TOURISM RESEARCH INSTITUTE

JOURNAL OF TOURISM RESEARCH

ATHENS

JUNE 2010

Journal of Tourism Research

VOL 1

June 2010

ISSN: 1791-0064

Published by:

Tourism Research Institute

13 Kydonion str, 11144 Athens, Greece
Tel: + 30 210 3806877
Fax: + 30 210 3808302
URL: www.dratte.gr
Email: tri@dratte.gr

EDITORIAL BOARD

INTRODUCTION

Science is the knowledge of the existing, which systematically totally covers a sector of issues. Science is one and its purpose is the understanding of all phenomena. Due to human's incapability of mental controling the whole of universal rules, science is divided to partial ''sciences'' and each one covers its objective field.

The science of tourism can be divided in two parts. The sciences of understanding the tourism phenomenon and the sciences of the enterprises of hospitality and their management.

Dealing with sciences leads to complete studies whose purpose is the understanding of the reality. These studies are set to be published in refereed scientific journals. Their publication is judjed for being original, complete and correct, by members of the academic community. Then, these publications are considered as valid and can be used by other researchers for the spread of knowledge.

Aim of the magazine is the spread of knowledge related to the scientific fields of tourism. In Tourism Issues there are being published original articles and obligatorily new researches. The writing language can be Greek , English , French or German. The scripts will be evaluated by three - membered scientific committee whose members have deep knowledge of the specific fields.

Laloumis Dimitris

WRITING GUIDELINES

In "Tourism Issues" can be published original articles and research studies dealing with tourism topics. The articles and the studies should have never been published before.

Every scientific paper should not exceed a maximum of 8000 words and should be sent in electronic form at info@dratte.gr.

The paper can be written in Greek, English, French or German.

Papers should be typewritten in black, double-spaced on A4 or US letter sized white paper and printed on one side of the paper only, with 1 ½ inch margins on all four sides, using 10 pts Arial characters. Pages should be numbered consecutively.

The first page of the paper should include in the following order: paper title, author's name and surname, affiliation, postal address, telephone and fax numbers, email address, acknowledgements. In the case of co-authors, their full details should also appear (all correspondence will be sent to the first named author). Also include an abstract of 200-250 words, and up to five keywords.

The second page should contain the title of the paper, an abstract of 200-250 words, and up to five keywords. Do *not* include the author(s) details in this page.

Subsequent pages: main body of text; list of references; appendices; endnotes (endnotes should be kept to a minimum).

Every paper should be accompanied by a 180-word abstract. The text of the abstract is not allowed to be part of the paper. Also, the author should propose 4 key words associated with the main fields dealt with in the paper. The aforementioned (name, title, abstract and key words) should be given in English and Greek, as well as in the language of composition in case this is French or German.

Tables, figures and illustrations should be referred to and included in the text, in gray tint. Each table, figure and illustration should be numbered consecutively (in Arabic numbers) and titled. Tables, figures and illustrations should not exceed one page and should be kept to a minimum.

The text should be organized under appropriate section headings. Section headings should be marked as follows: primary headings should be typed in upper case and bold (e.g. **INTRODUCTION**); subsection headings should be in upper and lower case and bold (e.g. **Tourism Planning**).

Quotations should be taken accurately from the original source. Alterations to quotations should be noted. Quotation marks (“ ”) should be used to denote direct quotes. Inverted commas (‘ ’) are to be used to denote a quote within a quotation.

Papers should be supported by references. These should be set out according to the standard Harvard style as follows. In the text references should be cited by the author’s name and year of publication in brackets – for example (Miller, 2000; Tribe, 2000, 2001), or ‘… as noted by Miller (2000)’. Where there are two or more references to one author for the same year, the following form should be used (Smith, 1999a) or (Smith, 1999b). Where references include two authors the form (Clarke & Little, 1996) should be used. Where references include three or more authors the form (Riley *et al.*, 1996) should be used. The reference list, placed towards the end of the manuscript, must be typed in alphabetical order of authors. The specific format is:

- *For papers in journals:* Blangy S. & Nielson T. (1995) Ecotourism and minimum impact policy, *Annals of Tourism Research* 20(2), 357-360.
- *For books and monographs:* Inskeep E. (1991) *Tourism Planning: An Integrated and Sustainable Development Approach*, London: John Wiley & Sons.
- *For chapters in edited books:* Hall C.L. & Jenkins J.M. (1998) The policy dimensions of rural tourism and recreation. In R. Butler, C.M. Hall & J. Jenkins (Eds.) *Tourism and Recreation in Rural Areas*, London: John Wiley & Sons, 19-42.
- *For reports:* Hovland N.P. (1989) *Local Economic Impact for Travelling Business: Examples from the Municipality of Risoer*, report no. 24, Telemark Research Institute, Boe.

Every paper will be examined by a three-member scientific committee. The committee’s members cover cognitive fields relevant to the papers’ topics and receive the papers with the author’s/s’ name undisclosed. The judging process will be completed with author’s anonymity throughout. The judges will propose to the editorial committee the acceptance or the rejection of a paper to be published or the possibility of publishing an article after corrections suggested by the judging committee.

After the papers’ judgement, the authors will be notified, either the judgement has been positive or not. The approved papers will be published according to priority of chronological order.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ETOURISM SERVICES AND TECHNOLOGIES: CURRENT ISSUES AND TRENDS

Dimitris N. Kanellopoulos

Department of Tourism Management
School of Business Administration and Economics
Technological Educational Institute of Patras, Greece

ABSTRACT

eTourism services are increasingly changing the nature of and processes in the tourism industry. The aim of this paper is to address the implications of e-tourism services in the tourism industry. The main areas of concern are a combination of technical and social issues, which need to be addressed in order the tourism industry to adopt eTourism services. We present the current trends of eTourism technologies in the structure, organization and functionality of tourism. In particular, we discuss core technologies such as *intelligent agents, dynamic packaging, recommender systems, ambient intelligence, context awareness technologies,* and *mobile tourism guides.*

Key words: eTourism, intelligent tourism information systems, intelligent wireless web services, mobile tourism guides

Biographical note: Dimitris N. Kanellopoulos graduated from the Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, University of Patras, in 1990. He holds a Ph.D. degree from the Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering of the University of Patras, Greece. He is with the Department of Tourism Management at the Technological Educational Institute of Patras. His research interests include: intelligent tourism information systems, knowledge representation, multimedia communications, web engineering, and web-based education. He has authored more than 50 papers in international journals and conferences at these areas. He also serves as an editor in many international journals.

1 INTRODUCTION

eTourism is defined as the use of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in the tourism industry. It involves the buying and selling of tourism products and services via electronic channels, such as the Internet, cable TV, etc. eTourism includes all intranet, extranet and internet applications as well as all the strategic management and marketing issues related to the use of technology. ICTs include the entire range of electronic tools, which facilitate the operational and strategic management of organisations by enabling them to manage their information, functions and processes, as well as to communicate interactively with their stakeholders for achieving their mission and objectives (Buhalis, 2003).

Most tourism products (e.g., hotel rooms or flight tickets) are time-constrained and non-stockable. Generally, the tourism product is both *perishable* and *complex* (Cooper *et al.*, 1997). For example, a hotel bed not sold for one night represents a lost income; suppliers are in a risky situation, which can be reduced if access to information about 'stocks' is available. In addition, the tourism product itself is a bundle of basic products aggregated by intermediaries. To support this, basic products must have well-defined interfaces with respect to consumer needs, prices or distribution channels. Additionally, a tourism product is a 'confidence good'. As a result, the product itself cannot be tested and controlled in advance. At the moment of decision-making, only an abstract model of the product (e.g., its description) is available. Therefore, decision-making and consumption are separated in time and space. This characteristic of tourism products requires information on the consumers' and suppliers' sides, entailing high information search costs and causing informational market imperfections. These, in turn, lead to the establishment of specific product distribution and – comparably long – information and value-adding chains. Certainly, the tourism industry is a consumer of a diverse range of information (Chon, 1998) and lends itself well to the support offered by eTourism services.

The aim of this paper is to address the implications of eTourism services in the tourism industry. The rest of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 focuses on the tourism technology and eTourism services. Section 3 describes state of the art technologies, in which eTourism services are based. These technologies are: Web services, semantic Web, intelligent agents, dynamic packaging, recommender systems, ambient intelligence, context awareness technologies, and mobile tourism guides. Finally, Section 4 concludes and presents future research directions.

2 TOURISM TECHNOLOGY AND ETOURISM SERVICES

Tourism technology is referred to as travel technology or even hospitality automation. It includes many processes (e.g., dynamic packaging) which provide useful new options for consumers. It is remarkable that immigration technology, known as *tecurity*, such as the 'biometric passport' may also be included as tourism technology in the broad sense. Actually, ICTs emerge as an integrated system of networked equipment and software, which enables effective data processing and communication for organisational benefit towards transforming organisations to eBusinesses. In particular, ICTs are having the effect of changing mainly:

(1) The ways in which tourism companies contact their business – reservations and information management systems, such as computer reservation systems (CRS) and electronic point of sales (EPOS). CRS are computerized systems used to store and retrieve information and conduct transactions related to travel. Originally CRS were designed and operated by airlines. Later they were extended to travel agents as a sales channel; major CRS operations are also known as Global Distribution Systems (GDS). Airlines have divested most of their direct holdings to dedicated GDS companies, and many systems are now accessible to consumers through Internet gateways for hotel, rental cars, and other services as well as airline tickets.

(2) The ways companies communicate; how customers look for information on and purchase travel goods and services (Smith and Jenner, 1998, p.77).

Internet enabled tourism organisations develop their processes and adapt their management via the use of emerging digital tools and mechanisms. In particular:

- They increase their internal efficiency and manage their capacity and yields better. For example, an airline's reservations system allows the company to manage their inventory more efficiently and the managers to increase occupancy levels. They also incorporate sophisticated yield management systems that support organisations to adjust their pricing to demand fluctuations in order to maximise their profitability.

- They interact effectively with consumers and personalise the tourism product. For example, the British Airways has launched a strategy to enable passengers to undertake a number of processes, including booking, ticketing, check-in and seat and meal selection, from the convenience of their computer.

- They revolutionise tourism intermediation and increase the points of sale (EPOS). For example, Expedia, Lastminute.com, Orbitz and Opodo have emerged as the most dominant electronic travel agencies, offering an one-stop-shop for consumers.

- They empower consumers to communicate with other consumers. For example www.virtualtourists.com or www.igoyougo.com supports the exchange of destination information and tips, whilst www.untied.com or www.alitaliasacks.com enable dissatisfied customers to make their views available.

- They support efficient cooperation between partners in the value system. For example, Pegasus enables independent hotels to distribute their availability through their web sites and other partners online. Rayman-Bacchus and Molina (2001) shed light on the ways that pioneering and novel forms of Internet-based tourist organisations are contributing to the evolution of the hospitality sector.

- They enhance the operational and geographic scope by offering strategic tools for global expansion.

In terms of consumer access to technologies, the use of the World Wide Web (abr. Web) is the dominant force. A large number of web sites on travel information exist and the number is increasing. It is estimated that there are 90 million Internet users globally (Smith and Jenner, 1998, p. 62). However, despite the increasing amount of information available to potential tourism consumers, several problems exist in generating a satisfactory level of service from the Internet. One of the main problems is that users cannot always find the information they are seeking. Moreover, those users wishing to make purchases with credit cards via the Internet are concerned about security. A new type of user is emerging who doesn't just try one or two services but all kinds of travel and leisure services. Such users don't mind becoming their own travel agents, but given the extensive use of distributed systems on the Internet, there comes the urgent need to find, combine, and sift through the right pieces of information *intelligently*.

3 STATE OF THE ART ICTS MEET THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

eTourism services are provided by tourism information systems, which are based on various ICTs. Hereafter, we present some of these major technologies. The presentation of all technologies involved in eTourism is out the scope of this paper.

3.1 The Web services technology

The World Wide Web Consortium (W3C) defines a Web service as a software system designed to support interoperable machine to machine interaction over a network. Web services are frequently just application programming interfaces (API) that can be accessed over a network, such as the Internet, and executed on a remote system hosting the requested services (Ouzzani & Bouguettaya, 2004). The W3C Web service definition (http://www.w3.org/2002/ws/) encompasses many different systems, but in common usage the term refers to those services that use SOAP-formatted XML envelopes and have their interfaces described by WSDL. The specifications that define *Web services* are intentionally modular, and as a result there is no one document that defines it. Instead, there are a few "core" specifications that are supplemented by others as the circumstances and choice of technology dictate. The most common are the following ones (Fig.1):

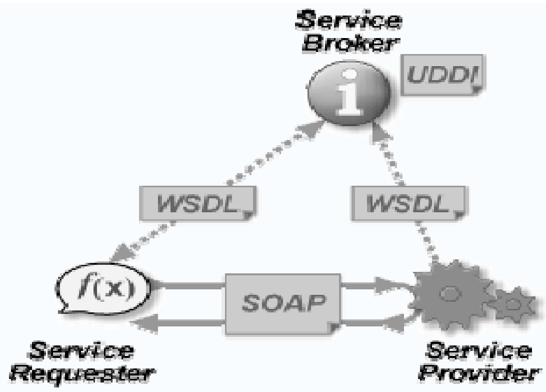


Fig. 1. The Web Services technology

- *SOAP* (Simple Object Access Protocol) is a protocol for exchanging XML-based messages over computer network, normally using HTTP. In particualr it is an XML-based, extensible message envelope format, with "bindings" to underlying protocols (e.g., HTTP, SMTP and XMPP).
- *WSDL* (Web Services Description Language): It is an XML format that allows service interfaces to be described, along with the details of their bindings to

specific protocols. Typically it is used to generate server and client code, and for configuration.

- *UDDI* (Universal Description, Discovery, and Integration). It is a protocol for publishing and discovering metadata about Web services, to enable applications to find Web services, either at design time or runtime.

3.2 The semantic Web

The *semantic Web* technology is an extension of the current Web where, in addition to being human-readable (using Web browsers), documents are annotated with meta-information (Berners-Lee *et al*., 2001). This meta-information defines what the information (document) is about in a way, which is machine processable. The semantic Web allows tourism-related content to become aware of it. This awareness allows users and software agents (viz. Internet-based programs that are created to act autonomously) to query and infer knowledge from web tourism information quickly and automatically. The semantic Web vision includes intelligent software agents, which 'understand' semantic relationships between Web resources and seek relevant information as well as perform transactions for humans (Hendler, 2001). It provides an open infrastructure, which is based on formal domain models (ontologies) that are linked to each other on the Web. *Ontologies* offer a promising infrastructure to cope with heterogeneous representations of tourism web resources. The domain model of an ontology (e.g., an ontology representing tourism destinations) can be taken as a unifying structure for giving information in a common representation and semantics. Recently, the travel industry has developed open specifications messages, based on *eXtensible Markup Language* (XML), to ensure that messages can flow between industry segments as easily as within (Dell' Erba *et al.*, 2002). For example, the *Open Travel Alliance* (OTA, 2004) is an organization pioneering the development and use of specifications that support e-business among all segments of the travel industry.

The intelligent tourism information systems require a lot of flexibility of underlying infrastructures. Moreover, they comprise accurate access to any tourism service that provide, and they are usable by corporate and private customers alike. The management and interoperation of semantically diverse tourism information systems are facilitated by semantic Web technology that provides methods and standards, which allow accurate access to information as well as flexibility to comply with needs of tourism information system users and administrators. Kanellopoulos (2006) considers ontologies, semantic modelling and querying, semantic portals and semantic-based e-markets, concerning the exploitation of the semantic web technologies and applications in tourism information systems. Furthermore, Kanellopoulos *et al.* (2006) focuse on the new possibilities afforded by the semantic Web in the area of knowledge management (KM) applied to the travel industry.

3.3 Ontologies for Tourism

In the OnTour project, a working group deployed the *e-Tourism* ontology (Prantner, 2004) using OWL. The e-Tourism ontology (http://e-tourism.deri.at/ont/) was based on an international standard: the "*Thesaurus on Tourism & Leisure Activities*" of the World Tourism Organization (WTO, 2002). This thesaurus is a very extensive collection of terms related to the area of tourism. The *e-Tourism* ontology describes the domain of tourism and it focuses on accommodation and activities.

The *ISO 18513* standard (ISO, 2001) defines terms used in tourism in relation to the various types of tourism accommodation and other related services. This standard defines a common vocabulary for a better understanding between the users and providers of tourism services.

Mondeca's tourism ontology (http://www.mondeca.com) defines tourism concepts based on the WTO thesaurus. These concepts include terms for tourism object profiling, tourism and cultural objects, tourism packages and tourism multimedia content.

Another research group developed a comprehensive and precise reference ontology named *COTRIN* (Comprehensive Ontology for the Travel Industry) (Cardoso, 2004). The objective of the COTRIN ontology is the implementation of the semantic XML-based OTA specifications. Major airlines, hoteliers, car rental companies, leisure suppliers, travel agencies and others will use COTRIN to bring together autonomous and heterogeneous tourism web services, web processes, applications, data, and components residing in distributed environments.

Destination management systems is a perfect application area for semantic Web and P2P (Peer-to-Peer) technologies as tourism information dissemination and exchange are the key-backbones of tourism destination management. Kanellopoulos and Panagopoulos (2007) developed a novel ontology for tourism destinations in the LA_DMS project (layered adaptive semantic-based DMS based on P2P technologies). The aim of this project was to enable DMS adaptive to tourists' needs concerning tourism destination information. They proposed a metadata model to encode semantic tourism destination information in an RDF-based P2P network architecture. Their model combines ontological structures with information for tourism destinations and peers.

The *Harmonise* (http://www.harmonise.org) is a EU Tourism Harmonisation Network (THN) established by eCTRL (ECommerce and Tourism Research Laboratory: http://ertrl.itc.it:8080/home/index.jsp), IFITT (International Federation for IT and Travel & Tourism: http://www.ifitt.org) and others. It is an ontology-based mediation and harmonization tool that establishes the bridges between existing and emerging online marketplaces. The Harmonise project allows participating tourism organizations to keep their proprietary data format and use ontology mediation while exchanging information (Missikoff *et al*., 2003).

In the *Satine project,* a secure semantic-based interoperability framework was developed for exploiting web service platforms in conjunction with P2P networks in the tourist industry (Dogac *et al.,* 2004). Semantic Web methodologies and tools for the intra-European sustainable tourism were developed in the Hi-Touch project (Hi-Touch Working Group, 2003). These tools are used to store and structure knowledge on customers' expectations and tourism products.

Finally, Hyvonen *et al.* (2005) proposed a semantic portal called *MuseumFinland* for publishing heterogeneous museum collections on the semantic Web. In their work it is shown how museums with their semantically rich and interrelated collection content can create a large, consolidated semantic collection portal together on the Web. By sharing a set of ontologies, it is possible to make collections semantically interoperable, and provide the museum visitors with intelligent content-based search and browsing services to the global collection base. The architecture underlying *MuseumFinland* separates generic search and browsing services from the underlying application dependent schemas and metadata by a layer of logical rules.

3.4 Intelligent software agents

There are research prototypes of intelligent travel support systems based on software agent technology (Ndumu *et al*., 1998; Camacho *et al.*, 2001). Traveller software agents can assist travellers in finding sources of tourism products and services and in documenting and archiving them. A set of software agents can be deployed for various tasks including tracking visitor schedules, monitoring meeting schedules, and monitoring user's travel plans. Monitoring travel plans is a well-suited task for applying agent technology for several reasons:

- This is a fairly complicated task with many possible forms of failure ranging from flight cancellations and schedule changes to hotel rooms being given away when a traveller arrives late at night.
- There are a large number of online resources that can be exploited to anticipate problems and keep a traveller informed, and
- These tasks would be tedious and impractical for a human to perform with the same level of attention that could be provided by a set of software agents. For example, to deploy a set of agents for monitoring a planned trip, the user first enters the travel itinerary. Then the user specifies which aspects of the trip he/she would like to have the software agents to monitor. A set of information agents is then spawned to perform the requested monitoring activities (Camacho *et al*., 2001). Kanellopoulos *et al.* (2004) designed a novel management system of semantically enriched web travel plans in order these to become manageable, effective and adaptive to the users' needs. The new system is based on a P2P network architecture. Furthermore, their system includes a web log analysis module to evaluate how online travel plans are being consumed and to identify the individual differences among the users in terms of content usage.

3.5 Dynamic packaging systems

Dynamic packaging is a method that is becoming increasingly used in package holiday bookings that enables consumers to build their own package of flights, accommodation, and a hire car instead of a pre-defined package. Dynamic packages differ from traditional package tours in that the pricing is always based on current availability, escorted group tours are rarely included, and trip-specific add-ons such as airport parking and show tickets are often available. Dynamic packages are similar in that often the air, hotel, and car rates are available only as part of a package or only from a specific seller. Dynamic packages are primarily sold online, but online travel agencies will also sell by phone owing to the strong margins and high sale price of the product. The CSI Media company are amongst the leading providers of dynamic packaging technology for the travel industry via their Travelberry software. Dynamic packaging systems create customized tourism packages for the consumers. The objective of dynamic packaging is to pack all the components chosen by a traveller to create one reservation. Regardless of where the inventory originates, the package that is created is handled seamlessly as one transaction, and requires *only one* payment from the consumer. Cardoso (2005) propose a platform to enable dynamic packaging using the semantic Web technologies. A dynamic packaging application allows consumers or travel agents to bundle trip components. The range of products and services to be bundled is too large: Guider Tour, Entertainment, Event/Festival, Shopping, Activity, Accommodation, Transportation, Food and Beverage etc. Dynamic packages can be created and booked effortlessly with private and published air, car hire, hotels, attractions and insurance rates.

3.6 Recommender systems

In the *intelligent Recommendation for Tourist Destination Decision Making project* (DieToRecs) (http://etd.ec3.at) a web-based recommendation system was developed that aids the tourist destination selection process and accommodates individual traveller's preferences. Based on the user profiles, personalised recommendations are created to support potential tourists to choose their ideal tourism destination. The *Travel Recommender System* (Trip@dvice) (http://tripadvise.itc.it) assists e-travellers in their search for tourism products and services. A prototype called *NutKing* (http://itr.itc.it) is available. Using the WAP (Wireless Application Protocol), the *Mobile Tourism Recommender System* (mITR) (http://mobile.itc.it) implements mobile tourism services such as airlines (reservations, check-in, flight status, etc.), hotels and restaurants (reservations), maps, transportation (schedules, connections etc.), traffic and weather conditions.

From another perspective, context-aware applications such as *mobile tourism guides* utilise contextual information, such as location, display medium and user profile, in order to provide tailored functionality to the end-user.

3.7 Tour guides and mobile tourism guides

At present the tour guide can be a soundseeing tour, and the guidebook could be an audioguide, podguide or I-Tours. An *audioguide* is a audio recording prepared to "guide" viewers through a museum exhibition by providing background, context, and information on the works included. Recently, city audioguides describing the attraction of cities or recommended walking tours are becoming more popular. An audioguide can be rented on the spot, often in multilingual versions, but also downloaded from the Internet, often in mp3 format. Some audioguides are free or included in the entrance fee, others have to be paid for.

There are numerous web-based mobile tourism guides proposed and evaluated (Schwinger *et al.*, 2002). The most of them offer to the user a map-oriented interaction paradigm. The *COMPASS* system (Context-aware Mobile Personal Assistant) provides tourists with context-aware recommendations and services (Van Setten *et al.*, 2004). Context characteristics are usually categorized into *scope* of context, its *representation* and *acquisition*, as well as the *access mechanism* used. *CRUMPET* is an European Union project aiming at the "CReation of User-friendly Mobile Services Personalized for Tourism" relying particularly on agent technology (Schmidt-Belz *et al.*, 2002). The *GUIDE* system provides tourists with up-to-date and context-aware information about a city via a PDA (Personal Digital Assistant). The GUIDE system is based on a client/server architecture, with a *Fujitsu TeamPad 7600* used as terminal. Based on the closest access point, the client determines the approximate location of the tourist and provides him/her with information about sights, a map, and the possibility of creating a tour. The access points broadcast information pages in the geographical area of the cell (Cheverst *et al*., 2002). Tourists on the move frequently access these information pages.

3.8 Location based services for Tourism

As we said before CRUMPET is a mobile application that uses multi-agents to construct a context-aware system. Its use is mainly limited to providing query and recommendation services. Schmidt-Belz *et al.* (2003) analysed CRUMPET implementing tourism-related value-added services for nomadic users across mobile and fixed networks and evaluating agent technology in terms of user-acceptability, performance and best-practice as a suitable approach for fast creation of robust, scalable, seamlessly accessible nomadic services. To evaluate the usefulness of CRUMPET, they conducted a research about what kind of information the tourists need during their visit in a tourism destination. Regarding the information that a mobile tourism service should supply, transportation, maps, tour information, and sites of interest are the kind of information that tourists consider as the most useful. Ghandour and Buhalis (2003) based their research on secondary data and primary data collected through qualitative and quantitative methods. They analysed the market for location-based tourism services (e.g., what LBS the mobile travelers need, when and in what form they would like to receive it, and how much are they willing to pay for it). Moreover, they analysed the impact of the new mobile services on destination information providers and destination management systems. The major initiative that has been developed within a European IST project is the *Mobile Tourist Guide* prototype (Kamar, 2003), which promotes the use of 2.5/3G cellular networks with LBS.

3.9 Web intelligence and Intelligent Wireless Web (IWW)

Web Intelligence explores the practical impacts of Artificial Intelligence (AI) and advanced information technology on the next generation of Web-empowered products, systems, services, and activities (Zhong, 2003). The developments of AI in tourism are at the forefront. For example, individualized pricing (http://www.priceline.com), reversed multi-attribute auctioning http://www.mytraveldream.com), recommendations in bundling products, semantic Web and mobile applications (Kanellopoulos & Kotsiantis, 2007) are provided to the end-users. Using the Web, travelers can get information on timetables, routes, seat availabilities, accommodations, rental cars, and restaurants to help them plan their travels (Ndumu *et al.*, 1998). Remarkable progress has been made in the automation of travel planning with the help of the easily accessible information. There are also semi-automated commercial service web sites like travelocity.com, expedia.com and orbitz.com (Paprzychi *et al.*, 2002).

Alesso and Smith (2001) define Intelligent Wireless Web as a “network that provides anytime, anywhere access to information resources with efficient user interfaces and applications that learn and thereby provide increasingly useful services whenever and wherever needed”. The vision of Intelligent Wireless Web (IWW) goes beyond just connecting mobile devices to the Internet. It includes the creation of a pervasive, user centred mobile environment, which has the ability to provide highly specific data and services to users on as needed basis, by intelligent interpretation of the user context. IWW services could provide mobile tourists highly precise data and services on an as-needed basis, with flexibility of use for the user. With the emergence of high-speed wireless networks, such as Wi-Fi, Bluetooth and 3G, and analogous developments in Internet technologies such as the Semantic Web, Web Services, Agent based technologies and Context Awareness, the realisation of the vision of the IWW has become a possibility. The realisation of the IWW will enhance the value proposition of mobile communications in tourism. Delivering context-relevant and personalised information to mobile tourists will save valuable time and will improve efficiency and productivity. Moreover, there is a need to integrate technology innovations in other areas, such as multimodal interfaces and speech technologies, to enhance the usability of the mobile devices. However, a key challenge is to link various technological enabling elements with methodological, cultural, social and organisational aspects specific to the tourism industry. Kanellopoulos and Kotsiantis (2006) present a state-of-the-art review of the enabling technologies and discusses how, by exploiting the convergence and synergy between different technologies, it has become possible to deliver IWW support to mobile tourists.

3.10 Ambient intelligence

Ambient intelligence is the convergence of ubiquitous computing and communication, and intelligent user-friendly interfaces. Such systems should be embedded, personalized, adaptive, and anticipatory, and they should provide access for everybody, anywhere, at any time. Whereas today the dominant mode of interaction is lean-forward, it will become laid-back (relaxed and enjoyable). People should enjoy computer interaction for travel planning, and technology should move to the background.

3.11 Context aware computing

Context-aware computing is the use of environmental characteristics such as the user's location, time, profile, identity and activity to inform the computing device so that it may provide information to the user that is relevant to the current context. The application of context awareness has been demonstrated in many tourism applications (Abowd *et al*., 1997; Laukkanen *et al.*, 2002), museums (Fleck *et al.*, 2000) and route planning (Marmasse & Schmandt, 2002). Basic projects that have specifically focused on location-based data delivery are the Mobile Shadow Project (MSP) (Fischmeister *et al.*, 2002) and the GUIDE project (Cheverst *et al.*, 2000). The MSP approach is based on the use of software agents, to map the physical context to the virtual context. The Ambience Project (http://www.extra.research.philips.com/euprojects/ambience/) has adopted a different approach by focusing on creating a digital environment that is aware of a persons' presence, context, and sensitivity and responds accordingly.

Context-aware computing plays an instrumental role in realisation of the vision of the IWW by allowing tourism applications to better understand user context and adapt services to the interpreted context, thereby ensuring that the busy tourist gets highly specific data and services. Using context aware services delivery, it is possible to eliminate distractions for mobile tourists, related with the volume and level of information. Also, user interaction with the system can be reduced by using context as a filtering mechanism to put context relevant information to the users. This has the potential to increase the usability, by decreasing the level of interaction required between the mobile devices and the end users. The emergence of complementary technologies such as *ubiquitous computing, user profiling,* and *sensor networking* enables the capture of many other context parameters.

3.12 Ubiquitous computing technologies

The vision of IWW is to integrate ever-increasing intelligence in the mobile tourists' environment. *Ubiquitous computing* is an emerging paradigm of personal computing, characterized by the shift from the dedicated computing machinery (requiring user's attention e.g., PCs) to pervasive computing capabilities embedded in our everyday environments (Weiser, 2003). Realisation of the vision of the ubiquitous computing has become possible because of advances in different technologies including sensors, wireless and wired communications, memory, processor architectures, software technologies and communication systems such as mobile phones, Internet and WWW (Ailisto *et al.*, 2003). Over the past decade, several projects have focused on ubiquitous computing. These projects include IBM's pervasive computing (http://www.research.ibm.com/thinkresearch/pervasive.shtml), Xerox PARC's ubiquitous computing (http://www.parc.com/about/default.html) and MIT's Oxygen initiative (http://oxygen.lcs.mit.edu/Overview.html).

Ubiquitous computing technologies can play a key role by bridging the gap between the physical world of travel operations and the virtual world enabled by the ICT infrastructure.

Although many tourism collaboration applications make extensive use of virtual project environments, in reality, a significant working time of the mobile tourist is spent on activities in the physical environment. Ubiquitous computing technologies have the potential to make collaborative processes and services sensitive to the data available in the physical world.

3.13 Profiling technologies

A key feature of context awareness is to adapt various data and services to the needs of the users. Also the data need to be transformed as per the device capabilities. Profiling technologies allow delivery of personalised information to users, based on their profile and device capabilities. Initiatives for the description of personalised information such as preferences have already been studied by a W3C working group and propositions such as CC/PP (Composite Capability/ Preference Profiles) (http://www.w3.org/2001/di/Activity) have been made. The goal of the CC/PP framework is to specify how client devices express their capabilities and preferences to the server that originates content. The information that the terminal provides, using CC/PP, can be used not only to tag information that is being collected but also to enable selection and content generation responses, such as triggering alarms or retrieving information relevant to the task at hand.

3.14 Wireless sensor networks

Recent advances in wireless sensor networking technology have enabled the development of low cost, low power, multifunctional sensor nodes, capable of sensing, data processing, networking with other sensors and data communication to external users (Akyildiz *et al.*, 2002). These advances promise a much wider range of applications for tourism processes. Sensor networks can be used to monitor a wide range of environments and in a variety of applications, including wireless data acquisition, tourists monitoring, smart highways, environment monitoring, site security, automated tracking of expensive products on a tourism destination, safety management and many others.

3.15 Web usage mining

Web usage mining can employ data mining techniques to analyze search logs or other activity logs to find interesting tourist patterns. Web usage mining can answer to research questions concerning the tourists' interest in tourism destinations or specific eTourism services. These answers could be related with the tourists' age, ethnicity, educational attainment, annual income, and country of origin. Web usage mining can be achieved if users register on the Web tourism applications demographics such as their age, ethnicity, educational attainment, annual income, and country of origin. Kanellopoulos (2007) argues that the Web usage mining technology can reveal female tourists' interest for eTourism services, which are related with romance or sex tourism.

3.16 Virtual tour and virtual reality

Virtual tourism refers to pre-planning alternative tourist activity before your departure, by integrating multiple digital resources to explore regions of the world without having to physically travel. It helps focus attention onto people, places and exploring changes over time! Virtual reality (VR) offers numerous distinct advantages over the actual visitation of a tourist site: 1) it affords access into a controlled environment, as all variables in the VR can be modified to create the perfect virtual experience, and 2) a virtual vacation dispenses many of the hassles that accompany an actual vacation. However, VR can never become a complete substitute for tourist experience, because it is unable to replace the feeling of being in nature and seeing, hearing, feeling, and breathing an environment that is real (Williams & Hobson, 1995).

At this point, we note that there additional ICTs which can be used as a basis to provide many additional complex eTourism services. However, their presentation is out the scope of this paper.

4 SUMMARY

The tourism domain is a decent area for new information and communication technologies by assisting users and agencies with quick information searching, integrating, recommending and various intelligent eTourism services. The eTourism market's dynamics and the requirements of future tourism information systems emphasize eTourism's importance and raise several technical research issues:

- (Semantic) interoperability and mediated architectures.
- E-business frameworks supporting processes across organizations.
- Mobility and embedded intelligence.
- Natural multilingual interfaces and novel interface technologies.
- Personalization and context-based tourism services.
- Information-to-knowledge transformations— data mining and knowledge management (KM).

Tourism is also an excellent example of the trend toward personalized services and a complex market mechanism. It reflects users becoming a part of product creation. Consequently, researchers must also consider non-technical issues related to markets and users, such as: 1) dynamic market and network structures, 2) pricing and market design, 3) design and experimenting business models, 4) user decision modelling and usage analysis. These research issues underline the importance of an interdisciplinary approach. Many different disciplines should contribute, including computer science, management science, economics, law, statistics, sociology, and psychology. The information and communication technologies applied to the tourism domain represent the nucleus of the eTourism industry that will produce new tourism products, skills, and jobs.

REFERENCES

Abowd G., Atkeson C., Hong J., Long S., Kooper R., Pinkerton M. (1997) Cyberguide: A Mobile context-aware tour guide. *Wireless Networks*, 3, pp. 421-433.

Ailisto H., Kotila A., Strommer E. (2003) Ubicom applications and technologies. Espoo 2003, VTT Tiedotteita-Research Notes, 2201 (54 pp.).

Akyildiz F., Su W., Sankarasubramaniam E., Cayirci E. (2002) Wireless sensor networks: a survey. *Computer Networks: The International Journal of Computer and Telecommunications Networking,* Vol. 38, No. 4, pp. 393–422.

Alesso H.P., Smith C.F. (2001) *The Intelligent Wireless Web*, Addison Wesley.

Berners-Lee T., Hendler J., Lassila O. (2001) The Semantic Web, *Scientific American*, Vol. 285, No. 5, pp. 34-43.

Buhalis D. (2003) *eTourism: information technology for strategic tourism management*. England: Prentice Hall.

Camacho D., Borrajo D., Molina J. (2001). Intelligent Travel Planning: a multi-agent planning system to solve Web problems in the e-Tourism domain. *Autonomous agents and multi-agent systems*, Vol. 4, pp. 387-392.

Cardoso J. (2004) Semantic Web Processes and Ontologies for the Travel Industry, *AIS SIGSEMIS Bulletin*, Vol. 1, No. 3, pp. 25-28.

Cardoso J. (2005) *E-Tourism: Creating Dynamic Packages using Semantic Web Processes*. [Online:] http://dme.uma.pt/jcardoso/Research/Projects/Semantic%20Dynamic%20Packaging/paper.html.

Cheverst K., Davies N., Mitchell K., Friday A. (2000) Experiences of developing and deploying a context-aware tourism guide: the GUIDE project, In Proceedings of the 6th *International Conference on Mobile Computing and Networking*, August, Bostonj, USA.

Chon V. (1998) World wide web resources, *Annals of Tourism Research,* Vol. 25, No. 2, pp. 518-521.

Cooper C., Fletcher J., Gilbert D., Wanhill S. (1997) *Tourism: Principles and Practice* (4th ed.), Essex: Longman.

Dell' Erba M., Fodor O., Ricci F., Werthner H. (2002) Conceptual normalization of XML data for interoperability in Tourism, In *Proc. of the Workshop on Knowledge Transformation for the Semantic Web (KTSW)*, pp. 69-76, Lyon, France, July. [Online]: http://xml.coverpages.org/KTSW2002.pdf/

Dogac A., Kabak Y., Laleci G., Sinir S., Yildiz A., Kirbas S., Gurcan Y. (2004) Semantically Enriched Web Services for the Travel Industry, *ACM Sigmod Record,* Vol. 33, No. 3, pp. 21-27.

Fischmeister S., Menkhaus G., Pree W. (2002) MUSA-Shadows: concepts, implementation, and sample applications; a location-based service supporting multiple devices. In J. Noble,

J. Potter (Eds). Proceedings of the Fortieth International Conference on Technology of Object-Oriented Languages and Systems (TOOLS Pacific 2002). Sydney, Australia. Conferences in Research and Practice in Information Technology, Vol. 10, pp. 71-79 ACS.

Fleck M., Frid M., Kindberg, T., O'Brien-Strain E., Rajani, R., Spasojevic M. (2002) From informing to remembering: ubiquitous systems in interactive museums. *IEEE Pervasive Computing* 1, pp. 13–21.

Ghandour R., Buhalis D. (2003) Third-Generation Mobile-Services and the Needs of mTravellers. *Proceedings of the ENTER International conference*, 2003, 29-31 January, Helsinki.

Hendler J. (2001) Agents and the Semantic Web, *IEEE Intelligent Systems*, Vol. 16, No. 2, pp. 30-37.

Hi-Touch Working Group (2003) *Semantic Web methodologies and tools for intra-European sustainable Tourism.* [Online:] Http://www.mondeca.com/articleJITT-hitouch-legrand.pdf/

Hyvonen E., Makel E., Salminen M., Valo A., Viljanen K., Saarela S., Junnila M., Kettula S. (2005) MuseumFinland—Finnish museums on the semantic web, *Journal of Web Semantics*, Vol. 3, Nos. 2-3, October 2005, pp. 224-241.

ISO (2001) ISO 18513: *Tourism services–Hotel and other types of tourism accommodation–Terminology,* [Online:] http://www.iso.org/en/CatalogueDetailPage.CatalogueDetail?CSNUMBER=31812

Kamar A. (2003) Mobile Tourist Guide (m-ToGuide). Deliverable 1.4, Project Final Report. IST-2001-36004.

Kanellopoulos D. (2006) The advent of Semantic Web in tourism information systems, *Tourismos*: *An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp. 75-91.

Kanellopoulos D. (2007) Web Usage mining can reveal female tourists' interest for e-Tourism services related with Romance or Sex-Tourism!, *Int. Journal on Women's Studies* (to appear).

Kanellopoulos D., Kotsiantis S. (2006) Towards Intelligent Wireless Web Services for Tourism, *International Journal of Computer Science and Network Security,* Vol. 6 No. 7b, pp. 83-90.

Kanellopoulos D., Kotsiantis S., Pintelas P. (2006) Intelligent Knowledge Management for the Travel Domain, *GESTS International Transactions on Computer Science and Engineering*, Vol. 30, No.1, pp. 95-106.

Kanellopoulos D., Panagopoulos A. (2007) Exploiting tourism destinations' knowledge in an RDF-based P2P network, *Network and Computer Applications* (Elsevier).

Kanellopoulos D., Panagopoulos A., Psillakis Z. (2004) Multimedia applications in Tourism: The case of travel plans, *Tourism Today*, Vol. 4, pp.146-156.

