considered to be those with characteristic value equaling or exceeding one. All factors with the value less than 1 will be considered insignificant and should be disregarded. The result amounting at least 45 per cent of the total cumulative variance was considered a satisfactory solution. It is considered that a variable has practical importance and that it can be included in a factor when its correlation degree equals or exceeds 0.50 (Nunnally, 1967). However, 10 statements are deleted in perceptions scale because their factor loadings are less than 0.45. Most of the deleted statements are new statements included in SERVQUAL scale. The results of factor analysis and reliability analysis are presented in Table III.

On the basis of varimax rotation 8 significant factors were defined on the perceptions scale. Factor analysis results indicate factor structure with relatively high factor coefficients on the corresponding factors. This confirms that the factors overlapped the least possibly, and that they were independently structured. High factor coefficients indicate correlation of variables with the factors they define. Community of each of the variables is relatively high ranging from 0.50 to 0.82, and this indicates the variance of original values being covered with factors well.

Perceptions scale makes up eight factors including (refer to Table III):

Factor 1: *Reliability* (4 statements, eigenvalue = 6.981, 20.532 per cent of variance, alpha = 0.8162)

Factor 2: *Assurance* (4 statements, eigenvalue = 3.082, 9.065 per cent of variance, alpha = 0.7518),

Factor 3: *Students in scientific work* (3 statements, eigenvalue = 2.338, 6.877 per cent of variance, alpha = 0.7424),

Factor 4: *Empathy* (5 statements, eigenvalue = 1.506, 4.430 per cent of variance, alpha = 0.7108),

Factor 5: *E-learning* (4 statements, eigenvalue = 1.463, 4.302 per cent of variance, alpha = 0.7378),

Factor 6: *Tangibles* (4 items, eigenvalue = 1.290, 3.793 per cent of variance, alpha = 0.6655),
Factor 7: *Price of services* (3 statements, eigenvalue = 1.202, 3.534 per cent of variance, alpha = 0.6734),

Factor 8: *Responsiveness* (3 statements, eigenvalue = 1.053, 3.096 per cent of variance, alpha = 0.6311).

Eight-dimensional solution in perceptions scale results in the following factors (refer to Table III): five of eight factors confirm the five SERVQUAL factors (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988) and three factors (*Students in scientific work*, *E-learning*, *Price of services*) include new statements.

It should be noted that the factors recovered here do not correspond with those recovered in the early SERVQUAL studies, where there were five factors (responsiveness, reliability, empathy, assurance, tangibles), which were said to represent the generic dimensions of service quality (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1991).

Also, reliability analysis was conducted to measure the inside of each of the factors. The results indicate that all factors exceed the recommended level of 0.50 (Hair *et al.*, 1995),

Table III: Perception scale - Results of factor analysis and reliability analysis

<i>Factors and statements</i>	<i>Factor loadings</i>	<i>Factor mean</i>	<i>Cronbach's alpha</i>	<i>Cumulative Variance Explained (%)</i>
Factor 1		3.01	0.8162	20.532
P5	0.752			
P8	0.745			
P7	0.688			
P6	0.563			
Factor 2		3.15	0.7518	29.597
P14	0.790			
P15	0.733			
P16	0.680			
P17	0.489			
Factor 3		2.741	0.7424	36.474
P28	0.785			
P29	0.727			
P27	0.697			
Factor 4		2.81	0.7108	40.904
P20 (-)	0.778			
P21 (-)	0.770			
P22	0.641			
P19 (-)	0.546			
P18 (-)	0.502			
Factor 5		2.52	0.7378	45.206
P24	0.634			
P25	0.582			
P23	0.603			
P26	0.559			
Factor 6		3.51	0.6655	48.999
P2	0.763			
P1	0.651			
P4	0.651			
P3	0.651			
Factor 7		2.33	0.6734	52.533
P35	0.750			
P34	0.723			
P39	0.540			
Factor 8		2.92	0.6311	55.629
P12 (-)	0.817			
P13 (-)	0.663			
P11 (-)	0.625			
Overall		2.88	0.7904	

Notes: (-) negatively worded statements

ranging from 0.53 to 0.81. Alpha coefficients for the perceptions scale totals 0.7904. The relatively high alpha values indicate good internal consistency among the statements, and the relatively high alpha value for the overall scale indicates that the SERVQUAL instrument is reliable and applicable.

CONCLUSION

This study has contributed to knowledge about the service quality construct in the tourism and hospitality higher education in Croatia by refining and developing the existing SERVQUAL scale. These findings have demonstrated that the SERVQUAL instrument is suitable for use by managers in higher education institutions, so that they can confidently design service strategies that meet students' expectations. It has presented further challenges to SERVQUAL methodology for assessing students' expectations and perceptions of service quality.

Further research is being undertaken to validate these results. There are several opportunities to extend this study. For example, further studies on service quality measurement must focus on issues on how different socio-demographic variables impact on service quality dimensions. Another factor that might have to be considered in future research is whether the factor structure proposed in this study is valid in other faculties in Croatia.

In this case, SERVQUAL scale should be treated as a useful starting point in the development of service quality dimensions in higher education, and not the final answer for assessing and improving service quality in higher education.

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The Spanish Youth Market to Australia: An Exploratory Study of Market Needs

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ABSTRACT

This exploratory study established the market needs of a group of 18-30 year old leisure travellers from Spain and ascertained the perceived ability of the Australian tourist experience to satisfy their needs. The results of the study showed that the 18-30 year old travellers from Spain possess a strong need for cultural novelty and the following major secondary needs: a need for entertainment, a need for mental relaxation, a need for social interaction and a need to disconnect from a routine. The Australian tourist experience is perceived as relatively able to satisfy these needs when compared with other western English-speaking destinations. For these young leisure travellers, Australia's exotic appeal, its multiculturalism and the attractiveness of its unique fauna, flora, natural beauty, and climate play a large role in the satisfaction of their needs. It was concluded that Spain as a market has some unrealised potential for the Australian tourism industry.

Key Words: Spain, tourism generating region, youth tourist market, Australia, long-haul travel

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INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Spain has long been one of the world's major tourism destinations (Infoplease.com, 2005). However, with Spain's long-term membership of the European Union, and its consequential quite rapid increase in affluence over the last few years it has the potential to be an important tourism generating region. It is therefore of interest to tourism scholars and the tourism industry of Australia to establish if the young people of Spain (18-30 year olds) will follow their contemporaries in North-Western Europe and join the flow of European backpackers and other youth travellers to Australia.

Table 1 shows the number of backpackers for the year ended December 2002 arriving in Australia from Europe. Backpackers are defined as those travellers who prefer to stay in budget accommodation, spend more time traveling around than the average visitor, and enjoy interacting with people, both locals and other travellers. They are also more likely to independently organise their travels (Loker-Murphy, & Pearce 1995, 840). Backpackers from 'other Europe' are in the main from the Scandinavian countries. Table 1 also shows how significant they are to the Australian tourism industry.

Table 1: Backpackers to Australia by Country of Residence

	United Kingdom	Germany	Other Europe
Backpackers	128,169	35,542	118,268
Non-backpackers	477,739	94,619	255,769

Source: Tourism Research Australia (2002)

By focusing on the market needs, this exploratory study was conducted to indicate what potential has the Spanish youth market for Australia as a tourism destination. The objective of this study was hence to provide indicative answers to these two questions:

- What needs do 18-30 year old leisure travellers from Spain have? and
- What is the perceived ability of the Australian tourist experience to satisfy those needs?

RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The focus on the Spanish youth market as opposed to some other youth tourism market was for several reasons. Firstly, there is a general dearth of literature and research in English on the outbound market from Spain and especially its youth segment, albeit its now affluence and potential as a tourist generating region. Secondly, there appear to be no previous studies on the needs of this market and the ability of a destination to satisfy those needs. Thirdly, the market is rapidly growing (*Instituto de Estudios Turísticos*, 2003), but not to Australia. Lastly, the focus on the Spanish youth market was convenient, due to the research team's familiarity with the Spanish language and culture, and access to respondents.

While an emphasis in the study was on an analysis of market needs through primarily social-psychological demand determinants, it is recognised that there are many additional, economic and exogenous factors which may affect the travel demand to Australia (Page, 2003). These include: educational and sporting linkages between Australia and Spain; visa arrangements between the two countries; trade links; differences in populations and family ties; English language skills of the Spanish youth; costs of return airline tickets from Spain to Australia, and other factors.

It appears that the educational and sporting linkages between the two countries are strong. Bilateral agreements between Australia and Spain include an Agreement on Cultural, Educational and Scientific Cooperation and a Memorandum of Understanding on Sporting Cooperation between the Australian Sports Commission and its Spanish equivalent (DFAT, 2005). Additionally, the European Union and Australia began “a pilot phase of projects on cooperation in higher education starting in 2002, and continuing in 2003 and 2004” (EUROPA-Education and Training, 2005, p.1). Moreover, an Australian Studies Centre was founded on 19 March 2000 at the University of Barcelona with the aims of promoting and facilitating student exchange and promoting research in the field of Australian studies (The University of Barcelona, 2005). These recent efforts indicate an increasing interest for collaboration between the two countries in the educational and sporting fields which therefore might induce a greater need for travel.

Furthermore, visa requirements between the countries are non-constrictive and trade links are growing. Spanish passport holders visiting Australia for short term visits (up to three months) are only required to have an Electronic Travel Authority (ETA) which is issued within seconds by computer links between the Australian Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs (DIMIA), travel agents in Spain, airlines or specialist service providers (DIMIA, 2005). On the other hand, Australian passport holders visiting Spain for tourism purposes up to three months are not required to have a visa (Spanish Embassy - Australia, 2005).

Australia's Trade Minister, Mark Vaile, in his speech to members of the Spanish Chamber of Commerce in Australia noted on 25 March 2003: “I am particularly pleased that our exports to Spain have increased by 27 per cent over the past few years. Last year, two-way merchandise trade between Australia and Spain reached \$1.6 billion, and Spain was our 28th largest trading partner” (Trade Minister, 2005, p.2). In year 2004, Australia's exports to Spain were 682 million dollars and imports were 1.3 billion dollars (DFAT, 2005). The Spanish economy is 60 per cent larger than the Australian economy and has a higher Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth than France, Germany and the United Kingdom (UK) (Trade Minister, 2005). A projection for Spain's 2005 GDP is 1, 167 billion US dollars (DFAT, 2005). Such a strong economy would undoubtedly produce favourable conditions for outbound travel.

To further show how much potential there may be in the Spanish market compare the 676,000 visitors to Australia from the United Kingdom (UK) with the mere 15,800 Spanish visitors that came to Australia in 2004 (ABS, 2005). Both the UK and Spain have a population of more than 40,000,000 people (CIA, 2005). It may be argued that there are few cultural or family links between Spain and Australia. But neither has Sweden, a country with a population one quarter of Spain's, but 33,500 Swedes visited Australia in 2004 (ABS, 2005).

Another important factor that may affect the demand for travel to Australia, especially the youth travel demand, is the level of interest in improving the English language skills. Youth and student travel makes up an important proportion of world tourism today and is the

fastest growing travel sector (ATLAS Special Interest Group, 2005). Whereas the English language centres are abundant in Spain (Sitios Espana, 2005), large numbers of young Spaniards have had a tendency to travel to the UK to further improve their English skills (UK Industry, 2004). Hence an interest in learning the language in an English speaking country exists, except that countries other than Australia are managing to better attract the Spanish student market.

A salient factor in the choice for student and other travel from Spain is the cost of airfares. The cost of a return airfare from Barcelona to Sydney for 1 April 2006 is 1503 US dollars (including taxes) whereas a return flight from Barcelona to London is a mere 186 US dollars (including taxes) for the same date (Airline Consolidator.com, 2005). This price discrepancy may adversely affect the travel demand to Australia from Spain. However, the recent introduction of more fuel efficient and more comfortable Airbus airplanes may reduce the costs of long-haul flights, such as the one from Barcelona to Sydney (PBS, 2005).

Hence, the Spanish youth outbound market appears to have some unrealised potential for the Australian tourism industry. Therefore, an exploratory study of the market needs and how those needs are satisfied in Australia seemed to be of use.

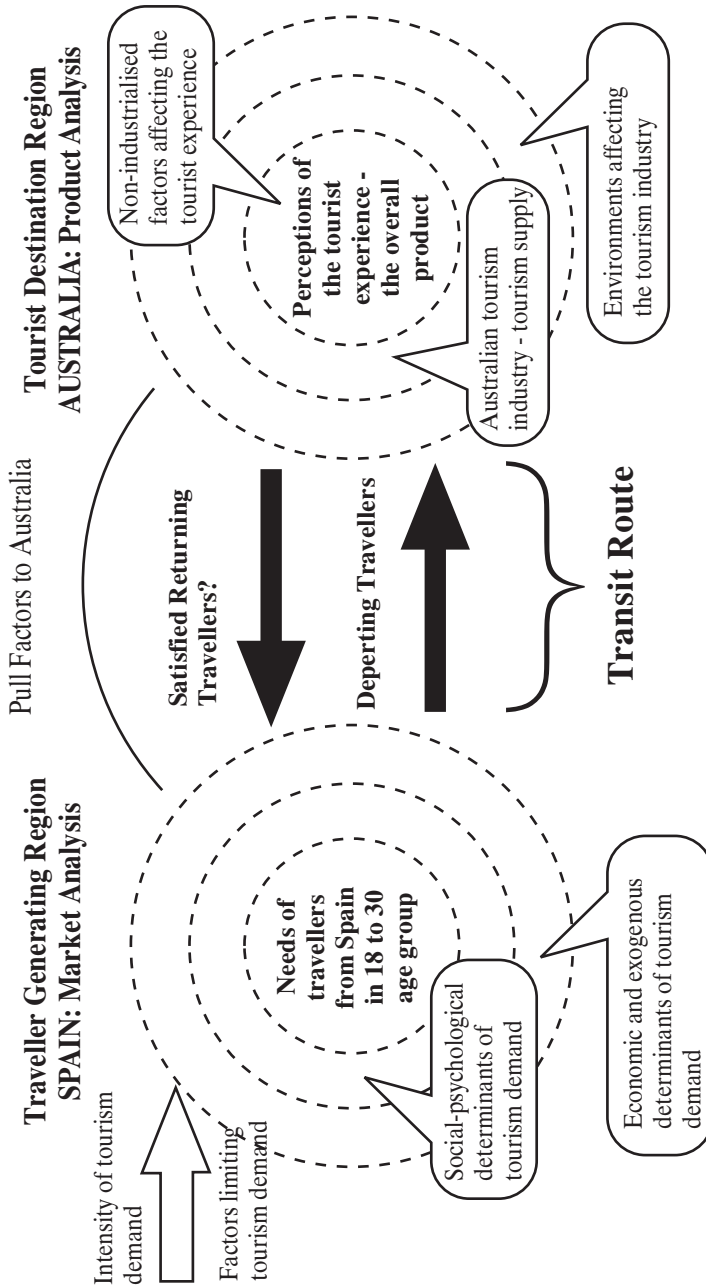
STRUCTURE FOR THE STUDY OF MARKET NEEDS

This study was divided into a market and a product analysis. The market section consists of an analysis of tourism demand determinants of 18-30 year old travellers from Spain to ascertain the market's needs and a description of its characteristics. The product section examines the ability of the Australian tourist experience to satisfy the needs of the market.

