Myths of Tourism

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

Zadar, 9 -12 May 2013

International Conference

MYTHS OF TOURISM

Proceedings

Edited by
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Publishers

University of Zadar
Department of Tourism and Communication Studies
Ulica Mihovila Pavlinovića bb
23 000 Zadar

University of Zagreb
Faculty of Economics & Business
J.F. Kennedy Square 6
10 000 Zagreb
CROATIA

For the Publisher
Prof. dr. sc. Ante Uglešić
Prof. dr. Tonći Lazibat, Dean

Graphic design, layout and printing
Artis dizajn d.o.o.
www.artisdizajn.hr

CIP-Katalogizacija u publikaciji
Znanstvena knjižnica Zadar

UDK 338.48(048)(063)

INTERNATIONAL Conference Myths of Tourism (2013 ; Zadar)

International conference Myths of tourism : proceedings, <Zadar, 9 – 12 May 2013> / edited by Nevenka Čavlek, Božena Krce Miočić. - Zadar: Sveučilište, 2015. - 258 str. : ilustr. ; 23 cm

Bibliografija uz svako poglavlje.

ISBN 978-953-331-068-8

141013093

Acknowledgments

University of Zadar, Department of Tourism and Communication Studies and University of Zagreb, Faculty of Economics & Business, Department of Tourism, would like to express their most sincere appreciation to all keynote speakers, moderators, paper presenters and reviewers for joining us in Zadar, 9 - 12 May 2013 at International Conference „Myths of Tourism".

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Preface

It gives us much pleasure to welcome the readers of the Proceedings of the International Conference “Myths of Tourism” which was jointly organised by the Department of Tourism and Communication Studies, University of Zadar, and the Faculty of Economics & Business, Department of Tourism, University of Zagreb with valuable support from the Ministry of Tourism of the Republic of Croatia from 9th to 12th, May 2013. We were delighted with the success of this event, which gathered together some 140 enthusiastic participants and prominent speakers from no fewer than 15 countries – some as far afield as China and Australia!

We hope that the stimulating questions raised in the multidisciplinary field of tourism provoked curiosity and provided a forum for both academics and practitioners to rethink the various concepts of tourism research and development. Despite the ever increasing number of academic institutions, tourism programmes and individual tourism researchers around the world, there is still a myriad of myths that need to be addressed. Do we assess critically enough common expressions such as “tourism as a global industry”? Why is tourism not an industry? How global is tourism? How many myths of tourism still exist? Have tourism researchers themselves contributed to creating some additional myths of tourism? How effectively have researchers from different disciplines been solving certain challenges that exist within tourism – both from the researchers’ and the practitioners’ focuses? How successfully do we disseminate and implement the results of research? Is theory still lagging behind practice? Who pulls the strings of tourism development? Do we challenge ourselves sufficiently to unlearn the commonly accepted myths, thereby moving tourism scholarship forward?

The conference adopted an alternative approach that sought answers to the above and more vital questions, and shed a new light on those tourism issues whose solutions are often taken for granted. In this respect the renowned scholars and researchers from diverse tourism disciplines tackled the various aspects of myths and tourism.

In presenting these Proceedings, it is our hope that those able to be present will be reminded of a very stimulating and enjoyable event, and that many of those unfortunate enough to be absent may find inspiration for new research avenues by tasting some of its rich flavour.

On behalf of the Organising Committee,

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International Conference

MYTHS OF TOURISM

Proceedings

MYTHICAL RANKINGS: A CRITICAL PROBE OF THE MAIN TRAVEL & TOURISM DATABASES

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MYTHICAL RANKINGS: A CRITICAL PROBE OF THE MAIN TRAVEL

1. Introduction

Tourism is an important economic activity for most countries much coveted by aspiring destinations. In its present form of tourism, that is, the exchange of tourist services for money, it keeps on developing without respite in most areas of the world. It is expected that tourism will develop on the supply and demand side, with wider economic, social, cultural, environmental, technological and political trends affecting all countries (Dwyer, 2013).

Academic attention to its evolution has grown apace. However, in spite of the growing reams of paper devoted to study tourism and its development, our knowledge of tourism growth still remains quite limited.

This conference deals with the myths of tourism. Out of the four main meanings of the word *myth* found in Merriam Webster (Webster's Third New International Dictionary, 2013) the second—"a story invented as a veiled explanation of a truth"—, viz., something that recognizes a fact, but wraps it in a surrounding fog that prevents the observer to obtain an accurate description, seems the one fittest to our discussion.

Over the years, basic knowledge about tourism was provided by the two databases (on international arrivals and international receipts) maintained by United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). They started to be compiled over sixty years ago and have covered the field year after year. They still are the bread and butter for most of our musings. Later on, at the end of the 20th century, the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) started contributing its yearly analyses of tourism development based on the Tourism Satellite Accounts (TSA) methodology. More recently, the World Economic Forum (WEF), better known for the annual gatherings of entrepreneurs, economists, politicians, and sundry celebrities it organizes at Davos (Switzerland), has contributed biennial volumes to competitiveness in this economic sector. All these databases are in the public domain. There are many others developed for for-profit companies, but they remain beyond the reach of most researchers who have to make do with the publicly available ones.

WTTC and WEF databases are becoming increasingly useful, although many times they are quoted in too hazy a manner—as a collection of rankings whose purpose remains a cipher. This does not help fulfilling their role in explaining the present development of tourism and predicting its future—the two main tasks of scientific research.

This paper assesses their respective strengths and weaknesses of all three databases with a focus on the eventual fog they create. Additionally it explores some ways to leave it behind and to reach a better picture of the development of the global tourism system.

2. UNWTO

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) is an agency of the United Nations (UN) specialized on Travel and Tourism (T&T). It was created in 1974 as the World Tourism Organization (WTO) in its English name. The name was changed to the present one in 2005 to avoid confusion with another WTO, the World Trade Organization, born in 1995 as a successor to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). In 2010 UNWTO counted 155 governmental members. Around 40 other countries, including UK and US, did not belong to it. Additionally it counted with 400 affiliate members from different sectors of the T&T industry (UNWTO 2012b).

For the purpose of this paper, UNWTO's main significance harks back to the two databases on international tourist arrivals and on receipts already mentioned. The most quoted is the first, but in using it one should be clearly aware of its scope—

it is limited to measuring the number of international arrivals that happen in a given year in the world and in particular countries. Over the years it has built a time series that allows following the ups and downs (mostly ups) of international tourism. Based on the data for individual countries, it is also possible to garner statistics on sub-regions, continents and the world as a whole. Although often forgotten by some researchers and by the public in general, it needs stressing that those two databases do not include figures on domestic tourism. However, domestic tourism is reckoned to generate nearly four times as much added value to world tourism and account for an unknown, though vast, number of tourism arrivals.

Research pays a price for this. UNWTO's data have helped to create a dyed-in-the-wool habit of considering international tourism as a synonym for the whole tourism system, a rhetoric figure known as metonym.

Some of its consequences are trivial; others less so. Let's begin with the former. As soon as one talks about international tourism, nation states become the key players, and their place in the ranking of international destinations becomes an arena for displays of national pride measured by the number of international arrivals. France is the best-known case. Around 1989, in a tribute to the bicentennial of its revolution, it decided to refurbish its tourism statistics, and, all of a sudden, its formerly sagging numbers surpassed those of its competitors in one fell swoop. Once France got a 30% head start over the next runner and became the number one destination in the world, it has remained there ever since.

One should stress, though, that prestigious numbers of international arrivals are often accompanied by a relative weakness in receipts. According to UNWTO (2012a), in 2011 France reached 77.1 million international arrivals and earned US$53.8 billion in receipts, with an average expenditure of US$613 per tourist. When compared with the rest of the Top Ten most popular destinations (Table 1), France made less money per international arrival than the rest bar Mexico.

*Table 1. Tourism arrivals and receipts for top ten tourism earners, year 2011***.**

Country	Arrivals (In million)	Receipts (In billion US$)	Receipts per tourist (In US$)
France	77.1	53.8	613.38
United States	62.3	116.3	1,866.77
China	57.6	48.5	842.01
Spain	56.7	59.9	1,056.43
Italy	46.1	43.0	932.75
Turkey	29.3	23.0	784.98
United Kingdom	28.3	35.9	1,268.55
Germany	28.4	38.8	1,366.92
Malaysia	24.7	18.3	740.89
Mexico	23.3	11.9	510.72

Source: Authors on UNWTO 2012a.

Therefore, if instead of obsessing with international arrivals, one orders destinations by their economic returns (defined in terms of dollars spent per head of tourist), the most successful country in attracting international tourists was easily surpassed in receipts per capita by destinations as varied as the United States (three times as much), Germany and the UK (twice as much), Australia (US$5,532), The Netherlands (US$1,278), Malta (US$895), Thailand (US$1,374), Panama (US$1,307), India (US$2,785), Hong Kong (US$1,240), Macau (US$2,150, 2011 amount) and many other supposedly lesser powers. Although it is the most salient example in the top group, France is not the only tourist power with scarce per capita receipts.

Which is the place in this jigsaw of domestic tourism, where there are no international transactions among parts? None whatsoever. By definition, the UNWTO database on tourist arrivals does not count them. This would not necessarily matter were it not for the fact that data on domestic tourism are sketchy and, as a consequence, researchers tend to ignore them. In this way, as mentioned, international trips become shorthand for tourism as such. UNWTO has often said that the causes of its non-venturing into the thorny issue of domestic tourism are the scarcity of reliable data and the methodological disparity of the surveys that track it. Two issues that are indeed an unpleasant part of life, but UNWTO's reluctance to tackle them contrasts with the speed it tries to show leadership in other areas more likely to attract media attention.

The way in which data are presented by UNWTO also compounds the problem. It stands to reason that the number of international arrivals will be higher in those areas of the world that are densely populated and, at the same time, count a great number of mid- and small-sized states. Europe is a case in point with nearly 50 states in just 6.8% of the Earth's land mass. Even if its dwellers did not have their present high level of disposable income, Europe would still flood international tourism statistics, as is presently the case. A car traveller from Manhattan spending a weekend in Washington DC does not register as a tourist for UNWTO. The same person going by car from The Hague in the Netherlands to Paris in France, roughly the same distance, would be counted as four arrivals—twice in Belgium, once in France, once in the Netherlands. If the tourist travels with three additional friends or siblings, there will be 16 arrivals in the roster against none in the previous case. It is not surprising that Europe's share of the global tourism market has hovered above 50% over the years.

A quick thought experiment illustrates the point further. Sometime in the not-so-distant future the European Union may become one single political entity, and its citizens would not have to cross national borders when they travel from, say, Germany to Greece or Sweden to France. Were it so, tourism statistics would experience a dramatic downturn. Had it been the case in 2010, the number of international arrivals would have been less than half that of 2009. Should we then conclude that the global tourism system would find itself in a tailspin? Would the industry have been dealt a mortal blow? The negative is a foregone conclusion.

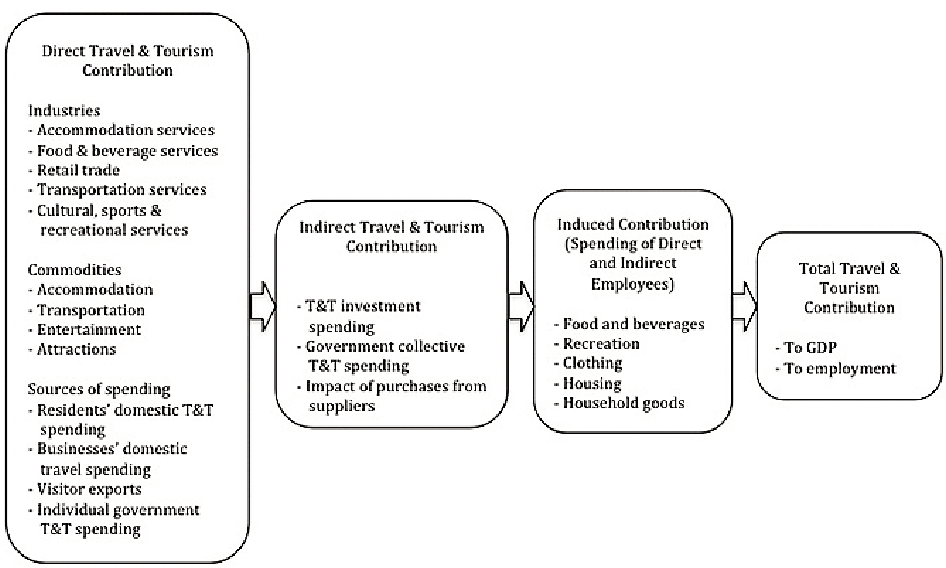
The point, however, is not trivial. The habit of identifying tourism with international tourism, especially long haul, has become so ingrained that it narrows our theoretical views down to some deeply flawed hypotheses, some of which have been already mentioned. Following the metonymic mirage, one would also be bound to conclude that the relatively few millions that go continent-hopping are expected to be more significant for the study of tourism than the 2.1 billion domestic tourists China generated in 2010 (CNTA, 2012), or the 2 billion leisure trips that Americans took inside the United States in 2006.

3. WTTC

WTTC maintains the second worldwide database on tourism that is also in the public domain. Differing from UNWTO, it does not deal with the international dimensions of tourism arrivals and receipts, but aims at understanding the economic weight of tourism in nations and territories, continents and subcontinents, and the world as a whole.

Unlike UNWTO, WTTC is a private organization that gathers the biggest one hundred T&T companies (airlines, cruise lines, hotel chains, tour operators, online distributors, financial travel organizations, etc.). WTTC's inaugural meeting took place in 1989 and the organization was established in 1990 with the goals of promoting awareness of T&T's economic contribution; expanding markets in harmony with the environment; and reducing barriers to T&T growth. It is the first one that we will deal with in discussing the shape of the global tourism system (GTS).

WTTC tries to fill in the gaps left open by the UNWTO databases. In the Nineties of last century the idea of developing a system to measure the weight of T&T in national economies was initially implemented and the first TSA were born (WTTC, 2011a). Let us remind that TSA do not focus on individual international travel, but measure the financial contribution of tourism to the world economy or to that of given countries or regions. WTTC research now covers 182 countries and territories plus 20 sub-regions and economic areas, assessing the total contribution of T&T to given economies, and counting its direct effects as well as others, as per the following diagram.



Source: Oxford Economics, 2011.
Figure 1.TSA methodological framework.

The fulcrum of research is the notion of direct contribution, that is, the value added to GDP by the internal T&T demand in a given economy. This component is made of the total spending of residents and non-residents for leisure and business purposes plus that of the government on services directly linked to visitors, for instance, in museums or national parks.

Total contribution to GDP supplements the direct contribution including the wider impacts of all types of demand related to T&T. It starts with so-called indirect impacts that include spending in goods and services such as T&T investment, collective governmental spending (marketing and promotion, aviation, security, etc.), and domestic purchases of goods (food and cleaning services by hotels, fuel by airlines, and information technology used by travel companies). The last element in total contribution is what WTTC calls induced impacts, viz., expenses by people that work for the T&T economy, whether directly or indirectly, in other sectors of the economy. TSA usually refer to the direct side of T&T GDP as the Tourism Industry (TI) and to the sum of the direct, indirect and induced economic dynamics of T&T as the Tourism Economy (TE).

Nobody is perfect, though. Among other criticisms usually directed at WTTC, one should advance the caveat that its research changes every few months and given its digital support does so without leaving any footprints of the former versions in the public domain. This hurdle precludes or makes very difficult to independently validate any conclusions reached by others on the base of those data. They usually disappear from the base before they may be probed. Additionally this weakness makes it quite problematic to appraise the accuracy of the forecasts of growth for the next 10-year period customarily included in TSA. Their value is thereby diminished, though in general it exceeds its eventual flaws.

Among academics the second source of mistrust for WTTC TSA stems from the alleged advocacy-group nature of the parent institution. There is a widespread suspicion that it may use inflated data on T&T for its own goals. One should point, though, that WTTC does not hide the relation between its research and its openly acknowledged goal of increasing awareness of the economic significance of the T&T industry. The more decisive for economic growth T&T is proven to be, the more attention to it will hopefully be garnered from governments and the public. Nothing illegitimate seems to lurk in this background.

The problem lies elsewhere. If we rank the different countries in the WTTC database by the percentage contribution to GDP of their respective tourism economies we come to surprising conclusions. Just an example. The percentage impact of tourism in the GDPs of the Comoros, Luxemburg, Germany, Ivory Coast and Burundi is the same (Table 2).

Table 2. TE volume in selected countries, year 2011.

Country	**Tourism economy (In % of GDP)**	**Tourism economy (In billions, local currency)**	**Tourism economy (In billions,US$)**
Comoros	4.6	5.7	0.1
Luxembourg	4.6	1.9	2.5
Germany	4.6	117.3	151.9
Ivory Coast	4.6	593.5	1.2
Burundi	4.6	89.7	0.1

Source: Authors on WTTC, 2011.

Germany's TE contribution (4.6%) may be the same as that of the Comoros, Luxemburg, Ivory Coast and Burundi; however in real terms it is about 6,000 times higher than the Comoros', 60 times higher than Luxemburg's, 130 times weightier than Ivory Coast's and 1,500 times bigger than Burundi's. The Comoros account for less that 0.01% of the World T&T GDP, Luxembourg for 0.04%, the Ivory Coast for 0.02%, and Burundi also for less than 0.01%, that is, all of them contribute fractional amounts to world GDP; Germany on its turn supplies around 2.5% of the total. Their coincidence in the same spot in the TE ranking cannot be explained without referring to the inner diversity of their economies, otherwise known as their development level.

In less developed countries (LDC), low productivity sectors such as agriculture and extraction of natural resources contribute the bulk of GDP. Their economies are scarcely diversified, their productivity is low, and tourism has not yet developed to a significant standard for most of them. On the other hand, tourism in highly developed countries contributes low percentage amounts to their GDPs because their economies are well diversified. In cases like Germany and many other developed economies, the lay of the land is completely different from that in Less Developed Countries (LDC). Germany's tourist output is vast and mighty, but cars, telecoms, energy, chemicals, financial services and many other thriving sectors also contribute to its economy. T&T is an important part of its GDP but it compete with other sizeable components in a pie that cannot be bigger than 100% in relative size, no matter its absolute size. In the case above, equal TE percentages mean completely different things. While the German tourism sector contributes largely to the national economy, tourism is barely developed in the Comoros, Ivory Coast and Burundi. It is not the case of Luxembourg, an OECD member, but Luxembourg is a very small country with an area of 2,500 square kilometres with a population of half a million. If one wants to understand the structure of the GTS, the relative share of the T&T contribution of individual countries needs be combined with other variables than just the percentage size of their TEs.

4. WEF

The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI) is generally considered as an excellent contribution to tourism competitiveness measurement and understanding. The origin of the TTCI dates back to the 2007 when the World Economic Forum (WEF) extended its economic competitiveness studies to tourism field and published the first report. For the past seven years, the WEF engages tourism industry and data partners (including UN WTO and WTTC) to carry out an in dept analysis of the country's travel & tourism competitiveness.

WEF is a Swiss based nongovernmental organization, known by its annual Davos meeting of world economic and political leaders and selected intellectuals to discuss the world developmental problems. The TTCI is based on a number of individual variables considered to be relevant to tourism development and competitiveness. The different variables are classified into 14 pillars (WEF, 2013):

1. Policy rules and regulations
2. Environmental sustainability
3. Safety and security
4. Health and hygiene
5. Prioritization of Travel & Tourism
6. Air transport infrastructure
7. Ground transport infrastructure
8. Tourism infrastructure
9. ICT infrastructure
10. Price competitiveness in the T&T industry
11. Human resources
12. Affinity for Travel & Tourism

13. Natural resources
14 Cultural resources

In turn, pillars are categorized into three broad subindexes. The first is the T&T regulatory framework, which captures policy and government related tourism issues. The second is the T&T business environment and infrastructure subindex, measuring business relevant and ''hard'' data on tourism infrastructure. The third and last refers to the human, natural and cultural endowments of each country. Country benchmarking can be done at the single variable level, at the pillar or subindex level or at the overall TTCI level.

In such a context, TTCI ranks an extensive list of countries (in 2013 they were 140) by competitiveness. Although one may argue that WEF attention to tourism competitiveness improves industry image and importance and that the same methodology applied across 140 countries enables meaningful benchmarking, there are many open issues that put a raw interpretation of the TTCI under question marks. These questions relate to the highly unbalanced distribution of competitiveness between advanced and emerging countries and between continents. Among the top quartile (35 in total) of highly competitive countries, 23 (66%) are in Europe, 3 (8.5 %) in the Americas, 8 (23 %) in Asia-Pacific, 1 (3 %) in the Middle East and North Africa, and none in Sub-Saharan Africa (Figure 2). One should thus probe whether the WEF ranking effectively measures competitiveness; and, in particular, whether the selected list of indicators and their equal importance (weight) are justified.

For example, Switzerland is ranked as the number 1 TTCI country. The country performs well on almost all aspects of the index. According the proposed methodology, Switzerland shows a clear competitive advantage in the 140 country and ranks among the top ten countries in most pillars. However, when it comes to carbon dioxide emissions, Switzerland ranks 83 in the competitiveness list, number 90 for airport charges, and 114 in the hotel price index. These elements should create a notable competitive disadvantage. A shortsighted interpretation would overlook the fact that these values are highly related to the country's level of development and that, as developed countries have a more solid base for tourism development, these ''developmental'' indicators are de facto an advantage. In other words, it is Mali, Burundi and Chad that show the lowest CO2 emissions levels and, at the same time, rank among the least competitive in the TTCI ranks (ranks 129, 138 and 139 respectively).

Indeed, the TTCI list is dominated by advanced economies. Advanced economies have 14 times higher GDP per capita than developing countries (UN, 2011; UNDESA, 2011). As a result, 14.5% of the world's population of these countries attracts 65% of international tourism earnings; moreover, in these countries, international tourism receipts per capita are 11 times higher than in emerging economies. Developed countries such as Switzerland earn more than three times more from a single tourist per day than Turkey, and Turkey earns 3.6 times more than Mexico, leading to large differences in terms of international tourism participation and competitiveness (Mihalic, 2013).

Thus, Switzerland leads the TTCI rankings, performing well on almost all variables, pillars and subindexes. Other advanced economies such as Germany, Austria, Spain, United Kingdom, United States are traditionally at the top of the list. However, one of the most heartening developments in recent years has been the progress in development of many developing countries and their emergence on a global developmental (UNDP, 2011) and also tourism stage. Indeed, of late, it has been emerging economies that have largely driven tourism growth. Over the last decade many emerging destinations performed better than advanced ones, growing at a higher average rate. Between 2000 and 2010, emerging economies, gained nine percentage points in terms of worldwide arrivals, over the advanced countries which failed back from 62 to 54 percent (UNWTO, 2013). In this way, TTCI certainly doesn't reflect the progress emerging countries are making in tourism development.

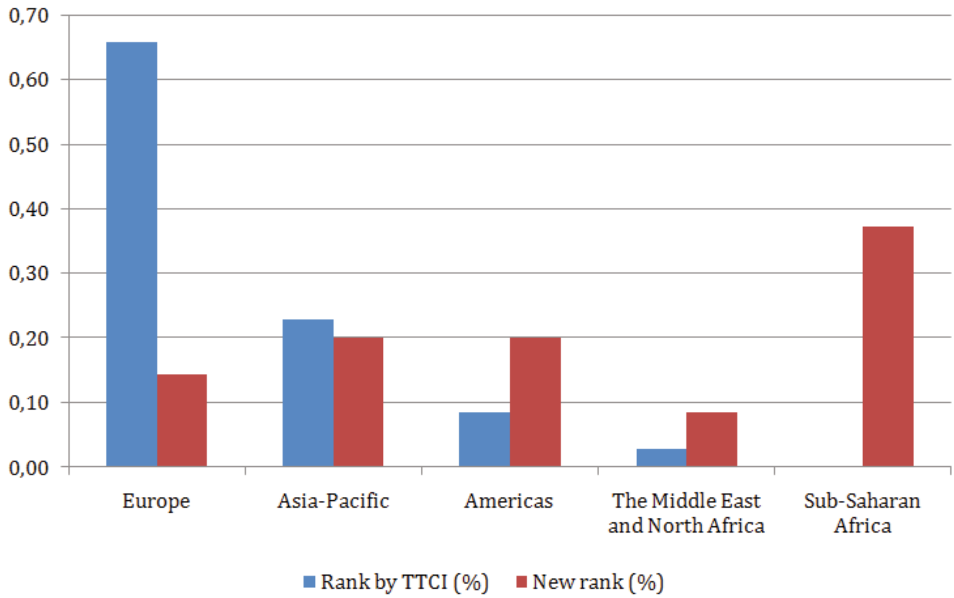
Kester and Croche (2011) questioned the TTCI list exactly from this standpoint. They concluded that TTCI tends to rank advanced economies higher than countries in lower stages of development. They argue that ''this is inevitable because it reflects the better overall conditions of those economies '' (Kester & Croce, 2011, p. 49) that are able to create better conditions for tourism competitiveness and development. In this context the TTCI measures the overall competitiveness ''stock'' rather than improvements over time. However, TTCI fails to accurately reflect the competitiveness ''flow'' or improvements, as seen in Table 3.

Table 3: TTCI and New Tourism Competitiveness Ranks relative to HDI

Country	Stage of Development	TTCIRank	HDIRank	Difference (in number of positions)	New rank (by difference)
Switzerland	Advanced	1	12	11	37
Germany	Advanced	2	8	6	53
France	Advanced	3	13	10	40
USA	Advanced	6	4	-2	72
Slovenia	Advanced	33	28	-5	84
Thailand	Emerging	40	84	44	1
China	Emerging	38	80	42	2
India	Emerging	65	105	40	3
Croatia	Emerging	34	47	13	30

Source: Kester and Croce 2011

Table 3 shows a fairer competitiveness measurement relative to country development as measured by the Human Development Index (HDI). Data show how countries really rank when compared with their respective stages of development. First, the difference in number of positions show the difference between the HDI (development) and TTCI (tourism competitiveness) ranks. Then, the country with the highest difference in number of positions (e.g. 44, Thailand) is allocated new first rank, etc. Under this new look, Thailand leads the new tourism competitiveness flow list with a strong difference of 44 positions, respectively, between its HDI and TTCI position. China and India follow, with difference of 42 and 40 ranks. Most of TTCI top countries, such as Switzerland, Germany and France still keep an advantage in tourism competitiveness compared to the HDI rank. However, other countries, such as USA and Slovenia, show a drop of 2 and 5 positions and a much lower new rank (drops for 66 and 51 ranks). These countries, according to their development, (HDI value) would be expected to be higher on TTCI competitiveness list to be seen relatively competitive. Quite the Contrary, Croatia improved its tourism competitiveness position on the new rank list (improved position for 4 ranks).



Source: Kester and Croce 2011.

Figure 2: Top Quartile Country Rankings (in TTCI and in New Rank)

The New Tourism Competitiveness Index also reflects different continental distribution of tourism countries. Among the top quartile, just 5 countries (14 %) are in Europe; 7 (20 %) in the Americas; 7 (20 %) in Asia-Pacific; 3 (8.6%) in the Middle East and North Africa; and 13 (37%) in Sub-Saharan Africa. A better understanding of tourism competitiveness that takes into account the different developmental levels places Sub-Saharan Africa in the top quartile for competitiveness. 13 out of the top 35 competitive countries would now come from this part of the world.

The above calculation, using HDI to show the developmental stage impact on competitiveness measurement is only one possible methodological improvement of the TTCI. More research will be needed to find the more just review of the Index, its pillars and indicators. As shown in the case of CO2 emissions, some indicators cannot be interpreted as disadvantage and the area of immediate improvement focus, although they show low rank. In such cases a low rank of some indicators demonstrate the favorable position for a country, as the value of the indicator is a reflection of country developmental position. At present, all indicators and pillars have the same weight, something that might be seriously questioned. A more accurate weighting of pillars should be introduced. It is a stretch of the imagination to expect that all the indicators and pillars should have the same impact on country competitiveness.

5. Towards a more comprehensive framework

The three main databases in the public domain offer good pointers to different aspects of tourism development. However, rankings have a tendency to become myths that obscure a realistic appraisal of the shape that tourism development is adopting at he world level. The optics has to adjust now if we want to offer a more encompassing view of the global tourist system. From now on, we will focus on the impact of what WTTC calls TI (Tourism Industry, meaning direct tourism contribution to GDP). Because of its components (domestic tourism; visitors exports, namely, foreign receipts; and direct governmental expenses in maintaining tourist attractions in shipshape), TI is closer to the real T&T world of individual tourists.

If we are trying to measure the productivity of tourism development, we should pay attention to the amount of dollars per capita that it contributes to each national economy. This is the best way to gauge the impact of tourism on the wellbeing of citizens of particular economies. It is not an easy task, as WTTC does not compute their respective TI this way. One recent change in its methodology abandoned generalized measurements in dollars, providing total figures in local currencies instead. Though it is an added hurdle, the absence of dollar amounts should not make it impossible to come up with such data. WTTC figures were transferred to US dollars using current exchange rates. Finding each country's tourism contribution per capita thereafter only takes dividing the national total in US dollars by the population (see Appendix).

The average of TI per capita for the roster of the 165 countries considered is US$692 (rounded to US$700 for convenience). Delving deeper in this calculation shows a number of interesting threads.

- Out of the 165 countries in the WTTC database used for this paper, two thirds are below the median. Fifty-eight of them reach less than 15% of it (US$100 or less). The distribution of per capita tourism income is, therefore, highly lopsided.
- The whole group may be divided into three tiers of roughly equal numbers: Top (>US&701), Middle (US$700-101) and Lower (<US$100).

