The background of the cover is a photograph of a majestic, snow-capped mountain peak, likely Mount Everest, under a clear blue sky. In the foreground, a wooden building with a dark roof and large windows is visible. The building's interior is partially visible through the windows, showing some furniture and a potted plant. In the bottom foreground, there are vibrant orange flowers. The overall scene is a beautiful representation of a mountainous landscape.

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Journal On-Tourism & Sustainability (JOTS) is dedicated to supporting the rapidly expanding area of tourism development research. The primary focus is to advance critical thinking on tourism as a catalyst for sustainable development. It is a peer-reviewed journal aiming to publish original research from a multidisciplinary perspective. We welcome theoretical, conceptual and empirical research that explores the relationship between tourism and development.

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WHY TOURISM ELUDES THE GRASP OF STAKEHOLDERS? SOME REFLECTIONS ON SUSTAINABILITY

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Abstract: The paradoxical attributes of tourism for being good and bad at a time makes it open for criticism. This paper questions whether this dualism is inherent in its character or is circumstantial. No stakeholder wants tourism to elude his grasp, why then it goes awry in many cases. To explain this phenomenon the paper takes a back view of the industry and underpins shortfalls that are responsible for its downturn. Barring nature catastrophes, spread of epidemics and war, etc., in most cases, tourism stakeholders were found at fault for ignoring essential tenets of sustainable development; they fall prey to avarice and compromise with short-term market forces resulting in negative consequences in physical and socio-cultural settings. The environment suffers often irreversibly. Mass tourism, weak community resilience, poor knowledge-equipment of stakeholders, aspect of seasonality, unskilled workforce, limited knowledge of ecological systems, policy failure and lack of governance and community inertia are some of the features that weaken tourism industry. Only a few but important features will be discussed in this paper. By comparing stakeholders' good and bad practices at two mountain destinations, Whistler resort in Canada and Manali in the Indian Himalayas, the paper concludes that paradox in tourism is a myth; tourism is neither good nor bad, it is what stakeholders make of their recreational resources.

Keywords: sustainability; tourism industry; stakeholders; resilience; Manali; Whistler.

Introduction

No other enterprise perhaps is so open to criticism as of tourism. Even a man in the street can comment on this industry (Young, 1973). The matter of fact is that tourism is a big paradox that tends to self-contradict. At times, it can be good, can be bad; can conserve and consume resources; it is resilient to shocks, can be vulnerable; earns wealth but drains out in leakage. It is much misunderstood phenomenon. Even a single man can disrupt this trade. The question arises 'why people should engage themselves in such a dubious industry?' Nevertheless, tourism has many superlatives such as it earns foreign currency, creates jobs, transfers money from richer to poorer regions, builds public infrastructure, improves quality of life, slows down the rate of rural exodus. Since it focuses on the beautiful and unique attractions, conservation of these fascinating landscapes becomes a patriotic obligation. Interestingly, there are cases when tourism becomes a partner of conservation. It preserves vestiges of history and heritage, re-uses ruins and abandoned royal palaces for tourism, and urbanizes remote and far-flung peripheries. There are countries who majorly depend on it. Question crops up whether this duality really exists in tourism or circumstantial? To find an

answer to this question we have to look back into its historical background. The major crux of the problem is mass consumption of resources by tourists.

Tourism is an offspring of the Western culture, propelled by the forces of globalization, capitalization and modernization, and pampered by post-industrial society who had money, leisure and strong desire to see this beautiful world of sights and sounds. In its nascent stage it was hailed as innocuous, clean and smokeless industry respecting natural and cultural environments. Suddenly, with the advent of railways around the mid-19th century, tourism burgeoned, and further egged on. Thomas Cook's package tour programme accelerated the rate of growth. He cleverly arranged visits to the Great Exhibition in 1851 in London, which attracted 6 million visitors (Page, 2007, p. 40). Remarkably, he connected the coastal resorts for a better flow of visitors. This virtually led to the birth of mass tourism – a blessing to the avaricious stakeholders of tourism and blight to those who sought a destination of peace and solitude.

Mass Tourism – The Boom Effect

The unprecedented growth of the middle class with their Bohemian lifestyle brought a bad name to tourism. With the speedy transport technologies tourism spread all over the globe. 'Boom and bust' was given the name to this mass tourism syndrome (Singh, 2012). Many tourism destinations and resorts were overwhelmed due to the visits of too many people. In the year 1997, 613 million travellers left their homes (this figure does not consider domestic holidays and day trips). In 2015, this figure soared to 1.18 billion, almost 52 million more from 2014 and expected to rise up to 1.6 billion tourist arrivals in the year 2020 (UNWTO, 2016). The most striking feature of the tourist numbers was that of China who received one hundred million outbound. The growth of Asia and South Pacific was remarkable, and the Middle East attracted 50 million more tourists. Altogether tourism earned a wealth of USD 1260 billion. Considering these benefits any stakeholder would be tempted to run a business so lucrative. Thus, tourism earned the reputation as one of the biggest and fastest growing industries of the world.

As we have noted above tourism can be a lucrative business, should it run on the principles of sound management; very opposite results may occur if the industry treads on undesirable paths that we have touched briefly in this paper. Even though tourism appears to be rewarding business for investors and entrepreneurs, the concept of tourism-entrepreneurship has not been properly understood by stakeholders (Ateljevic and Page, 2009). The boom and bust phenomenon of mass tourism albeit generated wealth in the host countries, it also damaged society and environment at places irreversibly. To cite one example from the Adriatic Sea, where a small island Svet Stefan existed with tall palm trees was converted into a landscape of high rise hotels within a decade (Singh, 2016). Too much of touristic development is a hazard to natural settings and social ethos of a destination (Ateljevic & Page, 2009). Great attraction acts like a magnetic pull and tourists rush to it like bees to the hive. Tourism consumes places and cultures to the end where a few returnees come to see the tragedy of their favourite touristic destination. Thus, many beautiful places have been degraded and damaged by huge crowding of tourists. Crises of tourism are the crisis of mass tourism (Poon, 1993). Tourists do not affect the environment directly, their very presence in large number

disturbs the ambience. This aspect becomes more visible in fragile environments, such as parks and protected areas. In some cases, bio-capacity has been outstripped by ecological footprints. Tourism is the biggest consumer of ecosystem services. For example, tourists consume almost 7 to 10 times more water than residents. According to an estimate 40 per cent of the world's population was found suffering from a serious water shortage. Water-use varies within a range of 100 litres to 2000 litres per tourist per day. It is reported that Global oil production is going down and it may last a few years more. We are consuming our planet day by day with our consuming style of life. Mass tourism perpetuates over consumption (Singh 2016).

Ecotourism: The Failed Alternative

If mass tourism is too huge, can the small tourism be more manageable. Let us test this hypothesis. A Mexican architect Héctor Ceballos-Lascuráin (1987) came out with a mantra for enjoying nature with conservation, which was given the name of 'ecological tourism' popularly known as 'ecotourism'. Delightful as the phrase was, it was considered the best practice of tourism in remote, unused nature, where visitors shall respect the environment, Communities' resource owners shall run the business for the community and by the community, maintaining the values and identity of the place. Ecotourism was self-reliant, self-catered, self-employed and a self-managed activity. It was a source of recreation and education. The last quarter of the 20th century had a high resonance of ecotourism.

Since ecotourism happens in the green environment such as Parks, protected areas, unspoilt natural areas found in high mountains meadows and marine waters, more visitors desired to be there to enjoy nature's splendid spectacle; they may pay off any exorbitant cost to the tour operating company. Thus, more and more areas of natural beauty were exposed to hedonic tourists who had, in some cases, little respect for the rare environment. Many places of excellence were green washed in the name of ecotourism (Cater, Garrod, & Low, 2015). In fact, only ecotourists should be allowed to enter into the eco-tourism confines. But how to identify an ecotourist among hedonic visitors. A few countries have been able to manage ecotourism successfully. In South Asia, Bhutan sets an example where a limited number of tourists are given admission for a high-cost. They are allowed to follow designed routes and trails monitored by guards from the beginning to the end.

Ecotourism despite the scathing criticism, is the fastest growing segment. Annual growth rate varies from 10 to 30%. According to WTO (1998) estimates ecotourism accounts for 20% of the the world. As the popularity of ecotourism grows the market is shifting more towards the casual or soft end. Any one entering the 'hard' ecotourism market must appreciate that the absolute market is small as operators are expected to offer exceptional experiences. These businesses would be of small scale and with high price. Not many stakeholders have marketing knowledge, particularly the new entrants. Many operators are quite ignorant as to how tourism distribution works (McKercher, 2001).

It is an unkind paradox that ecotourism, by definition, had to be small; taking place in peripheral regions of natural beauty, should be practiced in cities and urban

agglomeration and natural areas as large as the Grand Canyon hosting millions of visitors.

Ecotourism should serve as a saviour of our planet through conservation measures. Most indigenous lands have been converted into federal parks, refuges, cultural heritage sites and monuments (McLaren, 1998, p. 100). Our planet supports a population of 7.3 billion, reducing its carrying capacity because of over consumption. Ecotourism, considered as the subsidiary of sustainability, was predated by stakeholders given the culture of greed. Nature was sold as commodity and this aspect of commodification defaced tourism's ethical veracity and ecotourism, despite noble values could not flourish into a green movement. Nevertheless, ecotourism builds three outcomes: a positive force for conservation, protection of landscape features, and benefitted the host communities. Ecotourism may have failed as an alternative, but it perpetuated the concept of small is beautiful and infused the spirit of environmental awareness.

Tourism in Developing Countries

Many Third World countries have embraced tourism as their panacea for their poor development and poverty. It gathered momentum when nomads from affluence discovered beautiful landscapes untouched by modernity in the Third World. A sizeable literature has appeared in print through research journals, books and media. The works of many scholars are replete with tourism downside (Boorstin 1961; Turner 1982; Crick 1996; Britton 1983; Cohen 1978; Butler 1974; Davis 1978; Graburn 1976; MacCannell 1973; Nash 1978; Smith 1978; Turner and Ash (1975). Recently, Harrison and Sharpley (2017) have brought out a very useful book "Mass tourism in the Small world" which also could not offer any remedy for the problem of over-crowding. Most of them are social scientists who did not find tourism development as a fruitful economic activity for the Third World. They believe that adoption of tourism would affect adversely, specifically the traditional businesses, paving the way to the dependency model. In some countries, the tourism industry already accounts for 30 per cent of the GNP; in distant regions, such as islands where this rate may reach up to 90 percent.

Stakeholders

Stakeholders play vital role in the development process. According to Freeman (1984) Stakeholders are "those groups without whose support the organization would cease to exist". By definition, everyone associated with the organization and development of tourism activity is a stakeholder. Therefore, collaborative approach would better help promote tourism. A more integrated and holistic approach to SD can be achieved by involving stakeholders of different level in the development process.

Stakeholders, particularly of primary level, are supposed to be equipped with new tourism knowledge and they must find out the easy ways to transfer it to those who need it. The effectiveness of the transfer process depends upon an accurate assessment of the type of knowledge to be transferred (Cooper, 2015, p. 313). Cooper lays stress on knowledge management and believes that effective knowledge transfer must be understood as the most important commodity and learning the most important process

(p.313). There is a poor record of sector's knowledge transfer. Predominance of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) lack managerial expertise or training which finally affects growth of business and competitiveness. It has been observed that the tourism sector is characterized by low-risk takers. It has been found that SMEs in tourism are generally averse to research. Surprisingly, many stakeholders do not know about the SD concept, let alone the access to the research journals or books. Transferring, exchange and sharing knowledge are imperatives for the success of tourism sector (Cooper 2015). This process leads to innovation (Scott 2015).

Stakeholders should know what tourism can do and how to avoid negative consequences. To Obliterate 'the bad' in tourism, makers/owners including stakeholders must be on the alert in determining scale and speed of tourism. Tourism has a propensity to grow like cancer; control, small caution and care are important to the balanced growth. Tourism business has some given weakness which should be guarded against.

In passing, we shall like to discuss a few significant shortfalls that are responsible for tourism decay and decline which eludes the grasp of stakeholders. Some shortcomings are in-built, and a few are an act of omission and lack of stakeholders' knowledge equipment. Sometime nature plays foul. It is not possible to discuss all of them here, only a few are mentioned here for want of space.

Seasonality

Seasonality is the arch enemy of tourism that hampers the full growth of the industry in making proper use of facilities and infrastructure, resulting in unnecessary excess-capacity for most of the year (Butler, 2001, p.17). Dynamics of seasonality affects tourism as the seasons are now experiencing instability and unpredictability. In fact, seasonality impacts on all aspects of supply side including marketing, quality of employment and skill availability (Baum and Lundtrap, 2001). Nevertheless, the mature owners of destinations introduce all-year season.

Limit to Growth

Crowding of tourism at one centre of attraction is the persisting problem. No alternative has been found so far. Of course, they bring wealth to the hosting destination, but they also bring with them noise, congestion and other environmental challenges. Experiments in creating niche tourism have not been successful instead some of them have wooed the mainstream. Strategies like limit to growth, carrying capacity and reduction in the accommodation sector failed to manage the growth. Due to the rapid growth, many destinations fall to decay and fail to complete their life-cycle. As long as human beings have the right to enjoy this planet (tourism for all), the problem of 'too many' will remain a challenge to the stakeholders for they would never be able to decide 'how much is not too much?' Effective knowledge management is the answer. The endless growth in a finite biosphere is not possible. Stakeholders must find out the optimum level of visitors at a given destination to maintain sustainability. As stated earlier in this paper, a tourist consumes more water than a resident, so more tourists means more water is needed. Therefore, conservation of water resources is of prime

importance. Stakeholders of tourism should take note of this aspect that the growth of tourism cannot be endless. They shall have to accept the fact that water consumption should be within the limit of the biosphere. There is a need of re-engineering of culture to create a sustainable civilization that can thrive without degrading the planet on which we depend (Assadurian, 2016).

Human Resource: Spine of Tourism

Tourism is a labour-intensive industry which depends on an adequately supplied skilled workforce to serve its global consumers. It supported about 277 million jobs in 2015 and directly generated 2.5 million jobs. It needs a face-lift in labour-skills for sound development. It is a pity that this sector has a number of gaps to improve customer service quality through greater access to tourism training, exploring barriers to increasing tourism labour mobility, career pathways, skill development and workforce planning especially young people and women SMEs. Research has pointed out that the biggest challenge that the industry faces is 'talent shortage'; recruitment and retention are other hurdles in the progress of business. Other problems are high turnover rates, high mobility to other industries (Baum, 2006), poor perception as an industry, poor promotion and career prospects and poor working conditions (Hughes & Rog, 2008). This challenge has to be met by the practitioners and stakeholders. For a service organization to achieve success, managers must consider their human resources to be a critical element (Lee Ros and Pryce, 2010). Managing people in the hospitality and tourism industry is becoming a more challenging task as we move ahead into the 21st century. To meet, these challenges and to build a competitive advantage, managers must provide sound leadership. Customer satisfaction is the be-all and end-all of hospitality business.

Destination Resilience

Emerging from ecological sciences, resilience is now in tourism's usage. According to the concept, every system has the capacity to absorb disturbances (internal and external) and yet retain the same function, structure and identity. It may not be true in case of socio-ecological studies because the human system does not return to its original state after disturbances. The concept of resilience can be harnessed to address long term structural changes caused by tourism. Since tourism industry is largely composed of vulnerabilities, and resilience building, as stated by Becken and Khazai (2017) can reduce vulnerabilities, it is expected that stakeholders may be careful on capacity building. Discussing the resilience and destination governance of Whistler, Sheppard (2017, p.70) pointed out eight resilience-enhancing factors: strong and effective governance; shared vision, values and single-mindedness; strong partnerships, collaboration and community involvement; community and corporate memory; taking care of social issues; well-resourced community; sense of place and sense of connectedness; and passion, pride and a can-do attitude. If stakeholders can adhere to some or all of the above factors, strong destination resilience can be developed. Much of the Whistler's success, as Canada's best resort, was largely due to strong resilience and effective destination governance (Butler, 2017).

Pathways to Sustainable Tourism

David Weaver (2012) posed a most wishful question, whether sustainability can shake hands with mass tourism. The question still remains unanswered except the dominance of selective practices such as recycling, energy use reduction, codes of conduct, environmental award schemes, and eco-certification programme. The fact of the matter is that the environmental management measures adopted in the name of sustainability are small-scale and shallow. There are a few commercially viable large-scale tourism destinations which have excellent environmental performance (Weaver 2016). Sustainability means authentic development backed by efficient supply chains which is not easy to achieve. So, what makes it difficult to access? Hansruedi Muller (1997, p.33) sums up the answer: 1. reduce the boom factor; 2. reduce inequality; 3. give priority to principles and objectives of ecological environment and biosphere; 4. respect the right of future generation and their hand in shaping their world. In sum, stakeholders should remove the barriers that withhold implementation of sustainability, such as, human barriers and lack of demand. To facilitate these hurdles, stakeholders should subscribe to Travelife, a web-based certification system which allows its users to monitor and self-assess their sustainability performance (Baddeley and Font, 2011).

Before planning for the tourism sector, the managers of tourism can prevent and modify such activities which may threaten environmental attributes. These should be addressed in ecosystem-specific and site-specific management indicators. The use of indicators is critical to both the successful measurement of tourist destinations' environmental assets and attributes. Other key building blocks include monitoring and standards. These benchmarks may be environmental thresholds. We should use tourism intelligence in taking note of warning indicators, such as, loss of repeat visitors, reduction in the number of visits, etc. The factors can be many including ecological, cultural, social and economic. Managers should better understand the positive and negative, tangible and intangible, direct and indirect impacts. In theory, there are a number of factors that exist. Best practice tourism sites can teach better 'how to find a pathway to sustainability?' Impacts are warnings to the makers of tourism if they go unheeded, the destination would fall prematurely. One of the shortcomings has been the ignorance of the concept of ecosystem upon which the entire structure of sustainability depends.

It is in this context that we compare two mountain destinations as a best practice and a bad practice: Whistler resort in Canada and Manali in the Indian Himalayas. Both the resorts have very close similarities in their physical settings. Rising from a small mountain village, they had a few households, visited by occasional mountaineers both perched on high places. As the road came up, the two blossomed into flourishing resorts within a short period of time, both introduced ski-lift as a prime activity, both attained fame and popularity. They unfortunately parted ways as they appeared boldly on the world tourism map. Whistler strictly followed the planning process and growth management strategies and developed according to ecosystem-specific site, periodically monitored the growth trends. They faithfully carried out the 'do's and don'ts' of sustainability. Manali on the other hand diverted from the mantra of 'small is beautiful' to expansionism, ignoring the vulnerability of ecosystem. Eventually, a small rural

village turned into a congested urban destination. Manali is no more a pasture land, but an overbuilt mountain resort with no limit to growth. The next generation of tourist shall witness patches of green and may wonder 'where have gone the green pleasure domes of the Kulu Valley'.

Concluding Remarks

The aforementioned examples of two resorts manifest that tourism development is not an easy task. Stakeholders have to be alert on some development sensitive points, such as, performing the policy goals, strict governance, understanding of ecosystems (economic, social, environmental and political) and reduction of over-consumption. They should distinguish between growth and development for efficient use of common pool resources. In brief, the development should be seen in the words of Brundtland (1987) 'to reconcile human activities within the law of nature'.

Sustainability shall not happen by itself. Unless communities practice the tenets of sustainable development, it will remain a far cry. Resilient Societies give a promise of SD. In this case Manali destination had a fall due to laxity and indolence of the local community. Marzuki and Hay (2016) holds the view that according to stakeholder theory, it is the moral obligation of primary stakeholders to involve experienced players of the community in sustainable growth of tourism, besides keeping all parties informed of development design. Sustainability shall remain a beleaguered quest as long as society remains unsustainable. Liaison and cooperation among stakeholders is vital to achieving various gains from tourism.

Active stakeholders seek involvement in the undertaking while passive ones have less motivation (Cater et al., 2015). Jamal and Getz (2000) argue that "Greater efforts should be directed towards bringing the marginalized community-based voices. It is observed that collaboration between diverse stakeholders through tourism partnership will result in more equitable and more sustainable development. Participation in policy-making might help in democratizing decision-making process and can lead to capacity building (De Araujo and Bramwell, 2004). Unfortunately, Manali's stakeholders were enticed by capitalists and corporate who modified their sustainable policy and short-term market forces took over the green policy affecting the life cycle of the resort. To revitalize, Manali needed a new and differentiating tourism policy which should be based on soft tourism rather than currently practiced hard tourism; defensive rather than aggressive; slow rather than fast – A policy that promotes value consciousness.