Laukkanen M., Helin H., Laamanen H. (2002) Tourists on the move. In *Cooperative Information Agents VI, 6th International Workshop*, CIA 2002, Madrid, Spain, Proceedings, Volume 2446 of LNCS, Springer, 2002 (July), pp. 36– 50.

Marmasse N., Schmandt C. (2002) A user-centered location model. *Personal and Ubiquitous Computing*, Vol. 6, Nos.5/6, (January) pp. 318– 321.

Missikoff M., Werthner H., Höpken W., Dell' Ebra M., Fodor O., Formica A., Francesco T. (2003) HARMONISE: Towards Interoperability in the Tourism Domain, In *Proc. of Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2003, ENTER 2003*, pp. 58-66, Helsinki: Springer.

Ndumu D., Collis J., Nwana H.S. (1998) Towards desktop personal travel agents, *BT Technology Journal,* Vol. 16, No. 3, pp. 69-78.

OTA (2004) *OpenTravel Alliance.* [Online:] http://www.opentravel.org/

Ouzzani M., Bouguettaya A. (2004) Efficient Access to Web Services, *IEEE Internet Computing*, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp. 34-44.

Paprzychi M., Gilbert A., Gordon M. (2002) Knowledge representation in the agent-based travel support system, *Lecture Notes on Computer Science 2457*. Berlin: Springer, pp. 232-241.

Prantner, K. (2004) *OnTour: The Ontology.* [Online:] http://e-tourism.deri.at/ont/docu2004/OnTour%20-%20The%20Ontology.pdf.

Rayman-Bacchus L., Molina A. (2001) Internet-based tourism Services: Business issues and trends, *Futures*, Vol. 33, pp. 589–605.

Schmidt-Belz B., Laamanen H., Poslad S., Zipf A. (2003) Location-based mobile tourist services – First user experiences. *Proceedings of ENTER Inter. Conf.*, 29-31 January, Helsinki.

Schmidt-Belz B., Polsad S., Nick A, Zipf A. (2002) Personalized and Location-based Mobile Tourism Services, In Workshop on *Mobile Tourism Support Systems*, in conjunction with *Mobile HCI 2002*. Pisa.

Schwinger W., Cruin C., Proll B., Retschitzegger W., Achauerhuber A. (2002) Context-awareness in Mobile Tourism Guides – A Comprehensive Survey [Online:] www.wit.at/people/schauerhuber/publications/contextAwareMobileTourismGuides_TechRep0507.pdf .

Smith C., Jenner P. (1998) Tourism and the Internet, *Travel & Tourism Analyst,* Vol. 1, pp. 62-81.

Van Setten M., Pokraev S., Koolwaaij J. (2004) Context-Aware Recommendations in the Mobile Tourist Application COMPASS. In Nejdl W. & De Bra P. (Eds.) *Adaptive Hypermedia* 2004, *LNCS* 3137, Springer-Verlag.

Weiser M. (2003) The computer for the 21st century. *Scientific American*, Vol. 265, No. 3, pp. 94-104.

Williams P., Hobson J.S.P. (1995) Virtual reality and tourism: fact of fantasy?. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 16, No. 6, pp. 423-427.

WTO (2002) *Thesaurus on Tourism & Leisure Activities of the WTO* [Online:] http://www.world-tourism.org/

Zhong N. (2003) Toward Web Intelligence, In *Proceedings of AWIC 2003,* Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence (LNAI), Vol. 2663, pp. 1–14, Springer, Berlin.

GLOBALISATION AND SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: A CRITICAL REVIEW

Barbaressos Stelios

Associate Professor of T.E.I. of Athens
Dep. of Tourism Management

Sgouro Melisidou

MA/ International Tourism Polic
Senior Coordinator of Tourism marketing at the Prefecture of Athens
Laboratory Associate of T.E.I. of Athens Dep. of Tourism Management

ABSTRACT

In this paper we discuss the implications of globalisation on sustainable tourism development.

The ability of tourism to generate foreign exchange revenue, create employment, and absorb unemployment has provided it with a political and social legitimacy. The economic benefits of tourism are however, the results of a fundamental process by which expressions and forms of environmental and cultural capital are traded. Environmental heritage, in terms of natural resources and more intangible aesthetic constructs of landscape and built heritage is clearly recognized as a platform for tourism development. The conflicts over the exploitation, over-usage, and contested use of the environment for tourism purposes will be further pronounced by the introduction of globalisation with its transcontinental flows, patterns of social interaction, and so-called global mass.

The concept of globalisation is examined identifying key positions in favour of, and against sustainable tourism. Basic concepts of sustainability are reviewed as an attempt to outline a critical approach of the potential effective “cooperation“ of sustainable tourism development and the globalisation.

Sustainability implies permanence, so sustainable tourism includes optimum use of resources, minimization of ecological, cultural and social impacts; and maximization of benefits to conservation and local communities.

In conclusion, globalization with its transcontinental flow patterns of global mass has given to the tourism industry free reign to develop throughout the world undermining the environmental and socio-cultural resources of local cultures. We summarize that in a globalised world, the potential dimension to make tourism a form of Sustainable Development, in a few years should be viewed as a part of larger policy framework designed, to be achieved a sustainable society.

Key Words: Globalisation, Sustainable Tourism Development, Sustainability’s Indicators, liberalisation of tourism development

1. INTRODUCTION

The last few decades, tourism phenomenon has developed rapidly. Nowadays tourism is one of the world’s largest industries and one of its fastest growing economic sectors. It has a multitude of impacts, both positive and negative on socio-cultural issues, economic and environment as well.(McCool, Moisey, 2002) Clearly, tourism has become a global financial power, achieving a planetary presence unequalled by many other economic sectors, and as it has grown, have the criticism of its environmental, economic, socio-cultural and political consequences (Cater & Goodall, 1992; McLaren, 1997). Tourism is no longer the benign economic development tool that the boosterism of the past purported it to be.

At nowadays, tourism plays an important role in a globalised world by bringing people and cultures closer together. With increasing accessibility and ease of movement across continents and cultures, the tourism market has expanded to meet the burgeoning number of visitors, and expanded in range to respond to wider interests of travellers. This is manifested in bigger and better accommodation, and the expansion of tourism to lesser known regions of the world. As the range of destinations grows, and people become more discriminating, the urge to find and experience the unique and different and one-of-a-kind, is placing a greater demand on tourist destinations to fulfil these special interests.

Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of the present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing the opportunity for the future. It is envisaged as leading to a management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled, while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems.(McCool, Moisey,2002)

In this paper, at the first part, we analyse the notions of globalisation, sustainability, and sustainable tourism development in attempting to define these subjects and to understand the meaning and the benefits of compromising them.

The main subject of this paper is the critical analysis of globalisation and its implications to sustainable tourism development which will be provided by reviewing the contribution of tourism in globalisation and the liberalisation of tourism and sustainable tourism development.

The measures and the indicators of monitoring sustainability's effectiveness, the positive and negative impacts of sustainable tourism will provide the incentives to grow sustainable tourism development and its benefits.

In conclusion the strategies to achieve sustainable tourism development will be analysed to enhance the importance of practicing sustainable tourism development models in a globalised society.

2. CONCEPTS OF GLOBALISATION

Globalisation denotes the expanding scale, growing magnitude, speeding up and deepening impact of transcontinental flows and patterns of social interaction (Mc Grew, 2002). The term relates to the process in which technology, economics, business, communications, and even politics dissolve the barriers of time and space that differentiate people (Eckes, 1999). The notion of globalisation is a source of great controversy, competing theories for dominance.

Proponents of globalisation often tend to associate it with perpetual prosperity and peace. Many even envisage an economic utopia in which money, capital, and skilled employees move rapidly across national borders in response to private sector decisions. According to the “Washington Consensus”, the triumph of market-driven economics is both inevitable and irreversible. American President’s Deputy Secretary of State once wrote in the Time magazine: "I will bet that within the next hundred years, nationhood as we know it will be obsolete; all states will recognize a single, global authority" (Eckes, 1999). By aggressively pressing their vision for an open and unregulated system, zealous proponents of globalisation and deregulation may have successfully ignited nationalistic reactions and traditional appeals of localism, regionalism, and nationalism.

Critics however, are continuing to define their criticisms and disagreement, claiming that globalisation encroaches on national sovereignty, and endangers cultural diversity and environmental and labour standards. Activists and ordinary citizens around the world - particularly in developing countries - question whether communities, cultures, and nations should be subordinated to the sense of an unregulated, market-driven system, or to a system regulated by international authorities (Eckes, 1999). Regarding the Asian financial crisis, critics argued that giving limited attention to the local underlying conditions constitutes a recipe for disaster. Principal international financial institutions including the International Monetary Fund (I.M.F.) reaffirmed this opinion in their annual report, indicating that pushing developing countries to open their economies prematurely to liberalise flows of capital, constitutes “an accident waiting to happen" (Eckes, 1999).

3. DEFINING THE SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

An intertwined overview of several definitions and notional approaches will provide clearly, the conception of sustainability and its aspects which will be analyzed furthermore, in this paper.

Mass Tourism is the model of tourism where the influence of the tourist flow has negative effects to the environment, the economy, the social and the cultural values of the society. Unfortunately nowadays the symptom of the Mass Tourism is very common because of the enormous rise in Tourist Packages sales which Travel Agents use to try to decrease the cost of the tourist package and to increase the beneficial aspects (Holden, 1996).

This phenomenon provides mass economical profits to the wholesalers and at the meantime the natural, cultural and social environment is “hurt” by the massive tourist attack. Where there is no concern for the physical implementations of the tourist flow (Cater, 1995).

A brief indication by Vincent (1991:112-118) of the problems of Mass Tourism follows, to show the extension of the catastrophe and the possible dangers which threaten the ecosystem:

- Environmental pollution effects (air, water, sites, noise).
- The destruction of flora and fauna (disappearance of several species plants and animals).
- Loss of Natural Landscape.
- Degradation of landscape and of historic sites and monuments (aesthetic degradation).
- Effects of congestion (traffic, time and space of tourists on holidays).
- Effects of conflict at the resident population.
- Effects of competition (is bound to occur to the detriment of traditional activities).

A few definitions are quoted to provide a balanced approach for the subject of the notion of sustainability.

Sustainable Tourism, "is the ideal model of Tourism which is able to operate the system, by creating a profitable and 'healthy' environment from the Tourism industry, during the time" (Harrison L., 1996:35-41).

Sustainable Development, is the development which "meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (Eber, 1992:1). Thus some researchers suggest that there may be a symbiotic relation between Tourism and the environment (Mathieson and Wall, 1989:102).

Sustainable Tourism Development, is the complex of the above definitions means "that tourism development is both in volume and in direction of development evolving in such a way that the pressure on the natural environment remains below the level of the carrying capacity for both the present and the future generation"

(Janssen, Kiers, & Nijkamp, 1995:65.). This also indicates the importance of creating and supporting the Sustainable Development of Tourism. The matter of fact is that Tourism relies on conserving the natural environment.

4. DIMENSIONS OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Sustainable Tourism is a phenomenon of the 1990s, however its origins lying in the wider concept of sustainable development (Swarbrooke, 1998).

Sustainable tourism operates in harmony with the local environment, community and culture, so it can become create permanently benefits and minimise the negative effects of development. Achieving sustainability depends on a balance of private initiative, economic instruments and regulation, translating global principles into focused local action, and new public-private sector delivery mechanisms. This may bear a new and necessary tourism culture that focuses on the environment as a valid raw subject for sustainable tourism development.

According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO) sustainable tourism development meets the needs of present tourists and hosts regions while protecting and enhancing opportunity for the future. Sustainable tourism development can thus be envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that we can fulfil economic, social, and aesthetic needs while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity, and life support systems (Murphy, 1994).

The 7 dimensions incorporated within this definition provide an excellent example of the general multi-dimensionality and interdisciplinary concerns. The need for resource management reaffirms that tourism is an economic activity, which must be capable of making a profit in order to survive and benefit the community.

The fulfilment of social obligations, means more than inter-generational equity, it means respect for other livelihoods and customs. Such variety and heritage is a major resource for tourism in a world that is fast becoming homogenized into a global economy.

A major component of environment and culture is their aesthetic appeal. While the focus has often been on international markers, such as world-renowned sites, the aesthetic qualities of regular townscapes and general landscapes should not be overlooked.

These needs should be addressed within ecological parameters to sustain both the physical and human environments. In addition to the real concerns about the natural environment, conservation of cultural legacies should not be ignored. The ecological process needs to be understood so that tourism intrusions will have the minimal impact.

The concern over maintaining our biological diversity is particularly germane to tourism, which thrives on the appeal of different flora and fauna along a distinctive sense of place.

5. COMPROMISE GLOBALISATION AND SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

Globalisation with its transcontinental flows, patterns of social interaction, and so, called global mass and has given the tourism industry free reign to develop throughout the world. In fact, tourism has led the globalisation process in the areas of transportation, communications, and financial systems (McLaren, 1999).

The tourism industry has become a major sector for the global economy since the second half of the 20th century and is rapidly growing at a tremendous annual rate. The ability of tourism to generate foreign exchange revenue, create employment, and absorb unemployment has been provided by a political and social legitimacy. Tourism has been promoted as a panacea for "sustainable" development. Its potential to earn billions of dollars easily has resulted in being viewed as a cure for debt-ridden countries. Furthermore, tourism has become a part of multilateral financial institutions' package for financial bailouts for countries in distress (Gonsalves, 2003). Tourism is now being pursued as a serious development strategy for the Developing World.

However, the economic benefits of tourism are: the results of a fundamental process by which expressions and the forms of environmental and cultural capital are traded. On the one hand, environmental capital, in terms of natural resources and more intangible aesthetic constructs of landscape and built heritage is clearly recognized as a platform for tourism development. On the other hand, cultural capital, in its artificial form and mosaic of local cultures, together with its way of life and tradition dimensions, is also recognized to be at the root of tourism phenomenon.

Consequently, conflicts over the exploitation, over-usage and contested use of the environment for tourism purposes have over recent years attracted a great deal of attention.

The rapid expansion of tourism is responsible for adverse environmental and socio-cultural impacts. Although the tourism industry is regarded as being kinder to the environment in general than most other industries, its size and wide spread has created negative environmental impacts, both for the natural environment and the cultural as well. Natural resource depletion and environmental degradation associated with tourism activities undermine the important ecological systems and pose severe problems to many tourism destinations. With globalisation, these threats will be exacerbated. International agreements that open up access to the local tourism industry by travel and tourism international cooperation's (TNCs) will only speed up exploitation of the natural resources, culture, and way of life of indigenous peoples (Gonsalves, 2003).

Tourism should thus be involved in sustainable development, because it is a resource-based industry, which is dependant on nature's endowment and society's heritage. It can be ascertained that sustainable development in tourism is premised on the notion that the economy and the environment - physical as well as socio-cultural, are but two sides of the same coin, in other words, the two are intimately linked.

The continuation of tourism as a dynamic and viable industry is thus dependent upon the adoption of a strategic approach to planning and marketing. The hallmark of such an approach is the inclusion of systematic and structured analysis of broader environmental and socio-economic factors affecting tourism demand as an integral part of planning process (Faulkner, 1994).

5.1. Tourism And Its Contribution To Globalisation

The strengths of the multinational corporations of tourism, the difficulties of direct access to the consumers of the developing economies, the weaknesses of the quality certification systems, the minimization of environmental impact of tourism, the limited satisfaction of the tourist demand, minimise the implementation of a complete sustainable development (CAIRO, Roullet- Cairo, 2001).

Aspects of tourism exemplary nature within the globalisation:

1- History: the economy world of "Braudel" theory

- The centre (the developed economies), the second regions (the developing countries) and the peripheral areas

2- Global markets

- Liberalisation of exchanges world-wide
- The extension of the multinational corporations of the travel and tourism

3- Fall of the Communism

- The collapse of directed tourism of the Comecon
- China's and Cuban growing economies

4- E-tourism

5- Culture

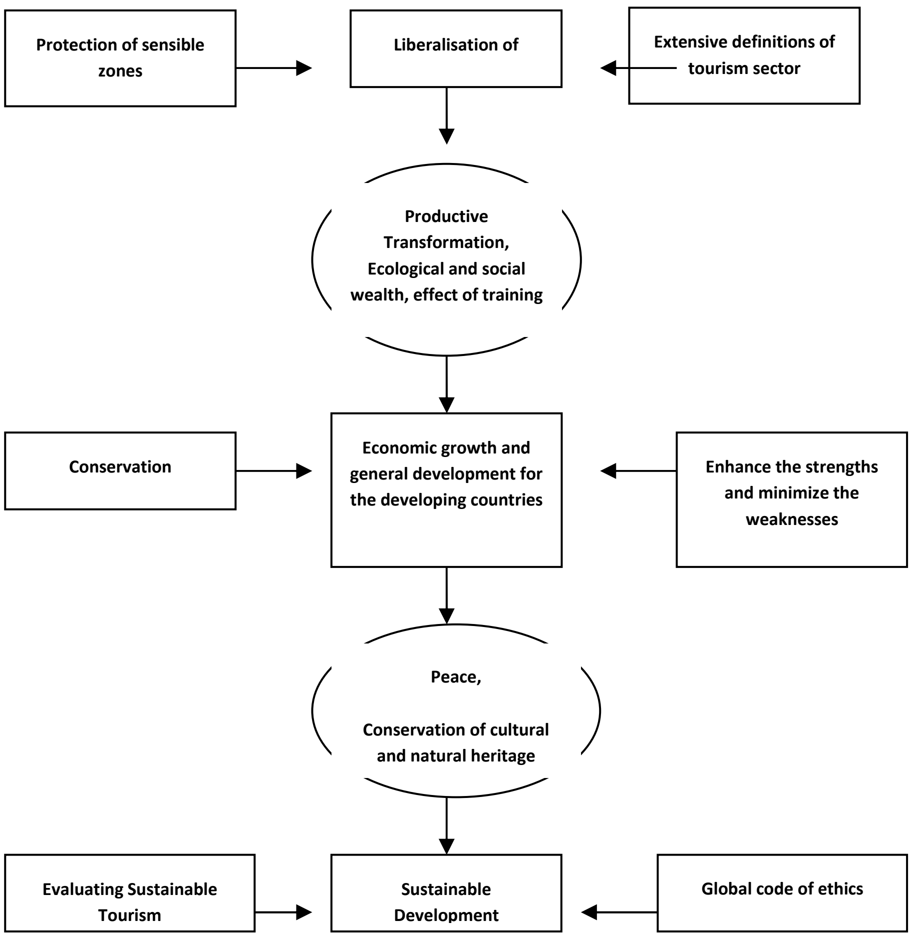
- Cultural Conservation

- Tourist packages
- The principal source of human migrations
- The ideal consumer: "to be served and satisfied"
- The individualistic corporation of mass

6- Liberal Economical Messianism

- The "Big Turn" of Adam Smith (1762-1766)
- Ricardo and the "friendly relations" between the nations
- Tourism liberalisation
- Tourism a flexible and adaptable sector of exemplary
- The self-regulation for the voluntary certification, 7- American Imperialism,
- United States the country receiver and transmitter, 8- Alternative tourism
- Ecotourism.
- Alternative tourism forms

Diagram 1: Liberalisation of tourism



5.2. The project of Liberalisation of tourism and sustainable tourism development by the World Tourism Organisation

The below diagram is a part of a project by WTO which focuses on four points (on the diagram below): Productive Transformation, Economic growth and general development for the developing countries, socio-cultural conservation and Sustainable Development, that are contributing to liberalisation of tourism and sustainable tourism development.

This project asserts that a sector of dynamic tourism is essential to the development of most of the countries, in particular the developing countries, and that it is essential to increase the participation of the developing countries to the world-wide services of trade, and declares objectively the will of "elaborating more before the disposals of the Agreement, in order to assure equitable commercial conditions for the trade and the consumer needs regarding sustainable development" (GATS, 2003).

5.3 The factors of employment, transportation and tourism as a dynamic of development

- **Tourism's contribution to Employment**

The rapid expansion of international tourism has led to significant employment creation. For example, the hospitality sector provided around 11.3 million jobs world wide in 1995 and in 20.1 million jobs in 2005. (WTO, 2006) Tourism can generate jobs directly through hotels, restaurants, nightclubs, taxis and souvenir sales, and indirectly through the supply of goods and services needed by tourism – related businesses. According to the WTO tourism supports more than 7% of the works workers.

- **Tourism's contribution to Transportations**

The development of vast infrastructures such as roads and other transportation routes goes hand in hand with tourism development. As more tourists seek out hard-to-reach "frontier" destinations, those areas become popularized, and soon private industry takes over. Once an area is targeted for tourism development, the process begins with road building and displacement of the local population. Tourism development can cost the local government and local taxpayers a great deal of money. Developers may want the government to improve the airport, roads and other infrastructure, and possibly to provide tax breaks and other financial advantages, which are costly activities for the governments, but consequently:

- Tourism can induce the local government to make infrastructure improvements such as better roads, airports, marines, and public transport networks to improve the service quality of transportations.

- By developing the infrastructure the quality of life for the residents can be improved, and tourism can be facilitated by investing.

- Tourism can boost incoming revenues from the transportations development

- **Tourism's contribution to development**

Diversification in an economy is a sign of health, however if a country or region becomes dependent for its economic survival upon one industry, it can put major stress upon this industry as well as the people involved to perform well. Many countries, especially developing countries with limited ability to explore other resources, have embraced tourism as a way to boost the economy.

Tourism can be a significant, even essential part of the local communities and can be considered as an important factor to development by contributing positively to:

- World peace
- Strengthening communities
- Encouraging civic involvement and pride
- Revaluation of culture and traditions
- Foreign exchange earnings
- Economic revenues
- Employment generation
- Stimulation of infrastructure investment
- Enhance the local economies
- Environmental awareness raising
- Cultural and rural conservation

6. MEASURES OF SUSTAINABILITY

While it is easy to conceptualise about the need for sustainable tourism development, it is more challenging to develop an effective, even practical measurement process. The literature in this subject shows carrying capacity techniques being applied in a variety of circumstances, often clarifying and confirming levels of suspected environment or social stress, but they leave open to discussion what it all signifies and what policy should be undertaken.

A major difficulty is that carrying capacity implies the existence of fixed and determinable limits to development and that if one were to stay below threshold levels no changes or determination will occur. However, it is known for a fact that all changes and modifications to the environment have an incremental effect, so some degree of change must be acknowledged and accounted for at all development stages. This is the philosophy behind the “Limits to Acceptable Change” (LAC) a process of measurement proposed by Stankey.

The LAC system is a framework for establishing acceptable and appropriate resource use with the primary emphasis being the conditions desired rather than the tolerance of a specific site. The process however, is a combined measurement and planning system not a policy.

Both the carrying capacity and LAC processes examine sustainable tourism from the supply side of the host community, but if tourism is to be sustainable it cannot ignore the tourist demand. Thought should be given to the demand implications of sustainable tourism development, specifically the benefits the visitors are seeking and the marketing strategies that can be applied to service both the visitors and the host societies.

Market research should identify which tourism niche is most appropriate from a business and environmental point of view. This kind of marketing analysis and strategy is being practiced in some Canadian national parks, moving away from the traditional promotional and operational focus to one which attempts to manage visitor opportunities and encourage public understanding in order to contribute to the conservation and recreation. The process uses market research to select target markets, especially the most appropriate public and private mix of opportunities and to guide the design of programs, services, and facilities. This however, requires an annual and seasonal monitoring system of visitor patterns and satisfactions to provide a visitor profile and strategy guide to the destination and the individual business members.

7. INDICATORS FOR EVALUATING SUSTAINABILITY’S EFFECTIVENESS

The youngest of all tools of sustainability are those now described as sustainability indicators, the development of which arose from the Rio Summit of 1992 (Lea,1993, (4):120-134). It is now commonly accepted that conventional indicators of ‘well-being’ (such as Gross national product- GNP) give a restricted, partial and one-sided view of development. It is the search for indicators which show linkages between economic social and environmental issues and the power relationships behind them which has given rise to the development of so called sustainability indicators. Thus far, such indicators have been developed as trials and are currently applied only at local authority level.

One important aspect that has been built into these indicators from their inception has been the participation of local community members in their formulation. There is no doubting here the genuine and different attempt to promote such participation as part of the development of sustainability indicators. (Cater, 1995). There is also no doubting that it is precisely this participation which has led to the use of indicators which are much less remote and much more comprehensible to people than are nationally and internationally derived measures such as GNP, gross domestic investment, and the like.

But their acceptance will face an uphill struggle. The measures most frequently used as the level of national economy relate precisely to that: the economy. Other relevant factors are externalised (that is ignored). Moreover, their use is well entrenched and perpetuated by conservative media which accept new ideas with reluctance unless they are forced to do so by a public that has already moved ahead (Lea, 1993; McCool, Moisey, 2002) The need to include the social, cultural, environmental and aesthetic factors which our commercial world and controllers normally externalise has not led to a quick redress for such factors, despite public debate of issue.

We summarize with some indicators for achieving and monitoring sustainability aspects in tourism destinations, as are defined by J. Lea.

1. Area protection
2. Visitor management techniques
3. Environmental impact assessment
4. Carrying capacity calculations
5. Consultation/participation techniques
6. Codes of conduct
7. Sustainable indicators

8. POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE IMPACTS FROM SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Although the growth of Mass tourism has negative effects on the environment, cultural and social ethics, the balanced growth can bring positive impacts on the above and could be the source of economic integration, not only in a particular destination but for the general society, in all social, cultural, economical and environmental issues (McKercher, 1993, 14(2):131-136).

Briefly, sustainable tourism:

Table 1. Negative and positive impacts of sustainable tourism development

Negative Impacts	**Positive impacts**
Economic frame	
Leakage - import - export	Foreign exchange earnings
Enclave tourism	Contribution to government revenues
Infrastructure cost	Employment generation
Increase in prices	Stimulation of infrastructure investment
Economic dependence of the local community on tourism	Contribution to local economies
Seasonal character of jobs	
Socio-cultural frame	
Change or loss of indigenous identity and values - commodification - standardization - loss of authenticity - adaptation to tourist demands	Tourism as a form for peace
Culture clashes - economic inequality - irritation due to tourist behaviour - job level friction	Strengthening communities
Physical influences causing social stress - resource use conflicts - cultural deterioration - conflicts with traditional land-uses	Facilities developed for tourism can benefit residents
Ethical issues - crime generation	Revaluation of culture and traditions

- child labour - prostitution and sex tourism	
	Tourism encourages civic involvement and pride
Environmental frame	
Depletion of natural resources - water resources - local resources - land degradation	Financial contribution - direct financial contributions - contribution to government revenues
Pollution - air pollution and noise - solid waste and littering - sewage - aesthetic pollution	Improved environment management and planning - cleaner production techniques - pollution prevention and waste minimization techniques
Physical impacts - construction activities and infrastructure development (land deterioration) - deforestation and intensified or unsustainable use of land - trampling on vegetation-soil - anchoring and other marine activities - alteration of ecosystems by tourist activities	Environmental awareness raising - sustainable consumption
Loss of biological diversity	Protection and preservation
Depletion of ozone layer	Alternative employment (mainly agricultural)
Climate change	Regulatory measures help offset negative impacts

Source: W.T.O., 2002.

9. ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF GROWING SUSTAINABLE TOURISM IN A GLOBALISED ECONOMY

Tourism can be considered as a tool for social and economic development, as a method to enhance economic opportunity, not as an end itself. Gale and Cordray's (1994) investigated the query "What should be sustained?" in a natural resource management context, to which they gave various answers, primarily focusing on various ecosystem characteristics. In this sense, tourism is integrated into boarder economic and development programmes (Hunter, 1995; McCool, 2001) and can be viewed as a method – similar to many definitions of ecotourism- to protect the natural and social capital upon which the industry is built.

By this query, tourism can be viewed as a tool, which at times, may be important to a community and other times not so important. In this sense, there is no any case of protecting cultures for their value to the tourism industry, but because of their value to their people (Robinson, 1999). It may be possible under this view that tourism is not sustained over a long period, but is used as a method to accumulate income and government revenue that can be used later for other development tools. Tourism would be viewed as a part of larger policy framework designed to achieve a sustainable society.

These alternative views of sustainable tourism carry significantly different implications for social economic policy, selection of indicators, public participation and the processes of planning should have encouraged the growth of tourism in private sector. They reflect different perspectives on the concept of sustainability. It seems that it more properly places tourism as a means and not an end to economic development. It allows tourism to be considered as one of the several alternatives that can help a community overcome its weaknesses and preserve its strengths. It views tourism as a tool and not as an end.

According to the World Tourism Organization, 698 million people travelled to a foreign country in 2000, spending more US$ 478 billion. International tourism receipts combined with passenger transport currently total more than US$ 575 billion- making tourism the world's number one export earner, ahead of automotive products, chemicals, petroleum and food (WTTC, 2001). “The sector is growing faster than the economy as a whole. WTTC/ WTO (2002) reports shows that in 1998, the Travel & Tourism economy is expected to generate, directly and indirectly, 11,6% of GDP (Gross Domestic Product) and nearly 231 million jobs in the world-wide economy. These figures are forecast to grow to 12,5% and 328 million respectively by 2010.

There were about 698 million international tourist arrivals worldwide in 2000, nearly 50 million (7.3%) more arrivals than in 1999 - the highest growth rate in nearly a decade. All regions in the world grew, and the fastest developing region continued to be East Asia and the Pacific with 14.6% growth, and 16% of the total market.

Europe saw an increase of 25 million international tourists (5.9% growth rate), and had 57.7% of the market share - by far the largest among the world's regions. The Americas are the second-biggest region, with 18.5% of arrivals.(WTTC, 2002)

The WTO statistic resources (2002) refers, that international tourist receipts grew by 5%, totalling US$ 478 billion in 2000, with an additional US$ 97 billion from international transport carriers earned outside the country of origin. Receipts per arrival averaged US$ 700 in 1999. Air transport increased its share against road in international holidays; together these two account for 85% of all international trips. Rail and sea transport remain below 8% each.

There are many hidden costs to tourism, which can have unfavourable economic effects on the host community. Often rich countries are better able to profit from tourism than poor ones. Whereas the least developed countries have the most urgent need for income, employment and general rise of the standard of living by means of tourism, they are least able to realize these benefits. Among the reasons for this are large-scale transfer of tourism revenues out of the host country and exclusion of local businesses and products. (WTO, 2002)

The tourism industry generates substantial economic benefits to both host countries and tourists' home countries. Especially in developing countries, one of the primary motivations for a region to promote itself as a tourism destination is the expected economic improvement. As with other impacts, this massive economic development brings along both positive and negative consequences. Jobs generated by Travel and Tourism are spread across the economy - in retail, construction manufacturing and telecommunications, as well in travel companies. They have a high proportion of women, minorities and youth, are predominantly in small and medium sized enterprises and offer good training and transferability. This pattern applies to developed and emerging economies alike"(WTTC / Green globe reports, 2002).

10. STRATEGIES TO ACHIEVE SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

In conclusion we summarize some of the action points, which should be practised to achieve sustainability in growing global tourism assumption. The strategies to practise sustainable development, the role of governmental legislation and local participation, are issues which need further investigation in each case. Also some key ideas provided to enhance the notion of sustainability, globalisation and its implications to a cluster of economic sufficiency, social equity and environmental conservation factors.

Common national strategies to achieve sustainability aspects provided below, by the WTO and U.N.E.P. (United Nations Environment Program) boards (ed. 2005). The assumption of sustainable tourism development, should be balanced with broader economic, social and environmental objectives at national and local level by setting out a national tourism strategy that is based on knowledge of environmental and biodiversity resources, and is integrated with national and regional sustainable development.

Action issues:

- establishment of a national tourism strategy that is updated periodically and master plan for tourism development and management
- development of coherent policy to reflect tourism's challenges
- work with the tourism industry to learn about the realities shaping available choices, while helping create an environment in which higher standards can be delivered
- integration of conservation of environmental and biodiversity resources into all strategies and plans
- enhancement prospects of economic development and employment while maintaining protection of the environment sustainability in tourism and related activities
- strengthening of the coordination of tourism policy, planning development and management at both national and local levels

In conclusion, we summarize to some key actions should be taken by the stakeholders for the benefit of sustainable tourism development, considering its positive implications in a socio-cultural, economic, environmental, development and conservation scheme:

- The hopes for changes should be replaced from realistic agendas for action
- An assessment of tourism potential should be included in each national development perspectives and plans.
- An identification of suitable types of development should be investigated.
- Local control over the tourism industry should involve governmental intervention.

11. CONCLUSION

To conclude, it is an evident that globalization with its transcontinental flow patterns of global mass has given the tourism industry free reign to develop throughout the world undermining the environmental and socio-cultural resources of local cultures. However, for globalization to be sustainable it should not be read as a universal process of global integration in which there is a growing convergence of cultures and civilizations. For the unevenness of globalization ensures it is far from a universal process experienced uniformly across the entire planet (Mc Grew, 2002). Instead, it should be interpreted as a process by which a new sense of global belonging is created which transcends loyalties to the nation-state and by which transnational social movements with clear regional or global objectives are developed, such as the “green movement” for preserving the environment.

Sustainable tourism development thus requires the realisation and active exercise of ecological and social responsibility at the global, national, and local level. In addition, the successful implementation of sustainable tourism development principles would require integrated policy, planning, and social learning processes. Its viability would depend on the full support of the people it affects through their governments, their social institutions and their private activities.

REFERENCES

Briguglio L., (1995), “Sustainable tourism”, Paris: Cassel

Buttler R.(1995), “Tourism and the Environment: Sustainability and Economic

Restructuring”, London: Edit. Sustainable Tourism, a Geographical Perspective,pp.49.

Clayton, B.D. and Bass, S. (2002). “Sustainable Development Strategies”, London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.

Coccossis H.,(1996), “Sustainable Tourism? European Experiences”, In: Edwards J.A., Coccossis H. “Tourism and sustainability: Perspectives and implications.” Oxon U.K. : Priestley, (1)pp.10

Coccossis H. - Tsartas P.(2001), “Sustainable tourism development and the environment”, Athens : Kritiki.

Eber S.(1992), “Beyond the Green Horizon. Principles of Sustainable Tourism : A discussion paper. London: World Tourism Concern and Wide Fund for Nature.

Eckes, A. “Is Globalization Sustainable?”, http://www.cmre.org/eckes.htm

Faulkner, H.W. (1994). “Towards a Strategic Approach to Tourism Development: The Australian Experience”, in Global Tourism: The Next Decade, New York: Butterwoth.

Greg, R. and Hall, D. ed. (2000). “Tourism and Sustainable Community Development”, London: Routledge.

GATS, (2003), Colloque en Porte de France

Gonsalves, P. “Globalization and Tourism”, http://www.19.homepage.villanova.edu/karyn.hollis/prof_academic/courses/2045/trav el_writing/globalization_&_tourism.htm

Held, David and Mcgrew, A. (2002). “Globalization / Anti-Globalization”, Cambridge: Blackwell Publishers Inc.

Holden A.(1996), “Alternative and Sustainable Tourism” – The Way Forward, London: UNL.

Hughes G. – “The cultural constructions of sustainable tourism“, London: HTTP.

Inskeep E.(1991), ‘‘Tourism Planning: An integrated and sustainable development

Approach”, London: Routledge.

Lea J.(1993), “Tourism and Development in the Third World”, London: HTTP, pp.120- 130.

McKercher B.(1993), “The unrecognized threat to tourism. Can tourism survive

sustainability?”. T.M, 14(2): 131-136

McCool S. and Moisey N.(2001), “Tourism, Recreation and Sustainability: Linking culture and the environment”, Oxon, U.K.: CABI Publishing

McLaren, D. and Pera, L. “Globalization, Tourism and Indigenous Peoples”,

http://www.planeta.com/ecotravel/resources/rtp/globalization.html

Mowforth M.and Munt I(1998), “Tourism and sustainability: New tourism in the third world”, London: Routledge.

Muller D.(1991), “The Thorny Path to Sustainable Tourism”, London:THHP.

Murphy, P. (1994). “Tourism and Sustainable Development”, in Global Tourism: The Next Decade, New York: Butterwoth.

McLaren, D. and Pera, L. “Globalization, Tourism and Indigenous Peoples”, http://www.planeta.com/ecotravel/resources/rtp/globalization.html

Neto, F. (2003). "A New Approach to Sustainable Tourism Development", Economic and Social Affairs, http://www.un.org/esa/papers.htm

Pearce D. W.(1991), "Towards the sustainable economy : environment and economies", Royal Bank of Scotland Review, No 172, pp. 3-14.

Theobald W.(1991), "Global Tourism in Next Decade", London:Pitman Publishing

Varvaressos S.(1999), "Tourism development and administrative decentralization", Athens: Propombos.

Williams A. & Shaw G.(1996), "Tools for Sustainable Analysis in Planning and Managing Tourism and Recreation in the Destination". London :Wright, pp.75

WTO/ Green Globe Board,(1997) Report "Tourism towards Sustainability".

WTO/ Green Globe Board, (2000)Report "Sustainable Tourism planning"

WTO,(2002, 2003,2005,2006) Reports "Sustainable Tourism development".

HARNESSING TOURISM POTENTIALS FOR LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN ONDO STATE OF NIGERIA

Adebayo Adewunmi Emmanuel

Department of Urban and Regional Planning
School of Environmental Technology
Federal University of Technology
Akure, Ondo State, Nigeria.

ABSTRACT

Tourism has been described as an important venture to bring or take employment into the rural areas (where there are few or no industries) with the ultimate goal of alleviating poverty. The means by which such a goal can be achieved is the main focus of this paper. It examines the concept of tourism and related subjects such as recreation, transportation and provision of lodging facilities. The place of tourism in employment generation together with a succinct outline of tourism institutional evolution is highlighted in the Nigerian context. Various tourisms potentials, which exist in Ondo state, are discussed while constraints towards the development of tourism as it relates to economic empowerment were mentioned. Major attractions include Idanre hills, Ebomi Lake, Igbokoda waterfront, museums and monuments, and various festivals and ceremonies. Constraints which include poor funding, low publicity/enlightenment and the low per capita income of the people are discussed. This paper rounds off with a near exhaustive 'cache' of suggestions towards improving tourism development with the intention to alleviate poverty in Ondo state.

Keywords: Tourism. Employment. Economy.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Everything is changing except “change” itself. Systems of various sorts are evolving. The environment is dynamic in its real sense. It is as if the computer age will last forever as the all time celebrity. Only time will proof this wrong or right. What is new in tourism? The popular thing is to talk about eco-tourism or adventure tourism. However, there is the new talk about ‘reality tourism’ and ‘space tourism”. Roosevelt (2001) recently hinted on the concept of ‘reality tourism’. He was able to inform that the Centre for Global Education in Minneapolis, United States of America organizes trips from the United States to third world nations like Cuba, Nicaragua, Iraq and Mexico’s Chiapas State for people to learn about the history of repression and political violence. Reality tourism touches war and politics in relation to people’s unpalatable experiences. It touches the reality of experiences by victims of war and various forms of abuse.

Space tourism could sound more like a science fiction, but Buzz Aldrin, one of the first two persons to walk on the moon is already working on the campaign for space tourism and the eventual colonization of Mars. (Agbu, 2002).

In Ondo state, much concentration is still on cultural tourism. It is about promoting our culture through festivals and celebrations. However, the state also has natural tourism resources, which are natural phenomena that are usually of interest to tourists worldwide but which have not been developed to enhance both the local and national economies. This paper aims at highlighting the tourism potentials in Ondo State and additionally suggesting ways through which employment can be created through the development of such potentials.

2.0 THE CONCEPT OF TOURISM

Tourism is a leisure activity involving the movement of people to destinations away from their usual residences. It is often international in character. According to the definition of the Association of International Scientific Experts in Tourism (AISET), tourism is the sum total of the phenomenon and relationships arising from the travel and stay of non-residents in so far as this does not lead to permanent residency and is not concerned with any earning activity.