- A majority of countries in the Lower tier (62) are Low Income (LI), as per the World Bank classification, with 32 of them originating <US$35 per capita in added value. All of them together have no significant weight in the world TI. The rest of the tier are Lower Middle Income countries (LMI), and only Suriname, Macedonia and Venezuela are Upper Middle Income (UMI). It is not risky to conclude that the tourism industry in the Lower tier is either in a nascent state or practically inexistent.
- The disparities in size of TIs per capita among the Top Tier are impressive. Canada, Germany or Israel are just above the US$700 average, while the top five destinations (Macau, US Virgin Islands, Bahamas, Cayman Islands and United Arab Emirates) are many times higher. Macau is the most impressive with its humongous US$17,000 in per capita TI, overwhelmingly due to its being the gambling Mecca of millions of Mainland Chinese. The next 3 Top TI destinations are Caribbean islands, and in the case of the UAE high TI income may be due to its outgoing national tourism. One might parse the case of each entity in particular and find many intriguing nooks and crannies, but this would be beyond the pale of this paper.
- Among the highest 20 Top TI, 12 are non-OECD members. In most of them (the exception here is Kuwait), international tourism exceeds two thirds of their total. In Macau it reaches 98.1%.
- The opposite is true for the rest of the Top destinations that belong to OECD. Tourism is a significant GDP component in developed or advanced economies, but in most of them domestic tourism is the top contributor.
- High TI may be generated by domestic consumption or by exports; usually an uneven blend of both contributes to success. However, most Top Tier members show a very limited contribution from domestic tourism. Therefore, their tourism income is mostly due to exports, as exports in TI are usually coequal with expenses by foreigners. This makes them extremely dependent on the flows of international tourism, while, at the same time, it is international tourism what makes them High Income (HI) destinations. This high dependency makes their tourism industry highly vulnerable. Were external flows to decrease for whatever reason, most of the Top Tier destinations could not maintain their living standards, for they do not have other sources of income.
- The opposite happens in other HI destinations that are highly developed (most of them members of the OECD club of developed nations). Their tourism industry is not so vulnerable to fluctuations in tourist flows.

6. Location, location, location

Some time ago Lew (2000) wondered whether tourism development needed to count on growth engines. Whether metaphoric or factual, his musing was accurate. Tourism does not materialize out of thin air nor can it be created at will or by UNWTO-sponsored master plans. In the end, the basic engine for its success has to be found in economic development and in affluence. On the demand side, mass tourism has two necessary conditions. One is paid vacation time; the other high as we have seen, happens on the supply side. Many countries and destinations reap high benefits from developing tourism. However, their HI depends on its tourism exports or visitors expenditure. They are at the top of the international ranking because they have found a way to sell themselves in affluent and nearby markets. Other than tourism they have very few other props.

Is there a link between these two extremes and, if yes, which is it? The answer should be the same as apparently old Lord Harold Samuel, a British real estate tycoon, once proffered—*location, location, location*.

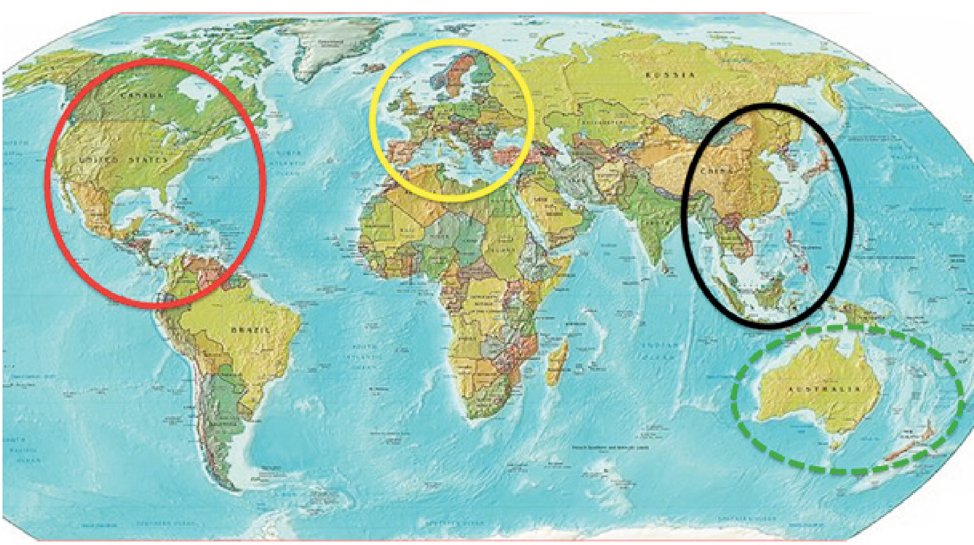
According to UNWTO, in 2011, Europe had the highest market share of all the world regions in international arrivals (51%), followed by Asia/Pacific (22%) and the Americas (16%) with Africa (5%) and the Middle East (6%) at a far distance from the rest.

On its side, WTTC reached a dissimilar conclusion. Tourism generation in 2011 was at its top in the Americas (34% of the world) followed by Europe (30%), and Asia-Pacific (28%). Africa (4%) and the Middle East (4%) still remained far behind those three regions (WTTC 2011b).

It should be stressed once again that WTTC TSA research covers different ground than UNWTO. It focuses on the production of T&T goods and services in different regions of the world, not on the movement of persons. Bearing in mind that these two sources differ in methodology, one can anyway find some interesting pointers. The most salient, no matter how well expected, is the exaggerated importance of Europe in the UNWTO database, already explained. From our vantage point, though, what is even more important is that two main geographic and economic regions (Africa and the Middle East) have both a low level of international arrivals and of tourism impact in both dtabases. This allows concluding that tourism (both international and domestic) only gathers strength in some other areas of the world.

But this is only the beginning. If one breaks the five regions just looked at into more detailed areas or sub-regions, the lopsided picture becomes even more unbalanced. Together, North America (27%), Europe (30%), and Northeast Asia (18%) account for 75% of total tourism world production. If one adds their adjacent areas in the Caribbean, North Africa and Southeast Asia, their total scores rise an additional 10% to reach 85% of world T&T. On the other hand, Latin America, the Middle East, Central and South Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa only produce a trifling 7%. Oceania (3%) seems a somewhat special case.

This regional distribution supports the hypothesis of a limited globalization of the world tourism system. It appears that present-day tourism becomes more and more integrated in three main areas—Europe and the Mediterranean Basin (including North Africa); North America and the Caribbean islands (and parts of coastal Central America that would ratchet up its total an additional notch); and Northeast and Southeast Asia. The case of Oceania where Australia and New Zealand act as the anchors of a regional sub-system that includes the rest of the islands of the South Seas seems like a miniature of the bigger picture and its inner trends (Figure 3). With the Australian mini-cluster included, in-cluster added value generates 88% of the world tourism services



Source: Aramberri, 2013

Figure 3. The global tourism system per main tourism clusters, year 2011.

GTS thus appears to be structured around three main regions, each one of them with its hinterland. In every one of these areas, a core of well developed or quickly developing countries, both have an impressive tourism production within their own borders, and generate major tourist flows to the rest of their vicinity, whether LDCs, developing, or developed countries. In these regions there is one or more growth engines (generally the second is more correct) to secure tourism development. In plain English, these growth engines mean the existence of one or more nuclei with a big population that enjoys high disposable income and ample leisure time. Where, as in South America, Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia or the Middle East, this core does not exist or is quite remote, tourism remains sluggish. If Brazil, with its 190 million population, had a per capita income close to the median of the European Union, quite surely the outlook for tourism development in Latin America would be more encouraging than it has been up to now. Much is said nowadays about India's unstoppable economic development. If it ever comes to pass, tourism in other countries of South Asia will see a brighter future and that of South East Asia will be even brighter than it already is.

From an economic perspective, both the core developed countries and their immediate peripheries, have increasingly close mutual relations and benefit from those tourist exchanges. The rest are mostly excluded.

7. Concluding

Tourism is indeed one of the ways in which economic globalization will proceed in the near future. However, it is not and it will not be its mainstay. People movements do not easily go beyond their national borders; when they do, tourists remain in their original continent, and only a tiny minority ventures to faraway regions. Furthermore, this last group will not travel to the most exotic destinations. A sizeable share of long haul will still be made by business people shuttling among Europe, North America, and East Asia to tend to their trades. Long-haulers will probably grow, as higher numbers of people experience increases in their disposable income, but it will still mostly happen among those three regions. In this way, the perception that tourism is wholeheartedly global and that it mainly connects the richer parts of the world with the poorest pleasure peripheries is but a figment of the collective imaginary, quite dominant of late in tourism research in spite of being largely unwarranted.

If for the time being it is not possible to tread firmer ground, one can add some pointers for future research. Better statistics are a must if we want to grasp how "the biggest industry on earth" works. This is easier said than done, as UNWTO efforts to set up a TSA system show. But there is much more statistical production than meets the eye. The issue is often one of better dissemination. Beyond the general or systemic databases, a number of countries provide reasonable amounts of information. However, it is not easily found except after an often-frustrating expedition into their websites. If they could find a way to offer their data in some centralized way, this would be a great plus. UNWTO also has a wealth of analyses that would help researchers. But, in spite of being a public sector organization amply funded by taxpayers' money, it insists in making users pay for access, thus limiting its usefulness.

Better knowledge usually means better policymaking. So, the second pointer looks in another direction. A significant part of present tourism research revolves around so-called "experiences" or the self-styled encounters between hosts and guests. Policies based on such flimsy foundations, when taken seriously, usually miss their goals, because they ignore the ways the tourism system works. Better statistical sources tracking accurately market trends and the thrust towards consolidation in the industry (noticeably hotel mergers and acquisitions, or the outcome of recurring crises in the airline industry) would assist policymakers, investors, and stakeholders in acting more wisely and would, indeed, help researchers to discharge their tasks more efficiently. For the time being, though, we remain in a Catch-22 situation, where the lack of reliable databases pushes the latter to different areas of discussion at the same time as their Attention Deficit Disorder makes the absence of better statistical sources palatable.

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Appendix. TI per capita in different countries, year 2011

Top Tier				Middle Tier				Lower Tier			
Size (In US$ p.c.) ≥ 1,401		Size (In US$ p.c.) 1,400-701		Size (In US$ p.c.) 700-351		Size (In US$ p.c.) 350-101		Size (In US$ p.c.) 100-36		Size (In US$ p.c.) <35	
Macau	HI-NO	Croatia	HI-NO	Malaysia	UMI	Albania	UMI	Suriname	UMI	Ghana	LMI
US Virgin Island	HI-NO	Bahrain	HI-NO	Brunei	HI-NO	Bulgaria	UMI	El Salvador	LMI	Pakistan	LMI
Bahamas	HI-NO	Cyprus	HI-NO	Oman	LMI	Thailand	UMI	Guyana	LMI	Zambia	LMI
Cayman Islands	HI-NO	US	HI-O	Belize	LMI	Dominican Republic	UMI	Swaziland	LMI	Ivory Coast	LMI
UAE	HI-NO	Mauritius	UMI	Hungary	HI-O	Morocco	LMI	Bosnia & Herzegovina	UMI	Cameroon	LMI
Australia	HI-O	Denmark	HI-O	Mexico	UMI	Poland	HI-O	Gabon	UMI	India	LMI
Antigua & Barbuda	UMI	Qatar	HI-NO	Puerto Rico	HI-O	Peru	UMI	Saint Kitts & Nevis	UMI	Tanzania	LI
Luxemburg	HI-O	Maldives	UMI	Bermuda	HI-O	Seychelles	UMI	Ecuador	UMI	Sudan	LMI
Barbados	HI-NO	Portugal	HI-O	Cape Verde	LMI	Libya	UMI	Sri Lanka	LMI	Papua New Guinea	LMI
Singapore	HI-NO	Italy	HI-O	Grenada	UMI	Namibia	UMI	Philippines	LMI	Madagascar	UMI
Austria	HI-O	Finland	HI-O	Saudi Arabia	HI-NO	Aruba	HI-NO	Mongolia	LMI	Benin	LI
Switzerland	HI-NO	Japan	HI-O	Czech Republic	HI-O	Botswana	LI	Cambodia	LI	Nigeria	LMI
Iceland	HI-O	Sweden	HI-O	Panama	UMI	Egypt	LMI	Ukraine	LMI	Mozambique	LMI
Kuwait	HI-NO	Netherlands	HI-O	Uruguay	UMI	Russian Federation	UMI	Angola	LMI	Rwanda	LI
Hong Kong	HI-NO	St. Lucia	UMI	Costa Rica	UMI	Cuba	UMI	Sao Tome & Principe	LMI	Congo	LMI
France	HI-O	Norway	HI-O	Dominica	UMI	Algeria	UMI	Macedonia, FYR	UMI	Uganda	LI
New Zealand	HI-O	Lebanon	UMI	Saint Vincent & the Grena.	UMI	Kazakhstan	UMI	Senegal	LMI	Nepal	LI
Spain	HI-O	UK	HI-O	Fiji	LMI	Lithuania	UMI	Solomon Islands	LMI	Malawi	LI
Greece	HI-O	Belgium	HI-O	Chile	UMI	Serbia	UMI	Armenia	LMI	Sierra Leone	LI
		Trin. & Tobago	HI-NO	Jamaica	UMI	Romania	UMI	Kiribati	LMI	Haiti	LI
		Slovenia	HI-O	South Korea	HI-O	Syria	LMI	Laos	LMI	Moldova	LMI
		Ireland	HI-O	Slovakia	HI-O	Iran	UMI	Nicaragua	LMI	Bangladesh	LI
		Israel	HI-O	South Africa	UMI	China	UMI	Vietnam	LMI	Ethiopia	LMI
		Vanuatu	LMI	Latvia	UMI	Colombia	UMI	Bolivia	LMI	Comoros	LI
		Germany	HI-O	Jordan	UMI	Honduras	LMI	Belarus	UMI	Togo	LI
		Canada	HI-O	Tunisia	UMI	Azerbaijan	LMI	Paraguay	LMI	Chad	LI
				Brazil	UMI	Indonesia	LMI	Mali	LI	Burkina-Faso	LI
				Turkey	UMI	Guatemala	LMI	Gambia	LI	Central African Republic	LI
				Argentina	UMI			Kenya	LI	Niger	LI
								Lesotho	LMI	Burundi	LI
										Congo	LI
										Venezuela	UMI

THE CONTRIBUTION OF TOURISM TO SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: MYTH OR REALITY?

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Abstract

Tourism is commonly considered to be a facilitator of socio-economic development, especially in less-developed countries (LDC's) and peripheral and/or rural areas. Tourism development is also proclaimed to be an important pillar for achieving UN Millennium Development goals—i.e. poverty, hunger, gender inequalities and environmental degradation can be alleviated through sustainable development of tourism. Conversely, however, tourism development is also said to cause social, environmental and cultural degradation. Accordingly, while there is no doubt that tourism development can have a significant impact on communities, the real nature of its role and impact is questionable. The aim of this paper is to examine this particular issue by analyzing the relationship between the relative size of tourism, measured by the tourism satellite account (TSA) approach, and the degree of socio-economic development, measured by the human development index (HDI). Moreover, the paper also tries to investigate whether socio-economic development is driven by tourism development, or is it the other way round? To shed light on these relationships and the direction of possible influence, this study uses correlation analysis and Granger causality testing. The results of this study seriously call into *question the validity of common belief that tourism can be a strong initiator of socio-economic development in less developed countries.*

Keywords: tourism; development; human development index (HDI).

JEL classification: O15

1. Introduction

The contribution of tourism to socio-economic development, especially to the socio-economic development of less-developed countries (LDC) and peripheral and/or rural areas, has been in the focus of tourism research in the past decade. The prevailing attitude today, among scholars and general public alike, is that tourism can be a strong facilitator of socio-economic development for many countries, which is, in turn, based on the common belief that economic growth induced by tourism intrinsically improves quality of life (Matarrita-Cascante, 2010). This point of view is primarily based on the tourism-led growth hypothesis (TLGH) proposed by Shan and Wilson (2001) and it is strongly supported by international organizations such as the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC).

Basically, the TLGH says that tourism activity can cause and promote long-term economic growth and development (Balaguer & Cantavella-Jorda, 2002). The concept of the TLGH is directly derived from the export-led growth hypothesis (ELGH) which promotes the idea that the growth of exports has a stimulating influence across the economy as a whole, in form of technological spillovers and other externalities (Marin, 1992). Accordingly, since international tourism can be considered as a form of '*in-situ*' export, it is not unreasonable to assume it has all the positive impacts that traditional exporting activities have (Cortes-Jimenez et al., 2009).

This common belief that tourism development alone has the power to improve overall quality of life in LDCs should, however, not be taken for granted, but rather should it be critically reexamined and subjected to further scientific scrutiny. In light of this, the primary goal of this paper is to 'tackle the myth' of tourism truly being a strong facilitator of socio-economic development in LDCs, like promoted by renowned international organizations like the UNWTO. For example, UNWTO claims that tourism development can help addressing UN Millennium Development Goal

No.1 which refers to "eradication of extreme poverty by the year 2015" (UNWTO, 2010:15). For this purpose correlation analysis and Granger causality testing are applied to indicator data on tourism- and socio-economic growth.

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 provides a brief overview of studies that have empirically examined the relationship between tourism activity and economic growth/socio-economic development. Section 3 describes the methodology of the empirical analysis conducted in this study. Finally, results and implications of this study are briefly discussed in Section 4.

2. Literature review

The literature on tourism economics provides numerous empirical studies that deal with TLGH. Most of the reviewed studies that examine the relationship between tourism development and economic growth (Balaguer & Cantavella-Jorda, 2002; Dritsakis, 2004; Durbarry, 2004; Oh, 2005; Gunduz & Hatemi-J, 2005; Kim, Chen & Jang, 2006; Lee & Chang, 2008; Cortes-Jimenez et al., 2009), focus on determining whether tourism development causes economic growth or alternatively, whether economic growth leads to tourism development, or is there a bi-directional relationship? Accordingly, these empirical studies test the following possible directions of causality: (1) bidirectional causality between tourism development and economic growth, (2) unidirectional causality where tourism development leads to economic growth, and (3) unidirectional causality where economic growth leads to tourism development (Lee & Chang, 2008). Each direction of causality has profoundly different policy implications. If tourism development influences economic growth and thus TLGH is confirmed, then the policy measures aimed at tourism development would be beneficiary to the entire economic system. Conversely, opposite direction of causality would mean that economic growth precedes tourism development, thus implying the tourism industry would benefit from economic growth. Finally, bidirectional causality (i.e. tourism development and economic growth are in a reciprocal relationship) would imply that development of either the economy or the tourism industry would benefit both (Lee & Chang, 2008).

The method most commonly employed to test the validity of the TLGH is Granger causality testing (1969). The purpose of this method is to determine whether one phenomenon precedes another or not (Gunduz & Hatemi-J, 2005). In their comprehensive review of TLGH studies published in the period 2002-2010, Brida & Pulina (2010) state that all reviewed studies test the hypothesized relationship by means of Granger causality tests.

One of the first studies testing the TLGH was conducted by Balaguer & Cantavella-Jorda (2002). These authors were examining the role of tourism in Spain's economic development in the period 1975-1997. They confirmed the TLGH by determining that "earnings from international tourism affect positively the Spanish economic growth" (Balaguer & Cantavella-Jorda, 2002:882) and that the Spanish tourism industry induces "important long-term multiplier effects" (Balaguer & Cantavella-Jorda, 2002:882). Similar results were obtained by Dritsakis (2004) who tested the TLGH for Greece in the period 1960-2000. His results showed a "strong Granger causal" relationship between tourism development and economic growth, and a "simple Granger casual" relationship between economic growth and tourism development. Accordingly, in the case of Greece, tourism development and economic growth seem to have a reciprocal relationship, or, in other words, support is provided for both the TLGH as well as for the hypothesis of economic-driven tourism development. Tourism development has, however, a greater influence on economic growth than vice versa, at least in the case of Greece. In their case study of Taiwan, Kim, Chen & Jang (2006) arrive at similar results. By applying the cointegration method and Granger causality testing, these authors determine a "reciprocal relationship between tourism expansion and economic development" (Kim, Chen & Jang 2006:932). Contrary to these findings, the results of Oh (2005) do not provide support for the contribution of tourism development to the South Korean economy in the period 1975-2001. In fact, Oh (2005) found that "the rapid economic expansion in South Korea tends to attract more international travel" (Oh, 2005:43), thus implying that economic growth precedes tourism development. The differences in implications between the case studies of South Korea and Spain may be attributed to the fact that the tourism industry in Spain is much more developed than the tourism industry in South Korea. Similar to Oh (2005), Payne & Mervar (2010) conclude that the tourism development in Croatia was driven by economic growth.

The results of the reviewed studies state that it is not possible to draw general conclusions regarding the direction of causality in the relationship between tourism development and economic growth. Accordingly, there is no universally applicable model of tourism-led growth which would imply that tourism development always results in economic growth. This hypothesis is, however, implicitly taken for granted by many governments that rely on tourism to boost their economic activity. An overview of reviewed studies that investigate the validity of the TLGH is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Overview of Studies on the Tourism-Led Growth Hypothesis

Author(s)	Period	Country	Results
Balaguer & Cantavella -Jorda (2002)	1975-1997	Spain	Tourism → Growth
Dritsakis (2004)	1960-2000	Greece	Tourism ↔ Growth
Durbarry (2004)	1952-1999	Mauritius	Tourism ↔ Growth
Oh (2005)	1975-2001	South Korea	Growth → Tourism
Gunduz & Hatemi-J (2005)	1965-2002	Turkey	Tourism → Growth
Kim, Chen & Jang (2006)	1971-2003	Taiwan	Tourism ↔ Growth
Lee & Chang (2008)	1990-2002	23 OECD countries + 32 non OECD countries	OECD countries: Tourism → Growth 2 Non-OECD countries: Tourism ↔ Growth
Cortes-Jimenez et al.(2009)	1954-2000	Spain and Italy	Spain: Tourism ↔ Growth Italy: Tourism ↔ Growth
Payne & Mervar (2010)	2000-2008	Croatia	Tourism → Growth

Source: Adopted from Lee & Chang (2008)

In contrast to the many empirical studies dealing with the relationship between tourism and economic growth, research on the relationship between tourism and socio-economic development is less common and more conceptual in nature. Studies from this area usually focus on (i) tourism development in under-developed countries, rural or peripheral areas, (ii) impacts of tourism activity on local residents, and on (iii) sustainable tourism development (Mbaiwa, 2005; Akama & Kieti, 2005; Ezeblio & Mattsson, 2010).

In studying the impact of tourism on socio-economic developments in the Okavango River Delta in Botswana, Mbaiwa (2005) concludes that the prevailing model of tourism development has failed to alleviate poverty. Accordingly, tourism development here cannot be characterized as sustainable from a socio-economic perspective. He further argues that the main reason for this situation is foreign ownership of tourism facilities and the resulting weak linkage between tourism activities and the domestic economy, especially agriculture. Similar findings have been reported by Akama & Kieti (2005) who analyze the impact of tourism on socio-economic developments in the Mombasa resort in Kenya. These authors conclude that tourism in Mombasa has not significantly contributed to the socio-economic development in this resort, mainly due to foreign ownership and management of tourism facilities. In a study of perceptions of local residents regarding the socio-economic benefits of tourism development in protected areas in the Cross River national park in Nigeria, Ezebilo & Mattsson (2010) revealed that very few local residents in this area actually benefited from tourism development. They argue that, even though tourism development has improved the standard of living of local people by providing basic communal infrastructure, participation of locals in the tourism-generated income is still very low. These authors further suggest regarding the tourism-generated income as the key to socio-economic development. If the level of tourism-generated income remains unattractive, the local population will continue with their traditional income-generating activities, which are usually in collision with the development of tourism.

¸¸To conclude, the literature review revealed that there is so far no generally applicable and comprehensive conceptual framework defining the relationship between tourism and socio-economic development. The prevailing opinion that tourism can be a facilitator of socio-economic development, which is, in turn, based on the common belief that economic growth induced by tourism intrinsically improves quality of life (Matarrita-Cascante, 2010), thus needs to be considered with care, although this is a standpoint strongly supported by relevant international institutions such as the United Nations World Tourism Organization (2010). The results of the reviewed studies indicate that the relationship between tourism development and economic growth, and especially the relationship between tourism development and socio-economic development, is still unclear. The currently predominant idea that tourism development alone has the power to improve overall quality of life should therefore not be taken for granted, but rather should it be critically reexamined and subjected to further scientific scrutiny.

3. Methodology

The data for this study encompass two indicators that were collected from two different secondary sources. The first one, i.e. *tourism direct gross value added* (TDGVA) was taken to represent the relative size of tourism in the overall economy, whereas the second one, i.e. the *human development index* (HDI), was chosen to represent the degree of social-economic development.

TDGVA, on the one hand, is a measure of the economic importance of tourism. It is the most important output of the tourism satellite account (TSA) implementation process representing "the part of gross value added generated by tourism industries and other industries of the economy that directly serve visitors in response to internal tourism consumption." (United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2010:113). It is usually measured as the share of the gross value added of the economy as a whole (TDGVA/GVA), and as such it represents a measure of the relative size of tourism which is comparable across different countries. Data on TDGVA/GVA of 31 countries were obtained from a compilation of results of the TSA implementation process in different countries, published by the United Nations World Tourism Organization (2010b).

The HDI, on the other hand, is a composite indicator of socio-economic development that is regularly published by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) for almost every country in the world. In accordance with the definition of the UNDP, the HDI measures the average achievements in a country in three basic dimensions of human development: (i) health, (ii) education and (iii) income (standard of living). Although the HDI is not a perfect measure of socio-economic development, it is the most appropriate measure available for a wide range of countries. The HDI data were collected from the UNDP-HDI web site (hdr.undp.org).

Table 2 presents a list of countries that were included into the analysis in this study.

Table 2: Countries Included into the Analysis

Australia	Israel	Poland
Austria	Kazakhstan	Portugal
Canada	Latvia	Romania
Chile	Lithuania	Slovakia
Czech Republic	Mexico	Slovenia
Denmark	Morocco	Spain
Estonia	Netherlands	Sweden
Finland	New Zealand	Switzerland
Germany	Oman	United Kingdom
Honduras	Peru	
Ireland	Philippines	

Source: authors

TDGVA/GVA values for these countries range from 1.8% in the case of Israel to 8.2% in the case of Mexico, while HDI values range from 0.552 in the case of Morocco to 0.912 in the case of Australia. Since the data on TDGVA/GVA were from different years for different countries, depending on when the TSA was implemented in respective countries, the data on HDI was collected for the same year as the data on TDGVA/GVA.

In order to analyze the direction of causality in the relationship between the relative size of tourism and the degree of socio-economic development, two measures of statistical dependence between two variables were calculated, one of which implies the assumption of linearity, and one that does not.

On the one hand, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (**r**) was used as a measure of the strength and direction of the relationship between TDGVA/GVA and HDI that implies the assumption of linearity. On the other hand, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (**ρ**) was used as a measure of the strength and direction of the relationship that does not imply the assumption of linearity. It is a non-parametric measure that has been developed in order to prevail over rigidity arising from the assumption of normality of distributions of variables (see Newbold, 2012).

Calculated values of both correlation coefficients are reported in Table 3.

Table 3: Measures of Statistical Dependence between TDGVA/GVA and HDI

Pearson's r	–0.3866
Spearman's ρ	–0.2403

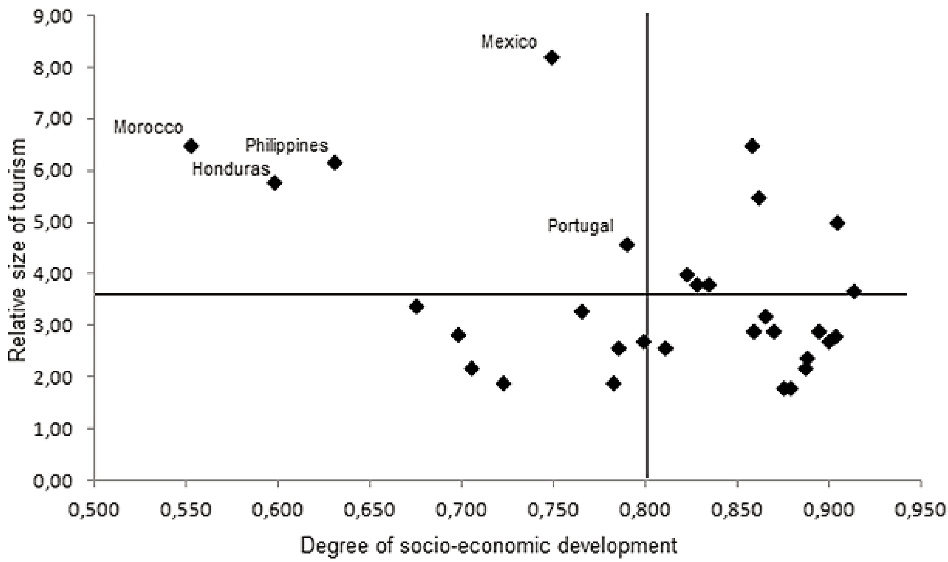
Source: authors

The results clearly confirm that there exists a negative correlation between TDGVA/GVA and HDI. Hence, there is an inversely proportional relationship between the relative size of tourism and the degree of socio-economic development.

Negative values in the case of both coefficients certainly do not indicate that tourism causes inverse socio-economic development, but it does indicate that a larger share of tourism in the overall economy is likely to go along with a lower positioning on the scale of socio-economic development. Put differently, under-developed countries can be expected to have a larger proportion of tourism in their economies. This leads us to an interesting question: Would the countries, which can be characterized as relatively underdeveloped, be even less developed if they did not have tourism potentials? Put differently again, does the development of tourism in these countries precede and induce socio-economic development?

To provide an answer to this question, five relatively underdeveloped countries in terms of the HDI were examined further. A scatter plot of all analyzed countries is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Scatter Plot of Analyzed Countries



Source: authors

The crosshairs in Figure 1 represent the arithmetic means of respective indicator values. Countries that were labeled in Figure 1 represent especially interesting cases because they are characterized by a relatively high share of tourism in their economies, while having a relatively low degree of socio-economic development. It would thus be interesting to investigate whether the development of tourism preceded the socio-economic development in these countries, or, in other words, whether these countries would be even less developed if they did not have tourism potentials?