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**CONSUMER PREFERENCES FOR HOTEL BRAND AND BRAND SUSTAINABILITY:
LUXURY HOTELS IN
KUALA LUMPUR, MALAYSIA**

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Abstract: The economic prominence of the Tourism industry is very huge which cannot be underestimated. Travel & Tourism is set for a milestone year as the industry's contribution to the worldwide economy during the year 2016 exceeded \$7.2 trillion to world GDP, representing 9.8% of global GDP and created 284 million jobs. Tourism in Malaysia has grown from RM 32 billion in 2005 to RM 69 billion in 2015 with 16.4 million arrivals in 2005 to 25.7 million arrivals in 2015, placing Malaysia currently at 12th position in international tourist arrivals. Current research has focused on branding process of luxury international brand hotels and to find out actual influencing factors which create issues regarding brand loyalty for local hotels. Data was collected from six (6) luxury Five-star hotels in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia by using purposive sampling technique. In total 117 responses were collected from customers by using closed-ended survey instrument and 13 face-to-face interviews were conducted with hoteliers to capture the industrial perspective. SPSS version 23 was used to analyse the data. The findings suggest that brand marketing and brand awareness of the luxury hotels in Kuala Lumpur will effectively contribute to enhancing the brand sustainability of these hotels. Furthermore, the study shows that guest negative experiences will weaken the brand equity of these hotels.

Keywords: Consumer preferences, brand, equity, sustainability, luxury hotels, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

Introduction

A brand is an image or a thought in regard to a specific item or management that is associated with the consumers through the distinctive evidence of the name, motto or the logo of the organization or the item sort. Marking is advertising those item pictures or thoughts to the clients to acquire acknowledgement from the general population. Marking is typically used to separate one item from the other. The brands are straightforwardly identified with the customers and in this way, have pulled in such a great amount of consideration from the specialists around the globe. As indicated by those analysts, marking is the essential method of separation from the rivals keeping in mind the end goal to acquire maintainable upper hand (Kotler et al, 2009). Because of quick changes in the market competitiveness and the current marketing process, brand representation assumes a key part in pulling in new clients while holding existing clients.

Because of the expanded competitiveness in the market, organizations have tended to actualize different brand administration practices to separate their items and management from their competitors. This specific research investigation anticipated that would separate how the brand picture consequences for customer conduct and basic leadership process. As per Kapferer (2012) brand administration is an arrangement of exercises that are utilised for situating the brand in the market, choosing target clients for the predetermined brand and hold the current notoriety of the brand. The brand administration is vital in light of the fact that it gives direction to pull in new clients while holding existing clients moreover.

As specified by Wood (2000) and Maurya & Mishra (2012), the general meaning of a brand is a name, a logo, a plan or a blend of them, which separates an association from different associations. Abratt, and Kleyn (2012) contended that a brand is more than a name, a picture or an image. Also, it is conceivable to contend that a brand is a known character of an association as far as items and services they offer to the clients. It can concur with this contention and clarification because of a brand is a guarantee of value and a guarantee made in the buyers' brain to satisfy their prerequisites. Marking is considered as a huge factor of the corporate methodology to build the productivity and the piece of the overall industry through upgrading brand picture by making client loyalty and product attractiveness. As indicated by De Pelsmacker, Geuens, and Van den Bergh, (2001), the interest in brand representation and the brand awareness can be considered as a vital and effective component in the advertising technique as they are imperative in accomplishing long-time productivity. Keller (2003) specified that brands are the significant representatives for separating the merchandise and amenities of the organization from the contenders and the brand equity has recognized the significance of the brand in the marketing, which gives useful insights to the organizations.

Hotel brand exemplifies a complete set of physical and socio-psychological characteristics and principles. The brand is built on the hotel's reputation for efficient service, consistency and quality. All of these features have great influence upon consumers' perception of the brand and the meaning they attribute to it. Ultimately, brand perceptions affect consumers' buying decision (Doyle, 1994). There are prospective financial profits and customer interests in hotel branding. Robust brands are thus significant to encounter the challenges of extremely unpredictable marketplaces nowadays. In order to improve their competitiveness, hotels need to generate exclusive features that differentiate their products from those of their contenders. An exceptional food quality from hotel restaurants can be a tactical methodology to their branding undertakings in order to guarantee that they are better able to deal with inconsistent market forces (Ismail, Muhammad, Yusoff & Shariff, 2016).

Hotel and Restaurants need to be careful with the quality of their products offered on their premises, as the better quality will attract both the domestic as well as the international customers. Malaysian hotel industry functions in an environment, which is categorized by an intense competition and high uncertainty (Ong, 2004). Hence, the hotels must ensure that their products, both Rooms and Food and Beverage, maintains excellent quality and this could be an effective approach to manage the inconsistent

marketplace and to stay in the competition. The management of branding activities and ensuring consistent quality are a prerequisite for improving performance. Providing high food quality is important in the way that a satisfied customer will return and become a loyal customer.

While, consolidating the hotel brand means improving the customer's consciousness and form a solid brand image in the mind of patrons, as current marketing and brand management strategies in hotel industries were limited to advertising, word of mouth and service performance (Duncan & Moriarty, 1998; Xu & Chan, 2010). This was accomplished by addition of value to the brand image, brand awareness, brand loyalty and the perceived quality to attract customers towards the hotel brand. Due to the large availability of luxury international brands in Malaysia, local brands are facing issues about promotion and to reach the target market a huge competition is available on almost same price and quality levels. Therefore, the purpose of current research is to get knowledge of branding process of luxury international brand hotels and to find out actual influencing factors that create issues regarding brand loyalty for local hotels.

Literature Review

Concept of branding

A brand is an image or a thought with respect to a specific product or organization that is associated with the clients through the distinguishing name, motto or the logo of the organization or the product variety. Branding is advertising those product images or thoughts to the clients to acquire acknowledgement from them. Marking is generally used to separate one item from the other. The brands are specifically identified with the customers and thus have pulled in a great amount of consideration from the scholars around the globe. As indicated by those scholars, branding is the essential method of distinction from the competitors in order to attain sustainable competitive lead (Kotler et al, 2009). Because of fast changes in the market rivalry and the current advertising process, brand representation plays an imperative part in enticing new clienteles while holding existing consumers. Cohen (2011) claimed that a brand is not just a title, an image, a pictogram or even a thought. Moreover, it is conceivable to contend that a brand is a known character of an association regarding items and amenities they offer to the clients. A robust brand distinctiveness that is well received and experienced by the clienteles helps in creating confidence, which, distinguishes the brand from competitiveness. A brand character is a communication conveyed by the brand. Brand personality additionally characterizes what must stay and what is allowed to change (Kapferer, 1997). From the customer's point of view, the brand delivers the guarantee for the customers concerning the quality and the trustworthiness of the product or service.

Brand Image

Musanje (2011) provided the definition of brand image as “a unique set of associations in the mind of the customer concerning what a brand stands for and the implied promise the brand makes”. According to Musanje (2011), brand image is a blend of all tangible and intangible qualities that impact how the customers perceive an organization. Kumar (2006) has discussed the difference between the brand image and brand identity. It is likely to contend that brand uniqueness is the thing that an

association desires individuals to accept their identity and brand image is the thing that individuals consider the association in realism. Thus, associations need to fortify the novel brand identity and esteem if they wish to change the way the brand image is passed on. The brand pictured influences the purchasing conduct of the customers as it effects the impression of the buyers with respect to the brand. In spite of the fact that the contenders have comparative items with the same quality or design, the brand representation of the organization can separate the brand from the products of other organizations. Schaefer and Burmann (2008) specified that brand image is a crucial determinant of customer purchasing conduct. Because of the importance of brand image for the customer behaviour, a significant consideration has been paid by advertising experts about the variables that can effect on the brand image of an organization.

Brand Awareness

Brand awareness is considered as a fundamental deciding component of brand value. The brand awareness is the capacity of a consumer to distinguish the brand and identify it with the associated item. For an item to be bought, it is vital that the customers are aware of the item, so it is incorporated into their buying decisions. Blackwell et al (2001) mentioned that it is largely for the reason that the item should be in the mindfulness stage before it goes to the consideration stage and the higher brand mindfulness will enhance the likelihood of the item into the consideration stage as well. Considering the above viewpoints, the brands with higher brand awareness will have a higher probability to be bought by the customers as compared to the alternative brands (Yasin et al, 2007). This is one reason the clients want to buy exceptionally imaged brands as opposed to the new brands.

There are a few vital elements, which can influence the brand awareness level. In some nations, for example, China, the governmental issues and the geographic area can influence the level of brand familiarity with the general population. DeLong et al. (2004) said in their examination that some Chinese customers could not separate the brand names of United States items with the European item mark names. The brand mindfulness can be enhanced however consistent presentation to the brand by the purchaser. There are different approaches to generate brand awareness and it is likely to accomplish higher mindfulness through two primary assignments, which incorporate enhancing the character of the brand name and connecting the brand name with the product class. Additionally, various forms of advertisements are utilised for the expanding the brand awareness. As per the research conducted by Tsai et al. (2007), commercial affects the state of mind of the brand while influencing the purchaser's buying decision. Because of that reason, the promoting efforts have turned into a huge piece of the organization operates and the buyers have more assets to look at the products and services of each organization before purchasing the item (Alvarez and Casielles, 2005). Another significant instrument for improving the brand mindfulness is the endorsement from the celebrities. It is imperative to have VIP support, as it will enhance the attractiveness and the reliability. Those big names can disperse the messages to the specific group of shoppers to enhance the brand mindfulness as a wellspring of validity.

Brand and Corporate Relationship – Brand Building

The hospitality industry highlights the rise of the internet and social media sites for information that has transformed into a boon for customers and for companies to build their brands. This electronic data can be combined with information gathered through conventional research methods to assist in the effective brand management and to ensure that the brand is meeting customers' needs and is able to develop a loyal base (Myers & Shocker, 1981; Keller, 1993). Demirçiftçi and Kızıllırmak (2016) suggested that branding is very important for hotels for being competitive. Hotels are using different brands to serve diverse market segments. In the hospitality industry, branding provides trust to the consumers, which helps to increase guest satisfaction. To a great degree, hospitality customers are seeking experiences, and brand should provide those experiences, or, more specifically, create the framework that allows guests to have the experience they seek. The internet and social media provide new tools and information to solidify the brand and provides the customer with valuable information that helps brand managers to offset the emerging buying trend and improve their brand's status (Dev & Withiam, 2011).

Hotel Brand Strategy

The brand's value is based on potential guests' awareness of the brand, their perception of its quality, and overall customer satisfaction. Consumers are typically willing to pay a price premium for brands they view as being high in quality (O'Neill, & Xiao, 2006). Literature shows that brand affiliation, name recognition, and reputation for high-quality service together can contribute as much as 20 to 25 percent of the concerned value of a successfully operating hotel. As customers' loyalty grows, the brand owner/s can capitalize on the brand's value through price premiums, decreased price elasticity, increased market share, and more rapid brand expansion. They also share inputs on how companies with successful brands benefit in the financial marketplace by improving shareholders' value (Olsen, Chung, Graf, Lee, & Madanoglu, 2005). The brand-extension strategy works for the hotel industry in part, because guests choose different types of hotels depending on their purpose of travel, and a brand extension with a familiar name allows consumers who depend on trusted brands to economize on time and search costs (O'Neill & Mattila, 2010).

Brand Loyalty

Brand loyalty is viewed as the reflection of a brand's strength as it is an essential output of what the brand awareness and brand image of a hotel can generate. It is both an input and a result of brand equity as the dimensions of brand equity, which is brand knowledge, influence it and the assets and liabilities linked to a brand. The customers were classified based on their actual brand loyalty using the Brown48 model where there are four categories to identify the various types of buyers that show loyalty towards a particular brand, a) hardcore loyalists, b) split loyalists, c) shifting loyalists, and d) switchers. A successful market strategy must be based on enhancing brand loyalty and all dimensions that aid to achieve this must be inter-connected (Moisescu & Vu, 2011). Brand loyalty is the inclination of the customers to the explicit products compared to the other comparable choices with the contenders. Even though the competitors offer highly convenient, superior featured or low-priced products, the customers still tend to buy the product, if the clienteles have solid brand loyalty towards the brand of a particular company. When the brand loyalty of the customer increases,

the vulnerability of the customer base decreases. Repeat buying is measured as one of the pointers of the customer's brand loyalty. However, this is not a correct pointer as some customers are customary buyers of a particular brand due to the promotions and prominence in stock.

The brand loyalty is influenced by the states of mind and the conduct of the consumer. There are different variables which influence the brand loyalty including the brand name, value, style, item quality, advancement, store condition and service quality (Lau et al, 2006). If the brand names are much admired, it will have higher advantages than the unfamiliar brand names. The shoppers like to purchase the much-rumoured brands and the repeat purchases are high for such brands. As indicated by Russel and Taylor (2006), the buyers tend to buy the product again if the product is meeting with their necessities. On the other hand, if the product quality is not great, there will be no brand reliability and the shoppers will switch the brands until the point they feel satisfied. For any purchaser, the cost is a vital factor and if the brand loyalty is high, the buyers will pay much higher cost than the competitors will. The solid brand loyalty will not be in this way influenced by the price competition and will be significant for the organization. Along with this, the store location, the design and the appearance in the stores additionally influence the brand dependability. The advertising promotions aids in building client faithfulness as this can make a positive image with respect to the brand in the psyches of the purchaser (Chioveanu, 2008).

Guest Satisfaction and Effects on Hotel Branding

Literature shows that there are two most crucial components that affect the branding of a hotel, either positively or negatively – Guest satisfaction and effects of room revenue on hotel branding. The guests today require consistency and quality at an optimum price and lodging operations have directed efforts to provide guest satisfaction and branding they seek (Naylor, & Kleiser, 2002). Brand names act as a shorthand for communicating information about the company and its offerings. The researchers have identified the relationship between branding strategies and the revenue indicators of Average daily rate and Occupancy percentages. Research conducted by O'Neill and Mattila (2010) concluded that hotels with higher guest satisfaction levels achieved greater revenues per room.

Brand Preferences and Purchase Intent

It is confirmed that brands with higher advertising yielded higher brand equity. The higher equity paved way for the greater brand preference by the consumer, which led to their intentions to purchase the better-marketed and advertised product (Cobb-Walgren, Ruble, & Donthu, 1995). As such, the consumer behaviour of individuals is directed towards enhancing their self-concept through the consumption of goods as symbols (Sirgy, 1982). Self-image has been considered a multidimensional construct, with various forms of the self, such as actual, ideal and social (among others). It is the actual and ideal self-image that has received the most attention and been shown to have the most significant effect on product evaluations (Sirgy, 1986; Graeff, 1997). Sirgy et al. (1997) have also provided evidence of self- and product-user-image congruency as being able to explain and predict consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions. Also, Dolich (1969) found congruence between self and product brand image to be positively related to the strength of preference for brands. The perceptions

within the user imageries often form a basis from which a brand personality develops (Plummer, 1985).

Assessing Markets and Marketing Issues

Literature reveals several common marketing issues faced by corporate brands, top-level management and marketing professionals in effectively marketing their products and services to the target clientele (Naylor, & Kleiser, 2002). Various macro marketing issues and marketing strategies have been critically examined deduce the significance of these applications on the society and the contributions made by these guidelines to improve the marketing impacts of these companies (Stauss, & Bruhn, 2008). The tasks of top management to manage their corporate portfolio of businesses to achieve the goals have been reviewed to formulate suitable market combinations as per different resource requirements and profit opportunities. The Marketing Mix model, which is widely applied in every sector and industry, is the foundation of the core marketing concepts has been suggested as the basis to improve a company's marketing position and provide a competitive advantage (Coulson, Wind, & Claycamp, 1980).

Future for Hotel Branding

The brand performance of hotels, their performance measuring tools and the brand extensions that allow hotels to establish themselves in the market effectively Keller and Lehmann (2006) illustrated more on concepts of brand management, also categorized several techniques for strategically managing a hotel brand (Cai, & Hobson, 2004). Today branding is increasingly being conducted on a global landscape and is synonymous with image building and diversifying to the maximum extent plausible. The 'Choice Model' involves understanding the utility of the product or service and it influences the consumer choice to understand the impact of brands (Daun, & Klinger, 2006). The brand acts as the catalyst through which the words and actions of a company, its competitors, and the environment, in general, are converted into an emotional connect with the local target market. From the above review of literature and discussion, the following hypotheses were generated;

H1: Brand marketing leads to higher brand equity of the hotel.

H2: Higher brand awareness leads to higher brand equity of the hotel.

H3: Guests negative experience leads to lower brand equity of the hotel.

Research Design

While keeping the purpose of the study in mind, the Dual methodology was applied. Six (6) luxury Five-star hotels were selected in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia by using a purposive sampling technique. The instrument was consisting two sections, first with demographic and general descriptive equations including, the purpose of the stay, duration of stay, factors affecting guest stay and preferences while choosing the hotel. The second section was incorporated to collect data regarding different variables of the study, the measurement scale of a questionnaire for all items in the second section was based on 5-point Likert scale, ranging from '1' for 'strongly disagree' to '5' being 'strongly agree'. Section two included total 23 items for (3) independent variables such as 'Brand marketing (7-items)', 'Higher brand awareness (4-items)', 'Guest negative experience (5 items)' to evaluate one (1) dependent factors 'Brand equity (7-items)'. All

items have been derived/adapted from Atwal and Williams (2009); Kayaman and Arasli (2007); Park and Srinivasan (1994) and Kotler and Gertner (2002).

For the current research, 175 survey questionnaires were distributed based on a non-probability convenience sampling technique (Amick & Walberg, 1975). Of these, 147 questionnaires were returned and only 117 questionnaires were found to be useful. A qualitative approach was used, and one to one interviews were conducted with 13 sales/ marketing/ public relations manager and brand managers of the hotels to capture industrial perspective. An open-ended questionnaire was prepared to contain questions related to the importance of brand sustainability, branding strategy of the hotel and performance measure scale in the hotel. The reliability and validity of the instrument was tested by using SPSS applications and questionnaire was given to academic and industry expert for review. Four main questions are listed below;

- *What are the key strategies used in branding the hotel distinctively from competitors?*
- *What methodology is followed to effectively promote the numerous hotel brands and sub-brands?*
- *What are the various challenges encountered while marketing and creating a USP for the brand?*
- *How can a hotel enhance and capitalize its brand sustainability?*

Findings and Discussion

Demographic breakdown of the sample

The demographic breakdown of the sample in Table 1 shows that male respondents (76) were in majority as compared to female respondents (41), with regards to age group, the majority of the respondents were in age group of 30-39 years (93) followed by 40-49 years (17). For nationality, interestingly UK (57) was on top followed by Singapore (22), India (11) and 10 or less than 10 respondents (each country) were from USA, Pakistan, and Australia. More than 100 respondents travelled to Kuala Lumpur for MICE related activities.

Interestingly it was found out that 58.1% of the respondents stayed 2 to 3 times at an average per month and 23% of the respondents stayed 4 to 5 times a month at the various luxury hotels across the city. There were several factor respondents considered before choosing the hotel including loyalty programs offered by luxury hotels was on the top followed by location and meal packages, room tariff rates, quality of service and the brand value of the hotel chain. It was found out that 48.6% of the respondents do not give any feedback regarding their stay in the luxury hotels, 51.4% of the respondents always give their feedback and suggestions for better improvements, which can ornamental their stay experience. For the question regarding brand preference alterations in the occurrence of a negative experience during their stay and the further consequences of shifting to another hotel in the following visits thereafter. The majority of the respondents (52.1%) voted in favour and agreed to a new hotel establishment in case of an unpleasant incident at the previous hotel. This strengthened the belief of guests switching to alternate properties if they are unsatisfied with their stay experience. Where 23.7% of the respondents disagreed with the statement and

reiterated their belief to continue staying in the same hotel despite the drawbacks, due to their affiliated loyalty with the respective brands. Moreover, 24.2 % of respondents remained neutral to the proposed question and did not support either of the statements.