An adaptation of Leiper's (2003) tourism system's model was used as the theoretical underpinning of the study. The model put young Spanish travellers' needs and the means of satisfying these needs into a dynamic travel context. Within this model various tourist behaviour concepts and models were reviewed as part of the market and product analysis. Although an adaptation of the systems model was used to construct a conceptual framework for the study, the study did not include research in Spain of returned youth travellers after visits to Australia. Thus, a partial, rather than a whole tourism systems approach to the theme was used.

The conceptual framework for this study is shown in Figure 1, which shows how the research questions were answered.

Figure 1: An Exploratory Needs/Needs Satisfaction Model for Youth Travellers from Spain to Australia



Source: Adapted from Leiper's Tourism System Model (2003)

In order to ascertain the needs of 18-30 year old leisure travellers from Spain and establish the perceived ability of the Australian tourist experience to satisfy those needs, the following was conducted:

- a review of the relevant literature on tourism market demand and product analysis concepts in order first to establish theoretical constructs on which to base the analyses and to establish what other studies of this type had been done;
- a secondary data analysis (with a focus on competing destinations); and
- collection and analysis of primary data – in-depth interviews on market needs and satisfaction with Australia as a destination.

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

The first part of the literature review consisted of a detailed analysis of previous research on social-psychological and economic and exogenous tourism demand determinants as defined by Page (2003).

Page's (2003) demand determinants was a helpful indicator of the market needs because the determinants included both social-psychological factors (travel motivations, destination images, cultural similarity, demographic factors and other factors which the tourist behaviour literature typically covers) as well as economic and exogenous variables in Spain (economic growth and stability, political and social environment, restrictions, rules and laws, exchange rate differentials, etc).

These demand determinants somewhat overlap with factors determining Spanish tourism demand as identified by Garrigós Simón and Narangajavana (2002). The authors do not specifically discuss demand for travel from Spain to a long-haul destination, such as Australia. However, they claim that, in general, factors such as income, employment, level of education, amount of paid leave, personal mobility, culture of tourists and age would affect individual tourist demand, while economic, demographic, political, technological influences and levels of marketing would affect global tourism demand.

Some of these economic and exogenous factors (Page, 2003) related to Spain and Australia have already been mentioned in the Rationale for the Study section. The following section discusses a salient social-psychological factor.

Travel motivations clearly represent an important social-psychological factor when trying to understand travel needs. The relevant tourist motivations works were reviewed: Crompton (1979), Dann (1977), Iso-Ahola (1982), Plog (1990), Pearce (2002), Lee and Pearce (2003), Jang and Cai (2002), Ateljevic (2001), Gnoth (1997), Mansfeld (1992), Harril and Potts (2002), Kozak (2002) and other works.

A review of many of the above studies reveals a range of different conceptual schemes and models of understanding tourist motivation. Hence, Plog's (1990) motivation model classifies

travellers according to allocentrics (outgoing, confident travellers) and psychocentrics (self-inhibited, non-adventurous tourists) whereas Dann (1977) argues that tourist motivation is best understood as influenced by anomie and ego-enhancement. On the other hand, Pearce's (2002) travel career ladder model shows that travel motives differ based on previous travel experience. He argues that tourist motives can be understood in terms of Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1970). Crompton (1979), however, places all travel motives within a cultural-socio-psychological continuum and identifies two cultural motives for travel (novelty and education) and seven socio-psychological motives while Iso-Ahola (1982) argues that "the satisfaction individuals expect from a leisure activity is linked to two motivational forces: approach (seeking) and avoidance (escape) (Harrill and Potts, 2002, p.110)." More recently, Ateljevic (2001) found that country values and images influence tourist motives. Ateljevic therefore mentions that "the images of 'clean and green' New Zealand created the motivation to visit 'the country which cannot be missed to be seen,' as it might disappear in the progress of urbanization (2001, p.120)."

Hence, as Harrill and Potts point out, there appears to be "little consensus among researchers about what motivates people to travel (2002, p. 105)."

Nonetheless, out of the reviewed tourist motivation analyses, the work of Lee and Pearce (2003) appears most pertinent to understanding the needs of youth travellers from Spain because the study used a large sample of 824 respondents with the majority of participants being under the age of 32 and students, which fits the market segment investigated. Lee and Pearce's (2003) discussion of the Travel Career Patterns (TCP) Concept (an adaptation of the travel career ladder), shows that all travellers, regardless of their travel career levels, are influenced by the following three core pleasure travel motives: novelty, escape/relaxation and relationship enhancement. Thus, these needs were expected to be identified in the analysis of the interview answers.

The second section of the literature review analysed "pull" factors for a destination (Pearce, Morrison and Rutledge, 1998; Weaver and Oppermann, 2000; Mazzarol, Kemp and Savery, 1997 and others), the transit route concept (for example, Leiper, 1995), the tourist experience as an overall tourism product (Obenour, 2004; MacCannell, 1976, Witt and Moutinho, 1995; Holloway, 1994; Uysal, 1994, Kotler *et al*, 1998, etc.) and the concept of tourist satisfaction (Haber and Lerner, 1999; Botterill, 1987; Cole and Scott, 2004 and many others).

The transit route analysis is particularly important to the current study. Leiper (1995) discusses the transit element of his tourism system model predominantly by pointing out ways in which transit route efficiency can be increased. However, Leiper (1995) also points out that transit places often have a twin role of being both a destination and a transit point.

This dual characteristic of a transit place is significant, as it may be that young Spaniards who spend a few days in Singapore or some other Asian transit place may experience Australia differently to those who merely change flights at those destinations. For instance, a very positive tourist experience in Singapore may make Spaniards expect more from

Australia as a tourist destination. This means that it would be more difficult for the Australian tourist experience to satisfy their needs. However, there seems little to suggest that the transit route experiences between Spain and Australia alter young Spanish travellers' perceptions of the Australian tourist experience. The interviews revealed that the transit route experiences for the interviewed group were typically dull, short and insignificant.

The initial product analysis also revealed the complexities in determining the ability of the Australian tourist experience to satisfy the needs of 18-30 year old Spanish visitors. This complexity is due to the effects of "pull" factors of Australia, the Australian tourism industry, environments and non-industrialised factors on the formation of the overall tourist experience. Additionally, the analysis illustrates that authenticity within the Australian tourist experience may play an important role in satisfying the needs of young Spanish tourists. The following section discusses the destinations that are currently more effective than Australia in attracting youth travellers from Spain.

SECONDARY DATA ANALYSIS - COMPETING DESTINATIONS

In 2003, the five main destinations for outbound Spanish travellers were, from most important to least important: France, Portugal, Italy, UK and Germany (*Instituto de Estudios Turísticos, 2003*). Out of these main destinations, Italy and the UK are most favoured amongst young Spanish travellers and for long-haul destinations the USA and Mexico are among top ten in terms of numbers of Spanish visitors (World Tourism Organisation, 2001).

Clearly the UK and USA may be the most direct competitors with Australia due to language and cultural similarities. It was already implied in the study rationale that young study visitors from Spain are an especially important segment of total outbound travellers from Spain to the UK (UK Industry, 2004). The 16-24 year old age group, which partially overlaps with the 18-30 year old age group, accounts for the majority of study visits and study spend in the UK. In 2003, there were 39,000 Spanish study visitors in the UK, who spent 50,000,000 British pounds (UK Industry, 2004). These figures suggest that Britain has a large competitive advantage over Australia in attracting the Spanish outbound youth study market. This advantage undoubtedly exists because of Britain's geographic proximity to Spain and its ability to provide quality English language learning programs to young Spaniards.

The USA market also has a competitive advantage over Australia. But, unlike the UK, it seems to attract young Spaniards and travellers from other countries through working holidays. D'Anjou states that "the United States is the leading destination for many youth travellers on working holidays with close to 250,000 foreign youth participating in various organized programs" (2004, p.11). Overall, the US market received 333,432 arrivals from Spain in 2004, which is a significantly higher number than the Australia's total figure of 15,800 in 2004 (Infoplease.com, 2005).

It appears therefore, that Australia is not capitalizing effectively on the Spanish youth outbound tourism market, despite the fact that it may be better able to satisfy the needs of

this segment than some other destinations. An analysis of tourism to Australia by Nieto Gonzales (2003) shows that Australia has a well-developed tourism infrastructure and that, combined with the positive effects of the Sydney Olympic Games, this makes Australia an attractive destination. Furthermore, D'Anjou (2004) remarks that Australia has recently become one of the leading destinations for youth travel through its successful, integrated marketing campaigns and work/travel visa arrangements. However, this does not seem to apply to the Spanish youth market, possibly due to the lack of those promotional campaigns in Spain and as of yet no working holiday visa arrangements between Spain and Australia (Australian Department of Immigration 2005).

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS

Twenty structured, in-depth interviews were conducted in Sydney between 1 August and 15 October 2004. The first ten were with 18-30 year old Spaniards who had expressed an interest in making a trip to a western English speaking country in the past. These interviews were conducted via e-mail in Spanish and covered the market analysis elements to establish the needs of the group. A further ten interviews were conducted in Sydney with 18-30 year old Spanish leisure travellers. These formed part of the product analysis and helped to determine the ability of the Australian tourist experience to satisfy the identified needs of 18-30 year old Spanish travellers. All ten product analysis interviewees perceived Sydney as representative of Australia, thus their perception of the Sydney tourist experience was generalised to the Australian tourist experience. This perception of Sydney is not surprising as Nieto Gonzales points out: "the principal region (of Australia) visited is markedly Sydney, as more than half of the tourists that the continent receives pass through there (*La principal región visitada, con diferencia, es Sydney, ya que por ella pasan más de la mitad de los turistas que recibe el continente*) (2003, p. 151)." Unlike the e-mail interviews, the Sydney product analysis interviews were tape-recorded and subsequently transcribed. They were conducted in English.

The total sample size of 20 participants was deemed appropriate for the study due to its exploratory nature and the rapid repetition of themes from the interviews. The exploratory study was conducted on a market, which to the authors' knowledge, has not previously been examined in the English language tourism literature. The study's results are thus not comparable but rather indicative of the potential of this market, so a larger sample was not needed in this instance.

Relatively small sample sizes are not uncommon in motivation research and youth travel research depending on the nature of the study. For instance, Mehmetoglu, Dann and Larsen's (2001) preliminary study of solitary travellers in Norway, which examined why people travel on their own, was based on findings from 7 solo travellers. Carr's (1998) study, which examined the use of leisure spaces of young tourists, used information collected from 8 tourists and Obenour's (2004) research on the meaning of the journey to budget travellers consisted of an analysis of 27 narrative interviews. Additionally, Crompton (1979) in his widely quoted and seminal study of motivations for pleasure vacation used 38 in-depth interviews.

The 10 market analysis interviews and the 10 product analysis interviews showed very little variation in results. According to Ezzy (2002), Higginbotham *et al.* (2001) and Patton (2002) sampling continues in qualitative research until no new information is forthcoming or nothing new is heard in the case of interviewing. This principle was applied in this study.

INTERVIEW RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

An analysis of the interviews indicates that the respondents have a strong need for cultural novelty. They also have touristic needs for mental relaxation, for social interaction, entertainment and to disconnect from a routine. An analysis of the product satisfaction interviews suggests that the Australian tourist experience is relatively able to satisfy these needs when compared to other western English speaking destinations such as the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Ireland, Canada and New Zealand. The primary need for cultural novelty is currently being satisfied by Australia primarily through:

- perceptions of Australia's exotic appeal;
- Sydney's multicultural and polyglot society; and
- attractiveness of Australia's unique fauna, flora and favourable climatic conditions.

Both the primary need and the four major secondary needs are currently being satisfied through:

- availability of and use of good quality non-backpacker accommodation in Sydney;
- availability of and use of good quality transportation in Sydney; and
- availability of and use of built and natural tourist attractions in the Sydney metropolitan region, including the Blue Mountains.

However, according to the respondents, the Australian tourism industry and the Australian government could further improve the Australian tour product by:

- reducing the costs of transportation and non-backpacker accommodation in Sydney;
- improving the quality of backpacker accommodation in Sydney;
- actively promoting Australia's multiculturalism, climate, its unique flora and fauna and the quality of transportation, accommodation and various tourism services; and
- promoting Australia's exotic appeal by presenting Australia's geographical distance from Spain as an advantage rather than as a disadvantage over other destinations.