To shed light on this issue we applied the causality testing method introduced by Clive Granger (1969). This method has been developed in macroeconomics to investigate whether one variable is preceding another by its dynamics. The procedure of applying the method can be found in any contemporary econometrics handbook (e.g. Stock and Watson, 2007). The name of the method is somehow misleading, since true causality can, in fact, not be revealed by this method, but only the probability of causal relationships.

In our case, Granger causality testing was used to investigate whether the development of tourism preceded the socio-economic development in the relatively less developed countries with relatively high shares of tourism in the overall economy. If tourism development preceded socio-economic development, then the issue of tourism's real contribution to socio-economic development, in the manner that tourism could really induce socio-economic development, would be an interesting issue to discuss.

Conversely, if there was no evidence that the development of tourism at least preceded the socio-economic development in these countries, then such a (frequently hypothesized) contribution of tourism to the socio-economic development in underdeveloped countries would be nothing else than myth.

In order to test this hypothesis annual time series data were collected. Since time series on TDGVA/GVA and HDI do not exist, we were forced to use proxy variables. To represent the dynamics of tourism development, on the one hand, growth rates of international tourism arrivals were collected from the United Nations World Tourism Organization Compendium of Tourism Statistics (1975, 1977, 1981, 1986, 1992, 2002, 2007, 2008, and 2012). The dynamics of socio-economic development, on the other hand, were approximated by the rates of growth of GNI per capita collected from the World Bank Data web site (data.worldbank.org). The use of this proxy measure is justified by the fact that GNI per capita is one of the three constituents of the HDI, and it is even argued by some authors that the HDI does not provide any other information which we do not know from GNI per capita (e.g. McGillivray, 1991). The time span of the series studied here was 1970-2010.

We applied Granger causality testing in the form of a restriction test (Roth, 1992). We used the Akaike information criterion (AIC) to determine the number of lags that have to be included into analysis. Since we used data expressed in form of growth rates, there was no need for unit root testing (Kaminsky, Lizondo & Rainhart, 1998). The results of the analysis are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Granger Causality Testing in the Relationship between Dynamics of Tourism Development and Socio-Economic Development

	Lag F-Statistic (Probability)
Dynamics of tourism development do not Granger cause dynamics of socio-economic development in the case of Honduras	3 2.02 (0.133)
Dynamics of socio-economic development do not Granger cause dynamics of tourism development in the case of Honduras	1 0.14 (0.715)
Dynamics of tourism development do not Granger cause dynamics of socio-economic development in the case of Morocco	1 0.02 (0.903)
Dynamics of socio-economic development do not Granger cause dynamics of tourism development in the case of Morocco	**6 4.31 (0.006)**
Dynamics of tourism development do not Granger cause dynamics of socio-economic development in the case of Mexico	1 0.30 (0.588)
Dynamics of socio-economic development do not Granger cause dynamics of tourism development in the case of Mexico	1 0.01 (0.933)
Dynamics of tourism development do not Granger cause dynamics of socio-economic development in the case of Philippines	1 1.67 (0.205)
Dynamics of socio-economic development do not Granger cause dynamics of tourism development in the case of Philippines	4 0.77 (0.555)
Dynamics of tourism development do not Granger cause dynamics of socio-economic development in the case of Portugal	3 0.02 (0.997)
Dynamics of socio-economic development do not Granger cause dynamics of tourism development in the case of Portugal	1 1.28 (0.266)

Source: authors

As becomes clear from Table 4, the Granger causality test does not provide empirical evidence for that the development of tourism preceded the socio-economic development in any of the analyzed countries. In fact, the results reveal that the socio-economic development preceded the development of tourism in the case of Morocco (thus possibly inducing it). This result is robust, because additional tests showed no presence of autocorrelation or heteroscedasticity, while residuals were normally distributed.

4. Conclusions

The goal of this paper was the “to tackle the myth” of tourism being a strong facilitator of socio-economic development in less developed and developing countries, which is a standpoint strongly promoted by international tourism organizations.

In order to empirically test this hypothesis, in a first step the relationship between the size of tourism and the level of socio-economic development was analyzed. For this purpose data on *tourism direct gross value added* (TDGVA) and the *human development index* (HDI) were used for the concepts, respectively. The results clearly showed that there is a negative correlation between the size of tourism and the level of socio-economic development, thus implying that a larger share of tourism in the overall economy is likely to go along with a lower positioning on the scale of socio-economic development. Put differently, underdeveloped countries can be expected to have a larger proportion of tourism in their economies.

In a second step, underdeveloped countries, in terms of the HDI, with a large share of tourism in their economies were picked to see whether development of tourism in these countries truly preceded their socio-economic development. For this purpose, Granger causality testing was applied to time series data on tourism and economic growth rates. These indicators were used as proxy measures for tourism development and socio-economic development, respectively, because adequate time series data on TDGVA and HDI are not available.

The results of this analysis clearly show that tourism did not contribute to the socio-economic development of these countries in a manner that it preceded, and thus possibly induced it. Conversely, the results of this study provide empirical evidence for that socio-economic development is an antecedent to tourism development in the case of Morocco. Accordingly, contrary to common belief that tourism can be a strong facilitator of socio-economic development in developing or underdeveloped countries, our study empirically confirmed that such a belief and claim is probably nothing more than a myth, at least with regard to the role of tourism as the primary initiator of socio-economic development.

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THE MYTH OF DETERMINIG ECONOMIC EFFECTS OF TOURISM IN THE REPUBLIC OF CROATIA

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to conduct a research and to present the economic impacts which tourism has on the economic development of the Republic of Croatia. Also, different ways of determining those impacts will be analyzed. Based on this research, the analysis of physical and financial effects of tourism at macro level for the period from 2001 to 2012 was conducted. These include: number of overnight stays registered in commercial accommodation facilities (total number and separately for domestic and international tourists); international tourism receipts and its share in the GDP and the export of goods and services, etc. Based on former researches, the successfulness of business turnover of several hotel companies in Croatia was analyzed and interpreted. The main aim of this paper is to examine and evaluate tourism's economic effects, the models of their calculation and their impact on the economic development of Croatia.

The hypothesis in this paper is that there is a myth of objectivity of calculating certain economic effects of tourism. The research method used in the paper is desk research. The results are interpreted using the methods of comparative analysis, economic analysis and the method of description.

Keywords: economic effects of tourism, methods of calculating economic effects of tourism, the Republic of Croatia

JEL code: L83, 011

1. Introduction

Based on the knowledge that contemporary tourism is mainly economic activity, the purpose of this research is to examine and evaluate tourism's economic effects and determine their impact on economic development in Croatia. Croatia is tourism receiving country in which tourism has exceptional economic importance in the overall economic development. The reason for that is a high level of tourism development, but also the inadequate development of other economic activities, especially in primary and secondary sector. However, as tourism is multifunctional activity, its development and competitiveness strongly depends on the level of development of other, so-called, complementary activities, such as agriculture, fishery, industry, energetics, transportation, trade, financial market and especially public sector. Combined with all these activities tourism achieves multiple effects on the tourism market. The size of those effects strongly depends on the level of those activities' development.

On the other side, the reality of calculating indirect and induced tourism's economic effects comes into question, and that problem raises questions about the objectivity of achieved economic effects in tourism.

Therefore the main goal of this research is to examine and evaluate tourism's economic effects, the models of their calculations and their impact on economic development of Croatia. The methodological problems of their objective calculation on macro and micro level are the main issue within the methodology for determining tourism's economic effects.

The research has confirmed the hypothesis that the myth of objectivity of calculating certain economic effects of tourism indeed exists at both national and the level of hotel companies. The problem arises from the lack of the reliable statistical and other indicators for conducting such analysis and from ignoring the brother multiple tourism effects. Based on the gained knowledge the authors suggest certain modifications of the methodology that is used to register the economic indicators of tourism in the Republic of Croatia.

The method used in this paper is desk research. All relevant scientific and professional literature analyzing the research topic was consulted, written both by domestic and international authors. The results were interpreted using the methods of comparative analysis, economic analysis and the method of description.

2. Theorethical Background

The economic impacts of tourism are the key issue and in the main focus of many discussions within tourism literature and business sector. The ways of monitoring tourism receipts are the crucial tool in determining its impact on a certain country's GDP. Therefore it is necessary to make an overview of contemporary issues and tools in determining economic effects of tourism in a certain destination or a country.

The basis in estimating the size of tourism and its direct contribution to the economy within the framework of tourism statistics is tourism satellite account (Šutalo *et al*., 2011:267). However, there are several difficulties associated with this approach. Namely, even though tourism has extremely important role in the economy of numerous countries, the existing tourism statistics is not capable to comprehend its full economic importance and influences (Ivandić and Marušić, 2009:185). Since tourism is a highly complex system, composed of fragments of various industries and services, it is sometimes difficult to monitor all receipts and all of its impact on the country's economy. Therefore the complexity of this monitoring system is in the main focus of many researchers. Countries that have positive economic effects of international tourism can claim that tourism is a significant foreign exchange earner, allowing to pay for imported capital goods or basic inputs used in the production process; that tourism plays an important role in spurring investments in new infrastructure and competition between local firms and firms in other tourism countries; and that tourism stimulates other economic industries by direct, indirect and induced effects (Schubert *et al*., 2011:377). In this sense, it is possible to conclude that international tourism had a major influence on a country's balance of payments and that it allows the inflow of foreign currencies in the economy. This implies that the growth within the tourism industry can have a positive impact of the economy in general. Indeed, there is a positive relationship between tourism development and economic development in the long run (Kreishan, 2010:229). This is one of the most important reasons for creating appropriate measuring tools and system in order to be able to monitor the economic impacts of tourism and to forecast its future impacts, its growth potential and the size of the tourism industry.

The importance of tourism in the economic development of many countries is well documented and the contribution of tourism to an economy has long been a subject of great interest from a policy perspective (Po and Huang, 2008:5535). The significance of tourism contribution to a country's economy has been researched in a great amount. However, there is still a great effort to be undertaken within this area, in order to achieve as uniformed system of monitoring tourism impacts as possible. Furthermore, there is an important relationship between economic development and tourism in the sense that tourism stimulates the level of domestic demand (Soukiazis and Proença, 2008:44). The same authors (2008:44-45) claim that the ability of the national economy to benefit from tourism depends on the availability of investment to develop the necessary infrastructure, in addition to its ability to supply the services that tourists require (accommodation, food, transportation facilities, entertainment and safety, among others). It can be concluded that tourism economic effects have to be used in a way that would stimulate the further growth of national economy, by increasing investments, number of jobs, the quality of infrastructure, etc.

There are several approaches that can be used to evaluate tourism's economic effects. Dwyer *et al*. (2004:308) specify several old approaches of evaluation, but the one most commonly used is Input Output analysis. However, the same authors (2004:308) state that these old approaches are seriously inadequate as a means of estimating the net impact on an economy resulting from changes in tourism expenditure. Furthermore, Briassoulis in Dwyer *et al*. (2004:308) refers that they are based on extremely unrealistic assumptions, and on incomplete representation of the ways economies work. Therefore the need for developing a new, more appropriate monitoring system emerged. In that sense, the general equilibrium model was adopted. General equilibrium effects are not always that easy to observe directly, or to appreciate the significance of. However, it is possible to see them at work when there are big changes to the economy (Dwyer *et al*., 2004:309). It seems appropriate to use this model, due to the core nature of tourism as a highly sophisticated, fragmented economic system. Tourism can be affected by many crises, each of which will affect tourism business significantly (such as global economic crisis, environmental crises, etc.). In those circumstances, tourism turnover will be affected and monitoring should provide accurate data regarding its economic effects. Therefore it is crucial to have the appropriate tool for this measurement.

The most commonly used method of monitoring the tourism's economic effects is tourism satellite account. Measuring direct economic impact of tourism based on the concept of tourism satellite account assumes determining demand for products and services related to tourism, analysis of these products' supply in the economy and determining relations between supply and other economic activities. Tourism satellite account measures: 1) macroeconomic aggregates that describe the size and economic impact of tourism; 2) visitors' expenditure, as well as the relation between visitors' expenditure and supply and 3) relation between monetary and non-monetary data regarding tourism (Ivandić and Marušić, 2009:186). The biggest issue related to this methodology is the problem with monitoring visitors' expenditure. In the Republic of Croatia those data are tracked by the Croatian National Bank and are published quarterly. However, the issues remain in the sphere of grey economy, i.e. tourists whose overnight stays are not registered and consequently cannot be included into this statistics. The same goes with most of the indicators related to tourism arrivals, accommodation facilities, etc.

The next problem is related to the tourism statistics which should be more efficient and should provide more sophisticated data in order to gain new knowledge about the tourism outcome in the Republic of Croatia. In that way it would become possible to make better and more appropriate decision about the future development of tourism in Croatia, respecting the assumptions of sustainable tourism development. Also, so far not many publications provide data about the multiplier effect, which has a major influence on the economy of certain destination, both at local and national level. This effect should be included into statistics as it provides significant information about the current and prospective state of tourism development, its economic impact and potentials for growth. The statistical data about the tourism in Croatia that emphasizes this issue is provided in the following chapter.

3. Research Results and Discussion

The research problem in this paper is the analysis of commonly used physical and financial tourism indicators in the Republic of Croatia as anchorage for determining tourism influence on the economic development in Croatia. The paper contains data about the registered number of overnight stays in commercial accommodation capacities, both for international tourists and in total, as well as the international tourism receipts for the period from the year 2001 to 2012 (table 1). In the period of writing this paper the complete official data for the year 2012 were still not available, but it was nevertheless possible to estimate these numbers due to the fact that the peak tourism season was finished, and during that period about 85% of total tourism turnover in Croatia is achieved.

Table 1: Physical and financial tourism indicators in the Republic of Croatia from 2001 to 2012

TOURISM INDICATORS	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012*	Index (2012/ 2001)
PHYSICAL													
Total number of overnight stays (mn)	43.4	44.7	46.6	47.8	51.4	53.0	56.0	57.1	56.3	56.4	60.4	62.7	144.5
Total over-night chain index (%)		103.0	104.3	102.6	107.5	103.1	105.7	102.0	98.6	100.2	107.1	103.8	
Domestic overnight stays (mn)	5.0	5.0	5.3	5.3	5.4	6.0	6.4	6.5	5.8	5.4	5.6	5.2	104.0
International overnight stays (mil)	38.4	39.7	41.3	42.5	46.0	47.0	49.6	50.6	50.5	51.0	54.8	57.5	149.7
Intern. over-night chain index (%)		103.4	104.0	102.9	108.2	102.2	105.5	102.0	99.8	101.0	107.5	104.9	
The share of intern. overn. stays in total number of overnight stays (%)	88.5	88.8	88.6	88.9	89.5	88.7	88.6	88.6	89.7	90.4	90.7	91.7	103.6
FINANCIAL													
International tourism receipts (mn €)	3,749.3	3,960.8	5,572.7	5,505.6	5,998.9	6,293.3	6,752.6	7,459.4	6,379.7	6,230.0	6,616.9	6,834.6	182.3
Tourism receipts chain index (%)		105.6	140.7	98.8	109.0	104.9	107.3	110.5	85.5	97.7	106.2	103.3	

* Estimated number of overnight stays in 2012 based on registered overnight stays in the period from January to November 2012 and December 2011
* Estimated international tourism receipts in 2012 based on registered receipts in the first three quarters in 2012 and estimated value in the fourth quarter according to its share (8.2%) in the previous year

Source:
1) BIST. (2013). Online information system of the Institute for Tourism.
2) CNB. (2013). Balance of Payments: Goods and Services.

According to the official statistical data about the physical indicators, the number of overnight stays in the commercial accommodation capacities in Croatia was increased by 19.3 million (45%) during the period from 2001 to 2012 (from 43.4 to 62.7 million), which can be considered as the result of tourism turnover growth (BIST, 2013). However, those values do not include the data about the unregistered tourism turnover, which is achieved in private rooms, apartments, second homes and other forms of accommodation or by staying with friends and relatives. Those data are not statistically registered and remain within the sphere of grey economy (Čavlek *et al*., 2011:143). It is very difficult to estimate the amount of those data without specialized primary research (Opačić and Mikačić, 2006:167). Differences in data published by Croatian National Statistical Bureau and Croatian National Tourist Board indicated the same problem, but it is important to emphasize that the data published by Croatian National Tourist Board is usually at least 10% higher than the official statistical data (Crnjak, 2011:5). Namely, alongside officially registered overnight stays in commercial accommodation capacities, tourism boards register the results based on the collected tourist tax, containing the data about the guests in private rooms, apartments and second homes. The obligation to register those guests is regulated by law since the year 1996. However, there are two main problems with those data. First of all, the owners of those capacities do not register their own stay, which results with incomplete data. Secondly, the owners do not register the stays of international guests, either. Hence, the data that are being intensively used by the media and whose purpose is to emphasize the success of achieved tourism turnover during the tourism season are not reliable because they do not contain the total tourism turnover in the whole county. That should be stressed out during their interpretation and presentation. In the sense of determining the real scope of tourism turnover in the country, it would be necessary to conduct a special market research.

Dynamic analysis of statistically registered tourism turnover points out that there is a continuous growth of that indicator during the analyzed period, and was achieved until the year 2008, with total number of 57 million of registered overnight stays. Due to the global crisis and recession this growth was slowed down in 2009 (decrease by 1.2%, or 56.3 million of overnight stays registered). In 2010 the number of registered overnight stays was 56.4 million, in 2011 60.4 million and in 2012 62.7 million of overnight stays (this number is estimated based on the results in the first 11 months in 2012, enlarged by tourism turnover in December of the previous year). There is one additional problem regarding the interpretation of data during the longer time series in Croatia. Namely, starting from the 2010, the methodology used for monitoring statistical data about the tourism in Croatia was changed, and the nautical ports were excluded from the commercial accommodation capacities. During the last decade (2001-2009) the nautical tourism ports registered averagely about 2.3% of the total tourism turnover in Croatia per year (Bartoluci and Hendija, 2012:255). If the estimated number of overnight stays in 2012 would also include the overnight stays in nautical ports (1.3 million in 2009, last year when they were registered), the total number of overnight stays in that year would be larger than 64 million. This data, as well as previously given remarks about the not registered tourism turnover in the country, clearly illustrate the complete unreliability of the official statistical data, confuting the myth that the official statistical data are the real indicator of achieved tourism turnover in the country.

International tourists predominate in the structure of official statistic data in the Republic of Croatia, with the share of 92% in the total number of overnight stays in 2012. The trend of the growth in the share of international tourists in Croatia is quite discernible (from 88% in 2001 to 92% in 2012), which is a consequence of more dynamic growth registered in international than in domestic tourism turnover. The number of international overnight stays during the analyzed period was increased by 19.1 million or 49.7% (from 38.4 million in 2001 to 57.5 million in 2012), while the number of domestic overnight stays was increased by 200 thousands or 4% (5 million in 2001, 5.2 million in 2012).

Beside physical indicators related to the changes in tourism turnover, even more significant are the financial indicators. Unlike physical indicators which are monitored on monthly basis and published by the National Statistical Bureau and Croatian National Tourism Board, financial indicators are monitored and published quarterly by Croatian National Bank. However, these data are usually published later than the statistical data and are afterwards corrected, due to the complex analytical procedures, as well as the exchange rates differences which arise from the relation of national currency towards other currencies. International tourism receipts in Croatia (expressed as the travel receipts in balance of payments of Croatian National Bank) are determined by complex methodological procedure whose background are questionnaires filled in at national borders. Those results are applied to the officially collected data about the number of travelers at national borders collected by the Ministry of the Interior, as well as the registered number of overnight stays in commercial accommodation capacities (CNB, Statistical Yearbook of Croatia, 2012:360). A little more thorough insight into the methodology of calculating international tourism receipts also point out the unreliability of financial indicators in tourism.

When conducting the dynamic analysis of tourism receipts in Croatia during the last decade, it is noticeable that they were almost doubled. Compared to the year 2001, they were increased by 3.1 billion Euros (from 3.7 billion Euros in 2001 to the estimated 6.8 billion Euros in 2012) (Croatian National Bank, 2013). Since this paper includes the most recent data about international tourism receipts that are published by Croatian National Bank, it should be emphasized that those newest data differ from previously published data by the Ministry of Tourism, as well as by the Croatian National Bank, which again emphasizes the lack of reliability of financial indicators of tourism in the Republic of Croatia (Antunac, 2002:238).

Economic impacts of tourism are best illustrated by using the indicators about the share of tourism receipts in generating gross domestic product. However, those data for the year 2012 were not available while writing this paper and for that reason the research results presented by Bartoluci and Hendija (2012:257) for the period from 2001 to 2011 were used. The share of tourism in the GDP was changing during that period between 13.6% (the lowest share, achieved in 2010) and 18.4% (the highest share, registered in 2003) (Table 2). The share of international tourism receipts in the GDP in 2011 was 14.4%. The share of tourism receipts in the total export of goods and services during the analyzed 10 year period was changing between 35% (2001) and 42% (2003) (Bartoluci, Dumičić and Hendija, 2012:1367).

Table 2: Tourism's economic effects in the Republic of Croatia in the period from 2001 to 2011

TOURISM FINANCIAL DATA	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	Change index
Goods and services export receipts in the balance of payments (mil €)	10,800.1	11,125.4	13,137.6	14,239.8	15,269.2	16,960.8	18,271.3	19,843.3	16,314.7	17,713.0	18,765.5	173.8
International tourism receipts (mil €)	3,749.3		5,572.7	5,505.6	5,998.9	6,293.3	6,752.6	7,459.4	6,379.7	6,230.0	6,834.6	182.3
Share of tourism receipts in the export of goods and services (%)	34.7	35.6	42.4	38.7	39.3	37.1	37.0	37.6	39.1	35.2	36.4	
Chain index of international tourism receipts (%)		105.6	140.7	98.8	109.0	104.9	107.3	110.5	85.5	97.7	109.7	
Receipts from export of goods, transportation and other services (without tourism receipts) (mil €)	7,050.8	7,146.6	7,564.9	8,734.2	9,270.3	10,667.5	11,518.7	12,383.9	9,935.0	11,483.0	11,930.9	169.2
Chain indexes of the export of goods, transportation and other services (without tourism receipts) (%)		101.6	105.6	115.5	106.1	115.1	108.0	107.5	80.2	115.6	103.9	
GDP (mil €)	25,738.0	28,189.0	30,265.0	33,009.0	36,034.0	39,745.0	43,390.0	47,543.0	44,781.0	45,917.0	45,897.0	178.3
Share of international tourism receipts in the GDP (%)	14.6	14.1	18.4	16.7	16.6	15.8	15.6	15.7	14.2	13.6	14.9	

Source: Bartoluci and Hendija (2013)

The number of people directly employed within the hospitality industry (hotels and restaurants sector) variated between 82,000 and 91,000 during the analyzed period, with at least 40,000 more employees in other economic activities indirectly related to tourism (Bartoluci, Hendija and Budimski, 2010:1536). The presented data confirms the importance of the employment function of tourism in Croatian economy. The importance of tourism would be even higher if temporarily employed and not registered workers would be taken into account. Namely, in the Republic of Croatia 35-40% of work force is employed seasonally, while the hospitality industry registers the highest share of moonlighting, after the construction and trade (Glavni plan i strategija razvoja turizma u RH do 2020, 2011:18).

All so far analyzed indicators are related only to direct impacts of tourism, while completely neglecting far more important multiple effects which can be monitored by using the tourism satellite account. World Travel and Tourism Council reported that direct share of tourism in Croatian gross domestic product in 2011 was 11%, and it was estimated that it will grow in 2012 by the rate of 5.3%. Indirect share of tourism in GDP is significantly higher and is estimated to be 26.5%, with expected growth of 5.3% in 2012 (WTTC, 2012:1). According to the estimations made by WTTC, tourism engaged 12.3% of employees directly and 28.3% of them indirectly.

Based on the knowledge about the analyzed indicators gained in this paper, the statement that tourism in Croatia does not have an alternative in economic development has been confirmed (Bartoluci in Čavlek *et al.*, 2011:431).

Somewhat different image arises from the analysis of Croatian hotel companies, i.e. at micro level. Based on conducted research, Bartoluci and Hendija (2012:263) have found a significant insolvency of certain hotel companies in Croatia. The debts of numerous hotel companies amount more than three quarters of founding capital or 1.1 billion Euros in 2010, which points out the high indebtedness coefficient of hotel companies (Bartoluci and Hendija, 2012:263). A significant number of hotel companies is reporting losses. According to the research, out of the total number of 40 large hotel companies, 22 of them have reported losses in business activities in 2010 (Kekez, 2012). These indicators bring into question the economic sustainability of large hotel companies in the Croatian tourism. There are several reasons for such situation, but the main ones are: distinct seasonality of tourism, low average level of capacities' exploitation, high fixed expenses per service unit related to rather low price out of the peak season etc. (Bartoluci, 2013:45-50).

Even though there is a constant tendency in media to point out that tourism contributes to the economic growth of the Republic of Croatia, which is in most cases augmented with the presented indicators related to its share in the GDP and in engaging the work force, it is quite interesting that there is only a small number of scientific and professional papers which would prove this statement based on quantitative and value analysis. There are only partial researches in which the authors, respecting the available resources and limited authorities, provide only certain imprints of the share of tourism in Croatian economy and its real influence and effects. All mentioned is related to the papers of the following authors: Galinac, Jurčić, Antunac, Šimičić, Ivandić, Šutalo, Marušić, Blažević, Bartoluci, Dumičić and Hendija, as well as the publications of WTTC, Ministry of Tourism and Institute for Tourism (Bartoluci and Hendija, 2012:260).

One of the main causes for such state can for sure be related to the fact that there is still a lack of global consensus of all relevant international organizations (such as the UN, UNWTO, OECD, Eurostat, etc.) about the methodological procedures which would enable determining the thorough coverage of tourism in a uniformed way (Cooper and Hall, 2008:256). At global level tourism turnover is not monitored identically and the data are not complete, while the methodological approaches are different from country to country (Hendija, 2007:89). "Despite numerous international conferences and events dedicated to this topic and published recommendations, it is still not possible to compare tourism statistics globally" (Antunac, 2002:251). Such situation has not been significantly changed up to today, which is reflected through complicated and sometimes completely dimmed comparative analysis and processing tourism related data. Additional problem with tourism is its multifunctional character. Unlike other economic sectors which are determined by particular position in the National classification of economic activities, tourism represents a system of economic activities made of interconnected, heterogeneous, interdependent and complement fragments of various economic sectors and activities, creating logical, functional and balanced system (Kesar u Čavlek *et al*., 2011:243). Through such multifunctional character of tourism arise the main reasons for complex system of monitoring the objective economic effects of tourism, which makes it hard to conduct objective research within the tourism system.

4. Conclusion

Based on certain scientific knowledge about tourism's economic effects, this paper contains the analysis of the registered economic effects of tourism in Croatia in the period from the year 2001 to 2012.

Even though the number of overnight stays in commercial accommodation during that period was increased by 19.3 million (45%), this indicator is not realistic due to the lack of the non-registered tourism turnover that is registered within the sphere of the so-called "grey economy". This is particularly related to the number of domestic tourism that was statistically increased only by 4%, while that number in reality is for sure much larger.

Unlike physical indicators that are registered and processed by Croatian National Statistical Bureau, financial indicators are published by Croatian National Bank. Financial data are processed by methodological procedure which is based on questionnaire and registered number of travelers at national borders, as well as the statistically registered number of overnight stays.

The analysis indicates unreliability of determined financial indicators in tourism. This is especially referred to the high share of tourism income in GDP, whose values in the analyzed period alternated from 13.6% (2010) to 18.4% (2003).

The reality of registered indicators comes into question also within the number of employees directly employed in tourism (in the analyzed period that number variated from 82,000 to 91,000. The official data doesn't contain the objective indicators on the number of seasonal work force that amount between 35 and 40%, due to the high share of moonlighting.

This research indicated that tourism generates rather large economic effects that have significant influence on the Croatian economy, but at the same time numerous large hotel companies do not register positive results. Namely, the majority of large hotel companies are reporting losses, are not liquid, have too many debts and do not have enough private capital that would be used for investments and development. Therefore the long term economic sustainability of a number of large hotel companies comes into question. At the same time, the myth of welfare is created in public and the real problems are misjudged. In the light of decreasing or eliminating these problems it is necessary to develop more efficient economic and tourism policy at both national and destination level.

Even though tourism in the Republic of Croatia has irreplaceable role in the economic growth and development, the adequate methodological procedures that would enable determining integral coverage of tourism in national economy are still not applied. The tourism's economic effects, registered in official statistical reports, are related only to its direct effects, while at the same time multiple effects are neglected. These effects are accomplished within the complementary activities, in the form of additional number of employees and added turnover. They are sometimes overestimated, but sometimes can also be underestimated. Such situation can create a myth of the size of tourism's economic effects. Therefore the authors advocate the usage of tourism satellite account in order that the integral economic effects of tourism could be determined.

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JOURNEY INTO THE WEST: MYTH AND REALITY IN ENGLAND'S FAR WEST TOURISM PRODUCT

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Abstract

The most westerly county in England is Cornwall, one of the country's most popular destinations, attracting approximately 4.4 million staying visitors in 2008 (Visit Cornwall 2010). The appeal is to international tourists as well as domestic ones (Andrew, 1997; Gilligan, 1987; Williams and Shaw, 1993) because the county possesses a cultural and linguistic heritage distinct from the rest of England (Andrew, 1997; Busby and Hambly, 2000; Busby and Laviolette, 2006; Harvey, 2000), partly also because of diaspora tourism (Busby, 2004). Mention CORNWALL and, for most English people, there will immediately be images of smugglers (Deacon 1988), celebrity chefs (Busby et al 2012), Celtic saints (Busby 2002; 2004), and sweeping landscapes (Hale 2001; Tregidga 2012).