Table 1. Demographics of the study (n=117)

	Frequency (F)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	76	64.9%
Female	41	35.1%
Total	117	100%
Age		
Below 30 years	3	2.6%
30-39 years	93	79.5%
40-49 years	17	14.5%
50 years and above	4	3.4%
Total	117	100%
Nationality		
UK	57	48.7%
Singapore	22	18.8%
India	11	9.4%
USA	10	8.6%
Pakistan	8	6.8%
Australia	9	7.7%
Total	117	100%
Purpose of travel and stay		
MICE	103	88.0%
Leisure	12	10.3%
VFR	2	1.7%
Total	117	100%
Duration of stay		
Less than 2 nights	10	8.5%
2 – 3 nights	68	58.1%
4 – 5 nights	27	23.0%
More than 5 nights	12	10.4%
Total	117	100%
Factors affecting guest stay		
Loyalty programs	57	48.7%
Location	22	18.8%
Meal packages	19	16.2%
Room Tariff rates	3	2.6%
Quality of service	11	9.4%
Brand value	5	4.3%
Total	117	100%

Reliability of study variables

Table 2 demonstrates that the overall reliability (internal consistency) of the study as given by a coefficient alpha 0.95, was deemed acceptable (Churchill, 1979; Nunnally, 1978), which suggests that the “measures [were] free from random error and thus reliability coefficients estimate the amount of systematic variance” (Churchill, 1979). Reliability analysis is well known as to test the “degree of consistency between measures of the scale” (Mehrens & Lehman, 1987), when each factor (study variables) such as ‘Brand marketing’, ‘Higher brand awareness’, ‘Guest negative experience, and ‘Brand equity’ were examined, it was found to be reliable with coefficient alpha more than 0.70 at aggregate level, cut-off point (Churchill, 1979; Nunnally, 1978). The high alpha values indicate good internal consistency among the items, and the high alpha value for the overall scale indicates that convergent validity was met (Parasuraman, Berry & Zeithaml, 1991).

Table 2. Reliability Analysis

Variables	Cronbach Alpha	Number of Items	Mean
Brand marketing	0.87	7	2.90
Higher brand awareness	0.78	4	3.44
Guest negative experience	0.81	5	3.31
Brand equity	0.92	7	3.01
Total	0.95	23	

Regression Analysis

Since regression analysis is “the technique used to derive an equation that relates the criterion variables to one or more predictor variables; it considers the frequency distribution of the criterion variable, when one or more predictor variables are held fixed at various levels” (Churchill, 1995, p. 887).

Table 3 shows that the regression analysis was analysed having ‘Brand equity as the dependent variable and ‘Brand marketing’, ‘Higher brand awareness’, ‘Guest negative experience’ as the independent variables. It was necessary to use the regression analysis for hypothesis testing and the obtained results showed that there was a positive effect with R^2 of 0.719 and F-value of 64.9 at a significance level $p < 0.05$. There is not such autocorrelation as the Durbin-Watson value is 1.94 and variance inflation factor is below 3, which is clearly showing there is no multicollinearity problem. It was found that ‘Brand marketing ($\beta = 0.584$)’ and ‘Higher brand awareness ($\beta = 0.333$)’ leads to higher equity of hotel, hence hypothesis H1 and H2 are accepted. However, it was found that ‘Guest negative experience ($\beta = 0.0531$)’ leads towards lower brand equity of the hotel, thus making Hypothesis H3 accepted. Moreover, all the independent variables jointly explain 72% of the variance (R^2) in the ‘Brand equity of the hotel, which is very good. **Table 3. Regression Analysis** (Dependent variable: Brand equity)

Variables	B	t – value	p – value	Hypothesis
Brand marketing	0.584	3.248	0.001	Accepted
Higher brand awareness	0.333	3.698	0.000	Accepted
Guest negative experience	0.531	3.613	0.000	Accepted
Note: $R^2 = 0.719$, $F = 64.9$, $p < 0.05$				

Findings from Qualitative Approach

The managers at Hilton, PJ and Grand Millennium emphasized more on the contextual analysis undertaken by the luxury hotels in terms of location, latest trends in hospitality industry technological advancements and revenue generated in the previous quarters. These parameters determine the alterations in the branding strategies and the mechanism used to develop them. The strategies that are developed these companies focus on their theme and Unique Selling Point (USP) offerings. At Hilton, PJ, the strategies are driven by their commitment towards environmental sustainability and green initiatives. For Grand Millennium service quality and unmatched stay and meal experience are the core of strategies. Grand Hyatt maximizes on its décor and ambience while Novotel and Mandarin Oriental tiers on its royal legacy. All the hotels formulate their strategies keeping a competitive advantage in mind and they have been quite successful at it. It has made each luxury hotel achieve an individual segment base that is distinct from their counterparts.

Quantitative approach findings show that majority of customers visited Kuala Lumpur for MICE related activities and they have chosen the hotel as per their loyalty programs, the location of the hotel and meal packages offered.

For Hotel Istana, existing customer base is relatively very high and hence they do not concentrate much on the detailed marketing of the brands but more on the events that take place every day. In addition, all their brands are fairly well recognized in the hotel industry from the luxury to star category. Shangri-La does not have sister entity and has few branches in Malaysia, their marketing efforts are highly concentrated towards their foreign guests. Ritz Carlton uses the marketing value of Marriott International as the parent company and their lineage of luxury service experience offered globally. Marketing for the luxury hotel brand and allied brands can be achieved through innovative means of advertisements on travel websites, online travel agencies, positive word of mouth, and reviews on trip-advisor and through the efforts of the sales and marketing teams. These techniques would create higher marketing of the hotel in the minds of the potential guests. Almost all the managers concluded with same opinions of not experiencing serious challenges as all the brands are already well established in the market. They all have distinct unique selling point (USPs) that highlights their company's policies, be it sustainable environment management, truly unmatched luxury, supreme dining, and entertainment experience or intricate personalization of services. They do experience challenges in maintaining those propositions time to time as the trends in the industry are ever changing and the needs of the customers are highly dynamic and unpredictable. Other common challenges they face pertain to growing number of hotel brands and increasing competition, alternate options amongst the guests to try newer avenues and rising costs of inventory and resources. In researcher's opinion, while creating a USP for a hotel ensures higher brand recall which indirectly leads to higher brand awareness and brand equity in the customer mindset. It must be in relation to the vision and mission of the hotel company and must stand out as a distinctive attribute to uphold the hotel's integrity and guest base always. It was also found out that, for brand managers, the biggest task is to search for innovative ways to enhance this sustainability and retain the existing business repeatedly. Shangri-La, a new entrant on the block is surviving on low occupancy at present but has made a mark for itself steadily. The chain's rankings in World's Top 10 Chains and the largest

room inventory tag have given them sufficient publicity to create a strong foothold in the hotel industry in Kuala Lumpur. The personnel at Istana hotel explicated about capitalizing on brand sustainability through their eco-friendly initiatives, non-negotiable beliefs in community work and the need to provide luxurious services responsibly. This has been their motto to deliver sustainability in all their endeavours. To build a bright sustainable future for all hotels in Kuala Lumpur, seeking solutions on customer requirements' anticipation, strong loyalty programs with multiple redemptions, launching creative measures that attract customer attention and judicious usage of available resources are the key pre-requisites.

Conclusion

Brand preferences, brand equity and brand value of the luxury hotels in Kuala Lumpur will effectively contribute to enhancing the brand sustainability of luxury hotels. Gaining an understanding of these preferences and analysing the drawbacks would lead to the higher growth of these properties and pave way for advanced sustainable operations. Sustainability of a hotel can be increased through higher marketing of the hotel services amongst the target clientele, the creation of a niche Unique Selling Point (USP) to gain a competitive advantage and capitalizing on the existent customer base to ensure higher guest retention. Just like other studies, current research faced time constraint, only six hotels were selected, and few responses were received from an industry perspective. Concerning avenues for future research, the concept of brand management is enormous and there are numerous components, which could be researched upon. The various variables of brand awareness, brand presence, brand essence, and brand architecture are some crucial tools on which further studies could be conducted to analyse their effect on hotels performing better and earning higher revenues. In addition, a study on brand sustainability and brand enhancement could be conducted in luxury hotels across various cities of the country.

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ECONOMIC - ORGANIZATIONAL ANALYSIS OF THE PUBLIC TOURISM IN CAMPANIA, ITALY: MANAGEMENT AND HUMAN ASSET ISSUES

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Abstract: The study intends to analyze the change of management culture within the Campania Public Tourism Sector (CPTS). The aim of the study is to evaluate, through the SWOT analysis, the elements that are relevant to the change of the system logic from bureaucratic to competitive. The differences are explained in figures n. 2 and n. 3 and tables 3 and 4. New young managers working in the CPTS have both theoretical skills and operative knowledge. Theoretical skills are related to education and training (non-humanistic). Managers entering the CPTS have also gained operative knowledge of innovative financial services. This knowledge represents a strong discontinuity with the bureaucratic culture that has characterized the CPTS for a long time, resulting in a negative performance of the business model of human and financial assets. The CPTS offers an ample chance for experimentation. Its strength is linked to the richness of natural, historical and cultural heritage assets of Campania region. On the other side, the organizational bottlenecks and the high incidence of political decision makers constitute the sector's negative features. A competitiveness-enhancing reform related to professional skills, management capabilities and training needs to be started but the process is still in progress.

Keywords: Italian Public Tourism Sector, Campania, Tourism management, Organizational analysis, Human assets

Introduction

From the SWOT analysis, the authors consider the change of the system logic from bureaucratic to competitive. CPTS has been characterized, for the last ten years, by old managers with a humanistic culture and a long presence in CPTS. CPTS was based on three pillars:

- a) National laws;
- b) Local political references;
- c) Local Government Budgeting.

In section one, organizational theories and their impact and evolution in Italy are outlined. Recently, Italian public institutions started to pay attention to business organization and its theories and felt a need for a different approach in the reorganization of the public sectors and subsectors. Italian public tourism sector and Campania's one in particular are illustrated in sections two and three respectively. The

sector workforce of Campania (20,367 units) is second only to Lazio, consists of 70% female university graduates with a degree in social sciences or law. Staff's average professional experience is around 20 years. In relation to the workforce, there is a strong element of discontinuity from the past. As it will be better described in "Finding and Discussion" section, change of management culture within the CPTS is due to young new managers with organizational and managerial education, management innovation skills and training in new innovative companies. Young managers represent the new culture, a striking tool that marks the beginning of a change from a bureaucratic logic to a competitive one. Managers entering the CPTS have also gained operational knowledge of innovative financial services. The innovative knowledge represents a strong discontinuity with the bureaucratic culture that has long characterized the CPTS, resulting in a negative performance of the business model of human and financial assets management.

Literature Review

In English speaking countries, scholars like (Merton, 1949), (Blau, 1971), (Scott, 1964), (Selznick, 1953) (March 1965), (Etzioni, 1964) became eminent organization theorists. The process of diversification of organization theory began in the 1960s thanks to the contributions of (Gouldner, 1954), (Thompson, 1967), (Perrow, 1969, 1988, 1992) in USA, (Woodward, 1975) in UK, (Crozier and Touraine) in France. Works like "Handbook of organizations" (March 1965), "Reading Sociology of Organization" (Grusky and Miller, 1981), "Administrative Behavior" (Simon, 1947) represent fundamental milestones in the evolution of the discipline. After half a century they are still widely consulted. The organization theory made its way into the major American universities. It acquired the identity of empirical science by combining theory and practice and played an important role in that "Society of organizations", (Prethuis, 1971). Organization theory as discipline also had a robust academic life in the UK like other engineering, economic and psychological disciplines. Just to mention one French example, (Crozier, 1969) successfully developed his work on state bureaucracy from the tradition of Weber's organization theory (1945) and from industrial and labor organization field inaugurated in France by Friedman and Touraine. Crozier influenced the organizational policies of the French Public Administration. The latter claim proved fully misconceived and unfounded because of the fruitful collaboration between March and Cyert, (1963) and March and Simon (1958).

The main reasons for the evolution of the discipline were its institutionalization, the creation of university chairs, the implementation of research programs and the publications in scientific journals. However, despite all this, organization theories remained marginal in the framework of economic organizations and therefore had little or no impact on decisions and actions of governments, entrepreneurs and trade unions. Barley (2008) carried out an empirical study, he concluded that practitioners (professionals, consultants and managers) influenced organization science more than the latter affected the application of the discipline. There was no such dialectic in the Italian context. In Italy, organization theories were influenced by industrial relations and were object of prejudice by the academic and governmental institutions. The beginning of the new century marked a turning point. The long economic crisis and the generation turnover of the ruling class sparked a great interest in the discipline. The

application of business organization theories was important as it influenced national, regional and municipal governments' approach towards the development of vast areas of the country where it is possible to produce wealth or redistribute it avoiding the mistakes of the past.

Methodology

The SWOT Analysis is the methodology applied. It involves the assessment of business organization's internal strengths and weaknesses, its opportunities for growth and improvement and the threats to its survival caused by the external environment. The role of new managers, characterized by different education and training experience, is to find a balance between business organization and external environment and to keep this balance over time. Managers can achieve this balance by evaluating new programs and services aimed at maximizing organizational performance. The SWOT analysis is the preliminary decision-making tool that sets the various steps of the work. Step 1 of the SWOT analysis involves the collection and the evaluation of key data. In Step 2 of the SWOT analysis, the data collected are sorted into four categories: strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. The different steps highlight the differences between the approaches followed by the old and the new managers for the supply of services. Strengths and weaknesses generally stem from factors within the organization, whereas opportunities and threats usually arise from external factors. Step 3 involves the creation of a SWOT matrix for each approach (indicated as bureaucratic and competitive approach) followed by managers. Step 4 involves the incorporation of the SWOT analysis into a decision-making process to determine which services best meet the organization's overall strategic plan.

Overview of the Public Tourism Sector in Italy

The purpose of the public sector is to promote full sustainability, the development of competences and the definition of operators' principles and guidelines. Moreover, regional tourism policy sets out general guidelines and operational plans which must be implemented, monitored and coordinated by public managers. Tourist Public Sector deals with a specific geographical area (national or regional) in which a number of economic entities, public organizations and natural attractions are located and meet the needs and interests of a particular segment of tourist demand.

Natural, archeological and cultural heritage assets of Italy are outstanding. National figures, concerning sites available to tourists can be synthesized as follows:

- a) 3.607 Museums;
- b) 802 Monuments;
- c) 330 Archaeological Sites.

More than 50% are owned and managed by the public sector. If the number of tourists is considered by place typology (DIT 2014), art cities are second only to seaside resorts:

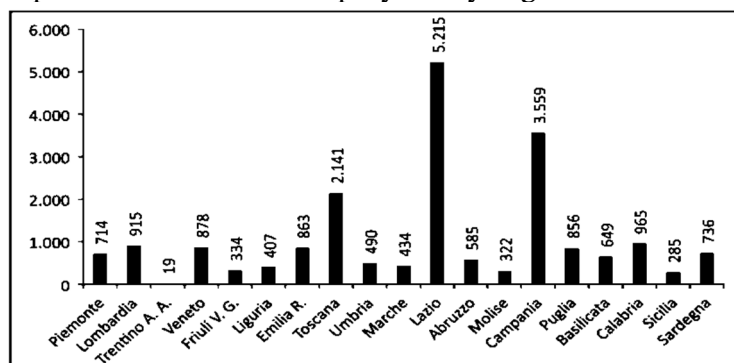
- a) 38% seaside;
- b) 30% artistic Cities, historical interest;
- c) 15% mountain resorts;
- d) 8% lake resorts
- e) 4% hill and various resorts.

Annually, the three most visited public attractions are:

- a) Colosseum, Palatine Hill, Roman Forum, 4,777,969 visitors, 30,423,950 revenue;
- b) Excavations of Pompeii (Campania) 2,233,496 visitors, 16,369,854 revenue;
- c) Uffizi Gallery, (Florence, Tuscany) 1,554,256 visitors, 1,530,346 revenue.

Lazio is the most visited region with its museums, monuments and archaeological sites. It also has the highest number of sector employees. Campania is second for the number of visitors and sector employees (see Graphic 1). However, the excavations of Pompeii which are the most important archeological site in Campania and one of the most visited site in Italy have recently had 12% drops of visitors.

Graphic 1. Number of employees by region



Assetsce: Ministry of Heritage and Culture, MiBAC, 2015

The total number of employees (MiBAC 2014) is 20,367. More than 50% have an employment contract for a fixed period of time or have an atypical contract; men's average age is 51, only 17% of employees are aged between 19 and 29. 51% of the total number of employees are women. Only 3% are university graduates, holding a high-level management position. The Campania case study offers an interesting example of national reality. Campania has museums, monuments, archaeological sites, seaside and artistic and historical places of interest. Employees in the touristic sector are about 17% of the national total.

Case Study: Campania Public Tourism Sector

For the above-described reasons, CPTS is strongly linked to National Public Tourist. Table 1, shows Campania's potential offer in terms of mobility, accommodation and number of tourists. The sector workforce in Campania is only second to Lazio, which includes the capital, Rome. Main statistical data concerning Campania is given in table 1. Despite all these strengths, Campania outlines a negative trend of 28% in revenue

exhibits (tab 1), in most part due to many organizational bottlenecks and weak organization culture. This needs to be taken in consideration due to the complexity of tourist service management. New decision makers started a competitiveness-oriented reform and the SWOT analysis highlights the shift from a bureaucratic to a competitive system.

Table 1: The main statistical data concerning CPTS

Territory		Accommodation	
Area Km ²	13.595.34	Beds	
Resident population	5.831.461	198.234	
Provinces		Public sector beds as % of total (%)	5,7
5			
Municipalities			
551			
Density of inhabitants per Km ²			
428,15			
Mobility		Presence of paying tourists (BCS)	
Airports	2	Total presences	5.368.280
Railway km		Foreign (%)	40,6
1.252		Main nationalities of inbound tourists	
State motorways km		USA - UK – D	
1.285		Average stay (days)	2,1
Highways km		Presence variation 2015/2010	- 11%
383		Total in the south	
Ports		6.699.820	
10		Total in Italy	
		28.602.605	
Gross revenue (BCS)		Sector revenue (BCS)	
State cultural heritage (Euro)		Variation 2015/ 2010	- 15% foreign
31.362.067		Variation 2015/2010	- 13%
Total in the South		domestic	
34.038.022			
Variation 2015/2010	- 28%		
Total in Italy			
135.508.666			

Data elaborated from source: MiBac 2015

Data show (Figure 1) that there are 551 municipalities in Campania and that more than 50 % of them have resident population under 5.000 units. The complexity of the CPTS management is also due to the coexistence of private and public agencies. Public agencies represent only 5.7 % of accommodation but offer most of rail transportation whereas private operators control road and water-way transportation and have 48% of the total of people employed in transportation in Campania. Visitors' number (BCS) highlights the importance of Campania in south Italy but it also shows a decrease in foreign (USA, UK, Germany) tourist presence (-15%) and domestic (-13%) and a 28% revenue loss.

Figure 1 Campania map with tourist references



For more details refer to the interactive site <http://www.cir.campania.beniculturali.it/mappa-dei-luoghi-della-cultura>

Campania has very favorable climate and natural resources. Figure 1 marks the main points of interest excluding Naples, the region's capital. The morphology favors the coastal area where main points of interest are situated. The coast presents four gulfs including the one of Naples which offers an excellent view of one of the active volcanos in continental Europe. Furthermore, secondary volcanic phenomena like hot springs are still present in Neapolitan areas like the Phlegrean Fields. Islands like Ischia, Procida and Capri are quite close, easily accessible via boat or hydrofoil from different parts of the coast and especially Naples port. There are many UNESCO sites throughout the region including the recent addition of Naples's historical city center. However, tourists who distribute wealth when visiting the region also require quality services during their stay. In certain cases, such as Pompeii and Capri natural cultural attractions are complemented by quality services, which are also the result of management, professional skills and staff training. People employed in the tourist sector are 3559, more than 70% are women with university degree in law or social sciences, 20 years is the average job experience. Therefore, these sites are better equipped to tackle legal and bureaucratic issues but are unprepared for management of service. It is also an effect of the lack of training and certain recruitment policies. Employees' selection is often based on political considerations and assessment criteria of candidates do not include knowledge of business administration, management, organization theory or skills, abilities related to service management. This kind of management culture behavior needs to be overcome if CPTS 's performance has to be oriented to improved results. A new reference model (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert & Wanhill, 2008) which focuses on management by objectives and by learning should be adopted. Moreover, CPTS should be more customer-centered, managers should act as interpreters of stakeholders' demands (Ritchie, Crouch, 2003), adapting their view to business organization (Davis 1966). Despite the majority of workforce consists of women, on 200 top managers 180 are men, 60% of which have no experience of service provision or sector knowledge. Furthermore, training, courses on organization (Simon 1947), service provision and client approach techniques have either not been offered at all (for the last 9 years) or considered optional at the employees' discretion. These two factors ensured the weak presence of organizational and professional skills, which

have determined 28% revenue loss mentioned in table 1. However, political decision makers started to change their perspective avoiding basing decisions on political criteria only. The new younger generation of decision makers who have a different educational background, theoretical knowledge and professional experience of organization theory started a new trend around mid - 2000 implementing organizational changes and market-oriented decisions. Campania public tourism SWOT (Strength, Weakness, Opportunities, and Threats) analysis below synthesizes service supply in table 2.