Overall, the findings from this research are not greatly different from previous research on youth leisure travellers. They agree with the recent findings of Richards and Wilson (2004) that exploration of other cultures is a major travel motivation of youth leisure travellers. Hence, when asked what would motivate her to visit Australia as a leisure traveller Sara says: "to get to know Australia's different sceneries...to learn more about its cultures and its wild life" ("*Conocer los distintos paisajes de Australia, conocer más sobre las culturas, y la vida salvaje*"). Daniel also appears to be motivated by novelty: "Perhaps, the idea to visit

a country in a continent where I've never been." (*"Quizás la idea de visitar un país en un continente en el que nunca he estado"*). Juliana agrees and states: "Places that attract me are those with a culture that is most different to mine" (*"Me atraen lugares cuya cultura sea lo más distinta a la mía."*).

These findings also agree with D'Anjou's (2004) results that exploring other cultures is one of the top five travel motivations of young leisure travellers, in addition to: relaxation; social interaction; excitement/adventure; and increasing knowledge and experience through self-discovery. Furthermore, the needs for cultural novelty, relaxation and social interaction of young Spanish travellers, are similar to the three core travel motives (novelty, escape/relaxation and relationship) mentioned in Lee and Pearce's (2003) study.

In principle, an analysis of the product satisfaction interviews shows a link with MacCannell's (1976) seminal finding that tourists seek authentic experiences at a destination and that experiences perceived to be authentic would therefore play a role in the satisfaction of touristic needs. However, some of the participants are unsure what this authenticity means in the Australian context as few of them know much about Australia's culture. For example, Vanessa comments: "...I don't think I have got to know enough the culture as to develop an opinion because I dunno its features and characteristics."

On the other hand, Ruben appears to have had a perception of Australia's culture prior to his arrival. He states: "Well, in Europe we had the idea of the surfers ...but when you come here you see a lot of Asian people in Sydney and this changes a lot your point of view, no? You think that here is like a European country, but no, it's very multicultural, you have people from all the parts of the world."

It was also noted that sectors of the tourism industry and especially non-industrialized factors (such as flora, fauna, climate, presence of other tourists at tourist sites, physical features of sites, etc.) play an important role in the satisfaction of the needs of young Spanish tourists. In particular, many subjects refer to the advantages of Australia's climate over other destinations and Sydney's climate's appeal due to its similarity with the climate of some Spanish cities. For instance, Javi comments: "...But about the climate.... It's one of the main reasons why I choose this country. I'm Spanish and as many Spanish do, I do love sun and you know and if I went to the UK I was, you know, all the day, I was gonna be looking at the sky and see just grey clouds and rain and I really hate that. And I was told that Sydney weather was I mean...mmm...excellent...So, that's one of the main reasons why I chose Australia..."

The ability of Sydney's climate to satisfy the needs of these 18-30 year old Spanish visitors is also reflected in Vanessa's and Maria's comments. Vanessa says: "Well, climate, I thought it was better, sunnier, I consider it good for winter" and Maria adds: "Well, the climate is really good...In Spain in winter it's freezing and here it's really warm, well, quite warm and yeah... I think that every person wants a warm weather if you want to travel and see things because it's quite annoying to travel, well, if it's raining or something like that...so here it's quite possible you have good weather..."

Most importantly, it was found that Australia's perceived exoticness, unique fauna and flora and climate as a whole primarily satisfy young Spaniards' principal need for cultural novelty, which suggests that the respondents apparently blurred the distinction between culture and nature. This finding somewhat agrees with García Sanchez and Alburquerque García's (2003) proposition that sun and beach and cultural tourist products are complementary and may be packaged and promoted together as one. However, the authors refer to how cultural heritage of a county can complement the sun and beach element of a destination, rather than how the sun and beach and other natural elements may be perceived as cultural. In either case, it appears that the findings from both of the studies reveal a need to re-examine the notion that culture and sun and beach are necessarily two separate tourism products.

The product analysis of the interviews further reveals that the ability of the Australian tourist experience to satisfy the needs of this group of youth travellers mostly depends on the interplay of past experiences, respondents' emotions and aspirations of the interviewees at the time of the research. For example, when asked to label (out of five) the ability of the Australian tourist experience to satisfy his needs, one of the respondents stated: '...you know, I've been to a creepy backpacker (hostel), so two point five, but I think that the rate will improve when I go and see you know, all those places in Australia, like Darwin and whatever...'

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Young Spanish travellers to Australia have a primary need for cultural novelty, which Australia appears to be relatively capable of satisfying through its exotic appeal, positive perceptions of Australia's multicultural society, its unique fauna and natural beauty and the favourable climate. The promotional material used by the Australian tourism industry in Spain would therefore need to stress these non-industrialised elements of the Australian tourist experience.

However, it was found that the young Spanish travellers perceive satisfaction with the Australian tourist experience as highly complex, in the sense that it depended on many interrelated, non-industrialised and industrialised factors.

Future researchers into the Spanish youth market may need to conduct a large-scale study of tourist motivations of this market to expand on the findings from this exploratory study. They may wish to combine motivation scales with phenomenographic techniques (Ryan, 2000) as well as observational work to gain a more in-depth understanding of the way travel motives or needs of this market are satisfied or not satisfied at a destination such as Australia. As well, previous travel experience and demographic characteristics (Lee and Pearce, 2003) of respondents may need to be further explored in future research of this market and its desire for the Australian product.

What can be said about this market with some confidence is that Spain has a growing economy which is rapidly approaching in per capita terms the leading economies of the

European Union that generate large numbers of tourists to Australia. Spain has a population 2/3 rds that of the UK and it generates a yearly average of 7.5 million outbound trips of which close to 30 per cent are made by the 18-30 year old travellers (World Tourism Organisation, 2001). The Spanish youth market segment seeks much the same sorts of need satisfaction as other young travellers from Europe that now come to Australia in large numbers. It can also be said with some confidence that Australia has much, if not all of the attributes that can satisfy these travellers' needs, and can generally do so. It will be a sound investment for the Australian tourism industry to consider investing some promotional funds in this market.

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A Customer's Expectation and Perception of Hotel Service Quality in Cyprus

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, the hotels in Cyprus have encountered difficult times due to the increasing customer demands, and due to the strong internal industry competition development. However, the hospitality industry's main concern around the globe is to cater for its customer needs and their desires, which are mostly addressed through personal services. Therefore, the hotel businesses that are able to provide quality services to its ever demanding customers in a warm and efficient manner, are those businesses which will be more likely to obtain a long term competitive advantage over their rivals. However, since the hotels are offering intangible and perishable personal service encounters, managing these services in terms of offering quality experience to their guests, it must be of a paramount concern of any hotel business, and the way which personalized services are provided. Therefore, to make the difference in attracting and retaining long-term customers.

INTRODUCTION

In the marketing literature since Cardozo's (1965) initial study of customer effort, expectations, and satisfaction, the research work in this field has expanded greatly, with now more than 900 articles focusing on customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Perkins, 1991). However, since the service quality plays an important role in successfully attracting repeat business, consistency in delivering high quality services must be considered as an essential and crucial strategic element for surviving in today's highly competitive global environment.

Empirical background

Quality improvement has become a vital ingredient in any destination competitiveness strategy, and its realm requires a collection of accurate and actionable information, which must be carefully analysed in order to allow managers to manipulate key components to create the right quality of competitive tourist experience.

Cyprus, as a holiday destination faces three considerable challenges, because there is an increasing competition from similar resorts everywhere else, its economic system has not traditionally emphasized service quality, and its political environment is highly characterized as unstable (war and terrorism). However, there seem to exist a broad range of different views in relation to the Cyprus hospitality industry.

For example, The Cyprus Hotel Association has recently announced satisfactory occupancy rates coupled with better recovery rates than the ones predicted, and that “the hotel industry is in a much stronger position to recover from any potential downturn than it was during the last recession”. On the contrary, even though there is a high number of customers, some hoteliers believe that “occupancy rates are not expected to vary due to the increased hotel capacity.” Therefore, under such situations, both the Cypriot authorities and the hoteliers should employ effective means of evaluating and monitoring as to whether or not, Cyprus is delivering the quality, range of services, activities and experiences necessary to satisfy the customers. In addition to these, there are rumours indicating that, the hotels in Cyprus are planning extensive redevelopment.

However, as the problem remains for the hoteliers to specify the term service quality, which in turn, will help them to identify any quality gaps and to further help them to understand customers' attitudes towards the quality of the service provided by them, before attempting to implement any service-improvement training programs. Therefore, any piece of research should aim at exploring the importance of customer care in the hospitality industry, and in general to pay attention to the following points: the customers' expectation and perceptions of the service quality, the gap between expectations and perceptions, and the impact of the training factors to be used to determine service quality, and the overall customer satisfaction.

Based on the above problems present in the Cyprus Hotel Industry, any study aiming at helping the hoteliers to deal successfully with these problems, must definitely involve the collection of consumer opinion data, which can be used by the whole hospitality industry to improve the quality of the service and the delivery of customer's satisfaction as well.

Hypothesis & research questions

“A customer's expectation and perception of service quality survey will provide significant information that can be used by hospitality leaders to develop the service-improvement training programs.”

Aims of this paper and research questions

The aim of this paper is of three folds: firstly, to review the current state of tourism in Cyprus, secondly, to explain and analyze in details the research methodology and the research findings, and thirdly, to discuss managerial implications based on the research findings. However, before dealing with any of the above aims, the following four specific questions must first be posed:

1. What target group should comprise the sample of this study?
2. What are the customers' expectations regarding the service provided by a particular hotel?”
3. What are a customer's perceptions about the service he/she actually receives in a hotel?”
4. What is the most appropriate method to be used to assess the available data?”

Nevertheless, the specific objectives of this study will be firstly, to investigate customers' expectations and perceptions of the service quality, and to determine the gap between expectations and perceptions. Secondly, to explore the impact of those factors determining the service quality and the overall customer satisfaction.

Target group

As a starting point in this research paper, it will be very useful, to consider the service quality managers and the marketing researchers who both are dealing with and focus on customer satisfaction programs, measurement, analysis and implementation, as the assessment of the service quality could help the industry plan and implement service-improvement training programs. In addition, the assessment of the service quality, could also be expected to help produce a comparative study report, which will hopefully help identify the key problems faced by the hospitality industry today. Therefore and consequently, appropriate recommendations to remedy the poor quality of the services in the hotel industry can be made.

Literature Review

In order to assess consumer opinion to assist the hospitality industry to improve its service quality, and to help it provide a conceptual framework, it will be necessary to carry out research on the information of the service quality, customer satisfaction, consumer opinion survey, data collection, on the effective methods of assessing and presenting data, and to draw on a number of publications and journals from different sources.

Service quality

The service literature provides a large number of operational and theoretical framework studies, which introduce various methodologies as to how to measure service quality in different hospitality sectors (Ryan & Cliff, 1997; Getty & Thompson, 1994; Saleh & Ryan, 1991; Pizam & Milman, 1993). However, in the service industry, the definitions of service quality primarily focus on meeting customers' needs and expectations, and how well the potential service delivered can meet their expectations (Lewis & Booms, 1983). Gronoos (1984) states though, the perceived quality of service depends on the comparison of the expected service with the perceived service, and on the outcome of a comparative evaluation process. However, Parasuraman et al. (1985) had developed the GAP model, and the subsequent SERVQUAL model within the GAPS framework, and they had defined "service quality" as the degree and direction of discrepancy between customers' perceptions and expectations, and they had "perceived service quality" as the gap between customers' perceptions and expectations, as a measurement of service quality. Therefore, the smaller the gap between customers' perception and expectation, the better will be the service quality provided, and the greater the customer satisfaction.

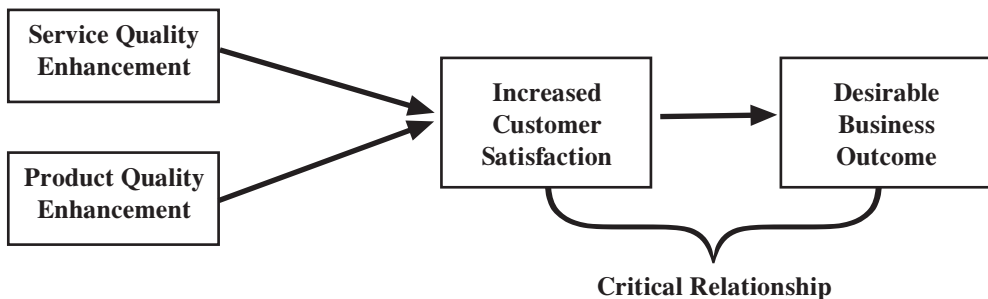
Customer Satisfaction

Although the concept of “customer satisfaction” is different from the concept of “perceived service quality”, some studies have found a significant correlation between these two paradigms, and have included similar errors in their of interpretation of customer satisfaction (Oh & Park, 1997). The perceived service quality differs from satisfaction in that the service quality is the customers’ attitude or global judgment of service superiority over time, while the term satisfaction is connected with only a specific transaction (Bitner, 1990; Bolton & Drew, 1991; Parasuraman et al., 1988).

In the hospitality literature, most of the studies into the area of customer satisfaction have focused on identifying service attributes, which can also be treated as customers’ needs and wants. From a marketing perspective however, a customer satisfaction can be achieved only when his or her needs and wants are satisfied. In the literature, there is a general widespread agreement in that the provision of service quality is concerned with generating customer satisfaction. Nevertheless, Gronoos, Parasuraman et al. and Johnston have defined service quality in terms of customer satisfaction, the degree of fit between customers’ expectations and perceptions of service.