The festivals and traditions of Cornwall draw in visitors to the area. Busby and Hambly (2000) make the point that the annual Daphne Du Maurier Festival of Arts and Literature held in and around Fowey manages to draw in large numbers of visitors to the area. Some events at the festival reinforce perception of "Celtic haunts, holy wells, Cornish language and literature, other pre-industrial folkloric survivals and of course King Arthur" (Hale, Kent and Saunders, 2000, p. 17). Tintagel has long been associated with the Arthurian myth and is on the north coast of Cornwall; close by, on the same coast is the small fishing port of Padstow, situated near the mouth of the River Camel, home to television celebrity chef Rick Stein.

Indeed, as with many destinations, there are multiple representations, from *stereotypical images portrayed in guidebooks (Deacon, 1988) and television series (Busby & Klug 2001) to more grounded ones, based on 'fly on the wall' documentaries. Cornwall appeals to many types of tourist; arguably, the beaches draw the general leisure tourist whilst heritage and culture attract the special interest visitor besides the mass market (Busby 2002; Busby, Hunt and Small, 2009).*

This paper examines the key myths and how they have developed and, in some cases, been used to market the destination. A small-scale survey was undertaken with undergraduates, asking them to identify key features of Cornwall. The results confirm popularly-held representations of the county at the first level. At a secondary level, other aspects are thought of, from the existence of the Cornish culture to influence of television series.

Keywords – Cornwall, Otherness, destination image

JEL code – M30

Myths in the marketing and branding of tourism destinations

1. Introduction

Myths mean different things to different people. Perhaps surprisingly, some academic research does not operationalise the concept, merely assuming that the reader will *know* what is intended; as in this example from a journal: The four service marketing myths – remnants of a goods-based, manufacturing model (Vargo & Lusch 2004). From the perspective of globalization, McMichael (1996), writing in the journal Rural Sociology, includes the term in the article title but makes no attempt to operationalise it – the reader *knows* what is intended.

The location under consideration in this paper has experienced diaspora and there are, accordingly, *myths of return* (Safran 1991). Given Cornwall's key position in the Industrial Revolution, there are "myths of industrial civilisation… woven into new constructions of identity which largely displaced former notions of Cornishness, though not entirely" (Kennedy & Kingcome 1998:47). However, for most visitors the myths that they are likely to be familiar with surround ancient customs and notions of Celticity (Busby 2003; 2004). In the twentieth century, translation of bestsellers by authors Daphne du Maurier and Winston Graham to television series, viewed by millions, reinforced some of these myths although research has suggested those with a degree of personal cultural capital can disentangle the elements (Busby & Meethan 2008).

Cornwall is the most westerly county in England, one of the country's most popular destinations, attracting approximately 4.4 million staying visitors in 2008 (Visit Cornwall 2010). The appeal is to international tourists as well as domestic ones (Andrew, 1997; Gilligan, 1987; Williams and Shaw, 1993) because the county possesses a cultural and linguistic heritage distinct from the rest of England (Andrew, 1997; Busby and Hambly, 2000; Busby and Laviolette, 2006; Harvey, 2000), partly also because of diaspora tourism (Busby, 2004). Mention CORNWALL and, for most English people, there will immediately be images of smugglers (Deacon 1988), celebrity chefs (Busby et al 2013), Celtic saints (Busby 2002; 2004), and sweeping landscapes (Hale 2001; Tregidga 2012).

In virtually all respects, these images are mythical. Cornwall is not alone in this. Many destinations comprise a range of myths. Consider Scotland and *Brigadoon*, a 1947 Hollywood interpretation of a Scottish village and traditions; "globally-recognised iconography enables a production team to reproduce Scotland in a form that will be readily-recognised by a global audience" (Voase 2012:81) and some Destination Marketing Organisations avidly promote icons based on myths. After all, the Scottish tartan, as an icon, only really became recognised following the work of novelist Sir Walter Scott (McCrone et al 1995). Elsewhere, the myth of a destination might be based on a single novel, written by somebody who never visited; the exemplar is, of course, a part of Romania known as Transylvania and the novel is *Dracula* (Shandley et al 2006).

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2. Myths in the marketing and branding of tourism destinations – Celticity, customs and pasties

A belief in 'Celtic Cornwall' is one manifestation of 'Otherness' and, it is suggested, that this discourse is held by a significant number of visitors, colouring the visual experience. The county of Cornwall is a "contested territory", resulting from linguistic, economic, political and religious elements, according to Hale (2001:186).

The compilations of folklore in the 19th century by Hunt and Bottrell resulting, respectively, in *Popular Romances of the West of England: or Drolls, Traditions and Superstitions of Old Cornwall* (1865) and *Traditions and Hearthside Stories of West Cornwall* (1870-80), located "Cornishness in a 'primitive', dark and wild 'Celtic' (my emphasis) culture" where the very ancient superstitions had survived the impact of Roman, Saxon, Danish and Norman invasion (Vernon 1998:157). Later in the century, the 1893 Ethnographic Survey of the British Isles studied the inhabitants and folklore of the county at thirty-five locations since it was presumed that Cornwall's geographic location would provide a "remarkably uncorrupted race of 'primitive' people" (Vernon 1998:159). Hard to believe just a little over one hundred years later.

Drawing on Jenkin's (1945) *Cornwall and its People*, Vernon (1998:167) refers to the suggestion that whilst the inhabitants might have experienced material poverty it, concomitantly, created spiritual wealth and the "reification of Old Cornwall as a spiritual resource" strongly influenced individuals such as Morton Nance, Henry Jenner and Hamilton Jenkin, himself, resulting in the establishment of the Celtic-Cornish Society (1901), Old Cornwall Society (1920) and the Cornish Gorseth (1928). Ironically, it is this Celtic Christianity, which Bradley (1993) refers to being unique in its spirituality and which had assimilated many Pagan beliefs and practices, which is today sought after. Celtic spirituality, according to Bowman (2000:70) is now viewed as a quality rather than as a geographic, ethnic or linguistic phenomenon and certainly not a culture that we can return to (Kneafsey 2000).

Many of the county's antiquities have come to symbolise the Celtic/early Cornish culture: quoits, stone circles, menhirs, and ancient round houses, together with examples of gold torcs, lunulae and brooches. As an adjunct, such terms as menhir and cromlech illustrate archaeology's adoption of Celtic words (Robb 2002).

Indeed, the highest concentration of such sites in Britain is to be found in Cornwall (Hale 2002). In 1998, there were 1,267 scheduled monuments in the county and English Heritage's Monuments Protection Programme is considered likely to increase this to 3,000 within a few years (Cornwall County Council 2000).

Turning to regionally recognisable foods, the pasty is pre-eminent in Cornwall. Long associated with mining and also part of the Cornish diaspora, it is synonymous with most images of the county. Sims (2009) and Okumus et al (2007) have emphasised the positive link between foods and destinations; in some cases, the interrelationship results in what might be considered a brand (Hashimoto & Telfer 2006).

All of the interviewees in Everett & Aitchison's (2008:156) research "stated that Cornwall can boast of many distinctive food products and traditions; the pasty being the main identity-related food item for Cornwall". After the pasty, foodstuffs such as clotted cream, saffron buns, oysters, fish and speciality cheeses, such as yarg, do not elicit the same level of recognition.

3. Methodology

This paper examines just some of the myths which have been used to market the destination. The vehicle used to acquire data was a small-scale survey of undergraduates just as they began their studies in the first and second year of their degrees. The questionnaires were distributed on their first day of the new term and no prior advice about the content was given.

Students were asked whether they were Cornish, whether they live in the county, whether they had visited the county and, critically, what were the first five adjectives or 'things' that they thought of when Cornwall is mentioned. A follow-up question sought to identify any awareness of three particular settlements – the towns of St Ives, Truro and Padstow – and three particular long-standing festivals – 'Obby Oss, in Padstow, Flora Day, in Helston, and the Gorsedd, which moves to a new location each year. All responses were entered into SPSS v.20 although the sample prevents any serious statistical analysis; the file will probably be added to over future years and become a longitudinal study.

4. Findings and discussion

Of 41 respondents, two stated that they are Cornish, five live there and thirty-one have visited (including the residents). In total, thirty-one 'things' were associated with the Cornwall.

Table 1. Cornwall – the five things that come to mind – percentage of respondents (rounded)

Item	First thing	Second thing	Third thing	Fourth thing	Fifth thing
Beaches/Coastline	32	17	19	26	
Pasties	26	13	7	13	11
Countryside/Landscape	11	10	7	13	11
Surfing	5	13	15	9	11
Duchy of Cornwall	5				
Land's End	3		4		11
Villages	3		7		5
Newquay	3		4	4	
The sea	3	3	4	13	
Eden Project	3	3	4		
Cream teas	3	3	4		
Ice cream	3	10			
Farmers	3	3	4		
Nice weather		10	4		
Many visitors		7			5
Small towns		3	4		
Cornish language		3			
Accent/dialect			4		5
Royal Cornwall Show					
Carnival			4		
Nice residents			4		
Cold climate				9	5
Doc Martin				4	
Camel Trail				4	
Different culture				4	
Second homes					11
Rick Stein					5
Gig rowing					5
Rock (place)					5
Castles					5
Pirates					5

The findings might appear to be obvious but the researcher refers the reader to the work of Baratz (1983) who pointed out this frequently seems to be the case after the results are available. Yes, the landscape, in manifestations of beach and countryside, is clearly very important. As is the pasty. At a secondary level, the county is synonymous with surfing and specific locations, such as Land's End and Newquay. The unusual status of the Duchy of Cornwall (the preserve of the heir to the throne) also appears.

Clearly, television has made an impact to some extent with citation of the long-running television series *Doc Martin*, set in Port Isaac, featuring Martin Clunes as the eponymous general practitioner; an example of film-induced tourism, as personal research indicates. Although at least two other television series (*Wild West* and *Nighty Night*) have appeared in recent years, the students are probably too young to remember them. Film-induced tourism is significant in Cornwall; for example, with the German market (Busby & Hambly 2000) even though it is not apparent from these findings.

Celebrity chef Rick Stein makes an appearance; perhaps surprising given the age of the respondents. Neither the local dialect or the Cornish language come to mind in the first order; there are more powerful images. Note – images. Myths hardly appear here.

5. Conclusion

This small-scale study confirms some of the popularly held beliefs of how Cornwall is perceived. The coastline and other aspects of landscape stand out as does a gastronomic element: the pasty. However, there is a plethora of other constructs, from cultural ones to spatial ones. Nonetheless, Celticity does not appear. Almost certainly this is something younger respondents are unlikely to be familiar with. In other words, myths do not seem to feature large in the younger adult's mind; at least, myths as most would understand the term.

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"CAN SMALL AND FAMILY HOTELS OUTPERFORM THE TOTAL HOTEL INDUSTRY IN CROATIA?"

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Abstract:

The aim of the paper is to break the illusion of small and family hotels as business which generates fast and easy profit and to demonstrate the real market situation and position of the segment. Small and family hotels have become a desirable form of accommodation. According to their high differentiation ability and flexibility, they are more able to assimilate to the constant changes in tourism demand. In recent years, Croatia has accepted international hospitality industry trend, which imply enrichment of hotel capacity leaning on small and family entrepreneurship development model. There are still limitations to the performance of small and family hotels in Croatia that need to be mentioned: e.g. adverse entrepreneurial environment and the macroeconomic climate. Despite the mentioned obstacles and the current situation in Croatia, there is a generally accepted opinion that small and family hotel businesses create a strong base for "easy life". In this paper authors will use the results of primary research made on a sample of small and family hotels in Croatia in summer 2012. The research sample includes small and family hotels with less than 100 beds. Research method used in the paper is a highly structured questionnaire which has been sent to the owners/managers by e-mail or distributed in person. The questionnaire includes volume data and financial indicators, as well as qualitative indicators such as: quality of life, lifestyle, social status and the similar. Other than *the primary research results, the authors use the following research methods and instruments: analysis of available theoretical and practical cognitions concerning research topic, analysis of relevant research results from secondary information sources (Ministry of tourism, Croatian Bureau of Statistics, Horwath consulting, Institute for tourism). According to the research findings, the authors will challenge hypothesis which states that small and family hotel businesses outperform the total hotel business in Croatia and create a strong base for "easy life" for entrepreneurs.*

Keywords: small and family hotels, Croatia, hospitality industry

JEL classification code: L83

1. Introduction

Operating on extremely dynamic tourism market becomes more and more complex for all participants involved in tourism supply. Constant economic and political changes combined with implementation of new technological solutions and systems have an increasing influence on their performance. Small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) which "form the backbone of most tourism destination" (Cooper et al., 2005:748) and "still dominate the tourism industry in Europe" (Peters & Buhalis, 2012:4) have high differentiation ability and flexibility which makes them more able to assimilate to the constant changes in tourism demand. "There is a general consensus about the importance of small firms in tourism, due to their high share in the industry and advantages inherent to their size." (Pivčević, 2009:165)

According to the average size of hotel facilities, the structure of the hotel industry on the developed tourism markets mostly consists of small hotels. The hotel industry in Croatia is divided into two main segments: large hotels (arising mainly as a result of the planned construction of major facilities in 1970s tailored to the needs and demands of mass tourism) and the segment of small hotels (mostly family hotels, the newly built or renovated after 1990, as a specific new product on the market). The development of small and family businesses in Croatian hospitality sector started in the late 1990s as a result of initiatives and incentives given by the Ministry of tourism. In recent years, Croatia has accepted international hospitality industry trend, which imply enrichment of hotel capacity leaning on small and family entrepreneurship development model. There are still some limitations to the performance of small and family hotels in Croatia that need to be mentioned: e.g.

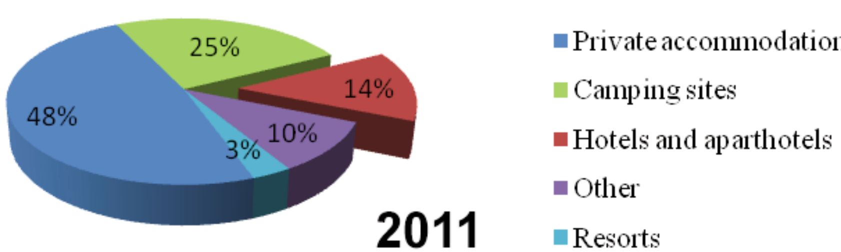
adverse entrepreneurial environment and the macroeconomic climate. Despite the mentioned obstacles and the current situation in Croatia, there is a generally accepted opinion that small and family hotels in Croatia generate high profit and create a strong base for "easy life" for entrepreneurs.

Paper analyses the hospitality industry in Croatia, shows the current structure of the industry, as well as importance, main characteristics and the share of small and family hotels. In this paper authors will use the results of primary research made on a sample of small and family hotels in Croatia in summer 2012, in order to test the hypothesis which states that small and family hotel businesses outperform the total hotel business in Croatia and create a strong base for "easy life" for entrepreneurs.

2. Brief overview of hospitality industry in Croatia

The structure of the accommodation capacity in the developed European countries is still significantly different from the one in Croatia. According to the Eurostat, in 2011 hotels participated with 45% in the total accommodation capacity of the European Union. In countries like Austria, Greece, Germany and Spain hotels are represented with more than 50%. When it comes to hospitality industry in Croatia, one of the key characteristics of the industry is a relatively small share of hotels in total accommodation capacity, which is often emphasized as one the key issues and barriers of tourism. According to the Central Bureau of Statistics until 1990, in the overall structure of total capacity hotels were represented with 17%. Unfortunately, in 2011 it decreased for 3% (Figure 1), which is a direct result of an extremely small number of investments in hotel industry in Croatia combined with the constant growth of private accommodation sector.

Figure 1: Structure of accommodation capacity in Croatia in 2011



Source: Central Bureau of Statistics (2012), Statistical Yearbook, CBS, Zagreb

Private accommodation sector is represented with 48% in the total accommodation capacity, due to the fact that until 90s it emerged as the only possibility form investments in small business in tourism. In the late 90s, their number increased as a result of unplanned and illegal apartment construction, driven by quick profit in the real estate business.

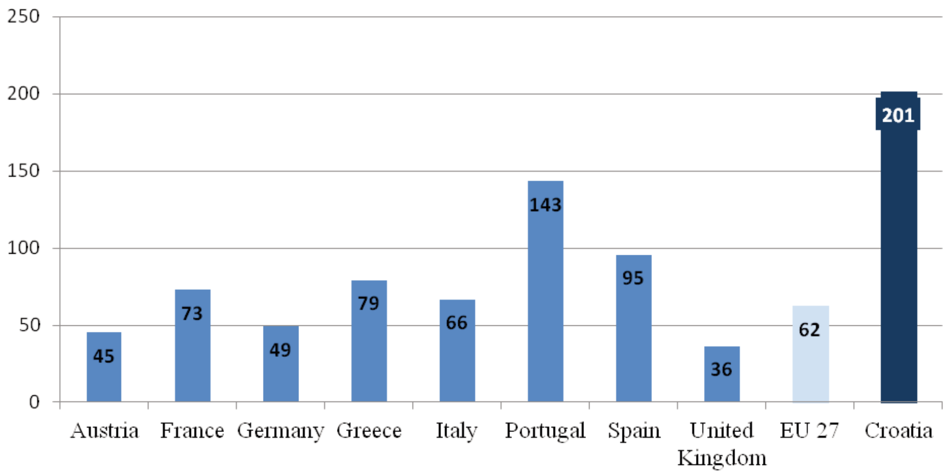
In recent years, Croatia has accepted international hospitality industry trend, which imply enrichment of hotel capacity leaning on small and family entrepreneurship development model, and leads to one more important trend in the hotel industry in Croatia which needs to be emphasized, and that is significant reduction in the average size of hotel facility (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Number of beds in hotels in Croatia (1990 – 2011)

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, Statistical Yearbook 1994, 2012, CBS, Zagreb

The development of small and family hotel business, particularly from 2000 until 2010 has significantly affected the decrease in the average size of the hotel for almost 43%. Despite this decrease in the average size, hotel industry in Croatia, in comparison with other countries (Figure 3) still predominantly comprises of large hotels.

Figure 3: The average number of beds in some European countries in 2012



Source: Eurostat, European Commission, 2013., http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu Number of establishments, bedrooms and bed-places - national - annual data

The average number of beds in most developed European countries does not exceed 100, which can be explained by the fact that these countries have a long tradition of private entrepreneurship, in most cases developed within the family business. In those countries, small and family hotel industry occupies a much greater importance than in Croatia.

3. The development of small and family hotel business in Croatia

Small and family hotels have become a desirable form of accommodation. According to their high differentiation ability and flexibility, they are more able to assimilate to the constant changes in tourism demand. There is no generally accepted definition of small and family hotel. Medlik and Ingram (2002:54) define it as an independent facility managed by the owners, with usually twenty to thirty rooms up to fifty beds, restaurant or dining, bar and some other facilities. Most of the definitions start from premises that small and family hotels should not have more than 100 beds. Croatian Regulation on classification, categorization and specific standards on hospitality facilities in the group “hotels”, defines special standard “Small&Friendly” hotel with no more than 50 beds. “Any meaningful definition of small hotel firms calls for an identification, explanation and marriage of the associated features such as number of employees and family members, physical facilities and service provided financial investment and statistics, business orientation and motivation, management style, ownership configuration etc." (Morrison & Conway, 2007:47) For the purpose of this research, small and family hotel will be considered as independent hotel facility managed by the owner with no more 100 permanent beds.

Small and family hotels are quite attractive business for entrepreneurs. According to Medlik & Ingram (2002:54) small hotels have many advantages for entrepreneurs, offer economic independence trough business that provides assets for life in activity full of interesting encounters with people and provide space for personal inspiration. Small and family hotels become quite interesting segment in tourism market because of their special characteristics and focus on specialized products designed for a narrow market segment that follows current trends.

According to Medlik & Ingram (2002:53-59) and Frey (2002:133-139) there are few general characteristics of small and family hotels that need to be taken into account:

- flexibility in adapting to changing market trends – enabled by the size and the way of managing (internal flexibility of companies, direct channels of communication and decision-making) and the structure of employment (employs family members with flexible working hours and employment opportunities at special, flexible terms);
- the possibility of personalized relationships with guests - provided primarily by size of the accommodation and other hotel capacity;
- highlighting the personality of the owner - enabled by the fact that the owner is often a manager of the hotel;
- strong possibility of differentiation - in relation to the competition, primarily larger hotels, is present in small and family-run hotels primarily due to characteristics in all aspects of hotel operations.

Described characteristics can also be considered as competitive advantages of the segment, which "serve to improve one`s position compared to the competition in the future." (Milohnić & Gržinić, 2010:44). There are also some possible restrictions connected with the small and family hotels in general. „The threats faced by the small hotels today stem from the intense competition generated by the national and multinational chains or medium and large hotels." (Barros & Mascarenhas, 2005:420)

"Some of the major problems for family hotels emerging from doing business include insufficient financial potential/power, inferior access to financial assets (banks and other financial institutions), shortage of adequate market information, inferior negotiating power in relation to suppliers and tourist agents etc." (Perić & Nikšić, 2007:654)

Despite the fact that from the beginning of the 80s in many European countries the idea of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) was seen as a key factor in the economic recovery and a way of creating jobs and fighting against massive unemployment (Ribiero, 2005:602), Croatia could not follow this trend. Until 90s, Croatian economy consisted mostly of large state owned companies (so called self-management) that have arisen as a result of the economic policies. This kind of system neglected and restricted the development of small and family business on a large extent. Therefore, the significant development of small and family businesses in Croatian hospitality sector started in the late 1990s. Many entrepreneurs who started their business in the late 90's were faced with an unfavorable business conditions (loss of jobs because of the poorly conducted process of privatization of large hotel companies, numerous administrative barriers, very unfavorable cost of capital in the market). After 2002, the Ministry of Entrepreneurship, Ministry of Tourism, the Croatian Agency for Small Business, the Croatian Bank for Reconstruction and Development, etc. started a series of initiatives and incentives (projects hitro.hr and hitrorez, projects and activities of the Ministry of Entrepreneurship, Ministry of Tourism, the Croatian Agency for Small Business, the Croatian Bank for Reconstruction and Development, etc.) which resulted with the significant growth of the number of small and family hotels in Croatia.

According to Ministry of tourism, at the beginning of 2013 Croatia registered 379 small and family hotels with less than 100 permanent beds, which represents 58% of the total number of categorized hotels in Croatia. However, small and family hotels in Croatia represent only 16% in the total number of hotel accommodation capacity. According to the territorial organization, Croatian National Tourist Board and National Association of Small and Family hotels divided Croatia into nine different regions (Table 1). Shown distribution was also used in this research.

Table 1: Accommodation capacity in small and family hotels in Croatia by region in 2013

Region	Total number of small and familiy hotels	Number of rooms and suites in small and familiy hotels	Number of beds in small and family hotels
Split region	103	2.484	5.010
Continental Croatia	66	1.391	2.627
Kvarner	44	1.105	2.214
Istria	41	866	1.636
Zagreb region	37	851	1.580
Zadar region	30	737	1.502
Dubrovnik region	30	606	1.173
Šibenik region	21	521	1.018
Mountainous region	7	164	287
Total	**379**	**8.725**	**17.047**

Source: Ministry of Tourism (2013), *List of categorized accommodation facilities in tourism in Croatia*, Zagreb: MINT and information available from the main office of NUOMH.

The table 1 shows the accommodation capacity of small and family hotels which are not a part of a larger hotel company with no more than 100 permanent beds, owned and operated by a family. In 2013, in Croatia there are 379 small and family hotels with 17047 permanent beds. As seen from the figures above, the largest share (27%) in the number of beds in small and family in the coastal part is in Split region. Development of small and family hotels in Croatia has been significantly intensified by the implementation of government measures. There is generally accepted opinion that small and family hotel businesses outperform in total hotel business in Croatia and create a strong base for “easy life” for entrepreneurs.

4. Research sample

The research sample included small and family hotels in Croatia with no more than 100 permanent beds. The total population of 359 small hotels with a capacity of up to 100 permanent beds was determined according to the census classified facilities in the Ministry of Tourism. According to the fact that some of these hotels operate within a large hotel company (HUP Zagreb dd, Maistra, Sunny Hvar dd, Liburnija Riviera Hotels Inc., Adriatic dd, etc.) or within large company in the public domain (city companies such as Zagreb Holding, public Institution National parks, public companies, such as Croatian railways, etc.) and do not meet the established criteria for defining small and family hotel, they were excluded from the research. Motels along the highway were excluded from the sampling list. Therefore, real sample has included 285 small and family hotels in Croatia (Table 2).

Table 2: Research sample

Region	**Population**	**Research sample**	**Returned questioners**	**Share of returned questioners (%)**
Split region	84	69	14	20,3
Continental Croatia	64	48	8	16,7
Istria	38	33	10	30,3
Zagreb region	37	31	8	25,8
Kvarner	47	31	6	19,4
Dubrovnik region	32	27	15	55,6
Zadar region	27	23	5	21,7
Šibenik region	20	15	8	53,3
Mountainous region	10	8	3	37,5
Total	**359**	**285**	**77**	**27,0**

Source: Authors

Hotels in the sample were mostly from the coastal area, especially the southern part of the Croatia (Split and Dubrovnik region), which is consistent with the spatial distribution of the total number of small and family hotels in Croatia. The smallest number of hotels that participated in the survey is from the mountainous region.

The main instrument for the research was highly structured questionnaire. The survey was carried out by distribution of questionnaires to the owners or managers of the hotels in the Assembly NUOMH's and by sending the questionnaire by mail and e-mail. From the total of 285 questionnaires sent, 77 filled questionnaires (27%) were returned.

5. Findings and discussion

According to described specific characteristics of the segment, in this paper authors challenged hypotheses which states that small and family hotels outperform in total hotel industry in Croatia. In order to test the hypothesis, authors used an indicator of average occupancy rates, as one of the key performance indicators for accommodation facilities in tourism as well as average revenue per unit as one of the most common financial indicators in the hotel industry. The average revenue per unit for the entire hotel industry in Croatia, which would be based on a complete and accurate data, is not available. For that reason, authors used data given by the consulting company specialized in hotel business, Horwath Consulting, as the only relevant information available. According to their data, during the period from 1992 to 2012, the total average revenue per unit grew at an average rate of 3.7% per year. In 2009 there was a significant decline in revenue, with an average of € 18,283 in the 2008 to an average of € 13,047 in 2009. This decline is a result of the economic crisis. In 2011 hotels in Croatia achieved € 16,621 average revenue per unit. According to the research results, average revenue per unit for small and family hotels in Croatia in 2011 was € 18,084 which is 8% higher than the average revenue per unit in hotel industry in total in Croatia.

Before the final acceptance of the hypothesis, authors will show one more indicator (Table 3). The calculation of the average hotel occupancy rate was based on the number of registered permanent beds and compared to the available data. Information on the occupancy rate would be much more precise if the analysis would be based on the accommodation units, not a single bed. Table 3 shows a comparison of average occupancy rates for small and family hotels in Croatia and average occupancy rates for hotel industry in total, by category.

Table 3: Average occupancy rate for hotel industry in total and small and family hotels in Croatia in 2011

Hotel category	*****	****	***	**
Hotel industry in Croatia (according to CBS)	36,6	37,4	34,0	26,2
Small and family hotels in Croatia	46,9	37,5	35,6	28,8

Source: own research

According to the shown data, small and family hotels have higher average occupancy rate than hotel industry in total, which can be explained by the fact that about 70% of small and family hotels in Croatia operates all year round.

The comparison of small and family hotels with the total hotel industry in Croatia showed that small and family hotels generate better financial and volume results which leads to the acceptance of tested hypothesis. Fast conclusion would be that this segment assures fast profit and a base for "easy life" for entrepreneurs, but authors still claim that this is just a crated illusion because there is "the other side of the medal" that needs to be taken into account. First of all, due to the individual service they provide and a smaller business volume, small and family hotels are very complex and expensive products. Greater investment in this segment results with longer return on investment period, which can sometimes reach 30 years. Secondly, according to the research results, fast profit is not a primary motive for entering the business. In the research, motives for entering the small family hotel business were divided into two groups, entrepreneurial (directed predominantly towards the realization of profit) and personal motives. The most important entrepreneurial motives are: the improvement of existing jobs in tourism; long-term investment in real estate business and the investment of funds in activities with long-term growth potential. Other motives for entering the business were connected with incentives and loans for entrepreneurs in small and family hospitality as well as real estate business. The ranking of entrepreneurial motives indicates that small and family hotel business often engage entrepreneurs with experience in similar business or entrepreneurs who invest surplus funds earned in another activity. When it comes to personal motives for entering the business, the most important motives are: working the job they love, the quality and lifestyle, family values, possibility of expressing personality. The least important motive is contribution to the sustainable tourism development.

On the account of all previously discussed, it is possible to conclude that although small and family hotel business outperform the total hotel industry in Croatia, it does not assure fast and easy profit, as the illusion stated.

6. Conclusion

Keeping in mind the structure of the total accommodation capacity in Croatia, with almost 50% of the capacity in private accommodation sector, it is obvious that each new small and family hotel has a multiple positive effects on the tourism supply, as well as on the tourism market in general. In comparison with the other European countries, the share of small and family hotels in Croatia in the total accommodation capacity is still relatively small, despite the fact that their number grew significantly in last ten years, which led to the reduction in the average size of hotel facility in Croatia. Numerous initiatives and incentives motivated entrepreneurs to enter hotel business, and led to the illusion that it can generate fast and easy profit.

Tested hypothesis showed that small and family hotels in Croatia outperform the total hotel industry in Croatia, due to higher average revenue per unit, as well as higher average occupancy rate. But, when taking into account higher investment in the segment, as well as long return on investments period, the illusion of fast and easy profit remains an illusion, miles away from reality. Despite that, in the future many entrepreneurs will enter the business, because of the advantages like self-employment and creative business environment combined with government initiatives. Future development of this segment in Croatia could have a great influence on the quality of accommodation capacity and increase competitiveness of tourism supply in Croatia.