Table 2: CTPS SWOT Analysis

Strength	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - presence of 5 Unesco sites - diversified offer (culture, sea, food and beverage, spas) - international attractions: Pompeii, Capri - International Exhibiton and fair facility , Naples - favorable climate 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - poor service organization - normative based operating procedures - high incidence of politics - poor maintenance or neglect of sites - high level of pollution - crime - an insufficient offer of accommodation and beds
Opportunities	Threats
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - availability of structural funds for projects - need to enhance and promote vast areas - improve port system - new decision makers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - negative media impact (on poor maintenance in Pompeii) - degradation of culture and organization of reassetsces - environmental degradation of protected areas - difficulty in implementing organizational and cultural innovation

Table 3: SWOT analysis Bureaucratic Magerial Approach (CPTS)

Strength	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Experience; - strong community partnership / collaboration; - Employees feel part of bureaucratic culture; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - not dedicated workforce - Existence of previous Human Resources efforts don't offer innovative solutions; - Tools to improve Human Resources activities are not available (e.g. interview guide and training manual) - The managers are linked to work as regulation and certification, as formal role; - A generalist approach to operation manager; - A concentration of offer in certain areas, Naples and Salerno

Opportunities	Threats
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Improve information about practices in human Resources - Improve leadership training for possible advancement; - Identify / tap into staff hidden potentialities; - Could be addressed strategy to expand global operations linked to the services; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Identification of workers with bureaucracy; - Slowly changing process; - Low advantage of opportunities; - presence of investments from illegal revenue - long term emergencies as in waste disposal issues and relative negative media impact

Table 4: SWOT analysis Competitive Managerial Approach (CPTS)

Strength	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Continuous quality improvement (test, work); - Proactive management team - linkage between theory and practice - Increased interest of companies for tourist sector - More attention to private funding; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Service cannot be oriented only by business culture; - Driving force of business culture on the values of social action;
Opportunities	Threats
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The CPTS Managers could improve the distribution of products; - The CPTS Managers could take full advantage of Campania market characterized by food of excellence; - Managers could implement co-branding with manufacturers of food and drink - Strategy to expand global operations linked to the services; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Low responsibility for social advocacy of service; - Implementation of cost effective programs which could effect to the quality of services;

The analysis shows a propensity to change from a bureaucratic to a competitive approach so that the region's natural opportunities, heritage and staff potential are more efficiently exploited. Tables 3 and 4 show that there are significant gaps in CPTS. The SWOT analysis of bureaucratic logic (Table 3) highlights many elements of weakness and threat. In the last twenty years, these issues have not been resolved and the seniority of managers seems to represent a strong obstacle to CPTS growth.

The SWOT analysis of competitive logic (Table 4) highlights strengths and opportunities which would make CPTS more competitive by modifying market opportunities. Weaknesses and threats identified in Table 4, could be corrected through interventions to protect public utility (Service cannot be oriented only by business culture; Driving force of business culture on the values of social action) and quality of public service (Low responsibility for social advocacy of service; Implementation of cost effective programs which could affect to the quality of services).

Findings and Discussion

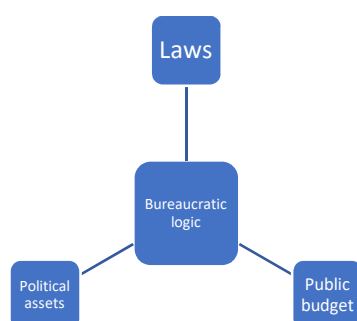
Younger political decision-makers, in recent years, have shown an increasing interest in application of organization theory to public and to CPTS in particular. Organization

theory provides an approach more cost conscious, more inclined to develop corporate culture as changing instrument (Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert, & Wanhill 2008). The first measure, which was implemented to improve services, consists in enhancing its CPTS's competitiveness, complemented by other reforms aimed at increasing autonomy and flexibility of regional administrations. Campania, includes sites that are of "high national interest" which are managed by local government. Local governments must have managerial expertise, specific knowledge of the field and solid financial bases. CPTS is under economic and managerial control of local administrations. Revenues must be used to finance its operations, but local budgets have always needed to be integrated with state funds. Over the last 15 years, CPTS would not have been able to cover production and staff costs without central financing. Furthermore, productivity and incentives alone (Murphy and Murphy, 2004) cannot ensure better quality service. The problem is not exclusively an economic one. Management skills (Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert & Wanhill, 2008), must take into account how service demand is evolving, in order to avoid the difficulties arisen over the last few years. Service supply is result of social interaction between staff needs and users demand. Until recently a bureaucratic logic characterized service management, governments addressed problems by producing normative tools (Cortes, 2008) and failed to meet employees and user's expectations. A challenge for CPTS is to foster competitive (figure 3) culture and to lighten the system of its bureaucratic (figure 2) burden. The main features of bureaucratic culture are illustrated in figure 2:

- a) Management is essentially normative based, older managers without knowledge of changing services;
- b) Politics role in decision-making process;
- c) Budgeting is inefficient not only in terms of quantity but also in expenditure modality, control, integration and coordination.

Over the last 5 years, such consolidated bureaucratic culture brought about the revenue decrease mentioned above. The SWOT analysis shows how the lack of intervention in the managerial skills reorganization and training needs contributed to the weaknesses of the CPTS.

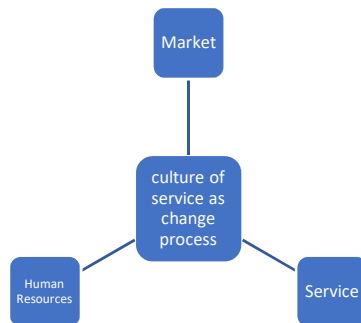
Figure 2 Bureaucratic culture



What can change competitive logic in the CPTS? First step is the open system as shown in figure 3. An open system entails:

- a) Paying more attention to the market;
- b) Changing the human resources culture;
- c) Paying more attention to quality of services supply.

Figure 3 Competitive culture



Paying more attention to the market means ensuring communication, customer knowledge, and market segmentation (Amposta, 2009). A second step is to improve management culture (Schein, 1985), forge better connections between CPTS and its customers. Low quality monitoring resulted in lack of attention to customer care and quality issues. Service (comfort, accuracy security) is important as climate. Is it possible to create an organization that listens to its staff?

The first answer is the open system, starting with its culture and actions. After, it will be possible to endow CPTS of economic and social legitimacy (Dodds and Butler, 2010). Open system means improving economic performance, but also enhancing the value of the service. Service supply pertains to management of organizations whose core business is to set up an intangible process delivered to public. In contrast to most manufacturing organizations, tourist services are typically produced in the presence of the customers, often with considerable participation and interaction with organizational staffs.

Furthermore, in contrast to manufacturing, tourist service delivery requires extensive coordination between front and back office (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2006, Mowforth, Munt, 2009). Evaluation of service supply involves, above all, the use of variables concerning the quality of service, not only variables of efficiency. Attention, must be dedicated to the setting of the monitoring system in order to evaluate service quality as balance between expected and supplied service. The open system (Norman 1984) shows the principal critical bottleneck of service supply. CPTS (Swarbrooke, 2005) must be reinterpreted (WTO, 2014) taking into account service management. Quickly, CPT must change behavior otherwise it will lose its historical pre-eminent position towards any more agile competitive organization, as shown in figure 3. Over the past two years, new managerial leverage moved CPTS competitiveness forward, overcoming the following concrete issues:

Weaknesses

- a) Assets not dedicated workforce;
- b) The existence of previous Human assets efforts does not offer innovative solutions;
- c) The managers linked to work as regulation and certification, as formal role;
- d) A generalist approach to operation manager;

Threats

- a) Identification of workers with bureaucracy;
- b) Slowly changing process;
- c) First results consolidated. Certainly, a turning point in relation to previous management.

Conclusions

Starting from how organization theories have been introduced in Italy, this paper highlights that they remained marginal until 2000 when political decision-makers began to show a serious interest. Italy has a great need of organization theories. Italian public tourism, and especially CPTS, offer ample opportunity for experimentation. The new decision makers initiated a competitiveness-enhancing reform and the analysis of the case of Campania shows a transition from bureaucratic to competitive logic. Change involves professional skills, management capabilities and training needs. First results have been achieved thanks to organization theories approach. More actions must still be performed. Over the past two years, new managerial leverage moved CPTS competitiveness forward, overcoming the following concrete issues:

Weaknesses

- a) Assets not dedicated workforce
- b) Existence of previous Human assets efforts do not offer innovative solutions;
- c) The managers are linked to work as regulation and certification, as formal role;
- d) A generalist approach to operation manager;

Threats

- a) Identification of workers with bureaucracy;
- b) Slowly changing process;

The challenging process of changing from bureaucratic to competitive logic is still in progress, the outcome is uncertain, but it is important to study and apply organization theory. Attention to organization and its theories may trigger a change in academia, but also in national, regional and municipal government's approach, which could help avoiding the mistakes of the past.

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EXPLORING WASTE BEHAVIOUR IN NATURE-BASED TOURISM: A CASE STUDY FROM THE NEPALESE HIMALAYA

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Abstract: The generation of solid waste is one of the major environmental issues in mountain areas with high concentrations of tourism. To improve the waste situation in sensitive mountain areas, visiting tourists need to be aware of the impacts and consequences of their waste practices. Educational programmes play a crucial role in improving the waste situation, but are ineffective if they do not consider different target groups. The main purpose of this paper is to explore different types of tourists based on their reported waste practices, environmental concern and personal responsibility. A survey based on a convenience sample of trekking tourists was conducted in Sagarmatha National Park and Buffer Zone in Nepal during the spring season of 2013 (n=335). The obtained results of the cluster analysis point to segment specific differences in visitors' environmental attitudes and behaviours. Managerial implications of the findings may help to develop effective educational strategies and thus contribute to the improvement of the rapidly growing waste issues in mountain regions.

Keywords: Mountain Regions; Consumer Behaviour; Tourism Segmentation; Environmental Behaviour; Sustainable Development; Waste Management

Introduction

In remote mountain areas, the high influx of tourists generates many positive and negative impacts. While local people and work-related migrants can often benefit from economic development, international exposure, and cross-cultural exchange, the dramatic expansion of the tourism industry can increase pressures on the environment such as continuous trail degradation, soil erosion, deforestation and land-use changes (Nepal, 2003a). In popular mountain destinations, the generation of solid waste is another major threat to environmental sustainability and as the numbers of tourists increase each year, so does the accumulation of solid waste (Manfredi et al., 2010; Salerno et al., 2010a).

Visiting tourists in sensitive mountain areas are often not aware of the impacts and consequences of their waste practices. Educational programmes can play a crucial role in improving waste behaviour and awareness towards waste issues, but are ineffective when different target groups are not taken into account (Simmons and Widmar, 1990). The main purpose of this paper is (1) to explore different types of tourists based on their reported waste practices, environmental concern and knowledge, and (2) to analyse differences based on sociodemographic and travel-related characteristics. The segmentation aims to summarize certain characteristics in order to illustrate latent patterns. In doing so, segmentation analysis (such as latent class and cluster analysis)

can identify homogeneous groups of people across different characteristics. This might be especially useful for the development of educational programmes and planning interventions to better understand the heterogeneity of different groups (Aldrich et al., 2007).

To achieve these research aims, the study used data from a quantitative survey conducted in April/May 2013 in Nepal. Based on a literature review, several items related to environmental concern, consumer behaviour and personal responsibility were chosen to perform a tourist segmentation. The tourists were then profiled regarding specific sociodemographic attributes (such as age, gender, level of education) and travel-related characteristics (including overnight stays, size of travel party, travel arrangements).

Literature Review & Theoretical Background

Theoretical frameworks are useful in explaining people's behaviour and providing valuable insights for planning interventions (Timlett and Williams, 2011). Amid the number of concepts, two approaches were chosen to form the theoretical basis for this research: the *Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)* and the *Norm-Activation Model (NAM)*. Both social-psychological theories were developed in the 1960s and are most frequently used to explain how individuals behave, particularly where environmental problems exist (Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002). Unlike economic theories, which declare that an individual's actions are rational choices, social-psychological behavioural models acknowledge the context of the actor's environment and the importance of social factors (Timlett and Williams, 2011).

The TPB has a long history to explore psychological determinants of pro-environmental behaviour and states that behavioural intentions are determined by attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behaviour control (Ajzen, 1991, 2011). The term 'environmental attitudes' is often used interchangeably with other concepts, such as environmental concern, awareness or value (Barr, 2007). According to a definition provided by Zelezny and Schultz, environmental attitudes refer to "psychological factors that lead people to act in pro-environmental ways" (2000, p. 367). Sánchez and Lafuente declare that an environmentally conscious person is "someone who engages in a wide range of pro-environmental behaviours as well as holding certain values and attitudes that different theories have associated to this type of conduct" (2010, p. 732). Pro-environmental attitudes do not necessarily lead to behaviours and many studies discuss the ambiguity surrounding the usefulness of environmental attitudes as predictors of ecological behaviour. While Heberlein claims that "environmental attitudes are fundamentally important, widely discussed, frequently measured, and poorly understood" (2012, p. 241), several studies acknowledge the powerful role of environmental attitudes in understanding environmental behaviour (cf. Kaiser et al., 1999a; Kaiser et al., 1999b; Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002; Eilam and Trop, 2012).

Perceived behavioural control is defined as one's perceived ease, difficulty or perception about the existence of factors that facilitate or hinder the performance of certain behaviours (Ajzen, 1991). Perceived behaviour control has strong similarities to the

concept of self-efficacy and is often used interchangeably (Kaiser et al., 1999b). The NAM focuses on moral obligations of behaviour and emphasizes the relationship between personal and social norms, awareness of consequences, and the feeling of responsibility (Schwartz, 1977). Personal norms are influenced by the feeling of responsibility and the awareness of consequences meaning that an individual who feels morally obliged to act accordingly to the behaviour in question is more likely to act if he or she believes in the consequences of the action. This increases if the person feels personally responsible for the consequences of the given behaviour (Bortolotto et al., 2012). Both theories – TPB and NAM – are built on the concept of subjective norms and several studies show that behaviour is strongly influenced by social norms (Godfrey et al., 2012; Hunecke et al., 2001). While NAM refers to social norms, TPB characterizes the same external normative expectations as subjective norm (Hunecke et al., 2001). Subjective norms refer to social pressures, expectations and moral principles and can be defined as an individual's perception of whether people think that certain behaviours should be performed (Kaiser et al., 1999a). The feeling of responsibility is shaped by values and attitudes and is influenced by perceived behaviour control (Darnton et al., 2004; Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002). It can be described as “personal responsibility for the development and/or elimination of environmental problems” (Dembkowski, 1998:62).

Despite empirical support of the TPB and NAM, critical questions have been raised concerning the usefulness of these theories when it comes to improve the understanding of environmental behaviour. Therefore, this paper will not discuss the interrelation and correlation of all psychological factors involved in the TPB and NAM, but rather focus on a segmentation of nature-based tourists based on items related to environmental concern, personal responsibility and reported waste behaviour. These constructs were chosen because they yielded a high internal consistency.

Methodology

Study site

The data collection took place in Sagarmatha National Park and Buffer Zone (SNPBZ) in the Himalayas of Nepal. The National Park with his unique landscape and fascinating peaks, attracts people from all over the world and is among the most popular nature-based tourism destinations in Nepal (Ministry of Culture, Tourism & Civil Aviation, 2014, 2015). The National Park, a protected area since the 1970s, is located in the north-eastern part of Nepal and includes some of the world's highest mountains (Fig. 1).

In the late 1960s, when mountaineering started to flourish in Nepal, tourist numbers began to increase rapidly because of improved access, promotion, and publicity (Stevens, 1993). After the first airport was constructed in Lukla, access became easier and the tourism economy grew exponentially – from a mere twenty trekkers in 1964 to more than 35,000 in 2014 (Ministry of Culture, Tourism & Civil Aviation, 2015). Today, nature-based tourism is the main source of income and employment in the region (Nepal, 2003a; Spoon, 2011b).

While the standard of living has improved quickly, the expanding tourism industry has simultaneously led to environmental issues in the fragile alpine environment. Significant amounts of solid waste are being generated due to the high import of packaged consumer goods and are now posing serious threats to the fragile biodiversity, ecosystem, and people of SNPBZ (Byers, 2005; Stevens, 2003; Stevens, 1993). Solid waste ranges from food packages, wrappers, bottles, glass and metals to hazardous waste items such as batteries, medical supplies and light bulbs. According to Manfredi et al. (2010), these items are divided into burnable (85%) and non-burnable waste (15%) and are treated as such. Considering the seasonal fluctuations of the tourism industry, the accumulated waste amounts up to 4.6t/day during the tourist season and only 2t/day during the off season (Manfredi et al., 2010). Plastic items and PET bottles belong to the most problematic waste type in the SNPBZ, compromising 21.4% of the collected waste (Zuser et al., 2011a). While classified burnable waste is either burned in incinerators or open landfill sites to reduce volume, non-burnable waste is dumped and buried at landfill sites. The Sagarmatha Pollution Control Committee (SPCC), a non-profit organization established in the early 1990s, and other local community initiatives are responsible for the collection, separation and treatment of solid waste (Dhakal, 2009). The waste management system in SNPBZ is still rudimentary, with limited resources and capacities, leading to improper handling of waste. Classified non-burnable waste items are often dumped in open landfill sites, posing a serious hazard to environmental and human health (Posch et al., 2015). The potentially harmful effects of these disposal practices include surface and groundwater pollution, soil contamination and air pollution (Basnet, 1993; Manfredi et al., 2010; Salerno et al., 2010a; Pokhrel and Viraraghavan, 2005; Guzzella et al., 2011; Zuser et al., 2011b). Burnable waste items generate significant emissions of heavy metals and hazardous organic compounds due to poor incineration practices (Salerno et al., 2010b).

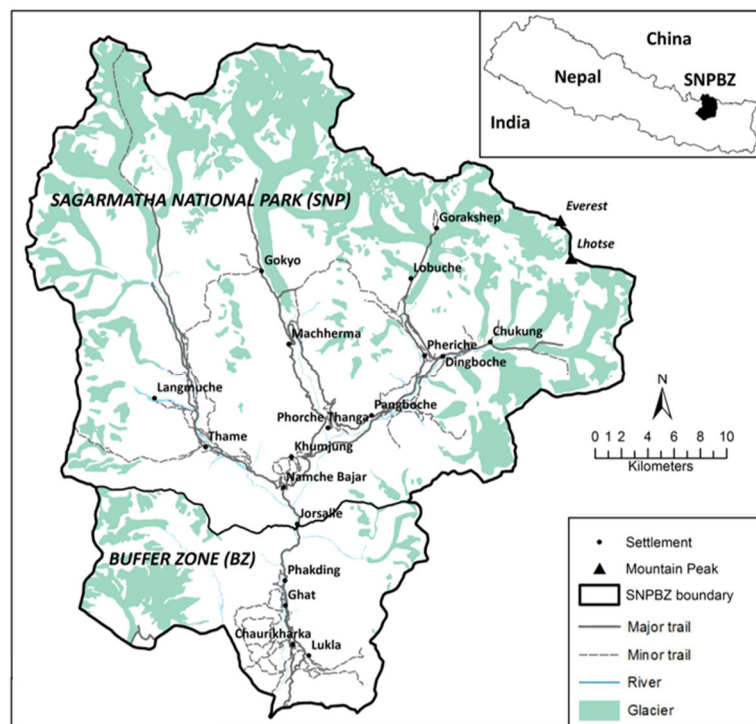


Figure 1: Overview of Sagarmatha National Park and Buffer Zone (Map courtesy of ICIMOD, first published in Posch et al., 2015)

Data collection

A quantitative survey based on a convenience sample was conducted in Lukla between April and May 2013 using a standardized questionnaire. The survey was conducted with tourists over the age of 15 on their last day of visit to the National Park. Lukla is the gateway and entry point for most tourists to the Everest region as it is connected by regular air service and hosts several lodges and tourist facilities. Tourists usually spend their last afternoon and evening in Lukla before flying out the next morning. Respondents were approached in ten major lodges with permission obtained from the owners beforehand. A self-administered questionnaire was used and completed in an average time of 10 minutes and contained two main sections. The first section examined the environmental dimensions (concern, knowledge, reported waste behaviour); the second section collected socio-economic data of the respondents and general data of their visit to SNPBZ (trekking arrangements, travel-related characteristics). The surveys yielded very high cooperation and low refusal rates, a total of 360 surveys were distributed and 335 questionnaires were returned, yielding a response rate of 93%.