The word ‘tourist’ comes from a french word ‘touriste’ meaning a person who out of his own interest undertakes a journey and in the process gets to know places outside his permanent place of abode during his or her free time. The free time could be weekends, annual leave or public holidays and for a duration not less than 24 hours. During such a journey, the tourist must not undertake a remunerative employment.

Tourism is a major source of income and foreign exchange earner for countries whose potentials have been adequately developed. Tourism is a larger concept than recreation. People recreate or go on tour for reasons ranging from the need to escape from boredom of locality and job to the desire to have fun and relax while some persons do it to meaningfully utilize their spare time or for the intrinsic value of tourism and recreation.

Benefits, which accrue from tourism, include direct satisfaction to individuals, enhancement of the overall and physical quality of individuals thereby adding to the productivity of the individual and society, important third-party benefits such as increased business and property value and the generation of wealth and employment.

Tourism can be classified broadly into domestic and international tourisms. Domestic tourism is journey for leisure purposely made within the territory of the country but outside the tourist's place of abode. International tourism can be subdivided into active and passive tourisms. Active tourism is related to the inbound foreigner–tourists to a country. This refers to a foreigner–tourist bringing in his money for tourism purpose into the country. Passive tourism relates to outbound-tourists. This refers to those travelling abroad and through their journey, importing foreign currency into their destination. Tourism could also be classified in relation to the motive.

1. **Health Tourism**: This is a journey with an intention to spend time getting well after an illness thereby combining medical exercise or convalescing with holiday and rest. This is different from complete hospitalisation.
2. **Sports Tourism**: It is a leisure activity associated with the watching of sports such as football matches, lawn tennis, tournaments, boxing, wrestling, etc.
3. **Cultural And Scientific Tourism**: This is associated with educative excursions, scientific journeys or conferences and meetings.
4. **Cult And Religious Tourism**: This is associated with journeys like pilgrimage to the Vatican and Jerusalem by Christians or to Mecca by Muslims. They are seasonal in nature and are normally organized.
5. **Social Tourism**: This is an organized form of tourism for the less privileged such as pensioners, students or very low-income earners. Special and subsidized facilities are provided for this group of tourists in the form of accommodation, restaurant or holiday packages.
6. **Reality Tourism**: This is tourism as it relates to learning about the "history of repression and political violence". Going by the words of Roosevelt (op. cit), it

involves among other things, visiting people who are under these conditions and who have probably broken off from such holds. It involves seeing the real life situations of people who have undergone some unfortunate circumstances like war and the impact of such experiences on their lives. It is a recent phenomenon in tourism.

7. **Space Tourism**: this is another recent approach to tourism. Buzz Aldrin, one of the first two persons to walk on the moon, started the campaign on space tourism and the eventual colonisation of Mars. His friend Dennis Tito became the first space tourist by spending $20 million to travel to Russian Mir space station. Presently, a space hotel like the Nicon Hilton - a ringed structure able to accommodate about 300 people in space - is being envisaged (Agbu, op. cit)

Adebajo (2000) says that the tourism industry is made up of all the businesses that directly provide goods and services for businesses and the leisure activities of tourists. Such businesses include international and domestic airlines operations, shipping and ferry operations, railway, bus, and taxi operations, accommodation supply, operation of restaurants and clubs and the organisation of tours, excursions, conferences and conventions. Others include the management of entertainment facilities (such as theatres, cinemas, discotheques, night clubs and funfairs), theme parks, natural parks and heritage attractions, the creation of visitors' information centres and the production and sales of souvenirs.

3.0 EMPLOYMENT IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

According to the report of the World Tourism Organization (WTO) in year 2002, international tourism was then the world's largest export earner. Foreign currency receipts from international tourism has since outstripped exports of petroleum products, or any other product or service, making tourism the world's largest growing industry. Many nations of the world, which before now underestimated the gains of tourism, are now scrambling for a piece of the action in international tourism industry. (Agbu, op. cit)

The world record has it that in the mid 1990s, the tourism industry contributed to more than 6 percent of the value of all goods and services produced throughout the world. It also accounted for more than 7 percent of global capital investment and 13 percent of world consumer spending. Experts estimated that tourism supported more than 130 million jobs worldwide and contributed more than 5.6 percent to total tax payments. (The World Book Encyclopaedia, 1997)

As mentioned above, many businesses are directly linked with tourism industry through supply of goods and services for recreation and leisure activities of tourists. In addition to this, there are specific job opportunities that are directly linked with tourism industry since it is a labour-intensive industry. But most forms of tourism are seasonal, as it is the case with cultural tourism and those associated with winter sports. As a result, many tourism jobs are part-time, casual, low skilled and low paid. However, the large number of people that tourism employs coupled with its links with other industries makes governments to actively participate in the development of tourism resources.

4.0 TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

As reported by Kasali (2002), national recognition of the need to promote and develop tourism dates back to the colonial era - 1953 to be precise - when the need to collect and preserve the natural and historic heritage of the country was brought up by the colonial masters. Many parastatals have been established since then and were placed under the Ministry of Information and Culture until recently when the present administration deemed it fit to establish a full-fledged Ministry of Tourism and Culture. Under this ministry, certain parastatals that have direct and indirect links with preservation of culture and tourism development exist.

1. The National Commission for Museums and Monument - This parastatal has experienced series of transformation. It started from Antiquities Services Department in 1943 to Department of Antiquities as well as the Antiquities Service Commission in 1953 through the provision of the 1953 Ordinance and finally metamorphosed into the National Commission for Museums and Monuments (NCMM) through the Decree No. 77 of 1979 and was given a corporate status.

2. The National Archives – This started as Nigerian Record Office in 1954 for the purpose of historical record storage in Nigeria, but later transformed into the National Archives through the provisions of Public Archives Ordinance of 1958.

3. The National Council for Arts and Culture (NACA) – It was established through the NACA Act No. 3 of 1975, evolving from the Nigerian Arts Council. The new functions and responsibilities of this parastatal are contained in NACA Amendment Decree of 1987.

4. The Nigerian Tourism Development Company (NTDC) – It was first established as Nigerian Tourism Association (NTA) in 1975 and later transformed into Nigerian Tourism Board (NTB) through Decree No 54 of 1976 (NTB Decree). This board was charged with the responsibility of projecting the Tourism attractions in the country to both Nigerians and foreigners by improving the facilities for tourism and highlighting their locations, beauty and values. Of recent, it has come to be known as the Nigerian Tourism Development Company (NTDC).

Some other relevant bodies such as: Centre for Black African Arts and Culture and Nigerian Film Census Board were also established to complement the efforts of the Federal Government towards boosting the status of our tourism resources and the promotion of our Arts and Culture. All the efforts were highly financed by the Federal Government, such as through the disbursement of N1 million to each of the 19 states in the country in 1978. Also a huge sum of N115 million was allocated for tourism promotion in the 4th National Development Plan.

5.0 BRIEF HISTORY OF ONDO STATE

The present Ondo State is the remains of the old Ondo State after the carving out of Ekiti State in 1996, by Late Gen. Sanni Abacha's Administration.

Figure 1: Map of Nigeria showing Ondo State and the location of Akure as the state capital.

Source:http://www.mapsofworld.com/nigeria/nigeria-political-map.html retrieved on Monday April 23, 2007 .

The old Ondo State was actually created in February 1976. It is presently made up of 18 Local Government Areas, which evolved from the remaining 12 Local Government Areas in 1996 after the creation of Ekiti State. The projected population of the Ondo state for the year 2005 at a growth of 2.6% is 3,222,243 (as adopted by Ondo state Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Budget in their projection of the state's population from 1996 to 2000) on a land area of 13,595.00 km^2. The state lies between longitudes $4^0$30' and 6^0E of the Greenwich meridian and latitudes $5^0$45' and 8^0 15'N of the equator.

Figure 1 shows the location of Ondo state in the national setting with the indication of Akure as the state capital

The state is within the tropical rainforest experiencing two main seasons namely the rainy season (in the month April to October) and the dry season (in the month of November to March). Annual rainfall varies from 1150mm to 2000mm in Northern and Southern parts of the state respectively. The state is bounded in the north by Osun and Ekiti States, in the East by Kogi, Edo and Delta States, in the south by the Atlantic Ocean and in west by Ogun State. The state has a widespread of tourist centres/features. These include rivers and lakes (in the coastal area), lowlands and rugged hills. The inhabitants of the state are mainly Yorubas comprising the Akokos, the Owos, the Ondos in the northern and central areas and the Ikales, Ilajes, Apois and Arogbos who inhabit the southern and the coastal areas. (Kasali, op. cit).

6.0 TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN ONDO STATE

The state has widespread tourist features. Going by the description of Fasoranti (2002), there is a maze of creeks, rivers and lakes in the coastal area. Lowlands, rugged hills and granite outcrops on a few hills are found in the Northern area. The hilly areas are notably found at Idanre and Oka. Some of the numerous rivers in the state are Owena, Ogbese, and Ose. In the southern coastal belt, the vegetation is typically marshland. Bordering the North is the stretch of shrub land and low grassland commonly referred to as the savannah. There are averagely dense forests at Idanre, Owo and Ifon.

Tourism in the state saw a green light during the era of governor Adekunle Ajasin which started with the development of Idanre Hills and Ikogosi warm/cold spring (i.e. before the Creation of Ekiti State) and new tourist centres were later developed including Ebomi lake, Oke–Maria, Igbokoda Waterfront, Owo Museum of Antiquities, Deji's Palace, Igbo-Olodumare, Oduduwa Shrine and the Red water. Each of the tourism resources has its peculiarities, which are described later.

For the fact that tourism and culture are inseparable, Ondo state is rich in Arts and cultural heritage, having an interesting variety of traditional sculptors and cultural ceremonies. The luxuriant vegetation is also a rich source of materials for the various carvings in wood, bamboo or calabashes. Iron, bronze and brass works abound in the state. Carved outposts and decorated doors from Idanre are among the best known internationally. The 'Obitun' traditional dancers are also an internationally acclaimed dance troop. Palaces of traditional rulers are true relics of the people's culture and tradition. Traditional rulers aid the integration of cultural heritage, which has a major effect on tourism development in the state.

Most of the roads within the state, including those linking various tourist centres to the state capital (Akure), are tarred in order to make them motorable. In the reverine areas of Ilaje/Ese-odo Local Government Area, water transportation is a very important means of transportation for the people. This means of linking Igbokoda waterfront by tourists was facilitated by the State Government's dredging of many canals. The state is also linked to other states such as Lagos, Delta, Rivers and Cross-River by sea. However, Rail and air transport systems are yet to be developed in the state.

Tourist centres in the state are mainly financed by the state government via allocations to the tourism Board. There is also a link between the health sector and the tourism industry. Each of the tourist centres has a reserve team from the health sector in the state which is called upon in cases of emergency at the tourist centres.

7.0 TOURISM POTENTIALS IN ONDO STATE

1. Tourism Potentials Of Idanre (Idanre LGA)

The is the leading tourist centre in Ondo state and one of the best in Nigeria with international reputation is in Idanre Town. The hill-fenced town has series of high and historic hills and landmarks. History had it that the town was formerly located on one of the highest hills of the area, as a sort of defence against external aggression of the olden days. The old Oba's (King) Palace is located at the top the said hill and the present Oba still visits it during festive periods in order to invoke the spirits of the ancestors on the town. The hill top sanctuary is marvellous and attractive as it consists of about 640 steps.

Among the uniqueness of Idanre town is the presence of Agbogun Foot Print on one of the hills. This is an intriguing footprint that contracts and enlarge to accommodate any foot placed in it except those of the evildoers like witches and wizards going by the people's belief. There is also the presence of an antiquity of long historic value, the Oduduwa Crown, which is believed to have been brought by the first King of the town, Olofin. The crown is said to have been there for over 1,000 years. It is occasionally being worn by the Owa of Idanre especially during Ije festival.

2. Ebomi Lake (Akoko South East LGA)

Another potential tourist attraction of Ondo State is the Ebomi Lake at Ipesi in Akoko area of the state. The lake, which is about 2 km North of Oka town had been in existence before the settling of the Ipesi people. The lake is 1.6 kilometres long and 40 metres wide. The name 'Ebomi' is a local dialect of the word 'Abami' implying weird or mysterious. A local priest is charged with the responsibility of appeasing the lake when in times of trouble. The best period for visitation by tourists is between the months of November and March when the level of water must have fallen due to low rainfall at the period. The mysterious Lake forms part of Ose River and it requires more attention than the yearly sacrificial festival in August for which it is being used by the indigenes.

3. Oke Maria At Oka Akoko (Akoko South West LGA)

The Oka Hills provide attractive scenery for visitors and tourists. Oka Town is located northeast of Akure, the state capital, and is about 113 km away. The occupation and placement of the representative statue of the Virgin Mary by the Catholic faithfuls has given the area a religious undertone. The hill was first spotted by Rev. Father Cerminatti in 1916 and since then, thousands of tourists have visited the site annually on pilgrimage. Another attractive feature at Oka is the presence of Agba Shrine, which is made up of a small Lake known as Ojomirin. The lake has never dried since it was discovered.

4. Igbokoda Water Front (Ilaje LGA)

The waterfront at Igbokoda, within the Ilaje Local Government Area, is one of the longest territorial waters in Nigeria, and also one of the important tourist attractions in the riverine area of Ondo State. The presence of an open fishing terminus will definitely be of interest to tourists.

5. Igbo Olodumare At Oke-Igbo (Ile-Oluji/Oke-Igbo LGA)

This is an ancient forest that is known for various spirits. The forest is an attractive sight for tourists. In the forest, there is the site for a thousand demons and also a hill known as Oke Langbodo. This forest has been of tremendous use most especially to artiste and film producers for its uniqueness. The host Local Government Area is found towards the east of the state capital.

6. Oduduwa Shrine And Red Water At Epe (Ondo East LGA)

These have just been discovered by the Tourism Board as an important tourist attraction. It is still under proper study by the Board, in order to fashion out strategies for proper development of the site as a tourist centre in Ondo East LGA.

7. Cave Of Ashes At Isarun (Ifedore LGA)

This is another newly discovered tourist centre that has a cave containing natural ashes. The centre is yet to be developed by the board. Isarun is less than fifteen minutes travel time from the state capital.

8. Igbara Oke Petroglyphs (Ifedore LGA)

Here, some ornamental things are incised on the rock and were said to be from the sword of Ogedengbe, a notable warrior in Yoruba history. This is the location where he was said to have sought refuge during the Kiriji war. The centre was officially declared a National monument during its first commissioning on 31st July, 1987 by prince Tony Momoh, a past Minister of Information.

9. Oyemekun Rocks (Akure South LGA)

"Oyemekun rocks" is a tourist centre under the control of a non-governmental organization in Ondo state. It is owned by a private individual. The main attracting feature of Oyemekun rocks is the natural pool and outcrops with the tracks well laid out. A continuous evergreen environment, which can be described as cool temperate, is facilitated by the heavy rainforest trees that give a convenient shed over the whole centre. Another natural element notable in the centre is the cool breeze, which blows incessantly over the area. (Oyinloye, 2003)

10. Victory Gardens (Akure South LGA)

This centre has a clubhouse and children's playground with swings and other children facilities. The open area is planted with lawn and beautiful flowers. A similar attribute with that of Oyemekun rocks can be found in the cool and evergreen environment of the garden. (Oyinloye, op.cit). Other parks in Akure town are the **Alagbaka Recreation Park** and the **Tourism Village** along Igbatoro road which are already attracting the attention of private investors (adeniyan, 2005).

11. Museums And Monuments In Ondo State

The museum at Owo is a first generation museum where antiquities and the cultural heritage peculiar to the old life of the residents of the area could be easily found. The museum at Akure is a national museum located strategically by the Deji's Palace. It was declared a National Monument by Gen. Ibrahim Badamosi Babangida in 1989 and officially gazetted in 1990. The properties are under the National Commission for Museums and Monuments (NNCM), Akure office, headed by Mr. Francis Anene (The curator). The Museums have different sections, such as library, exhibition area and crafts stand among others and these have been serving the recreation interest of the people of Ondo State and beyond.

Deji's Palace has a number of characteristic features such as 16 open courtyards, natural underground drains which inspite of heavy rainfall in Akure and without a special drainage channel has never allowed the flooding of the palace. The palace is over 700 years old, so it has many ancient cultural heritages that deserve preservation. Presently, NCMM Akure office has 30 persons on its workforce.

In conclusion, the compilation of the entire above-listed tourist centres has been the major achievement of the Board for now. The responsibility of developing these centres rests on the state and federal governments coupled with the need to provide an economic atmosphere for the private entrepreneurs to assist in the development and promotion of tourism recourses.

12. Festivals and Ceremonies

Table 1.0 shows the various festivals in Ondo State with the towns and tribes involved in the marking of such festivals and the various months of the year when these festivals are marked. These festivals are major side attractions to mainly citizens of Ondo state that are resident in the state and those in the Diaspora.

Table 1.0: The Major Festivals Celebrated In Ondo State

S/n	Festival	Town	Tribe	Month of the year
1	Arigiya	Ikare	Akoko	May
2	Imole	Ikare	Akoko	April
3	Ajagbo	Irun	Akoko	October
4	Igogo	Owo	Owo	September
5	Agheregbe	Uso	Owo	August
6	Olokun	Akure	Akure	June
7	Egungun	Akure	Akure	June
8	Omojao	Akure	Akure	August
9	Orosun	Idanre	Ondo	May
10	Obitun	Ondo	Ondo	September
11	Ogun	Ondo	Ondo	October
12	Olofin	Ile Oluji	Ondo	October
13	Ere	Okitipupa	Ikare	March
14	Malokun	Igbokoda	Ilaje	April
15	New Yam	All settlements	All tribes except Ilaje and Apoi	June - August

Source: Ministry Of Tourism And Culture, Ondo State, 2005

8.0 LODGING FACILITIES IN ONDO STATE

Several hotels and lodging facilities are spread throughout Ondo State. Some of these are revealed on table 2.0 as shown below. Almost all of these facilities are located are located in the in the local government headquarters.

9.0 PROBLEMS MILITATING AGAINST TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN ONDO STATE

Several problems are associated with tourism development in Nigeria in general. These same problems are pronounced in Ondo State and so cannot be ignored. Inadequacy of fund is a major problem. Tourism is being accorded low priority in the State's budgetary allocation and this greatly affects its development and management. This may not be unconnected with the fact that the agitation of the people towards tourism is so low.

Additionally, lodging facilities have been found to be sub-standard. It has been discovered that most hotel accommodations lack holiday-oriented programmes and facilities. Publicity seems to be at zero level. Adverts are hardly found anywhere. The public is not aware. Maybe only the relevant institutions are and this has created a gap between tourism and the people. What seems to be a problem beyond the state is the poor national political scenario that seems to fluctuating. Once, the United States declared Nigeria unsafe to visitors and investors. No individual wants to risk his life in the face of potential political violence.

Also is the lack of interest in tourism on the part of the people of the state. In general, the attitude of most Nigerians towards recreation has been a poor one. Tourism is seen as a white man's phenomenon and this affects the attitude of the people towards tourism and recreation.

Poor implementation of government policies retains tourism development on paper without actualisation. The Nigerian economy does not help matters, as it does not leave an average Nigerian with much to recreate or invest in tourism at regular intervals. This has affected patronage from within and outside Ondo state. Lack of development in the immediate environment of tourist centres is revealed in the lack of good access roads and other infrastructural facilities that encourage the patronage of tourism features. This was noted by Amodu (2005).

SOME HOTELS AND GUEST HOUSES IN ONDO STATE WITH THEIR LOCATIONS	
Akure 1. Owena Motel Limited 2. Akure Plaza Motel 3. Solton International Hotel 4. Ade Super Hotels 5. Alpha Motels 6. Do Good International Hotel 7. Royal Birds Hotel 8. Modulore Guest House 9. Royal Shalom Guest House 10. Kajola Hotel	**Owo** 1. First Molac Hotel 2. Rosa-B Hotel 3. Ade Super Hotel 4. Obayanju International Hotel 5. Ola Motel **Ore** 1. Terminal Hotel 2. Unity Hotel 3. Oni Guest House 4. Banker Hotel
Ondo 1. Ade Super Hotel 2. Sunbreaker Hotel 3. Flagship Hotel 4. Sunny Sky Hotel 5. Olamojiba Hotel	**Ikare** 1. Prestige hotel 2. Deluxe hotel 3. Boye Guest House 4. Rockyson Hotel 5. Dayspring Hotel

Source: Arowolo, 2005

Table 2.0: Some Of The Hotels and Guest Houses In Major Towns Of Ondo State

10 GENERATION OF EMPLOYMENT THROUGH TOURISM DEVELOPMENT:THE WAY FORWORD

Most of the tourist resources in Ondo State are located in the rural areas where there is low job opportunities and involvement in non-agricultural activities because of the presence of little or no specialized industries. Thus, the development and revitalization of the tourism potentials in these areas makes it a viable venture for reducing unemployment and poor standard of living in the rural communities since tourism is a large employer of labour because of the various direct and indirect activities linked with the industry.

In many places, local communities have been reinvigorated by tourists' interest in their arts, crafts or culture. Tourism has also exposed destinations in developing countries to the behaviour and values of visitors from foreign lands. This section highlights the recommendations towards the general development of tourism in Ondo State while at the same time touches on how some of the suggestions made can be used to create employment for the rural dwellers in the state in order to reduce the poverty level.

Investors will always think about profit just like every wise businessman. Most capital intensive business ventures take some years to recoup their invested capital before profit begins to turn in. Such is the case of the provision of lodging facilities like hotels especially in rural areas where patronage is expected mainly from tourists. The talk has always been to advise private investors to take the initiative but it is very pertinent to emphasize the role of the government in this respect. On the part of the hotel operators, new comers into the business should be encouraged to provide something different from and better than what exists on ground in terms of facilities and services. On the part of the government, publicity, good road networking and encouragement of local side attractions and creation of game centres are some of the expected contributions that are discussed ahead. In addition, the government should be able to grant soft loans with long moratorium to such private investors. Additionally, for the existing hotels, there is need to maintain and upgrade their facilities. Middle class hotels with very neat and adequate facilities will be good enough for take off in such centres. Indigenes or residents of host community should be given preferences in taking up jobs in such hotels. They should reap the benefits of the facilities in their locality. Unskilled labour can be employed in cleaning, driving and clerical jobs among others.

Provision of Restaurants, eatery and Take-away Joints generates employment for the people. Such joints are found in places like Ebomi lakes and

Idanre Hills. Similar food and drink spots should be provided at resorts or tourist centres. They automatically provide jobs for people who sell foods, drinks, water in sachet and snacks. Indigenes who are good at preparing local dishes, which could be of interest to tourists, can also make money while companies that produce such things as water in sachet or bottled water can be established in such localities to reduce the cost of transportation of such goods.

Poor roads will always cause friction in accessing the areas concerned. This will also retard growth and development in general in rural areas. Some market centres could not survive due to the very poor condition of access roads linking them. Other Infrastructural facilities like electricity, telephone and portable water supply will both aid development and provide at least some few jobs for the indigenes of the host communities

The State Newspaper, Hope, is a good medium for advertising the various tourist centres. The same applies to the state Television and Radio stations. It is no surprise that most people even in Ondo state do not know about most of the tourist centres mentioned earlier on. Enlightenment differs from publicity in a little way. Enlightenment makes the people to know the values in tourism and recreation. It educates them on the various wonderful aspects of tourism in relation to health and some other things. Publicity and enlightenment provide jobs by helping to increase patronage, thereby increasing demand, which consequently stimulates an increase in supply and suppliers. Also, exhibitions, workshops and seminars will be useful in this wise.

Side attractions stem from performances from traditional dance troupes and artistes. The dance troupes have ways of promoting the culture of the state while at the same time making a living through their performances. Earnings could be made during their performances even at tourist centres. During festive periods such as Christmas and Easter periods, musicians can organize musical concerts, which provide seasonal employment for some people. The government can work to coordinate such entertainment at the festive periods.

The souvenir industry is very much part of the tourism industry. Works of Arts and Carvings together with woven materials are all gift items, which can provide jobs for people in the rural areas. Most tourists are interested in taking something new and different back to their origin. The souvenirs are kept as a memorial of their visit to the tourist centre. Even embroidery or textile works are part of job creating activities in a place like Abeokuta in Ogun State where some of the Tie and dye (Adire) materials are exported to foreign countries for sales.

Institutions such as Research Centres, Museums and Libraries provide jobs for people in both rural and urban centres within the state. Libraries containing books on the history and culture of the Nation and Ondo state in particular and at various local levels can be built for visitors to visit and read about the history of various towns and settlements in the state. There is an existing museum in Owo town, which can be improved and maintained for the survival of its contents.

Provision of indoor games, and game centres will help to generate income for the government and easily be employed to make their money on daily basis. Local games like Ayo could also be made available apart form the foreign ones like Table tennis and Lawn tennis. In addition, such things as swimming pools will also be good attraction to visitors to tourist centre. Local wrestling are additional side attractions that tourist can watch.

The government is in the position to encourage students and organizations to embark on series of excursion. Tourist's guides could be very helpful during excursions. Increase in the number of tourism related trips like excursions would increase patronage, which will increase income from tourism related businesses that will in turn provide more employment for the people.

Public participation in planning involves citizen participation in project execution and maintenance. In tourism planning, security outfits such at the vigilante groups are common in recent times. The vigilante group consists of indigenes that are volunteers to help in protecting the provided facility from thieves and robbers. These facilities could be tourist facilities or can be connected to them. The Local Government in a particular area could contribute to the payment of salaries to this people. Periodic refurbishment and revitalization of the tourist centres to meet the changing taste of the tourists must be embarked upon. Good maintenance culture helps to keep the facilities alive and also keeps the jobs in existence. Deterioration of tourist facilities will only lead to loss of value and consequently lead to loss of jobs.

11 CONCLUSION

While the Americans are thinking of space tourism, the South Africans continued to enjoy the benefits of its man-made Sun-City in Bophuthaswana which features a make-believe world of what Africa looked like some hundreds of years ago and this draws a daily 25,000 visitors from all over the world who come to have fun and spend hard currency. According to Agbu (Op.cit.) the building of Nigerians equivalent of the Sun-City in at least two cities in the Niger Delta to accommodate tourists could follow at a later phase to provide jobs for our restless and unemployed youths, show case our diverse cultures and create wealth for millions of Nigerians as well as enhance our foreign exchange earning capacity. The same benefits will results, if the tourist centres in Ondo state are developed to attract visitor. Both the state and the nation at large will benefit from such efforts by the government.

REFERENCES

Adebajo, A.A. (2002): Tourism Revitalization and Development as Employment Generating Investment in The Rural Areas of Ondo State. Term Paper on Tourism and Recreation Planning. Department of Urban And Regional Planning. Federal University of Technology, Akure.

Adeniyan, E. (2005): Private firms invest N400 million in Alagbaka Par. *The Hope*. Pp 1-2 {27 April – 3 May 2005).

Agbu, C. (2002): Tourism as the next boom. *The Guardian*. pp.63 (September 9).

Amodu, E. I. (2005): An Investigation of Tourist Potentials for Socio-Economic Development in Ondo State of Nigeria. Unpublished Postgraduate Diploma Thesis. Department of Urban And Regional Planning, Federal University of Technology, Akure.

Arowolo, M.O. (2005): Major Hospitality House in Ondo State of Nigeria. *Term Paper on Nature of Environmental Science.* Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Federal University of Technology, Akure.

Fasoranti, A.O. (2002): Employment Generation Using Tourism Development. *Term Paper on Tourism and Recreation Planning*. Department of Urban and Regional Planning. Federal University of Technology, Akure.

Kasali, M. A. (2002): Employment Provision Potential Of Tourism Resources In Ondo State Rural Communities. Term Paper on Tourism and Recreation Planning. Department of Urban and Regional Planning. Federal University of Technology, Akure.

Ondo State Ministry Of Finance, Economic Planning And Budget, Akure (2000): *Digest of Demographic Statistics of Ondo State.* Akure: Department of Research And Statistics, Ministry Of Finance, Economic Planning And Budget, Akure, pp VII & XI

Oyinloye, M.A. (2003): Socio-Economic Effects of Recreational Facilities on the Community; A Case Study of Two Centres in Akure, Nigeria. *Challenges of Environmental Sustainability in a Democratic Government.* National

Conference of The Environment and Behaviour Association of Nigerian (EBAN). Akure, Ondo State, Nigeria. Pp 347-355.

Roosevelt, M. (2001): “Greetings from Zapatista land” *TIME*. Pp 42-43, Vol. 158, No.10 (September 3, 2001)

World Book Encyclopaedia. (1997). *Importance of Tourism*. (Vol. 19, p. 311). Chicago: World Book International –World Book Inc.

MUSEUM EDUCATION CASE STUDY: THE BIBLIOTHECA ALEXANDRINA'S ANTIQUITIES MUSEUM

Dr.Dina M. Ezz El-Din,

Lecturer in Guiding Department, Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Alexandria University

Dr. Samar F. El Kasrawy

Lecturer in Tourism Department, , Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Alexandria University

ABSTRACT

Museum education is one of the important roles of museums. There are different aspects through which museums can support education such as special guided tours, educational programs, etc. It is obvious that history, culture as well as art education is agreed to be one of the main duties of the antiquities museums, where they try to provide a continuation of school and university education with a place for study and appreciation of all these fields.

With its ancient and great history, Bibliotheca Alexandrina (BA) is considered as one of the most known libraries in the world; it influences cultural as well as touristic life in Egypt and other countries. Being the key expertise, the Bibliotheca Alexandrina's Antiquities Museum is considered as a valuable case study to investigate its impact on the cultural life as well as tourism.

In order to explore the possibilities and effectiveness of museum education a comparative study has been undertaken between the Bibliotheca Alexandrina's Antiquities Museum and other museums; the National Museum in Alexandria and the Egyptian Museum in Cairo and the Oriental Institute Museum in Chicago.

Recommendations include increasing marketing efforts concerning the museum education programs and extending the age of participants to include elder people and various categories of visitors.

Keywords: Museum education-Bibliotheca Alexandrina-cultural tourism

INTRODUCTION

The number of tourists seeking to discover the past is constantly growing. More and more people are interested in heritage and cultural tourism (Prideaux & Kininmont, 1999). “The growth in tourism is intrinsically linked to a parallel growth in museums and cultural attractions of all kinds” (Lord, 1999).

“Museums are first and foremost educational and scholarly institutions in the broadest sense” (Ambrose, 1993). They are not simply places to display historical artifacts; they are more complex institutions that play interdependent roles. Their collections and associated information can be used for educational purposes for people of all ages. They may also affiliate research, serve as cultural centers and even provide entertainment (Mottner & Ford, 2005).

Every museum should implement its educational policy and market itself effectively to schools as the provision of an education service will help to build support and understanding for the museum's work among them (Ambrose, 1993).

Communities are no longer recipients of culture; they have to play a key part in the understanding of their heritage. On the other hand, museums' collections need interpretation in order to allow visitors to interact with them. This interaction is provided by museum educational programs which allow people to see, touch, and hear, and which attract and develop the interests of public categories with different intellectual and physical needs. Therefore, the staff responsible for the accomplishment of this role must involve museologists and educators who have a good understanding of educational theory and practice (Moffat & Wollard, 2004; Talboys, 2005).

In addition, museum education programs can be used as an effective marketing tool to increase visitor numbers and capture a greater share of the tourist market.

RESEARCH AIM

1. To realize that museum education is one of the most important roles of museums.
2. To explore museum education at Bibliotheca Alexandrina and compare it with other national and international museums.
3. To explore strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of BA's museum educational programs.
4. To put guidelines how to improve the BA's museum educational programs.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research was conducted with the descriptive-evaluative method. This method is usually used to observe an object condition of a system and is considered useful when making predictions and implementations. In addition, the comparative method was considered valuable to investigate Alexandria's museum education for two aspects:

1. It throws light on the present situation and future trends.
2. It suggests possible solutions to the current problems.

The research was not able to rely upon the web sites of either the BA antiquities museum or Alexandria National Museum. The BA's web site does not have a direct link and very *little information about its antiquities museum education programs, while the Alexandria National Museum's web site is still under construction. Therefore, in order to know and understand the concepts and achievements in museum education, museum staff such as directors as well as participants had been interviewed in these museums.

However, the education programs of both the Egyptian Museum in Cairo and the Oriental Institute Museum in Chicago were discussed through investigating their advanced web site.

Finally, a SWOT analysis was conducted on BA's antiquities museum's education program. It was valuable to look at the strengths and weaknesses of current service, also at the opportunities available and threats before providing guidelines and recommendations.

OVERVIEW OF MUSEUM EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN EGYPT

It is worth mentioning that the Egyptians were probably pioneers in recognizing this educational role of the museum as early as the 1880s. In 1882 the Egyptian Antiquities Organization opened a school attached to the museum at that time to teach ancient languages, scripts, art, history and monuments of Ancient Egypt. Also, in 1869 a private school was established to teach the Ancient Egyptian language. It was unfortunately closed later.

Throughout more than a whole century museums in Egypt were only considered places where objects were exhibited to people who did not really grasp their real significance. The major development occurred in the 1990s. The Hans Seidel Foundation held important activities in Egypt in 1994 which were in the form of special workshops carried out for children in the Luxor Museum. Special six-months training courses were organized for museum curators (October 1995 to march 1996). The first group of Egyptian museum educators graduated at the end of the second International conference on Museum Education held in Cairo in April 1996.

BIBLIOTHECA ALEXANDRINA

The new library of Alexandria, the Bibliotheca Alexandrina, is considered as a landmark building standing in the city's historic eastern harbor. This was probably the location of the ancient library.

The Ancient Library

The ancient library of Alexandria is an example of higher education in African antiquity. It was one of the world's earliest known prototype universities. The construction of the library began in 283 B.C.E. under Ptolemy I Soter and was completed by his son Ptolemy II Phiadelphus. Located near the royal palace in the Greek section of the city known as the BRUCHEION, it was intended to be a religious and secular institution. It was a great complex which included the MUSEION; the place where the Greek goddesses known as the Muses were worshipped. In fact, the modern term museum derives from this Greek word MUSEION.

Besides this MUSEION, the library comprised living quarters for the community of poets, philosophers and scholars. It also included lectures rooms, a botanical garden, a zoological park, astronomical observatory and above all, the great library which is said to have amassed over a half a million works on papyri rolls.

Hence, this ancient library was a multicultural institution that served as a symbol of the Ptolemys prestige, and also as a vehicle for cultural and intellectual domination of other cultures through appropriation of all written knowledge (Lulat, 2005).

The New Library

It opened in 2002 in an attempt to revive and recapture the spirit of the ancient Alexandria library. Its main mission was to be an essential center in the production and dissemination of knowledge, besides being a place of dialogue, learning and understanding between cultures and people.

Being a great Egyptian library with international dimensions, it has actually shelf space for more than eight million books and a huge reading room occupying place on eleven levels. It also includes a conference center, libraries for children and for the blind, four art galleries, and a planetarium, a museum of sciences, an exhibition of manuscripts, an exhibition of illustration and historical maps, and the antiquities museum. Accordingly, the new library is considered a source of specialized knowledge that emphasizes the social sciences, arts, and humanities (Murray, 2009).

THE MUSEUM OF ANTIQUITIES AT THE BIBLIOTHECA ALEXANDRINA

The idea of establishing a museum of antiquities in the Bibliotheca Alexandrina was a result of the great historical value of the modern library's site.

During the excavations that took place at the site (1993-1995), traces of the ancient palace quarter were found. These included important mosaics, some of which representing unique subjects. Such findings shed the light on the necessity of housing a museum of antiquities within the cultural complex of the Bibliotheca Alexandrina. It is considered as one of the few museums, not only in Egypt but also in the whole world, in which artifacts are exhibited where they were excavated (Hawas, 2002).

In addition to these objects, others were collected from archaeological magazines all over Egypt. There are also underwater antiquities that were hauled up during recent explorations in the Mediterranean seabed near the eastern and western harbors of Alexandria.

In October 2002 the museum was officially inaugurated. It is housed in section B1 of the library complex and includes about 1079 objects which are displayed in a chronological order. The collections reflect the rich, multi-cultural history of Egypt with its Ancient Egyptian, Greco-Roman, Coptic and Islamic heritage, with special emphasis on Alexandria and the Hellenistic period. They consist of papyri, pottery, sculpture, portrait heads, etc.

It is worth mentioning that displaying the ancient artifacts within the modern structure provides the new library with the spirit of the past as a reminder of the glorious history of Alexandria. The great collections of the museum not only show the brilliance of the Egyptian artist, but also reflect the ancient Egyptian heritage particularly during the period when Alexandria reached its zenith (Hawas, 2002).

On the other hand, the mission of the Museum is not only to give its visitors a glimpse of the different eras of Egypt's history, but also to raise the cultural awareness of young people by presenting a variety of educational programs.

Comparison between museum education at Bibliotheca Alexandrina's Antiquities Museum and other museums: National Museum in Alexandria, Egyptian Museum in Cairo, Oriental Institute's Museum in Chicago

1. Museum Education at Bibliotheca Alexandrina's Antiquities Museum (Plate I)

The Antiquities Museum at BA offers its visitors to learn about Egyptian civilization and the masterpieces discovered at the site of the Bibliotheca Alexandrina, the treasures salvaged from the Mediterranean as well as other objects displayed at the Museum. In an effort to expand knowledge and awareness about the different periods of Egyptian history, the Antiquities Museum is organizing education programs and workshops for children and teenagers.

Participated children's age vary between 9 and 17. The education program usually takes place during the summer and mid-year school vacation. This program is available during the whole week except Fridays and Saturdays.

At the end of each yearly program a ceremony is made including an exhibition of the children handcrafts.

The museum's education program has started at Bibliotheca Alexandrina since 2003. At the beginning all children were accepted without any conditions. However, it was noticeable that some children lacked the talent and ability to respond positively during the various activities.

As a result, since 2005, children had to succeed in an advanced technical test in order to be accepted in the museum education program.

Children will, then, be divided into groups according to their ages. Each group is offered different attending days as follows:

15-17 years: 2days/week.

10-14 years: 2days/week.

9 years: one day/week.

The number of participants though still very limited (only 20), it has grown over the years (at the beginning the number of participants varied only 10-12). This might be due to the weak marketing efforts. For example, according to the educator, they have tried only once to announce about their education program at schools. In addition, the library's web site doesn't give enough and eye catching information about its education programs. There is no direct link to museum education programs on the BA's web site; one can only get connected to it when typing 'MUSEUM EDUCATION PROGRAM' at the search engine.

Interviewing participants and staff

- When participants were asked how they knew about this program, most of them were informed by a friend or through an advert they incidentally saw when visiting the library. None of them were informed through the BA's web site.
- Most of the participants stated that they participated at the BA's museum education program in order to increase their knowledge about Egyptian history and archeology and also to develop their art talent.
- They all explained how useful it was for them to participate in the various art workshops and history and archeological lectures at this program and that it met their expectations. They liked the team work atmosphere a lot.
- Each Participant convinced some of his friends or members of his family to participate in the BA's museum education program as well.

- Most of them kept participating in this program every year and even some of them joined the faculty of Fine Arts and still join the program but as assistants to the BA's staff. They succeeded in convincing some of their friends and relatives to join this program.
- However, some of them stated that they lacked the flexibility needed to choose the art work they wished to do and that they had to stick to a certain schedule. Some even turned to other museum's education program for this specific reason.

The objectives of BA's museum education program are as follows:

1-To give a general idea about the museum.

2-To increase archeological knowledge of participants.

3-To make participants capable of expressing their archeological knowledge through art by using various ways and materials.