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USES OF LOCAL NARRATIVE AND MYTH IN TOURISM ADVERTISING: THE CASE OF TEXAS

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Abstract

The use of local narratives is a mainstay of tourism marketing. Images and characters connected with a place are used to conjure up positive associations and attract visitors. Among US states, arguably the strongest narrative is that of Texas—cowboys, cattle, desert vistas and the Lone Star flag are all widely known, and heavily used, symbols of the Texas story, which is, by extension, the American story. Using qualitative content analysis, we analyzed how marketers of small cities and towns associate their place to four central components of the Texas state narrative – the flag, official and unofficial symbols, territory, and social-historical mythology – in advertising and tourism brochures in the years 2008-2010. The two main research questions were: 1.In what ways do Texas place marketers associate their location to the components of the Texas narrative in order attract tourism to small cities and towns? 2.Which techniques, symbols and icons are used by the marketers in order to claim the Texas narrative?

One hundred and twenty seven brochures were collected during the first half of 2009 from four official state welcome centers. In addition to the brochures, our body of marketing material included non-commercial, officially produced advertisements for Texas locations. Advertisements were found in the officially produced Texas state tourism guides for the years 2008-2010, as well as these years' issues of the AAA-produced Texas Highways and the lifestyle magazine Texas Monthly. We searched in these various resources and media for texts, messages, slogans, visuals, colors, logos, and symbols used to promote Texas's small cities and towns.

We broke down the Texas narrative into four generalized components (with each component consisting of its own set of icons): flag ("pure" state flag, state colors, the Lone Star), official and non-official symbols (flowers: Bluebonnets and wildflowers, state animals: horned lizards, rattle snakes, longhorns, armadillos and rodeo bulls), territory (The state map/outline, "typical" state scenery), and social-historical mythology (cowboys, cowboy-related imagery, historic sites). The goal of the manuscript is to present how Texas place marketers used these components to associate their places to the state narrative. In order to understand the centrality of the Texas narrative in tourism marketing, we also analyzed how Texas was marketed over the years to attract out-of-state tourism. It is not surprising to see common use of the icons discussed when the goal is to differentiate Texas from other US states. Using the state of Texas as an example may provide a test case for typology, associating and claiming state narratives in promotional materials.

Keywords: state narrative, marketing tourism, Texas, advertising, tourism brochures

JEL code: http://www.aeaweb.org/jel/jel_class_system.php#M37

1. Introduction

The use of local narratives is a mainstay of tourism marketing (Baker, 2007; Govers & Go, 2009). Images and characters connected with a place are used to conjure up positive associations and attract visitors. Among US states, arguably the strongest narrative is that of Texas—cowboys, cattle, desert vistas and the Lone Star flag are all widely known, and heavily used, symbols of the Texas story, which is, by extension, the American story. There is no doubting the state's allure: Texas is among the most visited states in the US. And yet, despite the importance of researching the use of state narrative to attract tourists, there are only a handful of studies on the subject in general and on Texas's narrative, specifically. We seek to address this lacuna by examining – by means of quantitative and primarily qualitative content analysis – the ads and tourism brochures used by small cities and towns throughout Texas in the years 2008-2010. It is our intention to learn how marketers associate their location to a state narrative, in the belief that using the state of Texas as an example may provide a test case for exploring the use of narrative of other states and countries in promotional material.

2. Theoretical background

Many media researchers agree on the important role of advertising in understanding a given culture and society (See list in First & Avraham, 2009). The centrality of advertising in modern society allows it to stand in for functions similar to those fulfilled by myth (Barthes, 1977/8). Like myth, advertising offers solutions to social tensions, furnishes an identification model, and proclaims the existence of a social order (Kellner, 1995). Moreover, advertising provides and promotes a repertoire of myths in popular culture such as the small-town myth, ecology/green myth, beauty myth and the America myth outside of the US (First & Avraham, 2009). Advertising plays a special role in the economic fabric of Western society because while an industry in and of itself, it is the most visible link between the marketing chain and the production process. Jhally (1987) maintains that advertising does not create values and positions in a vacuum, but reflects the collective dreams of consumers in a given culture. In this manuscript we would like to claim that advertising makes use of both narrative and myth. Our argument is that narrative and myth both organize materials systematically (Barthes, 1977/8). The analysis of both includes the social context where the individuals live (including social frameworks, institutions, and common events) and the more general context that relates to values and cultural meaning.

3. State narrative components

When examining place marketing and advertising, researchers often look at the ways that well-known narratives and myths are used by advertisers to promote their locations (First & Avraham, 2007, 2009; Avraham & First, 2003; Baker, 2007; Sherry, 1987; Polkinghorne, 1995; Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996). In devising his paradigmatic-type narrative inquiry, Polkinghorne (1995) claimed that a narrative can emerge from a collection of symbols. When we speak of the state narrative, therefore, we are not speaking strictly of a linear story with a plot, but rather, abstractly, of a set of ideas and values embedded in the chosen symbols and understood by the audience – a "way of knowing" that helps "structure experience" (Sherry, 1987, p. 454).

We devised four broad categories, based roughly on Avraham and First's (2003) inquiry into "Americanicity" or the Americanization of Israeli advertisements that we think best define the images of "Texasnicity" in place marketing: flag, official and non-official symbols, territory and social-historical mythology. Theses four components were also mentioned most by the authors who dealt with the state narrative (Francaviglia, 1995; Clemons, 2008; *Texas Almanac*, 2008/2009; Avraham and Daugherty, 2009; Avraham and First, 2009).

4. Texas history and narrative

Located in the American Southwest, Texas is the nation's second largest state in both area and population. The state maintains a stable and diversified economy based on petroleum, agricultural products including cotton and meat, hi-tech industries and health services. Among the American states, Texas has perhaps one of the more dynamic histories – which is, of course, embedded in the American narrative – during which it has been under the control of six different governments (Spain, France, Mexico, the Republic of Texas, the Confederate States of America, and the United States). Due to its size, robust economy, political power and interesting history, the local citizens are very proud of their state, especially the fact that their state was the only one in continental America to experience a period of independent sovereignty (between 1836-1845) before joining the US.

As a hub of cattle ranching and early western settlement, Texans' cultural identities are tightly wrapped up in Western heritage, a cornerstone of the state's narrative. "The Texan 'brand' is both a process and an image" (Clemons, 2008: 95); Cowboys, rodeos, cattle and ranches are the main components that make up the state image. Meanwhile, the famously high level of Texas patriotism has led to many local marketers using the official and traditional symbols – the Lone Star flag, the distinctive Texas shape, Texas rangers and rodeos – when advertising local products (Avraham and Daugherty, 2009; Clemons, 2008). Texans tend to be proud of their state and its characteristics, achievements, values and history (Clemons, 2008). So it was not surprising, according to Francaviglia (1995), to see a great deal of use of the state narrative's components in many ads for locally made products and services, store signs, insurance companies, restaurants and government services. But it is important to emphasize, as mentioned by Clemons (2008), that Texas's historical and cultural identity is not expressed, created or reinforced only by advertising and marketing, but rather also through diverse means such as museums, films, TV shows, festivals and historical sites.

5. Method

This study utilizes qualitative analysis, based on a semiotic interpretation of texts. Our goal is answer two main questions:

RQ1 In what ways do Texas place marketers associate their location to the components of the Texas narrative in order attract tourism to small cities and towns?

RQ2 Which techniques, symbols and icons are used by the marketers in order to claim the Texas narrative?

6. The qualitative analysis

The qualitative approach is especially useful for studies attempting to explain social interaction in general and making use of inductive reasoning, generalizing from the social reality to a more comprehensive theory (Tuchman, 1991). This method is based on a thorough understanding of the analyzed units and examines the "common signifying process." Researchers using this method believe that texts reveal general discourse patterns (Pauly, 1991) through the appearance of motifs, labels, definitions, stereotypes, visuals, slogans and generalizations presented in the ads as exclusively characterizing a specific social group, social status or place (van Dijk, 1988).

7. Data Collection

Brochures are a very popular promotional tool in tourism marketing. Um & Crompton (1990) claim that they are effective if they meet three main objectives: influence on image formation, destination choice and satisfaction (Molina & Esteban, 2006). The quantitative research includes 127 officially produced brochures from small cities and towns around Texas that were located in the tourist information sites as described below. Due to Texas's size, we expected more brochures, but many towns did not produce one. We excluded from the study all brochures for broadly defined areas (such as the Hill Country or East Texas), state parks, lakes and Texas's four main metropolitan areas: Austin, Dallas-Arlington-Fort Worth, Houston and San Antonio. Official statistics show that these four metropolitan areas attract a disproportionate amount of visitors to Texas (Office of Texas Governor, 2011). These four areas should be considered "global cities," competing with other cities in the US and around the world for tourists, industry, capital, investment and hosting mega events. In order to attract different audiences these cities use various symbols and visuals to promote high culture, shopping, recreation and gambling; The pre-analysis of these cities' brochures, ads and website that we conducted shows that the Texas narrative is only one of the narratives or stories used by the state's large metropolitan marketers. Thus in order to analyze these metropolitans' marketing strategies we might need to use a different coding sheet and to look at other narrative components, in addition to analyzing "Texasanicity". This is the main reason why these cities are not included in our research. Small cities, on the other hand, do not compete in the global market; they still promote the same local characteristics they have had for years, such as local products, scenery and history. Based on the strength of the Texas narrative in the public consciousness, we can expect that marketers in these small locations will do their best to identify their locality with some of the narrative's components.

Brochures were collected during the first half of 2009 from four official state welcome centers – located near Texas's borders with Arkansas, New Mexico, Oklahoma and Mexico – to ensure broad representation of locales. Because they are also distributed in local welcome centers, supermarkets and chain stores, we assume that these brochures are designed to appeal to both residents and non-residents.

In addition to the 127 brochures, our body of marketing material includes non-commercial, officially produced advertisements for Texas locations. Combination analysis of brochures and ads is common in marketing tourism research (Silver, 1993). Ads and brochures are very popular among potential tourists seeking to plan a vacation, as they allow the audience to construct the destination image (Silver, 1993). Advertisements were found in the officially produced Texas state tourism guides for the years 2008-2010, as well as these years' issues of the AAA-produced *Texas Highways* and the lifestyle magazine *Texas Monthly*. We searched in these various resources and media for texts, messages, slogans, visuals, colors, logos, and symbols used to promote Texas's small cities and towns.

8. Findings

We broke down the Texas narrative into four generalized components – flag, official and non-official symbols, territory and social-historical mythology – with each component consisting of its own set of icons. The goal in the findings section is to present how Texas place marketers used these components to associate their places to the state narrative. In the following lines we would like to discuss marketers' use of each of the four components and related icons.

9. The State Flag

Flags are popular and known as effective symbols for communicating a set of ideas, values and ideologies (Yoresh, 1988). It should come as no surprise, then, that after reviewing a wide range of ads and brochures, the distinctive Texas flag features prominently in many campaigns for Texas locations. For example, in a brochure for the town of Fort Stockton, the flag is prominently presented beneath the town's name, as well as in front of a building in a front-panel photograph. In the brochure for Seguin, the flag is placed behind the statue of Texas hero Juan Seguin, after whom the town was named. Another example is Nacogdoches, where the logo for the annual Texas Blueberry Festival features two Texan flags. In addition, the marketers have various ways of representing the flag – in photos and backgrounds, as part of a marketing logo, and as a piece of clothing or other prop. An ad for the city of Granbury, for example, shows two rocking chairs on a veranda, flanked by a Texas flag on one side. An ad for Belton, meanwhile, features a child whose shirt is decorated to look like the flag. Odessa, whose marketers designed a brand logo using the flag to underline the city's name, turned the traditionally rectangular flag into a pennant and Round Rock adopts a folding lawn chair creatively designed to look like the Texas flag. Our analysis also shows that in addition to using the whole flag, marketers might also decide to break it down into its basic components, including the "Lone Star" image, the three colors, and even the pattern in which these colors are arranged.

The state colors: Red, white and blue.

One of the more subtle ways of associating to the state narrative through the flag is to use the state colors, which in Texas are red, white and blue. We reviewed many ads and brochures applying this color scheme. For example, the Texas towns of Athens and Paris use blue backgrounds with white and red text in their respective marketing literature. Paris also applies the scheme to the city's name – a blue "P," red "a-r-i-s," and a white star dotting the "i," in a pattern reminiscent of the state flag (blue on the left, red on the bottom right, white on the top right). Childress, similarly, uses red and blue text on a white background. Marketers for the city of Sherman employ a different approach to the use of Texas colors. The front of the city's brochure has red, white and blue fields along the edge, with corresponding photos beneath the following text: "Red River. White Stars. Blue Sky." This approach may be viewed as an attempt to attach the Texas narrative to nature, as though visitors to Sherman need only look at the sky to know they are experiencing Texas.

The Lone Star.

Perhaps as much as the flag in which it originates, the "Lone Star" has come to be viewed as a symbol of Texas in its own context. In many cases the use of the star was to mark the location of city or town on the state outline but like the colors of the flag, marketers use the star to implicitly suggest an association to the Texas narrative without displaying the flag itself. An ad for the city of Huntsville simply puts a red star behind the city's name, while Seguin uses a star to dot the "i" in the city's name along with the slogan "A Lone Star Legend". Ads for Buda market the city as "Buda, Texas," with a star in place of the letter "x." In at least two separate advertisements for Laredo, photos appear of a rusty metal star enclosed in a circle, commonly seen hanging on barns and sheds around the state. A recent brochure for New Braunfels, meanwhile, uses stars as bullets and in a border graphic. Conroe's marketers applied a star-shaped photo collage on a local brochure. The brand logo for Corpus Christi features a palm tree with five fronds arranged in a star shape. In addition to graphical uses of this symbol, marketers also allude to it textually through slogans and tag lines. Frisco is "Texas' Rising Star"; Kilgore is the "City of Stars"; and Carrollton is "The Shining Star of the DFW Area."

Official/Un-official State Symbols

Here we would like to present other common symbols in popular use with Texas place marketers: Bluebonnets—the official state flower, wildflowers, and state animals, both official and un-official. We felt a need to separate such symbols from the flag because a flag *explicitly* refers to location, while an animal or flower generally does so *implicitly* (wildflowers and cattle can be found outside of Texas).

Flowers: Bluebonnets and wildflowers.

Bluebonnets, the official state flower of Texas, and wildflowers, an unofficial symbol, appear in many of the brochures by place marketers. The association of wildflowers to Texas was strengthened by First Lady Lady Bird Johnson; this prominent Texan instituted a program of highway beautification which included planting wildflowers along medians and roadsides. Due to the official status of bluebonnets, we chose to treat them as a separate symbol. Marketers of three towns – Ennis, Brownwood and Burnet – offer three different approaches to their use of this flower in order to associate to the state narrative. In one brochure, Ennis marketers use a black background and a single close-up photograph of a bluebonnet beneath the italicized slogan “Texas tradition,” invoking what may be interpreted as a sense of refined elegance. A brochure for Breckenridge, on the other hand, shows a large patch of bluebonnets along with other traditional Texas scenes. Finally, a brochure for Burnet features a photograph of a historic building on its front cover, but makes sure to mention the city’s status as “Bluebonnet Capital of Texas.” A visual image of bluebonnets has been relegated to the inside of the second fold. Perhaps being known as the “capital” of bluebonnets is more important than the flowers themselves. In addition to slogans, photos and visuals, place marketers may also use events as advertisements, choosing a theme or name with ties to the narrative. For example, the cities Burnet and Chappell Hill both evoke the state narrative when they respectively host “Bluebonnet Festivals,” while the city of Ennis chooses the name “Bluebonnet Trail Festival”. Wildflowers likewise appear in festival names, including the “Wildflower Art Show” in Salado, “Wildflower Trail of Texas Festival” in Avinger, and the “East Texas Wildflower Trails Festival” in Henderson.

State animals: Horned lizards, rattlesnake, longhorns, armadillos and rodeo bulls.

Animals are another symbol used to implicitly associate places to the state narrative, commonly appearing in Texas place marketing campaigns. A commonly used symbol is the Texas longhorn cattle, which is also listed as the state’s official large mammal. One example can be found in ads for Cleburne, where longhorns are shown dramatically silhouetted along the horizon (see figure 4), and another can be seen on Amarillo’s website, where a herd of longhorns is pictured. Bowie, in North Texas, uses a cartoon longhorn on its brochure. Similar to the longhorn, rodeo bulls appear in ads, notably those for Cleburne, Midland and Temple (rodeo is the official state sport of Texas). Horned lizards also get representation in Texas place marketing. Eastland’s website features a cartoon version of a horned lizard, with a photograph of one further down the page. Finally, Sweetwater advertises the Rattlesnake Roundup, an event celebrating the deadly snake commonly associated with Texas deserts.

10. Territory

It seems obvious to say, but just as important as the symbols associated with a place is the place itself. Or, to be more specific, the ways that place marketers represent the landscape and geographic features of their location.

***The state map/outline*.**

One way for place marketers to associate a location geographically with the state narrative is to show a map of the state. The state outline, as we expected, allows consumers to put the place relative to other locations. In the case of Texas, however, the shape or outline of the state's borders is very distinctive and well known (Francaviglia, 1995), so that it may not even be as important to show a city's specific location as much as it is to simply show that it is part of Texas. Francaviglia also points out that the shape of Texas is particularly well-suited for logos and graphics because it is nearly as tall as it is wide, making it ideal for fitting inside squares and circles. Brochures for Athens, Groesbeck, Clifton, Marfa, Graham and Vernon provide the simplest examples, merely featuring a picture of the state's outline. Often, though, it features more creatively. A previously mentioned brochure for Granbury shows a pair of rocking chairs on a veranda, with the state's outline cut into the back of each chair. Ads and brochures for Lubbock replace the letter "o" with a Texas-shaped cattle brand. Another brochure, for Mesquite, features a Texas-shaped photo-collage. Marketers for the "Texas Blueberry Festival," meanwhile, arrange blueberries into the shape of Texas.

"Typical" state scenery.

Another way to geographically associate with the state narrative is through the landscape. Photographs of scenery and landscapes are very popular in tourism promotion (Jenkins, 2003). Scenery usually associated with Texas includes the deserts and prairies of West Texas and the Panhandle Plains, commonly represented in films and other visual media, like *Giant, No Country for Old Men,* and *There Will Be Blood.* One can realistically expect that a state of Texas's size should encompass more than two types of landscape. In addition to deserts and prairies, more variety can be found in wooded East Texas, along the beaches of the Gulf coast, and in the aptly named Hill Country. A brochure for Fort Davis, located in West Texas, features scenes one would expect to see in a cowboy movie: Rolling hills and low, craggy mountains, covered in bushes and small trees. Nearby Alpine also features desert mountains in its own ad. One more example can be found in the Amarillo visitor guide where the front page displays only a red-rock desert canyon scene. On top of the narrow range of represented landscapes, these photos often maintain an appearance of timelessness by leaving out signs of modern development – roads, telephone lines, and even people themselves. When development does find its way into the picture, it is often presented in a way that minimizes its modernity. The brochure for the town of Marathon, in remote West Texas, features a wide-angle photo with a road stretching toward a very small town in the distance. Along the road is a weathered fence made of irregularly shaped wooden posts and barbed wire.

11. Social-Historical Mythology

One important thing to remember about the Texas narrative is its grounding in an antiquated way of life, specifically westward settlement and an economy based on cattle ranching and, later, oil drilling (*Texas Almanac*, 2008/2009). The myth persists even though daily life in Texas now includes highway commutes and a service-based economy. Place marketers use this strong pre-established brand identity to their advantage, introducing the cowboy theme by breaking it down into smaller parts. Cowboys themselves, the horses they ride, the clothes they wear, and the tools they use are several broad categories into which most cowboy imagery seems to fit, with the latter three breaking down the myth into smaller symbolic icons.

Cowboys.

More than the ranchers themselves, cowboys have become the iconic symbol of the cattle industry and, by extension, the state of Texas. Therefore, it should be no surprise that Texas place marketers commonly use pictures of cowboys in their advertisements and brochures. These images vary, from photos of historically authentic models to cartoonish caricatures. When it comes to historical authenticity, Georgetown, located in the Hill Country, provides a strong example. The city's brochure features a re-enacted cattle drive with at least seven mounted "cowboys" visible in the photograph. Another example is the city of Vernon, whose brochure depicts a cowboy silhouetted against the sky, tossing his lasso while riding a horse; Vernon's slogan is "A great place to hang your hat". An advertisement for Odessa, meanwhile, contains a close-up shot of a grizzled old man wearing a cowboy hat.

The image is more subtle, but the effect is the same as the others. Besides photographs, cowboy cartoons also appear in many Texas place advertisements. Flomot County, for example, uses a cartoon mascot named Pease River Pete, a cowboy with a hat too big for his head and boots too tall for his legs. Marketers for Victoria, a city near the Gulf coast, use a similar mascot on the front of their town's brochure. Even Clute, a coastal town, has a cartoon cowboy in its brochure, though it is different from most others. The city's mascot is a mosquito dressed in cowboy attire, in honor of the annual mosquito festival held there. Another example is Bandera, the self-proclaimed "Cowboy Capital of the World." Their brochure uses many cowboy images, included two pictures of mounted "cowboys" and one with children dressed as cowboys. Across the top rides a silhouetted cowboy.

Cowboy-related imagery.

Similar to the idea of breaking down the state flag into colors and the Lone Star icon, many advertisements and brochures for Texas locations deconstruct the cowboy into a collection of related images. Cowboys consist of many more elements than the flag, so there are a wider variety of smaller icons that convey the cowboy and Western mythology. These smaller icons include things like denim, leather, rope, horseshoes, wide-brimmed "cowboy" hats, boots, cattle brands, guns and belt buckles. In the caricatured cowboys listed above, these elements feature more prominently than the person wearing them.

The simplest example might be Fort Stockton, whose marketers chose to use rope as a border around sections of photos and text. Ads for the city of Paris feature a cowboy hat atop the city's replica Eiffel Tower, while Grapevine, the "Christmas Capital of Texas," shows Santa Claus wearing a cowboy hat. In Vernon's brochure the marketers placed a cowboy hat on the town's name. Another example is the logo for Amarillo. The city's marketers turned the city's double-"L" into a pair of cowboy boots. In another brochure, the "g" in "Kingsville" has been changed to look like a boot spur. Marketers for Cleburne, meanwhile, used a logo shaped like a cattle brand, employing a play on words to give the town's founding date: "Branded in 1867". These symbols are generally used in photos and text, but some cowboy components cannot be so simply displayed. Textured backgrounds provide another way to convey a desired theme by tying together unlike images and scenes, placing them in the context of the narrative. For example, rather than showing a pair of blue jeans, the marketers for Kerrville use a denim-textured background with a red paisley bandana. The brochures for Hico and Kingsville similarly employ wood-grain and leather backgrounds. Last is Kyle, whose marketers opted for a little bit of everything: Swatches of canvas, planks of wood and strips of leather adorn the front and back panels of the city's brochure, while leather separates each of the inner panels, which themselves are made to look like aged paper. The interesting thing is that even when cowboys are not depicted graphically in the ads, they are still referred to in festival names. For example, Marfa hosts the "Cowboy Rendezvous", Amarillo the "Cowboy Roundup, USA" event, and Alpine the "Texas Cowboy Pottery Gathering".

Historic Sites.

Another, more direct way for place marketers to tie their locations to the Texas narrative is to feature historic sites. Marketers who use historic icons provide concrete evidence that their place exists in the context of the narrative, and perhaps has an important place within the state's mythology. In Texas, the classical example is the Alamo in San Antonio. However, marketers in other towns and cities often make sure historic buildings and event sites display prominently in ads, festivals and brochures. A good example is the brochure for Gonzales. It shows a total of 17 historic houses and public buildings such as a church, courthouse and jail, while the text tells the story of "the first shot fired for Texas independence." Others can be found in Denton, Weatherford and Hillsboro. These cities' marketers decided to feature their respective courthouses as the main graphic in advertisements and brochures. In the case of Denton, the courthouse appears in several different ads. Waxahachie goes a step further, explicitly stating in its slogan: "Come for the history, stay for the charm"; Terrell uses the headline: "Simple pleasures – Historic treasures"; and Huntsville says: "Where history is just the beginning." It seems as though marketers believe that in order to generate tourism there is a need to emphasis the place's relevance to state history. In fact, these marketers use history as the "carrot" in order to attract potential tourists, and then to offer them pleasures and charm. In addition, festivals can also be based around local historic sites and events, such as the "Battle of Port Jefferson Reenactment" in Jefferson. Others appeal more generally to history, such as Austin's "Republic of Texas Biker Rally."

12. Summary and Discussion

Using brochures and advertisements, we have provided a host of examples to show how marketers of small cities and towns use combinations of four different components to associate their places to the Texas narrative: the state flag, history, symbols and territory. The findings show that the narrative is an essential component of Texas place marketing.

Many cities and towns use the different components of the Texas narrative in order to emphasize that they can provide the real Texas experience that the tourists are seeking. Nevertheless, it should also be pointed out that while city marketers use icons like the state flag and state outline, one should not expect the "Texas experience" to be any bigger or stronger in a particular location. As in the case of promoting the Old West, where marketers blur the lines between fact and fiction (Penaloza, 2001), Texas icons also represent abstract concepts and lead us to ask: What promises are conveyed beyond a vague invocation of Texasnicity? Though visitors are confronted with these icons throughout the state, it is almost impossible to experience these icons, to use or touch them in a unique way. Small-town marketers use icons that reflect the state myth but, on the other hand, do not reflect or connect in many cases to the locations' characteristics or current reality. Of course, there is room to argue that there need not be any direct connection between myth and reality. "Marketing," said Gotham (2002: 1735), "is the use of sophisticated advertising techniques aimed at promoting fantasy, manipulating consumer needs, (and) producing desirable tourist experiences…" This sentence seems to sum up well the marketing campaigns of many remote cities in Texas.

In order to understand the centrality of the Texas narrative in place marketing, it would be worth analyzing how Texas was marketed over the years to attract out-of-state tourism. It is not surprising to see common use of the icons discussed when the goal is to differentiate Texas from other US states (The Market Texas Tourism Division, 2003). Even the state slogan, "It's like a whole other country," reinforces this positioning. From the analysis of tourism statistics, it turns out that Texas has consistently been a top US tourist destination over the past decade and that this statistic is perhaps testimony to the strength of its statewide brand identity (The Market Texas Tourism Division, 2003). In addition, we were surprised to discover that many of the ads and brochures in our sample are also consumed by local residents. This finding leads us to believe that remote cities' marketers probably assume that the narrative is suitable also for Texans, primarily urban residents of the four large metropolitan areas, who associate the narrative with rural life, a slower pace, freedom, cowboys, and open space (Penazola, 2001).

The intensive use of Texas narrative components indicates that advertising has become a substitute for other discourses that were formerly central in formulating the social-cultural identity and local mythology. In the past, theater shows, press, movies and TV series were dominant in promoting local narrative (Clemons, 2008) but today promotional tools like advertising, brochures and websites are the core (Avraham & Daugherty, 2009).

In this article we presented those elements that are included in the Texan narrative, but there is definitely room for a future study that will address the question of who and what is not included in it; which themes and groups are included in the narrative and which are absent. As we know, part of the Western narrative, upon which the Texas narrative is based, is about the white man's struggle to liberate the land from Native Americans and Mexicans (Penaloza, 2001). But how does this fit with the influx of Mexican immigrants in Texas, who should in theory at least be potential customers for the marketed tourist destinations? Future studies need to address this question. In addition, since the current study concentrates on analyzing messages of promotional material, future studies can be production research that will concentrate on the considerations behind the Texas marketers' decisions regarding the cities' promotion strategies and their target audience's perception. Another future study could examine the consumer and focus on the three levels of values - education, entertainment and business – on which the state narrative can be consumed.

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MYTH OF CROATIAN & DALMATIAN HOSPITALITY IN TOURISM IN THE CASE OF ZADAR REGION

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Abstract

Tourism in Croatia is a kind of unique economic area that has witnessed substantiated growth in last fifteen years of Croatia's independent participation to Mediterranean and global tourism activities. It presents important contribution (13-15 percent) to nations GDP with aim to upgrade this percentage up to 18-20 percent in next decade. During last couple of decades hospitality as one of the most important part of tourism system and its host – guest relationship paradigm, has received increasing attention within academic tourism community, as well as in the „tourism theater" itself. The global process of deskilling within tourism, hospitality and leisure work represents considerable danger for maintenance of integrated quality management of host – guest relations. It can be argued that in twenty-first century dream and experience „factory" that is tourism system there is growing need for reskilling of front-line travel and hospitality workers. And it goes for both, hard skills and soft skills within all employees - white and blue collar personnel involved in creation of memorable tourism experiences. The need for highly developed and flexible social skills of tourism professionals, agents and front-line personnel has been detected in Croatian's tourism sector during last couple of years. Ministry of Tourism and Croatian National Tourist Board have organized some activities with aim to emphasize the importance of human factor in tourism system but those activities have resulted with insufficient improvements and/or enforcement of hospitality within all actors in tourism system.

This paper examines the myth of Dalmatian hospitality that has been present since the beginning of Croatia's recorded tourism history. A survey was conducted on sample of front-line workers within different tourism sectors. The aim of this paper is to provide valuable insight that will demonstrate the need for further development of global awareness of the necessity for serious work on the art of being hospitable.

Keywords: myth, tourism, hospitality

At the beginning of the twenty-first century tourism academic community and especially those engaged in tourism research accept the fact that myths and myths creation participate within systematic analysis and understanding of tourism system within complex dynamics of socioeconomic relations, rules and political structures which are in continuous change. Nowdays, myths are an important part of the global tourism, as well as intrinsic element of many new specific types of tourism like creative tourism, cultural tourism, responsible tourism, green tourism and so forth.