A convenience sample was chosen to represent the population of tourists visiting the National Park in the spring season. To check for representativeness of gender, age, education and nationality, the collected data were compared with official tourism statistics (Ministry of Culture, Tourism & Civil Aviation, 2014) and an extensive visitor survey (HKKH Partnership, 2008). The sample offered good results in terms of representativeness concerning sex, age, and education. However, the structure of participants according to their national composition was not representative. Therefore, the study excluded respondents with over- or under-represented nationalities focusing only on respondents from Australia, Canada, Germany, the United Kingdom, and the United States (see in the National Park is 14 days. **Table 1**). The final sample size amounts 230 respondents.

Measurement of constructs

The three constructs environmental concern, reported waste behaviour, and personal responsibility form the basis of the cluster analysis. The constructs were measured by 15 items, which were entered into a factor analysis using principal component analysis to confirm the presumed concepts. All items were measured on a five-point Likert scale with response categories ranging from “strongly agree” (5) to “strongly disagree” (1). Items with loadings below 0.5 and low communalities were removed. This led to the exclusion of one item. The six-item construct ‘environmental concern’ is based on a study by Sánchez and Lafuente (2010). It included statements such as “I’m well informed about environmental issues.”, “I often talk with friends about environmental issues.”, and “There is need to conserve resources for future generations.”. The three-item construct ‘personal responsibility’ and five-item construct ‘reported waste behaviour’ are based on observations and a study by Bortoleto et al. (2012). The construct ‘personal responsibility’ included statements such as “It’s my personal responsibility to manage waste properly in SNPBZ.” and “My consumer behaviour is influencing the waste situation in SNPBZ.”. Reported waste behaviour was described by statements such as “I avoid package intensive products and prefer local products in SNPBZ.”, “I do not buy bottled water, but look for alternative drinking sources in SNPBZ.”, and “I buy things that are produced with as little package as possible in

SNPBZ.”. The constructs were tested for internal consistency. While the reliability value (Cronbach’s alpha) for environmental concern was .76, it reached .77 for reported waste behaviour and .56 for personal responsibility.

Data analysis

The data were statistically analysed using the statistical software SPSS 21.0. The factor mean scores were clustered by first using a single linkage method to detect outliers, followed by a hierarchical cluster analysis applying Wards minimum variance method with squared Euclidean distance. The elbow criterion pointed to a three-cluster solution. In order to test the validity of the cluster analysis, a multiple discriminant analysis was conducted. The discriminant function achieved a high degree of classification accuracy: 90.4% of all cases were classified correctly. Finally, the socio-demographic characteristics of the clusters were compared using cross-tabulations and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), where applicable.

Results

Socio-demographic profiles

The majority of respondents were men (57.7 %), which coincides with official visitor data as male visitors are predominant in the National Park (HKKH Partnership, 2008) (see in the National Park is 14 days. **Table 1**). The age group ‘23-32’ predominates the sample (34.9%), while the age groups are still evenly distributed. The mean age is 38.5 years and the median 35 years. The sample is characterised by a high level of education which is in line with other visitor surveys (HKKH Partnership, 2008): 45.6% of the respondents have an undergraduate degree and 29.5% a postgraduate education.

Concerning travel related characteristics, about 16.6% of respondents stated that they were organizing their trip on their own, 18.3% chose a domestic travel agency from Nepal, while the majority chose an agency from their country of origin (53.9%). More than half of the respondents travelled in an organized group (53.5%), while additionally, 76.8% of respondents indicated that they travelled with a tour guide. The average length of stay in the National Park is 14 days. **Table 1**: Selected sociodemographic and travel-related characteristics

Socio-demographic characteristics	Lower education	24.9%
	Undergraduate	45.6%
	Postgraduate	29.5%
	Age (mean in years)	38.5 years
	Male	57.7%
	Female	42.3%
	Australia	17%
	Canada	7.4%

	Germany	16.1%
	New Zealand	16.5%
	UK	30.9%
	USA	12.2%
	Length of stay (mean in days)	14.44 days
	Travelling in organized group	53.3%
	Travelling with guide	76.8%
Travel-related characteristics	Organized by domestic agency	18.3%
	Organized with international agency	53.9%
	Organized individually	26.6%
	Visited before	10.4%

Tourist segmentation

In the following, the three different tourist types are presented (Table 2). The “concerned but inactive” form the largest group (n=99, 43%). Although they appear to have a high feeling of perceived personal responsibility, their responsibility does not translate into action. While they agree strongly that their consumer behaviour is influencing the waste situation in SNPBZ, they are not likely to form active waste behaviour intentions. Although they have a high feeling of responsibility, their general environmental concern is the lowest among the other groups.

The second type is called “disengaged” (n=46) and forms the smallest segment (20% of all respondents). This group is concerned about the environment; they agree that there is need to conserve resources for future generations. They also strongly consent that there is need to conserve resources for future generations and that environmental conservation should be more important. Still, this concern about the environment does not extend to their perceived personal responsibility and even less to their reported waste behaviour in SNPBZ. This is mirrored in their stated waste behaviour: they are neither likely to avoid buying bottled water, but look for alternative drinking sources nor are willing to support a ban of plastic bottles in SNPBZ.

The third cluster is labelled “concerned and active” (n=85, 37%) and scored highest for being concerned about the environment. Compared to the other groups, this type translates his concern into action regarding waste behaviour. Correspondingly, they prefer local products and safe drinking water from springs instead of buying water bottles and package intensive products in SNPBZ. They are also the segment that most strongly agrees that they recycle waste in their home country and that they often talk with friends about environmental issues.

Table 2: Cluster solutions and rescaled mean scores for reported waste behaviour, general environmental concern and personal responsibility (5=strongly disagree/very poor; 1=strongly agree/very good)

	the concerned and active		the disengaged		the concerned but inactive	
	n=85; 37%		n=46; 20%		n=99; 43%	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE
reported waste behaviour	1,77	0,06	3,24	0,12	2,43	0,07
general environmental concern	1,49	0,04	1,98	0,05	2,32	0,05
personal responsibility	2,08	0,07	2,79	0,13	2	0,06

The cluster types differed significantly in their environmental concern, perceived personal responsibility and reported waste behaviour. Also, the three cluster types vary socio-demographically: Significant differences were found concerning age, gender and level of education (Table 3). The “concerned but inactive” contain more men than women and the share of people with lower education or an undergraduate degree are the highest among all clusters. With an average of 36 years, this is the youngest cluster. The “disengaged” have the highest percentage of men (67.4%) and an average of 40 years. The “concerned and active” have the highest percentage of females (55.3%) and the greatest share of people with an under- or postgraduate degree (45.9% and 34.1%). This segment is most active about their reported waste behaviour in SNPBZ and is willing to give up some conveniences.

Travel-related characteristics such as overnight stays or trekking arrangements did not differ significantly between the three groups. However, there is a significant difference with the perceived level of information and content with the provided information about waste management in SNPBZ (Table 4). The “disengaged” are most satisfied with the information provided to visitors about waste management. In contrast, the “concerned and active” are eager to receive more information about waste management and rate the provided information about waste management in SNPBZ the poorest compared to the other two groups. Also, they disagree most that adequate information about waste management in SNPBZ is provided to visitors.

Table 2: Statistically significant socio-demographics

	the concerned and active	the disengaged	the concerned but inactive
Gender*			
Female	55.3%	32.6%	36.4%
Male	44.7%	67.4%	63.6%
Level of Education*			
Lower Education	20.0%	23.9%	30.3%
Undergraduate	45.9%	43.5%	47.5%
Postgraduate	34.1%	32.6%	22.2%
Age*			
<24	9.4%	13.0%	21.2%
25-34	27.1%	34.8%	36.4%
35-44	18.8%	13.0%	7.1%
45-54	21.2%	13.0%	23.2%
>55	23.5%	26.1%	12.1%

*p<0.05

Table 3: Satisfaction with provided information about waste management (mean value) (5=strongly disagree/very low; 1=strongly agree/very high)

	the concerned and active	the disengaged	the concerned but inactive
Level of satisfaction with provided information about waste management. *	4,18	3,76	4,06
Adequate information to visitors before and during their visit about waste management in SNPBZ is provided. **	2.49	1.98	2.36

*p<0.05; **p<0.0001

Discussion and Implications

The results show that different tourist types exist concerning environmental attitudes, knowledge and reported waste practices. The three types also show significant differences in terms of age, gender and level of education. However, no statistical significant differences were found concerning travel-related characteristics. Contrary to the findings of other studies, travel-related characteristics such as the company of guides did not play a significant role (Poudel and Nyaupane, 2013; Poudel et al., 2013).

The identification of different tourist types may help destination managers and environmental educators to create and implement effective educational programmes with specific focus on certain target groups to make waste practices among tourists more sustainable (Poudel and Nyaupane, 2017). Environmental education programmes could focus on tourist types which do not yet show environment-friendly waste behaviour, but are highly interested in environmental issues such as the identified type of ‘the disengaged’. Other studies have shown that tourists who are guided by a structured educational programme can easier change their behaviour and

become more environmentally responsible (Orams, 1997). A greater attention on educational measures concerning waste management may help to improve the overall waste management situation in fragile mountain destinations.

Being consistent with related studies, it's the well-educated women, who actively deal with waste issues (see Finisterra do Paço et al., 2009 for an overview). The gender differences concerning environmental concern and waste behaviour pictured in this study are in line with a great amount of studies who suggest that women are more aware and generally more likely to deal with environmental issues (Tindall et al., 2003; Davidson and Freudenburg, 1996). Nonetheless, some authors argue that gender should be acknowledged more when it comes to environmental education (Sakellari and Skanavis, 2013; Zelezny et al., 2000).

The group being most concerned about the environment and most active about reported waste management practices perceive the provided information as unsatisfactory. Previous research findings are inconsistent and contradictory how information and data connect with environmental concern and behaviour. While some studies suggested that information influences actions and behaviour (Cheung et al., 1999; Barr, 2007), other studies found that the relationship between “knowing what to do and acting on that knowledge” is tenuous (Godfrey et al., 2012)2164). Metag et al. (2015) showed that different typologies correspond with different communicative behaviour concerning climate change. Nevertheless, one can argue that if more information is available on waste management, it is more likely that it will affect a person's waste management practices. The provision of information material might be a first and simple step of the responsible park management to increase public awareness among visitors and local inhabitants alike to improve the overall waste situation.

Conclusions and Limitations

The purpose of this paper is to identify different segments of consumers and whether and in which way tourists differ in their self-assessments of environmental concern, reported behaviour and personal responsibility. While the study is embedded within the broader arena of social science, it makes several noteworthy contributions to environment-behaviour research and tourism studies. The study set out to identify a typology of trekking tourists based on variables related to waste management in SNPBZ. In doing so, I relied on analytical dimensions used in previous studies on environmental attitudes, behaviour and waste management. This paper also aimed to know whether different types are characterized in terms of their socio-demographic and travel-related characteristics.

The survey was conducted in a remote trekking destination in the Himalayan Mountains of Nepal. As a direct consequence of this methodology, the study encountered a number of limitations, which need to be considered: First, the questionnaire was only available in English, excluding tourists who are not able to understand this language. Second, following the presumable linguistic barrier, the study is not representative in terms of the respondents' nationality leading to a reduction of the sample size. Third, a fundamental issue of this study methodology is

the inconsistency between reported behaviour and actual actions. The author acknowledges that the study relies fully on self-reports of behaviours and attitudes instead of observed behaviours. Unfortunately, reported behaviours are often been interpreted as wishful intentions but do not reflect actual behaviour, but we face limitations by what we can discover through questionnaires or interviews (Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002).

Future studies could investigate in more detail trekking tourist from a specific country of origin to ensure representativeness. Future work should also focus on the potential impact of travel-related characteristics such as the company of tour guides and its influence on waste behaviour. Research is also needed about the relation of the level of information about waste management provided by the national park and the reported waste practices and environmental concerns of trekking tourists.

This study is a first attempt to analyse reported waste behaviour, environmental concern and personal responsibility of trekking tourists. The number of tourist arrivals in SNPBZ is expected to grow in the coming years and it might exacerbate the waste management situation in the park. Feasible and effective strategies of managing solid waste are urgently needed. The identification of different segments may represent a first step in helping visitors to adopt environmentally friendly practices. Comparable studies from different destinations could help to find practical recommendations and useful interventions to trigger more environmentally friendly waste behaviour among visitors.

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COLLABORATIVE PARTNERSHIP IN EVENT MANAGEMENT EDUCATION: THE GOOD, THE BAD AND THE UGLY

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Abstract: Sustainable events education requires a collaborative approach between higher education institutions (HEIs), the industry and students. This paper assesses graduating students' experiences with the BA (Hons) Event Management at a post 1992 university in the United Kingdom. The students design and deliver a major event on behalf of a 'client' as part of a collaborative partnership between the university and an external organisation from the events industry. The methodology was underpinned by an interpretivist philosophy with 3 graduating cohorts of 2012/13/14. The findings highlighted issues related to several operational challenges that affected the student experience. The majority of students were satisfied with the overall degree outcomes however anxiety and fear about the assessment objectives and client idiosyncrasies and demands; and, the fact that event management is hard work was perceived negatively by some students and as flaws with the university and client organisations. The findings precipitated changes to how students are supported on live event projects and to how the collaborative relationships between clients and the university are framed.

Keywords: Experiential learning, event management, live event assessments, vocational degrees

Introduction

The transformation of higher education from elite to mass provision in the UK has precipitated a cultural shift in the design of the curriculum towards more vocationally oriented subjects. This paper presents an ethnographic reflection on student and lecturer experiences with a semi- vocational degree in event management at a post 1992 university located in a very peripheral and insular region of the UK. The event management degree at this modern university represents a major innovation in higher education where an experiential approach to pedagogy has been adopted with students delivering 'live' event projects for 'real' clients instead of writing a thesis in their final year. Experiential approaches to learning and teaching, otherwise known as 'work integrated learning' (Jackson, 2013), aims to bridge the gap between classroom theoretically based concepts and professional practice by allowing students to apply their classroom acquired knowledge on real life cases. The experiential approach that is the focus of this study involves students collaborating with a local business/charity to deliver a complex event project aimed at achieving the corporate aims and objectives of the partner organisation.

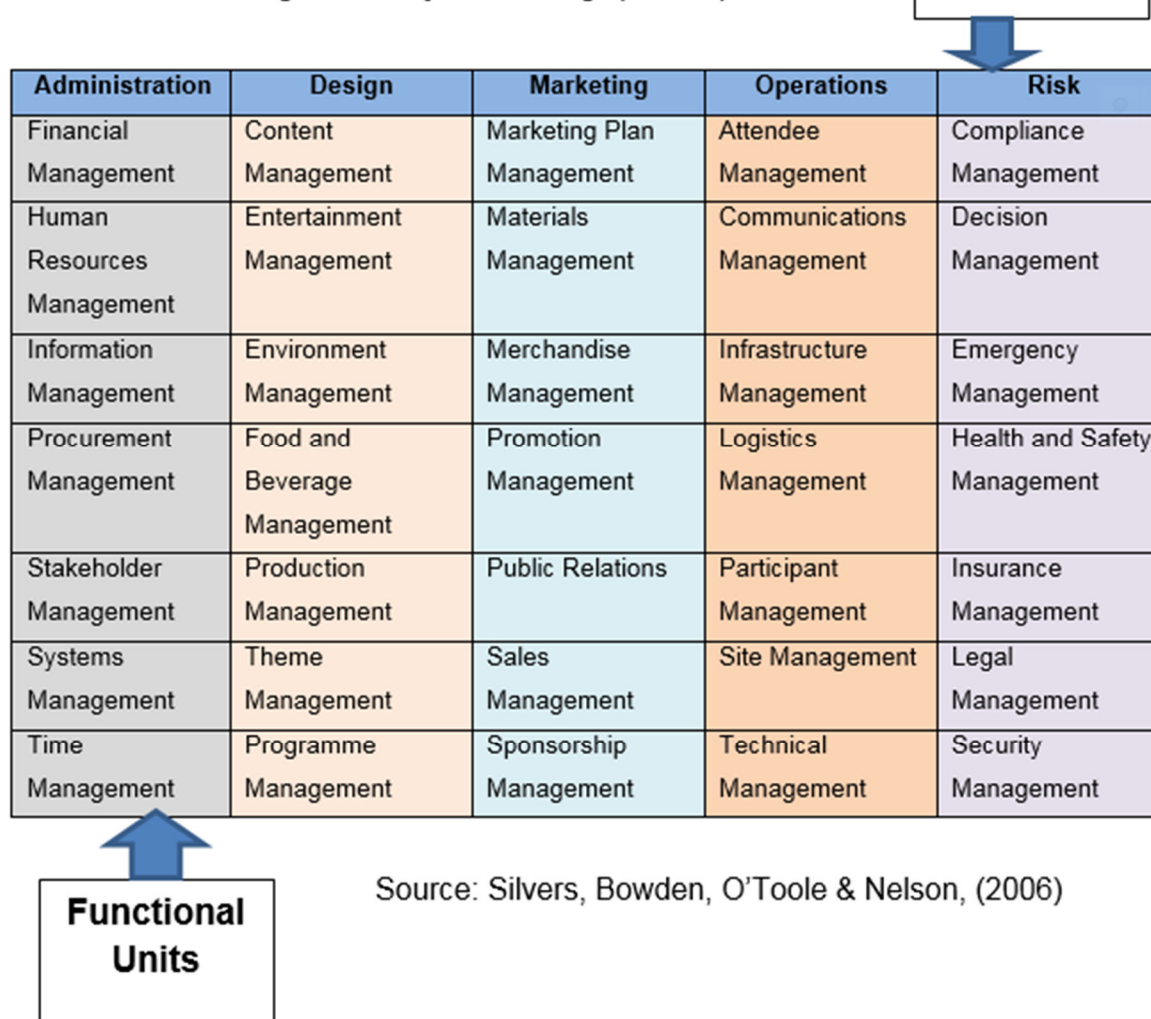
The gravitation towards more experiential forms of education has emerged due to the integration of global economies, which has precipitated increasing competition among

industries. Such events have been the topic of much political discourse and rhetoric about the importance of the knowledge economy and the role that universities will play in economic reform (Wilton, 2008). Industrial shifts towards the service economy, technological change, computerisation, complex communication systems coupled with changes in managerial hierarchical structures in favour of teamwork and multi-tasking have increased the demand for workers with out-of-the-box thinking; human interaction skills and digital literacy (see Tsai, 2013; Garlick, 2014).

Linking higher education to the world of work is essential in preparing graduates to function as engaged and responsible citizens in a world that is becoming more globalized, multi-cultural and heterogeneous. However, higher education has often been criticised as being divorced from practice, non-relevant and lacking in a real-world orientation. Much of this criticism stems from the view that students entering the workforce lack basic skills. Researchers claim that employers are increasingly dissatisfied with the quality of graduates and are less likely to hire based on academic qualifications and more on the combination of skills and attributes that can be leveraged for competitive advantage in global economies. Employers are now more likely to select graduates based on skills and attributes developed through their studies; particularly the 'transferable' skills, otherwise called 'core skills', 'generic skills' or 'soft skills'. Employers want graduates with well-developed generic skills (Pool & Sewell, 2007) that will enable them to transition into the very competitive commercial world.

Event Management knowledge domains are rooted in business management, encompassing administration, design, marketing, operations and risk management (Figure 1).