The Service Quality and the Satisfaction (the Servqual instrument)

Figure 1: The relationship between quality and satisfaction



The first research involving the measurement of customer satisfaction has taken place in the early 1980s, and studies by Oliver (1980), Churchill and Surprenant (1982), and Bearden and Teel (1983) have the tendency to focus on the operationalization of customer satisfaction and its antecedents. By the mid-1980s though, the focus of both applied and academic research had shifted towards constructing, refinement and the implementation of strategies especially designed to optimize customer satisfaction (Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman 1996). Their discussion of customer satisfaction, service quality, and customer expectations represented one of the first attempts to operationalize satisfaction in a theoretical context. They proposed that, the ratio of perceived performance to customer expectations was the key to maintain satisfied customers. Several years later, Parasuraman, Berry, and Zeithaml

(1988) published a second, related discussion, which focused more specifically on the psychometric aspects of the service quality. Their multi-item SERVQUAL scale was then considered as one of the first attempts to operationalize the customer satisfaction construct, by focusing on the performance component of the service quality model, in which quality was defined as the disparity between expectations and performance.

However, the multi item scale the SERVQUAL scale is still used today as a foundation for instrument development, with the primary areas of concern in this scale involving 22 statements across five dimensions: tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy, the SERVQUAL instrument, for many years has regarded these five dimensions as the basis for service quality measurement.

Fick and Ritchie (1991) had demonstrated the usefulness of the SERVQUAL instrument in measuring service quality in hospitality-related service industries, despite the fact that a number of concerns and shortcomings of the instrument had been identified. Saleh and Ryan had (1991) had developed a modified SERVQUAL questionnaire to survey guests and the management staff of a hotel. However, a number of criticisms have been made regarding the underlying conceptualization and operationalisation of the SERVQUAL model and scale (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Brown et al., 1992). Carman (1990) had stated that the 22 SERVQUAL items could not be used exactly as designed unless modifications to individual items and specific wordings were made to accommodate the new settings.

The HOLSAT Instruments

HOLSAT is a name given to a research instrument designed for particular investigations, and the design of the HOLSAT survey builds on previous work to develop indicators of service quality from the consumer perspective. In particular, this method seeks to clarify some confusion that exists in the literature between the terms expectation, perception and satisfaction.

Based on the service quality instrument developed by Parasuraman et al. (1998), and the holiday satisfaction instrument, this study aims at assessing any service quality gaps between customers' expectations and perceptions of Cyprus most important hotels, and to explore the factors in predicting customers' satisfaction within the Cyprus hospitality industry.

Key variables in the literature

Having in mind that a number of researchers have investigated the customers' expectations, perceptions of the service quality, and the customer satisfaction, as the key variables, the service quality and the customer satisfaction have been examined in large amount of literature. Even though and undoubtedly, survey instrument designing is a highly technical process, study in instrument designing and testing is critical to the development of a valid and reliable survey instrument.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology of this paper will be in the form of sampling and assessing consumer opinion, in order to provide the hotels with reliable data that could be used to assist hospitality officials in their future effort to develop service-improvement programs. The study will be in the form of a descriptive research design, as it will involve the use of secondary research in the form of existing information, to design a consumer opinion survey, and descriptive statistics to assess and present data.

A self-administered survey questionnaire will be used to collect data from the target sample groups, which will be consisted of three parts:

Part A: It is designed to collect general information about the respondent and their holiday purposes.

Part B: It is designed to rate the respondents expectations.

Part C: It is designed to rate the overall holiday satisfaction.

The respondents will be required to assess the performance of those facilities and services identified by the questionnaire on a 7-point performance scale, and with the study adopting the use of a single overall measure of tourist satisfaction. However, there will be the use of several procedures in order to complete this study. Firstly, a literature review will be conducted. Secondly, all participating hotels according to the major tourist region division will be contacted. Thirdly, the designed instruments will undergo a vigorous testing. Fourthly, the survey will be implemented and the instruments will be delivered to the community sample, and surveys of visitors will be conducted in the chosen hotels. Fifthly, the survey results will be prepared for presentation and some tables and illustrations will accompany them as well.

Secondary and Primary Data

The data collection will be carried out in two stages. In the first stage, an inductive, qualitative approach will be adopted, in order to identify the SERVQUAL issues of importance to the hospitality industry participants, and the secondary data will be extracted from magazines from hotels, the Hospitality Industry, newspaper articles, hotel brochure, and from the Internet. With the aid of this secondary data collection, a number of findings will be structured into a simple consumer opinion survey, which will be self-administered and therefore, designed to collect data regarding the relative importance of factors in dealing with lodging, food service, and service attitude.

The second stage of the data collection will take the form of primary data collection, through self-administered survey questionnaire methods.

Questionnaires

The structured questionnaire was consisted of four parts:

Part one: It was designed to assess customers' expectations of service quality on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly agree" (7) to "strongly disagree" (1).

Part two: It was designed to assess customers' perceptions of service quality on the same 7-point Likert scale.

Part three: It was designed to evaluate the customers' overall satisfaction with service quality, on the same 7-point Likert scale, ranging again from "very satisfied" (7) to "very dissatisfied" (1).

Part four: It was designed to collect socio-demographic data about the respondents.

The survey was conducted during the months of May and July 2005, and the questionnaire used in this survey has been extracted from revised publication of the SERVQUAL tool and it will be presented in the future.

Interviews

Interviews are important measurements for research information, as through them, can directly contact members of a hotel and gather the latest information on a research topic. The contact method chosen for our interviews was therefore, the personal approach or the face-to-face interviews. A series of in-depth interviews were conducted on hotels guests, in order to gain an understanding on the inner behavior of their expectations and their perceptions, and if they have considered them important when selecting hotels.

Sample

The selected sample was made up of six hotels within the whole Cyprus area: The Holiday Inn Hotel and the Cyprus Hilton Hotel in Nicosia area, the Amathus Beach Hotel in the Limassol area, the Venus Beach Hotel and the Pioneer Beach Hotel in the Pafos area, and the Adamas Beach Hotel in the Ayia Napa area. The reason for choosing a wide range of hotels in different areas of destination was to gain a valuable information, which could be used to achieve a reliable and valid research project. The sample unit used in the survey was hotel guests, both male and female, above the age of 18. A total of 300 questionnaires were distributed to guests lodging in the above selected hotels. The sample size was limited to a quota of 30 respondents per each selected hotel, and through a simple random sample selection process, each hotel guest had an equal chance of being selected for an interview. However, a convenient sampling approach, which could have been used for this study, could have been to choose the sample for this study. The administered questionnaire was distributed to the sampling unit, and it was collected immediately after its completion.

Instruments

As already have been mentioned, there are two mainly research instruments designed to analyze the concepts of the service quality and consumer satisfaction, the SERVQUAL and the HOLSAT instruments. In the SERVQUAL instrument, five elements of service quality were tested: reliability, responsiveness, tangibles, empathy and assurance, and gap scores between the difference between expectation and perception of the service delivery were calculated. The HOLSAT instrument was mostly used to measure holiday and hotel satisfaction, and the pilot study had contributed to this instrument. An integral part of the development of the HOLSAT instrument was its testing in the chosen hotel destinations in Nicosia, Pafos, Limassol and Ayia Napa. This instrument had been divided into distinct sections, and the respondents were asked to rate their opinions according to the seven-part Likert-type scale, 1-7. The data entry was done by using the Questionnaire Processing System program, that resulted in a database of quantitative information from which a cross-tabular could be produced

FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

Demographic Findings

Using an objective statistical data basis associated with the major personal and socio-demographic variables, the first analysis was concluded. The following table, contains details of this analysis.

Out of the 300 questionnaires received, only 210 of them were completed and usable, representing a 70% ratio. **Table one** shows that 55.1% of the respondents were female and most of them were in the age categories of 35-44 (21.1%) and 55-64(17.7%) respectively. However, the majority of the respondents were staff (35%) and retired people (24%). In terms of countries, Russia, Britain and Germany were the three top countries concerning the tourist's arrival volume. It has appeared that the respondents with a "leisure" purpose in mind when taking a holiday, were 69.4%, and they have dominated the sample as well, while the respondents with "business" and "visiting friends/relatives" purpose in mind when taking a holiday, have accounted for a mere 19.6% and 11.0% respectively. As the above table shows, the most preferable or popular length staying destinations, were those of seven fourteen days respectively.

TABLE 1: Profile of tourists in Cyprus

Variables		
Gender	Male	44.9%
	Female	55.1%
Age	18-24	15.4%
	25-34	15.7%
	35-44	21.1%
	45-54	15.3%
	55-64	17.7%
	65 or above	14.8%
Occupation	Student	10.0%
	Retired	24.0%
	Housewife	14.0%
	Staff	35.0%
	Manager	14.0%
	Others	3.0%
Nationality	British	30%
	Russian	32%
	Germany	14%
	Finish	8%
	French	3%
	Arabic	4%
	Norwegian	2%
Others	7%	
Purpose of traveling	Business	19.6%
	Leisure	69.4%
	Visiting friends & relatives	11.0%
Length of stay	Less than 7days	15%
	7days	31%
	14 days	35%
	21days	10%
	Over 21days	9%

Expectations Vs Perceptions

Having in mind that this study has been a pilot study and that the significance of its results may be reduced by the emergent limitations of the methodology being used, it can however, serve to illustrate the potential utility of SERVQUAL and HOLSAT in the measurement of holiday satisfaction. The results are presented in tabular and graphical forms, in order to improve the clarity of the interpretation due to the highly detailed and complex survey being used. The response to the questionnaire has been presented in a numbered order as it shown in the table two below.

Table 2: Distribution of service quality values between consumer's expectations and perceptions of Cyprus hospitality industry (n =300)

Statement	Expectation	Perceptions	Gap means
1. The holiday would be good value for money.	5.48	4.96	-0.52
2. The destination would be safe and secure	5.57	4.13	-1.44
3. The destination would have a variety of nightlife.	5.53	4.77	-0.76
4. The destination would have convenient operating hours	5.06	4.42	-0.64
5. The destination would have a variety of restaurants and/or bars	6.64	4.45	-2.19
6. Employees would never be too busy to respond to a request	6.52	4.31	-2.21
7. The restaurants and bars would be cheap.	6.32	4.10	-2.22
8. I would be able to sample local food and drink.	6.54	4.52	-2.02
9. The shops would be cheap.	6.27	4.33	-1.94
10. The nightlife would be cheap.	5.87	3.70	-2.17
11. The hotel staff would be friendly.	5.79	4.19	-1.60
12. The room would have quality furnishings.	6.00	4.16	-1.84
13. Facilities in the rooms would be functioning properly.			

14. Hotel meals would be of a high quality.	6.03	4.00	-2.03
15. Laundry service would be good.	6.18	4.22	-1.96
16. I would be able to mix and talk with Cypriot people.	6.13	4.40	-1.73
17. I expected good weather condition in the chosen area	6.13	4.35	-1.78
18. I would be able to learn more about Cyprus history.	5.57	3.98	-1.59
19. I would be able to visit museums and archaeological sites.	5.21	4.33	-0.88
20. I would be able to use local transport.	5.44	3.97	-1.47
21. The beach and ocean would be clean.	5.79	4.20	-1.59
22. Efficiency of check-in and check-out at the accommodation	5.69	4.92	-0.77
23. Employees would be neat and groomed properly	5.65	5.25	-0.40

Note: *Gap-mean score is defined as: Gap-mean = Perception mean - Expectation mean.*

Table 2 shows the respective expective expectation, perception and gap means concerning the service quality received by tourists in Cyprus. The results show that tourists have relatively high expectations (means = 6.52) of hotels and their employees in term of that they would never be too busy to respond to their requests. However, relatively low expectation scores (means = 5.06) were found in relation to the items referring to convenient operating hours. In general, the findings suggest the following:

All the perception scores in relation to the service attributes in this study were lower than the expectation scores, implying that each service attribute has suffered from a service quality shortfall.

The largest gap scores found for “ Employees are never too busy to respond to customers’ requests have a gap (score mean = 2.21), which might indicate that hotel employees were not motivated enough to take the initiative to solve customers’ problems.

Table 3: Results of factor analysis on 23 attributes and its five dimensions (n = 300)

Attributes	Factor
1. The holiday would be good value for money. 2. The destination would be safe and secure 3. The destination would have a variety of nightlife. 4. The would have convenient operating hours 5. The destination would have a variety of restaurants and/or bars 6. Employees would never be too busy to respond	Factor 1 - Responsiveness & assurance
7. The restaurants and bars would be cheap. 8. I would be able to sample local food and drink. 9. The shops would be cheap. 10. The nightlife would be cheap. 11. The hotel staff would be friendly.	Factor 2 - Reliability (-1.99)
12. The room would have quality furnishings. 13. Facilities in the rooms would be functioning properly. 14. Hotel meals would be of a high quality. 15. Laundry service would be good.	Factor 3 - Empathy
16. I would be able to mix and talk with Cypriot people. 17. I expected the good weather conditions in the area 18. I would be able to learn more about Cyprus history. 19. I would be able to visit museums and archaeological sites. 20. I would be able to use local transport.	Factor 4 - Resources and corporate image
21. The beach and ocean would be clean. 22. Efficiency of check-in and check-out at the accommodation 23. Employees would be neat and groomed properly	Factor 5 - Tangibility (-0.91)

The results of the factor analysis as it is shown in **table 3**, suggests that five factors or five dimensions with 23 variables out of the 26 original variables, were abstracted to help in the interpretation of the scale. The five dimensions were simply named: “responsiveness and assurance”, “reliability”, “empathy”, “resources and corporate image”, and “tangibility”. Based on the results of these factor analysis, **table 3** presents the results of expectation, perception, and gap mean scores for these five factors, and the results show that customers have the largest gap score for Factor 2 – Reliability (-1.99), suggesting that the customers had felt relatively disappointed with hotels in relation to this aspect. This shortfall, may also suggest that employees were not able to deliver quality service as it has been promised. However, the smallest gap score of Factor 5 - Tangibility (-0.91), is indicating perhaps that most hotels were able to provide a computerized check-in and checkout facility, and to ensure that employees were neat and tidy and in general met their customers’ expectations.