Since the ancient age with Greek and Roman mythology, until the modern times with major religions such as Christianity, Islam or Hinduism, myths have a major influence in the human religious mobility. In late modern period religious mobility has been gradually replaced by tourism mobility and nowdays by specifical types of tourism mobility like cultural tourism. As Greg Richards point out „Cultural tourism has become recognised as an important agent of economic and social change in Europe" (1996 : 10). Thus, cultural tourism has become an important subset of global tourism as major agent of intercultural communication. „Cultural consumption has grown, and tourism is an increasingly important form of cultural consumption, encouraged and funded by local, national and supranational bodies" (Richards, 1996 : 10). Cultural tourism includes travel and visiting of both, urban and rural regions and sites as they offer increasingly wide arrays of tangible and intangible cultural heritage able to inform, educate and change cultural visitors. A kind of conceptual definition of cultural tourism could be as follows: Cultural tourism is intentional mobility of individuals and groups motivated to visit specific cultural attractions with the aim to gather knowledge and happiness generating experience of memorable and/or transforming nature. This specific kind of tourism mobility is becoming more and more popular throughout the world, and The World Tourism Association (UNWTO) asserts that cultural tourism accounts for 37% of global tourism, and forecast that it would grow at a rate of 15% per year (Available at: www2.unwto.org/ [Accessed 13 January 2013]). Within cultural tourism a large number of tourists travel around the world motivated not only by tangible cultural attractions or historic sites but also by myths of other cultures and other time-space universes. It can be argued that a great deal of cultural tourism motivators could be found by analyzing the mythology of the four different cultural periods that formed the meaning of what we call today Europe: Greco-Roman, Judeo-Christian, Celtic and German-Nordic. Each of these mythological structures makes their contribution to the formation of the modern idea of cultural tourism.

If we consult some of global dictionaries we can find that myth is a story, an event and belief that bears a value. A myth serves to explain the origin of the group of individuals usually of the same origin, the place of that partially mythically generated group in the world, as well as its relationship to other groups of people. Consequently a myth serves to explain, illustrate and exemplify the moral values and attitudes that are venerated by the group or society. Merriam – Webster Dictionary explains that myth is

> 1. a usually traditional story of ostensibly historical events that serves to unfold part of the world view of a people or explain a practice, belief, or natural phenomenon;
> 2. a popular belief or tradition that has grown up around something or someone (Available at www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/myth [Accessed 2 January 2013])

In the same dictionary one can find that myth is

> traditional story of ostensibly historical events that serves to unfold part of the worldview of a people or explain a practice, belief, or natural phenomenon. Myths relate the events, conditions, and deeds of gods or superhuman beings that are outside ordinary human life and yet basic to it. These events are set in a time altogether different from historical time, often at the beginning of creation or at an early stage of prehistory. A culture's myths are usually closely related to its religious beliefs and rituals. (Available at www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/myth [Accessed 2 January 2013])

Quite closely with the above mentioned definition of myth, in one other global dictionary one can read that myth is

> 1. A traditional, typically ancient story dealing with supernatural beings, ancestors, or heroes that serves as a fundamental type in the worldview of a people, as by explaining aspects of the natural world or delineating the psychology, customs, or ideal of society
> 2. A popular belief or story that has become associated with a person, institution or occurrence, especially one considered to illustrate a cultural ideal (Available at www.thefreedictionary.com/myth [Accessed 3 January 2013])

Evidently, the strenght of myths in the human existence is so conspicuous that one can only agree that no people, nation or culture can exist without mythological creation of some elements of its identity. In order to understand and accept important parts of their identity, for many people myths are more than simple stories told during leisure time, myths help to form a people's worldview and their concepts of reality and absurdity of events that happen in society and the natural world. As it is nicely explained in the Dictionary of Semiotics:

> In today's culture, the term myth has adopted a wider significance. We talk of bourgeois myths generated by the mass media. In this sense, products or ideas are understood and promoted to confirm and reinforce a particular view of the world and its values. Finally, the term myth is also used simply to indicate a figment of the imagination or a commonly held belief without foundation (2000: 90)

For so many people myths are associated to their explanation of historical events and cornerstones that shaped their social and cultural identity. Without myths and relying only on the rationale to explain and understand existance, it would be so difficult and even sometimes mission impossible. That is the case of mythical croatian hospitality within tourism system, an idea that is as old as Croatian tourism itself. Like others, this myth accomplishes something that has important signification for Croatian tourism system. Segal (2004) emphasise that myth has always something quite significant, nevertheless the story is from the past, or from the present or even the future. Here is what this author thinks about different approaches to the myth
Each discipline harbours multiple theories of myth. Strictly, theories of myth are theories of some much larger domain, with myth a mere subset. For example, anthropological theories of myths are theories of culture applied to the case of myth. Psychological theories of myth are theories of the mind. Sociological theories of

myth are theories of society. There are no theories of myth itself, for there is no discipline of myth as myth. (Segal, 2004: 2)

Within tourism academic community, myth and myth creation has been largely approached during last few decades. Chris Cooper points out that „tourism is surrounded by a number of myths which have contributed unrealistically to its glamorous image" (2008: 4). Here are some myths and realities enlisted by the same author:

> Myth: The majority of tourism in the world is international.
> Reality: Tourism in the world is predominantly domestic (people traveling in their own country). Domestic tourism accounts for about 80 % of tourist trips.
>
> Myth: Most tourism journeys in the world are by air as tourists jet-set from country to country.
> Reality: The majority of trips are by surface transport (mainly by car).
>
> Myth: Tourism is only about leisure holidays.
> Reality: Tourism includes all types of purpose of visit, including business, conference and education. (Cooper, 2008: 4)

It can be argued that during last four decades, the importance of myth has been widely accepted by agents of management and marketing of tourism products and services. One can witness the proliferation of *staged mythification* within marketing of tourist destinations with aim to reach and maintain competitiveness at regional and/or global level. A renaissance of ancient traditional myths and their commodification for tourism market as well as staged mythification of some newly created myths related to recent events or accomplishments is quite obvious. What is of extreme importance to the sustainability of tourism myths is the element of its acceptance. It is the compliance to one myth that makes him an important asset for value adding process within tourism system. Only the willingness to accept one myth and to give it a certain moral and cultural value from the part of local people enable that myth to play an important role within marketing and branding of destination. That is how legendary Croatian hospitality lives and has survived against all, during the period of its turbulente history.

There are other authors who also wrote about myth within tourism system and they should be mentioned in this paper. Pran Nath Seth (2008) also summarises the importance of relation between myths and facts, evoking following myths and realities:

1. Travel and tourism is a non-essential, mass activity of affluent people in developed countries.
In fact, tourism, as defined by the WTO in 1992, is an integral part of the lives of many populations, for business, social, cultural, religious, and recreational reasons as well as holidays. In some countries and many regions, it is an essential economic activity; it may be the larges earner of foreign currency, providing the essential economic underpinning of the local populations employment and welfare services.

2. Tourism's major environmental impact is damage to developing countries.
In fact, over 80 percent of the world's international tourism occurs between developed countries, which also generate the bulk of domestic tourism. Package tourism to developing countries is probably under 5 percent of the world travel and tourism as defined by WTO in 1992 and as measured by WTTC in the same year.

3. Eco-tourism is the only logical, sustainable response to the environmental impacts of travel and tourism.
In fact, eco-tourism – that is tourism with the specific motive of enjoying wildlife or undeveloped natural areas – can make only a marginal, though important, contribution because of the limited nature of its market. Without careful management it is no more sustainable than other forms of tourism development, and it may cause more problems than it solves. The true target for better performance and a globally relevant contribution must be the core 95 percent of the world's travel and tourism.

4. Comprehensive planning regulations and control are the only way to curb the environmental exploitations of travel and tourism.
In fact, there is no evidence that politicians, lawyers, sociologists, and enforcement agencies have the necessary knowledge of the complexities of the modern international business of travel and tourism. They are in no position to use „control and command" techniques to secure sustainable tourism development. At best, they can control supply by establishing

> barriers, but they cannot positively influence the future of international demand. In its position paper, the WTTC attempted to show the realities of the travel and tourism response to environmental issues. It agrees that evidence obtained from the databases of the World Travel and Tourism Environment Research Centre (WTTERC) indicated that transnational companies are increasingly moving toward addressing their environmental impacts and developing programs to improve their environment performance. The report analyses the progress made by leading companies and shows what has been achieved by a range of trave and tourism companies in response to the major environmental issues. (pp 123-124)

And this „silent clash“ between myths and facts within tourism system continues futhermore. Because, apart of visiting tangible cultural heritage cultural tourist is highly motivated to hear the story that goes with visited site or attraction. And today, when globalization and homogenization processes are already active for many decades, the *authentic fake* is greatly replacing genuine artefacts, cultural tourist are even more keen to hear the story or the myth that will eventually reveal its authenticity. As summarized by McKercher and du Cross (2002)

> A number of tactics are available to transform a cultural asset into a consumable tourism product:
> - Mythologize the asset
> - Build a story around the asset
> - Emphasize its otherness
> - Show a direct link from the past to the present
> - Make it triumphant
> - Make it a spectacle
> - Make it a fantasy
> - Make it fun, light, and entertaining (p 128)

Those are some of the tactics that with efficacious combination of tactic, site or attraction, type of cultural tourist, type of markers, can produce satisfying and memorable experience that can improve the image of visited destination or attraction. In a numerous combination of visiting genuine and staged attractions and sites all over the fluid tourism universe, the narrative part of visiting experience becomes quite important. McKercher and du Cross (2002) state that „mythologizing an asset transforms it from mundane to the extraordinary and converts a physical asset into a place of spiritual or secular significance“ (p 129). By adding an engaging story or breathtaking myth to visitors experience destination manager can undoubtedly count that visitors can feel that visited destination or site has generated happiness and/or educational element to its thorough sensation of the travel experience. According to McKercher and du Cros (2002)

> Two tactics are available in mythologizing an asset: tying it to existing myths or creating a new myth. The first option is easier, for national myths tend to be known and are often focused around precise geographic locations. It is, therefore, easier to create an association between a place and an existing strong myth. (...) Creating new myths is difficult unless some form of mass media promotion of the myth occurs or unless the destination has undergone a paradigmatic social or political shift away from existing myths (p 129).

Weather the agent of myth creation is destination management company, resort management or regional and sometimes national tourist board, it can be argued that it is an important and widely accepted strategy for achieving competitive advantage. It has been argued by McKercher and du Cross (2002)

> Mythmaking is still very much in evidence, for example, in post-colonial countries and postcommunist countries, where it is in the best political interest of government to create new national myths that establish new identities that are distinct from their former identities (p 129).

The main point and perspective of this paper is to investigate the myth of Croatian hospitality within Zadar tourism sector. Zadar Tourism region and Zadar tourism personnel are exemplary of wide Croatian tourism personnel and can be surveyed as model for national level. As summarized by Chris Rojek (2005)

> Myth is a psychological and social activity which reconciles contradiction and unifies individuals into a sense of collective identity. An ideology is generally articulated by a dominant social and political group and is therefore imposed upon a community. A myth is a general feature of collective identity that applies to all social strata organized within this category. (p 45)

Zadar is an mythical Mediterranean city built in the center of the Croatian Adriatic. Zadar appeared for the first time in history in the 7th century B.C. During its existance it was for 7 centuries the home of the Ilyrian tribe of Liburnians and for 1000 years the capital of Dalmatia. Today, Zadar is the urban center of northern Dalmatia with 75000 inhabitants. Tourist attraction of Zadar is also based on the combination of cultural tourism, yachting tourism, various types of accommodation and catering services, mediteranean atmosphere, charming beaches and promenades, excursions to closer and further surroundings, as well as interesting cultural, artistic and entertainment events and programs and, on especially valuable cultural and historical monuments. There are three urban characteristics giving it a special physiognomy: street-nets built by the Roman architects, a surrounding bulwark built by the Venetians in the 16th C., and the New Waterfront built in the 19th C. The historical part of Zadar is fascinating to all those who like historical monuments and cultural heritage. The church of St. Donat, the symbol of the city, is a must see in each itinerary, as well as the Permanent Exhibition of Sacral Art with about a thousand valuable exhibits from the past centuries, known under the popular name The Gold and Silver of Zadar. In numerous restaurants and taverns of Zadar tourists should taste home-made specialities that evoke feelings of Mediterranean heritage. Among drinks, the first place belongs to the famous liqueur Maraskino. As early as the 19th century, this unique Zadar liqueur was a favourite drink at European courts (London, Paris, Vienna, Moscow, etc.) and has been produced in Zadar since 1821.

The most important advantages that the Zadar tourist sector can use in the promotion of its destination are its preserved nature and environment, rich cultural and historical heritage, mild Mediterranean climate, proximity of European markets and long-established tradition of tourism.

On the other hand, one of the biggest problems facing tourism in Zadar is the short tourist season. Despite efforts to diversify, Zadar remains predominantly a sun and beach destination. The relatively narrow tourism offer means that the areas of natural beauty within Zadar region are still the main attractions. For Zadar tourism, high seasonality creates an immense strain on the infrastructure, which need to be developed to support high volume of tourists for short periods of time (3-4 months) but is then underused for the rest of the year.

1. Methodology of research

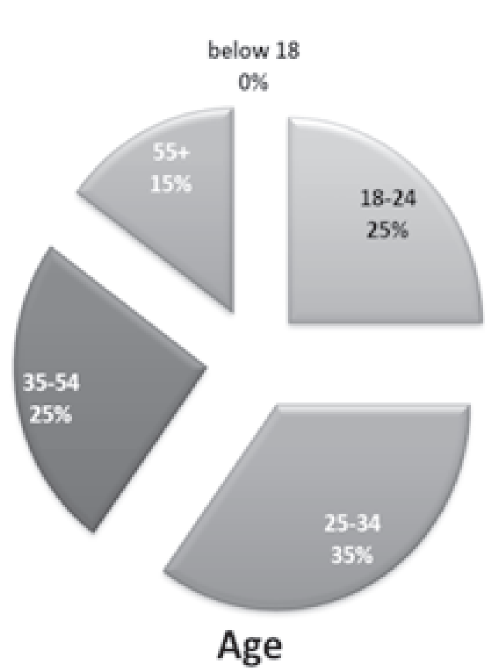
Within the structure of this paper, a small research was conducted on a specific sample of employees and professionals within Zadar tourism sector. Sampling was conducted with the idea to encompass the most of employees and professionals within tourism that come in direct contact with tourists and visitors. Research was realised electronically by anonymous questionnaire that was sent by email to personnal email address. The questionnaire was sent to 60 tourism professionals with a 70 percent response rate. The questionnaire tried to answer the research question weather the myth of Croatian hospitality is genuine or inadequate within Zadar tourism sector. The questionnaire was composed of three parts. First part of questionnaire investigated some personal informations about participants like their age, gender, education level and working status. In the second part of questionnaire participants were asked to evaluate and range the element of hospitality within several different tourism jobs that are mainly characterized by the fact that employees come in direct contact with tourists and visitors. Finally, in the third part of questionnaire, participants were asked to evaluate the element of hospitality in correlation with other elements important for tourist experience and satisfaction.

The research results were processed by Microsoft program Excel and explained by methods of descriptive statistics, chart illustrated.

2. Research results

In a sample of respondents the same percentage of them were in the age range between 18-24 and 35-54 (25%) which shows the accurate range of employees within tourism sector. The most of respondents are in the age range 25-34 (35%), and there are some 15 percent of respondents more than 55 years (15%).

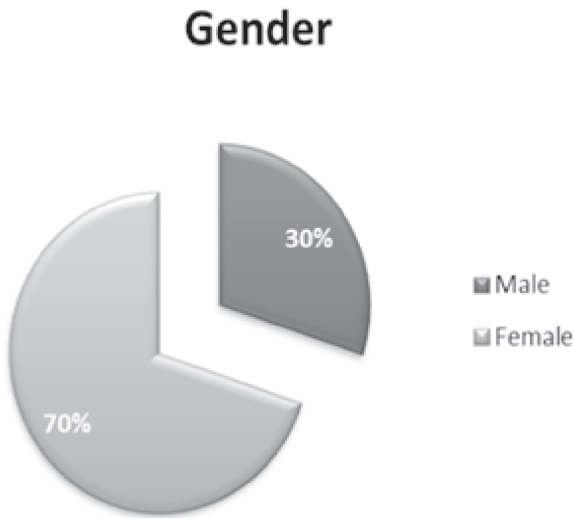
Chart 1



Source: own research

In a sample of respondents there were 70 percent of women and 30 percent of men which shows that female gender dominates so called front desk management within tourism system. Women are mainly those professionals who comes in direct contact with tourists.

Chart 2



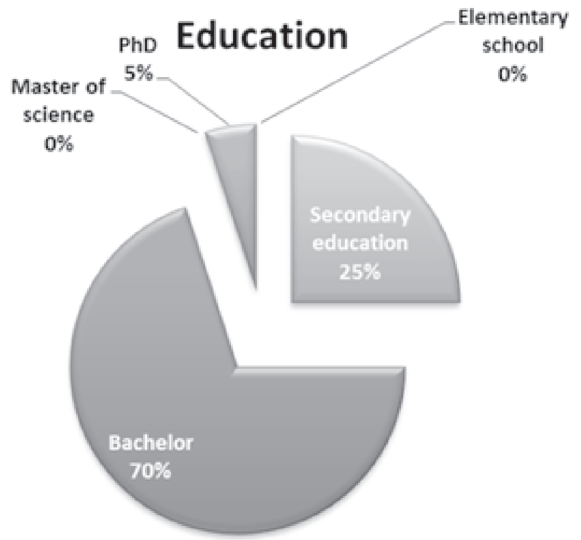
Source: own research

The results show that seasonality within Zadar tourist sector is one of the highest in Croatia. Only 35 percent of respondents are full time employees within tourism sector, and all others are either occasionally employed (40%) or seasonal employees – 23 percent of them are working in between 4-6 months and only 2 percent within the time scale of 2-3 months per year.

Chart 3

Source: own research

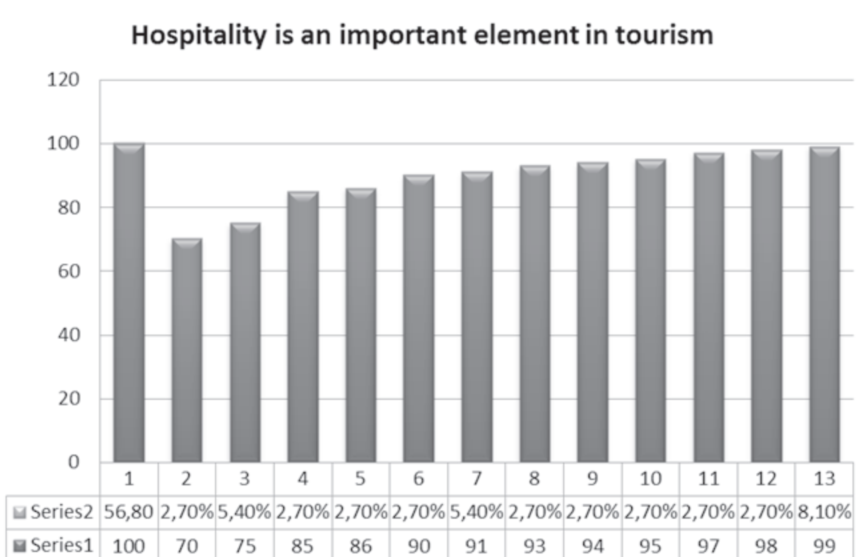
Chart 4



Source: own research

The results show that 25 percent of respondents have secondary education level and that university level and higher has the sample of 75 percent of respondents.

Chart 5



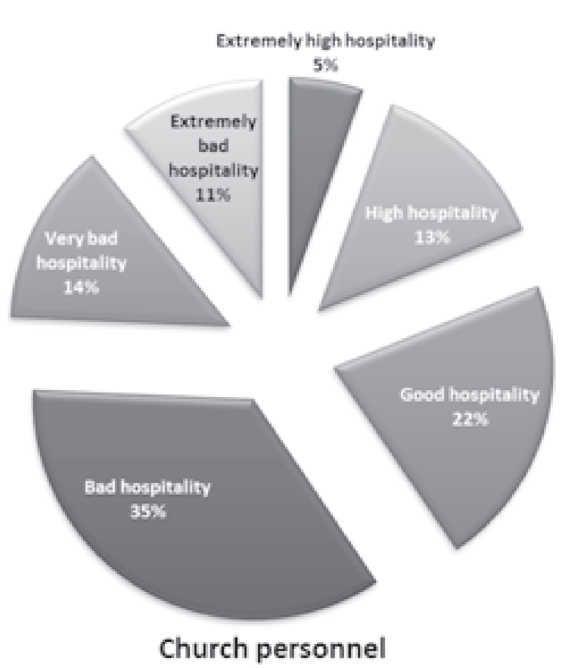
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Series2	56,80	2,70%	5,40%	2,70%	2,70%	2,70%	5,40%	2,70%	2,70%	2,70%	2,70%	2,70%	8,10%
Series1	100	70	75	85	86	90	91	93	94	95	97	98	99

Source: own research

In the fifth chart it may be observed that almost all respondents answered that hospitality plays an important role within tourism system. 56,8 percent of respondents gave maximum note (100) to the importance of hospitality and 8,10 percent decided that it is almost 100 percent important.

It may be argued that respondents understant and feel that the quality of products and services within tourism market is not the only one that matters, but also the way how those tangible elements of tourism relationship (products and services) are delivered in an intangible manner to consumers. What is of the outmost importance for that intangible element of tourism experience production is the harmonious synergy of ambience, environment, kindness, generosity, attitudes and behaviour of tourism professionals that is fluidly creating their skill of being hospitable. Although relativelly high percentage of good, high and very high hospitality, it can be argued that it is still not enough to ensure qualitative value adding process within creation of overall tourist experience of visited destination, site or attraction. It may turn to insufficient when comparing to concurrent destinations on global level. Further education and specific skills training are required.

Chart 6



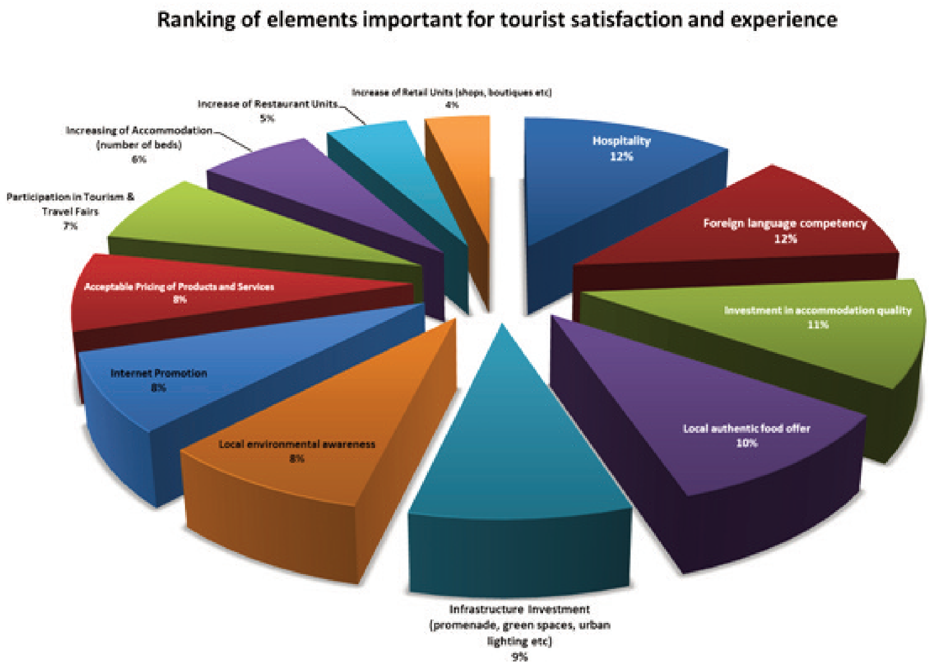
Source: own research

As it can be estimated from the chart number 6, personnel and employees within sacral institutions and attractions that belong to Zadar's cultural and historical heritage have been extremely differently evaluated by respondents. There have been 5 percent of respondent that have ranked church personnel as with extremely high hospitality. But the other side of the coin is quite disturbing for Zadar tourism development, since 11 percent of respondents estimated church personnel as with extremely bad hospitality. And this goes further on: 13 percent of respondents said that church personnel has high hospitality level while 14 percent of them said that they have very bad hospitality. Finally, 22 percent of respondents estimated church personnel as with good hospitality level, and, unfortunately, 35 percent of respondents said that they are characterized with bad hospitality level. Results that have been approached show that one extremely important element of Zadar tourism system, that is its Catholic Church and its sacral heritage, are labeled with unsatisfactory and inadequate hospitality skills. If we can remember what has been said about tourism by Pope John Paul II on a visit to WTO agency in Madrid in 1982 „Tourism is not only a normal and current act of economic consumption, it is a value in itself "

(Available at: www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=13845&Cr=Pope&Cr1 [Accessed 6 January 2013]), than surely it can be argued that this value of tourism is somehow forgotten in Zadar. The same Pope John Paul II also said in his final annual message for World Tourism Day in 2004 that „Tourism improves relationships between individuals and people; when those relationships are cordial, respectful and based on solidarity they constitute, as it were, an open door to peace and harmonious coexistence".

(Available at: www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=13845&Cr=Pope&Cr1 [Accessed 6 January 2013]). Those are wise and imortal words of John Paul II that should be remembered *ad vitam*.

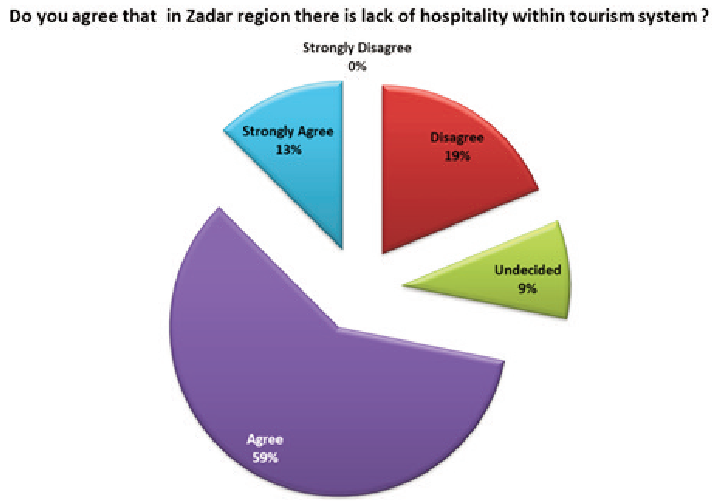
Chart 7



Source: own research

As it can be assessed from the chart 7, respondents had no doubt about the importance of hospitality for tourist satisfaction and their final experience of visited destination, cultural site and attraction. All respondents decided that hospitality and foreign language competency are the most important factors for successful tourism business. After hospitality and foreign language, respondents said that investment in accommodation quality is on second place of importance; respondents said that local authentic food is at third place of importance; at the fourth place respondents ranked infrastructure investement (promenade, green spaces, urban lightings, etc); the fifth place was occupied by local environmental awareness; the sixth place was dedicated to internet promotion; the seventh place was designed to acceptable pricing of products and services; the eight place by importance occupied participation in tourism & travel fairs; the ninth place was reserved for increasing of accommodation; respondents decided that to the tenth place it should be increase of restaurant units and finally to the last place of importance, respondents ranked increase of retail units. It can be argued from the chart that respondents are aware of the importance of hospitality within tourism business.

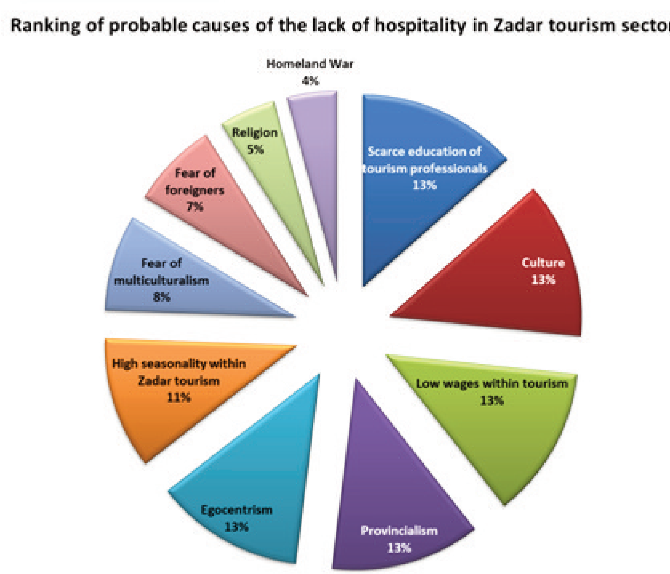
Chart 8



Source: own research

In the chart 8, it can be seen that 59 percent of respondent think that hospitality is lacking element within Zadar tourist region; 13 percent of respondents said that the strongly agree with the statement that in Zadar region there is lack of hospitality within tourism system, and only 19 percent of respondents disagree with the same statement while 9 percent of them remained undecided.

Chart 9



Source: own research

As it can be evaluated from chart 9, to the question to rank probable causes of the lack of hospitality in Zadar tourism sector, at the same first place respondents have equally ranked scarce education of tourism professionals, culture, low wages within tourism business, provincialism and egocentrism. After those five elements causing the missing of satisfactory hospitality level within Zadar tourism sector, comes high seasonality in Zadar tourism sector, fear of multiculturalism, fear of foreigners, religion, and at the last place of importance respondents ranked Homeland War. Although Homeland War was expected to be on higher level of importance regarding the causes of the lack of hospitality, the last position may be explained by the relativelly younger age of respondents, and therefore, missing of prewar experience of tourism activities and host-guest relationship. Also, one can observe that respondents think the local culture has an important impact on the lack of hospitality while, at the same time they think religion has one of the lowest role for the same shortage. Neverthless, religion is one of the basic constituent of local culture so it can be argued that there is an important inconsistency or, should it be reffered as bias within values and attitudes of respondents. Further research should be advised in order to find reasons for the mentioned inconsistency.