Table 1: Event Management Body of Knowledge (EMBOK)



While EMBOK is very thorough in identifying a range of knowledge based disciplines to support the industry, event management is also a very applied 'hands on' profession requiring skills that cannot be taught by a transmission-reception model of learning and teaching. The problem with EMBOK is that it does not account for these transferable skills or soft skills that employers presumably want. Soft skills like attention to detail, listening, negotiation, personal selling, high-level cognitive skills, problem solving, emotional intelligence, pitching, time management and leadership are developed through practice and over time. Consequently, HEIs have responded by embedding experiential pedagogic initiatives including placements, internships and other practicums into the curriculum. Experiential learning moves the learner away from passive transmission-reception forms of learning to a more participative application and integration of knowledge and skills. Employers place significant value on vocational experience with project management, working with audiences and customers, hands-

on production management, budgeting, fundraising and marketing planning being highly desirable (Beaven & Wright,

2006). However, the extent to which universities can produce employable graduates depends on the students' willingness to engage in paid or unpaid work during their studies and the extent to which the corporate sector is willing or able to provide suitable projects and other opportunities through placements, internships and volunteer work. Along with adding value to a CV, graduates become more commercially aware and confident individuals because of their placement or internship within a professional organisation (Fox & Morrison, 2011; Fletcher-Brown, Knibbs & Middleton, 2015). Indeed, an internship/placement within a well-established organisation exposes students to industry professionals, etiquette, manners, maturity and best practices, which cannot be taught from a textbook. Exposure to organisational culture and a better understanding of how organisations function are some of the key benefits of working in collaboration with industry professionals. The recent popularity of event management degrees in the UK has seen the emergence of other forms of learning partnerships known as the 'live event' project involving students staging events in collaboration with a business. However, due to the embryonic stage of event management as an academic discipline live events as an innovative and authentic form of assessment still requires more research. This paper aims to address the dearth of research in this area of experiential learning.

Methodology

At this post 1992 university the live events occur in the final year when students take the module Applied Event Management 1, 2, and 3. The module requires students to deliver a sophisticated, yet complex, event at a venue outside the university, which replaces the traditional thesis. Clients present students with a business problem and clearly defined business objectives, which the students must achieve through the design and delivery of the 'live' event. Weekly tutorials with tutors provide guidance and support for the students for the duration of the project.

This ethnographic reflection is specifically directed towards the graduating classes of 2012/13 and 14 in event management. With ethnography and reflective practice, being the underlying principle behind this paper an eclectic approach to data collection was undertaken resulting in a triangulation of data from a purposive sample of three (3) graduating cohorts and the researcher's observation log and literature review. Focus groups were held at the end of semester two (2) of 2012, 2013 and 2014 (Table 1), two weeks after the students had completed all of their course work as it was felt that students would have had time to reflect on their learning and achievements and would be in a more relaxed frame of mind to provide constructive feedback on their course of study (Hounsell, 2003).

Table 1 **Schedule of Focus Groups**

Year of Focus	Total Responses	Total Enrolment	Number of Focus
April 2012	22	36	4
May 2013	24	32	4
May 2014	12	14	2

The data was analysed using the coding procedures suggested by Strauss & Corbin's (1990) grounded theory. Open coding was used to identify categories, concepts and themes without making any prior assumptions about what might be discovered. The data was broken down into discrete parts, closely examined, compared for similarities and differences, and questions asked about the phenomena being studied (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). After the preliminary coding process, a further coding system was employed where codes were related to each other through the identification of core code categories and sub-categories, which were then organised and collated into themes and sub themes (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995; Robson, 1993). A synthesis of the major themes that emerged is presented below as findings.

Student Experiences with the Vocational Degree

Students were of the view that the degree delivered over and above their expectations in terms of the outcome - a successful event that met client specifications, objectives, learning outcomes and a job interview. Many appreciated that the level six (6) live projects gave them an opportunity to gain a realistic perspective of the industry and to experience the responsibilities and the challenges of working in a commercial environment, which equipped them with the confidence to foray in their chosen profession. As this student reiterates:

My University also gave me the opportunity to create, design and plan entire events and I believe the lessons I learned are invaluable. I have come to the end of my degree and feel completely confident about entering the events industry.

Some students felt that the business focus was a distinct advantage of the course as exemplified by the forthcoming comment:

I believe the skills and attributes I now possess could enable me to excel in corporate events, as this is where my strong business mind such as finance could shine through.

With linear career progression throughout one organisation becoming extinct (Bridgestock, 2009) it was important that students recognised that the 'added value' in their newfound skills is that they are transferable to industry sectors outside of event management. This was evident from the focus groups as exemplified by this student and was one of the learning outcomes on the module: *This degree has set me up to qualify for a multitude of different jobs in various industry sectors.* There is an

increasing need for flexible, adaptive and industry mobile workers, who can integrate, adapt and utilise their skills to a multitude of different jobs, tasks, industries and cultures as their professional circumstances require and it was important that this experiential learning exercise brought students to this reality (Bridgstock, 2009; Harvey, 2005).

The introduction of the client provided an opportunity for students to understand the dynamics of inter-personal communications in a large organisation and to learn the terminology, parlance, jargon and linguistic style of the industry. It is important for students to understand that organisations have different cultures and being employable relates to being able to adapt skills to cross professional, social and cultural environments (Fox & Morrison, 2010). Students were able to develop their communication skills and learn how to behave professionally through formal interactions with the client and suppliers in meetings or through written business communications; and, being able to adjust their communication techniques depending on the receiver. Through involvement and engagement with clients, students were able to appreciate the multiple, complex and strategic functions that events play in business and the community, which helped to dispel the earlier cognitive dissonance students experienced at the beginning of the course in relation to the strong business subject focus. As this student pointed out:

I thought that we would just book a band and rent a tent and we would have an event. Now I know that this was naïve.

Due to the different roles and responsibilities associated with delivering 'live' events, students used the opportunity to specialise and develop a particular area of expertise. Others thought that the degree helped them to identify personal strengths and weaknesses.

After organising the legal aspects ofand being the health and safety / legal.....I now feel that this is one of my main strengths and is something that I may consider focusing on when I graduate from university.

The live events were instrumental in helping students to enhance their employability portfolios and to discover and develop dormant skills. Some students took advantage of their client's extensive network of contacts to learn more about the industry by shadowing someone from their organisation once a week to gain more insights into management and organisational culture.

The involvement of clients presented risks to the university and many challenges for these students. Students were keen to expound on this aspect of the project claiming that clients were not always supportive or good examples of best practices. Some clients had ideas about what constituted a well-managed event, which contradicted what students are taught on the course. Some clients had standard operating procedures that deviated from that of the university, particularly concerning health and safety management, which raised issues of corporate liability. The 'student' label meant that some clients had no faith in the students' abilities and one group reported how a client

made derogatory and demeaning comments to them in front of suppliers. Another group felt that their client lacked knowledge of event management and that their ideas for the event were unrealistic and illegal. Others complained that clients were verbally abusive and withheld information and resources that were vital to completing the projects and the associated assessments. Another client cancelled a project midway in the academic year claiming that they were no longer able to fund the event and took the venue with them. This left the students stranded without a project and venue for their gala fundraising ball midway in the academic year. Conflicts with clients regarding procedures and best practices were rife, probably due to the dearth of professional event organisations in the region. The event management profession is still an emerging one and many event organisers are self-taught freelancers. Such practitioners did not necessarily undertake theoretical studies in event management and at times could not relate to the model students used to plan their events. This sometimes-caused confusion and conflict between students, tutors and the client organisation. The multiple and complex nature of events coupled with conflicting stakeholder agendas has prevented the introduction of standardised practices and methodologies that are universally recognised (Goldblatt, 2000) resulting in differences in the standard operating procedures used by students, tutors and clients. These realities make it difficult to find professional clients who are good examples of professional practice instead of those who insist on unsystematic, archaic or unsophisticated ways of organising events. According to this group of graduates, something as simple as the decision to get qualified security, a legal requirement, at their event '*was one that we had to push for*'. The client, in this case, argued for someone '*big and strong*' who was the brother of one of the delegates rather than a qualified SIA agent in order to avoid the expense. Another group of students asked to change their client as they felt that the client was expecting them '*to plan the event in an unprofessional, illegal and unrealistic manner*'. The bigger and more professional companies in the area made it clear that having students organise an event for them would put their business at risk and thus declined to participate in the programme.

Some students commented about clients being demanding and treating them as though they were a hired labour force assigning them tasks that bore no relation to the live event project. As this student noted: *They are behaving as though they are paying us... We should be able to do things in our own time*. Some students claimed that they found it difficult to communicate with their client because of social class differences. Others lamented about clients' tendency to withhold payment to suppliers and quivering over the reimbursement of 'out of pocket' expenses incurred by students even though the terms and conditions regarding these aspects were clearly outlined in the agreement signed by the students, university and client. Students felt that they could have been given more training and warnings about the dynamics of client relationships: *We were thrown in at the deep end. We have never experienced working for a client before. We should have been warned about how clients behave*, one student lamented. Some clients were consistently delinquent when it came to answering emails while others withdrew resources and support. Students were quick to point out that they felt that the client projects could have been better organised and that the university should have screened the clients better.

This experiential exercise brought about the realisation that responsibility, accountability and meeting deadlines were the reality of the 'real world'. For the module tutor this was particularly welcomed since many students enter the degree programme with unrealistic notions of the profession and very limited career awareness. Those who investigated the profession before embarking on HE did not necessarily obtain information from professional bodies, universities or statutory providers of employment (Donnan & Carthy, 2011) but depended on peers or social media (word of mouth), press reports or a vicarious experience with event management in school. There is an ongoing issue about the reality mismatch between the expectations of students entering higher education and the needs of the professional sector (Wickens & Forbes, 2004; Sealy, 2012).

As this student stated: *I imagined myself floating around in a ball gown welcoming guests as the event unfolded. I know now this was unrealistic.*

Some students felt that the staging of live events was very difficult and that the marking criteria were unrealistic. Several students alluded that the demands of the clients, the district council and venue managers, on top of the challenges encountered selling sponsorship, tickets and advertising space was too much for undergraduates to bear. A simple request from a client for a 2.5 % return on their investment and a financial plan with a stated breakeven point was deemed unreasonable and annoyed some students. The performance related goals are a reality of the workplace and is connected to job targets that link to corporate objectives, thus, the justification for their inclusion in the client brief. Students' reaction to the request for a breakeven analysis was seen as *'irrelevant... it is fresher's stuff'* one commented, referring to it being covered in the 1st year of the degree. This client was quick to point out that a minimum fundraising needed to be guaranteed if they were to collaborate in the future. This client was referring to the fact that they need to justify to their trustees the commitment of resources and labour to an event with an adequate return on investment. However, some students continued to feel that performance related targets were unrealistic, unjustified and unreasonable and that their challenges were reflective of flaws with the assessment, the university and client organisation.

Early in the projects students experienced trepidation about the demands of the client, the objectives and the amount of work involved because they felt that the objectives and projects were unachievable. Some students' early scepticism about the course content and their misguided notions about the nature of the industry created a belief that the performance targets set by clients were unrealistic resulting in some students rebuking the assessment brief and subsequently, along with their parents, insisting that the assessment be reviewed. These disputes make a mockery of the higher education system as performance related targets are a reality of the workplace. These events raise questions about the student as customer, rather than learner, bought about by the fee-paying regime and its negative impact on academic quality standards. Students' early resistance to live events, as an innovative and discursive form of assessment, and the ensuing complaints justifies tutors' preference for didactic styles of teaching. Tutors become reluctant to challenge students outside their comfort zone for fear that it would

bring forth negative module evaluations or poor National Students' Survey (NSS) scores (O'Donovan, 2010). Some students encountering challenges on live projects reacted on social media and on the NSS rather than seek help from tutors. Other students noted that the level of stress involved in planning an event was overwhelming. When weaker students were asked to think problems through using problem-solving tools this was perceived as flaws with the university's learning and teaching strategy rather than the need to assess, review and change their strategies.

Discussion and Recommendations

It was evident that the transition from student life to work can be quite traumatic and represents a quantum leap in learning for some individuals. Some students did not appreciate the amount of work that had to be completed or the difficulties they encountered 'on the job'. It was clear that along with logistical and human difficulties students, particularly the weaker ones, needed a 'helping hand' with client relations. Tutorials on client management and organisational culture have been introduced so that students identify and understand the different ways clients may behave during their event and after graduation. Additional training for students in conflict management, business etiquette, cultural leadership and communications assist in preparing students for live projects. Over the years there was an appreciation that event management is 'hard work' but some students continue to feel that the difficulties of their projects could be circumvented through better organisation or 'more realistic' goal setting by university staff. Students' misguided notions about the nature of the event management industry were often a key influence on their attitude towards certain experiential tasks, often producing an apathetic approach to learning. Consequently, an accelerated campaign to encourage students to go out on professional placements has been initiated to provide them with further exposure to professional organisations in preparation for commercial event projects. More realistic expectation setting was achieved through clear messages on the course website and open day presentations about the nature, and the realities, of the event profession. Although tutors were careful to stress the rewards of working in event management it was also necessary to impress upon potential graduates that the industry was not as glamorous or as easy as they may perceive. An overview of the various career pathways and the risks of a live project are now clearly articulated during recruitment events.

Consternation bought about by the inclusion of performance related targets in the event brief bought tutors to the realisation that work needed to be done to inspire students to accept learning challenges as part of their development. Seminars that ensure students understand the rationale behind the assessment pedagogies and programme structure may make students more 'pedagogically intelligent' and aware of how these targets relate to industry practice, how they learn and their learning styles. Students need to be encouraged to embrace assessment challenges as opportunities for growth and development rather than to view them as threats. It was essential that students recognised that skills development did not occur overnight but is a gradual process that takes place over several years. Students need to be reminded constantly and consistently about the intended learning outcomes of the module, why they are

important and how they link with industry needs. They need to understand that the degree is designed to take them beyond entry level jobs into management and that they should set higher goals and aspirations for themselves while acknowledging the different career route possibilities in event management. Consequently, reflection and subsequent goal setting is now a weekly exercise in the tutorials when students spend time reflecting on their learning curves through acknowledgement of their recent triumphs and successes and how they can add value to their CVs. Students may commit to learning if the pedagogic initiatives are realistic to them and merits application in the real world. As Biggs and Tang (2007) note, motivation for learning arises when something has value to the student and they expect success from their endeavours. Pedagogic literacy may help to dispel some of the distress that students experience because of the live event assessment brief. Millennial learners must be heavily supported, inspired, motivated, guided and encouraged to challenge themselves, to take their learning to a deeper level, to reflect often and to develop their own abstract concepts and contextualise their learning from concrete experience and subsequent reflection (Kolb, 1984).

It is recommended that HEIs think carefully before implementing live events as an assessment for event management students in conjunction with external organisations. While it is clear that the introduction of a client aided student learning significantly, at the same time this initiative represented a major risk to the student's degree, final grade and the university's reputation and resulted in a distillation of the university-student-client relationship. To ensure that clients do not put the student's degree at risk the university had to assume ownership and funding of the live events which is now clearly stated in the agreement with clients. The assumption that collaborative partnerships could be synergistic producing mutually beneficial results was not necessarily the case for this institution. The bigger charities were fraught in bureaucracy, which ensured that centralised decision-making was slow. This meant students could not always access resources needed to meet academic deadlines. Charitable organisations' ethos was centralised around their stakeholders and supporters which they wanted to protect, sometimes at the students' expense. Other charities' missions were built around maximising fundraising even if this meant flouting health and safety legislation. However, much more research needs to go into understanding collaborative relationships in event management education and how they can work for mutual benefits. What was evident is that the charities that emphasised building awareness and reaching out to the community ahead of any fundraising agendas were more receptive to the students' needs. Although agreements were explicit regarding the responsibilities and roles of all stakeholders the results that they produced were very different with each project. Covert and overt struggles for power characterised some relationships resulting in hostilities and conflicts that created bad relations.

The involvement of 'real' clients presented anxiety, trepidation and significant risks for the students and university and had to be discontinued in its original form.

This study identified that there are different stakeholder agendas, motivations and objectives for participating in 'live event' projects, which created an 'expectations gap'

between students, clients and tutors. The study highlighted the need for the application of stakeholder theory through a 'stakeholder integrated approach' to collaboration on 'live event' projects. This involved the cultivation of relationships and a common understanding of the procedures and commitment required by all those involved. Improved communications from the outset between client and tutors are essential to the enhancement of a stakeholder approach that better reflects the working environment within universities. The study identifies the importance of designing 'live events' and employer engagement as an integral part of the curriculum from year one rather than as a 'bolt on' experience at the end of the course. This would allow students, clients and tutors to get to know each other and the opportunity for the university to screen clients better before assigning students to them. All stakeholders, through improved communications, should have a shared understanding of their purpose and role - that is, to support student learning rather than to intimidate them. Clients who are non-supportive or difficult should not be approached to participate in the 'live event' programme. Consequently, clients are now beneficiaries of fundraising and mentors to students rather than investors and are asked to be more sensitive, supportive and gentler in their interaction with them. It had to be made clear to clients that participation in live projects with students did not guarantee that the event would raise funds and that they should not include the projected fundraising into any financial projections. This approach has worked well for maintaining better community relations and for reducing the earlier conflicts that occurred between the trilogy of stakeholders: client, student and tutor. The role of the projects in the development of higher self-esteem and in creating high levels of gratification and student satisfaction cannot be discounted and brought forth a 97% overall satisfaction rating on the NSS in 2016 after all of the recommendations above were implemented. Nevertheless, the execution of 'live event' client projects for developing professional standards can be extremely labour intensive for tutors who end up managing the students' coursework, group dynamics, their expectations and idiosyncrasies and then in turn have to do the same with the client and other stakeholders. Significant pressure on the tutors to ensure a safe event adds trepidation. This method of teaching requires a significant commitment on the part of the students and staff, often requiring staff to work outside of contract hours and students giving up time spent with family and in paid work.

While recruitment needs and responding to the skills shortage were identified as key motivators for most employer involvement in live events, for charities the opportunities for third stream funding were the major motivators. For the university the opportunity to reach out to the community and positive press coverage were major benefits. This research has presented a cogent discussion on a single case of experiential learning in event management at a post 1992 university in the UK and is not intended to be transferable to other educational or institutional contexts. It is perhaps axiomatic, but worth mentioning, that further research is required in cross-institutional, educational and industrial contexts in order to further advance our understanding of collaborative partnerships for event management education and other business subjects; and, to establish a practical, relevant and coherent model for live event partnerships that is mutually beneficial for all stakeholders. The study

illustrates the value of the 'student voice' in participative decision-making and highlighted contextualised areas in learning and teaching that warrant further research and consideration. It represents the subjective experiences, beliefs, feelings and attitudes of the event students, lecturer and tutors who were the subject of the investigation.

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AN ASSESSMENT OF THE FACTORS THAT INFLUENCES TOURIST VISITATION TO CULTURAL SITES IN NORTHERN ZIMBABWE

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Abstract: Culture motivated trips are on the increase since 1992. As a result, many tourism destinations are using cultural and heritage resources as drivers for destination attractiveness and competitiveness. The creation of culturally distinctive destinations has become an important strategy for tourism destinations in increasingly competitive global tourism markets. It is clear that, a deep understanding of the cultural tourism market, its profile, motivations and behaviours is critical. The objective of this study is to present exploratory results of a study that was carried out to assess the factors that influence tourist visitation to cultural attractions in Northern Zimbabwe. The research was conducted in the Northern part of Zimbabwe as delimited by the National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe. Survey data were collected using a self-administered questionnaire. Data were analysed by means of descriptive analysis, factor analyses and multiple regression analyses. Factor analyses produced a 3-factor structure, and therefore, three factors were identified as important influences for visitation. Tourists visits Northern Zimbabwe primarily for personal motivations, relaxation and memorable experiences. The dominant type of tourist was found to be the sightseeing tourist. Multiple regression analyses were applied to predict the most influential visitation factors among cultural tourists. Results are crucial in enhancing understanding of cultural tourism market. This understanding is important for destination managers in Zimbabwe to develop differentiated marketing strategies aimed at increasing arrivals, satisfaction and tourism income.

Keywords: Cultural Tourism, Northern Zimbabwe, Visitation, Multiple Regressions

Introduction

Cultural tourism represents one of the major future growth activities of global tourism (De Simone, 2012; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2014), accounting for more than 40% of the international arrivals (Richards, 2007; OECD, 2009). It is increasingly becoming an important sector for many tourism destinations globally (Kastenholz *et al.*, 2013). OECD (2009) projects further growth of the cultural tourism sector. For instance, roughly 50% of tourism activity in Europe is motivated by culture. In the US, two thirds of adult tourists visits cultural tourism attractions (Richard & Wilson, 2006). Therefore, the demand for cultural tourism is real.

Culture is a pervasive though an extremely important component of tourism (Weaver, Kwek & Wang, 2017). In this regard, Correia, Kozak and Ferradeira (2013) argue, that culture is a significant motivation factor that influences destination choice. Despite the significance of culture as a motivation factor, tourist's behaviour and motivations in a

cultural tourism destination context has not been sufficiently explored (Kastenholz *et al.*, 2013), more so in the context of Zimbabwe. In the tourism context of Zimbabwe, research studies have only focused on the readiness of Zimbabwe to venture into the cultural tourism market (Manwa, 2007), leaving travel behaviour and motivation of cultural tourists not widely explored.