Art workshops on museum education using different materials include the following:

1. Drawing using coal, pastel, acrylic, and wood
2. Drawing on papyrus, glass, and foam
3. Engraving on (Plaster and limestone.)
4. Sculpturing different kinds of clay.
5. Hammering (copper and aluminum).
6. Other materials could include leather and speed ball

The program also usually includes various lectures on archeology, for example:

1. How to make papyrus (theoretically and practically).
2. Alexander the Great and the establishment of Alexandria
3. Mosaics in the Hellenistic period.
4. Mosaic, Socrates and the Meaning of Philosophy.

5. Underwater Antiquities, Clothes and Ornaments in Ancient Egypt

6. Hercules.

When BA started its museum education programs it was totally free of charge including the cost and usage of various materials. However, due to limited financial budget (only 600L.E.-700L.E. per semester), participants are informed from the beginning that any shortage of materials, they will be asked to cover it financially.

Though the size of BA's antiquities museum is small, and the number of objects is limited, the museum has much potential to create advanced educational program; it belongs to one of the most important international libraries in the world.

The new trend is to design buildings which act as a complete cultural complex where learning and education have a prominent role. The Bibliotheca Alexandrina is a great example of such cultural complexes, and its antiquities museum must take advantage of being included in this international establishment which is provided with lecture halls, a conference center, a technological museum, a planetarium, and the library itself.

2. Museum Education at Alexandria National Museum

The Alexandria National Museum opened in 2003. Since then it has been giving much attention to museum education. They accept participants of children (starting from 7 years) and young people. Most of the children keep coming each year and even when they grow up and go to college, they still attend but as assistants to the museum staff responsible for museum education.

There is cooperation between the museum and some national organizations in the field of museum education; e.g. the department of education, the faculty of Kindergarten-Alexandria University. They often make visits to schools and offer some lectures with different topics; history, culture, the antiquities at the museum and their museum education program. They distribute flyers to promote their museum education programs at schools and faculties.

Similar to BA, the education program usually takes place during the summer and mid-year school vacation. This program is available during the whole week except FRIDAYS ONLY. At the end of each yearly program a celebration is made, where participants are offered a certificate and the children's handcrafts are exhibited.

Children are divided into two groups according to their age; the first group for children above 10 years of age and the second is for those under 10. Each group is offered two different program days and there is always one day for lectures and another for watching films; whether cartoons or educational ones.

Unlike BA, Alexandria national museum doesn't make a technical test before accepting participants. Participants with limited art talent are offered extra help and activities suitable to their capabilities. For example, during leather workshops, participants with high art talent can make their own design on leather while those with limited art talent can use a stencil.

The art workshops and materials used at both museums are very similar. Although their budget is also limited, children can participate in these art workshops without paying any fees. Even when there is a shortage of materials, the museum's staff buys needed ones on their own expenses.

Children can also participate in acting in theater plays, where they can rehearse after finishing their art workshops.

There are also visits from children with special needs who participate in some of the workshops or attend lectures or film shows.

The number of participants has been in constant increase over the years and reached almost 40-50 persons.

The website of Alexandria National Museum is under construction and till now includes only a front page with the title, logo, a running of some antiquities and the word of the minister of culture at the opening of this museum.

3. Museum Education at the Egyptian Museum in Cairo

The Egyptian Museum in Cairo is a good example of Egyptian museums which organize developed educational programs such as the Luxor Museum, Port Said Museum, Nubia Museum and the Greco-Roman Museum in Alexandria.

As for the Egyptian Museum in Cairo, it began to implement programs for children in July 2002. Two special halls were designed for this purpose with lower display windows and simple labels. Some replicas were made specifically for children with special needs. In the graduation ceremony (September 2003), the children acted the play of Isis and Osiris. The museum also started a school for teaching adults in the academic year 2002/2003 (Baligh, 2005).

On the other hand, the Egyptian Museum made a great step in 2009 with the opening of the Children's Museum of the Egyptian Museum of Cairo (CMEMC). According to the EGYPTIAN MUSEUM NEWSLETTER (2009), educational programs of this children's museum use LEGO models alongside antiquities. It organizes workshops about topics from Ancient Egypt such as religion, daily-life and pyramid-building.

Not only is the children's museum equipped to receive youth with special needs, it also includes a library where children can read books covering topics of Ancient Egypt.

Moreover, the Egyptian Museum in Cairo began the "Mobile Museum" scheme which prepares replicas of objects to be taken to schools and children who are unable to come to the Museum.

4. Museum education at the Oriental Institute Museum in Chicago

The Oriental Institute is a research organization and museum devoted to the study of the ancient Near East. It was founded in 1919 by James Henry Breasted as a part of the University of Chicago. It is an internationally recognized pioneer in the archaeology, philology, and history of early Near Eastern civilizations.

The Oriental Institute Museum displays objects recovered by the Institute's excavations in the Middle East. Permanent galleries are devoted to ancient Egypt, Nubia, Persia, Mesopotamia, Syria, Anatolia, and the ancient site of Megiddo, besides some rotating exhibits. The museum's collections serve the public in exhibits and online, as well as being an extremely rich resource for scholars (http://oi.uchicago.edu).

A wealth of exciting programs for all ages is offered, they include courses and symposia for adults, special events and an online Kid's Corner for families, guided tours for schools and community groups, and an online Teacher Resource Center for educators (http://oi.uchicago.edu/museum/education).

The Institute presents a wide variety of educational experiences for adults, including classes, symposia, and distance learning courses by correspondence and online. Other educational opportunities are also available such as field trips and on-campus courses.

Hands-on workshops and free festivals for children and their families are also organized. Comprehensive programs of museum learning are specifically created to attract families who generally do not visit museums.

Throughout the year, a free Sunday afternoon film series presents the best in documentary and feature films on the ancient Near East, with docents available to answer questions in the galleries after the shows. For these family projects a coordinator is assigned to make a research which consists of polling the families to get valuable information that would enable the museum to shape the next projects. The coordinator needs to investigate how the museum visits affect the families' lives, and to determine the activities they enjoyed in the museum and those they suggest to find in future projects (Krucoff, 2002/2003).

Online resources and materials on the ancient Near East are available for middle and high school educators through the link Teacher Resource Center (TRC). Classrooms and museum lesson plans are available for teachers to print them; they give teachers guidelines about the needed plan, its objectives and used materials, the procedures suggested in teaching, and the evaluation system.

Furthermore, the Kids' Corner is another interesting link on the museum's site which includes some online activities that allow a sort of interaction between the kids and the topics presented.

Since museum education aims at expanding the audience of visitors from the University community, the education staff at the museum makes a great effort to attract them through flyers and events featuring food and fun. Those who attend the museum's programs are offered a one-year complimentary membership to the Oriental Institute. They also add their names to the e-mail list to be informed on upcoming events.

SWOT Analysis of BA's museum educational programs.

Any museum wishing to adopt a successful education policy needs to know the base line it is working from and the opportunities available to it. As a result this SWOT analysis was made in order to provide guidelines and recommendations for BA's museum education programs.

Table 1: SWOT Analysis

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
-raises art talent and knowledge of participants (to the extent that some join the faculty of fine arts). -continuity of participation (art students participate as assistants to educators). -replicas of antiquities museum's masterpieces allow blind to touch them to know how they actually look like (also children with special needs). - Participants convince others with educational programs - Antiquities museum is a part of a cultural	-only available during summer and mid-year school vacations. -pre-technical test exclude some interested categories from participating. -weak marketing efforts, e.g.: no site visits to schools and colleges, no direct links and sufficient information on BA's web site. -children are obliged to certain activities and schedules, i.e., education programs lack flexibility. -limited financial resources.

complex at BA. - Lower display windows and simple labels suitable for children. -location of museum in front of faculty of tourism with its guidance department.	-limited space offered for participant's activities and exhibitions (only 2 corners). - Participants are only from children and young people.
OPPORTUNITIES -potentials for increased role of education programs -blind people and children with special needs can become targeted participants (community service). -more people become interested in BA in general, its antiquities museum and educational programs. -involving students of guiding department in education programs to increase professional skills.	**THREATS** -lack of flexibility, limited space and resources could encourage participants to switch to other museums -negatively affecting mission of educational programs. -pre-test excludes a valuable category of participants.

CONCLUSION

Museums play an important role in educating people of all ages and all categories. Museum education programs enable them to fulfill their educational mission and to produce work of the best quality. As a result, it will broaden access to collections and will enhance the understanding, use, and enjoyment of museum collections catering for the needs of existing and potential visitors. Through developing successful museum education programs and marketing strategies, the number of participants will increase leading to the enlargement of the total number of visitors. Cultural tourism and museums share a common mission: to encourage personal enrichment through intercultural understanding. Consequently, all above mentioned can be used as an effective promotional tool for cultural tourism.

PLATE I

Figure 1: One of the galleries of the BA Antiquities Museum

Figure 2: Fragment of a tomb wall. Acrylic colors on canvas

Figure3: Mosaic depicting two wrestlers

Figure4: Funerary Stela made by one of the participants- Salt engraving

Figure 5, 6: Two corners displaying children's products located beside museum entrance

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. BA antiquities museum should increase its marketing effort concerning museum education programs, mainly through redesigning the web site of BA in a user-friendly way where all information will then be more accessible.
2. Flyers and brochures are also considered as an effective marketing tool for school and university students and should also be placed in tourist information centers and tourism-related business.
3. “Mobile Museum” or a “one year complimentary membership” to BA can be considered as effective marketing tool.
4. BA’s museum education program should aim to make replicas of all the master pieces of the antiquities museum and offer a bigger space to display them (not just the current 2 small corners shown on figure 5, 6). Blind people will then be able to touch them and know how they look in reality. The BA could organize regular visits to blinds as well. Also it is possible to translate the labels in Braille.
5. Sending e-newsletters to inform about upcoming programs, classes and other events offered at the museum.
6. The antiquities museum must be aware of the make-up and size of its audience and to develop the services presented in order to attract new target groups.
7. To establish strong ties with schools, cultural organizations, the media, and NGO’s.
8. To concentrate on all ages and different categories of the Egyptian society. Special programs should be made for seniors as well as family programs.
9. Kids corner online can be a solution to run education programs during the whole year (not just summer and mid-year school vacations)
10. To organize special trips to sites related to the museum’s collections. In this respect, the collection of underwater antiquities in the Bibliotheca Alexandria Antiquities museum can play an important role. Trips to the site where these objects were hauled up can be accompanied by specialists who can provide information about the site and to tie it to the museum’s collections.
11. To show historical movies on large screens (in the conference center).

12. To run training courses and teaching programs for the educational staff in the museum.
13. To carry out visitors' research and evaluation that enables the museum to follow a clear educational policy.
14. To get the audience's opinions and suggestions about future programs.
15. "I hear and forget, I see and remember, I take action and understand" (Baligh, 2005). This is the concept that was adopted by the Children's Museum in Heliopolis, near Cairo, since 1996. It is suggested that the BA antiquities museum might implement this concept according to which the senses of touch, smell, hearing and seeing are used as educational methods.
16. BA's museum education programs should consider students of the guiding department at the faculty of tourism, which is located just in front of BA, one of its main targeted participants in order to raise their guiding and professional skills.

REFERENCES

-Ambrose T. (1993) MANAGING NEW MUSEUMS: A GUIDE TO GOOD PRACTICE, Edinburgh: Scottish Museum Council.

-Baligh R. (2005) Museum Education in Egypt and the World, BULLETIN OF THE EGYPTIAN MUSEUM 2005 (2), 23-28.

-Egyptian Museum Newsletter (2009), September-December2009-Issue 6, Cairo: The Supreme Council of Antiquities.

-Hawas Z. (2002) BIBLIOTHECA ALEXANDRINA: THE ARCHAEOLOGY MUSEUM, Cairo: American University in Cairo Press.

-Krucoff C. (2002/2003) MUSEUM EDUCATION PROGRAM, The Oriental Institute 2002-2003 annual Report [Electronic], Available: (http://oi.uchicago.edu/museum/edu/OI/AR/02-03_AR_TOC.html).

-Lam A. (2004) A Comparative Study of the Educational Role of Public Art Museums in Three Asian Cities: Taipei, Singapore, and Shanghai,EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL 32.

-Lord G. (1999) THE POWER OF CULTURAL TOURISM, Wisconsin Heritage Tourism Conference, 17th Sep 1999, Wisconsin.

-Lulat Y. (2005) A HISTORY OF AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION FROM ANTIQUITY TO THE PRESENT: A CRITICAL SYNTHESIS, Westport: Praeger Publishers.

-Moffat H. & Wollard V. (2004) MUSEUM AND GALLERY EDUCATION: A MANUAL OF GOOD PRACTICE, Plymouth: Altamira Press.

-Mottner S. & Ford B. (2005) Measuring Nonprofit Marketing Strategy Performance: the Case of Museum Stores, JOURNAL OF BUSINESS RESEARCH58, 829-840.

-Murray S. (2009) THE LIBRARY: AN ILLUSTRATED HISTORY, New York: Skyhorse Publishing.

-Prideaux B. & Kininmon L. (1999) Tourism and Heritage Are Not Strangers: A Study of Opportunities for Rural Heritage Museums to Maximize Tourist Visitation, JOURNAL OF TRAVEL RESEARCH 37,299-203.

-Talboys G. (2005) MUSEUM EDUCATOR'S HANDBOOK, Hampshire: Ashgate Publishing Limited.

OLYMPIC LESSONS FOR THE GREEK TOURISM INDUSTRY

Christina Bonarou

PhD researcher at the Panteion University of Social and Political Sciences in Athens, Greece

Athanasios Dermetzopoulos

PhD researcher at the University of the Aegean, Greece

Collaborator assistant at the Alexandreion Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki

Abstract: Sport and tourism are two sectors with much in common; their activities are growing increasingly closer and nowadays they have become strongly dependent on one another. Close cooperation between them, especially when it comes to mega-events such as the Olympic Games, can have extremely positive impacts for the hosting country. The aim of the present paper is to examine how the Olympic Games of Athens 2004 gave important lessons to the Greek tourism industry, so as to consolidate the organizing country as a tourism destination depending mostly on post-Games management of both brand image and tourism potential.

Keywords: sports tourism, mega-events, Athens 2004 Olympic Games, Greek tourism industry.

INTRODUCTION: SPORT TOURISM AND MEGA-EVENTS

Tourism and sport are two activities that have become integrated elements of modern western culture and parts of present-day lifestyles in almost every developed country. They both constitute complex networks of activities with complicated value chains and many different role players. Tourism is the number one industry of our time, as its contribution to the global Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2003, based upon calculations that include the direct and indirect effects of tourism expenditure, is estimated to be US$ 4.217,7 billion or 10.4% of total GDP (WTTC 2004). As the Deputy Secretary-General of World Tourism Organization (WTO) in 2004 Dawid de Villiers has pointed out: *"Tourism is the leading export industry (larger than petrochemicals, or automotives); it is one of the biggest employers in the world, employing more young people and women than any other industry; it consists of more small and micro businesses than any other sector; it is a leading service-sector economic driver, and so on"*. International tourism developed quickly and became a characteristic of the 20th century. Its growth has been spectacular and its future looks incredibly positive (Villiers 2004): international arrivals have grown, in real terms, from a mere 25 million in 1950 to over 700 million in 2000, representing an annual growth rate of 6.9% per annum over 50 years. Domestic travel represents a movement of people several times greater (Ignatis 2004). Notwithstanding the fact that the past few years –2001 to 2003– have been the most difficult years ever for the industry, the future looks very bright. Tourism has bounced back with renewed strength and international arrivals are expected to double over the next decade – although not with the same rate for all destinations.

On the other hand, sports are without doubt the number one industry after tourism within the leisure sector. The impact of the professional practice of sports has become a worldwide phenomenon and athletes from various sports become global heroes and role models for dress, behaviour and attitudes. Moreover, amateur and leisure sport are becoming increasingly important in a society full of stress where individuals search for alternative ways to relax and develop their personality (Ignatis 2004). Sport activity has gained popularity throughout many European countries, particularly since the '60s, whilst statistics indicate that, nowadays, more than 50% of the population participates actively in some form of sport (Tiphonnet 2003): women, apparently seem to be more involved than ever before, youth participation starts much earlier, while seniors continue an active life much longer. Moreover, the appearance of new activities, games and sports bring about personal satisfaction, achievement awareness, wellness and social benefits.

Although travel with the purpose to participate in a sport oriented activity is not new –people in ancient Greece travelled to participate or just to watch the Olympic Games and other athletic events– "sport tourism" is considered to be a modern phenomenon, as the term was first mentioned in the late '60s or early '70s to describe the special form of tourism which was combined with sport activities (Sport Tourism International Council - Research Unit of Greece). Sport tourism has been defined in a number of ways. Cave (2003) has defined it as comprising one of the following: (a) involvement in a major event often referred to as a mega-event either as a competitor or as a member of a “supporting family” such as the governing bodies, officials or the media; (b) participation as members of a college or club sports team who wish to play opposition in a foreign country; (c) attendance at a sporting event, large or small scale, as a spectator (these activities can have a significant impact on both domestic and international tourism, although spectator participation at small-scale events is predominantly a domestic activity); (d) a tourist activity, which includes an element of sports activity to a greater or lesser extent. This category might include activities such as water sports, golf or flotilla cruising etc. As it is obvious, there is a “grey area” between what might be considered as sport tourism and what is more akin to an activity based holiday pursuing a favourite pastime. According to Villiers (2004), in tourism a distinction can be drawn between spectator sport and leisure sport. In addition, the concept “tourism sport” refers to a tourism activity with sport as the attraction, while “sport tourism” refers to sport as the activity and tourism as the result. For the purpose of the present paper we shall follow Gibson (2003), who defines sport tourism as *“leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities”*.

Between sport and tourism there are many parallels and similarities and both can benefit from closer cooperation (Villiers 2004): First of all, the two sectors are subjected to changing trends –often caused by the use of new technologies or changes in consumer behaviour. They are also both affected often by political developments and neither can survive in climates of instability and conflict or where security issues prevail. Moreover, both activities have major economic impacts, with tourism contributing substantially to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of both developed and developing countries. As Tiphonnet notices (2003:103), *“the holiday ‘setups’ and ‘package offerings’ assist the tourism industry in promoting traditional sport activity with creative novelty and adventurous activity to meet the inherent demands. In this context, the resort sector does qualify as an interested partner in sport tourism development”*. As such, skiing, water sports, golf, diving, tennis and other sports facilities are commonly found in a variety of resorts that offer varied experiences ranging from beginner status to advanced levels.

Major international sporting events such as the Olympic Games, Football World Cups, or even Wimbledon Tournament, the Tour de France, and so on, are known as “mega sport events” that attract a great number of spectators and make people travel from afar to share in these experiences, creating huge tourism flows. According to Roche (1994:7), *“mega-events are short-term events with long-term* *consequences"* – economical, socio-cultural and environmental. The benefits of staging such mega-events for host destinations, in the long term, are thought to be important infrastructures, repeat visitation of spectators, and increased investment and tourism, as a result of the related media exposure that has effects on destination image. Hall (1989) has suggested that mega-events can change the way host destinations are perceived and that they provide the new "middle class tourist" with the impetus to visit hosting countries in the future. Consequently, it is after the end of the special event, that some of the expenditure associated with the staging of it can be recouped, through new income from tourism, particularly during non-peak periods (Chalip, Green and Hill, 2003).

The Olympic Games are certainly the most important sports event in the world and the International Olympic Committee (IOC) has always sought to position them as more than just a sporting event. The Olympics are promoted as a means to enhance international solidarity and cooperation, advance education and culture and instil higher values both in competitors and spectators; the IOC calls this concept "Olympism" (Muller, 2000). Hall (1992:37) states that there are several reasons that cities vie to host the Olympic Games: a sporting legacy, global recognition, funding for capital projects, and economic stimulus *"that comes from the preparation for the event, the event itself, and the tourism opportunities which follow the event"*. French and Disher (1997) include, as well, significant urban development as a motive for promoters to host the Games. It becomes obvious, that the Olympics are somewhat unique, also, because they constitute the most expensive event to stage, requiring major investments. As Cave (2003:3) underlines, *"the involvement of public sector bodies responsible for sport and tourism is also essential to any successful bid as the marketing of the destination needs to be seen as part of the overall bid strategy and a bid needs to be part of an integrated overall destination development strategy which may not be wholly dependant on the bid being successful"*. Furthermore, government involvement is essential where capital-intensive facilities and guarantees are required.

The symbiotic relationship between sport events and tourism that has already been mentioned, was the motivation for the WTO and the IOC to sign a Cooperation Agreement, the aim of which is to promote a better understanding of the two activities and to strengthen the cooperation and links between them. The first *World Conference on Sport and Tourism* was organised by the two organisations in Barcelona at the beginning of 2001, while several regional conferences in different cities of the world followed in the subsequent years. As Villiers (2004) noticed, the achievement of the World Conference on Sport and Tourism was its ability to make it clear that these two separate worlds have a great deal in common and that closer cooperation can develop more synergies that would benefit both sectors as well as host countries and communities.

ATHENS 2004 OLYMPIC GAMES: THE GREAT CHALLENGE

The holding of an Olympics in Athens has been a controversial issue, although in some respects, no city on Earth could have a stronger claim to the Games, given the fact that Greece is literally their homeland: the original sport event was first held in ancient Greece, in the central Peloponnesian city of Olympia as far back as 776 B.C, while the first modern Olympic Games were held in Athens in 1896. For the Games to be finally held again in Athens, the Greek government has been behind two bids. The first was for a centennial holding of the Games in 1996. That bid failed because it had little to support it other than the "historical right" argument. As Washington Post reported (2001), "*Greece was a weak member of the European Union and the Athens infrastructure was woefully inadequate for the Games. The bid for 2004 was won in a much more promising situation, with Greece on track to join the European Monetary Union and Euro zone, with major infrastructure works under way, in particular expansion of the Athens Metro and the construction of the new Athens International Airport and connecting roads"*. Modern Greece, with a population of 11 million, would be the smallest country to host the Olympics since Finland in 1952 and putting on the Games would be a great challenge, as this mega-event has already become a vast enterprise that requires a modern infrastructure and major human and financial resources. Greece hoped to make the 2004 Games special by connecting them with the original games. By including an expanded cultural program, organizers wanted to communicate to the world the Olympic spirit, which essentially sees sports as a way to promote constructive human interaction and attenuate conflicts. But more than that, it was hoped that the Games would improve the life of Greeks in general, boost the economy, improve the infrastructure and raise country's image in the world.

Athens constitutes one of the largest metropolitan centres in the Mediterranean and it is the largest city in the Balkan Peninsula. However, the *"unforgettable, dream games"* as the IOC President Jacques Roggue characterized the Athens Olympics in his speech in the Closing Ceremony, could have turned into a "nightmare". In particular, the fact that five months before the opening ceremony of the Olympics in Athens, at least half of the city's projects for the games were still unfinished –according to some members of the Greek parliament and the media – has been a deeply embarrassing situation for a country proud of its classical legacy. But, in the end, against all the odds, *“the triumphant applause from the vast majority of the international mass media (...) and the praise from those who before the games never lost the opportunity to exercise peevish criticism has been the best evidence of Athens's success in organising the 2004 Olympics”* (Ta Nea, 2004). Despite the cost, despite the anguish and technical difficulties in materialization, despite the temporary upset in every day life and transportations, the “victory” of the Olympic works has been confirmed. As for the final cost, the price tag, inflated by chronic delays, massive security and cost overruns went way over budget, causing the bill for the Games to reach an estimated total of $13 billion[1] (International Herald Tribune 2005).

The Olympic Preparation project comprised the construction of 57 basic Olympic Works (Seimanidi – Velliou 2004): 24 of them concerned sports venues, 14 were road construction works, 3 were transport works, 2 were communication works, 8 were building works and 5 were energy works. The works and sports facilities created for the Games do not simply fulfil the required specifications but they are admittedly the best ones at international level. Apart from that, hundreds of small scale necessary works were built for the Olympic Games. The total basic Olympic works were supplemented by important works of infrastructure that were not directly related to the Olympic Games, but enhanced national social overhead capital. In fact, Athens experienced a real re-building, just like Barcelona did back in 1992, when a new city was built in order to cope with the requirements of the Olympic Games. Greece has acknowledged the temporary nature of most of the economic effects of the Olympic Games. However, the investment in facilities and the infrastructure constructed to meet the needs of such an important event offer great opportunities and include other social and economic benefits for the country. As Costa and Glinia (2004:284) point out, there exist short term and long term returns from the Games in Athens and four other Olympic cities: Thessalonica, Patras, Heraklion and Volos:

(a) Short term: visitors from outside the city, investments, economic impact for business, employment benefits.

(b) Long term: returns from investment in physical capital (including hospitality and gastronomy sectors), returns from investment in human capital (upskilling),

[1] Security alone cost Athens $1.4 billion, as the games were the first held in the summer after the September 11th, 2001, attacks and came just five months after terrorist train bombings in Madrid that killed 191 people.

continuous visitation by tourists, productivity improvements, international direct investments, business development from infrastructure and related services

More specifically, the impacts on tourism from organizing a mega-event such as the Olympics have been for Greece –and not only for Athens– the followings (Kartakoullis et.al 2003):

a. The attraction of high-income tourists and the creation of a new generation of tourists willing to repeat their visit to the host country.

b. The creation of a favourable tourist image for the destination country.

c. The creation and modernization of the tourism infrastructure.

d. The unique opportunity of the host country to profit from the presence of the international media and send out various messages to the rest of the world.

e. The creation of a skilled work force in the organization, management and funding sectors, with a special emphasis on hosting special sport and tourist attractive events.

The first bet –that of the successful Olympics– has already been won in the best possible way[2]. What still remains is a second, equally important wager, which

---

[2] A report by the World Wildlife Fund (WWF) has criticized the Olympic Games in Athens for falling short of environmental commitments, scoring it an overall 0.77 on a scale of 0-4. This ecological NGO evaluated the environmental wins and losses of the Athens Olympics based on the Sydney 2000 Olympics benchmark for "clean and green" games. They gave Athens high marks for improving the mass-transport network and removing large advertising signs but said that in most other areas it had fallen far short of Olympic ideals. The WWF said authorities have failed to incorporate green energy, water-saving programs, and recycling into their plans and that natural areas, including the mountains of Parnitha, Hymettus, and Penteli, are now "trapped" within Olympic constructions and road networks. The IOC, however, has insisted that respect for the environment was a priority. "We have worked closely with the Athens Organizing Committee to ensure environmental protection measures were considered right from the start," said IOC spokeswoman Giselle Davies. She also stated: "We note that just today, the Greek Environment and Public Works Ministry placed orders worth euro5.7 million with the municipality of Athens for implementing projects that include environmental measures such as tree planting,". Among the good things to emerge from the games was the improvement of public transport within Athens, WWF said. "The speeding up of major transport infrastructure works, such as the metro, the introduction of a fleet of gas-powered buses, the urban rail, and the tram make a positive contribution to the public transport services" (G-Force/Global Forum for Sports and Environment, WWF 2004).

is making use of the legacy of the Olympics and of all these achievements for the future. The aim of the present paper is, based on secondary data, to sum up the most important "Olympic lessons" for the Greek tourism industry so as to consolidate the country as a future tourism destination based on the legacy of the Games. Furthermore, Greece's experience could prove to be useful to other countries that will organize the Olympics in the future. The secondary data were derived from a number of sources including statistical bulletins, governmental publications, library records, newspaper articles, on-line data, and data from previous research case studies.

FACTS AND STATISTICS ON GREEK TOURISM INDUSTRY

When we talk of tourism in Greece today, what we really mean is 13-14 million foreign tourist-consumers (compared to 10-11 million domestic consumers), who spend their money on transport (air tickets, ferries, road-based transport etc.), accommodation (hotels, guest houses, rented rooms, camp sites), catering (restaurants, the food industry and small catering businesses, etc.), leisure (entertainment, cafes, clubs, etc.) and visits to various attractions (museums, parks, etc.) (Kondokolias 2004:79). Tourism constitutes a significant economic activity which occupies a dominant position in the Greek economy and is undoubtedly the sector which reaped the most benefit from the Athens 2004 Olympic Games. Modern Greece "traditionally" attracted before the Games more than 12 million foreign visitors each year (which means more than one tourist per inhabitant) and it ranks among the top 15 tourism destinations in the world. Seasonality was –and remains– the main characteristic of the Greek tourism product that has relied on the traditional triptych of sea, sun, and antiquity for decades (Ignatis 2004). In more detail, since the 1960's, Greece has been a popular sun, sand and sea destination combining a stunning landscape, temperate climate, the longest coastline in the Mediterranean, clean waters, tradition in hospitality and a cultural history of 3.000 years mirrored in numerous archaeological sites, monuments and museums. After three decades of rapid growth in tourism, Greece has maintained and increased its numbers in attendance, but the quality of tourism and the money spent per tourist is not as expected. This is apparently related i) to the economic policy of the tour operators, ii) to the competition of neighbouring tourism destinations and iii) to other more complex reasons (Costa and Glinia, 2004:283). At the moment, the Greek tourism product seems to be going through the maturity phase of its life cycle, meaning that it is quite vulnerable to the competition caused by other Mediterranean tourism markets. The fact that the increase in Greek tourism income does not correspond to the increase of international arrivals in Greece confirms the negative situation the Greek tourism market is experiencing, mainly because of the competition with the neighbouring countries' tourism markets (Ignatis 2004:65).

After the successful organization of the 2004 Olympic Games it is anticipated that Greece will figure on the agenda for many more millions of tourists in the next 10 years and that it will be ranked even higher on the list along with the most renowned and attractive destinations. As the Ministry of Tourism stated, the most essential point is that the Olympics acted as the catalyst for a deeper and more realistic analysis of the Greek tourism product and brought about the redevelopment of the Greek tourism policy. An effective tourism strategy must combine competitiveness, viability and strong business management. The Greek Government, having recognized this fact, developed the cornerstone of its strategy on three pillars: "growth – culture – environment" [3] and the results are starting to appear.

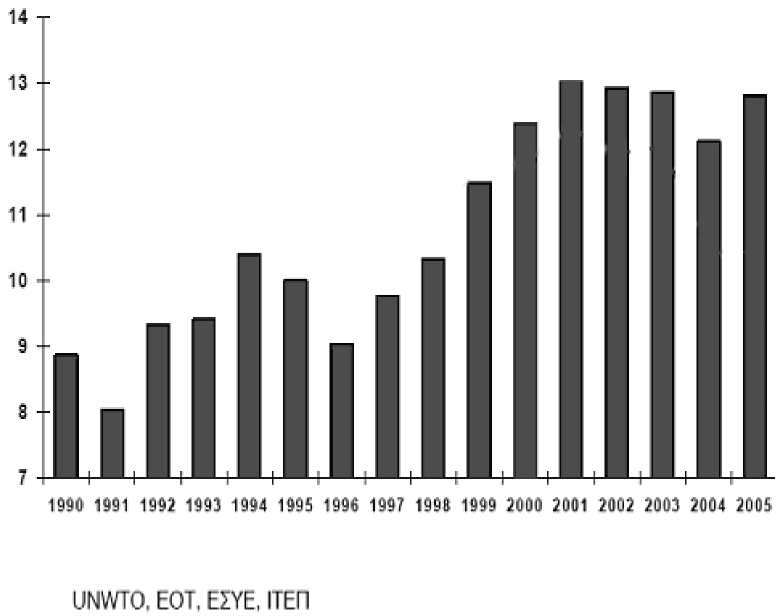
In 2004, when the Olympic Games of Athens took place (the Games where held in Athens, Thessaloniki, Patras, Volos and Iraklio) the number of tourist arrivals was 13.4 millions, whereas just a year before – 2003 – has reached 14 millions (one million concerns arrivals from Albania) (Diagrams 1, 2). Though, it should be mentioned that in the same year, the number of workforce directly or indirectly related to the tourism sector were almost 660.000 and represented 16.5% of the country's total employment. According to surveys committed by the Greek Ministry of Tourism Development the reasons for this phenomenon could be summarized as follows (Zopounidis and Gaganis, 2005): increased prices during the Olympic Games, negative publicity regarding safety, preparation and speculation matters, as well as the negative attractiveness that hosting the Games in Greece caused to countries such as France. Other reasons that caused arrivals in Greece to reduce were: promotion of new destinations (e.g. Bulgaria and Croatia), promotion of attractive tourism packages in competitive countries such as Turkey, the low financial rates and the high unemployment rates in traditional tourism outgoing countries such as Germany (phenomena that reduced the available tourists' income), as well as the growing European demand for cheaper destinations outside the Euro-zone. It should also be mentioned that euro's marking up caused the total tourism product to become more expensive. However

[3] Growth will be based on new incentives for investment, simplification of the regulatory measures involved (i.e. simplification of procedures and the provision of tax incentives) and measures to make it easier to carry out large-scale investment packages and the development of new markets.

this fact did not affect competitive countries to record satisfying arrivals, whereas Greece despite the Olympic Games managed only to decrease in arrivals. The following year, 2005, tourism arrivals increased in Greece, probably in favour of the valuable heritage the Olympic Games left to the country concerning public works and hotel infrastructure (Table 1), promotion and upgrade of the services provided and finally, because of the “aggressive” promotion policy of Greek tourism abroad.

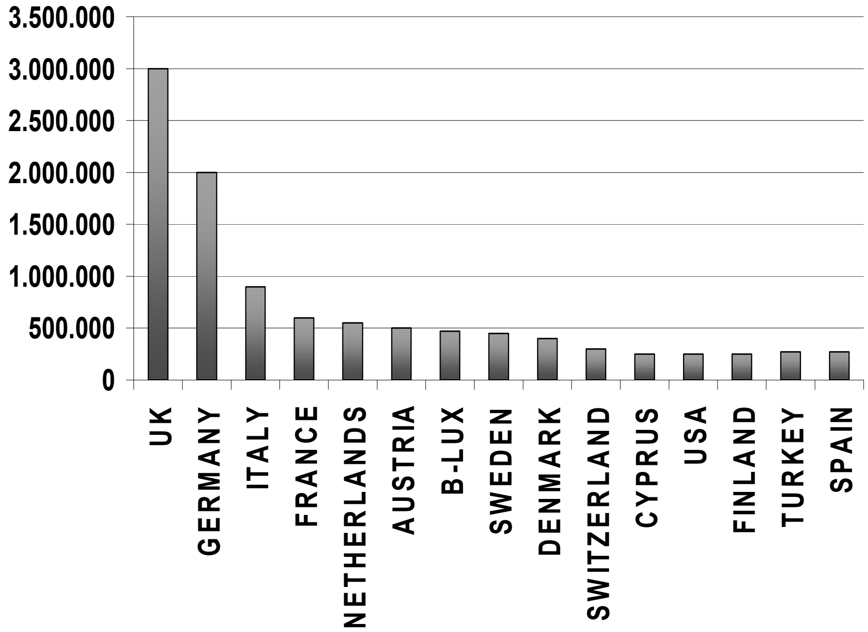
Diagram 1: Number of arrivals in Greece, 1990-2005 (in millions)

(Arrivals from Albania and cruises are excluded)



Source: Adaption from Sampaniotis (2006:8)

Diagram 2: Visitors in Greece by country of origin (2003)



National Statistical Service of Greece

Source: Hellenic Center for Investment (ELKE).

In 2005, according to the Bank of Greece, revenues from tourism amounted to €11bn (6.1% of the GDP), presenting an increase of 6.7% as compared to 2004, while arrivals also increased by 6.8% (Hellenic Republic, Ministry of Economy and Finance, 2007). By capitalizing on the Olympic Games success and the repositioning of the country in the world map, Greece is currently running an international advertising campaign that aims to give a significant boost to the tourism industry with central slogan “Explore your senses in Greece” (Greek Ministry of Tourism Development - Greek National Tourism Organisation/ GNTO[4]).

[4] The Greek National Tourism Organisation supervises and promotes the Greek tourism product. GNTO is a public entity supervised by the Ministry of Tourism. Since 1950, GNTO has been responsible for the tourism sector. GNTO has its headquarters in Athens and operates offices across the country as well.

Highlights from a recent study indicate the followings (THR, International Tourism Consultants, Spain 2005, cited in Hellenic Center for Investment):

- Approximately 95% of visitors to Greece are satisfied.
- The majority of tourists to Greece had not considered other destinations in their decision.
- The friendliness and hospitality of the Greek people are the elements which tourists value most.

Table 1: Number of hotels and beds in Greece, 2005

Classification	Hotels	Beds
AA	155	56.888
AA	944	173.431
B	1.712	159.351
C	4.496	233.315
Other	1.729	59.065
Total	**9.036**	**682.05**

Source: Hellenic Chamber of Hotels

Furthermore, according to another survey[5], Athens and Attica are considered safe destinations for holidays, while the culture and friendly behaviour of Athenians are

[5] These were the findings of a research carried out on behalf of the Municipality of Athens and the Attica Region as part of the Regional Operational Program. The study was carried out in Attica (El. Venizelos

considered as very positive factors within our tourist product. The cost to quality of service ratio, the taxis and environmental issues (traffic congestion, pollution, and a deteriorating natural environment) are negative aspects of the city which mar the overall image visitors take away with them. The reasons for visiting were: history and culture (78.5%), sun/sea/beaches (39.9%), peace and relaxation (35%), fun (16.3%), visiting friends (4.5%), good prices (3.2%), good food (1.8%). 61.1% gave holidays/tourism as the purpose of their visit, 28.9% said it was for business purposes, 15.9% came to visit friends/relations, 5.3% for conferences, 1.1% for educational purposes and 0.9% for trade fairs. Total levels of satisfaction reached 90.6% (very satisfied 37.8%, quite satisfied 52.8%). 51.2% of respondents who had visited Athens in the past declared themselves to have been more satisfied or much more satisfied than they had been by their previous experience (much more satisfied 16.5%, more satisfied 34.7%, the same degree of satisfaction as the last time 38.6%). Accommodation services were given a high satisfaction rating, although there were some concerns about the price-quality ratio. The same was true for the catering services too, for which, while overall satisfaction was generally at a good level, it appears that costs were high and a major cause of negative feedback. Tourists were found to have been satisfied with public transport, although visitors were not so satisfied with the taxi services. 79.3% of the respondents stated that they were certain or likely to visit Attica again in the future. 88.9% said they would be willing to recommend the destination to others (Kondokolias 2006).

Besides the improvement of services and other policies, one of the ambitious plans Greek tourism authorities have initiated for the period 2000-2010, is the development of certain types of alternative tourism. This competitive policy has given priority to sport tourism, as 2004 Olympic Games incited interest for investments and other sport businesses. According to Costa and Glinia (2004: 284-286), the sport tourism market in Greece comprises four distinct areas of business: a) Olympic Games and other sport events b) resort hotels and “All Inclusive” clubs c) outdoor activities agencies and d) sport tourism marketing programs. Sport tourism in Greece is very much related to ecotourism and health tourism niches, but entrepreneurship in this area is only at the beginning and comprises multipart co-operations and initiatives. Meanwhile, the Greek government is trying to exploit

---

Airport) by Leo Burnett Athens and the research company Metron Analysis with a sample of 2000 foreign tourists who visited Athens and the Attica region (13-27/10/2005). The survey focussed on the level of satisfaction tourists derived from their accommodation, entertainment, the prices for services they had used and, more generally, their opinion for the tourist product in Attica.

the legacy of the modern stadiums and other installations, which will remain under state ownership, hoping to recover some of the money spent, by hosting major conferences and other sporting events –we should not forget that the Olympic Stadium has been awarded the Champions League final in 2007.

OLYMPIC LESSONS FOR THE GREEK TOURISM INDUSTRY

The most significant economic impact the Games have is usually the impact on the national and international tourism of the host city and country. The event of the Olympics has offered Greece a unique opportunity to showcase the country as a modern tourist destination, combining its traditional strengths as an open museum of ancient Greece and a wonderfully sunny land with world-class facilities (Ignatis 2004:1). Looking back in the recent history of the Games, one could isolate several cases of host cities the main interest of which was to seize the opportunity of hosting the Games in order to stimulate the growth of tourism[6]. Of course, the promotion of a host city and country through the Games is a complex and difficult task that requires a very well coordinated strategic marketing plan, which, if done properly, it can induce the arrival of thousands of international travellers. Hosting the Olympic Games brings long-term effects to the respective economy's International Tourism Market, that begin once a country has won the right to host the Games and last several years after the Games have occurred. In the case of Athens, this period covers the years from 1998 to 2011 (Kartakoulis et. Al 2003). This part of the present paper study critically examines what the Greek tourism industry has learnt from the organization of the Olympic Games and how it can take advantage of it.