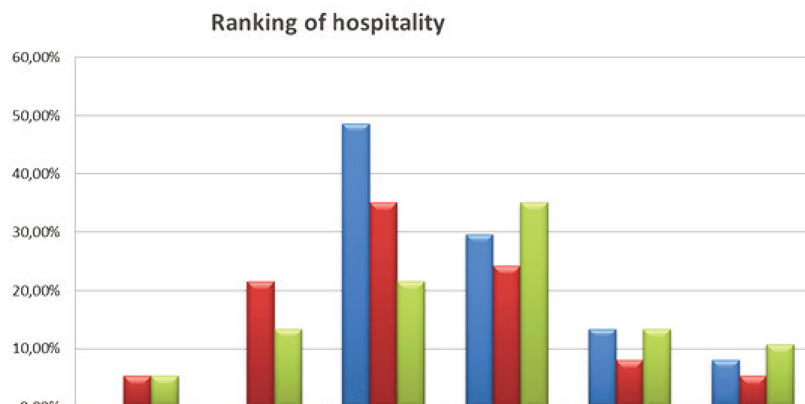
Chart 10

	Extremely high hospitality	High hospitality	Good hospitality	Bad hospitality	Very bad hospitality	Extremely bad hospitality
Market&Supermarket Cashier	0,00%	8,10%	43,20%	29,70%	13,50%	5,40%
Fruit Market salesperson	2,70%	43,20%	32,40%	18,90%	2,70%	0,00%
Gift Shop personnel	2,70%	10,80%	59,50%	21,60%	5,40%	0,00%

Source: own research

As it can be argued from the chart 11, market and supermarket cashier has the worst evaluation of hospitality level among three salespersons that are mainly in direct contact with tourists during season. At the same time, and surprisingly, fruit market salesperson has the highest level of hospitality. In between those two professions is gift shop personnel. It can be argued that those levels of hospitality are not enough for satisfactory conditions of host-guest relationship. Further education and improvement are required as well.

Chart 11



	Extremely high hospitality	High hospitality	Good hospitality	Bad hospitality	Very bad hospitality	Extremely bad hospitality
Policeman	0,00%	0,00%	48,70%	29,70%	13,50%	8,10%
Zadar Tourist Board personnel	5,40%	21,60%	35,10%	24,30%	8,10%	5,40%
Church personnel	5,40%	13,50%	21,60%	35,10%	13,50%	10,80%

Source: own research

As it can be analysed from the chart 27, no one of those three professions / institutions can even approach to satisfactory level of hospitality. Respondents have evaluated their hospitality level from extremely high to extremely bad hospitality and those discrepancies within the range offered to make an evaluation shows how fragile and inconsistent is the element of hospitality within above mentioned professions. Tourist Information Centre in Zadar as well as museum professionals are less good evaluated by respondents and it shows again that hospitality is rather a myth than a fact.

Chart 12

	Extremely high hospitality	High hospitality	Good hospitality	Bad hospitality	Very bad hospitality	Extremely bad hospitality
Travel Agency employee	2,70%	27,00%	59,50%	10,80%	0,00%	0,00%
Tourist Guide	8,10%	62,20%	27,00%	2,70%	0,00%	0,00%
Museum employee	0,00%	29,70%	51,40%	16,20%	2,70%	0,00%

Source: own research

In the chart 28 are listed three professions that have received the highest, although insufficient evaluation of their hospitality skills. Further and constant education is required within those as all other professions.

3. Conclusion

Without increased hospitality level of all actors within tourism system there is no evidence of an expanding quality of experience of visitors and tourists and hence, no possibility to create memorable or even transforming experience that will eventually generate higher revenue of tourism agents at all levels as well as competitive branding of tourist destination. As summarized by Ford and Heaton

> The success or failure of the guest experience may depend on how a single moment of truth between the hospitality employee and the guest is handled. Management's responsibility is to ensure that each moment of truth has been prepared for – has been managed – as well as humanly possible to yield a satifying, even outstanding, outcome for the guest (1999: 5)

With increase in real and virtual mobility, modern sophisticated travelers and post-tourists expect even more creative and skillful hospitality within tourist destinations and their competitive workforce. The fine difference between multitude of tourist regions, destinations and attractions can only be find in intangible elements of tourism experience production, including the skill of being hospitable. In todays tourism system, the „art of being hospitable“ is a kind of cornerstone of competitive success in tourism with aim to face global competition which functions on short run conditions due to increasing socioeconomic complexity of global conditions, global mobility as well as tourism market itself. If the skill of being hospitable is *conditio sine qua non* of tourism business and further development, than the art of being hospitable is the outmost achievement and key to sustainable competitiveness in tourism.

This paper has tried to evaluate weather the myth of Croatian hospitality is only sanitised and/or staged element of destination marketing and management, or it is an accurate and genuine factor within tourism system. Unfortunately, research results have shown that hospitality is rather a myth without strong alliance to the real situation in the tourism theatre of Zadar region. Further education of tourism professionals as well as all other professions that come in direct contact with visitors and tourists is required. Othervise, the myth of hospitality is going to remain an inaccurate myth and nothing else.

It can be argued that there is a deficiency in this paper, insofar the same questionnaire should be proposed to tourists and visitors as well. A comparative analysis of tourists and locals evaluation of the level of hospitality should be better analytical tool for academic approach to the myth of hospitality. The 21 century tourism business is going to further complicate the creation of satisfactory level of tourism experience, and destination managers as well as resort and site managers will face a rising hunger and quest for intangible elements within tourism products and services. Therefore, it can be argued that we are facing an expectancy alteration within tourism needs and motivation for travel. Intrinsically motivating elements, narrative and myths are going to further rearticulate spectacle and dream societies that generate the most of modern travelers in search for memorable and transforming experiences.

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"AN ILLUSION OF CULTURAL SUSTAINABILITY IN THE SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: CAN INTANGIBLE ASPECTS OF CULTURAL IDENTITY BE PRESERVED?"

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Culture has been considered an important aspect of sustainable development and mainly researched in the context of indigenous cultures and cultural heritage. Moreover, the promotion of cultural diversity and the preservation and conservation of tangible and intangible (local) cultural heritage have been regarded as an important principle of sustainable tourism development. However, culture's main characteristics such as fluidity, dynamism and constant change represent an obstacle to the notion of preservation especially regarding the intangible aspects of cultural identity. In addition, identity does not exist as a fixed entity but evolves over time. This article aims to question the principle of cultural sustainability in sustainable tourism development using research results of two case studies carried out in the Republic of Croatia as an interpretation platform for identity changes. The changes in the aspect of cultural identity such as customs and carnivals induced by tourism development were addressed using the examples of the Rabska fjera and the winter and summer carnivals in Senj.

Keywords: cultural sustainability, sustainable tourism development, cultural identity

JEL classification code: L83

1. Introduction

The relations between cultural sustainability and tourism emerged very recently as a research topic in the area of tourism research. This is not surprising considering the fact that cultural sustainability was the least researched concept in the 20th century. As positive and negative impacts of tourism activity on the local community became more transparent, both researchers and the local community, as well as tourism practitioners identified the need for sustainable development. Sustainable tourism development derives from the sustainable development theory and has identified how tourism can continue to provide high quality, low impact experiences (McKercher, 2003:8). Sustainable tourism concept is designed on a four pillar basis addressing economic, ecological, cultural and social sustainability. This paper aims to raise questions regarding principles of cultural sustainability in order to bridge the gap between theory and practice. The cases of *Rabska fjera* and the winter and summer carnivals in Senj represent deviant or extreme cases (Patton, 2002) and were used as an interpretation platform for identity changes in relation to tourism. Since culture is a very fluid social phenomenon and identity does not exist as a fixed entity (Barth, 1969; Hall, du Gay, 1999; Bauman, 2000, 2009; Jenkins, 2008), changes that occur are inevitable.

As "illusion" is defined as a perception of something objectively existing in such a way as to cause misinterpretation of its actual nature[1], it could be argued that the concept of cultural sustainability represents an illusion in relation to the theoretical notion of culture and identity. More accurately, the notion of preservation represents an illusion resulting from such sustainable tourism development principles which firmly advocate conservation of living local cultural heritage.

2. The concept of cultural sustainability

Cultural sustainability within the concept of sustainable development and the research driven by this topic was given the least attention until the early 21st century (Duxbury, Jeannotte, 2010). One of the reasons lies in the fact that cultural impacts are more easily seen in the long run and are therefore more difficult to measure (Mowforth, Munt, 2003). With global socio-cultural changes, the importance of culture has been raised and cultural sustainability has become the fourth pillar of the sustainable development concept (Hawkes, 2001). From the late 20th until the early 21st century, there were an increasing number of scientific papers on the topic of sustainable development where social and/or cultural sustainability constitute a

[1] Merriam Webster Online Dictionary. Illusion. An Ecyclopedia Britannica Company. Availabe at: http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/illusion [15.1.2013]

separate field of study (Dobell, 1998; Poles, Stren, 2000; Hawkes, 2001; Colantonio, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2011, Duxbury, Gillette, 2007). Doubleday, Mackenzie & Dalby argue that serious discussions of sustainability should start from the study of culture and cultural sustainability, as opposed to society and ecology (2004:389-390). The boundaries of the role and importance of culture in the concept of sustainable development in the field of science and politics are often blurred. The reason lies in various difficulties in research such as problems in defining the terms, inadequacy of quantitative indicators and the fact that culture is a dynamic process associated with other aspects of human activity. Some of the recommendations in the field of cultural sustainability research are shifted from the importance of the community and its ecological aspect to the importance of place and its close connection with complex cultural determinants. It is argued that serious discussions of sustainability require "considerations of the dynamics of complex cultural arrangements in particular places, rather than assumptions of either peoples or their ecological contexts" (Doubleday, Mackenzie, & Dalby, 2004:389).

Research topics in the field of cultural sustainability are different. Duxbury, Gillet (2007) singled out ten thematic groups:

1. Culture of sustainability - refers to people who are changing their habits and consumer behaviour towards more conscious way of life guided by the principles of sustainability.
2. Globalization - globalization processes versus localization, preserving local cultural identity, tradition and language from dominant cultures in the sense of education, community development and local policies in tuned with cultural values of the community.
3. Heritage conservation - a common theme of cultural sustainability research which includes three sub-categories:
    - Conservation of cultural heritage, practices and infrastructure;
    - Cultural tourism - preserving tangible and intangible cultural heritage provides tourism and regional economic development the long-term sustainability;
    - Revitalization and re-usage of old buildings for cultural purposes - the retention of existing space encourages sustainable development and a sense of place in community.
4. Sense of place - sustainability debates are focused on issues how culture contributes to a sense of place in communities and cities.
5. Indigenous knowledge and traditional practices - cultural sustainability is associated with the restoration and protection of the history, indigenous knowledge and culture

as well as traditional practices. It is linked to traditional practises through celebrating local and regional histories and passing down cultural values to future generations. Storytelling is often mentioned as a means of preserving indigenous knowledge and traditional practices.
6. Community Cultural development - is a form of sustainable development that promotes self-sufficient economy and local cultural policy.
7. Arts, education and youth - art as a means of development and communication in communities and schools, which boosts the effectiveness of teaching and research, and action towards sustainability and cultural development.
8. Sustainability design - eco-design that uses recycled materials become part of the urban and rural development planning.
9. Planning - Applying the principles of sustainability in urban and rural planning.
10. Cultural policy and local governance - based on the principles of sustainable development to improve the quality of life (2007; 10-12).

The management of cultural capital is closely related to the concept of cultural sustainability and development. Roseland et al. summarize the definition of cultural capital in terms of “tradition and values, heritage and place, the arts, diversity and social history.” (2005:12). These categories of cultural capital include both tangible and intangible aspects of cultural identity. Managing cultural capital is part of the development strategy for sustainable community development as well as sustainable tourism development. Sustainable community development goes beyond environmental practices and economic growth and aims to create a fair, impartial community on the basis of social and cultural diversity (Beatley & Manning, 1997; Roseland et al., 2005). UNESCO supports these attitudes and states: “Cultural diversity is a rich asset for both individuals and society. The protection, promotion and maintenance of cultural diversity is the basis for sustainable development and is used to present and future generations. “(2005:4). Sustainable community development is based on managing various types of natural, economic, social and cultural capital. Cultural capital is recently being considered an independent aspect and scientists who have been researching cases of community development in North America are in favour of a better understanding of cultural capital in the process of sustainable development (Beatley & Manning, 1997; Pike, 2003, Putnam, 2000; Roseland et al. 2005). The community’s cultural development includes “a wide range of activities that allow the community to tell their story, build their own creative skills and actively participate in the development of their own culture” (O’Hara, 2002:4). Community development based on the principle of cultural sustainability is part of the sustainable tourism development concept and cultural sustainability should be aligned with the principles of cultural development of the community.

There is no single definition of cultural sustainability as the nature of sustainability is multifaceted and the relationship between culture and sustainability is complex. Certain authors argue that the principles of cultural sustainability better describe the notion of cultural sustainability and Throsby (2003) uses them instead. Throsby identifies 6 such principles deriving from the definition of sustainable development given by the UN World Commission on Environment and Development in (The Brundtland Commission) 1987. They are as follows:

1. **Material and non-material well-being** is generated through the flow of cultural goods and services produced from cultural capital. The first criterion for assessing sustainability is thus the production of material benefits in the form of direct utility to consumers as well as non-material benefits in the form of non-market cultural goods whose value can be estimated in economic and cultural terms.

2. Intergenerational equity refers to fairness in the distribution of welfare, utility and resources between generations in general and specifically implies to the management of tangible and intangible cultural capital which was inherited from ancestry and which will be handed on to future generations.

3. **Intragenerational equity** asserts the rights of every person within the present generation to fairness in access to cultural resources and benefits flowing from cultural capital no matter of social class, income or location category a person falls into.

4. **Maintenance of cultural diversity** is important in maintaining cultural systems because diversity has the capacity to yield new capital formation.

5. **Precautionary principle** emphasizes that decisions which may lead to irreversible change of cultural assets should be approached with extreme caution.

6. **Maintenance of cultural systems and recognition of interdependence** states that no part of any system exists independently of other parts. Therefore not preserving cultural capital and failing to sustain tangible and intangible cultural aspects of identity can threaten the existence of cultural systems with consequent loss of welfare and economic output. (2003: 184-186).

Despite the principles of sustainability and complexity of defining the culture, Sustainable Development Research Institute submits a concise definition of cultural sustainability: “the ability to retain cultural identities and allow changes in accordance with the cultural values of the community” (Sustainable Development

Research Institute, 1998:1).

According to this general definition UNWTO states that sustainable tourism development from the perspective of socio-cultural principle is that kind of development which: „respects the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserves their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values, and contributes to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance. “[2]

Smolčić-Jurdana argues that the socio-cultural sustainability of tourism "refers to the ability of the community, whether local or national, to accept new input, in the case of tourism that are tourists, for a shorter or longer period of time, and in spite of tourism activity to continue to function without any social disharmony... "(2003:69).

In other words, the principle of cultural sustainability in tourism development emphasizes a kind of "cultural" community resilience, the ability to absorb the impact of foreign cultural identities (tourists and their culture) without social imbalance and to adapt to the new circumstances by emphasizing their own cultural values and preserving local cultural identity.

3. Festivals as an intangible aspect of cultural identity in tourism

Ethnologists and cultural anthropologists when researching and writing about the identity and culture of a specific social group, often research some of its elements, symbols or aspects. Theoretically, the identity is considered to be a whole, therefore any attempt to operationalize its definition while considering its specific cases (or elements) leads to restriction and anchors one of most changeable cultural category (Povrzanović, 1991).

However, it has been found after reviewing many studies that ethnologists are still limited to the study of its apparent shape in terms of symbols or some of its aspects. This paper uses the results of the research of one of the intangible aspects of local community cultural identity, namely festival, carnival and customs. Festivals, carnivals and customs can be seen as a form of events which reflect the cultural identity of the community and can be conceived as one of its aspects. The purposes of performing festivals are numerous, but the most important one is to articulate the local community cultural heritage through which local identities are strengthened

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[2] UNWTO, Sustainable development of tourism. Dostupno na http://sdt.unwto.org/en/content/about-us-5, preuzeto: 15.5.2012., 10:30

and the community becomes more recognizable (Selberg, 2006). An important aspect of the modern tourist experience is watching and participating in festivals, "the religious and secular public celebrations attract tourists" (Boissevain, 2008:28). Therefore, the connection between tourism and festivals is unquestionable and is clearly reflected in the emergence of large number of festivals since the late 1960s. The period from the 1970s to the present day (2013) witnessed a steady increase in the number of festivals on all continents (Boissevain, 2008, Arnold, 2000; Getz, 1997; Chacko, Schaffer, 1993), and many researchers relate this phenomenon to their tourism potential (Manning 1983, Rolfe 1992, Prentice, Andersen 2003, Gursoy, Kim and Uysal, 2004, Quinn 2005). Apart from tourism, many other different factors such as migration, industrialization, development of media, democratization etc. have contributed to the development of a large number of festivals in the world (Boissevain, 2008:21). Rapid structural changes in society caused by the increased social mobility and globalization processes have created the need for community identity reaffirmation due to a sense of cultural dislocation (De Bres, Davis, 2001; Quinn, 2003) and thus become a possible reason for re-discovery, empowerment and creating traditions in the form of festivals. Within such a modern social order preconditioned by industrialization and the rapid development of information technology, tourism as "the outcome and the driver of globalization" (Picard, Robinson, 2006:2) plays an important role in changing social relations and enables new communication structures, public and economic processes during the exchange process specific to the festival environment (Picard, Robinson, 2006). The „use" of customs for the creation and consumption of tourism products while retaining their traditional form represents the greatest challenge in the concept of sustainable tourism development. Concept limitations are reflected in the inevitability of change and adaptation of rituals, customs and festivals for the tourism purposes.

4. The Methodology of the research

Relevant secondary research was based on the available data obtained from sources such as conference proceedings, scientific and professional journals and other publications. Case study method and cultural-historical method were applied in order to confirm the main hypothesis. The hypothesis assumed that aspects of cultural identity entirely change or stay intact, but are moved to a different time frame, i.e. to the high season in order to favour tourism development. The case of Rab Fair on the island of Rab and a winter carnival "Mardi Gras" and the summer carnival, both in Senj, were addressed. The results of the case study are set within a wider viewpoint of sustainable development and represent a platform for questioning principles of cultural sustainability. The theoretical ethnological considerations of carnival and customs were used as well. Other sources included Internet press releases, carnival reports and newspaper articles, promotional materials, as well as data collected from Senj Tourist Board and Rab Tourist Board. The Rab Fair case study was based on the papers by Tanja Bukovčan and Sanja Potkonjak (2006) Cultural Politics of the Town of Rab-case study - Rab Fiesta and Medieval Knight's Games and Nevena Škrbić Alempijević and Rebeka Mesarić Žabčić (2010) English Coastal Festivals and the Construction of the Mediterranean. The case study concerning the winter and summer festivals in Senj was based on the paper by Sanja Schneider (2002) "Summer Carnival in Senj".

5. Change in intangible aspects of cultural identity in the case of Rab Fair (*Rabska Fjera*) – the aspect of customs and festivals

Changes in intangible aspects of cultural identity are addressed in the case of Rab Fair. According to the information provided at Rab Tourist Board's official website, *Rabska fjera* is described as follows: "Unique in Croatia, the medieval summer fair called the *Rabska Fjera* was first proclaimed on 21st July 1364 and revived in 2002 as a town holiday and its greatest role is in safeguarding and developing local and traditional values. The "Rabske ferije" municipal holiday was proclaimed by the Great Council of the town of Rab on the 21st of July, 1364 in honour of King Ljudevit the Great, who liberated Rab from the Venetians, and in honour of St. Christopher, patron of the Town of Rab, and his powers, which according to a legend saved Rab. Participants of *Rabska Fjera* are artisans and craftsmen. There are also clubs and societies which voluntarily keep alive traditional crafts, cultivate traditional values, make home-made products and help preserve a way of life. The revived Rabske Ferije is held in a shortened form and go on for three days: 25th of July (St James Day), 26th of July (St Anne's Day) and 27th of July (St Christopher Day), between 9 p.m. and half past midnight." As written on the Rab Tourist Board's official website, Slobodan Novak has provided what is by far the best description of the significance, purpose and effect of this event in his foreword to the "*Rabska Fjera*" catalogue: "*The Rabska Fjera* is...a dignified celebration, just as it was when it was inaugurated, six-and-a-half centuries ago. It is not some vain glitzy parade, but a true expression of the desire to penetrate, even if only by intuition, into the dimness of centuries gone by, where the shadows of our ancestors can still be recognised; to perceive our roots, to confirm and affirm our identity; ...to remind ourselves of the spiritual and material creative legacy of our forefathers, their individual, lone creativity, which has in this time of teamwork, production lines and machine manufacturing has somewhat been forgotten."

The description of the Rab Fair is set as an introduction to serve as a basis for comparing the promoted event in the service of tourism development against the findings of the research conducted by the Department of Ethnology and Cultural Anthropology, along with other secondary research results. According to the interpretations of Bukovčan and Potkonjak (2006), in 1995 a radical change of interpretation of cultural heritage occurred in the town of Rab. A medieval crossbow competition and so-called an "open air museum" event (Bukovčan, Potkonjak, 2006:53) "Rabska fešta" was organized for the first time that year. The Crossbowmen Association was founded the same year following the initiative of the Rab Citizens Association and in coordination with the Rab Tourist Board as well as local authorities. The *Rabska Fjera* tourist event as it is presently known was organized seven years later, in 2002, according to the tradition of San Marino, a medieval Italian town. The link between San Marino and the town of Rab is a saint called St. Marin, who was the founder of San Marino, and was apparently born on the island of Rab. The Crossbowmen Association reinvented an old tradition of crossbow competition that was, according to a story, a part of the Rab knightly games which date back to 1364. According to the President of the Association, the goal of the Association is to continuously research the history of Rab knightly games in order to ensure adequate choreography, scenery and costumes, as well as the whole scenario of the event. (Bukovčan, Potkonjak, 2006).

Bukovčan and Potkonjak underlined three important characteristics of this cultural event which they described as "a mixed discourse of historical facts and theatre" (2006:54):

1. The existence of the old traditions of the Games on the island is historically very uncertain

2. The year 1364 is mentioned in two contexts;

a) the year when the games initially began

b) the year when, according to legend, St. Christopher defended the town against the Norman invasion

3. The President of the Association emphasizes the need to create "an adequate" visual, textual and choreographic identity of this event, where adequate

implies original, old, traditional, actually driven by well-established political criteria of social history selection and adaptation (Bukovčan, Potkonjak, 2006:54). Six years after the publication of the previous research results, in 2012 the Rab Tourist Board's official website highlighted the Crossbowmen Association policy: "The goal of this Association is to restore cultural heritage and to promote both Rab and Croatian tourism. Therefore, the Association has become a well-established island brand promoting tourism of the island of Rab and Croatian tourism" (Rab Tourist Board, 2012).

It is evident that the Association was established to promote Rab and Croatian tourism based on cultural heritage which was re-created in order to serve the objectives of cultural policies. "Flexibility of local authorities and tourism professionals who supported and promoted new ideas greatly influenced the creation of local identity "conclude Bukovčan and Potkonjak (2006:53). The conclusion is supported by goals of the Cultural Development Strategy, "Croatia in the 21st Century" and the Croatian Government's recommendations for the preservation of traditional cultural identity, adopted in 2000.

Furthermore, the practice of festivals where the central topic concerning the traditional way of life refers to the medieval past has been observed along the Croatian coast (Škrbić Alempijević, Mesarić Žabčić, 2010:325). The authors further explain that, since the 1990s, this historical period has been in the service of the nation creating process. The Middle Ages, with the help of their symbols, served as a "temporal niche" (Škrbić Alempijević, Mesarić Žabčić, 2010:325), with the aim of highlighting the "real" Croatian history that included national myths about the elevation of the first Croatian king and at the same time served to reconcile the "shameful" history of socialism (Škrbić Alempijević, Mesarić Žabčić, 2010). During socialism, places, streets and squares that were named after medieval Croatian rulers were replaced by socialist names, but the names were returned after Croatia gained its independence. These processes redefined many local, regional and national identities. However, the authors conclude: "The abundance of historical narratives, cultural practices and products that are related to an idealized past (including modern games) cannot be viewed as a uniqueness of Croatian territory." (2010:325). The conclusion is supported by the fact that the postmodern imagination of the Middle Ages as "own timeless heroic past" is a global trend (Hjemdahl, 2002). Such a broad framework was used by the festival organizers to present the uniqueness of elements of local culture through the festival practice (Škrbić Alempijević, Mesarić Žabčić, 2010), which can also be confirmed by an introductory description of Rab

Fjera: “Unique in Croatia, the medieval summer fair *Rabska Fjera* is based on historical heritage...”.

Rabska Fjera, also known as “Medieval Days” includes two different levels of identity construction in relation to the organizers, the performers and the audience:

1. Highlighting the medieval spirit
2. Crossbow Competition

a) One criticism refers to the similarity of this festival (tournament as well as other events) to the events in Montegiardino, San Marino. Rab’s crossbowmen defend this similarity with the local myth that birthplace of St. Marin, the founder of San Marino, is on the island of Rab. However, it was revealed that representatives of Montegiardino Association participated in the construction of the Rab crossbowmen inventory. Critics strongly condemn Rab festival considering it to be inauthentic and imported from abroad.

b) The other criticism refers to the distortion of historical facts regarding positioning the practice of crossbow within the history of the island. According to Škrbić Alempijević, Mesarić Žabčić (2010) Rab Citizens Association claims that “Rabska fjera” revitalized ancient tradition of chivalry tournaments dating as far back as to 1075. The authors argue that this was mentioned in the legend of St. Christopher, who saved Rab from the invasion of the Normans. On the other hand, the Rab Tourist Board’s official website states as follows: “The municipal holiday known as “Rabske ferije” was declared by the Grand Council of the Town of Rab on 21 July 1364 to honour the King Louis the Great, who liberated Rab from the Venetians, and in honour of St. Christopher, the patron of Rab who according to a legend saved Rab. “This description can confirm the illusion of continuity that is created to bridge the medieval time gap with today’s festival events on the island (Škrbić Alempijević, Mesarić Žabčić, 2010:327).

Škrbić Alempijević, Mesarić Žabčić conclude “... the historical data used to justify the town’s medieval heritage are highly questionable and are more grounded in myths and less in the scientific historiography. However, Rab’s urban structure and architecture offers a wide variety of symbols sufficient to reconstruct the medieval identity. “(2010:327).

The case of *Rabska Fjera* proved to be appropriate to confirm the hypothesis on the aspect of cultural identity that was completely changed to favour the development of tourism. The practise of crossbowmen competition was imported from San Marino, Italy, and the inability to accurately position that kind of practice and tournament within the history of the island was observed. One of the objectives outlined in the Croatian Cultural Development Strategy in the section concerning cultural cooperation with other sectors of development, including tourism, is in favour of validating the hypothesis: "Blending the cultural activities in the tourist offer will create its distinctive feature and therefore extend the offer to far less visited places as well as extend the tourism season."(Katunarić, 2003:118). In other words, tourism should be developed by involving cultural activities that would set its competitive advantage and differentiate tourism supply from the classic 3S Concept - "Sun, Sea, Sand". It has been assumed that this was the starting point for the effort of Rab associations and local authorities in creating a new tourism product called *Rabska fjera*. The emphasis is on the new product re-created. The strategy requires inclusion of cultural identity in creating tourism products, but does not advocate changing or inventing traditions which was the case with *Rabska fjera.*

6. Change in intangible aspects of cultural identity in the case of winter and summer carnival in Senj – the aspect of carnivals

The intangible aspect of cultural identity, namely carnival, was addressed in the case of the winter and summer carnival in Senj. This case study was used to test the hypothesis on cultural identities which were not changed, but transferred into a different timeframe to serve tourism development. The study was based on field research of the author Sanja Schneider (2002) and her scientific paper "Summer Carnival in Senj".

Theory recognizes two types of winter carnivals (Lozica, 1997). The first one is called magical or lupercalian type characterized by a group of men in costumes made of animal skins and bells attached to the clothes and usually takes place in rural areas, while the second type, saturnalian or critical, is characteristic for the urban environment and focuses on the relationship between the society and man. The main elements of the second type are carnival associations, parade, testament and condemnation puppets, signs, banners, carnival journals, masquerade balls etc. (Lozica 1997:192-193).

The summer event held in August is called the Summer Carnival or just Carnival (Schneider, 2002:76). Lozica defines carnival as ”turmoil, rollick, the type of human activity and behaviour characteristic of carnival events. Thus understood, the carnival is no longer limited by time and space ... "(1997:242). As for the name of the winter carnival in Senj, it is related to the pre-Easter fasting (from St. Epiphany to Ash Wednesday) and is called "*mesopust*" (Mardi gras). The meaning of *mesopust* derives from the Christian tradition of fasting, but the second part of the word *pust* may be interpreted as abandonment (of the meat) (Lozica 1997:18).

6.1 Winter carnival or *mesopust* in Senj

The first records of the Senj *mesopust* could be found in the writings of Austrian officer Valsavor who lived in Senj from 1658 till 1663.

"On Shrove Tuesday men wear strange clothes and walk around the town making all kinds of jokes that only a man can think of. On Ash Wednesday, they also wear unusual and strange outfits, put on their faces soot from pans and boilers, ring doorbells and ask people for flour, oil, bread and wine. After a while they gather on the square or street, make fire, bake cake and then sit down to eat and drink, make jokes and mourn the death of Bach."(Schneider, 2002).