Limitations

The limitations of this study in term of measuring the perceived service quality in relation to the customers' perceptions and expectations were made at the same time, as the respondents have attempted to compare their perceptions of service quality with their expectations. There seems to be a respondent bias due to demographic differences which have not been representative to the whole population, and because a convenient sampling method has been used to collect the data.

Therefore, it could be argued that the results of this study might have been different, if the survey has been conducted in different months or in different season of the year. There is also the limitation, which relates to the differences in perceptions of tourists, as the majority of the respondents in the sample study were British tourists. This can mean that, this study could be replicated if different nationalities were used, if the relative importance of the destination components were nationality-specific. In addition, the measurement items of this study might also need further refinement if they are going to be used in any future studies.

CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

Based of the findings, this study accepts the initial stated hypothesis question and it reveals that there is a gap between customer expectations and perceptions, in terms of the quality of the service provided by hotels, which mean that customers' expectations of service quality are not met. The Factor analysis has clearly demonstrated that "reliability", "responsiveness and assurance" were the most influential factors in this study in predicting customer satisfaction. In addition, these two factors have the largest gap score mean, suggesting that customers' perception has fallen seriously short from their expectations. A hotel to be competitive therefore, it seems that hotels must focus their efforts more on improving the following two critical areas in terms of employees and professional service attitude.

To achieve this however, it may mean that hotels must implement long-term human resource strategies in order to recruit, train and develop qualified employees, but not without considering the additional necessary investment in terms of time and training costs, which as the findings of this study have shown that such an investment will be very critical in fulfilling customers' expectations, and ensuring their satisfaction as well.

In conclusion, delivering quality service will be one of the major challenges facing the hospitality managers in the coming years of the next millennium, and it will be an essential condition for success in the emerging, keenly competitive, global hospitality markets. However, while the future importance of delivering quality hospitality service is easy to discern and to agree on, doing so, it presents some difficult and intriguing management issues.

Managerial Implications

The challenge of providing high quality tourist experiences and meeting tourist expectations, could become less difficult if managers know what the tourist needs are, and they therefore, correctly assess the importance they attach to each individual element making up the total tourist experience. Given the criticality of the satisfaction data in developing sound management strategies and the scarcity of research on this concept in Cyprus, this study results could have very important implications for the Cyprus Tourism Office, which could have the opportunity to make recommendations to the various tourism sectors that it operates. In considering the multi-dimensional nature of the factors affecting tourists' satisfaction, the main authorities must make sure that these factors work together in a systematic and synergistic fashion to secure the necessary delivery of quality experiences to the tourists in Cyprus.

The current overall level of satisfaction of holiday tourist destinations in Cyprus appears to be largely determined by the level of tourist impressions of the hospitality industry itself, the service quality, accommodation, catering, and other tourist facilities and activities in which the tourist participates. Therefore, there should be a substantial responsibility on the part of those who run these facilities, to ensure that the current levels of satisfaction with their businesses are maintained and or even be improved. This responsibility should particularly be considered as critical, given that these components impact significantly on the likelihood of recommending an important factor in term of generating a favorable word-of-mouth and the fact that in today's highly competitive market, the destination's survival depends greatly on its ability to provide superior tourist experience, which could generates tourist satisfaction.

However, the Cyprus hospitality businesses could be managed more effectively, by suggesting a two-step process in the evaluation of a service chain.

First, the hospitality managers must identify each encounter in the service chain that they wish to take a part in, and then they must single out those encounters, which do not seem operational or of any strategic significance. In an effect, by focusing on those very few encounters which could really make the difference in the guest experience and, thus to the bottom line of providing quality services.

Second, the hospitality managers must apply and improve through effective redesign the following 6s:

1. Specification
2. Staff
3. Space
4. System
5. Support
6. Style

The term specification clearly means detailed information about what, when, where, and how, of the service encounters, and it will require to give a careful thought of the relative linkages between particular service encounters among the service chain.

The term staff must incorporate the following questions: What type of staff members should get involved in providing the required service? What type of skills should the employees need to possess? What type of training should it need to be provided to them? How much should they get committed to the service goals? Should it be team cooperation or an individual empowerment requirement? What attitudes should be appropriate - friendly, open, helpful, warm service, or efficient? What staff members should be allowed to deal with guests? What staff appearance and presentation should be considered as appropriate?

The terms space, system and style should include the following questions: Is there adequate space to handle each of the activities such as waiting and handling luggages? Are the necessary systems to support the service in place? Is the appropriate technology being fully used? Are the services provided given the facilities, financial and human support needed to do the job? Is the management style and marketing orientation appropriate for the tasks?

Therefore, when the hospitality managers will carry out this two-step process, they will be in an excellent position to make decisions that will both improve the quality of the hospitality services provided, and the guest perceptions of them as well.

In short, it is clear that the hospitality and the tourism managers need to undertake periodic tourist satisfaction measure assessments, as satisfaction cannot be improved without measuring it. However, they also need to incorporate relative performance measurements into their investigations, as any information without relative performance measurements will be deemed incomplete. If service encounters are to be considered as the building blocks of quality in the hospitality service, zeroing in on the hospitality service quality in this manner, it will help the hospitality businesses meet the service challenges of the millennium and to enhance their market position. Finally and to conclude on the outcome of this study, so far, the proposed hypothesis has been proved correct: "A customer's expectation and perception of service quality survey will provide significant information that can be used by the hospitality leaders to develop the service-improvement programs".

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Choosing a Cruise Destination, and the Level of Passengers' Satisfaction, their Needs and Expectations: the Cyprus Case

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ABSTRACT

Cruise lines that wish to succeed in the future will pay very close attention to the needs and desires of this generation. As the conspicuous consumption mentality of the 1990s gives way to the value conscious consumer of the 2000s, the cruise industry will do well to heed this trend. Not only are today's consumers more value conscious, but also their levels of expectations are higher and their desires for something different are all-important factors in the purchasing decision. This paper investigates an approach to cruising, including an explanation of the different segments of the cruise market and the typology (i.e. characteristics) of cruisers. The level of passengers' satisfaction, their needs and expectations, and the factors considered for choosing a destination from Cypriot cruisers are extensively examined by analysing the results of cruise passenger surveys.

INTRODUCTION

The word "cruise" is usually difficult to define. This is because cruise liners use different routes and destinations with different types of passengers. The cruise market can be divided into the following segments [Cruise Industry News, 2000]:

1. Contemporary market: It includes cruises offered on older ships with an average length of seven days or shorter and is value-priced.
2. Premium market: It includes cruises with a broader range of amenities and services, which often sail worldwide, and which appeal to more affluent passengers.
3. Budget market: It includes inexpensively priced cruises with fewer amenities.
4. Luxury market: It includes cruises with an average of 14 days or longer on medium-sized or smaller ships, which offer a full range of upscale services and amenities.
5. Niche market: It includes explorations, sail or other specialty ships.

Cruises can be defined as travel accommodation on board ship between two or more destinations with the objective of leisure, where no passenger can embark or disembark before their final destination. These cruises can be classified into:

1. Mini cruises: cruises with the objective of leisure taken on an irregular basis all year round between two cities.

2. Overnight cruises: cruises with the objective of leisure sometimes combined with transportation, on a regular basis all year round between two cities.
3. Short cruises: cruises with the objective of leisure on an irregular basis from one city to a destination or to nowhere.
4. Long cruises: cruises of more than seven days with the objective of leisure and sightseeing.

The requirements of cruisers are derived from those generic to holidaymakers. Various authorities have considered models for describing tourists. Cohen (1972) provided four categories for describing tourists, including "the organised mass tourist", "the individual mass tourist", "the explorer", and "the drifter". Other researchers have looked at the importance of the psychological determinants in the tourist industry, such as escape, relaxation, play, education, social interaction, shopping and others [Crompton J., 1979; Mathieson A. & Wall G., 1982; Ryan C., 1991]. Based on the above ideas, it is essential to describe the Cypriot cruiser profile, that is, the tendency of any one person on a cruise to require certain ingredients to make that cruise a success.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In order to investigate the consumer attitudes to cruise tourism and characteristics of Cypriot cruisers, two surveys were conducted. The first survey was carried out on board a cruise ship and outside the Limassol port terminal in Cyprus during July 2004. The random sampling technique was used to select the population. 350 questionnaires were distributed and an 85.7% (i.e. 300) were answered by the passengers. The respondents were asked to rate certain factors as being the most important in making a cruise holiday enjoyable. The respondents were also asked to consider the major factors in their choice of voyage, the importance of various aspects of cruising and their satisfaction levels after having taken the cruise. Then, they were asked to answer questions of how they booked their cruise and whether they would like to take another cruise within the next three years. In an attempt to compare cruising with land-based vacations, they were asked to rate their satisfaction on some important items during their cruise and land-based vacations.

The second survey was conducted in conjunction with some tour operators/travel agents in Cyprus. The survey was carried out using interviews, and the purpose was to further investigate the Cypriot cruisers' characteristics and preferences. This survey was supported by a group discussion that was conducted in 2003. The fundamental considerations (i.e. factors) of competition at sea that were derived from the analysis of the market survey are finally described.

ANALYSIS OF CUSTOMERS' SATISFACTION TO CRUISE TOURISM – SURVEY 1

Attitudes to cruising differ in many countries. For example, in the US and Canada cruising was not a traditional vacation option in the 19th century and many North Americans in the past were more interested in building infrastructure for internal tourism and vacationing at home than in looking outwards to the sea. To many in Europe, there has been a feeling that

cruising was for the old and wealthy and the industry would have to continue to work hard for some years in order to ensure that these traditional attitudes are dropped [Wild G. P., 1995]. Table 1 shows the attitudes of consumers in the Cyprus region to cruising, obtained through the authors' surveys.

Table 1: Consumer attitudes towards cruising by demographics

Source: Market survey 1-2004

	First-time cruisers (%)	Frequent cruisers (%)
All	12	88
Males	55	60
Females	45	40
15-20	4	2
21-30	6	3
31-40	10	15
41-50	55	40
Over 50	25	40
Married	78	72
Single	15	18
Divorced	5	6
Widow	2	4
Do vacation with children	90	86
Do not vacation with children	10	14

From Table 1, it can be seen that, of those polled (456 passengers), 88% were frequent cruisers and 12% were first-time cruisers. Most of the cruisers (i.e. 65%) were males and 35% were females. It is also shown that most of the cruisers were married in both cases (i.e. first-time and frequent cruisers), and they prefer taking a cruise with children.

Table 2: Number of days preferred for a cruise holiday

Source: Market survey 1-2004

Item (No of days)	Cruise (%)
4-7 days	73
8-15 days	20
Less than 3 days	7
16-30 days	0
Total	100

Table 2 gives the number of days that Cypriots prefer to spend in a cruise holiday. Clearly, most of the cruisers (i.e. 73%) prefer to spend 4-7 days in a cruise holiday. A proportion of 20% said that the option of 8-15 days is most preferred and 7% of the people prefer taking a mini cruise.

Table 3: Factors affecting passengers' decision to take a cruise

Source: Market survey 1-2004

Item (Factors)	%
Attractive destinations	60
Safety	55
Good price	55
Convenient dates	53
Better ship	48
Entertainment on-board	45
Other	5

Table 3 shows that passengers considered attractive destinations as the most important factor with the rate of 60% in their choice of cruise, followed by good price and safety factors of 55%. Convenient dates fall slightly behind the two factors of price and safety with a rate of 53%. The factor 'other' includes relaxation with the lowest rate of 5%.

Table 4: Important factors during cruise vacation

Source: Market survey 1-2004

Item (Factors)	%
Visiting churches, museums, etc	68
Entertainment on-board	60
Go sightseeing	53
Shopping	38
Visiting tourist attractions	38
Eating at a local restaurant/taverns	18
Swimming	3

Passengers considered the option 'Visiting churches and museums' as the most important factor in their decision to go on a cruise in the particular regions. This may be mainly due to the same religion (i.e. Christian Orthodox) and history with Greece. This means that Cypriot cruise operators, in choosing cruise destination, will need to ensure that they find places where there are historical monuments, churches and monasteries that are of great interest to Cypriot cruisers. The option 'Entertainment' comes second and 'Go sightseeing'

comes third with a rate of 60% and 53%, respectively. A negative comment derived was that free time allowed at each destination was not enough. This did not enable passengers to visit and explore each destination adequately.

Other remarkable features were derived from the survey. These are associated with a cruise vacation and shown in Table 5 in terms of their importance.

Table 5: Level of importance of factors during cruise vacation

Source: Market survey 1-2004

	Very important %	Quite important %	Not important %
Cabins			
Cleanliness	97	3	0
Size	75	25	0
Facilities	91	9	0
Food			
Quantity	39	54	7
Quality	94	6	0
Services	83	17	0
Lounges			
Comforts	88	12	0
Services	89	11	0
Music	78	19	3
Entertainment	75	25	0
Shops			
Price	74	19	7
Variety	72	14	14
Services	64	32	4
Casino			
Comforts	36	32	32
Services	30	35	35
Other			
General cleanliness	97	3	0
General services	82	18	0
Hospitality	97	3	0
Kid programmes	64	29	7

Table 5 clearly shows that 'Cabin and general cleanliness' are of paramount importance for Cypriot passengers. These two factors together with the 'Hospitality' come first with the highest rate of 97%. These factors are also important for the companies. If passengers are disappointed, they are likely to blame the cruise line and tell their friends, families, co-workers and travel agents about their negative experience. Other important factors include the quality of food (i.e. 94%) on-board cruise ships, the comforts and services in the lounges (i.e. 88% and 89% respectively), the prices of items in the shops (i.e. 74%), the general services on-board (i.e. 82%), and the kid programmes (i.e. 64%). Another remarkable feature is that Cypriot cruisers do not consider the casino facilities as important factor during their cruise vacation. They do not want to spend their money on casino. However, they prefer buying shore excursions, and also buying something that they cannot get at home.