Travel motivation is an essential element that marketers in tourism destinations use to predict the behaviour of visitors (Ngamsom & Beck, 2000). Tourists make travel decisions based on push and pull factors/motivations (Correia & Pimpao, 2008; Crompton, 1979). Culture is a crucial tourist motivation element that is used by tourists in choosing tourism destinations (Correia *et al.* 2013). While the importance of developing cultural tourism has been documented in literature (Richards, 2010; Manwa, 2007), there is a notable lack of academic attention with regards to the investigation of the major characteristics of cultural tourists (Chiang, Wang, Lee & Chen, 2015), particularly in emerging tourism destinations. There is a considerable lack of research that examines the tourists' motivations for cultural tourism from a Zimbabwean perspective.

Considering this gap, the attempt to explore the factors that influence visitation in the context of Northern Zimbabwe is timely and worthy. It is therefore expected that the findings of this study are crucial in helping Zimbabwe to develop strategies that are aimed at enhancing the visitors' cultural experiences. The results could also be important for destination managers to segment the cultural tourism market according to the dominant types of tourists. The motivations of why tourists visit cultural attractions in Northern Zimbabwe is important for tourism managers and marketers as this will influence the destination's branding and marketing materials. Additionally, understanding the type and behaviour of tourists is crucial for Zimbabwe to manage the cultural attractions in a way that is sustainable (Nguyen & Cheung, 2014; Juvan & Dolnicar, 2016) given that, tourism by nature, can affect local culture (Abuamoud, Libbin, Green & Alrousan, 2014).

The purpose of this paper is to assess the motivations of tourists visiting Northern Zimbabwe as a cultural destination. The research questions for this study are:

1. What are the types of cultural tourists that visit Northern Zimbabwe?
2. What are the key motivations that influence cultural tourists to visit Northern Zimbabwe?
3. What effective marketing strategies are there to develop this niche market further help Zimbabwe diversify its tourist base?

Literature Review

Cultural tourism

Ivanovic (2008), argues that, "culture" is a word that was derived from Latin word "cultura" meaning "cultivation". Tomlinson (1991) notes that, there are more than a hundred definitions on culture, yet there is no unanimity on what constitutes culture in literature. Culture is defined as the whole complex of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features that characterises a society or a social group

(UNESCO, 1999). This definition of culture includes creative expressions such as oral history, language, literature, performing arts, fine arts and crafts; additionally, culture also includes the community's practices (for instance traditional healing, traditional natural resources management, celebrations and patterns of social interactions that usually contribute to group welfare and identity; materials and historic buildings such as cultural sites, buildings, historic city centres, landscape, arts and objects (UNESCO, 1999). Research shows that, the UNESCO definition is the only comprehensive definition that can be used appropriately to contextualise cultural tourism (Ivanovic, 2008).

Silberberg (1995:361) defines cultural tourism as “visits by persons from outside the host community motivated wholly or in part by interest in the historical, scientific or lifestyle/heritage offerings of a community, region or institution”. Additionally, cultural tourism includes “activities with cultural content as part of trips and visits with a combination of pursuits” (Medlik, 2003:48). Therefore, the concept of cultural tourism has many synonyms such as heritage tourism, arts tourism and ethnic tourism. Cultural tourism has various elements of learning that enables tourists to have a memorable experience of destination residents' way of life (Richards, 2005, 2010). The debate about the synonyms that are used interchangeably with cultural tourism is beyond the scope of this paper.

Prentice (1993) defines cultural tourism as tourism constructed, proffered and consumed explicitly or implicitly as cultural appreciation, either as experiences or schematic knowledge gaining. Cary (2004:61) notes that, cultural tourism includes experiences and interpretations of specific local cultures such as food, customs, history or product. Wall and Mathieson (2006:261) defines cultural tourism as “tourism that involves experiencing and having contact with a host population and its cultural expressions, experiencing the uniqueness of culture, heritage and the characters of its place and people”. According to Boyd (2002:221), these cultural touristic experiences must ensure “authenticity, quality and the provision of a learning environment by means of interaction and involvement, conserving and protecting resources as well as building partnerships”. Experiences and interpretations of cultural tourism have the potential to induce expressive based reactions. Weaver *et al.*, (2017) argue that, cultural tourism research requires a geographic context to determine the nature of destinations that are being examined and the frameworks that dominate those locations. Therefore, the assessment was done using northern Zimbabwe to provide such geographic context.

It is clear that cultural tourism is a complex term based on the way it has been defined by scholars. There is no agreement about what constitutes cultural tourism, rendering the term to be widely misunderstood (Richards, 2008). The challenge in defining cultural tourism stems from its “wide scope” and the variety of meanings that are ascribed to “culture” (Kastenholz, Eusebio & Carneiro, 2013). More research is required for better conceptualisations of the concept as it will help tourism managers in measuring and marketing cultural tourism (Kastenholz, *et al.*, 2013:345; Mohamed, 2008; Richards, 2005). A technical definition is therefore needed together with a standardised measuring instrument of the cultural tourist motivations. However, in this study, we adopted a technical definition by Richards (1996:24). Richards (1996:24)

defines cultural tourism as “all movements of persons to specific cultural attractions, such as heritage sites, artistic and cultural manifestations, arts and drama outside their normal place of residence.

Impacts of cultural tourism

The benefits that tourism destinations derive from the development of a cultural tourism market are many. Cultural tourism is an important element that can be used to diversify the tourism industry, thus helping destinations to deal with the problem of seasonality (Rudan, 2010). Rudan (2010) argues, cultural tourism helps tourism destinations to improve their images and competitive advantage. The image of a destination is a crucial factor that tourists consider when choosing which destination to holiday (Richards, 2002; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). Goulding and Domic (2009) argue that, cultural tourism is therefore used as an effective destination branding tool that enhance national pride, destination profile and attracting investments. This particularly, will work for Zimbabwe, as it seeks to reposition itself as a new branded destination with the tagline *Zimbabwe: A World of Wonders* (Ndlovu & Heath, 2013). It will also help Zimbabwe to enhance its destination competitiveness (Kastenholz *et al.*, 2013). It is clear therefore that, the development and promotion of cultural tourism goes beyond economic reasons for many tourism destinations. With Zimbabwe struggling to attract more tourists as a result of its tattered image, the knowledge of travellers' motivations is crucial for destination marketing messages. The understanding of the travellers' motivations will also help Zimbabwe to meet the needs of tourists.

Cultural tourism has been gaining importance recently, not only because of economic gains attributable to it (Kastenholz *et al.*, 2013; Abuamoud, *et al.*, 2014). The average daily spending per visitor of a cultural tourist site is 22% higher than that of other visitors (Taylor *et al.*, 1993). A similar study that was conducted in Portugal corroborated that culturally tourists do spend relatively more as compared with other tourist groups (Eusebio *et al.*, 2005). Existing studies on Zimbabwe on cultural tourism has only focused on the country's readiness in venturing into the cultural tourism market (Manwa, 2007). Therefore, a notable research gap in terms of cultural tourism in Zimbabwe exist. Economic contribution of cultural tourism in Zimbabwe is also yet to be established. This paper contributes towards cultural tourism literature in Zimbabwe by outlining motivations of the tourists visiting Northern Zimbabwe. These motivations are crucial in determining sustainable cultural tourism segments that Zimbabwe and other similar tourism destinations can pursue.

Cultural tourism is a panacea to destinations that are undergoing crises (Viviers & Slabbert, 2012). It helps its local communities in terms of economic development gains (Viviers & Slabbert, 2012; Mazimhaka, 2007; Lee & Han, 2002). As a result, the attention of economists is also recorded in literature (Laplane *et al.*, 2005). There is no doubt that, cultural tourism is a tool of economic development. Tourism destinations, apart from economic development, it can also be used to attract tourism numbers from outside the community, who are motivated wholly or in part by interest in the historical artistic, scientific or lifestyle/heritage offerings of the community, or region (Silberberg, 1995).

Job creation is another tangible impact of cultural tourism. Other impacts of cultural tourism include an increase in tax revenues and quality of life. It is therefore a major source of revenue for many communities and destinations in the world (UNWTO, 2007). Additionally, developing countries have managed to increase their participation in the global economy through the development of cultural tourism (UNWTO, 2007; Richards, 2000, 2009; Richards & Wilson, 2006; Mohamed, 2008). Hence the need to build tourism around a variety of tourist attractions such as agri-tourism, arts tourism, festival tourism, cultural and heritage tourism, destination tourism, fairs, carnivals, events and conferences, sports tourism, and recreation. UNWTO (2007) notes that, the global tourism industry is the largest export earner contributing significantly towards the balance of payments in many countries.

In recent years, particularly at the dawn of the millennium, Zimbabwe's tourism industry has been experiencing problems of poor performance and a decrease in the number of international tourist arrivals (ZTA, 2011; Ndlovu & Heath, 2013; Woyo & Woyo, 2016). More publicity has been given to nature-based tourism focusing on the country's "Big Five Attractions and the Victoria Falls" at the expense of cultural tourist attractions (Manwa, 2007). Cultural tourism research in Zimbabwe is very limited despite the fact that, Zimbabwe has unique cultural attractions. Hence, there is need for research to advise policy makers with regards to the state and potential of cultural tourism in Zimbabwe.

Destinations where tourism is considered an important component of the country's economic base, policy makers find it crucial to expand the potential visitor pool by means of developing and promoting activities that have the ability to appeal to previously untapped segments of the tourism market (McHone & Rungeling, 1999; Sdrahi & Chazapi, 2007). Zimbabwe has long relied solely on wildlife as its main tourist attraction (Manwa, 2007), therefore, it is clear that, cultural tourism is an untapped market. The integration of cultural tourism into the wider national tourism strategy is acknowledged in literature (Poon, 1993; Ritchie, 2003; Dolnicar, 2002; Kim *et al.*, 2007, McKercher, 2002). An improved comprehension of the cultural tourism market in Zimbabwe is therefore important for destination planning, management, designing and promotion of a more satisfying cultural tourism product in a way that is cost effective. Notwithstanding an increased academic interest in the cultural tourist market, little is known about the factors that influences tourist visitation to cultural attractions in Northern Zimbabwe. Knowing these factors could influence the marketing and promotion of cultural tourism. It could also help the destination to leverage the benefits that comes with the development of the cultural tourism market.

Visitor behaviour of cultural tourists

Richards (2007) argues that, cultural motivated trips are on the increase since 1992. The creation of culturally distinctive destinations is therefore an important strategy for tourism destinations, particularly in an increasingly competitive market (OECD, 2009). The creation of distinguishing cultural destinations, however calls for a deep understanding of the cultural tourist market, its profile, motivations, behaviours and heterogeneity (Kastenholz *et al.*, 2013). It is against this background, that tourism destinations like Zimbabwe for example, must view its cultural resources as drivers of destination attractiveness and competitiveness.

Education is recognised as a strong determinant of cultural tourism visitation than income levels (Kim *et al.*, 2007; Richards, 2000; Kastenholtz *et al.*, 2013). According to Kim *et al.*, (2007), on one hand, cultural tourists with a higher level of education and income participates more in cultural attractions such as local festival, fairs, musical attractions and knowledge/aesthetic seeking attractions. On the other hand, low income cultural tourists were found to prefer participating in commercial recreation parks, suggesting a low interest and knowledge about the local culture (Kim *et al.*, 2007; Kerstetter, Confer & Graefe, 2001). Additionally, cultural tourists have enough leisure time to explore and experience cultural tourism (Richards, 2007).

Socio-economic status of visitors is an effective predictor for cultural tourist visitation in the United States (Kim, *et al.*, 2007). This finding was corroborated by Richards (2007). The behaviour of cultural tourists is influenced by a number of factors that shapes tourists' motivation to travel and choose destination. Destination image and other evaluative factors like trip quality, observed value and satisfaction stimulates visitors' behaviour directly (Prayag, 2010). Research shows that, destination image is a critical element that influences choice. Image has a profound effect with regards to the tourists' behavioural intentions particularly the intention to revisit and willingness to make recommendations about a destination (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Prayag, 2010). While the tourist's motivations and behaviours have been explored in other cultural tourism destinations, similar research is yet to establish the key motivations of cultural tourists in the empirical context of Zimbabwe as a cultural tourism destination.

Typologies of cultural tourists

There is a growing stream of literature that explored the typologies of cultural and heritage tourists (*see*, Kerstetter, Confer, & Graefe, 2001; McKercher, 2002; McKercher & du Cros, 2003; McKercher, Ho, du Cros, & So-Ming, 2002; Nyaupane, White, & Budmk, 2006; Silberberg, 1995). Five types of cultural heritage tourists were proposed by McKercher (2002) based on the level of importance they put on cultural tourism by means of analysing the way tourists make decisions and the experience they are seeking. The types according to McKercher (2002) include: incidental cultural tourists, casual cultural tourists, sightseeing cultural tourists, serendipitous cultural tourists and purposeful cultural tourists. These typologies were empirically tested by McKercher and du Cross (2003). However, these typologies are yet to be empirically investigated in the context of Zimbabwe as a tourism destination. Therefore, profiling of cultural tourists in Zimbabwe is therefore critical.

Another study on typologies of cultural tourists was done by Nyaupane *et al.*, (2006). In their study, they identified three types of tourists, which they labelled based on the motives of tourists to learn about the destination's cultural history (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2014). The identified types were culture focused, culture attentive and culture appreciative. According to Nyaupane *et al.*, (2006) there is a continuum that can be identified in empirical studies in relation to cultural tourists. However, studies that have empirical analysed the typologies of cultural tourists based on their behaviour (that is visiting certain attractions) are relatively few (de Simone, 2012). These typologies have not been empirically tested in Zimbabwe, and there is a typological research gap that requires further research.

Other scholars categorised the types of cultural tourists based on visitors' experience they are seeking in a tourism destination (e.g. Hudson, 2009). According to Hudson (2009), cultural tourists can therefore be classified based on behaviours that are constructed using their travel experiences and motivations for holiday-taking. The categories of cultural tourists that Hudson (2009) developed include: bubble travellers, idealised-experience seekers, wide horizon travellers and total immersers. Johns and Gyimothy (2002) classified cultural tourist behaviours into two major categories, and they labelled the tourists as active vacationers and inactive vacationers. Active vacationers are cultural tourists who seek local culture and value the destination's amenities while active vacationers are tourists who only visit popular cultural attractions (Johns & Gyimothy, 2002). Both typologies have not been empirically investigated in the context of Northern Zimbabwe as a cultural tourism destination.

Visitor experiences constitute a major component of cultural tourism marketing. Research shows that, a growing number of cultural tourists are seeking a total visitation experience that is not limited to learning but also involves culture, leisure and social interaction. These elements of vacation are associated with a memorable tourist experience (Kim, Ritchie & McCormick, 2010). The destination's attributes play a much bigger role in influencing satisfaction and ultimately the cultural tourism experience (Huh *et al.*, 2006). Tourists are believed to recall easily the positive aspects of their travel experience than the negative aspects, indicating the need for destination managers in Zimbabwe to provide more memorable travel experiences for cultural tourists. This can be achieved by formulating interesting cultural programmes that can help tourists visiting Zimbabwe to experience and discover new things (Kim *et al.*, 2010). It is clear that research has been conducted on travel behaviour and motivations; however limited attention has been shown in the context of Zimbabwean tourism. Therefore, the contribution of this paper is in its context.

Tourist motivation of cultural tourists

There is no doubt that cultural/heritage tourism is a fast-growing segment of the wider tourism market (Correia *et al.*, 2013). This trend is evident based on the increase of the volume of tourists that are seeking adventure, culture, history, archaeology and interaction with the local people within tourism destinations (Hughes & Allen, 2005; Nuryanti, 1996). The cultural tourism market is a favourable option for many tourism destinations because of the higher spending behaviour of the cultural tourists (Correia *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, understanding the motivations of such a market is critical for destination managers in Zimbabwe.

Research suggests that motivation referring consumption experience plays a significant role in customer retention and customer loyalty (Mathwick, Malhotra & Rigdon, 2002). Based on this, it is important for marketers to be familiarised with their customers, particularly in terms of their behaviour and motivations by focusing on why they purchase, how many repeat purchasers exist and how often have they purchase goods and services (Oppermann, 1999). Therefore, in a cultural tourism context, a better comprehension of why tourists travel and visit cultural attractions is important for successful destination marketing (Crompton, & McKay, 1997; Prentice & Andersen, 2003; Song, You, Reisinger, Lee & Lee, 2014) and visitor management. It is suggested

that, the characteristics of the tourists is influential in attracting potential visitors to tourism destinations (Richards, 2002).

The behavioural intention of visitors is directly influenced by the desires of tourists to attend cultural events (Song *et al.*, 2014), suggesting that, the visitors' positive anticipation emotion is key in generating the need to explore local cultural activities and identities (Chiang *et al.*, 2015). Cultural events and attractions are other motivators that influences tourists to visit a tourism destination (Chang, 2006; Correia *et al.*, 2013). Based on this, it is important for tourism managers in Zimbabwe to understand the key characteristics and motivations for cultural tourists so that, the major markets could be classified and the demand for cultural tourism be understood (Rid, Ezeuduji & Pröbstl-Haider, 2014). In the context of the Gambia, tourists visit cultural attractions for the purposes of seeking heritage and nature based activities, multi-experience based activities; beach based activities; sun and beach based activities (Rid, Ezeuduji & Pröbstl-Haider, 2014). The motivations of cultural tourists in Zimbabwe remains unknown. The understanding of travel motivations of cultural tourists is therefore, a precursor for destinations to be successful in their planning (Severt, Wang, Chen & Breiter, 2007) and visitor management. With a growing stream of interest in cultural tourism, particularly segmentation and satisfaction, there is limited and/or no research that has explored the factors that influences tourist to visit Northern Zimbabwe as a cultural tourism destination.

Method of Research

Sample and data collection

This study seeks to identify the types and motivations of cultural tourists that visit Northern Zimbabwe as a cultural tourism destination. A survey instrument was developed to identify the types of tourists and factors that influences tourists to visit cultural sites. The study was conducted between October 2013 and February 2014. Primary data were collected through a survey questionnaire that was administered by the researchers at 6 different sites in Northern Zimbabwe: Zimbabwe Museum of Human Sciences, Chiremba Balancing Rocks, Ngomakurira National Monument, Tsindi Ruins, Domboshava National Monument, and Mutoko Ruins (*see* Fig. 1 for the delimitation of the study area). The survey instrument that was used in this study was developed to address the study objectives and to answer the research question. A large sample $N= 500$ was selected from international tourists to participate in this study.

Survey participants were asked to indicate their demographic characteristics such as gender, age and education. The study also investigated the typology of cultural tourists. The last section of the survey instrument asked tourists about the factors that influenced their visitation to cultural sites and an option for suggesting and commenting about their visit was also provided in instrument. Face and content validity of the research's preliminary questionnaire was assessed through a focus group discussion that involved a panel of tourism experts who were drawn from the higher education institutions in Zimbabwe. A focus group discussion was done with 5 postgraduate students majoring in Cultural Tourism Management. The motive behind the focus group discussions was to establish and ascertain the most probable reasons that motivate tourists to visit cultural attractions. As a result, each participant within

the focus group discussion was able to comprehensively assess the importance of including the questions in the survey. A panel of Tourism Management experts were later involved in the reviewing of the revised questionnaire. These experts included university professors and doctoral degree holders. Experts were asked to make comments with regards to the representativeness, clarity, the testing format, wording and particularly the item content of the questionnaire. Based on the comments and feedback received from the panel of tourism experts, the research questionnaire was therefore modified and administered to tourists by the researchers.