---

[6] Cave (2003) reports that the Barcelona Olympic Games generated spending of more than £ 15 billion and prompted a 15 year regeneration of the city with the benefits of a new marina area and an improved cruise terminal to be very important. The emphasis on urban regeneration has resulted in Barcelona becoming a leading short break destination for European holidaymakers in recent years, and its accessibility through the growth of low-cost airlines has added to the tourist numbers. In Atlanta, urban regeneration and infrastructure improvement, which was wholly privately funded, formed a major part of the bid strategy. This ultimately provided large dividends in terms of the growth of business in the city. In terms of sporting success the event was less successful with venues spread over a large area, although the major sporting legacy was the main stadium, which has now been transformed for professional baseball. On the other hand, Sydney, and Australia in general, set a good example of a host city-country that successfully leveraged the Games for tourism and managed to position its tourist product, both leisure and business, among the top in the world (Ignatis 2004:2).

The Hotel Sector of Athens/Greece: special forms of tourism and e-commerce

The hotel sector in Athens and Greece, as shown in the study carried out by Ignatis (2004), has experienced major changes in order to tackle the challenges of the post-Olympic tourism period: confronting the seasonal nature of Greek tourism, enhancing Greece's competitive advantages in tourism and promoting other tourism fields, to name just a few challenges. The pre-requisite for the hotels' successful Olympic preparations, has called for close co-operation between government bodies and the hoteliers, something apparent in the so far existing communications and decisions. Large hotel units have proceeded with their strategic planning towards the post Olympic tourism trends; as such, noteworthy cooperations can be seen among the Athens' hotels, as well as investment decisions on behalf of multi-national companies regarding Greek hotels, aiming to lead into a deeper penetration of the widely enlarged post-Olympic Greek tourism market. The study (Ignatis 2004) focused on the business and investment interest that the Olympic Games would bring upon the hotel sector in Athens and Greece. Businessmen have actually realized that Greece has moved well beyond the period where it was exclusively considered as a sea-sun-sand destination. Business opportunities have already been apparent and, now are expected to be multiplied.

The challenge faced is the prolongation of the Greek tourism season and how to make Attica a recreational region and not just a stop-over on the way to more popular destinations (such as Mykonos, Crete and the rest of the islands). The development of theme tourism seems to be an answer. GNTO's strategic planning is already moving towards this direction and the strengthening of the Greek thematic tourism has four main points (Ignatis 2004:60-61):

- The building of hotel infrastructure for exhibition-convention tourism, which may solve the problem of excessive accumulation of hotels in Attica.
- The development of winter tourism, by reorganizing skiing resorts.
- Sports tourism (golf, training centres for teams, etc.).
- The improvement and strengthening of spa tourism, in which Greece has an advantage thanks to its more than 800 hot springs.

As in Barcelona and Sydney, the Olympic Games of 2004 were expected to boost the tourism demand for special forms of tourism. This has been exactly the pathway that the big hotel chains have pursued as the renovation programs, the operational interventions and the planning they have undertaken aimed to provide the adequate service and facilities to the business and conference visitors, visitors interested in the sea and so on (Pilavios, 2001). Some of the most significant business actions regarding this matter are as follows (Ignatis 2004:61): The Aldemar Hotel Group, with 5,000 deluxe and first-class beds, was oriented towards the creation of special tourism facilities in its units, in co-operation with the Royal Mare Thalassa aquatic therapy centre –one of the most modern in Europe– in order to ensure top quality services. The Grecotel Group is the biggest chain of hotels in Greece, with 22 hotels in Crete, Rhodes, Mykonos, Corfu, Chalkidiki, Peloponnesus, Athens and Thessaloniki. Its total capacity is 11,000 beds and employs more than 3.500 people. Grecotel has won over 65 international prizes so far, not only for the quality of its services, but also for its contribution to the upgrading of Greek tourism products. The plans of the group have included a new investment near Olympia, where bungalows and centers for multi-thematic recreation were to be built. The Maris Hotel Group, owner a four-star hotel (Silva Maris & Bungalows with 600 beds) and two five-star hotels (Bella Maris Hotel & Bungalows, 540 beds), as well as the Creta Maris Hotel & Bungalows, 1.100 beds (the first hotel in the Mediterranean to get the ISO 9001 certificate of quality) has proceeded with the construction of a convention centre with a capacity of 4.500. As the Ministry of Economy and Finance underlines 3 years after the Olympics (2007): *"Tourism infrastructure was greatly upgraded as a result of hosting the Olympic Games and Greece is now perfectly equipped to meet high accommodation standards. Greece is gradually establishing itself as the ideal choice for hosting conventions, international exhibitions and other events as well as for major investments in the tourist industry, such as the development of big hotel complexes or the creation of specialized facilities attracting specific groups of tourists"*.

Information offered through hotel web sites serve as a means for increasing the effectiveness of marketing and eCommerce of hotel businesses. The objective of a research carried out by Vrana et.al (2004) was to examine and measure the quantity and type of information provided though Athens hotel web sites. What has been made clear is that Athens hotel companies make little use of the Internet as a means for marketing or contacting, informing and making business with potential customers since only a small percentage of the Athens hotels employ web sites[7]. Most of the surveyed hotels offer some information

[7] Following the search methodology 498 hotels located in the continental part of the Prefecture of Attica were recorded. These consisted of: 24 class L, 55 class A, 83 class B, 223 Class C, 79 Class D and 36 Class E hotels. Out of these 498 hotels, 142 (28.5 per cent) had their own website available to users,

services in their sites, but the full potential of this technology is not used. The Athens hotels web sites serve mostly as a means for providing contact information and advertising in general but not for making online transactions. In most of the cases they provide Customer contact information uniformly, but offering facilities information depends on hotel category. These findings are in agreement with those of Deimezi and Buhalis (2003) who concluded that the Greek tourist industry is still at an embryonic stage and does not make extensive use of the potential offered through Internet technology –something of a great need to change, so as, especially smaller and independent hotels from all over Greece, to improve their marketing and e-Commerce.

Destination Image and the role of the Media

Image and reputation are identified as potentially influencing visitor loyalty likelihood towards the tourist destination. However, the precise nature of the relationships between destination's reputation and image and the understanding of their effect on potential visitor behaviour remains a challenge for both academia and tourism marketers alike (Christou 2005). A vital lesson that has emerged from Athens' experience is that the host country needs to focus hard, and early enough, on addressing international concerns in the media to overcome negative perceptions –perceptions that *"have stuck to the Athens Games like wet clothing"*. It's not enough for government officials to hold press conferences and just say that everything is going on is well. "They needed to be ahead of the curve," says Scott Rosner, an expert on sports business who lectures in Wharton's legal studies department. "But this (Olympic organizing) committee has turned out to be far more reactive than pro-active. The PR strategy was far too generic" (Knowledge@Wharton 2004).

Furthermore, a study carried out by Hede (2005) provides insights into the efficacy of the telecast of a mega-event in developing positive attitudes towards a host destination. *"It seems as if the telecast was the impetus for improving attitudes towards Greece as a tourist destination for a considerable proportion of the*

---

the features of which were analysed. All the hotels of Attica that are sorted to the L Class, had their own website. In Classes A, B, C these percentages were 60 per cent, 46 per cent and 20 per cent respectively. A percentage of just 3 per cent of D Class hotels had their own website, while no E Class hotel was identified with a website.

sample[8]. While the telecasts are generally focussed on the sports, it is clear that the images of the host destination, albeit that these are a secondary aspect of the telecast, were absorbed by the viewers in this sample and that these were then used as a basis for attitude change. This information highlights to destination marketers that it is important to carefully consider how the destination is projected in the telecasts. It is therefore important to consider this issue in the early stages of the event planning so that strategies can be put in place to harness the tourism benefits of staging such events in host destinations" (Hede 2005:198). Across the sample, 38.7% of respondents indicated that their overall attitude towards Greece as a tourist destination changed as a result of their consumption of the telecast of Athens 2004. Considering that the attitudes of participants in the current study improved, not as a result of firsthand experiences at the destination, but as a result of their vicarious experiences of the destination through consumption of a media telecast of a special event, the results provide insights to the efficacy of this particular telecast in developing positive attitudes with regard to Greece as a tourist destination. The GNTO should try to exploit in the best possible way the international media potential, by emphasising on television spots and on the creation of special travel documentaries for telecasting abroad. The key issues that emerged for the four clusters in Hede's study (2005) were the appearance of Greece; culture and history of Greece; capacity, or "hostability", of Greece to stage the Athens 2004; and infrastructure in Greece.

Small Scale Event Sport Tourism and the optimal development of Olympic infrastructure

Specialized organisations such as the Hellenic Olympic Properties[9] and the Tourism Development Co.[10] have been established to ensure the optimal

---

[8] The focus of this study was the media telecast of the Athens 2004 Summer Olympic Games. The study explored the efficacy of the Australian telecast in developing positive perceptions and attitudes of Greece as a tourist destination and was origin-based—in that a survey was undertaken of a sample of Australian residents (n 5 350). Participants were segmented based on their post-consumption perceptions of Greece. Four segments were identified and labelled—'extremely positive' (n 575), 'highly positive' (n 5.153), 'positive' (n 583) and 'negative' (n 529). Statistical differences were found between the segments based on whether attitudes towards Greece had improved as a result of their consumption of the media telecast of the Athens 2004 Olympic Games.

[9] Hellenic Olympic Properties (www.olympicproperties.gr) operates under the aegis of the Ministries i) of Finance and ii) of Culture and was established to manage the portfolio of the 22 new Olympic venues. High priority development sites, comprised of indoor and outdoor facilities with large properties are

development and use of Olympic and tourist infrastructure. For instance, the Olympic Tae-kwon-do facility on the Faliro coastal front is being redeveloped into an international convention centre. The legacy of the Games also includes the development of an investment-friendly environment. For example, the Olympic properties, i.e. buildings and sports venues with state-of-the-art equipment, will be used for a number of purposes relating to business activities, leisure and the hosting of major sports and cultural events (Ministry of Economy and Finance 2007).

Sport tourism can be combined with sport events, training or individual sports and in Greece this form of tourism has high potential for development. The majority of sports centres that are available after the Olympic Games can be utilised for sports tourism. Taking advantage of the good climate, foreign athletes and sports organisations are able to prepare for major sports events in our country. Most of the literature and economic studies of sport tourism focuses on mega sporting events such as the Olympic Games or World Cups. On the one hand these events are undoubtedly very important, as indicated above, while on the other hand we should not forget that they are largely one-off events to a particular country or city and that they carry a significant burden of costs (Cave 2003:10). The significance of the economic success of smaller scale sports events should not be overlooked and every year all over the world *"thousands of people travel significant distances to watch their favourite sports on a regular basis"* (Gibson et. al. 2003:181). These events are of considerable economic significance and, given that they require little or no additional infrastructure investment, should be considered as offering greater benefit to the local community. We have already mentioned that apart from the official mega-events, there are less important events that attract the local visitors, sometimes attract important sponsors and increase the fame of the destinations. A number of studies or researches undertaken into small-scale events show that such sports bring benefits to host communities which

---

located in the most rapidly growing area of greater Athens. It is intended that the use of these properties should promote Greek civilization and sports while stimulating business and economic growth and creating sustainable development in the surrounding area.

[10] Tourism Development Co. (www.tourism-development.gr) is a leading Greek real estate asset manager, facilitating contact between the public and private sectors in order to assure the most advantageous property development. The Company's main scope of activity is to manage and administer state owned tourism property and to secure optimal development through financing. The state owned tourism property portfolio, managed by Tourism Development Co., numbers over 350 assets scattered throughout Greece. This portfolio consists of business units – casinos, marinas, hotels, organized beaches, natural springs, camping, ski resorts, golf courses, etc. – and underdeveloped sites.

might not otherwise have attracted visitors, and the predominant benefits were in terms of local spending on accommodation, food, drink and also retail shopping (Cave 2003:10). For these reasons supporting the National Sport Federations and coordinating local tourism authorities are considered to be of vital importance. For example, a combination of several extreme sports promoted as mini-Olympiad takes place every year in Konitsa, Northern Greece with a participation of about 400 athletes. The program includes 38 km rafting, 42 km mountain biking and mountain marathon running, as well as four days parapente flying (Souliotis, 2004). The financial benefits derive from visitors' services, participation fees and sales.

Volunteerism, social responsibility and touristic consciousness

Volunteerism is a great project that has succeeded and is likely to have a lasting impact on Greece, as a lost sense of social responsibility has started acquiring again roots to grow in Greek society (Ioannides 2002)[11]. A major effort in the direction of volunteerism, that has been done and ought to be continued by the National Sport Federations in coordination with the GNTO, would help in the creation of social capital and could cause a change in the opposite direction that can definitely have positive results in the development of a "touristic consciousness" for the Greek hosts. Involvement Volunteering is a unique, cost effective way for people of all ages to gain practical experience; or to learn from practical experience while helping others as real volunteers, and meeting the local people and their culture when travelling in their own or in a foreign country.

Regardless of the type of volunteer service or environment, volunteers are made up of different people, from different backgrounds, usually having many different cultures (Arai, 2000/2001). When these people come together as volunteers to provide a common service under a "common roof" to an organization or an event such as the Olympics, they not only have to abide by standards and

[11] Although it may be argued that volunteerism at the Olympic Games has a rich history with many athletes, officials, and organizers volunteering time and efforts, the concept of "Olympic volunteer" is fairly young. It was not until the Olympic glossary of the Official Report of the Barcelona Games that the concept Olympic volunteer was first defined. This definition states that the Olympic volunteer is "a person who makes an individual, altruistic commitment to collaborate, to the best of his/her abilities in the organization of the Olympic Games, carrying out the tasks assigned to him/her without receiving payments or rewards of any other nature" (Karlis 2003). Athens 2004 trained 45,000 volunteers for the Olympics and 15,000 for the Paralympics. In 2000, the Sydney Olympic Games utilized 47,000 whereas, in Atlanta, the 1996 Olympic Games relied on the efforts of 60,422 volunteers.

regulations of the host National Olympic Committee, they also have to learn to appreciate and work with each other, despite cultural differences. Indeed, Olympic volunteers are called upon to work with so many cultures at a time and look as if they were one. As each volunteer is accustomed to a different “way of life,” it may be difficult to have all volunteers interact in a socially cohesive fashion; but this is a challenge that the host National Olympic Committee and the Olympic Movement must be prepared to contend with (Karlis 2003). In general, the psychological benefits from the Olympics to Greece have taken different shapes: from community pride, to a sense of coming together, satisfaction of a job well done, cooperation between residents, or the “Olympic spirit”.

CONCLUSION: AREAS FOR ACTION AND MEASURES

The opportunity for a city to host the Olympic Games constitutes an enormous economic social and cultural commitment, as it is the world's biggest sporting event. It is an opportunity that, if properly managed and marketed, will bring a number of positive long-term benefits to the rest of the country as a whole (Kartakoulis *et.al*. 2003). To enhance the competitiveness of tourism, the Greek tourist product must, on the one hand, acquire an even greater share of the international tourist market and, on the other, upgrade the quality of its supply. It also needs to be enriched and diversified. Furthermore, it must incorporate an increasingly larger part of domestic production of goods and services through the strengthening of the role of the workforce and entrepreneurship and modernising the infrastructure provided by public administration and the mechanisms by which tourism policy is implemented (Kondokolias 2004:81).

Greece’s successful hosting of the Olympic Games was internationally acknowledged and gave the country a boost in its image, reflecting its modern, confident and dynamic profile (Christou 2005). The Olympic Games have given to the Greek tourism industry competitive advantages, mainly through the infrastructural legacy that they left. Athens and Greece as a whole have been engaged to a long term strategic commitment the main characteristics of which are (Ignatis 2004:67):

- The gradual disconnection from mass tourism that has been proven to be a low return business.
- The attraction of middle and higher income visitors through higher quality product development in order to maximise profits.

- The gradual disconnection from seasonality through new forms of theme tourism.

- The empowerment of hotel human resources and the improvement of its technical support.

- Continuous marketing research aimed at identifying potential gaps and opportunities.

With all the above as guidelines for the period 2004-2010, the Greek plan is implemented along six main axes (Kondokolias 2004:81):

1. Improving the quality of supply,
2. Enriching and diversifying the total tourist product,
3. Educating and training the workforce,
4. Enhancing entrepreneurship

5. Promoting and advertising Greece using new tools and modern methods,

6. Modernising the infrastructure provided by public administration and the mechanisms by which tourist policy is implemented.

After the Athens Olympics, the world recognized in Greece a country that can meet large-scale challenges, a country that “can do wonders.” But for the wonders to continue, especially in the field of sports tourism, there is a need for the development of research programmes and studies in the particular area and related fields. In Greece, sports tourism does not exist as an established academic field and at the moment there are no undergraduate or postgraduate programmes in the Greek Universities or Polytechnics (Sport Tourism International Council - Research Unit of Greece). There are however, modules related to sport and tourism. Three years after the Olympics, Athens has invested billions of dollars in its buildings and transportation system. Hotels have been upgraded and restaurants have improved their menus and service. Greeks are full of pride. The issues and questions that have arised from 2004 Olympics, as already indicated, are many. For the final answers, we will have to ask again in 5-10 years.

Acknowledgements: Particular thanks are due to *Dr. Thomas Mavrodontis*, Professor of Tourism Economy at the Alexandreion Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki for his suggestions and helpful guidelines.

REFERENCES

Arai, S.M. (2000/2001). “Typology of volunteers for a changing sociopolitical context: The impact on social capital, citizenship and civil society”. *Leisure and Society*, 23(2): 327-352.

Blosser, P., Mihalik B.J. (2006). “Social Impacts of the Olympic Games”. 24th EuroCHRIE Congress, *In Search of excellence for tomorrow’s tourism, travel & hospitality*, 25-28 October 2006, Thessaloniki, Greece.

Cave, P. (2003). “Sports Tourism: The case for a local approach in Africa”. Department of Tourism and Leisure Management, Lancashire Business School. *Second African Conference on Peace Through Tourism*, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. December 7-12 2003. “Community Tourism - Gateway to Poverty Reduction”.

Chalip, L., Green, C. and Hill, B. (2003). “Effects of sport media on destination image and intentions to visit”. *Journal of Sport Management*, 17: 214–234.

Christou, E. (2005). “Examining the impact of Athens 2004 Olympic Games on Athens’ and Greece’s tourist destination image” (in Greek). Conference organised by the Aristotelian University of Thessaloniki: *The Olympic Games and the international media (one year later)*. Athens, 12-13 May 2005

Costa G., Glinia, E. (2004). “Sport tourism in Greece”. *Journal of Sport Tourism* 9(3), 2004, 283–286.

Deimezi, O. and Buhalis, D. (2003) *E-tourism and Developments in Greece, Information & Communication Technologies in Tourism*, Wien: Springer Verlag, pp. 39–48

French, S. P. and Disher, M. E. (1997). “Atlanta and the Olympics: A one year retrospective”. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 63 (3): 379-392.

Gibson, H. (2003) “Sport Tourism”. In Parks, J.B. & Quarterman, J.(eds) *Contempo-rary Sport Management*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, pp. 337-360

Gibson, H.I., Willming, C. and Holdnak, A. (2003). “Small-scale event sport tourism: fans as tourists”, *Tourism Management*, 22 (3): 181-190.

G-Force, Global Forum for Sports and Environment. [Retrieved on 14/3/2007 from http://www.g-forse.com/archive/news295_e.html]

Hall, C. M. (1992). *Hallmark Tourist Events: impacts, management and planning.* London, England: Bellhaven Press and New York, NY: Halstead Press.

Hall, C. M. (1989). "Hallmark tourist events: analysis, definitions, methodology and review". In G. Syme, B. Shaw, M. Fenton and W. Mueller (Eds.), *Planning and Evaluation of Hallmark Events* (pp. 3–9). Aldershot: Avery.

Hede, A. (2005). "Sports-events, tourism and destination marketing strategies: an Australian case study of Athens 2004 and its media telecast". *Journal of Sport Tourism* 10(3), 2005:187–200.

Hellenic Center for Investment (ELKE). "Stats and facts on tourism". [Retrieved on 8/3/2007 from http://www.elke.gr/default.asp?V_DOC_ID=2536].

Ignatis, C. (2004), *Athens 2004 Olympic Games - A challenge for the Hotel Sector of Athens and Greece*, Masters Thesis, Goteborg University, Graduate Business School. [Retrieved on 12/3/2007 from http://www.handels.gu.se/epc/ archive/00003661/01/inlaga_2003_28.pdf]

Ioannides, Y. (2002). "An Economist' Thoughts on the Economic Impact of Athens 2004". Tufts University. Athens 2004 Symposium, April 17, 2002. [Retrieved on 10/3/2007 from http://www.tufts.edu/~mbiancon/Athens2004.pdf]

International Herald Tribune/Sports (2005). "Olympics: Dream games, nightmare bill". Publication 7/7/2005. [Retrieved on 26/2/2007 from http://www.iht.com/ articles/2005/07/06/ sports/greece.php]

Karlis, G. (2003). "Volunteerism and Multiculturalism: A Linkage For Future Olympics". *The Sport Journal*, Vol.6, Number 3, Summer 2003. [Retrieved on 25/2/2007 from http://www.thesportjournal.org/2003Journal/Vol6-No3/ Volunteerism.asp].

Kartakoullis, N., Papanikos, G., Karlis, G. (2003). "City and Sport Marketing Strategy: The Case of Athens 2004". *The Sport Journal*, Vol.6, Number 2, Spring 2003 [Retrieved on 24/2/2007 from http://www.thesportjournal.org/ 2003Journal/Vol6-No2/athens.asp].

Kondokolias, H. (2006). “Encouraging sings for tourism in 2006”. *Trade with Greece – Athens Chamber of Commerce and Industry*. Issue No36, Winter 2005-2006: 69-73. [Retrieved on 25/2/2007 from http://www.acci.gr/trade/No36/ TRADE_69_73.pdf]

Kondokolias, H. (2004). “The ‘Charter’ for tourism in Greece”. *Trade with Greece – Athens Chamber of Commerce and Industry*. Issue No29 - Winter 2003-2004. . [Retrieved on 11/2/2007 from http://www.acci.gr/trade/No29/ TRADE_78_81.pdf].

Knowledge@Wharton (2004). “Despite Lackluster Ticket Sales, Can Greece Be a Big Winner in This Year's Olympics?”. Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania. Published on August 25th, 2004. [Retrieved on 23/2/2007 from http://knowledge.wharton.upenn.edu/createpdf.cfm?articleid=1026].

Ministry of Economy and Finance - Hellenic Republic (2007). *Fact Sheet on the Greek Economy*. January 2007.

Ministry of Tourism Development- Greek National Tourism Organisation/GNTO - Hellenic Republic, available online at http://www.eot.gr/

Muller, N. (ed) (2000). *Pierre de Coubertin, 1863-1937: Olympism, Selected Writings.* Lausanne, Switzerland: International Olympic Committee.

Pilavios, N. (2001). “The Benefits of Athens from 2004” (in Greek). Newspaper *Imerisia*, April the 5th.

Redmond, G. (1990). “Points of increasing contact: Sport and tourism in the Modem World” in Tomlinson, A. (ed), *Sport in Society: Policy, Politics and Culture,* LSA Publication, No. 43, Eastboume: Leisure Studies Association.

Roche, M. (1994). “Mega-events and urban policy”. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21: 1–19.

Seimanidi-Velliou, A. (2004). *The victory projects: the Athens Olympic Games 2004.* Athens: Argo Hellas Communications.

Sampaniotis, Th. (2006). “Greek tourism and international competition” in *Eurobank Research: Economy and Markets – Tourism and Greek Economy*, vol. 8, October 25th (In Greek). Retrieved on 26/05/2007 from http://www.eurobank.gr/research

Souliotis, J. (2004). “Sports that seek for your limits- LIFE” *Kathimerini* (Greek newspaper), Sunday, 02/05/2004.

Sport Tourism International Council - Research Unit of Greece (STIC - RUGR). Higher Technological Educational Institute of Crete (T.E.I. of Crete). [Retrieved on 25/2/2007 from http://www.sport-tourism.com/ENpages/ indexEN.htm].

Ta Nea (2004). Greek Newspaper, Editorial, August 30th 2004.

Tiphonnet, J. (2003). “Impacts of Sport on Tourist Destination Image”. Presentation Summaries. Session III – Marketing Management of Sport and Tourism. *Journal of Sport Tourism* 8(2), 2003: 94–115.

Villiers, de D. (2004). “The Olympic Games and the development of Sport Tourism”. SETE/ *3rd Conference on Tourism and Develpoment*. Athens, Greece, 11th October 2004. Speech by Dr. Dawid de Villiers, Deputy Secretary-General of World Tourism Organization (WTO). [Retrieved on 23/2/2007 from http://www.seteconferences.gr/ files/presentations/3rdConferencespeeches/ deVillierspeech.doc].

Washington Post (2001). *International Spotlight: Greece.* Publication 22/06/2001. [Retrieved on 2/3/2007 from http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-adv/specialsales/spotlight/ greece/art5.html]

WTTC (2004). *World Travel and Tourism Forging Ahead*, World Travel and Tourism Council, London.

WWF (2004). “No gold medal for the environment in the Athens Olympics”. [Retrieved on 1/2/2007 from http://www.wwf.org.uk/news/n_0000001266.asp].

Zopounidis, K. and Gaganis, Ch. (2005). “Tourism Research: The treasure of our economy”. *Scientific Marketing,* May 2005 (In Greek). Retrieved on 11/06/2007 from http://magazine.morax.gr/article_show.php?article_id=718.

THE BUSINESS OF COMMUNITY BASED TOURISM: A MULTI-STAKEHOLDER APPROACH

Babu P George

School of Management, Pondicherry University, India

Alexandru Nedelea

Univ."Stefan cel Mare" Suceava, Romania

Mercy Antony

Freelance Consultant, Pondicherry, India

Abstract: The present paper attempts to weave together the theory and practice of community based tourism. Though the idea of community based development is age-old, its adoption into tourism is relatively recent. The paper examines how community based tourism can be a panacea for many of the evils of the mainstream industry driven mass-tourism. It exhorts that, while community is at the centre stage, there are important roles for governments and non-governmental organizations in community based tourism. The role of public-private partnership is also examined.

Keywords: Community Based Tourism, Blueprint for CBT development, Role of Governments and NGOs, Public-Private Partnership, and Case studies.

Introduction: Community Based Development and Community Based Tourism

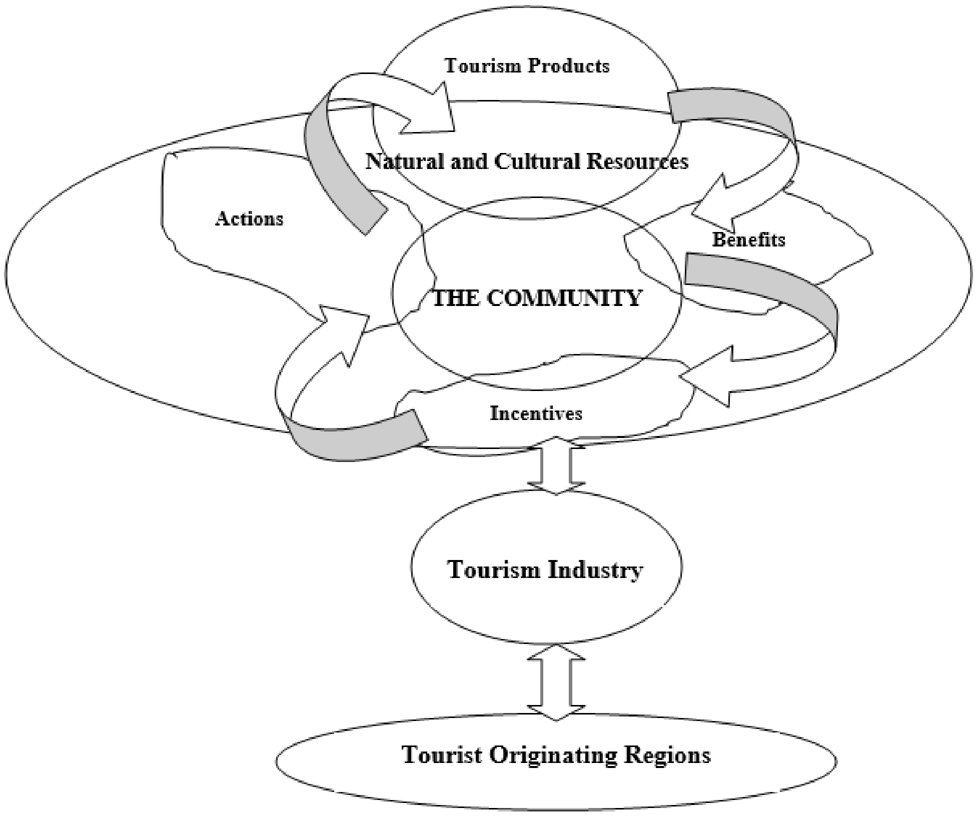
Community-based development is a strategy used by tourism planners to mobilize communities into action to participate in broadening the scope of offerings in the industry. The goal is socio-economic empowerment and a value-added experience for local and foreign visitors. This process opens new niches for destinations, most notably for the nature, culture, and adventure travelers. What this achieves is a policy objective of creating a culture of inclusion in the industry, whereby communities participate and share in the wealth of the industry, dispelling a long held perception of tourism as an exploiter of wealth where only the rich can benefit.

Community-based development empowers people to be more aware of the value of their community assets - their culture, heritage, cuisine and lifestyle. It mobilizes them to convert these into income generating projects while offering a more diverse and worthwhile experience to visitors. Every citizen is a potential business partner to be trained in small business management, environmental awareness, product development and marketing. This type of ‘people-centered’ tourism promotes a sense of ‘ownership’ which augurs well for the industry’s sustainability.

Continuing with the above line of thinking, community based tourism (CBT) is may be defined as tourism that takes environmental, social and cultural sustainability into account. It is managed and owned by the community, for the community, with the purpose of enabling visitors to increase their awareness and learn about community and local ways of life. Existing terms like heritage tourism, eco-tourism, agri-tourism, cultural tourism, etc can all be forms of the community tourism product, within the constraint that these are to be promoted with the spirit of community centeredness and sustenance.

The key benefits of CBT are seen to be: job creation; poverty reduction; less impact on an area's culture and environment than that exerted by mass tourism; community capacity building and pride; and revenue for maintaining or upgrading the community's cultural assets. The relationship between resources and actions in CBT is illustrated below:

The key rationale underlying the approach and objectives of CBT for conservation and development is that CBT through increased intensities of participation can provide widespread economic and other benefits and decision-making power to communities. These economic benefits act as incentives for participants and the means to conserve the natural and cultural resources on which income generation depends. Note from the diagram that the community is at the centre and is occupying the commanding position with regard to the management of its natural and cultural resources which can be reformulated as tourism products. The relationship of the industry to the tourism products developed out of the natural and cultural resources of the community is not a direct, one-to-one relationship; on the contrary, it is through the intermediation of the community. This is aimed to ensure that the aspirations of the community are never bypassed by the extraneous industry interests. One can see CBT as an interaction among the three major groupings of the community, the tourism industry, and the tourists themselves. In the language of cost-benefit analysis (CBA), community based tourism may be expressed in terms of the following inequalities:



©George, B.P. (2006)

i. CB>IB>IC>CC (The inequality of interaction between the community and the industry)
ii. CB>TB>TC>CC (The inequality of interaction between the community and the tourists)
iii. IB>TB>TC>IC (The inequality of interaction between the industry and the tourists)

(CB=Community Benefits; CC=Community Costs; IB=Industrial Benefits; IC=Industrial Costs; TB=Tourist Benefits; and TC=Tourist Costs)

Note that the maximum benefit with the least cost goes to the community. This is the essential condition for CBT and the other conditions are not as consequential as this. The third condition may even be contested; however, we feel this is desirable since only if the industry benefit is significant than the industry cost shall it survive and not move on to unsustainable practices; tourists shall visit a CBT destination as long as tourist benefit is more than tourist cost.

Defining Characteristics of a Community Based Tourism Project

Community-based Tourism can and should encompass a range of activities that collectively contribute to improved conservation and development. Some of the most noteworthy characteristics of community based tourism projects are listed below (adapted from TPDCO, 2005):

- A community-based tourism project is a profitable and sustainable activity that enhances the environment while adding value to the experience of both locals and visitors.
- It directly involves the community – providing both social and economic benefits.
- Its ultimate goal is to satisfy consumer expectations without harming the community interests.
- It is market driven and has to meet high standards in order to be sustainable.
- Private entrepreneurs, community groups, and or organizations may own it. It should aim to educate, train develop, encourage, and utilize any skills and human potential within the community, towards the delivery of professional service.
- It should be operated within a business structure that adheres to government regulations, financial obligations, good labor relations and sound management systems.
- All Business Plans must be scrutinized to ensure owners/organizations understand the opportunities, pitfalls and risks and to show the long-term viability of the Project.
- Environmental awareness and sustainability should be top priority. It is the responsibility of the community to maintain clean healthy surroundings.
- Members of the community are expected to exhibit friendliness, honesty and professionalism amongst themselves as well as in their dealings with the visitor to ensure the integrity of the project.

Every community based tourism developer must ask the following questions from the very first stage of idea generation for the same:

- Will the project enhance environment while adding value to the visitor's experience?
- Will the project be developed, operated and protected by the community?

- Will the project provide social and economic benefits to the stakeholders/shareholders?
- Will the project be operated with sound ethical business practices including adherence to regulations and standards set by government, agencies, stakeholders, shareholders and consumers?
- Will the project offer professional services and value to the visitor and be competitive in the global marketplace?

If not properly devised and implemented, CBT is highly likely to fail. The International Centre for Responsible Tourism (ICRT) at the University of Greenwich, UK, is evaluating CBT projects around the world and reviewing literature on CBT. Preliminary findings from this research suggest several reasons why CBT projects fail:

- Few projects understand the need for commercial activities: local people must sell crafts, food, accommodation and wildlife or cultural experiences to tourists. This is the only way to ensure a sustainable supply of local income or conservation funds.
- CBT projects must engage with the private sector, including travel agents, tour operators and hoteliers. The earlier this engagement takes place and the closer the partnership, the more likely it is to succeed.
- Location is critical: for poor people to benefit, tourists must stay in or near to these communities. Very few communities have tourism assets which are sufficiently strong to attract tourists - they rely on selling complementary goods and services. Tourists need to be close by for this to happen.
- CBT projects do not always provide appropriate tourism facilities for generating income. For example, too many CBT initiatives rely on building lodges, which are capital intensive and need considerable maintenance, or walking trails from which it can be difficult to secure revenue.
- Protected areas increasingly rely on money from tourists to pay for conservation initiatives. Local communities often have to compete with conservation projects for revenues.

The ICRT summarizes the recipe for successful CBT as that providing:

- Collective benefits: for example providing funds for community assets such as grinding mills or school books.
- Individual benefits: paid employment (full - or part-time) and opportunities for micro-enterprise earnings (for example craft sales).

The Blueprint for Developing Community Based Tourism in a Destination

In order that CBT be developed in a systematic manner, a methodological framework needs to be adopted. An outline of a suggested framework is provided below (Source: Tuffin, 2005):

1. Choose a destination

2. Complete a feasibility study with the community

3. Create an action plan

4. Set up an administrative system

5. Prepare for operation

6. Monitor and evaluate

Step 1: Choose a destination

Choosing an appropriate destination requires collecting information that leads to an understanding of the community. A detailed study of the village context includes collecting information about the community from organizations working there, government agencies, other communities in the area, and the community members themselves.

Step 2: Complete a feasibility study

The community needs to be fully involved in the process of deciding if they want to be involved in a tourism project. The process for building consensus in the community requires that the information and data be studied with the public and private partners and then an action plan be formulated. It is important to be open and honest about the limitations of the community when deciding whether to continue or not. The decision to develop CBT must be agreed upon by all parties. During this process the community will be stimulated to think about the reasons and motivations for developing CBT. They should be able to discuss the issues and visit communities which are already involved in CBT. The community members need to answer questions like:

Do you want CBT to raise income?

Do you want CBT to preserve culture?

Do you want CBT to conserve natural resources?

Do you want CBT to bring more knowledge and skills into the community?

Step 3: Create an action plan

If all parties reach a consensus, the planning process can begin. In this stage the community creates an action plan and enters into agreement with external agencies like tour operators. Some of the key issues that need to be considered include: Programs for the tourists; Services that will need to be provided; Development of facilities and infrastructure; Training that will need to be provided; Carrying capacity; and, Tour program and price.

The public partner (association of the community members) will need to formulate a monitoring and evaluation plan that includes the associated indicators and the private partner can begin to draft a marketing plan and strategy.

Step 4: Set up an administrative system

Without transparent organization, confusion, suspicion, and conflict can arise in the community. It is crucial that the community sets up a clear administrative system to effectively manage CBT.

The administrative organization will focus on the following: Participation level of community members; Division of roles in operation; Division of benefits; Transparency of management; Measures to control economic and social impacts; Measures to control natural and cultural impacts; and, Cooperation and communication with public and private partners.

Step 5: Preparation of operation

Before full operation of the tour program can start the community and its partners need to acquire skills and experience in operating CBT. The infrastructure must all be designed and built and the equipment acquired and put in place. At this stage emphasis will be placed on:

Training: including guiding skills, language learning, food preparation, housekeeping and simple accounting systems

Preparation of information: involving the educational content of the tour program; the things about themselves that the community members will share with tourists

Infrastructure design and construction: community lodges, trails, water systems, power systems, toilets, etc.

The community members will need to gain experience in guiding and operating the tour program and distributing benefits. It will be necessary to bring pilot groups of tourists into the community so that the community members can see what works and what does not and so that they can practice their skills and test the administrative systems.

Step 6: Monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring and evaluation starts once the program is in full operation. It helps to identify problems, impacts and benefits, as well as to ensure the sustainability of the operation. It examines the extent to which the project is meeting its objectives. It should also result in plans and efforts to compensate for weaknesses, correct problems, adjust systems and improve the program. Monitoring and evaluation is a participatory process. All stakeholders should play a role in gathering the monitoring data, assisting in the analysis, and in actions taken as a result of the final assessment and evaluation.

The aspects monitored include: Environmental impacts; Economic impacts; Cultural impacts; Social impacts; Efficacy of CBT as a development tool; etc.

Information can be gathered from the tourists, the community members and from physical inspections of infrastructure and the environment. Tools used for monitoring can include questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, guest books, photographs, checklists, trend lines, seasonal calendars, and so on.

Often in CBT the locations are remote and subject to national policies regulating access by foreigners as well as domestic visitors. Thus while initial assessments show considerable potential as tourism destinations, there may be regulations that restrict access by numbers and by seasons. International policies and actions have complex linkages with the visitor to a protected area and the local entrepreneur. Political instability can also affect the volume of visitors.

The Koroyanito CBT Development in Fiji: A Case Study

(Summarized and published by The Mountain Institute, 2000, from the Proceedings of the Ecotourism for Forest Conservation and Community Development Conference, 1997).

This example from Fiji has been chosen to highlight the linkages between conservation, economic development and participation in Community-based

Tourism products. A key feature in this case was the nature of participation where there appeared to be considerable power held by local communities in the development and management of the tourism product.

As part of the management strategy for Koroyanitu National Park in Fiji the following activities and organizations were established.