Expectations for the cruise experience are high, particularly in being a learning experience, offering comfortable accommodation and relaxing.

Table 6: Cruising attributes according to Cypriot cruisers

Source: Market survey 1-2004

Item	Importance %	Satisfaction %	Gap %
Is a way to meet interesting people	61	72	+9
Learning experience	80	83	+3
Allows you to relax	83	85	+2
Offers a variety of activities	62	63	+1
Is a good value for money	73	74	+1
Is a fun vacation	70	70	0
Offers comfortable accommodation	91	77	-14
Gives you the chance to visit different places	73	40	-33

Clearly, Table 6 shows that in most areas satisfaction levels were in excess of expectation, particularly in the areas of meeting interesting people, learning experience, relaxing, and offering a variety of activities. Most passengers thought that comfortable accommodation and the chance to visit different places are very important during their cruise vacation. The survey results show that the satisfaction level was not in excess of expectation. These may be a serious concern for the Cypriot cruise operators, because passengers pay a significant amount of money for their vacation, and they demand comfortable accommodation and enough time to visit new places.

In continuation, when compared to land-based vacations by people who have taken both cruise and land-based vacations, cruise holidays have some significant descriptive characteristics. Table 7 details all these items.

Table 7: Cruising versus resort vacations

Source: Market Survey 1-2004

Item	Cruising %	Resorts %
Well organized	91	88
Relaxing	75	88
Good value for money	85	64
Safety	100	92
Romantic	71	50
Comforts	79	63
Activities	69	29

The fact that people consider that a cruise vacation is a safe type of holiday as opposed to a land-based vacation rates high among cruisers. The characteristic with the highest difference between cruise and land-based vacations is that of “activities”. Table 7 also shows that cruising is a ‘good value for money’ compared to land resorts, there are more comforts on ships, and it seems to be a more romantic type of vacation.

The passengers were also asked whether they would go on a cruise in the area of Turkey if the country allows cruise ships with the Cyprus flag to approach the Turkey’s ports. 46% said that they would like to take a cruise while 54% would refuse to do so. Such a high percentage of the interviewees would refuse to take a cruise in Turkey possibly because of safety and political reasons. Those who said ‘NO’ were then asked whether they would change their decision if the cruise to Turkey could include Greek islands. Most of them said that they would not change their decision.

Another useful question of the survey was ‘where they have booked their cruise from’. 58% of the passengers booked their cruise through tour operators and 39% through the companies’ office. This shows that the distribution system of the tour operators plays a major role within the Cyprus cruise industry as liners and agents become close partners. 3% booked their cruise from other tourist offices and none booked the cruise through Internet.

In addition, passengers were asked ‘when they have booked their cruise’. It is obvious that 84% of passengers booked their cruise within a month before the cruise date. This is shown on Table 8.

Table 8: Time of cruise bookings

Source: Market survey 1-2004

Time of bookings	%
1 month before	52
Last minute	32
2 months before	16
3-6 months before	0
6-12 months before	0

Passengers were asked to provide information as to whether they would take another cruise to Greek islands. 93% of those polled said that they would take a cruise in these cruise regions. This is because they consider Greece and Greek islands safe places for their vacations, the islands are very beautiful, and the language is the same. 77% of the passengers expressed their interest to take a cruise in other regions, such as Italy, Syria, Lebanon, Egypt and Crete.

Finally, 93% of the passengers said that they would like to take another cruise within three years. They said that the main reason forcing them to take another cruise is that cruise vacations is an excellent combination between land-based holidays and sea travel, where they can enjoy certain things like sightseeing, entertainment and quality services. This shows that Cyprus cruise market will see continued growth, and this is a good indication of the future prospects of the companies offering cruises from Cyprus.

ANALYSIS OF CUSTOMERS' SATISFACTION TO CRUISE TOURISM – SURVEY 2

In order to investigate the Cypriot consumer attitudes to cruise tourism, a group discussion [Lois P., 2003, 2004] was carried out. A small group of people (i.e. 30) with a ship traveling experience in the last five years was asked to participate in a focus group discussion [Lois P., 2003]. The questions used in the questionnaires were influenced by the aim of the survey. The aim was to identify the cruisers' attitudes and also the current status of the cruising market in Cyprus. The discussion focused on their experiences and it has revealed a number of useful observations and attitudes. These can be summarised as follows:

- a. Need for privacy and cabin security.
- b. Need for cleanliness on the ship.
- c. Common space is limited. This is highly needed by the passengers.
- d. The need for good quality of food is emphasised.
- e. Dissatisfaction with the embarkation and disembarkation procedures.
- f. There is a great need for animation and socializing on the ship. This means that cruise companies can provide more social events on-board and bring people together in order to create social relationships and friendships.
- g. Dissatisfaction due to delays in arrivals and departures.

- h. Common areas such as bars, restaurants, swimming pools are very important for the cruisers since they spend most of their time in these areas.
- i. The need for convenient passports checking.
- j. All of the participants agreed that Cypriots like to travel by cruise ship. It is part of their holiday and it is perceived to be a mode of leisure or as “being on holiday” while traveling.

In addition to the above, another market survey was conducted by the authors in conjunction with some tour operators in Cyprus. The survey was carried out using interviews in July 2004, and the purpose was to further investigate the cruisers’ characteristics and preferences. The findings revealed are described as follows:

- a. Cruising is more characteristic of higher income groups. Low and medium groups are price sensitive. They are not willing to pay for luxury and will always look for possible cheaper alternatives. Higher income cruisers are value sensitive, prepared to pay more in order to get ‘value for money’.
- b. Shorter cruises of two or three days are preferred to longer trips. This is partly because the tourists spend a lot of money on hotel accommodation and do not want to pay a large amount for cruising tickets, and partly due to the tourists’ eagerness to continue their relaxing vacation in Cyprus.
- c. Tourists depend very much on their local representatives for information and advice on cruising/sightseeing.
- d. Cruisers demand comfortable accommodation, cleanliness, good food, quality service and satisfactory entertainment.
- e. Younger people mainly prefer to go on a cruise for entertainment purposes, while older people are interested in visiting places of historical significance.

CONCLUSION

According to various studies and surveys carried out throughout the decade [Loizou C., 1997; Peisley T., 2003; Wild G. P., 1995; Wild P. & Dearing J., 1999, 2000], the cruise industry enjoyed growth despite continuing recession, and has been more successful than almost any other tourism industry. This is also proved by the authors’ current survey (2004) and also past surveys [Lois P., Wang J., Wall A. D., Ruxton T., 2000, 2001] carried out. The cruise industry has prospered in the current economic environment, and the major lines are increasing their market share, earning good profits, and signalling optimism for a bright future with orders for new ships. A key reason of this prosperity is that a cruise provides greater value to the consumer compared to resorts and other types of vacation.

The cruise product and new ships will play a key role in the future of the Cyprus cruise

market. The cruise ships are becoming more innovative and, in many cases, larger to meet the needs of the changing cruise passenger. Destination development is also important. Another reason for the industry's success is the support of the travel agency/tour operator community. Because a cruise sale offers one of the highest commission opportunities available and also provides a high level of customer satisfaction [Lois P., Wang J., Wall A. D., Ruxton T., 2000; Lois P., 2004] hence generating repeat business, agents have aligned themselves with the cruise business to become close partners.

The continuing expansion of the cruise lines, the building of new ships and the new passengers' expectations may indicate that the competition will be strong. Therefore, the cruise lines need to take into account certain considerations. These may be beneficial for their customers, and the particular lines will be able to survive within the cruise market. The findings from the surveys [Lois P., Wang J., Wall A. D., Ruxton T., 2000, 2001] revealed that due to the expansion of the cruise market and the development opportunities for new destinations, the competition becomes very strong. The factors described in the analysis are of paramount significance and may be considered as important competition factors [Lois P., 2004; Paige M. M., 1994], and therefore, the cruise lines will have to pay great attention to these factors. This will enable them to overcome the problems of intensive competition.

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Guest Presentations via Videoconference: an Alternative to Face to Face Guest Lectures in Tourism Studies

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ABSTRACT

Increasing post-secondary budgetary constraints render the invitation of guest speakers less likely due to time and money constraints. This paper introduces videoconferencing as an alternative to face to face guest presentations. Recently, eight such events took place between Brock University, the University of Otago, and Napier University. Student feedback showed that such events are very successful and a more viable alternative to classical guest presentations, as well as a means to bring a change of pace and vibrant discussions with experts to the classroom.

Key Words: Teaching technology, interactive teaching, videoconferencing

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INTRODUCTION

Many universities encourage collaborative efforts between faculty members of various institutions. Particularly tourism studies benefit from collaboration of the international academic community, because field research is being undertaken in many parts of the globe. Typically guest lectures and presentations take place when a colleague is on campus or in the vicinity. However, money and time constraints usually do not allow inviting guest speakers from remote locations for one specific presentation. On the other hand, modern technology has found its way into the classroom (O'Sullivan, 2000), by means such as using PowerPoint for lectures and presentations, using the Internet and other computer applications in class, or supporting courses with Internet based teaching tools, such as Blackboard or WebCT. The latter offer synchronous and asynchronous discussion boards and chat tools, which not only support interaction between students and the instructor, but also supports involving

remotely located experts and practitioners in the course. In addition to other functions, these teaching tools are designed to encourage collaborative learning (McInnerney & Roberts, 2004). Motivated by the desire of more direct interaction between tourism students and recognized experts in their fields, but also by the time and money constraints of inviting guest speakers to physically come to a particular institution, a new form of collaboration has evolved: Teaching and sharing expertise via videoconference. The goal of the project presented in this paper was to establish videoconferencing as a regular, complementary method in teaching. Videoconferencing was tested and technologies to support this teaching method were subsequently developed and implemented. The advantages of the use of videoconferences in class will be highlighted at the end of this paper.

BACKGROUND

Collaboration is seen as an important strategic aspect of many research and development projects (Sonnenwald, Solomon, Hara, Bolliger, & Cox, 2003). Previous studies investigated videoconferences with various foci, such as the impacts of videoconferencing on interpersonal interaction, work outcomes and processes, and the satisfaction of users (Table 1, Sonnenwald et al., 2003).

Table 1: Previous studies on socio-technical aspects of videoconferencing

Research Focus	Research Setting		
	Pairs	Small group (3-7 people)	Large group (more than 8 people)
Interpersonal Interaction	Masoodian et al. (1995)	Sellen (1992)	Rice (1993)
	Heath & Luff (1991)	Ruhleder & Jordan (2001)	Isaacs et al. (1995)
Participant Satisfaction	Nodder et al. (1999)	Barefoot & Strickland (1982)	O’Conail, Whitaker & Wilber (1993)
		Tang & Isaacs (1993)	Finholt et al. (1998)
		Kies et al. (1996)	Mark, Grudin & Poltrock (1999)
Work Outcomes & Process		Patrick (1999)	Gowan & Downs (1994)
		Nardi et al. (1993)	Ruhleder, Jordan & Elmes (1996)
		Olson, Olson & Meader (1995)	

(Sonnenwald et al., 2003: 117)

Sonnenwald et al. (2003) review the results of previous studies, and group them into various themes, ordered by the outcomes of the studies. Firstly, they identify that audio is crucial for videoconferences (Tang & Isaacs, 1993; Whittaker, 1995), and that the video transmission can add value (Nardi et al., 1993) and increase user satisfaction (Kies, Williges, & Rosson, 1996; Olson, Olson, & Meader, 1995; Tang & Isaacs, 1993). On the other hand, compared

to face-to-face contact the use of videoconferences can lead to a reduction of interaction (Cadis et al., 2000; Isaacs, Morris, Rodriguez, & Tang, 1995; Ruhleder, Jordan, & Elmes, 1996; Sellen, 1992). In particular, Barefoot & Strickland (1982) note that there are three schools of thought regarding the interpersonal impact of media: media may facilitate interaction, media may hinder interaction, or media has no influence on interpersonal interactions. Lastly, the use of videoconferencing comprises both social and technical aspects (Finholt, Rocco, Bree, Jain, & Herbsleb, 1998; Gowan & Downs, 1994; Patrick, 1999). Tang & Isaacs (1993) contend that the quality of audio and video are crucial for the satisfaction of participants. In fact, Kies et al. (1996) argue that the quality of the video transmission does not have a negative effect on the task performance, but that user satisfaction is negatively effected.

METHODS

This study implemented videoconferencing as an additional form of regular lectures at university level, and it was of interest how students experienced the events, i.e. whether they saw benefits in such videoconferences, or if they disliked them. In addition, technical procedures were monitored and gradually improved in hope that the social and pedagogical components would improve over time. Thus, the project can be described as evolutionary, with eight videoconferences having been exchanged between three universities over the period of one year (April 2003 – March 2004).