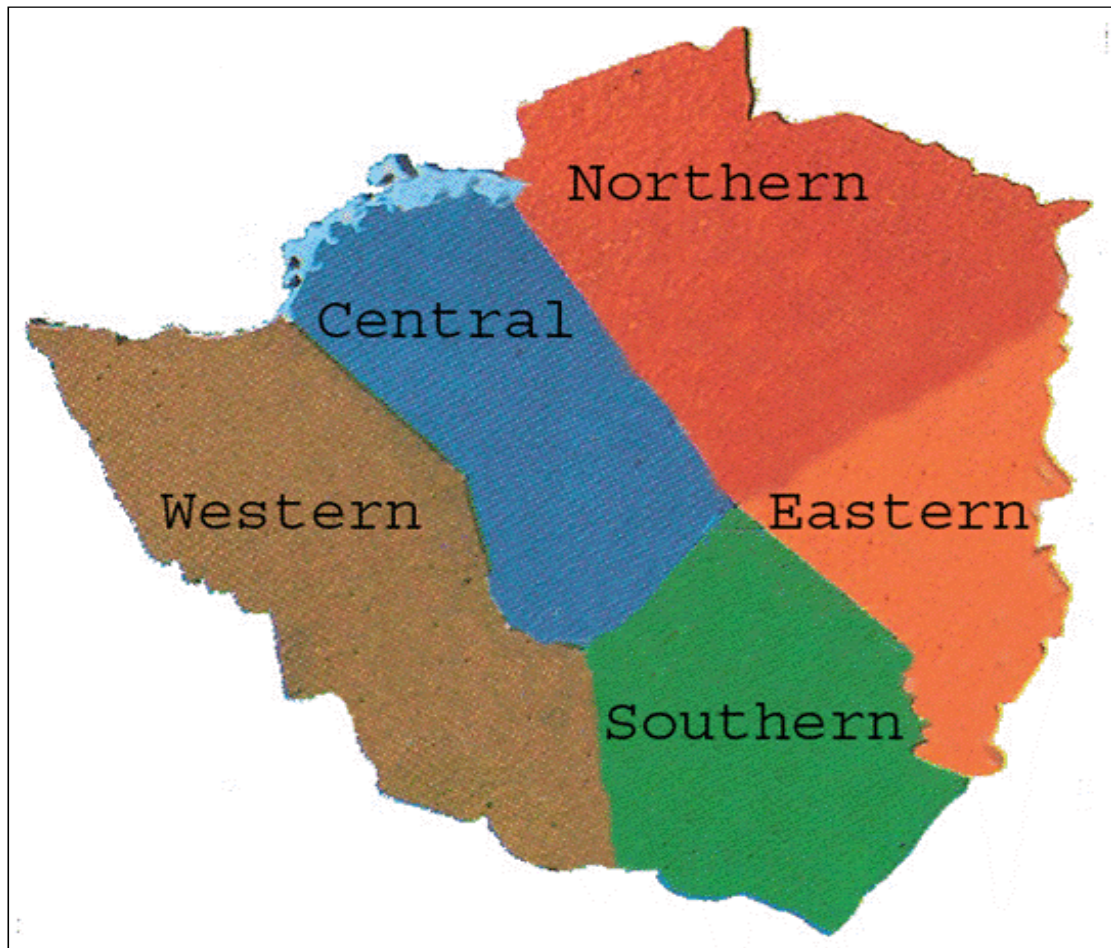


Figure 1: Map of study area

Data analysis

The study's data analysis followed three steps: first, descriptive analysis was performed and focused on the profile and typologies of the respondents. The second step of data analysis focused on factor analyses. Factor analyses were conducted using the principal component analysis (PCA). The motivation in conducting the PCA was to identify factors that reflected a larger set of the visitation motivation items that were included in the questionnaire. The last step of data analysis focused on regression analyses and it focused on analysing significant motivation factors in the context of Northern Zimbabwe.

Results and Discussion

Summary of the visitor profile

The response rate was 86%, as 430 of the 500 questionnaires were returned to the researchers with usable responses. In terms of gender composition, the study recorded more female visitors (69.8%) as compared to male visitors (30.2%) as shown in Table 1. The majority of the respondents were married (56.3%) and were found to be educated up to the Bachelors' degree level. The level of education was found to be high, corroborating the findings of research done by McKercher (2002) and Richards (2001). Therefore, for Zimbabwe to develop its cultural tourism market, they need to target more of the educated tourists because they are able to comprehend and understand the product offering better. The average age of the visitors to cultural attractions in Northern Zimbabwe was 30 years. This is contrary to the findings of Richards (2001) who argued that, the cultural tourism market attracts older travellers. In terms of source markets, 83.72% of the respondents were from the African continent and this is attributable to proximity; Europe 5.81%; Asia Pacific recorded 5.35% while tourists from Europe and the Expanded Middle East were 2.79% and 2.33% respectively. Therefore, it is important for destination managers to develop and market the cultural tourism product for the short haul market.

Table 1: Description statistics of the sample

Variable	<i>N=430</i>	%
Gender		
Male	130	30.2
Female	300	69.8
Age in years		
24 -30	100	23.3
31 – 35	150	34.9
36 -40	90	20.9
41 -50	40	9.3
51 -60	30	7.0
≥61	20	4.7
Marital Status		
Married	242	56.3
Single	150	34.9
Widow	38	8.8
Education Level		
Secondary Education	30	7.0
National Certificate	10	2.3
National Diploma	30	7.0
Higher national Diploma	10	2.3
Bachelor's degree	250	58.1
Graduate School	100	23.3
Source Markets		
Africa	360	83.7
Europe	25	5.8
Asia Pacific	23	5.4
Americas	12	2.8
Expanded Middle East	10	2.3

Cultural tourist typologies

It was also the objective of this study to identify the types of cultural tourists that visit Northern Zimbabwe as a cultural tourism destination. The most dominant type of cultural tourists is the sightseeing cultural tourists (40% of the sample) as shown in Table 2. This was followed by the casual and purposeful tourists (20% respectively). Serendipitous cultural tourists accounted for 17.4% of the sample while the incidental tourists were 2.6% of the sample. The findings of this study are helpful in helping destination managers in segmenting the cultural tourism market. Additionally, this information is crucial for cultural destination managers to understand the different types of needs that tourists have and could be helpful in the design and development of facilities.

Cultural tourist typologies in Northern Zimbabwe

Tourist typology	Frequency	%
Sightseeing cultural tourist	172	40%
Casual cultural tourist	86	20%
Purposeful cultural tourist	86	20%
Serendipitous cultural tourist	75	17.4%
Incidental cultural tourist	11	2.6%

The findings of this study are therefore in tandem with previous studies. Niemczyk (2013) conducted a survey whose findings indicated that, travel motivations for participation in cultural tourism are based on multiple-dimensions such as purposeful, serendipitous, sightseeing, incidental and casual dimensions.

Cultural tourist motivations

The other objective of the study was to identify the major motivations of tourists in the context of Northern Zimbabwe as a cultural tourism destination. The motivations were factor analysed using an Oblimin oblique rotation that followed the principal component analysis (PCA) of the factors. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) generated cultural tourists' behavioural dimensions with a three-factor structure. These factors had eigenvalues that were greater than 1 (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:594). The total variance for the three factors was explained by 66.01% of the variances. The study deemed this to be satisfactory as per the guidelines of Hair *et al.*, (2013). The Bartlett's test of sphericity after running the analysis was a *p-value* that was lower than 0.001 ($p < 0.000$) indicating statistical significance (Malhorta *et al.*, 2013:364). Therefore, cultural tourists' visitation motivation for factor analyses were supported.

The rotation converged in 8 iterations and the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy for the factors was 0.814. The KMO was deemed to be appropriate as high values are considered between 0.5 and 1 (Malhorta *et al.*, 2013:624). The majority of the items that were loaded for factor analysis had higher than 0.3 factor loadings and this showed that there was correlation between the variables and the factors (Malhorta *et al.*, 2013:624). The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was used in this study to assess the internal consistency among the items that were observed for factor analyses. This was done to confirm if the data that was collected was reliable. The reliability coefficients

ranged from 0.66 to 0.75, thus, exceeding what Malhorta (2010) defined as an acceptable cut off coefficient. Elements that cross loaded in either factor 1, 2 or 3 were classified in the factor in which the researchers felt was more appropriate based on literature.

Table 3: *Factor analysis results*

Motivational factors	Factor loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Factor 1: Personal motivation		0.75
Specifically wanted to visit the area	0.67	
I am an artist/professional in the industry	0.66	
Visited only because of friends/relatives visited	0.64	
The cultural site was part of the package	0.64	
I am interested in history	0.61	
Something to tell my friends/relatives about	0.55	
Factor 2: Relaxation motivation		0.66
To relax physically	0.77	
To relax spiritually	0.68	
Just wanted something to do in culture	0.58	
Interested in the destination's nightlife	0.58	
A break from normal routine	0.55	
Factor 3: Memorable experience seeking		0.67
To make new friends	0.64	
To experience something authentic	0.61	
To experience something new	0.59	
Site provides an educational experience	0.55	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Oblimin oblique with Kaiser Normalization

Factor 1: Personal motivation

The study found that, the respondents were motivated in visiting Northern Zimbabwe for personal reasons. The factor had a total of 6 factor items. The first factor identified the personal motivation factor and it describes the tourists' motivations to visiting cultural based attractions in Northern Zimbabwe. All the factor items were retained for further analysis as they had factor loadings that were greater than 0.3. A high reliability coefficient of 0.75 indicates that, there is a relatively high internal consistency between the factor items that were loaded for factor analyses. This factor integrates factor items such as "specifically wanted to visit the area", "I am an artist/professional in the industry", "visited only because of friends/relatives visited", "the cultural site was part of the package" and "I am interested in history". The development of cultural tourism facilities in Northern Zimbabwe must focus on personal motivation factors. There is

need for destination managers to develop facilities and cultural activities that attracts artists and researchers for example.

Factor 2: Relaxation

The second factor integrated items such as “to relax spiritually”, “just wanted something to do with culture”, “interested in destination’s night life”, “for resting and relaxation”, and a “break from normal routine”. The factor generated a reliability score of 0.66, suggesting a relatively high internal consistency among the factor items. The marketing of cultural tourism in Northern Zimbabwe must focus its messages on relaxation, given that, tourists mainly visit the destination to relax spiritually and for resting. The development of facilities must also ensure that tourists are able to relax when they visit the destination, hence the need for accommodation facilities. Destination managers must also focus on the development of attractive and authentic destination life as most respondents indicated that it is an important motivation factor.

Factor 3: Seeking memorable experience

This factor identified memorable tourist’s experience as an important motivation factor influencing visitation. The factor described the tourists’ cultural experiences to Northern Zimbabwe’s cultural sites. The factor integrated items such as “to make new friends”, “to experience something new”, “to experience something authentic” and “the site provides an educational experience”. The factor generated a Cronbach’s Alpha value of 0.67, suggesting that there was a relatively high internal consistency among the factor items. This finding validates the views of Kim *et al.*, (2010), who conclude that, holiday makers tend to recollect positive travel experiences, suggesting that, cultural tourism destinations are required to deliver unforgettable travel experiences by means of developing exciting programmes that tourists can experience as they discover new things. McKercher (2002) also notes that, purposeful cultural tourists, on their part, are tourists that seek deep and memorable travel experiences as their main motivation to travel to cultural attractions.

Significant factors influencing cultural tourism visitation

The study used multiple regression analyses to determine significant factors that influences tourists’ visitation to cultural attractions in Northern Zimbabwe. As can be seen in Table 4, only 4 independent variables were found to be significantly influential in with regards to the motivation by tourists wanting to visit cultural attractions. Tourists who are artists/professionals are more likely to visit cultural and archaeological sites ($\beta = .350$). Additionally, the need for tourists to tell their friends and relatives about something is the second most significant influential factor in predicting visitation to cultural sites ($\beta = .242$). Thus, one would expect that, these variables are significant and influential in explaining the factors that influence visitation to cultural attractions sites in Northern Zimbabwe, and therefore justifies the need for the tourism industry to develop and diversity its tourism products given that, its nature based tourism has since been regarded as “tired” (Manwa, 2007).

Table 5 shows that 3 factor items are significant in explaining relaxation as an influencing visitation factor to cultural attractions in Northern Zimbabwe. To relax physically ($\beta = .558$) is a more significant in influencing tourist visitation to cultural sites in Northern Zimbabwe. This was followed by the desire of tourists in wanting

something to do with culture ($\beta = .242$). Table 6 also shows that, there are only two significant factors that can explain cultural tourist visitation in terms of the experience seeking tourists. The need for tourists to experience something new is more significant in explaining tourist visitation in the context of experience seeking factor ($\beta = .236$).

Table 4: Multiple regression model for factor I (personal motivation)

Model fit	R = .634; R ² = .403; f = 57.138; α = 0.000				
Variable	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
(Constant)	-0.218	0.285		-0.767	0.444
I am an artist/professional in industry	0.424	0.053	0.35	8.065	.000*
Visited only because friends/relatives visited	0.264	0.084	0.17	3.154	.002*
Cultural site was part of the tour package	0	0.074	0	-0.002	0.999
Something to tell my friends/relatives about	0.21	0.035	0.242	5.938	.000*
Interested in the destination's nightlife	0.131	0.04	0.135	3.26	.001*

Statistically significant at 95% level ($p < 0.05$)

Table 5: Multiple regression model for factor II (relaxation)

Model fit	R = .740; R ² = .547; f = 128.388; α = 0.000				
Variable	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	0.025	0.297		0.084	0.933
A break from normal routine	-0.02	0.062	-0.012	-0.328	0.743
Just wanted something to do in culture	0.232	0.038	0.242	6.164	.000*
To relax physically	0.573	0.041	0.558	13.899	.000*
Interested in the destination's nightlife	0.156	0.056	0.1	2.783	.006*

Statistically significant at 95% level ($p < 0.05$)

Table 6: Multiple regression model for factor III (experience seeking tourist)

Model fit	R = .305; R ² = .093; f = 14.559; α = 0.000				
Variable	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	2.322	0.262		8.878	0.00
To make new friends	0.188	0.056	0.169	3.332	.001*
Site provide an educational experience	-0.061	0.067	-0.055	-0.951	0.361
To experience something new	0.242	0.061	0.236	3.959	.000*

Statistically significant at 95% level ($p < 0.05$)

R-squared is a statistical measure of how close the data are to the fitted regression line, and it is also known as a coefficient of determination. In the context of multiple regression analyses that were conducted in this study, it ranged from 0.093 to 0.547. Factor III generated a low r-squared value of 0.093 and there are many possible explanations for such a low value. One of the reasons why the regression analyses of factor III resulted in a low value is that, the explanatory variables that were regressed might not have been good enough (Pindiyck & Rubinfeld, 1981). This might suggest that, there are more important factors that can help explain the experience seeking motivation of tourists in Zimbabwe. However, it is important to note that, the low values of r-squared do not threaten the scientific contribution of the study since the purpose of this study was to identify the factors that influences visitation than fitting the data to a defined model.

Managerial Implications and Suggestions

This study revealed that tourists visiting Northern Zimbabwe can be clustered into five major categories “sightseeing”, “casual”, “purposeful”, “serendipitous” and “incidental” cultural visitors. These categories can be used in Zimbabwe as the basis of segmenting the cultural tourism market. Sightseeing tourists were found in this study to be the largest group of cultural tourists visiting Zimbabwe. Therefore, sightseeing is the primary motivation for visiting Northern Zimbabwe as a cultural destination. Therefore, in targeting visitors for the purposes of sightseeing, destination managers in Northern Zimbabwe may need to consider destination marketing messages that focuses on key attractions in the region. Campaigns can be conducted on virtual spaces such as YouTube and other social media spaces like Facebook and Twitter to recommend potential tourists to visit and take part in novel tourism activities at cultural based attractions in Northern Zimbabwe. Additionally, destination marketing messages must also focus on attracting visitors seeking relaxation and memorable experiences as they are more environmentally conscious.

After Manwa (2007)’s study on the readiness of Zimbabwe in venturing into cultural tourism market, the comprehension of factors influencing visitation of tourists in the

context of cultural tourism was considered important. The study identified three important factors that motivate tourists to visit Northern Zimbabwe as a cultural tourism destination. These factors are “personal motivation”, “relaxation” and “seeking memorable experience”. It is therefore suggested that, tourism managers and policy makers in Zimbabwe must improve cultural facilities for increased visitation by artists and professionals to cultural attractions. In addition, there is need for the cultural tourism sector in Northern Zimbabwe to increase opportunities for relaxation and new experience explorations for visitors that are seeking memorable experiences. Based on the findings of the study, the 3-factor structure that was extracted provides a description of the variables that relate to the motivations of why tourists visit cultural attractions in Northern Zimbabwe. These factors are important in providing an understanding of the important factors that influences visitation to Northern Zimbabwe. Such an understanding is crucial in helping cultural and heritage planners with information needed for the development and formulation of effective strategies.

One of the limitations of the study is the subsequent lack of generalisability due to limited nature of the survey to one region and the sample only focused on international travellers at a time when tourism industry was not relatively busy. The study focused only on Northern Region, and other regions must be studied in the future given that, they have different cultural sites, hence the factors influencing visitation might also be different. More investigation must also be conducted to measure the demand of cultural tourism in Zimbabwe and how the market can be further segmented.

In conclusion, these results have important destination planning and marketing implications for Northern Zimbabwe and other regions as cultural tourism destinations. Managers of tourism in these areas can actually use the findings of the study to develop cost-effective marketing strategies for the various types of tourists that were identified as target groups.

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**SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: ISSUES, CHALLENGES AND DEBATES,
25TH—28TH APRIL 2017, KATHMANDU, NEPAL**

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Conference Report

The Conference on Sustainable Tourism Development: Issues, Challenges and Debates, which took place on 25th—28th April 2017, in Kathmandu, Nepal, brought together academics, policy makers, politicians and practitioners to address a range of issues facing sustainable tourism development. Participants presented papers embracing theory and practice on a variety of multi-disciplinary themes. Presenters provided stimuli, which encouraged the audience to identify, discuss and debate various perspectives on the challenges, opportunities, susceptibilities, vulnerabilities, and remedial actions to ensure the future of sustainable tourism. This report highlights some of the themes and conclusions from the conference.

Conference attendees and presenters recognized that for sustainable tourism to flourish in the long term that practitioners and academics must move beyond the traditional paradigms of ecological and environmental sustainability to embracing concepts that cover the broader issues of sustainability planning such as destination development, marketing, policymaking, destination and enterprise management and education. Scholars recognized the need for small medium sized enterprises to improve operational efficiency and drive profitability. They acknowledged the need to embrace new technologies and the necessity for education that ensures the long-term sustainability of tourism enterprises. The value and importance of novel or unusual forms of tourism such as astro-tourism, philanthropic tourism and volunteer tourism was explicitly discussed at the conference. Keynote speaker, Professor Marina Novelli, articulated how tourism philanthropy can address the needs of those living in less privileged conditions around the world. This speech provoked much thought on how philanthropic motives can be used to develop tourism products that can address issues of inequality and bring about greater social justice for deprived communities. Keynote speaker, Professor Ghazali Musa demonstrated how auto-ethnography could be used to research tourist experiences of mountaineering in high altitude environments; and Christopher Barrett highlighted a new scientific approach to achieving sustainability through the development of sunlight degradable and edible bio plastics.

Dr Christina Koutra noted that the exertion of power by tour operator businesses in metropolitan countries for cheaper prices continues to threaten the sustainability of small accommodation businesses in peripheral and insular regions. They highlighted the reality that power differentials still exist within the tourism supply chain and that tourism benefits still accrue to those that do not own the tourism resources at the

destination. The conference brought about the sobering realization that peripheral and insular communities, mainly in developing countries, continue to bear the social and economic cost of tourism. Presenters reminded us that successful tourism development is dependent on maintaining a delicate balance between achieving social and cultural equality, economic growth and the protection of environments.

While the themes covered were timely and relevant, more in-depth discussions were needed to determine how solutions could be operationalized, particularly as it relates to the secondment of human and financial resources and the availability of grant-aid and other sources of financial support to fund sustainable tourism development projects. Much rhetoric and discourse revolved around the tourism industry and tourism businesses at the destination level with scholars using case studies as exemplars encompassing basic and applied research. This meant that broader macro and global issues did not factor on the agenda. A more holistic and futuristic approach that covers developmental and environmental issues integrated within a long-term global, political, social, cultural and economic context would benefit future agendas. The conference also did not proffer any new, radical or controversial views about sustainability matters. Perhaps in the future the more exogenous, global, social, political and economic dimensions could be explored further.

Although tourism is one of the principal economic activities on islands and an essential source of job opportunities, livelihood, and inclusive growth, topics related to this sector were notably missing from the conference. However, the conference did much to strengthen and build awareness of approaches to sustainable tourism in developing nations and to highlight best practices, strategies and options for sustained economic growth. It demonstrated the importance of knowledge exchange between academics, researchers, students and representatives from industry, government and non-governmental organizations. Its value in bringing about a transformation of human societies and attitudes towards a more sustainable tourism cannot be dismissed.

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