Village Ecotourism Co-op Society Limited: Each village with an ecotourism facility established their own Ecotourism Cooperative Society Limited, with the main objective to “establish and manage projects in such a manner, which maximizes benefits to the community and ensures equal opportunities for all”. Membership is restricted to landowning units on the basis of the amount of their land included in the project area and villagers who earn their share through direct involvement and/or capital contribution. The first criterion provides an incentive for landowning units to dedicate as much of their land as possible and discourage poor practices, which may disqualify a parcel of land. The second provides for allocation of equity, distribution of benefits, commensurate with one’s contribution to the project. The feature to note here is who owns the land that is to be conserved and serves as an attraction. With local ownership, the economic incentives to conserve are much stronger since local people who derive economic benefits also make the decisions on land management.

Koroyanito Development Trust (KDP): All landowning villages agreed to establish the KDP and the objectives were to:

- ensure the protection and integrity of the natural and cultural heritage within the national park
- facilitate efficient and controlled flow of visitors to facilities
- award contracts and approve participation
- and, hold shares in Fijian Vanua Tours Inc.

An institutional arrangement was established to manage conservation and development activities associated with the site.

Fijian Vanua Tours Inc. (FVTI): The objectives of this entity are to:

- promote participation in the protection of their natural and cultural heritage
- secure funding for the establishment of ecotourism facilities and other activities which lend to sustainable development
- conduct relevant training and development programs for owners
- provide management and technical assistance to Village Tourism Cooperatives
- and, hold shares in Fijian Vanua Tours Limited on behalf of accredited facility owners Fijian Vanua Tours Limited

This entity is a limited liability company designed to:

- promote Koroyanitu as a desirable ecotourism destination
- facilitate efficient and controlled flow of visitors to FTVI facilities
- set and enforce standards
- approve accreditation
- generate income

Participation is restricted to two parties - 50% for FVTI and 50% for a private investor who can inject expertise and capital to ensure survival in the tourism industry. Both of the above entities serve to increase participation in tourism and related activities from deriving economic returns to quality control to market and product development.

Noted achievements of the scheme are:

Education: participation in business management and tour guiding courses

Women's participation: active club that makes and sells handicrafts

Environmental protection: logging has not been reintroduced; area set aside for tree nursery; enrichment planting in previously logged areas; etc.

Income: project earned in 1994 the equivalent of the entire communities yearly income before the project, two thirds was retained in the village

Capital additions and improvements: in 1994 another accommodation facility designed especially for school groups who want to camp in the park during field trips. Education groups have regularly used this facility.

The Role of Non-Governmental Organizations in Community Based Tourism

Nongovernmental organizations, or NGOs, are generally accepted to be organizations which have not been established by governments or agreements among governments. In the early 1990s there began to be recognition of the importance of NGOs. They are found to have closer ties to on-the-ground realities in developing countries and, perhaps more important, to be able to deliver development aid considerably more cheaply than states or intergovernmental organizations.

Aided by advances in information and communications technology, NGOs have helped to focus attention on the social and environmental externalities of business activity. Multinational brands have been acutely susceptible to pressure from activists and from NGOs eager to challenge a company's labor, environmental or human rights record. Even those businesses that do not specialize in highly visible branded goods are feeling the pressure, as campaigners develop techniques to target downstream customers and shareholders. In response to such pressures, many businesses are abandoning their narrow shareholder theory of value in favor of a broader, stakeholder approach which not only seeks increased share value, but cares about how this increased value is to be attained. Such a stakeholder approach takes into account the effects of business activity - not just on shareholders, but on customers, employees, communities and other interested groups.

There are many visible manifestations of this shift. One has been the devotion of energy and resources by companies to environmental and social affairs. Companies are taking responsibility for their externalities and reporting on the impact of their activities on a range of stakeholders. Nor are companies merely reporting; many are striving to design new management structures which integrate sustainable development concerns into the decision-making process.

NGOs have been involved with tourism related issues for a long time. Current international activities in community tourism planning and development reflect a strong interest and involvement by NGOs, particularly those focused on resource conservation. Traditionally, they have been critical. They have campaigned against contentious issues, such as tourism links to child prostitution and the forced relocation of peoples for new developments. NGOs have frequently been concerned with tourism related environmental issues, opposing, for example, the establishment of golf courses in developing world locations that have exploited land and water previously available to local communities. NGOs have also focused their attention on the flow of income from tourism, particularly in the developing world, examining how this has been generated and how equitable its distribution is. Most NGOs commenting on tourism have had their major interests elsewhere.

However, NGOs can play an important constructive role in the development of management strategies and in the planning process of tourism development for various reasons. Tourism is becoming far too commoditized, and NGO involvement offers alternative ways of viewing the tourism experience. NGOs have prioritized development approaches that include host community perspectives, emphasized host–visitor interaction and stressed nature and cultural conservation. A number of NGOs have been actively involved in tourism related projects. The motives of NGOs in these circumstances appear to have been to boldly go where government or private commercial organizations would find political or economic resistance.

Being nongovernmental institutions they can establish and facilitate the participation of local stakeholders. Being non-profit organizations, they can promote the sustainable use of biodiversity and cultural resources and point out the economic benefits of the integration of tourism development and nature/culture conservation. Being experts in ecological sciences, social development and project management, and having a deep insight into the regional political and economic structures, NGOs can contribute significantly to the sustainability of community based tourism development. NGOs can sensitize the public and even organize mass movements if avaricious industrial interests placate the wider goals of community centered tourism development. Thus, they can act as brokers between conflicting groups and some of them have the potential to act in a conflict management capacity.

Another role that NGOs can take over is that of a co-operative agency that manages a community's initiatives towards CBT. Where international tour operators are unable to contract ground services to in-country operations or do not employ residents of that country, the amount retained in the destination is obviously lower than if this was not the case. Some NGOs appear to have special skills in collaborative partnerships based upon shared aims with local communities, the private sector and other NGOs. The NGO can become a unified marketing front for the small and medium scale tourism enterprises run by the community members. With the help of e-commerce technologies, such a body can bypass the middlemen like travel agents and tour operators and reach the tourist originating markets directly. With tour operators invariably demanding payment in the visitor's country of origin, the benefits to national economies can vary considerably. This has the potential to make the community's tourism offerings more cost-competitive, too. In these situations the development work of NGOs can be directly supported by tourism income flows, active tourist participation in projects, or through direct and indirect donations to their work.

Thus, NGOs are shown often to be both campaigning and proactive bodies, capable of operating in a wide variety of natural, economic and political environments. In sum, NGOs in community based tourism does one or more of the following things:

1. Contribute to the development of policies and plans for the CBT industry

2. Assist the government in developing a standard for responsible community based tourism

3. Assist the government, private sector and communities in implementing, monitoring and evaluating CBT

4. Attract funding from donor agencies to develop specific CBT projects

5. Assist communities and community groups in organizing themselves, preparing themselves for CBT and implementing CBT projects

6. Assist the government in conducting tourism and environmental awareness programs among communities and the tourism industry at large

7. Liaise between the private sector and communities to generate more community involvement in the tourism sector and stronger private sector commitment

8. Deliver education, training, bridging courses, and other capacity building exercises to local communities

9. Resist against inequitable tourism development by campaigning and mobilizing community support

10. Manage and market the community tourism product for the community, at least until the community gains experience to manage on its own.

Some of NGOs that do outstanding work in the area of tourism are:

- Tourism Concern (www.tourismconcern.org.uk)
- Equations in India (www.equitabletourism.org)
- Ecumenical Coalition on Third World Tourism (www.ecotonline.org)
- World Wide Fund for Nature (www.wwf.org)
- Conservation International (www.conservation.org)
- Rainforest Alliance (www.rain-forest-alliance.org)
- Cultural Restoration Tourism Project (http://home.earthlink.net/~crtp)
- International Council on Monuments and Sites (www.icomos.org)
- International Society for Eco-tourism Management (www.ecomanage.com)
- Partners in Responsible Tourism (www2.pirt.org)
- Retour Foundation (www.retour.net)

Governments and Community Based Tourism

Community Based Tourism can not be implemented successfully without the constant and coordinated facilitation by the various governmental bodies. Governments play a critical role through their institutional leadership, guaranteeing stakeholders' participation. The Governments' role is also essential in the establishment of regulatory and policy frameworks, ensuring their enforcement, the application of appropriate economic instruments (including the removal of environmentally perverse subsidies), and monitoring environmental quality. What communities do in tourism depends on the opportunities and power they have, the incentives and prices they face, and their access to skills, training, capital and markets. All of these are shaped by government policies, regulation and taxes. Only governments can provide the strategic planning base for CBT which is so clearly needed. Only they can ensure that valuable and fragile habitats are identified, that baseline studies and monitoring are carried out, and that overall infrastructure needs and implications are assessed. And only they can establish emissions standards and citing and design requirements, and ensure that they are enforced.

Governments need to make resources such as national tourist boards accessible to CBT operations, while ensuring that systems of licensing or tourism standards do not act as barriers. Government, especially, the local government, provides the core utilities and infrastructure on which the tourism industry is based. This includes district and city roads, lighting, water and sewerage, public transport systems, signs, airports, and ports. If local government operates attractions such as museums, art galleries, sports stadiums, convention centers, parks, gardens, events, tours, and other amenities, the same become additional motivators for tourists to visit a CBT destination. The government can integrate travel information about the CBT destinations in the country into its Visitor Information Network, too.

Private companies can't be expected to share profits and power with rural communities simply because it's a kind thing to do. But governments can create the conditions under which it is in their interests to work with communities by giving communities market power and giving the private sector more security of investment and incentives for partnership. This can be by means of:

- asking private sector bidders to develop proposals for community partnership, and making this a key criteria in allocating tourism rights. This small change to the planning process can force every new investment to address community tourism issues.
- devolving tenure to communities, to give them market power in forming agreements
- giving communities an equity share in government-private agreements
- helping local residents to start private enterprises.

Policies vary from country to country and over time. It is often the overall approach that is most important in helping community tourism to flourish. Some tips that are suggested from governments in CBT by Africa Resources Trust (ART, 2005) are:

- Create supportive attitudes in government
- Let communities develop tourism over time
- Create opportunities and remove constraints, rather than plan community tourism for them
- Recognize that local people will have multiple livelihood objectives, not just maximizing cash income. Concerns about how land or natural resources are used, or access to training, can be equally important to livelihoods
- Enhance their power in the tourism market
- Ensure tourism sector regulations encourage rather than exclude the informal sector
- Welcome NGO facilitation – it's usually needed

There are two extremes to be avoided: one is to ignore community tourism or pretend it will happen with no support from Government and the industry. The other is for government and the industry to try to do everything and do it now, without allowing time for local people to develop their ideas and skills.

Harnessing Public-Private Partnership for Community Based Tourism

Public-private partnership (PPP or P3) is a variation of privatization in which elements of a service previously run solely by the public sector are provided through a partnership between the government and one or more private sector companies. Unlike a full privatization scheme, in which the new venture is expected to function like any other private business, the government continues to participate in some way.

Important variants of public-private partnerships are (Source: National Council for Public Private Partnerships, USA): Build/Operate/Transfer (BOT) or Build/Transfer/Operate (BTO); Build-Own-Operate (BOO); Buy-Build-Operate (BBO); Service Contracts (SC); Design-Build (DB); Design-Build-Maintain (DBM); Design-Build-Operate (DBO); Developer Finance: Enhanced Use Leasing (EUL); Lease/Develop/Operate (LDO) or Build/Develop/Operate (BDO); Lease/Purchase; Sale/Leaseback; Tax-Exempt Lease; and Turnkey Arrangement.

Build/Operate/Transfer (BOT) or Build/Transfer/Operate (BTO): The private partner builds a facility to the specifications agreed to by the public agency, operates the facility for a specified time period under a contract or franchise agreement with the agency, and then transfers the facility to the agency at the end of the specified period of time. In most cases, the private partner will also provide some, or all, of the financing for the facility, so the length of the contract or franchise must be sufficient to enable the private partner to realize a reasonable return on its investment through user charges.

At the end of the franchise period, the public partner can assume operating responsibility for the facility, contract the operations to the original franchise holder, or award a new contract or franchise to a new private partner. The BTO model is similar to the BOT model except that the transfer to the public owner takes place at the time that construction is completed, rather than at the end of the franchise period.

Build-Own-Operate (BOO): The contractor constructs and operates a facility without transferring ownership to the public sector. Legal title to the facility remains in the private sector, and there is no obligation for the public sector to purchase the facility or take title. A BOO transaction may qualify for tax-exempt status as a service contract if all Internal Revenue Code requirements are satisfied.

Buy-Build-Operate (BBO): A BBO is a form of asset sale that includes a rehabilitation or expansion of an existing facility. The government sells the asset to the private sector entity, which then makes the improvements necessary to operate the facility in a profitable manner.

Service Contracts: A public partner (federal, state, or local government agency or authority) contracts with a private partner to provide and/or maintain a specific service. Under the private operation and maintenance option, the public partner retains ownership and overall management of the public facility or system. Another way is public partner (federal, state, or local government agency or authority) contracts with a private partner to operate, maintain, and manage a facility or system proving a service. Under this contract option, the public partner retains ownership of the public facility or system, but the private party may invest its own capital in the facility or system. Any private investment is carefully calculated in relation to its contributions to operational efficiencies and savings over the term of the contract. Generally, the longer the contract term, the greater the opportunity for increased private investment because there is more time available in which to recoup any investment and earn a reasonable return. Many local governments use this contractual partnership to provide wastewater treatment services.

Design-Build (DB): A DB is when the private partner provides both design and construction of a project to the public agency. This type of partnership can reduce time, save money, provide stronger guarantees and allocate additional project risk to the private sector. It also reduces conflict by having a single entity responsible to the public owner for the design and construction. The public sector partner owns the assets and has the responsibility for the operation and maintenance.

Design-Build-Maintain (DBM): A DBM is similar to a DB except the maintenance of the facility for some period of time becomes the responsibility of the private sector partner. The benefits are similar to the DB with maintenance risk being allocated to the private sector partner and the guarantee expanded to include maintenance. The public sector partner owns and operates the assets.

Design-Build-Operate (DBO): A single contract is awarded for the design, construction, and operation of a capital improvement. Title to the facility remains with the public sector unless the project is a design/build/operate/transfer or design/build/own/operate project. The DBO method of contracting is contrary to the separated and sequential approach ordinarily used in the United States by both the public and private sectors. This method involves one contract for design with an architect or engineer, followed by a different contract with a builder for project construction, followed by the owner's taking over the project and operating it.

A simple design-build approach creates a single point of responsibility for design and construction and can speed project completion by facilitating the overlap of the design and construction phases of the project. On a public project, the operations phase is normally handled by the public sector under a separate operations and maintenance agreement. Combining all three passes into a DBO approach maintains the continuity of private sector involvement and can facilitate private-sector financing of public projects supported by user fees generated during the operations phase.

Developer Finance: The private party finances the construction or expansion of a public facility in exchange for the right to build residential housing, commercial stores, and/or industrial facilities at the site. The private developer contributes capital and may operate the facility under the oversight of the government. The developer gains the right to use the facility and may receive future income from user fees.

While developers may in rare cases build a facility, more typically they are charged a fee or required to purchase capacity in an existing facility. This payment is used to expand or upgrade the facility. Developer financing arrangements are often called capacity credits, impact fees, or extractions. Developer financing may be voluntary or involuntary depending on the specific local circumstances.

Enhanced Use Leasing (EUL): An EUL is an asset management program in the Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) that can include a variety of different leasing arrangements (e.g. lease/develop/operate, build/develop/operate). EULs enable the VA to long-term lease VA-controlled property to the private sector or other public entities for non-VA uses in return for receiving fair consideration (monetary or in-kind) that enhances VA's mission or programs

Lease/Develop/Operate (LDO) or Build/Develop/Operate (BDO): Under these partnerships arrangements, the private party leases or buys an existing facility from a public agency; invests its own capital to renovate, modernize, and/or expand the facility; and then operates it under a contract with the public agency. A number of different types of municipal transit facilities have been leased and developed under LDO and BDO arrangements.

Lease/Purchase: A lease/purchase is an installment-purchase contract. Under this model, the private sector finances and builds a new facility, which it then leases to a public agency. The public agency makes scheduled lease payments to the private party. The public agency accrues equity in the facility with each payment. At the end of the lease term, the public agency owns the facility or purchases it at the cost of any remaining unpaid balance in the lease.

Under this arrangement, the facility may be operated by either the public agency or the private developer during the term of the lease. Lease/purchase arrangements have been used by the General Services Administration for building federal office buildings and by a number of states to build prisons and other correctional facilities.

Sale/Leaseback: This is a financial arrangement in which the owner of a facility sells it to another entity, and subsequently leases it back from the new owner. Both public and private entities may enter into a sale/leaseback arrangement for a variety of reasons. An innovative application of the sale/leaseback technique is the sale of a public facility to a public or private holding company for the purposes of limiting governmental liability under certain statues. Under this arrangement, the government that sold the facility leases it back and continues to operate it.

Tax-Exempt Lease: A public partner finances capital assets or facilities by borrowing funds from a private investor or financial institution. The private partner generally acquires title to the asset, but then transfers it to the public partner either at the beginning or end of the lease term. The portion of the lease payment used to pay interest on the capital investment is tax exempt under state and federal laws. Tax-exempt leases have been used to finance a wide variety of capital assets, ranging from computers to telecommunication systems and municipal vehicle fleets.

Turnkey Arrangement: A public agency contracts with a private investor/vendor to design and build a complete facility in accordance with specified performance standards and criteria agreed to between the agency and the vendor. The private developer commits to build the facility for a fixed price and absorbs the construction risk of meeting that price commitment. Generally, in a turnkey transaction, the private partners use fast-track construction techniques (such as design-build) and are not bound by traditional public sector procurement regulations. This combination often enables the private partner to complete the facility in significantly less time and for less cost than could be accomplished under traditional construction techniques.

In a turnkey transaction, financing and ownership of the facility can rest with either the public or private partner. For example, the public agency might provide the financing, with the attendant costs and risks. Alternatively, the private party might provide the financing capital, generally in exchange for a long-term contract to operate the facility.

Further details about these variants are beyond the scope of this module. However, learners desirous of knowing the same are advised to consult the website of the National Council for Public Private Partnerships, USA (http://ncppp.org).

There are several basic characteristics of community-based tourism development that make public-private partnerships a possibility (UNESCAP, 2001). First, communities may not have the skills and experience in tourism management. Second, community tourism ventures take time to set up and require a process of intensive capacity building. Third, community tourism ventures may not be profitable when they are initiated.

Partnership is becoming a powerful tool for implementing CBT policies more effectively. PPPs enable the public sector to benefit from commercial dynamism, the ability to raise finances in an environment of budgetary restrictions, innovation and efficiencies, harnessed through the introduction of private sector investors who contribute their own capital, skills and experience. The positive characteristics of PPP arrangements for infrastructure development appear particularly attractive to developing countries like India given the enormous financing requirements, the equally large funding shortfall, the need for efficient public services, availability of a pool of private finance, growing market stability and privatization trends creating a favorable environment for private sector participation (Subramaniam, 2005).

Despite numerous advantages, certain negative aspects - a too large role for governments, partnerships lacking attention to market needs, disproportional investments, inefficiency of public administration, institutionalization of projects and lack of creativity - have to be taken into consideration before going in for any PPP based tourism development since these are antithetical to the spirit of CBT.

According to OECD (1997), good partnership involves a clear definition of roles, competencies, responsibilities and advantages both in public administrations and private enterprises. In particular, the public sector, as an agent of development, may help achieve optimal exploitation of public resources and services, safeguard the environment, and develop human resources. Partnerships must be based on agreements which show the economic benefits for the public/private sector and/or centre/periphery. More and more forms of partnerships are developed in almost all areas of tourism policy. Governments have to play an important role in new ways of organizing this co-operation, notably by defining a clear national strategy for tourism policy which will stimulate and guide innovative partnerships and give incentives to all individual partners to participate in the development.

The Akha Lodge: A Case Study of PPP in CBT

Akha (in Northern Laos) villagers - with their exotic outfits, ancient traditions and traditional way of life - don't usually sit down with urban businesspeople and hammer out business deals. But, that is the scenario set up by GTZ, a German development agency (www.gtz.de) and Exotissimo Travel (www.exotissimo.com). GTZ is working with Akha villagers to set up their own trekking tours in order to offer them an alternative means of income generation. And, Exotissimo has built a reputation as a leader in the travel service industry in South-East Asia. Dedicated offices are situated in Vietnam, Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar and Thailand. In total, we have 14 offices and more than 320 full-time staff.

This Public-Private Partnership coupled with Community-based Tourism (CBT) offers the opportunity for rural communities to access the potential of a global market while helping to minimize any negative impacts tourism development may bring. The model offers an opportunity for the tour company to invest in an authentic village based tour program without having to develop all the skills in community development approaches. The partnership between communities and tour operator is formalized through a contract, in which rights and responsibilities of both business partners are stated. The approach creates local ownership, jobs and sources of income, trains local personnel, and transfers business know-how and technology in a sustainable and participatory manner while at the same time adding an authentic experience to the tour operator's program.

Concluding Remarks

Raising awareness of all stakeholders involved in community-based tourism is essential for promoting an understanding of the beneficial link between conservation and community development. Awareness raising and information dissemination to the community allows for greater self-determination and informed decision-making. Awareness campaign is equally important to other stakeholders involved, as it leads to greater understanding and sensitivity toward the variables involved in implementing community-based tourism.

Conservationists and development professionals have tried to promote community-based tourism since the 1970s. The CBT was a popular intervention during the ecotourism boom of the 1990s. It is now being suggested as a form of pro-poor tourism. However, only a few projects have generated sufficient benefits to either provide incentives for conservation - the objective of ecotourism - or contribute to local poverty reduction.

Community-based tourism is a complex and nascent field of study, and much remains to be learned. Continued information sharing and dissemination of research results are needed to identify better solutions for linking sustainability to the tourism enterprise. Ongoing research is integral to understanding the means by which CBT can be made more economically, environmentally and culturally sustainable. Policy and action should promote continuing research through the provision of financial, academic, technical, and dissemination support.

REFERENCES

Africa Resources Trust (2005). Community Tourism in Southern Africa. Last accessed from www.resourceafrica.org on 26th August 2005.

Brandon, K. (1996). Ecotourism and Conservation: A Review of Key Issues. World Bank Environment Department. Paper No. 033. Washington. DC: World Bank.

Cooperrider. D.L. (1990). Positive Image. Positive Action: The Affirmative Basis for Organizing, in Srivastava. S., Cooperrider. D.L., and Associates, (eds) Appreciative Management and Leadership. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Liburd, J.J. (2004). NGOs in Tourism and Preservation – Democratic accountability and Sustainability in question. *Tourism Recreation Research, 29*(2), 105-110.

OECD (1997). *OECD Conference on Partnerships in Tourism*. Conference organized by the OECD, the Italian Department of Tourism and the City of Rome on 27-Oct-1997.

Pretty, J. N., Gujit, I., Scoones, I., Thompson, J., (1995). A Trainer's Guide for Participatory Learning and Action. Sustainable Agriculture Programme. International Institute for Environment and Development, 3 Endsleigh Street. London WCIH ODD, UK.

Responsible Ecological Social Tours (2005). Last accessed from www.rest.org.th on 28th August 2006.

Subramaniam, P. (2005). Partnership in tourism. In India Revisited: A symposium on reorienting our policy on tourism. *Seminar*, October, 19-24.

The Mountain Institute (2000). *Community-Based Tourism for Conservation and Development: A Resource Kit.* Washington: The Mountain Institute.

TPDCO (2005). Tourism Product Development Company. What is a Community-Based Tourism Project? Last accessed from www.tpdco.org on 25th August 2006.

Tuffin, B. (2005). Community-Based Tourism in the Lao PDR: An Overview. Last accessed from www.nafri.org.la on 25th August 2006.

UNESCAP (2001). ESCAP Tourism Review No. 22: Managing Sustainable Tourism Development. Last accessed from www.unescap.org on 26th August 2006.

Whelan. T., (ed) (1991). *Nature Tourism: Managing for the Environment*. Washington, D.C.: Island Press.

Wells. M., Brandon. K., Hannah, L. (1992*). People and Parks: Linking Protected Area*

Management with Local Communities. World Bank. WWF. USA1D. Washington D.C.

Worah, S., Svendsen, D., Ongleo, C. (1999). *Integrated Conservation and Development:*

A Trainer's Manual. WWF-UK, Godalming.

THE ENVIRONMENT IN THE BEGINNING OF THE 21ST CENTURY:

PROBLEMS AND CONSEQUENCES ON TOURISM

Karagiannis Stefanos

Applied Research at Market Services Lab.

Management and Economics School

Technological Educational Institute of Crete

ABSTRACT

Tourism development is affected by a number of environmental parameters that their effects can be visible in our daily lives as extreme weather conditions (cold or heat) appear on seasons that depict a different weather behavior. In this paper, we focus on the effects of the climatic changes on the tourism dynamics, while we stress out the relation between the environment and tourism.

Key words: ENVIRONMENT, POLLUTION, INDUSTRY, TOURISM

1. INTRODUCTION

When referring to environmental changes, it is more than obvious that it is not just an internal affair for a country but a global issue. Climate changes have been a worrying subject for the scientific community on a global scale, but have not been widely considered by common people.

Environmental changes, and thus human environment structure, is dependent on the kind of social evolution. Each historically descending society has its own specialized environmental behavior with regards to the nature as the living environment. From a financial aspect, through the intensity and way of exploiting nature (take tourism for example), the natural and finally the spiritual way, each society behaves according to the degree of intervention of human to nature that can result to his total alienation from it.

2. EFFECT FACTORS – NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

During the last forty years, people consumed more water, than what was consumed in the three past centuries[12]. Water natural resources as means of agricultural, tourist and energy development in the Greek area is the daily topic of interest for the simple farmer to the scientist-researcher. The percentage of the total quantity of salt water on earth is 97.5%, while only 2.5% is drinkable water, whose vast majority is in the form of ice on the poles (70%). The percentage of water that human has direct access to, is about 1%, of drinkable water, or about 0.0007% of the total earth water. Great draughts and desert phenomena will be faced, according to scientific research, in the Mediterranean basin in the years to come, because of the increasing temperature. On the contrary, Central Europe will become more susceptible to floods, while the northern parts of Europe will become more susceptible to ice periods, with obvious results for the countries constituting the EU. Models developed in Max Planck Institute of Meteorology, located in Hamburg and his director of research is Dr. Guy Brasseur, showed that Earth's temperature by 2100 will have risen from 2.1 ^{o}C to 4.1 ^{o}C[13]. Half of the quantity of the ice will be vanished, and by 2080 and on, the European vessels would be able to reach Japan, through the North Pole on the summer, without having to face any ice rocks. Even if the submission of CO_2 stopped now, the global temperature would continue to rise for another 200-300 years, as stated by Dr. Brasseur[14]. We can therefore understand that with these percentages available to people, it is at

1. [KeKK 98] Keki K.: "Defenseless the tourist the summertime", newspaper Kathimerini, pp.18, 19-07-98
2. [Agrok, 05] "The meteorological forecast of century", magazine Agroktima, pp.16, 04-01-2006
3. [Agrok 05] "The meteorological forecast of century", magazine Agroktima, pp.17, 04-01-2006

least a crime to pollute and destroy lakes (desert risk)[15], rivers and the direct water horizon.

The disorder caused to the aquatic environment (mostly indirect) from the waste of energy is possibly more important than the one caused by waste pollution. The greater part of energy used by the industrial society (heat production, earth exploitation, urban buildings, agriculture, foresting, geological researches and water barriers) affects and causes disorder to the ecosystem operation. This in turn has a direct consequence on the climate of each area. People (as earth beings), have a direct impact with the earth environment, but due to both the interdependency between ground and aquatic ecosystems, and the sensitivity of aquatic ecosystems, the pressure imposed on the ecological stability and on the environment, resulting from the evolution of our civilization, is reflected on the aquatic ecosystems. The consequences of this energy consummation are obvious in atmosphere as well, as it acts as a transfer channel between different ecosystems for a number of pollution factors. Therefore, it is more than obvious that the capability of the human affection on the environment seems to be greater than the capability of facing with their technological means the consequences of the environmental disorders caused.

2.1 Biological – Chemical Approach to human-oriented pollution sources

Human interaction to the natural environment can be historically distinguished in three sequential (and sometimes overlapping) phases[16].

2.1.1 Intense but specified pollution from industrial and urban wastes

This kind of pollution creates unhealthy conditions in the water that wastes fall (unpleasant smell and taste). Thus, their removal is very difficult if they are freed to the environment. However, their consequences are not so wide, if the relevant EU and government directives are followed. This pollution causes the further spreading of pathogenic organisms (diseases caused by the use of these waters). It is also

---

4. [PapM, 00B] Papanidis M. ‘The water leaves the desert…comes’, newspaper Express (Greece) pp.16, 23-7-00

5. [StefE 05] Dr. Eyr. Stefanoy Professor of Environmental Organic Chemistry of University Crete: “Environmental Chemistry”, pp. 89-98, September 2005

responsible for the reduction in the oxygen, thus creating the development of saprophytic organisms in these waters (e.g. organisms that are products of decomposition)

The problem of the specified manipulation of liquid wastes has been successfully faced an o global scale. Despite the fact that we will continue to depend on the need to develop more satisfactory waste disposal and removal techniques, we can still apply current know-how to the water-flow basins effectively. Towards this target, we should consider the dependence between water supply and waste removal on water flow basins. Even though we are far from developing an integral solution to this problem, it is obvious that this kind of specified pollution can dealt with the use of technology.

2.1.2 Pollution caused by chemical combinations.

By pollution synthetic combinations we consider the wastes of the modern industrial society: Synthetic organic combinations, mining products as phosphorous or other heavy minerals but also energy production wastes. These combinations are scattered using many transfer channels to the environment. In many cases they cause disorder to the operation of aquatic ecosystems while in some cases they can become harmful for human health. It has been calculated that daily people use 40000 of these combinations, while this number increases by 1000 annually.

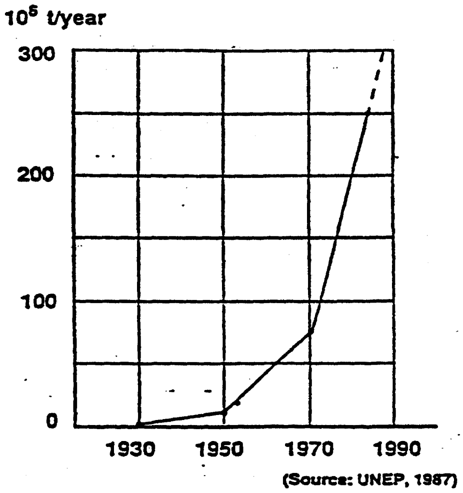


Figure1

A majority of there synthetically produced industrial combinations end up indirectly to the water reservoirs. This is done mainly through their use on household (e.g. detergents) or through agricultural waste disposal systems (pesticides) or even through atmosphere. Some of the combinations are very durable (e.g. they are not easily decomposed) and are eventually accumulated on aquatic ecosystems, affecting the abundance of species. The changes in the species variety resulting from changes in natural or chemical parameters will affect each species in a different way, altering in that way their abundance. In the next figure (figure 2) we present an example of the way a number of organisms is affected by the disorder caused by pollution. The number of species with low frequency (small number per species) is getting smaller; while very few of the species are abundant.

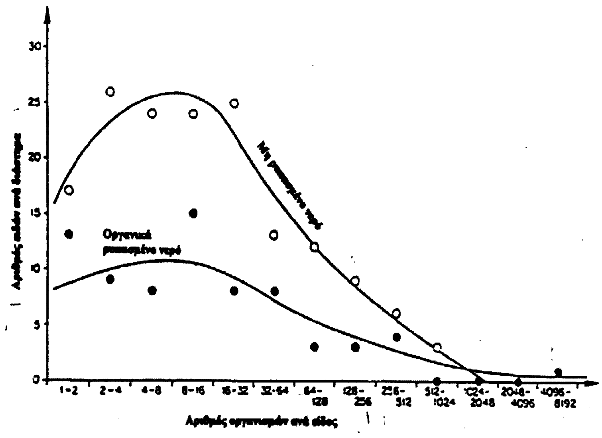


Figure 2

The removal operations of these substances, as self cleaning of the water, or their process in tanks of biological cleaning do not appear to be effective. On the contrary, with regards to pollution combinations, the registration of sales and production of a) DDT and b) PCB and the presentation of the resemblance of their diagrams, in accordance to the sediment accumulation ratio are depicted in figure 3 (depicting an ecosystem in Ontario lake – Canada), and is an important clue for Crete's ecosystems (Kourna lake – Chania, Agia lake, Almyros lake – Herakleion).

The technological evolution of our civilization has been more extensive than the natural evolution of species.

This resulted on the following remarks regarding the industrial countries:

a) Industrial activities have developed more extensively than the growth of population

b) Agricultural production, with the use of pesticides and fertilizers, has intensified.

c) Energy production ratios have raised exponentially

d) A large number of synthetic chemicals added in the biosphere the last decades do not resemble to natural substances and depict an extensive time life in the environment, because they are not directly decomposed. Some of them even if they do not present high toxicity, can cause disorder the self-organization of aquatic eco-systems destroying their capability of supporting the life they present. Other chemicals tend to accumulate on organisms becoming dangerous for human health.

The prediction of possible ecological consequences and problems arising from various pollutants is very important. This can not be achieved by evaluating the danger they impose on the basis of toxicity tests and a registration of their environmental consequences. On the contrary, a scientific approach for solving specific eco-toxicological problems is required to acquire a solution.

To be more specific, an evaluation method for proper solutions is required (on the basis of biochemical parameters) of the fate, the distribution, the tendency of bioaccumulation in food chain as well as the residence time of pollutants and their residual concentration in the environment. Also, a better understanding of the effect of these combinations in the ecosystems' operation is required.

1.1.1 Third-generation problems: effects on hydro-geochemical area

Humanity on its course of socio-economical evolution continues to use and manipulate successfully energy for the benefit of its civilization. Water as receptor does not only reflect these activities on flowing areas (basins)[17] but also the influence of different wide-scale emissions that are transferred through the atmosphere.

6. [UnivA 1995] Eduard Interwies, Ecologic, 'Ground and water', University Athens (Agronomics)-wwf gr, Athens 3-11-05

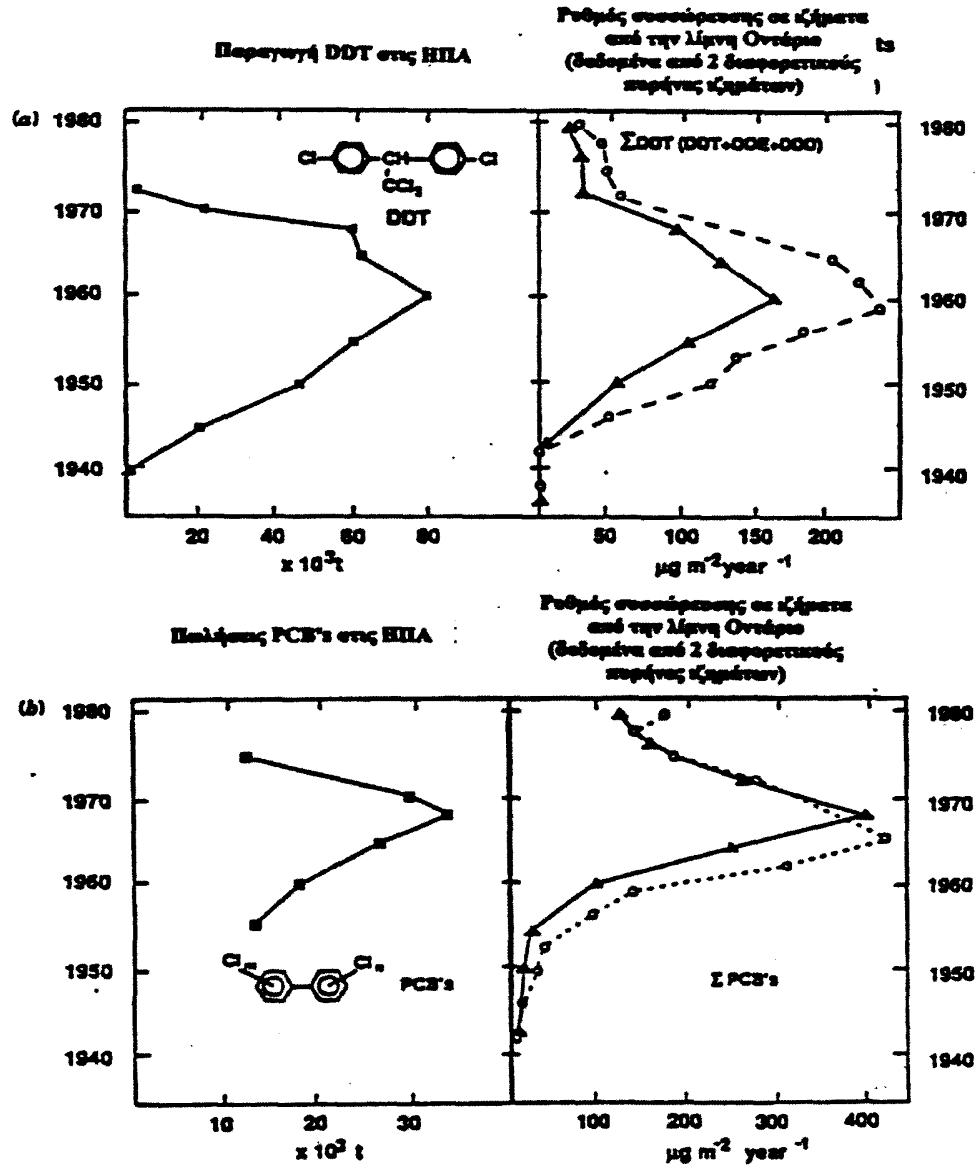

Παραγωγή DDT στις ΗΠΑ
(a)
1980
1970
1960
1950
1940
DDT
ΣDDT (DDT+DDE+DDD)
20 40 60 80
x 10³t
50 100 150 200
μg m⁻²year⁻¹
Πωλήσεις PCB's στις ΗΠΑ
(b)
PCB's
Σ PCB's
10 20 30
x 10³ t
100 200 300 400
μg m⁻² year⁻¹

Figure 3

Human effect can be observed by the rapid changes that happened during the last decades, in the chemical and biological properties of many coastline and natural waters. Oil combustion, natural gas combustion etc, results in the production of a large number of carbon, nitrogen, hydrogen, sulphur and heavy mineral combinations. Nitrogen and sulphur oxides can be easily converted to nitrogen and sulphuric acids that can be subsided in the form of acid rain, as it has been observed in many industrial cities of Greece.

Special interest is taken on combinations that can scatter in great distances and thus affect the ecology of natural waters. Even ejaculation of minerals in the atmosphere through industrial and agricultural activity (artificial erosion-mostly on the northern and middle Crete axis) seems to compete and sometimes exceed their natural movement (natural erosion)

2.2 Water cycle is primarily connected to the bio – or hydro-geochemical cycles.

Human beings tend to transmute to modifiers of the geochemical cycles and to factors of environmental changes on a global scale. They constitute the leading force in element and substance transfer from the solid surface of earth, and the chemical side-products produced affect the atmosphere negatively. Planet changes are formed up by complex interactions between inorganic, natural and biological process. People, however, do not always understand the negative phenomena imposed on the ecosystems by this interference.

The consequences and the results of these problems may not be obvious for some periods. Cause and result may happen in a totally different time. The identification of the sources or causes of some problems may be very difficult.

Air in its natural composition is of vital importance both for the necessary factors of life of people, and for animals and plantation.[18] Each interference to its natural composition may negatively affect the human, the flora and fauna life cycle.