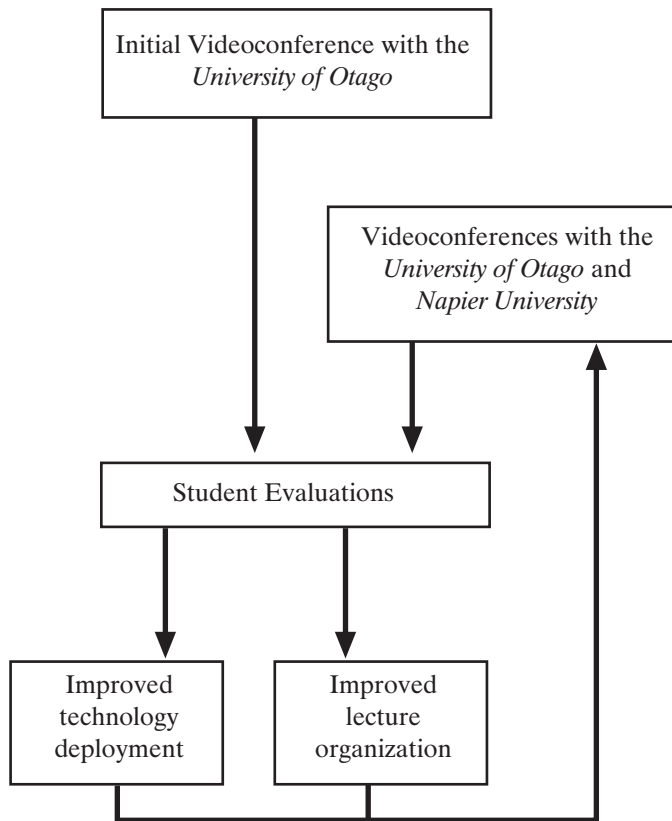
After each incoming videoconferenced lecture, students were given an evaluation form to fill in. This form comprised of six statements to be ranked from “excellent” to “very poor” on a five-point Likert scale. The statements asked about the quality of the audio and video transmission, the clarity of the presented material, the fit of the topic with the course content, the possibility to ask questions, and an overall rating for the videoconference. In addition, four open ended questions asked students for their opinions about the strengths and weaknesses of the event, what they would change for future videoconferences, and how they generally thought about the videoconference. Students of all events were enrolled in courses of the tourism studies and recreation & leisure studies programs at Brock University, representing classes at third and fourth year levels. A total of 87 students in five video conferences participated in the survey.

FROM TEETHING PROBLEMS TO TEACHING EXCELLENCE

The authors, located in Ontario, Canada invited colleagues of the University of Otago in Dunedin, New Zealand to join this project and develop a frequent exchange of such video conferences. The first such event took place in April 2003, and seven additional video conferences have followed thus far. Shortly after the initial video conference, colleagues of Napier University in Edinburgh, Scotland joined this initiative. Although the first trial event was a success, some weaknesses were clearly identified. Participating students were asked to complete an evaluation form, rank various aspects of the event, as well as to comment on strengths and weaknesses of the videoconference. Technical staff and faculty jointly

worked on improvements in two main areas: the deployment of technology, and the organization of the lectures (Figure 1). Participants in subsequent lectures were given the same evaluation forms, for continuous monitoring of quality and success of the events.

Figure 1: Steps of the Project



The following sections will briefly discuss the technologies that are employed, and how they were improved, as well as some pedagogical considerations and improvements.

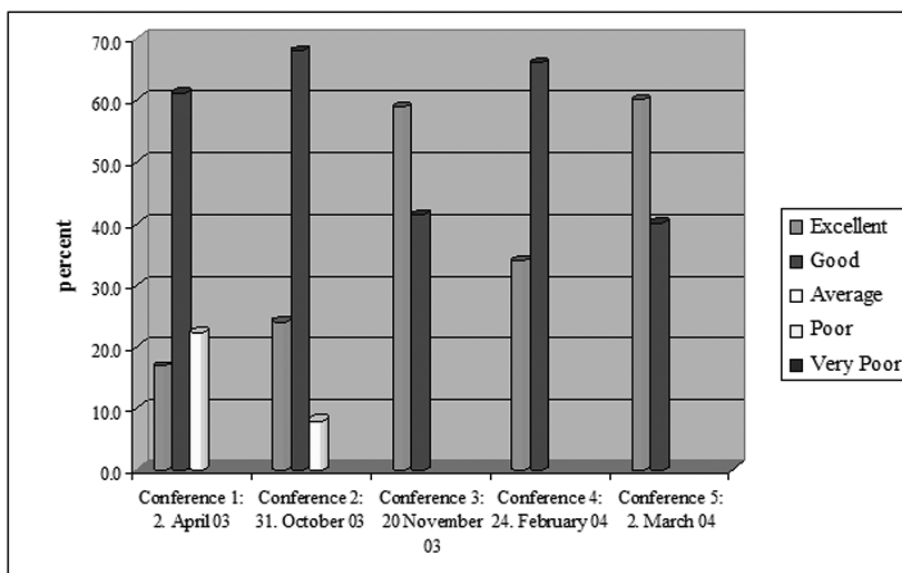
EMPLOYING NEW AND EMERGING TECHNOLOGIES

During the inaugural lecture, simple video conference technology was used, i.e. only video and audio was synchronously employed. The PowerPoint slides of the presenter were shown on a separate screen, and the presenter had to indicate when he wanted students to see the next slide. Obviously, this can be disruptive and is a less than ideal situation. Subsequently, BRIDGIT technology (Smart Technologies, 2004) was introduced. BRIDGIT enables

simplicity in sharing data with multiple participants at different locations. This new technology enables the presenter to share his/her desktop with the receiving location, providing control over the PowerPoint slides (or any other data to be shared). In addition, BRIDGIT enables interaction with text and /or graphical interfaces between the participating institutions. The second important development was the introduction of a single point of control interface for the management of the online collaboration. Cooperation with Brock University's Instructional Development Committee as well as with a leading Canadian technology company (Smart Technologies) provided an opportunity for the authors to contribute to the development of ConferencePilot, a recently released Smart Technologies product (Lück, 2004). ConferencePilot empowers the presenter to manage the entire collaboration (audio, video, data) from one location, for example, an electronic whiteboard. In Fall 2004, a more sophisticated version of BRIDGIT was implemented, which allows the sharing of animations and video files.

The implementation of these improvements resulted in a much smoother flow of the videoconference, and disruptions were only attributed to occasional connectivity problems. Subsequently, the overall student satisfaction increased with every event. The exception is the fourth videoconference, where some substantial technological problems – beyond the authors' control - were experienced. In particular, the connectivity was very poor, and frequent package loss resulted in at times substantial delay of the video transmission, and occasional break-up of the audio transmission. The results of the student evaluations in Figure 2 clearly illustrate this development.

Figure 2: Student Evaluation: “My overall rating for the video lecture is...”



PEDAGOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Although the evaluations for all eight videoconferences were outstanding (Lück, 2004; Lück & Laurence, 2005), some problems were identified by students. Students were provided with a handout of the presenters' PowerPoint slides at the beginning of class. Student feedback indicated that it would be beneficial to hand out the slides well in advance, so that they can prepare for the lecture, and have questions ready. Subsequently, presenters were encouraged to send the slides in advance, so that they could be passed on to students the lecture before the event. Chickering and Ehrman (1996) noted that one of the "Seven Principles of Good Practice in Undergraduate Education" is the encouragement of contact between students and faculty. Most of the videoconferences were set up in a classical "conference presentation style", i.e. included the presentation and a question and discussion session afterwards. Student feedback showed that this is not the best way for a videoconference for various reasons. Firstly, in order to better concentrate on the topic, students asked for more interaction throughout the lecture. Secondly, students felt intimidated talking to a distinguished researcher they only knew from their course readings. Experience showed that even for mature students, it takes a lot of courage to ask a question following the presentation. Thirdly, the previous problem was exacerbated by the requirement of "talking to a camera". Students felt uncomfortable to speak to someone who is not physically in the same room. During the first lecture, as a courtesy to the presenter the camera zoomed on the student asking a question. This picture was displayed in a small control window on the main screen, which made students extremely uncomfortable. In order to remedy those problems, a number of actions have been taken. Presenters are now encouraged to deliver a more interactive lecture, and involve students all the way through the presentation. Also, while the "picture in picture" technology is still used, remote/ local zooming was deselected in favor of a full class view for the remote presenter. These improvements resulted in the highest student evaluations for the most recent videoconference. Eighty percent rated the possibility to ask questions as excellent, and 20% rated them as good. None of the students found the possibilities to ask questions "average", "poor", or "very poor" (Lück, 2004). Although it was not part of the evaluation process, it is interesting to note that a number of students used example presented by the guest lecturers during the video conferences in answers during their end of term exam. This suggests that the material presented was interesting, and students remembered the content very well.

BENEFITS OF VIDEOCONFERENCING

The employed technology in this project proved to be beneficial for all parties involved, i.e. for students, staff, and the institution. As demonstrated in the eight sessions of this project, videoconferencing enabled the hosting institutions to invite experts in certain areas to speak to their students, although these experts were literally at the other end of the world. This not only enhances knowledge, but also enables students to get to know researchers they usually only know from their readings. Staff gained professional growth through the integration of educational technologies as well as through the interaction with noted experts in the field.

The course content was enriched with up-to-date findings and theories, and the videoconferences were a welcome variation in the day-to-day teaching routine. The institutions have the opportunity to gain international exposure and reputation, as well as the chance to enhance international collaboration. Videoconferencing also proved to be a cost efficient way to invite presenters from outside the area, and an effective tool for the development of emerging technologies for communication and collaboration. Lastly, student satisfaction with the respective courses increased, which was clearly shown in the overall course evaluations at the end of term. The advantages of videoconferencing are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Advantages of Guest Lectures via Videoconference

Students	Staff	Institution
Learn from and interact with noted expert(s) in the field	Professional growth in the integration of educational technology	Gain increased international exposure and reputation
Different perspectives on course content	Learn from and interact with noted expert(s) in the field	Promotion of international collaboration
Up to date findings, theories, models, etc.	Enrich course(s) by inviting different perspectives on course content	Achieve budgetary efficiencies with increasingly scarce resources
Variation in usual classroom routine	Up to date findings, theories, models, etc.	Student satisfaction (e.g., course success and integration of educational technologies)
Exposure to and familiarity with modern communications and collaboration technology	Variation in usual classroom routine	Keeping up to date with new and emerging technologies for communication and collaboration
	New opportunities for remote collaborations	

Source: Lück & Laurence, 2005

CONCLUSION

With increasing budget cuts, it becomes more and more difficult to invite guest speakers for presentations in class during the academic term. Although modern technology cannot replace the face to face contact between students and instructors (Barlow, Peter, & Barlow, 2002), it can enable instructors to invite guest speakers at significantly lower cost. The provision of high quality lectures via videoconference demands careful planning for everybody involved

in such a project. However, the great success of the eight videoconferences, underlined by the extremely positive feedback from students, justifies the investment in time, money and effort. Despite some pedagogical challenges, students successively become more comfortable with the video technology, and subsequently videoconferences can become a powerful tool to expose students to the viewpoints and current research of experts around the globe. In addition to having the opportunity to have experts in their specific area speak to a class, such events provide a welcome change of pace from the day-to-day classroom routine.

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Managing Global Trends and Challenges in a Turbulent Economy

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International Conference organised by the Department of Business Administration, University of the Aegean; 13 – 15 October 2005. Chios, Chios Island, Greece.

The Department of Business Administration of the University of the Aegean in order to celebrate the 20th anniversary of its foundation, organised an international academic conference with the theme '*Managing Global Trends and Challenges in a Turbulent Economy*'. The conference was held 13th - 15th of October 2005 at the Department's at the state-of-the-art amphitheatre on Chios island. The conference was chaired and presided by Prof Vassilis Aggelis, one of the academic members who has been with the University of the Aegean and has greatly contributed to the development and advancement of the Department of Business Administration since its foundation.

Nothing in today's chaotic environment stays the same long enough... change is the only constant in today's economy and the aim of this conference was to gather research studies, academic and professional papers that would explain the means and methods that organisations can use in order to better understand, manage, evaluate, address, prepare for, lead and survive in a dynamically turbulent economy. Change can be of a small or large scale, at a micro or macro level, and can have an impact on political, social, cultural, technological and economic environments.

In order to address such challenges, the conference aimed and attracted a highly diversified and multidisciplinary academic audience that addressed four major issues that organisations need to address so as to achieve excellence and competitiveness namely; product and service customisation, development of customer relations, new member states and new economy and interfirm networks. The content and proceedings of the conference were also structured around these four themes that also consisted of four parallel conference tracks. Furthermore, each track was chaired by a team of three experienced and international academics in order to guarantee a wide coverage of issues within their track. Analytically, the conference tracks and the sub-themes addressed have been:

1. Customizing and personalizing products, services and processes for enhancing firm flexibility and competitiveness

Track chairs: Peter Jones, University of Surrey, Lucas Petruzzellis, University of Bari,

Marianna Sigala, University of the Aegean

- Flexible operating and control systems
- Mass customization and Supply Chain Management (SCM)
- Mass customization and Customer Relationship Management (CRM)
- Information & Communication Technology (ICT) strategies, mass customization and personalization
- Economics and evaluation of mass customization-personalization strategies
- Marketing issues and customization-personalization, e.g. pricing, promotion, distribution strategies

2. Developing high quality relationships as a means to organizational excellence

Track chairs: Mustafa Ozbilgin, Queen Mary, University of London, Laura Costanzo, University of Surrey, Olivia Kyriakidou, University of the Aegean

- High quality relationships, behaviours and emotion at work (including construction of meaning, professional and self identity)
- High quality relationships, career trajectories within and between organizations and diversity management
- Organizational, professional and relational commitment
- Interpersonal coordination in organizations
- Relationships and human agency
- Change management and strategic innovation
- Knowledge-sharing culture, knowledge management and the learning organization

3. The competitiveness of new Member-States in the enlarged EU: strategies and policies

Track chairs: Ruth Rama, National Research Council of Spain, George Anastassopoulos, University of Patras, Greece

- Policies for increased competitiveness in new member-countries
- FDI in new member and candidate countries
- MNEs and domestic firms' business strategies
- Business development and company restructuring
- Geographical and product diversification

4. Interfirm networks: Between competition and cooperation

Track chairs: Nathalie Guibert, University of Avignon, Yorgos Rizopoulos, University of Picardie, Leonidas Maroudas, University of the Aegean

- Building Networks: institutional framework, interactions and entrepreneurship
- Coordination mechanisms in networks

- Dynamics and performance of interfirm collaborations
- Organizational networks and governance
- International comparisons of interfirm relations

During the two days of the conference, more than 70 delegates representing major universities from more than eight countries in Europe, Middle East and Australia had the opportunity to network and exchange research findings and ideas. Such a diversified participation warranted live discussions and debates on the issues on hand. Indeed, in their opening speeches, the Rector of the University of the Aegean, Prof Sokratis Katsikas, the Vice Rector of Academic Affairs and Personnel, Prof Nikolaos Litinas, and the President of the Department of Business Administration, Associate Prof Odysseas Sakellariadis, warmly welcomed all delegates and expressed their contentment and congratulations to the whole conference organisation committee for being able to gather such a large international and multidisciplinary conference audience in a somewhat remote geographically area.

Without doubt, this conference proved to be a big, varied and excellently organised and administered three days event that has offered delegates great opportunities for networking and exchange of ideas. The conference consisted of 55 presentations of academic papers followed by discussions as well as of two greatly delivered keynote speeches. The first keynote speech was given by Prof Luiz Moutinho, University of Glasgow, UK. In his speech titled *'Not a heresy or heterodoxy in academe ... but ... an ideas agenda and futurecast research (without voyeurism) on the enacted reality is required!'*, Prof Moutinho (University of Glasgow, UK) provided a general overview and effectively explored the major challenges that economies and organisations are facing such as customer involvement in production, personalisation issues, networks and interfirm constellations and networks, competition and supply chain management issues. The second day, Mr Emmanuel Gobillot (HeyGroup London, UK), gave the second keynote speech titled *'21st Century Leadership – How to Lead so Others Follow'*. In his highly motivational and interactive speech, Mr Gobillot used several real life examples for analysing the meaning, power and role of *connected leadership* in creating and building influential leaders in today's economy and environment. The conference proceedings were closed by the representatives of the four conference tracks who provided summaries of the major topics and questions addressed in their respective tracks. The last day of the conference included a field tour to the major sightseeing spots of the island of Chios, whereby conference delegates had the opportunity to experience and learn more about the cultural, historical and heritage treasures of Chios.

For more information about the conference as well as of its proceedings, please contact Dr Marianna Sigala (m.sigala@aegean.gr) or Dr Olivia Kyriakidou (o.kyriakidou@aegean.gr) or visit the conference website www.ba.aegean.gr/20years.

Tourism and Recreation in the Process of European Integration

Edited by *Wojciech J. Cynarski* and *Kazimierz Obodynski*.
Podkarpackie Society of Physical Culture Sciences in Rzeszow,
Rzeszow, Poland, 2004, 115 pages, ISBN 83-920354-7-X

By Craig Webster

This hardcover book is interesting for those of us who have an interest in those countries that have recently been incorporated into the European Union. The book, although not exclusively about tourism in Poland, makes repeated references to Poland since most of the authors are based there. For those of us who grew up on the Western side of the Iron Curtain, this is a particularly interesting book since it is an exploration of a world that was largely closed to us during the Cold War. Apart from that, the book, as a reflection of the development of the study of Tourism in the new member states of the EU, it is interesting because we can expect that the rich intellectual culture of countries such as Poland, Hungary, and Slovakia (to name just a few countries) will offer a great deal to the study of Tourism and Hospitality in the future. As such, the book is largely a harbinger of what is to come out of many of the new states in the European Union.

The book is organized in a way that the first section deals with the theoretical issues surrounding tourism and the nature of tourism. These works generally give readers a unique view into how tourism is perceived by academics in Poland. The second and third sections deal with specific problems in tourism, with the second section devoted to Polish-specific issues or data.

The theoretical chapter (Chapter One) is probably the most interesting chapter, composed of four different submissions. Dr. Krawczyk's first essay "Tourism and Recreation as the Element of the Style of Life on the Threshold of the 21st Century" gives the reader a historical perspective on tourism and what it is, stressing the benefits of physical activity in the pursuit of leisure. Dr. Obodynski and Cynarski explore the definition of tourism and theoretical aspects related to tourism in "System Paradigm of the Theory of Tourism" as does Dr. Kosiewicz's in his piece "the Anthropological Background of Philosophical Reflection on Nature and Tourism." Dr. Kosiewicz offers a look into the link between tourism and spiritual concerns in his piece "Tourism and Sacrum," the piece that rounds out the first chapter of the book. All of these works deal with broad theoretical issues related to tourism and would be of use in discussions with students or would be worthy of citing in academic papers. Dr. Kosiewicz's piece on the link between spiritual concerns and tourism would be especially interesting to those dealing with religious tourism, since his piece deals with spiritual concerns much broader than organized religions and thus it deals as a good background work for those studying the link between religion and tourism.

Chapter Two is composed of articles that are generally only of interest to those who study tourism in Poland. However, some of the research may be of assistance to those studying tourism in other countries. For example, Dr. Chelmecki's "Origins of Modernisation of Tourism and Touring in Poland in the Interwar Period" is an interesting look into tourism during a particular period in Poland's history, but it is probably of little utility to those studying modern tourism, unless they are looking for historical parallels. Dr. Wozniak and his collaborators' "The Importance of Ecotourism in the Development of Communities, with Special Regard to Poland" that may be of interest to anyone studying the phenomenon of ecotourism, although it deals largely with the specifics of Poland. Dr. Nizioł's "Barriers to Youth Participation in Tourism and Recreation in the Light of Research" deals with youth and tourism/recreation based upon data from Poland.

Chapter Three is the most varied of the chapters without a central theme tying them together, apart from links to tourism. Dr. Cynarski and his collaborators deal with martial arts and tourism in "Tourism Ways of Martial Arts in Europe." This is an especially interesting article for those of us who are involved in the martial arts, since few of us have probably consciously linked our enthusiasm for martial arts with the practice of tourism. Dr. Cynarski and Obodynski deal with the ritualistic aspects of congresses in "Congress Tourism as a Form of Ritual." Dr. Duricek and his associates outline the decision for choosing a destination for tourism in their piece, "A Socio-Psychological Analysis of Risks and Tourist Destination Choice Process," something of interest to those of us who are concerned about how terrorism impacts upon tourist destination preferences. Finally, Dr. Rut and Dr. Rut delve into the link between European integration in their piece "Tourism in the Process of European Integration."

A weakness of the book is that it is a compendium of articles from a conference held in 2004 in Poland. As such, the reading is a bit choppy, since the topics are a compilation of papers that are independently readable and the papers are short. In this respect, the book resembles the proceedings from a conference and is probably comparable with many proceedings from conferences, although it is probably better edited than most.

What makes this book most appealing is that you can read though short papers and get a great deal of insight into specific problems of tourism development or theoretical issues related to tourism. Many readers may simply be interested in scanning through the articles to see if there are people in Poland who are interested in similar topics and who may be worth contacting. This book will be very interesting to those of us who are interested in what is going on in countries such as Poland and Slovakia but are curious as to what academics there are doing. This book gives the reader a quick overview of what academics in the field of Tourism are working on in Poland and allows them to view the highlights of the "Sport and Tourism in the Process of European Integration" conference that took place in Poland in 2004 without buying the ticket for the flight.

The brevity of the essays improves the book's readability. For example, the first four essays that comprise Chapter One average less than eight pages. This should be attractive to many

teachers who may wish to use short pieces as part of assignments for their students or who wish to fortify their research with references but who have limited time to read through articles to ascertain their relevance. The book should be of use to researchers and teachers who are looking to introduce a different perspective into their courses and research. For those of us who have an interest in the new member states of the EU, this is a good book offering fresh insight and food for thought.

International Conference of Trends, Impacts and Policies on Tourism Development

*Amoudara, Heraklion, Crete, GREECE
15-18 June 2006*

Conference Aim

Most destinations worldwide have been, and continue to be, subject to tremendous visitor pressures with both positive and negative consequences. Therefore, much debate has been raised on whether tourism is beneficial for tourism destinations or whether tourism creates the seeds of destinations destruction. However, there is still discussion on philosophical stances and on which are the appropriate policies and management techniques to ameliorate tourism problems and maximize positive results, as well as on the significant role played by the local government in the development of tourism. Bearing all these in mind, the conference aims to add to this debate by stimulating discussion and exchange of ideas between tourism professionals, academics, researchers, policy-makers, consultants, practitioners, government officials and postgraduate students from all tourism-related fields.

Conference Topics

The topics of the conference include but not limited to the following:

- Tourism Development
- Tourism Planning and Policy-Making
- Public Administration of Tourism Development
- Local Government Role and Responses to Tourism Development
- Community Responses to Tourists and Tourism
- Economic/Social/Environmental/Cultural Impact of Tourism
- Tourism, Terrorism, Safety and Security
- European Union Policies in Tourism
- Tourism Education and its Role in Managing Tourism Development
- Sustainable Tourism
- Alternative and Special Forms of Tourism
- Island/Mountain/Mass/Urban/Rural Tourism
- Industry's Role in Managing Growth
- Destination Marketing
- Transportation and Tourism
- Tourism Research and Methodology
- Information Technology in Tourism
- Globalisation and Tourism
- Future of Tourism

The Conference gives participants a rare opportunity to combine, should they wish, participation in an international conference with their summer holidays on one of the most famous resorts, the island of Crete, and enjoy the so well-know Greek and Cretan hospitality.

Details

For registration or any further enquiries, please contact Dr. Konstantinos Andriotis (tel: +30-6944-447035, e-mails: tourism-conference2006@eap.gr or andriotis@eap.gr) or visit the conference webpage: [http:// tourism-conference.eap.gr](http://tourism-conference.eap.gr).

5th International GEOTOUR 2006 Conference

Date: 5-7 October 2006

Venue: Košice, Slovakia

The **GEOTOUR 2006** conference will be centred on the theme of “Perspectives of Rural Tourism in the New Europe.”

Topics:

- *Regional development and tourism*
- *Development of disadvantaged areas*
- *Rural tourism*
- *Wine tourism*
- *Geotourism*
- *Safety in tourism*
- *Human resource development in tourism*

The program includes an excursion to the Slovakian and Hungarian part of the Tokai wine growing areas with a wine tasting.

For Further Information/Details Visit:

<http://www.kgptour.tuke.sk/Conferences.htm>

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NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Manuscript Submission Procedure:

Manuscripts should be written as understandably and concisely as possible with clarity and meaningfulness. Submission of a manuscript to *Tourism Today* represents a certification on the part of the author(s) that it is an original work and has not been published elsewhere; manuscripts that are eventually published may not be reproduced for one year following publication in *Tourism Today*. Submit your paper, book reports and conference reports via e-mail to the Editor: Craig@cothm.ac.cy. Feedback regarding the submission will be returned to the author(s) within one or two months of the receipt of the manuscript. Submission of a manuscript will be held to imply that it contains original unpublished work not being considered for publication elsewhere at the same time. Each author will receive three complimentary copies of the issue. Contributors can correct first proofs, if time permits it.

Manuscript Length

Full papers should be between 2,500 and 4,000 words. Research notes or case studies should be up to 1,500 words. Commentaries should be up to 1,200 words. Book and conference reviews should be 1,000 words long.

Manuscript style and preparation

- All submissions (full papers, research notes, case studies, commentaries, and book or conference reviews) must have a title of no more than 14 words.
- Manuscripts should be double-line spaced, and have at least a one-inch margin on all four sides. Pages should be numbered consecutively.
- The use of footnotes within the text is discouraged – use endnotes instead. Endnotes should be kept to a minimum, be used to provide additional comments and discussion and should be numbered consecutively in the text and typed on a separate sheet of paper at the end of the article.
- Quotations must be taken accurately from the original source. Alterations to the quotations must be noted. Quotation marks (“ ”) are to be used to denote direct quotes. Inverted commas (‘ ’) should denote a quote within a quotation.
- Include the name(s) of any sponsor(s) of the research contained in the manuscript.
- Tables, figures and illustrations are to be included in the text and to be numbered consecutively (in Arabic numbers) with the titles.
- Tables, figures and illustrations should be kept to a minimum.
- The text should be organized under appropriate section headings, which, ideally, should not be more than 500 words apart. Section headings should be marked as follows: primary headings should be typed in bold capitals and underlined; secondary headings should be typed with italic capital letters. Authors are urged to write as concisely as possible, but not at the expense of clarity.

- Author(s) are responsible for preparing manuscripts which are clearly written in acceptable, scholarly English, and which contain no errors of spelling, grammar, or punctuation. Neither the Editor nor the Publisher is responsible for correcting errors of spelling or grammar.
- Images should be supplied as files that can be opened and edited in Adobe Photoshop (bitmapped images) or Illustrator (vector images). Transparencies (up to 4x5”) and photo prints (up to A3 size) are also acceptable.

Manuscript Presentation

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

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

Reference Style

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

- *For journals*: Tribe, J. (2002) The philosophic practitioner. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 338-357.
- *For books and monographs*: Teare, R. and Ingram, H. (1993) *Strategic Management: A Resource-Based Approach for the Hospitality and Tourism Industries*. London, Cassell.
- *For chapters in edited books*: Sigala, M. and Christou, E. (2002) Use of Internet for enhancing tourism and hospitality education: lessons from Europe. In K.W. Wober, A.J. Frew and M. Hitz (Eds.) *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism*, Wien: Springer-Verlag.
- *For reports*: Edelstein, L. G. & Benini, C. (1994) *Meetings and Conventions*. Meetings market report (August), 60-82.