Clear air is constituted by the following elements:

a) Oxygen (20.93 %)

---

7. [Kell 88] Kellner, Mr X.: Luft, in: Handbuch fuer Planung, Gestaltung und Schutz der Umwelt, Band 2, Muenchen 1988

b) Nitrogen (78.10%)

c) Argo (0.9325 %)

d) Carbon Dioxide (0.93%)

Also, a number of elements exist in traces (Neon, Helium and Krypton among others)

The number of forest deaths is by itself worrying. According to calculations in the former Czechoslovakia, 60% of their forests are dying. In former East Germany this percentage is about 50%, while in Poland it is around 40%. In western countries these phenomena are better. Around 35% of the France's active forests are dying, while in Switzerland and Austria this percentage is around 30 %. The situation is as dramatic when regarding water pollution, waste problems, and drinkable water supply. The problem is more dramatic in Eastern Germany however, where its chimneys release 18.5 grams of fog per m^3 of air. In reality this quantity is about 8.6 grams of fog per m^3, since in this quantity wastes thrown away by the chimneys are measured as well.

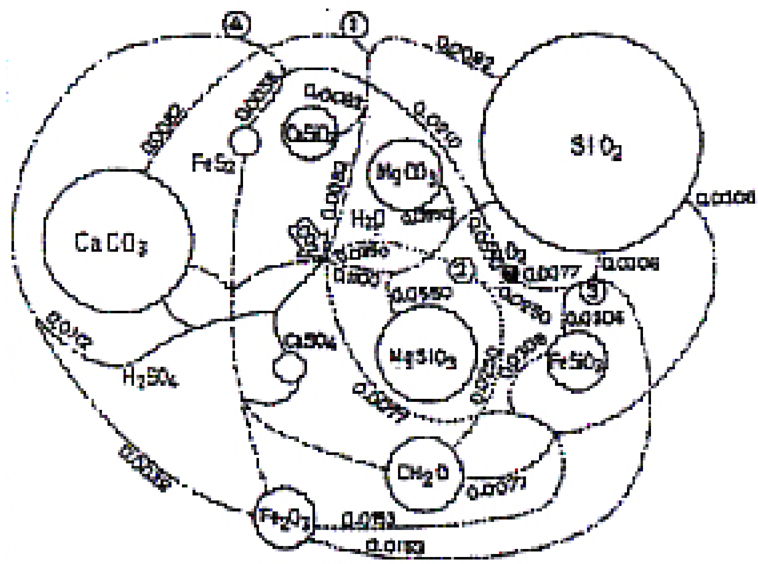


Figure 4

If this destruction rate continues as nowadays, this would directly imply that in the next 15 to 20 years one of the most productive industries of Austria would vanish: Tourism. The so-called environmental protection would put in risk 100,000 work places in the future, while a whole area would be uninhabited. The extent of the disaster is proven by the example of neighboring countries: Already 69% of the protected forests in the Alps are dying. This is proven by the estimation of the forest service of Bad Reichenhall, who was completed last summer.[19]

The relation between the different geochemical cycle elements, as carbon, sulphur and oxygen is very complicated. The most important geochemical tanks on a global scale (the surfaces of the cycles correspond to the size of the tanks), for the adjustment of the environment on the last 600 million years is depicted on the following figure (figure 4):

The lines between the different tanks depicted important flows: e.g. erosion reactions (reaction 1) as

$$CaSiO_3 + CO_2 \Leftrightarrow SiO_2 + CaCO_3 \qquad \text{Eq 1}$$[20]

The processes of photosynthesis and respiration that are depicted in a simplified way by the following equation and that are vital for the ecosphere:

$$CO_2 + H_2O \Leftrightarrow CH_2O + O_2 \qquad \text{Eq 2}$$[21]

It is important to point out the presence of Carbon Dioxide as a spot in the middle of the figure, depicting the fact that because it makes up a very small tank it is more susceptible to human changes.

An equation that approaches the pollution parameter of the environment and the Gross Natural Product (GNP) is the following:

---

8. [KarS 05] Karagiannis S. “Development of activities friendly to the Eco-Tourism: case study of Samaria in Crete”, Journal of Finance Informatics, Technological Educational Institute of Patras, volume I p.12, 2005

9. [KampA 00] Adamantia Kabioti: “2000DIS0714”, Doctorate Thesis, Chemistry of University Crete, July 2000

10. [KampA 00] Adamantia Kabioti: “2000DIS0714”, Doctorate Thesis, Chemistry of University Crete, July 2000

$$J = stable\,\mathrm{var}\,iables * \frac{I}{DA} * \frac{GNP}{C} * (1 - n)$$ [22]

Where I: population

DA: discharge area

GNP: Gross Natural Product

n: the efficiency of the environmental protection (e.g. recycling, waste production minimization, water processing)

C: per capita

Stable variables are inter-dependent parameters as Discharge Area.

Crete district and Eastern Mediterranean in general with regards to rainfall, has no relation to the districts of Macedonia, Epirus and Thessaly. It is closer to the climate of Egypt-Libya with which borders in the south[23]. This becomes more obvious by the tendency of having an extensive summer period during the last decade, which is good from a tourist aspect, if (there is always an if) it was not accompanied by a dramatic increase in the average temperature. Crete does not depict large rivers to supply drinkable water, large storage tanks both underground and on earth (barriers), in relation to the fact that rainfalls have dropped, according to studies of the Agricultural Department of the University of Athens, thus implying the inevitable requirement for protection of the aquatic sources. It is beyond doubt, that we can not consider evolution, agriculture,[24] and of course tourism in Crete, if the water efficiency is not solved, while although many agree that this is a general problem, yet in Crete the problem is not dealt with effectively.

---

11. [KampA 00] Adamantia Kabioti: “2000DIS0714”, Doctorate Thesis, Chemistry of University Crete, July 2000

12. [PapM 00 A] Papanidis M. ‘The water leaves the desert…comes’, newspaper Express (Greece) pp.16, 23-7-00

13. [PeKo 04] P. Pezaros-S. Koutsomytros¨: ‘Short examination of Greek Agriculture’, Hellenic

14. Ministry of Rural Development and Food (Statement), 27-01-06

CONCLUSION

Taking the aforementioned into account we realize that industries should adopt a more social and ecological confrontation towards environment. [25] There would be dangerous for the humanity to face new forms of air-pollution, water-pollution all caused by the above mentioned industrial societies[26]

REFERENCES

[KeKK 98] Keki K.: “Defenseless the tourist the summertime”, newspaper Kathimerini, pp.18, 19-07-98

[Agrok, 05] “The meteorological forecast of century”, magazine Agroktima, pp.16, 04-01-2006

[Agrok 05] “The meteorological forecast of century”, magazine Agroktima, pp.17, 04-01-2006

[PapM, 00B] Papanidis M. ‘The water leaves the desert…comes’, newspaper Express (Greece) pp.16, 23-7-00

[StefE 05] Dr. Eyr. Stefanoy Professor of Environmental Organic Chemistry of University Crete: “Environmental Chemistry”, pp. 89-98, September 2005

[UnivA 1995] Eduard Interwies, Ecologic, ‘Ground and water’, University Athens (Agronomics)-wwf gr, Athens 3-11-05

[Kell 88] Kellner, Mr X.: Luft, in: Handbuch fuer Planung, Gestaltung und Schutz der Umwelt, Band 2, Muenchen 1988

---

15. [25] [RoDi 94] Rokos Dimitris, Sciences and Environment in the end of the 20th century - Problems and Perspectives, National Metsovio University, Alternative Publicaation/Ecological Thought, 1994, p.p.31

16. [26] [PiMo 91] Pirosvesti Mirto, Management and Protection of Ecosystem, Ecology Section, Thessaloniki, 1990-1991, p.p.28

[KarS 05] Karagiannis S. “Development of activities friendly to the Eco-Tourism: case study of Samaria in Crete”, Journal of Finance Informatics, Technological Educational Institute of Patras, volume I p.12, 2005

[KampA 00] Adamantia Kabioti: “2000DIS0714”, Doctorate Thesis, Chemistry of University Crete, July 2000

[KampA 00] Adamantia Kabioti: “2000DIS0714”, Doctorate Thesis, Chemistry of University Crete, July 2000

[KampA 00] Adamantia Kabioti: “2000DIS0714”, Doctorate Thesis, Chemistry of University Crete, July 2000

[PapM 00 A] Papanidis M. ‘The water leaves the desert…comes’, newspaper Express (Greece) pp.16, 23-7-00

[PeKo 04] P. Pezaros-S. Koutsomytros¨: ‘Short examination of Greek Agriculture’, Hellenic Ministry of Rural Development and Food (Statement), 27-01-06

[RoDi 94] Rokos Dimitris, Sciences and Environment in the end of the 20th century - Problems and Perspectives, National Metsovio University, Alternative Publication/Ecological Thought, 1994, p.p.31

[PiMo 91] Pirosvesti Mirto, Management and Protection of Ecosystem, Ecology Section, Thessaloniki, 1990-1991, p.p.28

LITERATURE

Erdmenger Chr. – Burzacchini A. – Levett R. (1999)., Local Loops – How environmental management cycles contribute to local sustainability, Proceedings of the European Commission Advanced Study Course on Local ecoInstruments, Freiburg (15 – 22 May).

Research Project (Oct. 1993 – Febr. 2004)., Ecological Tourism in Crete – Explore the potential and opportunities to combine and promote leisure, recreation and cultural activities friendly to nature for Crete visitors.

Paulo Castro (2001)., The European Charter for Sustainable Tourism in Protected Areas: principles, methodology and application process, Portugal

Meyer M. (2001)., Implementation of the International Guidelines Tourism and Biological Diversity with the example of the World Heritage Site of Banska Stiavnica/Slovak Republic – Presentation on the International Conference on the Development of Ecotourism Thessalonica

Jan Jackson - Tourism Focus (1996)., The environmental programme of British Airways Holidays, UNEP

Daslav Ursic Vrslovic - Tourism Focus (1996)., The forecast of Tierra Del Fuego: the need to support sustainable ecotourism, UNEP

Barbara Jones and Tanya Tear - Tourism Focus (1996)., Australia's national ecotourism strategy, UNEP

Anja Van Aerschhot (1996)., Tampere Hall: an environmentally conscious congress venue in Finland, UNEP

Chan W. Wilco & Lam C. Joseph (2001)., Environmental costing of sewage discharged by hotels in Hong Kong, International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 13/5, 218-226

Euthimiou K. (1995), Prophetic vision of "Saint Johanes" for the ecological catastrophe, Newspaper «Kathimerini», Athens, p.p.14

WWF (2004)., Urban Green: The green breath of the town is getting lost – intervention texts of WWF Hellas for the communal places of green

Environmental Codes of Conduct for Tourism (1995)., III-D. 2-UNEP

Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft Forschung und Kunst (1996)., Wege zum Autofreien Tourismus, BM- WFK, Osterreich

THE SCOPE OF CHANGE STRATEGY IN TOURISM ENTERPRISES

Thanasouras Gr. Athanasios

PHD Candidate

Sakellaris Konstantinos

PHD Candidate

ABSTRACT: Change is an evolving influence and an inevitable element of both societal and organizational vitality. Organizational change can be instructed intentionally by managers, it can be forced by certain changes in strategy or processes, it can grow gradually within a division or it can take place due to external demands. It can have an impact on all facets of the function of a tourism enterprise.

Taking into serious consideration certain change and growth strategies, managers can be able not only to ensure success in implementing key organizational changes, but also to compete successfully in the market arena and gain competitive advantage.

Keywords: Change management, Strategy, tourism enterprise/business, competitive advantage

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, with the rapid changes in technology, customer services and choices, increasing input costs, complicated products and, generally, a robust terrestrial competition, enterprises encounter a difficult situation, regarding change management, decision making and implementation and corporation of a wide variety of strategies (Haring et al., 1999). The above can be integrated with the fact that tourist managers have been criticized because of their inability to reinvent themselves in face of the fundamental changes in the external environment. The tourism industry is in a state of unique change. Undeniably, the new millennium has brought exceptional change and transformation. At this point it can be advantageous to mention events such as war, terrorism, political upheaval, airline restructuring, which have a deep impact on tourism enterprises. However, it comes into view that many executives are incapable of managing change and finds it increasingly difficult to clarify the impact these events are likely to have on tourism organizations. Facing this reality, enterprises should give their best and adopt an effective and appropriate strategy, in order to be competitive and successful.

Apart from the above, two implications should be taken into serious consideration, in order to be able to capture the framework of tourism industry and apply any change model and strategy in a tourism enterprise. Firstly, tourism is a complex product and it can be organized by type of travel, destination/activity type, travel cost/style and source market. Secondly, tourism enterprises must be seen under some distinctiveness, that is, customers are obliged to consume the tourist product the exact moment which is produced.

There are plenty of change models and growth strategies that dealing with managing change. Most of the fundamental theories pay attention to planned change, in order to improve, in some significant way, the operational efficiency of an organization. These models underline that an organization needs a clear vision of where it wants to move, a strategy of how it can achieve its goals and a method of keeping an eye and appraising where it stands in the progress procedure. If you don't know where you're going, you're bound to end up somewhere (Hill and Jones, 1995).

Strategy and Competitive advantage

Before proceeding in analyzing the main indicated issues, it would be beneficial to critically evaluate strategy and competitive advantage, in order the reader to be able to fully understand the specific sections of this paper.

STRATEGY: "Strategy is the direction and scope of an organization over the long term: which achieves advantage of an organization through its configuration of resources within a changing environment, to meet the needs of markets and to fulfill stakeholder expectations" (Johnson and Scholes, 1999, p. 10). Hill and Jones (1995) stressed that the key goal of strategy is to accomplish a competitive advantage. In order a company to be able to achieve this objective needs a two-divided stab. Firstly, an organization has to follow strategies that make use of its existing ‘core competencies’, that is, its resources and capabilities and, secondly, an enterprise needs to develop innovative competencies, so as to improve the firm’s long-term competitive position. According to Mintzberg (1998) strategy can be defined as ‘pattern, position, plan, ploy and perspective’. Pattern depicts a sequence of activities undertaken continually with or without a strategy. Hence, pattern may involve ‘tactics’ which may or may not have emerged from strategy. Position represents the ‘niche’ or the area an enterprise takes up and offers its resources, in order to deal with this framework. A strategic area can be acquired contrary to one competitor or too many of them. Strategy as plan is the procedure of creating a plan previous to any activity that occurs intentionally. That is why plan is a direction to go after and the pragmatic steps to carry, so as to achieve certain tasks. Ploy can be defined as a clear-cut ‘manoeuvre’ intended to outsmart competitors. Finally, perspective conveys the nature of an organization, the urge force of a firm and the communal philosophy.

COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE: Competitive advantage is the term that it is employed to designate the approaches in which an organization effectively carry out business strategies aiming at ‘product differentiation, cost leadership and focus’ (Porter, 1985). According to Hill and Jones (1995), in the differentiation strategy the overall goal of the organization is to accomplish a competitive advantage by generating a product or service that is perceived by the customer to be inimitable in some significant route. In the focus strategy the organization wishes to ‘outperform competitors’ by attempting to produce products and services at a cost lower than the competitors, whilst the focus strategy varies from the other two, mainly because it is aimed at serving the requirements of a ‘limited customer group or segment’. It pays attention to a certain market ‘niche’ that can be delineated geographically, by segment of the product area or by the nature of the customer. What is more, Hill and Jones (1995) called attention on four factors that develop competitive advantage, namely, ‘efficiency, quality, innovation and customer responsiveness’. The above elements are ‘generic’ in terms of characterizing four central methods of reducing cost and accomplishing differentiation that any enterprise can embrace, no matter the industry, the products or the services that fabricates. It would be noteworthy to illustrate that the factors are closely related to each another.

Fundamental issues for change management

Bearing in mind that it has become more than apparent that a paradigm change for tourism strategy is inevitable, the following future criteria should be met by tourism enterprises, respecting change management:

- Optimum impartiality from political settings in the field of marketing.

- Maximum possible consideration of the customer-oriented destination notion at the formulation of management systems, cultivating simultaneously regional understanding with the objective to make stronger the identity of inhabitants and tourist performers within the region. Page (2003) stressed that change illustrates the development of tourism through the ages, since tourism is a vibrant phenomenon. Much of the change is based on the interaction between the demand for and supply of tourist prospects through time. In other words, destinations developed for tourists and tourists visited them, therefore generating an interaction; this is recognized in all forms of tourism, regarding the movement from origin area to destination and vice versa. The detection and evolution of these destinations, also, demonstrates elements of change through time. Glaesser (2003) highlighted that many changes, particularly in the tourism sector, originate and are consequences of the perceived problems of destinations and tourist products and are infrequently the result of material or target deficits.
- High level of autonomy of the tourism enterprise. Pechlaner (1999) paid attention to the big influence of the destination organization on the facilities necessitated for a holiday stay. Only destination firms with the power and the potential, as a result of necessary resourcing, to put through not only certain guidelines for product development and offer design in the destination, but also to position these products on the market, have long-term prospects to create additional value.
- Adequate potential and fiscal resources for the establishment of a self-sufficient brand or several brands, depending upon their required range of influence (Laesser, 1999).

Tschurtschenthaler (1999) pointed out the vital objectives of change management, which are articulated as follows:

ü New definition of a tourism enterprise’s responsibilities, regarding a new notion of destination.

ü Configuration of the prerequisites at the tourist basis and at the employees of tourism enterprises in terms of education and life long training.

ü Creation of task-oriented forms of collaboration, for the absolute realization of those responsibilities, which are not provided sufficiently by individual firms, owing to the free-rider position.

ü Seek for institutional forms of cooperation, making available the basis for task-oriented cooperation with reference to content and financing.

ü Ensuring a widen horizon for these forms of collaboration. Dimensions of cooperation have to change with increasing globalization.

In view of the peculiarities of the tourist product as a set of services, the most important task to guarantee minimal internal connection of production within the target areas is allocated to the tourism enterprises. Bieger and Weibel (1998) made a list of explicit problems for cooperative marketing and change management of tourism enterprises:

- Tourism enterprises are too much inward oriented and disregard the market.
- Deficiently optimized production costs, due to the fact that too many services are provided at the same time in sub-optimally sized individual firms.
- Unproductive service chains and the consequential gaps of integration.
- Very political and too few entrepreneurial tourism enterprises.
- Too much attention is paid to the legitimization of tourism in the population.
- Neutrality and political structures, which create few innovations in the field of marketing.
- The significance of market research is undervalued, because of its public-goods characteristic, with investments in market research related to as insignificant.
- Deficits of 'know-how', respecting management and marketing of tourism enterprises.

Furthermore, a clear understanding of the organization is needed, in order to select and implement a new strategy because is the basic condition to a prosperous alteration program. Eight steps are necessary for change management; to 'clarify the scope and scale of the proposed change initiative', to locate a change team, to give people the opportunity to understand why change is needed, to listen to people's worries, to 'develop a motivation vision', to layout and inform, to implement by entrusting people to embrace responsible manners and, eventually, to 'incorporate change into the culture of the organization'. In addition, as Harrison and John (1998) observed, in tourism enterprises stakeholders must be put in a hierarchy level, in order the more essential of those to be extensively noticed during the strategy implementation.

Also, the firm must pay attention to the 'CBM' procedure that is Capability Based Marketing, in order to alter its strategy in the most efficient way. 'CBM' process is the positional audit in line with objectives, enhancing capability, determine desired position and networking move, so that the selection and the implementation of a strategy should pass through the investigation of where the capabilities come from. The organization needs to try hard to make the objectives clear, must examine and explore the capabilities and deeply evaluate the relationships with key target markets and pertinent stakeholders. The importance of the strategic management process emphasized Harrison and John(1998), who talked about the analysis of the stakeholders, the strategic route, the strategy conception and the 'strategy implementation and control'.

Specifically, according to Harrison and John (1998), it is vital for the organization to concentrate on the strategic management process. That is the 'environmental and organizational analysis', the strategic objective, the strategy conception, and the 'strategy implementation and control'. At this point it should be taken into severe account that strategy conception involves the 'corporate-level strategy formulation', choosing the particular domains that the firm will contend, the 'business-level strategy formulation', which is referred to how the enterprise will strive in the selected areas and the 'functional-level strategy formulation', which areas such as finance, marketing, human resources, operations and exploration can cooperate with each other in order to accomplish the 'business-level strategy'.

The first step is focused on the 'Broad Environment', the 'Operating Environment' and the 'Organizational Analysis'. Broad Environment' includes technological alterations, socio-cultural regiments, global financial forces, terrestrial lawful and political forces. 'Operating Environment' comprises customers, competitors, fiscal mediators, local societies, unions, government offices and executives. 'Organizational Analysis' includes all the stakeholders and procedures that take place in the organization.

The second step pays attention to organizational goal, to business interpretation, to organizational extent and understanding and to 'organizational ethics'. The third step involves the 'corporate-level strategy formulation', the 'business-level strategy formulation' and the 'functional-level strategy'. The last step describes not only the necessary systems and structures that are extremely important for the organization so as to achieve strategic goals, but also the evaluation and the suitable adoptions of the mission, the objectives and the strategies. Many leaders require a very robust knowledge background to make decisions about options for restructuring without help. They must cooperate with other consultants, so as to comprehend the options that in the future, probably, will be in a debate with a dominant partner.

Moreover, according to Hudson (1999), the managing change is an important ability, because tourism enterprises face 'a particularly tough change management agenda', stakeholders' anticipation is on the increase and the principles of change management exist in an extensive range of procedures. Apart from that, Doyle (1998, p.27) focused on core competence. "The real foundation of the company is in its portfolio of capabilities. Top management's task is to decide what the core capabilities should be. This will depend upon what skills have been inherited and what vision they have of the evolution of the firm's markets. What capabilities will provide the opportunity for market leadership?".

In recent years many of the environmental changes become unexpected, impulsive and tense. In this environmental framework is much more difficult to adjust to and design a particular strategy. You need to be more flexible rather than to concentrate on trying to foretell the skill. Change constantly demands insight and adaptation skills. The above is strictly associated with the qualifications of performers in the tourism sector. Reorganization of tourism enterprises, concerning contents and organization itself has to be essentially supported from inside, making high qualified executives and employees unquestionably essential.

The basic features of different change strategies

LEWIN'S MODEL

Lewin (1951) developed a model of dealing with change, which was urbanized later by Schein (1964). The 'three-phases' model, as Martin (2001) pointed out, affirms that any kind of situation can exist due to the fact that there is a steadiness between the 'forces' that have an impact on this particular situation. These forces take place in contrasting directions, since some of them are 'driving' for change, whilst others are 'restraining' the change, as they are urging the contradictory direction. It is presented in many books as the 'forcefield analysis model'. Lunch (1997) claimed that there are three stages that integrated with Lewin's 'change process'. In the first phase, which is the 'unfreezing', it is essential the old behavior to be perceived as unacceptable and, consequently, must be brought to an end, in order the change to crop up. The individual or the group of individuals must feel this need for change and under no circumstances this need should be inflicted.

The second stage, which is the 'moving to a new level', includes the search for new options and alternatives, the examination of innovative values, as well as the altering of organizational structure. Information are still available, so as the new situation to be verified. In the third stage, which is the 'refreezing', having identified the pleasing situation refreezing occurs 'at the new level'. It is likely that optimistic underpinning and encouragement can give a serious hand of assistance in the decision-making process. For instance, pleasant news, concerning the new situation, may possibly be disseminated with a variety of information about changes in culture, changes in the structure, reformation of investment assessments.

KANTER, STEIN AND JICK'S 'BIG THREE' MODEL

Lunch (1997) observed that Kanter, Stein and Jick associated the three basic forms taken by the change procedure with three groups of individuals engaged in the change process, in order to develop a 'three-stage process' for managing change. The former includes three forms. These are; the changing character of the organization, because if the environment of the enterprise changes the organization will, definitely, take action and react. For instance, if the political perspectives of the government alter, the firm may need to respond to this modification. Harmonization and alterations concerns when a company crosses through the stages of its 'life-cycle'. Undoubtedly, the relationships within the organization shift as a consequence of becoming older and bigger in size.

Also, it is of huge importance for a company to be able to control its political characteristics. For example, a change strategy from being client-oriented to manufacture-oriented would be escorted by a modification in the power equilibrium between these two events. The latter involves three fundamental characteristics. Specifically, these are; 'change strategists', who are accountable for leading the strategic change in the firm and might not be responsible for the full implementation, 'change recipients', who perceive the whole change program with anxieties and insecurities depending on the kind of change and how it is portrayed and 'change implements', who have straight accountability for change management issues.

KOTTER AND SCHESINGER'S MODEL

Martin (2001) argued that a contingency approach to change is mirrored in the work of Kotter and Schesinger. They established a number of management styles for those coped with managing change. To begin with the first strategy of 'education plus communication' it is figured out that this style is based both on a change method of comprehending things and reasonableness. If the personnel is aware of why change is needed it would be possible to support the idea of change and acknowledge the need for it. The second style of 'participation plus involvement' is concentrated on the concept that if people are capable of participating in the change procedure it would be easy to go along with it. The relationship among the employees is going to be improved, since they will work together and, so, a more effectual change in the future will be organized. The third style of 'facilitation plus support' it can be appropriately employed in situations where the complexity was one of being capable of dealing with the change route or the new one condition.

The fourth style of ‘negotiation plus agreement’ focuses attention on the fact that whatever the differences are these can be solved through agreement. It may be integrated with ‘problem-solving’ situations and ‘trade-off’ circumstances. For example, the working conditions can be changed owing to the higher wages. The fifth strategy of ‘manipulation plus co-option’ represents a procedure of arrangement of events and alliances, so as to ensure that a certain result will be more likely to be achieved. In a very genuine meaning the above element symbolizes a manipulation of proceedings. Co-option can be captured in terms of turning aside opposition through straight participation. The last style involves ‘explicit plus implicit coercion’. Change, based on this strategy, depicts force and menace. Its basic objective is to accomplish obedience and it is, absolutely, not interested in generating dedication.

THE FIVE FACTORS THEORY OF STRATEGIC CHANGE

Lunch (1997) stressed that, as Pettigrew and Whipp observed from an experimental study of strategic change at four organizations, their assumptions were that there were five consistent elements that are included in a flourishing change management program. To be more explicit, ‘environmental assessment’ is of acute importance, since strategy formation comes out continually from this procedure. ‘Leading change’ and ‘linking strategic and ‘operational change’ are extremely important, because the former illustrates that the type of leadership can only be evaluated if we take into account certain functions of an organization, while the latter implicates a combination of dictatorial, in terms of a particular strategy, with developing, in terms of permitting progress over time.

Furthermore, the ‘strategic human resource management’ is vital for an enterprise, as it comprises the abilities, knowledge and features of an organization and, except for this, different people manage differently other people. ‘Coherence in the management of change’ contains a more complicated structure, because it endeavors to merge the previous four factors and to provide four balancing helpful methods (‘consistency, consonance, competitive advantage and feasibility’). Also, Pettigrew and Whipp added two extra elements for each factor (the ‘primary conditioning features’ and the ‘secondary actions and mechanisms’), in order to assist the attempt of an enterprise to develop not only an inside stable focused approach to change, but also to be able to tailor successfully external organizational changes.

THE '7S' MODEL

Lunch (1997) underlined that a renowned model, which was developed by Mckinsey, implies that the fundamental factors of an enterprise are; 'strategy, structure, systems (hard elements), style, staff, skills (soft elements) and shared values'. All the above components are interrelated with one another and, apart from that, shared values are in the center trying to hold everything composed. This model assumes that all the elements are equally significant. During the implementation of a strategy management must take into serious consideration that it is necessary to take on a combined conspire, in order to deal with all of the seven elements, both separately and jointly.

Basic growth strategies

1 ANSOFF'S MODEL

Kotler (1997) stressed that the business venture should be capable of identifying whether or not there are any opportunities for improving its subsisting businesses' performance. Ansoff has suggested a practical agenda for finding out "new intensive growth opportunities called a product/market expansion grid" (Kotler, 1997, p.78). The primary consideration of the venture is whether it could achieve more market share with its existing products in their existing markets (market-penetration strategy). Then it should be concerned about whether it can attain new markets for its existing products (market - development strategy). The next step is to consider whether it can develop new products of promise attention to its existing markets (product - development strategy). The last step is to take into account that it should reconsider the opportunities to develop new products for innovative markets (diversification strategy).

1.1 MINTZBERG'S MODEL

According to Mintzberg (1998) there are four perceptions on growth; 'financial, strategic, structural and organizational'. The fiscal growth involves the development of the venture as profitable body, rises in assets, values, revenues, outlays and investment to accomplish earnings and, except for this, it provides an estimate of the success of the business. The structural growth indicates the tasks and roles that managers should carry out, the communication associations and the resource control systems. It represents the shifts that exist in the means that business sorts out its internal system. The strategic growth signifies how the venture develops its capabilities in order to take advantage of an incidence in the market arena, as well as the shape of prospects that the venture utilizes so as to establish a sustainable competitive advantage. The organizational growth not only includes the shifts that occur in the culture and outlooks as it expands, but also the alteration that must occur in the role of the entrepreneur and the leadership approach as the venture attempts to become a larger enterprise.

1.2 GREINER'S MODEL OF EVOLUTION AND REVOLUTION

In the Greiner's model several factors are of crucial importance. Firstly, grown should be seen under some particular circumstances, which are specific stages accompanied by periods of revolution. Secondly, a holistic view of the business is extremely important and thirdly all the phases in the growth process are interrelated with one another and they are influenced by the history of the organization. Evolution stages entail; 'creativity, direction, delegation, coordination and collaboration', while revolution stages appoint 'leadership, autonomy, control and red-tape' (Lunch, 1997).

Positive indications and drawbacks of different change models

The above different approaches to change have been considered as very beneficial but some authors have detected certain disadvantages also. Specifically, according to Lunch (1997) 'prescriptive' models (Lewin's model, Kanter, Stein and Jick's 'Big Three' model) are very simple to be understood and can be effortlessly employed to a wide variety of situations. They are capable of both making a comparison with the distinct goals and depicting the alternatives that an organization may need to create if the resources are restricted. In addition, the models have the ability to offer a broad general idea of an organization and to provide a plan, respecting the 'demands on the resources' of an enterprise, embracing people, investment, cash flow and substantial assets. Except for this, the firm has the likelihood to supervise the settled plan diagram when it is putted into action and, hence, can make the evaluation of the progress that is being completed. Johnson and Scholes (1999) observed that while the prescriptive models may produce a 'flux' condition in the organization, increase conflict exists. But, it can certainly be helpful in managing change, since it can smooth the progress of the debate of various points of view and assist 'challenge and surface what is taken for granted'. Also, refreezing processes may be needed to corroborate the enterprise's reliability of the altered pattern. In other words, managers may need to take into account ways of indicating 'symbols' of change or change the organizational structure or even change the daily routines.

On the other hand, in the prescriptive models, as Lunch (1997) argued, is estimated a supposition that it is likely to shift evidently from one condition to another. Taking into consideration that the environment could be unstable and highly dynamic, the new target situation seems vague. Apart from that, as Johnson and Scholes (1999) underlined, in the nonexistence of a vital and external force for change there is possible the need to manage the unfreezing procedure. But, managing the unfreezing process is not a simple thing, because managers have to search for convincing reasons for why change is needed and give emphasis on external problems, seek ways of indicating emblematically the need for change or try to make inside changes. What is more, Lunch (1997) highlighted that the assumption made, regarding that the new 'refrozen' situation is achievable, may be impractical, especially if the political background of the enterprise stays in 'flux'. Having identified that the prescriptive models lack of consultation and exchange of ideas, this postulation can de a real drawback, since some cultural approaches typified by 'power-building' and robust competition.

In addition, it may be unclear when the new refrozen situation has been accomplished (the state might be 'soft-frozen'), because a considerable amount of long-term investment and principal learning of new processes are required for the new state. It is figured out a concentration on the burden of change on the involved personnel. This could be advantageous in some certain state of affairs. But, in situations where the co-operation of the engaged people is, definitely, needed or the common values work on a supportive style, the prescriptive models may be completely unsuitable. According to Martin (2001), a manager searching to employ these models is totally left to find out the forces acting on the conditions for themselves. Thus, different explanations are likely to be established between people. In other words, it is of little importance to the particular manager to cope with his/her own situation.

Furthermore, concerning Kotter and Schlesinger's model, as Martin (2001) emphasized, the education plus communication style, which is a sluggish procedure, can offer substantial resistance through the entrance to a wide range of information. If the personnel of a tourism enterprise are utterly convinced about the change they will provide their essential help in the implementation phase. On the contrary, there are some problems. Johnson and Scholes (1999) pointed out that it could be very time consuming, especially if many people are assigned to the change process. Thus, the route of progress may be very vague. Also, 'top-down' communication meets a lot of difficulties; the people who are attached to changes in strategy growth and planning change methods may be consequently significant. In the participation plus involvement style, as Martin (2001) highlighted, the people who are dedicated to the implementation stage of the change map will be supplied with any pertinent information by the involved people. The outcome of such an approach will be undeniably of higher quality than any other decisions undertaken without this specific method.

However, this strategy can take a very long time, particularly if the involved people make the mistake of designing an improper change. Johnson and Scholes (1999) argued that it is difficult for those who established such procedures to maintain the ability to interfere in this approach. The facilitation plus support style, as Martin (2001) stressed, provides an opportunity in order to come to stipulations with the evolution, as well as to develop certainty during the change. Particularly, this approach works better than the other approaches in adjusting problems and difficulties. Conversely, this strategy can be time-consuming and, except for this, the enterprise can spend a great quantity of money and still be unsuccessful.

Moreover, the negotiation plus agreement style is from time to time a comparatively uncomplicated method to evade main confrontation. But, under some circumstances it can be costly, especially if it notifies others to work together for acquiescence. The manipulation plus co-option style can be a low-cost approach to resistance tribulations and it can, also, be a moderately rapid method. The fundamental problems with this strategy are in being misunderstood and exposed. If people believe that are being manipulated this could produce potential future problems. The last style of explicit plus implicit coercion is a very quick method, which can overwhelm easily any kind of resistance. For instance, it may be necessary if the organization is confronting a crisis. On the other hand, it can be very hazardous, primarily if it abandons people uncontrolled at 'initiators'.

1.3 Additionally, according to Lunch (1997), the 'emergent' model of Pettigrew and Whipp is widely used in many organizations and it has the capability to let the strategy to expand as further knowledge is gained of the strategic situation. It takes into consideration the human being and major issues that concerned people, such as motivation and consultation and seems that it makes prescriptive models impractical in some situations. The part of the implementation phase is re-examined, in order to become a vital fraction of the 'strategy development process'. It can be not only flexible and adapt very rapidly to both internal and external changes, notably in 'fast-moving' markets, but also has the potential to include in the change process two key elements; culture and politics.

1.4 Although the simplicity of employing this model is its ultimate strength, it is also its most important flaw. Some of the Five Factors are so complicated that cannot provide a robust managerial help on the fundamental subjects included in strategic change. Consequently, some of the Factors need to be encountered with vigilance. Apart from that, the increased instability of the environment is presumed as an explanation for the emergent models. This kind of generalization about the environment requires experiential confirmation, since there are a huge number of environments that are usually conventional. When an enterprise comes up with a 'short-term unforeseen crisis' the 'long-term learning model' is of little practical value, because it is difficult to combine the learning that has already exist with the crisis. In some cases, the crisis may partially have occurred because the learning was erroneous.

Eventually, regarding the '7S' model, Lunch (1997) argued that the context of this model consists a way of observing an enterprise and what supplies to its successful character. It is capable of obtaining the magnitude of the associations between the seven elements. This model provides a vital message that must be figured out by all managers when they are coping with change. That is, emphasis must be given not only on the hard elements of management (systems), but also on the soft features, such as culture. However, Lunch (1997) claimed that the model presents some inadequate evidence, concerning what makes up more efficient strategy and implementation. It is noticeable the lack of the 'how and the why of inter-relationships'. Consequently, it is estimated a major flaw in improving the linkages between the seven elements. Important areas, such as 'innovation, customer-driven service and quality', that are very beneficial for corporate strategy are completely disregarded by the '7S' model.

Why businesses failure and critical success factors (CSFs)

Many researchers have emphasized that to go out of business is very easy at any time. The majority of businesses fail the first three years of their operation. Principal reasons include; marketing, management, business scheduling, issues of funding, finance, demand and 'capitalization' at the start-up. The above fact is inevitably correlated with the strength and weakness of the several barriers to survival. Bygrave (1994) recognized vital factors that an enterprise must take into severe account. In particular, factors such as how vigorous is the competition in certain markets or how vulnerable is the venture to competitors that use innovative technology or even what specific costs would be implicated to increasing market consciousness for a certified product are extremely significant. Apart from that, if the markets are focused or distributed and whether the venture is performing to its full capacity or is manufacturing potential is below aptitude, as well as if the venture attempts to produce a variety of products and services that is too broad for the resources at its removal, can play an immense part for the continued existence of the business venture.

Moreover, a tourism enterprise must take into consideration either if there is a need to improve the skills level of their personnel due to the new technology or to meet the rising needs of neither the customers nor whether or not government set of laws or markets conditions have changed the quality stipulations. It is estimated that where ‘barriers to entry’ are low closure rates appear to be very high, while where barriers to entry are high the closure rates are virtually decreased. According to Wickham (2001), what should be of vital importance is not that businesses fail, but the approach that they take towards failure, considering it as an opportunity to acquire knowledge.

What is more, there are some common factors that should be behind every new successful business venture. In particular, factors such as “the venture exploits a significant opportunity, the opportunity it aims to exploit is well-defined, the innovation on which is based is valuable, the entrepreneur brings the right skills to the venture, the business has the right people, the organization has a learning culture and its people a positive attitude, the effective use of network, financial resources are available and the venture has clear goals and its expectations are understood” (Wickham, 2002, p. 126-127) are extremely significant for the organization. Also, Zien and Buckler (1997) highlighted the imperative of the cultural and organizational aspects in establishing business success. Sorretino and William (1995) argued that a firm should pay attention to the market needs more willingly than the technological capabilities and, except for this, in order to capitalize on success the enterprise must select the market state of affairs that are the most propitious, such as the lack of a potential competitor or a tiny number of opponents. Hill and Jones (1995) emphasized the important role of luck in success. However, to support the notion that success is totally a substance of luck is to ‘strain credibility’.

There are many questions a tourism enterprise can ask, respecting how change strategy can assist its customers. For instance, when service improvement and cost savings are the top priority for the top management then questions, such as how we can employ the information that we have obtained about the individual clients in order to help them to do business with the organization or will the enterprise be at a major drawback if the competitors supply these competences to customers earlier than our firm, are of crucial importance.

According to Bandyo (2002), the analysis of the CSFs is an extremely important tool for the organization, since it endeavors to evaluate the strengths and weakness of presented systems and appraises the information requirements of those systems. Hence, it has the potential to link a firm's business needs with its information techniques requirements. Ward and Griffiths (1996) pointed out that the CSFs could be concluded in a hierarchy level with each stage to have an impact on the ones underneath it. Specifically, there are four levels. The first is the 'industry level', which indicates that all the companies that compete in a market have parallel CSFs. The second is the 'organization level', which illustrates that a firm's total business objectives are reliant on the success of its overall CSFs. The third is the 'business level', which demonstrates the appropriate realistic strategies that should be strong-minded. For example, CSFs at this division could be the marketing tools employed by the marketing division. The last one is the 'management level', which exemplifies that the success of an organization is strongly correlated with the leadership abilities of the firm's managers.

In addition, Hammel (2000), cited in Bandyo (2002), argued that the 'core strategy' of the company, the way an enterprise chooses to compete in the marketplace, is of crucial importance. So, the firm's mission and goals must be well defined and strategically updated, in order to provoke competitors. To be more specific, regarding the mission of the tourism business it can be articulated the notion that a distinct mission can assist the firm in several ways. To be more explicit, it provides confidence for further analysis of the venture and it identifies the 'scope' of the business. It enunciates the entrepreneurs' vision, by offering a vital guide for setting goals and by organizing different internal stakeholders. In addition, it elucidates strategic alternatives, it promotes communication to substantial shareholders, and it functions as a reminder for the clients and the suppliers, as well as it supplies a continuous compass reading during times of change. However, the mission must put in a nutshell all the useful information and it must be appropriately urbanized and expressed, so as to be successful and to add value to the performance of the tourism business.

Apart from mission, Wickham (2001) emphasized the importance of vision, which identifies a 'destination' that is shaped from probabilities and not certainties. It is a very vigorous tool for the management of a tourism organization in a variety of things. Specifically, it gives to the entrepreneurs a serious hand of assistance in order to delineate their objectives and makes available an acute sense of direction. It not only encourages the entrepreneur when the situation becomes tough, but also leads the creation of strategy for the business venture. It plays a tremendous role in cheering the entrepreneur's communication and leadership strategy. It can be employed to catch the attention of people to the company and can stimulate them to corroborate it, as well as to communicate what the industrialist wants to accomplish to other people. Fundamentally, enterprise needs clear a vision of where it wants to move, a strategy of how it can achieve its goals and a method of keeping an eye and appraising where it stands in the progress procedure. On the other hand, vision must be used keenly, in order to be an effectual tool. It is likely a vision that is concentrated on wrong suppositions or which is unattainable or which designates an erroneous direction to simply guide the venture off target. The entrepreneur must be capable of 'challenging the vision', by comprehending the viability and appropriateness of it before it can be brought into play.

In addition, as Hammel (2000) emphasized, the 'market scope', the market in which the firms wish to apprehend from the point of view of customers, products, services and position, should be taken into serious consideration. What is more, how a company can differentiate from the repose of the market is, absolutely, a critical success element. The 'strategic resources' of an enterprise, which includes the 'core competencies' (high level of knowledge in technology among the personnel, in order to create an appropriate knowledgeable background of unity and splitting between customers and project groups), the 'strategic assets' (concerning 'infrastructure', brand awareness) and the 'core process' (the fundamental activities of the company) are principal success factors. The relationship between the customer and the management of the company must be strategically evaluated, so as the improvement of a wide variety of fields to be accessible.

Forecasting practical difficulties in trying to implement a repositioning strategy

When tourism enterprises try to change their strategy they encounter a lot of problems, which must be expected in order to be in a competitive situation. Specifically, Harrison and John (1998) underlined that stakeholders anticipate getting outcomes from the organization and, therefore, requiring a particular way that the firm must behave. When they become disappointed with the organization's way or even with what organization has accomplish the organization's 'ethical image' and standing are totally faded. The relationship between the enterprise and key stakeholders, with the above deficiency of coherence, may lead to monetary outlay owing to lost contracts, legitimate suits and lost income. According to Burns (2001), there are many obstacles that social marketers confront when planning a new strategy. First, the target market objects the change being recommended. Second, even if the adoption of the new change will be accomplished, the expenses, frequently, surplus substantial benefits. Third, previous adopters cannot give up and admit that they have failed. Fourth, we can talk about the increased amount of benefits only when an enormous percentage of the target market embraces the change, which is designated by us.

In addition, Hudson (1999) pointed out that organizations meet difficulties in all change initiatives. The most ordinary one is that no one has plenty of time to deal with the change. So, tourist managers, in order to implement a new successful strategy, must ensure that people are not lacking of time. What is more, we can observe a lot of activities, but we are not able to identify basic changes, which emerge to be obstructed by key people. Also, it is detected inadequacy, regarding real and essential improvements, and uncertainty among managers and staff. People are difficult to alter their habits and, except for this, there is a discontinuity between people who recommend the change and those who sense that they are being conducted. Moreover, the values have to be lovable, meaning that impassivity on precious value's ends in 'demotivation' and in a very long debate.

Harrison and John (1998) claimed that it is vital for the organization to pay full attention to the management process in order to survive in a rapidly modifiable environment. Also, according to Kaplan (2001), tourism organizations can play a significant role and make competitive advantages. In order to achieve them they need to focus on strategies that deal with activities and procedures that are the most important to implement. In other words, the vision and leadership of the enterprise must be out of the scope of developing existing processes. It is vital for the tourism organization to invest on people's creativity, because they are the essential impulse in the organization.

Conclusions

PURPOSE OF THIS PAPER

This paper aims to figure out more about the tourism organization's strategic positioning on the market arena, by pointing out opportunities, key issues and obstacles, regarding different change models and strategies. It has been presented a deeper consideration of the vital issues, concerning the significance of change strategy in tourism enterprise, as well as the concept that the business value of a firm can be originated from vigilantly employing change models. It attempts to provide an explanation why it is crucial for a tourism enterprise to take into serious consideration growth strategies and models, in order to enhance facets of the competitive position in the market and to achieve competitive advantage. Eventually, this paper intends to find out the key success factors, in order an enterprise to be able to compete successfully in the market place and gain competitive advantage.

CONTRIBUTION TO THE EXISTING LITERATURE

Firstly, this research should give a serious hand of assistance to the tourism industry not only in conducting its business, but also in enhancing the effectiveness of its services and functioning. The outcomes of this paper should facilitate tourism enterprises to benefit from their possible mistakes, particularly in specific topics that are integrated with the strategies engaged and the use of them. Secondly, it will look into the extent to which the tourism enterprise's potential to use the change management perceptions in a strategic way can continue to maintain a competitive advantage. Finally, the outcomes of the study will be pertinent in terms of providing benefits to the tourism organizations, regarding the designing of their strategy and generating and redesigning their goods and services. This paper attempts to provide a structure that critically considers the role that change management performs in tourism enterprises, that is, from uncomplicated mechanization of transaction to a more pioneering and strategic one.

SUMMARY

This paper has examined the basic characteristics of key different change strategies. As it became apparent they have not only positive elements, but also a negative background. Hooper and Potter (2001, p. 172) underlined that strategy is vital to both the continual existence and the development of an organization; “it is not simply a question of talking about or even creating strategy. Instead, it is about realizing that there are three levels of process involved: creating the strategic direction, implementing the components of that strategic direction and impacting on the front line of the business in terms of attitudes, beliefs and quality of activity”. Linder (2001) emphasized that models in order to be successful they need to be stranded in reality. They have to concentrate on precise suppositions, respecting how people will behave. On the contrary, even the best business models are wearing away over time. An organization must always have to shift, so as to be able to satisfy the changing needs of clients, markets and competitors. Meagher (2002) highlighted that change management tends to be misinterpreted and it is often related to ‘soft’ material. Too little attention is paid to this management mechanism, since few comprehend the perceptions and advantages that can be accumulated from the adoption of change management. But, as Martin (2001) observed, caution is of crucial importance in implementing any model of change management.

Glaesser (2003) stressed that, like any other business action, change management relies on cautious planning and on a thorough comprehension of the underlying factors and relations that produce change. When this comprehension is missing, pointless situations and crises occur, which could have often been prevented or at least reduced in their scope evolve. The outcomes of this are then not only to be supported by the customers and the tourism enterprises, but also have wider effects on the entire society and economy. The huge importance of change management has increased for those involved vigorously in the tourism industry. A non-ending chain of negative actions has challenged the sector over the last years. It has reminded us of its susceptibility and that change management cannot and should no longer be overlooked, neither by destinations nor tourism enterprises.

References

Bandyo-padhyay, N. (2002) E-COMMERCE: CONTEXT, CONCEPTS AND CONSEQUENCES, McGraw-Hill Education, Berkshire, UK

Bieger, T. and Weibel, C. (1998) Möglichkeiten und Grenzen des kooperativen Tourismusmarketings – Schaffung von Tourismussystemen als Strategien gegen destinationsahnliche Konkurrenzproducte. In P. Keller (ed.) DESTINATION MARKETING- SCOPES AND LIMITATIONS (pp. 167-200). St-Gall: AIEST

Burns, P. (2001) ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND SMALL BUSINESS, Palgrave

Bygrave, D. W. (1994) THE PORTABLE MBA IN ENTREPRENEURSHIP, Wiley and Sons

Doyle, P. (1998) MARKETING MANAGEMENT AND STRATEGY, 2nd Edition, Prentice Hall Europe, 1998

Glaesser, D. (2003) CRISIS MANAGEMENT IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY, Butterworth – Heinemann, 2003

Haring, R., Robert Green, R. and Rink, D. (1999) "An Interactive Approach in Bridging Marketing Theory to Research Based on Federally Developed Data Sets", Expanding Marketing Horizons into the 21st Century, Joseph Chapman, ed. (Jacksonville, FL: Association of Marketing Theory and Practice), 378-385

Harrison, J and John St.(1998) STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT OF ORGANIZATIONS AND STAKEHOLDERS, 2nd Edition, South-Western College Publishing Cincinnati, Ohio, United States of America

Hill, W.L.C. - Jones, R.G. (1995) STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT: AN INTEGRATED APPROACH, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, U.S.A

Hooper, A. and Potter, J. (2001), INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP: CREATING A PASSION FOR CHANGE, Random House Business Books

Hudson, M. (1999) MANAGING WITHOUT PROFIT, 2nd Edition, Pengiun Books, Great Britain

Johnson, G. - Scholes, K (1999) EXPLORING CORPORATE STRATEGY, 5th Edition, Pearson Education Limited

Kaplan, R. (Jan 2001) “Financial Management”, London; Jan 2001; pg. 23, 4 pgs

Kotler, P. (1997), MARKETING MANAGEMENT, 9th Edition, Prentice-Hall

Laesser, C. (1999) “Implementing destination – structures: Experiences with Swiss cases”. Paper to the CISET International Conference of Destination Marketing and Management, 15-16 March, Venice, Italy

Linder, C.J. (2001), “Five Business-Model Myths that Hold Companies Back”, **Strategy & Leadership**, Chicago; Nov/Dec 2001; Vol. 29, Iss.6; pg. 13, 6 pgs

Lunch, R. (1997), CORPORATE STRATEGY, Pitman Publishing, London, UK

Martin, J. (2001), ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR, Second Edition, Thomson Learning

Meagher, R. (2002), “The IM Building Blocks”, **Information Management Journal**, Prairie Village; Jan/Feb 2002; Vol. 36, Iss.1; pg. 26, 8 pgs

Mintzberg, H. (1998) “The strategy Concept I: Five Ps for Strategy”, Readings In Strategy and Strategic Planning, The Dryden Press, Orlando

Page, S. (2003) TOURISM MANAGEMENT: MANAGING FOR CHANGE, 1st Edition, Amsterdam; Boston; Butterworth – Heinemann, 2003

Pechlaner, H. (1999a) “The Competitiveness of Alpine destinations between market pressure and problems of adaption”. Turizam 47 (4), 332-43

Porter, M. (1985) COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE: CREATING SUPERIOR PERFORMANCE, Free Press, New York

Sorrentino, M. - William, L. M. (1995) "Relatedness and Corporate Venturing: Does it Really Matter," Journal of Business Venturing, 10:1 (January 1995), pp. 59-73

Tschurtschenthaller, P. (1999a) Destination on Management and Marketing als (cverlaufiger) Endpunkt der Diskussion der vergangenen Jahre im Alpinen Tourismus. In H. Pechlaner and K. Weiermair (Eds) Destinations Management (pp. 7-36), Vienna: Linde

Ward, J. - Griffiths, P. (2001) STRATEGIC POSITIONING FOR INFORMATION SYSTEMS, Wiley and Sons

Wickham, A. P. (2002) STRATEGIC ENTREPRENEURSHIP: A DECISION-MAKING APPROACH TO NEW VENTURE CREATION AND MANAGEMENT, 2nd Edition, Pearson Education Limited

Zien, A. K- Buckler, A. S. (1997) "Dreams to Market: Crafting a Culture of Innovation," Journal of Product Innovation Management, 14:4 (July 1997), pp. 274-287

"SUSTAINABLE WHAT?"

SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN GREEK TERTIARY CURRICULA

Dimitrios P. Stergiou

Department of Tourism Management

ATEI of Patras, M. Alexandrou 1, Patras, Greece

Theodore S. Benetatos

PhD Candidate, School of Sociology

Panteion University of Social and Political Science, Athens, Greece

ABSTRACT

Sustainable tourism development, as a concept, is an important curriculum component since many tourism graduates will become the managers of the future. This paper presents the findings from a short student-survey regarding present understanding and usage of the concept in Greek tourism degree courses. The results of this survey suggest that aspects of sustainable tourism development are not comprehensively addressed in the curriculum and that students do not have a reasonable understanding of the concept. Educational implications of the study results are presented.

Keywords: tourism higher education, sustainable development, Greece

INTRODUCTION

Over the past two decades there has been much talk over the terms “sustainability” and “sustainable tourism development”. This includes the introduction of a specialist tourism journal devoted to the subject of sustainability (*Journal of Sustainable Tourism*) in 1992. The World Conference on Sustainable Tourism, held in Lanzarote, was also one of a large number that produced recommendations on the application of sustainable development principles to tourism, in that case a “Charter of Principles and Objectives for Sustainable Tourism” (France, 1997).

The tourism industry and its professional bodies are recognizing the need to engage with sustainable development issues (WTO, 2005). However, a number of studies on the conceptualisation of sustainable development within the context of tourism showed a lack of understanding and vagueness about sustainability concepts and their implementation into current tourism practice. These concerns have been well articulated by several authors, ranging from Craik (1995) over a decade ago to McKercher (2003) more recently. Other recent publications have also drawn attention to the misuse of the concept in touristic practice (Cohen, 2000; Sharpley, 2000).

To address these issues changes need to be made in the way tourism education is conceived and delivered, so that tourism graduates can become proponents for the implementation of sustainable development practices in their organisations. This statement should not be taken to imply that education will solve all our problems and lead us single-handedly into the desired sustainable tourism society. Clearly the *status quo* is setting parameters which render much of what is done in education obsolete (Barnett, 1990). Yet it is also clear that without some sort of education, of learning and fostering understanding, the transition to sustainability will hardly be achieved (Jucker, 2002). This mirrors closely Agenda 21, a global action plan for delivering sustainable development, which proposes that “education is critical for promoting sustainable development and improving the capacity of the people to address sustainable development issues” (UNCED, 1992).

The Greek Government is a signatory of Agenda 21. However, to the best of the authors’ knowledge, no research exists on the incorporation of the concept of sustainable development in Greek tourism studies at a higher level. The only relevant research reported appears to be an investigation into the aspects of sustainable development in Greece which revealed the absence of a consistent specific national strategy for sustainable development education (United Nations, 1998). Against this background, this paper reviews the tourism curriculum in Greece at undergraduate level, with the purpose of illuminating the nature of provision, before presenting a discussion of what the concept of sustainable tourism development should incorporate. This will set the conceptual framework of the study and will be used as a basis of comparison with student conceptions. Findings from a short survey of final-year students are then presented in an attempt to elicit student perception of the concept of sustainable tourism development and its usage in the curriculum. Finally, the most important problems faced by students in the teaching of sustainable tourism development are recorded.

TOURISM HIGHER EDUCATION IN GREECE

After about 35 years of development, Greece now has a fairly well-developed higher education system in tourism which, in common with Western Europe, has experienced significant expansion in the past few years. According to Greek legislation, higher education consists of two parallel sectors (Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs, 2005):

- The University Sector, which includes Universities, Polytechnics, and the Athens School of Fine Arts.

- The Technical Sector, which includes the Higher Technological Educational Institutions (ATEIs). It is important to note that ATEIs were fully integrated into the higher education system in 2001.

Within the University Sector, degree-level courses with a management component relating to tourism (but not degrees on tourism) are offered by the Business Administration Departments of the University of the Aegean and the University of Patras. Also at the University Sector, three Universities (University of the Aegean, University of Piraeus, and the Hellenic Open University) offer postgraduate programmes in tourism, leading to Master's or PhD degrees, established during the past eight years. Within the Technical Sector, there are six ATEIs (in Athens, Epirus, Heraclion, Larissa, Patras, and Thessalonica) offering courses leading to an undergraduate degree in tourism management.

The provision at the two sectors noted here provides a fairly comprehensive system of tourism higher education and the recent introduction of postgraduate degrees indicates the way in which the system is expanding to meet the needs of students and of the tourism industry. The remaining of this section now turns to a more detailed consideration of the nature of tourism education in the technical sector, which acts as the sole provider of tourism degrees at undergraduate level.

However, many of the issues developed are also relevant to the wider tourism educational system of Greece.

Development and Curricula Issues

To a large extent the development of tourism education in Greece has been driven by what Tribe (1997) has referred to as a "vocational action" approach. *Action* is used here as the counterpart of *reflection*. As Tribe (1999, p. 123) explains, vocational actions "are activities or performances in the world and generally involve exercise of a skill or technique". It follows logically that by vocational actions we are referring to the actions of those employed in the tourism sector. So, for example, the preparation of a profit and loss account, the operation of a reception desk, the marketing of a destination or an attraction involve vocational actions. Hence, the aims of an education for vocational action are simply to equip students to be effective practitioners in the business world of tourism (*ibid*.).

Given its history, origins and development, this vocational emphasis should not raise many eyebrows. In its origins, tourism education in Greece was developed as a response to the impressive growth of the tourism industry during the last 30 years (Laloumis and Roupas, 1998) and the perceived employment needs of this growing economic sector, and was given added impetus by student demand anxious about future employment prospects (Christou, 1999). The outcome of these developments was that formal courses became the main route, at least in principle, for potential employees to gain entry to the industry and not surprisingly the courses were strongly geared to these employment needs. This vocational orientation was further supported by a strong vocational ethos nationally which emphasised, and continues to do so even today, the important links between an educated labour force and a strong tourism industry.

This strong influence of industry was seen in the initial establishment of technological educational institutions in the 1970s as Centres of Professional Technological Education (K.A.T.E.). This latter point is also reflected today in the departmental location of ATEIs' tourism programmes which are exclusively found in departments of tourism management. The information provided in Table 1 relating to the contents of a tourism management degree provides further confirmation of the same pattern.

Table 1: Outline of a tourism management degree course

1st semester	**5th semester**
Microeconomics Business mathematics General accounting Labour relations Professional cooking I Tourism psychology or Tourism sociology	Organisation of conventions Clients record keeping Tourism marketing Computerised reservation systems Tourism legislation Supplies-Auditing-Costing or Hotel accounting
2nd semester	**6th semester**
Macroeconomics Principles of tourism Business accounting Floor service Professional cooking II European Union Law or Commercial law	Hotel marketing Hotel computer applications Communication policy – Public relations Tourism business administration Client recreation and exercise Airport operation or Tour package and travelling
3rd semester	**7th semester**
Tourism economy Business statistics Computer applications Bar Restaurant organisation and operation Global tourism geography or Greek tourism geography	Graduate seminar Human resources management Finance for tourism enterprises English tourism terminology French tourism terminology German tourism terminology or Italian tourism terminology
4th semester	**8th semester**
Tourism policy Airfares – Ticketing Reception service Organisation & operation of travel agencies Tourism enterprises and the Internet Tourism market research or advertising	Dissertation Six-month industrial placement

Source: Higher Technological Educational Institute of Patras (2004)

Like all ATEI courses, this is offered as a four-year programme of study including six months of supervised industrial placement. The extent to which the content has a strong vocational slant finds expression in module titles such as *Business Statistics* and *Tourism Marketing*. The prevalence of production kitchens, laboratories of hotel reception and floor service, and six-month industrial placements as a part of the students' learning experience, also provide tangible evidence of this focus. The industry influence is also demonstrated clearly in the 2004 prospectus of the ATEI of Patras (2004, p. 52) which suggests that the aim of the offered tourism course is "to develop managerial staff … able to be assimilated directly into the Greek and international tourism industry". This vocational orientation also comes through Christou's (1999, p. 687) analysis of the Greek tourism management education system, which suggested that tourism graduates "gain adequate knowledge and practical skills in food and beverage operations, accommodation services and front-office operations".

What all this adds up to is an orientation that produces a vocationalist curriculum, based on technique and means rather than consideration of ends (Tribe, 1999). Of course, in many ways the vocational oriented curriculum fits the needs of the key stakeholders in tourism education: the employers, the students, and the educators. The emphasis on action, rather than reflection, helps meet employers' immediate workforce needs, thus providing students with fairly good initial employment prospects, and it makes sure that the educators have a good student demand for their programmes (Airey, 2003). Indeed, this combination is often seen as one of the strengths and successes of this aspect of education.

Yet, at the same time, a problem lies here in that such an approach can lead to a one-dimensional development of the curriculum where a critical view of the society is missed. Tribe's (1999, pp. 121-122) comments on the nature of business actions are particularly apposite to this case:

"A business action may be good for profits, good for shareholders, good for customers, but adversely affect other groups such as workers or distant host communities. These communities are separate."

In this sense, a curriculum which is implicitly framed as the development of business skills for the tourism sector of the economy plays a key part in the reproduction of an imperfect society. This is both disappointing and uncritical, given the far-reaching contributions of tourism – both positive and negative – to the economic, social, cultural and environmental fabric and well-being of societies. It is in this connection that "sustainable development" emerges as a key concept for consideration within the tourism curriculum. By encompassing a wide range of disciplines, including aspects of economics, sociology, and natural science, "sustainable development" can provide a broad disciplinary framework which will foster an understanding of the different ideologies and discourses associated with the wider world of tourism.

THE CONCEPT OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Defining and achieving sustainable development has become one of the major policy debates of our generation. Since the term "sustainable development" first came to public attention with the publication of the Brundtland Report in 1987, it has been much contested by international forums, academics, scientists, public sector institutions, and private businesses (Eber, 2002). However, it is fair to say that much of the discussion on the concept has been structured around the World Commission on Environment and Development's (WCED, 1987, p. 43) well-known definition of sustainable development as "meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (Milne, 1998). For the WCED, this involves a process of change in which economic prosperity must be integrated with environmental integrity in a manner that is socially equitable and preserves the culture of a society. In this sense, sustainable development is a comprehensive and inclusive approach which stresses the interdependence of the natural environment with economy and society – the "triple-bottom-line".

The adoption of the principles of sustainable development to tourism has been rapid and pervasive, although implementation of the practice has been much more limited (Butler, 1998). Where it has been adopted in the tourism industry, the term "sustainable tourism development" has become widely accepted as meaning tourism that is developed and operated in such a manner as to follow the triple-bottom-line approach (Swarbrooke, 1999). According to this line of thought, the conventional focus of tourism development on the demands of the market should be replaced by an emphasis on the needs of the destination communities. The focus of sustainable tourism development strategies should be on equity, less consumption, more efficiency, and preservation of the health and resilience of the human, social, natural and built environment (Jurowski and Liburd, 2001; Wight, 2002). However, this change of focus from the market to the destination community does not result in lesser economic gains for tourism businesses. Higher profits can be realised through sound sustainable business practices that reduce costs and increase revenues. For example, the use of renewable resources not only saves the accommodation unit money, but also allows it to achieve good public relations with a market that is increasingly concerned about environmental issues, and consequently increase customer loyalty (Urry, 1996; Bohdanowicz *et al*., 2001). Thus, to achieve economic, social and environmental gains, tourism developers must communicate and apply the sustainable values through policies and procedures.

The overwhelming appeal of sustainability is situated in the strong belief of mutual care for the world, hindering or excluding unwanted environmental effects of tourism development, and responsibility towards future generations (Wheeller, 1993). However, while appropriate and praiseworthy in principle, it is important to note that sustainable development remains an essentially contested concept. For Hall (1998), the main reason for this is the extent to which the concept is used to refer to a wise use in the way natural resources are exploited. The problem here lies in that the very way in which "wise use" is defined will depend on the values of various stakeholders. Perhaps most problematic is the contest between those who accent harmony with nature as the most important element in sustainable development and those who value human progress as of paramount importance – with the latter group concentrating on the continuity of development and economic growth (Redclift, 1988; Milne, 1998).

Besides being contested the concept of sustainable development is complex. Sustainability is related to many different disciplinary topics, such as environmental conservation, development of peripheral areas, natural resource management, human processes and requirements, and so on. In addressing sustainable development, different levels of analysis are used, for example from global to the destination level, or from household to individual level (Butler, 1998). The relative weight and importance of the subjects related to sustainable development is hardly objectively determinable and depends on the values and ideologies of various stakeholders (Hall, 1998). From this discussion and specific remarks on sustainable development it follows logically that a clear elaboration of the concept in courses or study programmes is difficult.

However, while sustainable development is clearly a concept with inherent weaknesses, its real value should not be overlooked. Although the contradictory goals of continued economic growth and societal and environmental sustainability may never be met, the concept of sustainable development provides a focal point around which the conflicting value positions of different stakeholders can be reconciled (Milne, 1998). It is useful to note that in discussing the design of tourism curricula, Tribe (2000) identifies a similar contest that exists over their contents. This is due to:

"influences which promote the tourism curriculum as a vocational one for commercial ends [including] the needs of employers, professional bodies, academics rooted in business departments [and] influences which promote the tourism curriculum as one for non-commercial ends. For example host and environmental interests would promote a curriculum for sustainable tourism, and academics from critical subjects will promote a more open agenda for tourism studies."

These guidelines illustrate why sustainable development is a key concept for consideration within tourism programmes of study and how this apparent dichotomy can be resolved. Here, then, there is ample justification in integrating sustainable tourism development as an inclusive approach within the tourism curriculum, since this will address concerns for wider interests and introduce a more open agenda compatible with the achievement of commercial ends (Eber, 2002).

METHODOLOGY

In order to get an overview of student perception on the usage of sustainable development in Greek tourism curricula, we undertook a short self-completion questionnaire survey. The population from which the survey sought information was defined as those final-year students for the academic year 2004/5 following tourism programmes at ATEIs. No reliable data exists on the total size or characteristics of the target population and this posed problems for data collection. Under these circumstances the researchers had to turn to forms of convenience sampling as the basis for selecting the sample. Convenience sampling is built upon selections which suit the convenience of the researcher and which are available by virtue of their accessibility (Clark *et al*., 1998). This element of convenience entered the sampling procedure discussed here in that data were collected at two different ATEIs, where the researchers had a number of personal acquaintances that showed interest in the study and facilitated access to students. Following this, questionnaires were collected from 81 final-year students registered in tourism programmes of study at the participating ATEIs.

The employed questionnaire was an adapted version of a questionnaire developed by Busby (2003) for the purposes of a similar research to the one reported here. The questionnaire contained five open-ended questions, inviting comments on the concept of sustainable tourism development and its usage within tourism curricula. A limited number of statements, used to assess specific perceptions of the curriculum, were also included. In the light of a short pilot study, some minor amendments were made to questions in order to improve clarity. Most importantly in relation to this, the term “sustainable tourism development” was used throughout the questionnaire and was not used in conjunction with sustainable tourism, as was the case with Busby’s questionnaire. The reason for this was that sustainable tourism is often regarded as part of sustainable tourism development – i.e. the two concepts are distinct (see Diamantis, 1998, pp. 20-42). In this connection, it was thought that the interchangeable use of the two concepts might confuse respondents.

FINDINGS

The analysis that follows gives an overview of the ideas of the students that responded. It reflects the situation for the tourism students of the participating ATEIs and not necessarily for all ATEIs in Greece. However, the outcomes of the study identify some important messages about student perceptions of the present usage of the concept of sustainable tourism development within their programmes of study, providing material for further discussion and research.

To get an indication of how “sustainable tourism development” is understood in the study content of tourism curricula, the two opening questions attempted to elicit students’ views by asking them for keywords associated with the concept, and whether it involves any necessary foundations. The vast majority of answers to both questions raised one common issue, namely that sustainable tourism development is seen as synonymous with environmental conservation. This is clearly illustrated in the responses of the 37 students who answered this question, in that the most frequently cited keywords were: physical environment, natural resources, ecotourism, green tourism, and ecology. Only six students referred to keywords such as human heritage, social environment, destination communities, and future generations.

A similar emphasis arose over student responses on the necessary foundations of sustainable tourism development. From the 81 questionnaires, this elicited 32 responses with most students stressing the need for natural resources management, respect for the environment, and less environmentally impacting forms of tourism development. Only nine students considered there was a need for relevant government policy, and, vitally, collaboration amongst stakeholders, long-term thinking, and holistic approaches to tourism development. Fourteen students made comments to support their answers; the two most relevant to the point made here stating that "current tourism development is imposing too great a demand upon the natural environment" and "the physical environment does not have the capacity to absorb the demands made on it by various forms of tourism development".

The third question asked students to identify which modules in their programmes of study provided a foundation on sustainable tourism development. Not surprisingly, most students (78%) recognised the Tourism Policy module to be relevant. The Tourism Marketing and Public Relations modules were also identified as embedding some aspect of sustainable development by twenty-four and twenty-one students respectively. Against these, the rest of the modules were considered to be irrelevant by the vast majority of students. It is interesting to note that all three modules cited to be relevant are taught in the latter stages of the curriculum.

In an attempt to assess specific perceptions of the curriculum, students were asked to rank four short statements, representing deconstructed curriculum components, on a five-point Likert scale. As regards the scoring of the scale, statements were scored 5 for "strongly agree", down to 1 for "strongly disagree". The results of responses to the statements are given in Table 2.

Table 2: Student perception of the curriculum

No.	**Statement**	**Mean n = 72**
1.	The tourism degree I am undertaking provides me with an understanding of the term "sustainable tourism development".	1.5
2.	The concept of sustainable tourism development is embedded in all taught modules.	1.3
3.	The curriculum places too much emphasis on the commercial aspects of tourism.	4.1
4.	The business practices of Greek tourism establishments do not help sustainable tourism development.	3.9

From the table, it is evident that students felt that they did not gain adequate knowledge in the area of sustainable tourism development (statement 1) and that the concept is not present in all modules (statement 2). The highest mean score was recorded for statement 3. Here, again, there is ample demonstration of the strong influence of industry on the content of degree programmes; an influence which is realised by students. Of course, following student responses to earlier questions and the discussion on the nature of tourism curricula in Greece, these results are more or less as expected. However, it is remarkable that all three statements elicited scores close to the ends of the scale. Why were students so emphatic in their responses? Here, there is clearly a disconcerting indication about the way in which sustainable development is addressed in the curriculum and the extent to which its content is tied to the needs of industry.

Statement 4, concerning the business practices within the Greek tourism industry, also elicited a remarkably high score. It is important to note that none of the students stated “disagree” or “strongly disagree”. Following the closeness of the links of tourism education with industry, this is an interesting finding because many students clearly believe that Greek tourism establishments do not help sustainable tourism development.

When asked to identify as many authors as possible associated with the concept of sustainable tourism development, most students were not able to cite any key texts. Given the plethora of existing articles and books on sustainable tourism and its development, this is a disappointing and concerning result. Of the twenty-six students that replied, twenty-one identified Igoumenakis’ (1999) text, which is used as a textbook for the Tourism Policy module in many ATEIs. However, it is important to note that the text does not include sustainable tourism development or sustainability in its subject index. Seven students cited Swarbrooke’s text, five of which also identified the work of Butler.

The questionnaire also included an explicit question regarding the most important problems experienced by students in the way the concept of sustainable tourism development is addressed in their courses. Fifty-two students provided comments. Perhaps not surprisingly, thirty-eight individuals considered the difficult conceptualisation of the concept as the most important problem. One respondent reflected the core idea as follows: “Sustainable development is an elusive concept. Key concepts need to be clarified before anything meaningful can be discussed”. Other common suggested problems can be categorised roughly in four areas: the inadequate content of the taught modules (34); the unavailability of relevant resources (29); the contradiction between the nature of sustainable development and conventional business practices within the tourism industry (27); and rather prominently present, the opinion that the concept of sustainability exceeds the expertise of the majority of individual staff members (36). Finally, four respondents mentioned a rather interesting problem with the attitudes of staff and students. The following verbatim comment is particularly relevant: “Sometimes both staff and students seem reluctant to become involved with issues of sustainable development”. Unfortunately, these students did not attempt to explain why this is the case.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

This survey has suggested that aspects of sustainable tourism development are not comprehensively addressed in undergraduate programmes offered by ATEIs. The disappointingly low number of modules shown to embed some aspect of sustainability, the Likert scores and identification of authors, all indicate that students do not have a reasonable understanding of the concept. Responses regarding the inadequacy of the content of taught modules, the unavailability of relevant resources and appropriate teaching expertise are also characteristic of the situation.

Of course, the integration of the concept of sustainable development within undergraduate programmes of study is not an easy task. The conceptualisation of the concept is with good reason alleged to be complex, a point acknowledged by students. This is because of the required balance among its three basic components – the environment, the economy, and society (the triple-bottom-line). Indeed, the concept of sustainable development as depicted by the triple-bottom-line approach is a holistic one, and this element is at the heart of successful adoption of the concept within educational contexts (Eber, 2002). Yet, this broad agenda is not echoed in the results of this study in that student understanding of sustainable development does not appear to go beyond concern with the environment. To a certain extent, this fragmentation is not surprising. After all, many of the fundamental principles of sustainable development are close to the original idea of environmental conservation. However, to talk of sustainable development in any one sense alone, such as environmental sustainability, is philosophically against the true nature of the concept (Butler, 1998).

The paper ends with one final, more abstract point about tourism higher education in Greece. Following the results of this study, it appears that Greek tourism courses have focused on tourism problems the solution of which requires the exercise of vocational skills or technique. The overt emphasis of the curriculum on the vocational appears to have tied tourism education too closely to the needs of the industry, thus preventing the curriculum from expanding into a consideration of wider issues that underlie tourism – in this case issues of sustainable tourism development. But vocational skills represent only one aspect of the tourism knowledge needed in the delivery of projects, tourism products and services. Tourism is affected by, and affects, other issues which are not so easily encapsulated. What this implies in education terms is that greater emphasis must be placed on problem definition; a view confirmed by Young (1989, p. 23) who suggests the need for education to first "transcend its present incomplete and one-sided level of development and second to make a contribution to the solution of problems of the society in which they are found". This challenging commitment requires tourism graduates to retain a robust and analytical approach whilst dealing increasingly with non-vocational details. For this perspective to be achieved, tourism education must seek to provide its future graduates with a longer and broader view of tourism and of their practice. This will help avoid past failures where narrow vocational actions have negatively "affected groups such as workers or distant host communities" (Tribe, 1999, p. 122).

This should be a source of excitement for Greek tourism higher education and grasped as a marvellous opportunity to show what is has to offer the individual and the wider world. It is argued here that the integration of sustainable development within the tourism curriculum can constitute a valuable step in this developmental process, which is in the interest of all parties: for the students who, after their studies, will be equipped to enter the world of work and contribute usefully to its development; for the tourism industry that needs a workforce that can think beyond day-to-day issues and move it towards a more sustainable future; as well as for the tourism educational sector itself, the rationale of which lies in much more than fairly immediate training (Airey, 2003). It would be wrong to infer from this that tourism higher education should be dismissive about its vocational elements. But, as Stergiou (2005) has argued, this should not be the totality of its responsibilities or commitments.

REFERENCES

Airey, D. (2003) “Tourism education: from practice to theory”, *Presentation to the WTO 15th General Assembly*, Beijing, China, October 20-23.

Barnett, R. (1990), *The Idea of Higher Education*, Buckingham: SRHE & Open University Press.

Bohdanowicz, P., Churie-Kalhauge, A., Martinac, I. and Rezachek, D. (2001), “Energy-efficiency and conservation in hotels – toward sustainable tourism”, *Presentation to the 4th International Conference on Asia Pacific Architecture*, University of Hawaii at Manoa, Honolulu, Hawaii, April 4-7.

Busby, G. (2003), “The concept of sustainable tourism within the higher education curriculum: a British case study”, *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, **2**(2), pp. 48-58.

Butler, R. (1998), “Sustainable tourism – looking backwards in order to progress”. In C.M. Hall and A.A. Lew (eds.), *Sustainable Tourism: A Geographical Perspective*, Essex: Longman, pp. 25-34.

Christou, E.S. (1999), “Hospitality management education in Greece: an exploratory study”, *Tourism Management* 20, pp. 683-691.

Clark, M., Riley, M., Wilkie, E. and Wood, R. C. (1998), *Researching and Writing Dissertations in Hospitality and Tourism*, London: International Thomson Business Press.

Cohen, E. (2000), “Authenticity, equity and sustainability in tourism”, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, **10**(4), pp. 267-276.

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

Diamantis, D. (1998), *Ecotourism: Characteristics and Involvement Patterns of its Consumers in the United Kingdom*, Unpublished PhD thesis, Bournemouth: Bournemouth University.

Eber, S. (2002), *Guidelines for Integrating Sustainability into the Undergraduate Curriculum: Leisure and Tourism*, London: University of North London & Tourism Concern.

France, L. (ed.) (1997), *The Earthscan Reader in Sustainable Tourism*, London: Earthscan Publications.

Hall, C.M. (1998), "Historical antecedents of sustainable development and ecotourism: new labels on old bottles?". In C.M. Hall and A.A. Lew (eds.), *Sustainable Tourism: A Geographical Perspective*, Essex: Longman, pp. 13-24.

Higher Technological Educational Institute of Patras (2004), *Prospectus – Bulletin*, Patras: ATEI of Patras.

Jucker, R. (2002), "Sustainability? Never heard of it! Some basics we shouldn't ignore when engaging in education for sustainability", *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, **3**(1), pp. 8-18.

Jurowski, C. and Liburd, J. (2001), "A multi-cultural and multi-disciplinary approach to integrating the principles of sustainable development into human resource management curricula in hospitality and tourism", *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, **13**(5), pp. 36-50.

Laloumis, D. and Roupas, V. (1998), *Management of Tourism Business*, Athens: Stamoulis (in Greek).

McKercher, B. (2003), "Sustainable tourism development – principles for planning and management", *Presentation to the National Seminar on Sustainable Tourism Development*, Bishkek, Kyrgyzstan, November 5-9.

Milne, S. (1998), "Tourism and sustainable development: the global-local nexus". In C.M. Hall and A.A. Lew (eds.), *Sustainable Tourism: A Geographical Perspective*, Essex: Longman, pp. 35-48.

Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs (2005), *Higher Education: Universities and Technological Educational Institutions in Greece*, Athens: Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs, Directorate of International Relations in Education.

Redclift, M. (1988), "Sustainable development and the market: a framework for analysis", *Futures*, **20**(6), p. 638.

Sharpley, R. (2000), "Tourism and sustainable development: exploring the theoretical divide", *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, **8**(1), pp. 1-19.

Stergiou, D. (2005), "Teaching". In D. Airey and J. Tribe (eds.), *An International Handbook of Tourism Education*, Oxford: Elsevier, pp. 285-297.

Swarbrooke, J. (1999), *Sustainable Tourism Management*, New York: CAB International.

Tribe, J. (1997), "The indiscipline of tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* **24**(3), 638-657.

Tribe, J. (1999), *The Philosophic Practitioner: Tourism Knowledge and the Curriculum*, Unpublished PhD thesis, London: University of London.

Tribe, J. (2000), *The National Curriculum for Tourism Higher Education*, London: National Liaison Group for Higher Education in Tourism.

UNCED (1992), “Agenda 21”, *United Nations Conference on Environment and Development*, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, June 3-14.

United Nations (1998), “Economic aspects of sustainable development in Greece”, available at: http://www.un.org/esa/agenda21/natlinfo/countr/greece/eco.htm#tour (accessed 5 December 2006).

Urry, J. (1996), *Consuming Places*, London: Routledge.

Wheeller, B. (1993), Sustaining the ego, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, **1**(2), pp. 121-129.

Wight, P. (2002), “Tourism strategies for sustainability and profit: is balance possible?”, *Presentation to the BEST Think Tank II – Promoting Best Practices in Sustainable Travel and Tourism*, University of Hawaii and Manoa, Honolulu, Hawaii, April 9-13.

World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) (the Brundtland Report) (1987), *Our Common Future*, London: Oxford University Press.

World Tourism Organisation (2005), *Making Tourism More Sustainable: A Guide for Policy Makers*, WTO: Madrid.

Young, R. (1989), *A Critical Theory of Education*, Hemel Hempstead: Harvester Wheatsheaf.