"In Senj, masquerade balls have been organized in restaurants during January and February for many years. Initially, balls were held on Saturdays and Sundays, so- called Nobelbali, as well as on Shrove Tuesday, and those were called Pudlbali or Poodle Ball. Nobelbali were only for invited guests, while anyone was allowed at the Poodle Ball (Basic 1972:75). Organization of the balls was entrusted to different societies, and one of them was called "Zvonimirci". In 1893, on Shrove Tuesday, the first "Corso" - a precursor to today's carnival parades, was organized. After walking around the city, the parade would finish on the main square Cilnica or elsewhere in the town where the condemnation to the Mardi gras doll (the main malfeasant for all evil which happened last year) would be read. Then a doll named Šenia would be publicly burned or hanged. The custom was extinguished in 1914 but the reading of the conviction persisted to date (as Chronicle). In 1875, a carnival newspaper started to be printed. In the Second World War, the carnival entertainment stopped, but after this period it has persisted to date without interruption. Even today, the Mardi gras in Senj consists of typical, fixed masks like Dominoes, Pierro, Scamp, Imp, and a Gentleman and Lady - all masks with the a long tradition. A specialty called *frite* is a traditional part of Carnival celebrations. "(Schneider, 2002:77).

6.2. Summer carnival in Senj

According to Schneider, "The idea of starting the summer carnival came from the Vlado Lončarić - Node, secretary of the Tourism Society. The Tourism Association, today's Senj Tourist Board, has been and remains the main organizer of this summer event "(2002:88). This statement indicatively shows the correlation between tourism development and the carnival. The beginning of the summer carnival in Senj was found by Schneider (2002) to have occurred in 1948 when the tradition of summer balls called Venetian nights began at the town beach Banji or Porto. They were organized by different associations or students of Senj and, in addition to dancing, various competitions were held (swimming, diving, and fishing). According to Schneider, this ball was organized "for foreign tourists, including Czechs, to feel the spirit of the coast and Senj" (Schneider, 2002:78). From 1965 to 1967, the Venetian Night was not held due to bad weather. After this period, the residents of Senj intensively started thinking how to restore the celebration and bring it back to the streets. In July of 1967, the carnival was organized again, but under the name of summer "*mesopust"*. This carnival was attended by more than 200 masks, mainly people from Senj and guests from Novi Vinodolski. The ball was more than successful and the program was extended to two Carnival days." (Schneider 2002:79). Another Ball was held in 1968 and the third one in 1969 when it changed its name to Senj Summer Carnival (Schneider, 2002). The following will show further development of the carnival to describe the importance of tourism development in Senj.

6.3. Summer carnival in the 1970s

During the 1970s, the carnival lasted two days. At first, tourists did not come to participate in the carnival, but only to observe, but soon they spontaneously engaged in the parade. The ceremony was the same as in previous years: Friday – the opening ceremony with the raising of the flag, handover of keys, keynote speech and dance. Saturday - masked procession, a speech by "meštar", dance, and closing with the retreat of the flag and returning the keys to town authorities. The year 1975 was marked as the 100th anniversary of the publication of the first carnival newspaper *Vragoder*. (Schneider, 2002).

6.4. Summer carnival in the 1980s

The carnival was prolonged in the 1980s. Carnival events were concentrated in two days, except in 1981, 1986, 1989 and in 1990 when they continued for about eight days. Schneider states: "A conceptual extension to eight days was made to enrich the tourist offer for the growing number of visitors, both foreign and domestic." (2002:80).

Between 1991 and 1995, summer carnivals were not organized because of the war.

6.5. 1996 to 1999

The carnival resumed in 1996. The carnival organization decided to sell tickets (closed type carnival) because these were the post-war years and the financial situation was very difficult. According to the narrator, it was not a good organizational move. Tourists, especially foreigners, did not attend. In 1996, the Town of Senj joined the Foundation of European Carnival Cities (FECC). Having joined the FECC, the Senj Summer Carnival officially became international, which was reflected in posters and Senj Tourist Board's brochures. In 1998, The Carnival was once again open to foreign participants and groups from bordering countries took part in Carnival.

From 1998 on, the number of participants and the audience grew. In 2012, the carnival reached its peak. More than 3000 participants and 12000 spectators were present from August 6 to August 11 2012 in Senj. That year, the Senj Tourist Board and its carnival committee together with Town of Senj organized the 41st International Senj Summer Carnival.[3]

According to descriptions, the Senj *mesopust* that takes place in the winter months is entirely a saturnalian type of carnival. However, the Summer Carnival retains its saturnalian components showing a vast majority of these saturnalian features. Supek-Zupan states that carnivals have several meanings: "... they are magical, fun, and of tourist-commercial and socio-critical importance, if not more..." (1979:298). The Summer Carnival has socio-critical and recreational importance as well as commercial significance. Schneider argues as follows: "When I asked the informants what is the main purpose of the Summer Carnival, they all unanimously agreed that it is tourism. Organizers aim to complement the tourist offer, and the participants, either domestic or guests, search for better entertainment "(2002:93). Two features are the most common for a tourist-commercial carnival: the stage - theatrical events and parade (Supek-Zupan, 1979:299-230) and can be easily recognized in the Senj Summer Carnival. Schneider notes: "*Meštar"* and his guests enter the stage on three occasions but vocal and instrumental bands that entertain the audience on the square occupy the stage most of the time. Masked ball has always been held on Saturday, while on other nights, summer parties have been held

[3] Turizam info (2012) Senjski ljetni karneval. Available at: http://www.turizaminfo.hr/2012/08/senjski-ljetni-karneval

outdoors. The procession is organized by the Senj Tourist Board... "(2002:94). Schneider finally concludes: "While running for tourism purposes, Summer Carnival in Senj is not mere entertainment. In 1967, tourism officials were able to recognize the potential of ancient carnival customs and transferred a piece of tradition to the summer months. The Summer Carnival in its own peculiar way helps preserve the carnival tradition which is reflected in the growing number of masked participants of all ages... At many summer carnivals, participants can show their "winter" traditional masks, while others can be critical as regards the existing socio-economic and political situation at the local and global levels. "(2002:95).

This case study confirmed the hypothesis. The Senj Summer Carnival has been continuously held in the summer months, precisely in August, during the peak tourist season and has a number of elements of the winter carnival. Primarily masking as a major motive and feature, and then the handover of the town keys, the Chronicle read by *Meštar*, a criticism of society, and humour specific to the greater Senj area, the motorized parade and carnival newspaper.

7. Conclusion

The presented case studies address the change in the intangible aspects of a local community's cultural identity and demonstrate the consequences of the tourism development. The modern and, in particular, the post-modern era do not support fixed identity categories, but identification processes that are in constant motion and change. Furthermore, it is unrealistic to expect for a cultural identity to be static in its original and unaltered form due to the characteristics of culture and its dynamic and constantly changing features. Looking from that perspective, it could be argued that preservation represents an illusion of cultural sustainability. The situation becomes even more complex because tourism is not solely responsible for changes in cultural identity, considering that both culture and identity are subject to continuous redefinition depending on various social changes.

However, despite the characteristics of identity that are multiple, contradictory, discursively constructed and open to transgression, the diversity of cultural identity, especially in the case of tourist travel, is still perceived in terms of "us" and "them" and therefore continues to be studied in cases where cultural differences are perceived as the opposition between tourism and the tourists and the local community. According to the concept of sustainable development, tourism should be developed primarily for the benefit of local communities and cultural sustainability should emphasize kind of “cultural” community resilience, the ability to absorb the impact of foreign cultural identities (tourists and their culture) without creating a social imbalance and to adapt to new circumstances by emphasizing their own cultural values. Since culture is a “living” phenomenon and cultural changes often occur, community attitudes, either positive or negative, can define the course of sustainable tourism development. Indirectly though and looking from the wider perspective tourism contributes to the preservation of tradition as the examples of the Senj Summer Carnival in The Republic of Croatia implies.

The answer to the question of whether the intangible aspects of cultural identity can be preserved remains ambiguous; nevertheless, the illusion of being able to preserve the intangible aspects of cultural identity in their original form continues to exist.

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NATIONAL MYTHS AND TOURISM MARKETING: A VIEW FROM POSTCOLONIAL CHINESE DESTINATIONS

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to introduce a PhD research in progress. This research aims to explore the relationship between national myths and tourism promotion in Chinese postcolonial destinations. Frew and White (2011) illustrate the significance of analyzing the relationship between national identity and tourism marketing. They believe that tourism promotion not only showcase unique features of a destination but also reinforce the national identity. However, the complex nature of the topic requires more researches. In addition, Myth making plays a vital role in national and local identity (Robb 1998). Therefore, the notion of national myths is examined to provide a better understanding of national identity. In a postcolonial destination, rebuilding a sense of a nation is important. Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan are special post colonies related to Chinese national myths. This research is planned to reveal how tourism promotion is related to the emerging Chinese national myths in these cities. Moreover, this paper pays attention to common distinctions between modernism and postmodernism to conceptualize the relationship between national myths and tourism marketing. The paper provides a methodological framework to answer the research question. Lastly, the author draws upon some findings related to Hong Kong from her master thesis to strengthen the introduction of her PhD research plan.

Keywords: national myths, tourism marketing, postmodernism

JEL code: Z

1. Introduction

This paper aims to introduce a PhD research plan, which the author has just started. The main research question is: to what extent is tourism marketing related to national myths in Chinese postcolonial destinations? To study national myths and tourism marketing, the author aims to examine Macau, Hong Kong and Taiwan in relation to the broad context of China.

Hong Kong and Macau were handed over to China in 1997 and in 1999 respectively. These two Handovers have raised many issues related to the transition of sovereignty in Hong Kong and Macau and beyond this they have meaningful implications for Taiwan (Kaeding 2010). China was promoting its patriotic image in which Hong Kong and Macau were happy to return to China after many years of colonial life. In contrast, international media and residents were worried about the Handovers, which lead to a downhill in economic prosperity, especially for Hong Kong (Kraar, 1995, Hsiung, 2000). Due to this special situation, Hong Kong and Macau were returned to China as Special Administrative Regions under the unique ideology of “one country, two systems”. Apart from national defence and international relations, the Basic Laws of Hong Kong and Macau empower their residents with a high degree of autonomy, retaining its capitalist system, independent judiciary and rule of law, free trade and freedom of speech (Basic Law 1997, 1999). This special treatment was designed from a Chinese point of view to solve the problem of Taiwan by using Hong Kong and Macau as two examples (People’s Education Press, 2000). The Chinese government believes Taiwan is always part of China and Taiwan is always categorized within China in all maps in China.

Hence, the development of the so-called Greater China identity is emerging from these regions. Hong Kong and Macau residents have accepted the political reality of being united with China. However, the unique identities that had developed during the separation from China in these regions and which were fundamentally different from the Mainland Chinese identity were propagated by the People’s Republic of China (PRC) (Kaeding 2010, Mathews 1997). From this perspective, Hong Kong and Macau are unique post-colonial destinations. They are very different from other places, where a sense of a nation is taken for granted and is shown implicitly in marketing strategies that seek to differentiate places as much by national affiliation as by unique destination features. It has been 15 years since Hong Kong was returned to China after more than 150 years as a British colony. It is almost 13 years since Macau was returned to China after more than 450 years as a Portuguese colony. Instead of fighting for their independence, Hong Kong and Macau's decolonization process was relatively soft. From another perspective, although Taiwan has its own political reality, it was a product of the internal war of China in the late 1940s. Taiwan itself was established as the Republic of China in contrast to the People's Republic of China (PRC) to make their sake in China.

Thus, Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan's cultural identity are related to but separate from that of China. The cultural identity provides the core value of Hong Kong and Macau and plays a central role in promoting Hong Kong and Macau as tourist destinations.

With the new national myths of China emerging, this paper explores how Hong Kong and Macau promote new national myths. In addition, it seeks to address how Taiwan deals with its ethnic Chineseness and the national identities of China. Given that more than 60% of tourists in Macau, Hong Kong and Taiwan are from mainland China (HKTB 2012, DSEC 2012, MOTC 2012), these issues become crucial in the tourism context.

To start, the main research question, this paper first presents key issues from the literature review. Then, the author sets out the main conceptual themes that underpin this work. Thirdly, it provides a methodological framework. Lastly, the author draws upon some findings related to Hong Kong from her master thesis to strengthen the introduction of her PhD research plan.

2. Literature Review

Myth-making plays a vital role in building national and local identity (Robb 1998). Palmer (1999) argues that cultural and heritage tourism is a powerful force in the construction and maintenance of national identity. Barthes (1972:143), in his book, *Mythologies*, notes that "the concept of myth organizes a world for human beings, which provides justifications and explanations for actions that might otherwise remain incomprehensible." Nations are themselves myths. The essence of a nation is its intangibility or subjectivity (Connor 1994). There is no such real entity as a nation: only a social reality (Fulbrook 1997) or only an imagined political community (Anderson 1991). Thus, a nation becomes more than just a political system. Rose

(2003), citing the noted literary theorist Northrop Frye, suggests that all nations have great stories that are passed down from one generation to the next that serve an important function of creating community and binding citizens. He then adds that their truthfulness is less important than their metaphorical and symbolic meaning. Smith (1991) believes that nationalism can be revealed as the most compelling identity myth in the modern world. For Smith, national identity represents nationalism. He believes the collective national symbols, ceremonies and customs of a nation interpret the culture and symbolize the nation. Therefore, as a type of collective identity, national identity is a cultural identification based on either territory or ancestry.

In this sense, a nation also becomes a system of cultural representations. du Cros (2004:154) contributes further to this idea by suggesting national identity is built on the cultural identity of a nation-state and expressed through symbols and discourses as a symbolic guide map to determine the meaning and significance of nationhood for a society. The symbolic and metaphorical meanings of national myths are the soul and spiritual principle of a nation (Renan 1882).

Additionally, national myths identify who belongs and who does not belong to the community (Overing 1997, Misane & Priedite 1997) since national myths determine the foundation of the very being, system of morality and values of a particular nation (Abizadeh 2004). Others have claimed that national myths are narratives of the sacred past (Bascom, 1965), over-dramatized or omitted historical truths (Abizadeh, 2004) and stories deemed to be true and more powerful than historical truths (Dundes, 1984, Davies, 1997; Abizadeh, 2004). In respect to this, symbols, ceremonies and customs that constitute national myths help to create and maintain a unified notion of a nation (Smith 1991, Miller 1995).

Central governments have a history of using these 'guiding fictions' to make multicultural populations homogenous, with the goal of forming a single "nation" (Pretes 2003). Rose (2003) for example, discusses how the Canadian government has used advertising to advance values of what it means to be Canadian and to shape public conversation about citizenship. In addition, as Goulding & Domic (2009) note, national culture is a discourse, or a way of constructing meanings which produce meanings about the nation with which people can identify.

Rebuilding national myths become an effective way to create social cohesion. It is one reason why new national myths must be created quickly when the political situation changes, as has been witnessed in post-colonial regions (Bossen 2000). In postcolonial places, recreating and re-consuming new national myths is a challenging task since nationhood is a subjective political view. The new national myth-making involves decisions about what to include, what to exclude, what to erase and how to depict what has been retained (d'Hauteserre 2004).Thus, the process of revisionist myth-making is as much a function of politics as any deeper truth.

From the perspective of tourism marketing, tourism promotion uses the language of tourism to seduce human beings and convert them from potential into actual customers (Dann 1996). To attract tourists, uniqueness is always highlighted in relation to other competitive destinations. From this perspective, both tourism marketing and national myths emphasize the term of otherness with an underlying action in drawing boundaries. In addition, Light (2001) reminds us that tourism marketing also has a strong political dimension. For example, after the establishment of the US, Shaffer (2001) explains how viewing of heritage sights by domestic tourists helped form and maintain the new US national identity when US was newly independent after ceasing to be a colony. Similarly, Palmer (1999) and Pitchford (2008) argue that cultural and heritage tourism is a powerful force in the construction and maintenance of national identity because it relies upon the historical symbols of the nation as a means of attracting tourists. Advertising of national myths through tourism promotion has become a popular and effective way to create the sense of a nation (Bossen 2000, Rose 2003, Yan & Santos 2009). Thus, modifying and enforcing social cohesion become other shared characteristics between national myths and tourism marketing. In contrast, other studies argue that tourism marketing has the potential to shape the imagined national identity (Clifford 1988, Echtner & Prasad 2003), which is different from the national myths of a nation.

In this respect, Frew and White (2011) illustrate that the relationship between tourism and national identity is beneficial for better promoting a destination, while at the same time it influences the promotion of a nation. For Frew and White, understanding the relationship between tourism promotion and national identity is beneficial for showcasing the exceptional image of a destination. For example, Palmer (2007) asserts that identities projected for tourism promotion purposes are a potentially powerful means by which outsiders comprehend the way in which a nation wishes to be seen. Moreover, Frew and White (2011) believe that the complex nature of the relationship between national identity and tourism requires more research. However, only to study tourism marketing and national identity fails to explicitly address the notion of national myths or allocates a role to those myths in the creation of image. It may be argued that in the academic literature the relationship between national myths and tourism marketing has been overlooked. Indeed, Selwyn (1996) emphasizes that myths are central for the tourism industry to sell and market destinations within visitors' imagination. Additionally, the politics dimension of tourism marketing has been generally evaded (Hall 1994). Therefore, the researcher aims to explore this topic in her PhD thesis.

3. Toward postmodernist conceptualizations

To examine the previously mentioned main research question, Burrell and Morgan (1979) suggest that all theories are based on an underlying philosophy and an implicit theory of society so that researchers can make implicit ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions regarding the topic. Therefore, the objective of this section is to investigate which philosophical approach could guide the examination of the relationship between national myths and tourism marketing.

The study of tourism emerged as a distinguished field mainly during the 70s, when the majority of scholars were unified in their perceptions of tourism as a modern phenomenon (Uriely 1997). A movement from theories of "modern" tourism towards the contemporary discourse of "postmodern" tourism has now become popular in tourism (Uriely 2005). Therefore, the current analysis pays attention to common distinctions between modernism and postmodernism to conceptualize the relationship between national myths and tourism marketing.

3.1 Modernism and postmodernism

Modernism is commonly accepted as "patterns of social life linked to industrialization" (Macuionis 1991, p. 617). Based on Weber (1962), the modern world is created through the industrial revolution. The rationality and the precision of modernism rely on science to make everything possible. Modernity is a product of the French Enlightenment. This understanding of modernity indicates the idea of being modern inspired by modern science in the infinite progress of knowledge (Habermas 1992).

In contrast, the term postmodern and postmodernism refers to the "death of reason" (Power 1990). In this context, postmodernism subverts and challenges, the privileging of knowledge, existing hierachizations, grand theories and their tendency to conceptualize societies as totalities (Westwood & Clegg 2003). However, postmodernism is difficult to define, because to define it would violate the postmodernist's presupposition that no absolute truths exist. Moreover, it involves various characteristics which are viewed differently by different people (Bauman

1992). From this perspective, the utilization of postmodernism seems problematic. The existing of postmodernist forms of theorizing is not to oppose or to confront modernist theories, but to mark their limits and expose their difficulties in the hope that they might be extended and radicalized (Jones 2004).

The characteristics of postmodernism include pluralism, subjectivity, skepticism, intersexuality, relativity and social construction of knowledge (Uriely 2005, Hertlein et al. 2004, Linstead 2004). The tendency to deconstruct modernist grand theories is grasped as part of its skepticism. Thus, postmodern theorizing emphasizes diversity and richness of life (Ryan 2002). The inclination towards diversity of life is related to the fundamental nature of tourism which emphasizes the dynamic and change (Nuryanti 1996).In this fashion, Uriely (2005) claims that contemporary conceptualizations of tourism correspond to postmodernist modes of analysis.

3.2 Towards a conceptual framework

Having introduced some basic ideas of both modernism and postmodernism, the following outlines the distinctively postmodernism approach to the topic in reaction to modernism. To realize this, the section begins by exploring three key epistemological notions as illustrated in (Hassard & Parker 1993): representation, difference and power.

3.1.1 Representation

1 The relationship between national myths and marketing is rooted in the subjectivity of nationhood. To examine a nation as “imagined political community” (Anderson 1991), modernism’s ontological position in realism is problematic. For example, when people mention China, they know where China is. However, there was no China before Chinese ancestors named that land in the east called China. Additionally, the land of China has continued changing during the past five thousand years. Therefore, a social world is made up of nothing more than names, concepts and labels which are used to structure reality (Burrell & Mogran 1979). This nominalist ontological position of postmodernism reflects the core attribute of a nation.

Postmodernists argue that our knowledge of the world is constructed as a problem of representation rather than one of factual accuracy (Hassard 1993). Thus, the postmodern approach adopts the connection between signs and their referents, abandoning modern theory’s efforts to represent the real. Moreover, an extreme postmodernist like Baudrillard (1983) states “we are in a logic of simulation which has nothing to do with a logic of facts and an order of reason” (1983:31). This suggests modernists' claims on discovering one absolute objective truth is mistaken and naïve. Postmodernism focuses on an epistemological pluralism which utilizes multiple processes to approach knowing. As Derrida argues, it is impossible to discover a fully present reality that is directly available to our understanding (Hassard & Parker 1993).

Thus, representing a place, either as a nation or as a destination, must be selective in nature since no representation could ever be fully adequate to capture all dimensions of numerous realities (Linstead 2004). Furthermore, instead of believing the real reality, postmodernism is willing to commit to hyper-reality and the power of imagination (Brooker 1992), both of which play vital roles for both national myths and tourism promotion.

The first theme of representation informs the study to examine to what extent the destination promotion process is related to national myths in terms of representing a nation.

3.1.2 Difference

One of the shared characteristics between national myths and tourism marketing is uniqueness as illustrated previously. Difference thus becomes a key to drawing boundaries between nations and between destinations. It seems that the studied topic focuses on grand narratives. This is often suggested in modernism associated with wholeness, unity and clarity (Crotty 1998). However, from the analysis in 3.1, it is obvious that subjectivity plays a vital role in determining the representation of both a nation and a destination. Thus, postmodernists may argue that the claimed boundaries between a nation and a destination are ambiguous, paradoxical and various in people's imagination (Linstead 2004). When everything is special, nothing is special.

In addition, the term national myths and tourism marketing is distinctive. Scholars argue that tourism marketing has potential to reinforce or shape the imagined national identity (Clifford 1988, Echtner & Prasad 2003), which is different from the national myths of a nation. Fragmented realities of a nation and a destination disperse the intimacy of national myths and tourism marketing. Postmodern knowledge therefore refines our sensitivity to differences and reinforces our ability to tolerate incommensurably (Lyotard 1984).

From another perspective, structuralism scholars also acknowledge the notion of difference. Saussure, in his famous principle of semiological difference, argues that the relationship between signifier and signified is arbitrary, and shows that signs only have meaning in relation to each other (1966). This reflects logocentrism, which emphasizes hierarchical binary opposition. Modernity privileges unity over separation. To establish difference between for example “structure” and “agency” is to assert the superiority of structure and order (Crotty 1998). To counter the hierarchical binary opposition and to activate the sense of difference, Derrida invents the term difference (Hassard & Parker 1993). By deconstructing the structural – functionalism, scholars sometimes refer to post-structuralism. In this study, the researcher treats postmodernism as inclusive of post-structuralism as suggested by Linstead (2004).

Moreover, Saussure believes that texts reflect the communication of thoughts. Derrida and Barthes deconstruct these thoughts by giving them primacy over lanaguage which is merely the vehicle of their transmission (Barthes, 1973, Jones 2004).

Deconstruction involves two movements, namely, overturning and metaphorization (Cooper, 1989). Overturning refers the process of overturning the binary opposition to offer a new angle of knowledge creation. Metaphorization emphasizes the fragmented realities and subjectivity. Similarly, Barthes’s semiotic analysis illustrate that metaphorization is a key to understanding the underlying meaning of signs.

Through the process of challenging various essentialist versions, Eagleton (1990) claims a serious problem of postmodernism is: how far should this process of dismantling totalisation be taken? Instead of answering this question, the topic aims to explore the differences in order to understand to what extent tourism marketing of a destination strengthens or dismantles national myths in terms of representing a nation

3.1.3 Politics and power

The existence of differences empowers power. Politics is all about power and control (Hall 1994). Hall (1994) argues that research on politics of tourism is overlooked. In the studied topic, politics plays a vital role in the selection of numerous realities to represent a nation and a destination (Crick 2003, Pike 2005).

Unlike modernists, focus on politics of promoting master narratives (Crotty 1998), postmodernism is fundamentally about social and cultural pluralism with local politics and institutional power struggles (Linstead 2004). Similarly, Foucault is concerned with the production of knowledge through what he called discourse and discursive practices (1970). The key features of Foucauldian power is about those different epochs which have different underlying conditions for regimes of truth. The act of signification or claiming the truths is an excise of power in which meanings are constructed and deconstructed in ongoing interactional activity (Westwood & Clegg 2003). For Foucault, the power of politics organizes the world in a subjective and particular way under unbalanced power relationships (Cheong & Miller 2000, Knights 2004). It follows from this argument that there must be respect for heterogeneity. This is why postmodernists are antagonistic towards similarity and stress the importance of difference.

History is written by winners. What are so called "absolute truths", seem to be merely a product of historical needs in that period of time (Hutcheon 1992, Foucault 1970). However, Sarup (1996) illustrates the inadequate analysis of Foucault's concept of power on the questions of agency and individual. Power is not attached to agents and interests but is incorporated in numerous practices. It may be partly true that numerous types of power exist. However, Su and Teo (2009) illustrate Gramsci's theory of hegemony and its usefulness in analyzing individual's interests in discovering politics in tourism.

Therefore, this study not only focuses on the knowledge and power, but also considers the element of agency. To examine the power of politics, the study aims to analyze the process of politics in influencing national myths and tourism marketing.

4. Methodology

Modernism research specifies a central form of reality with an essential metaphysical origin that guarantees stability (Cooper 1989). Quantitative method as a scientific methodological approach is often in favour of modernists (Hassard & Parker 1993). Unlike modernism, postmodernism rejects the notion of empirical science which reflects pre-existing intellectual categories. To provide new knowledge in the field, postmodernism is in favour of qualitative methods to investigate numerous realities (ibid.). Additionally, a qualitative method is selected, since the study is exploratory in nature. This study aims to examine the relationship between national myths and tourism marketing. There has been limited previous effort made to explore national myth-making as part of tourism marketing. As such, an inductive approach utilizing a qualitative research method is deemed to be more suitable than quantitative research (Maxwell, 2005). By utilizing the qualitative approach, Barthes's (1973) semiotic analysis in discovering myths is highlighted to answer the main research question from three themes: representation, difference and politics. To find out the thoughts underlying signs, in-depth interview is adopted. The following figure 4.1 lays out the methodological blueprint of the thesis.

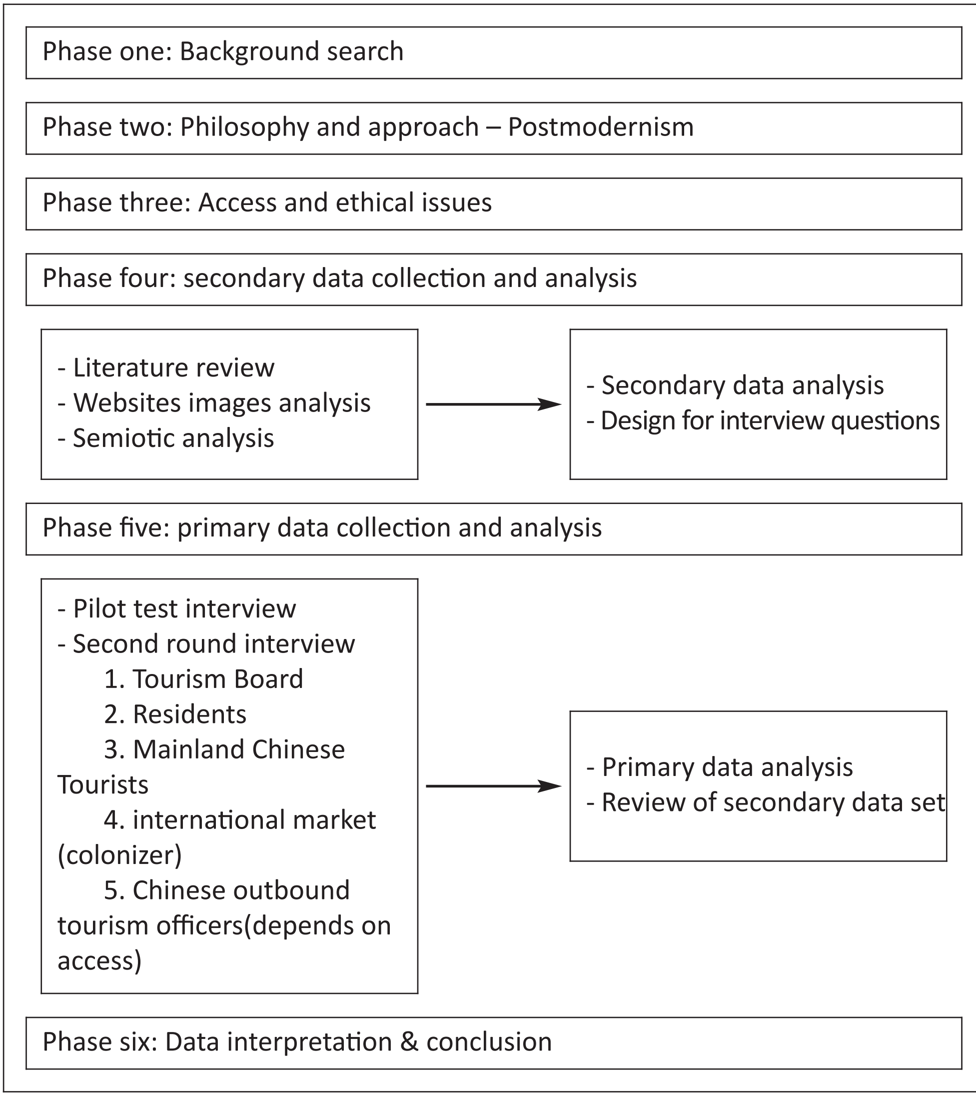


Figure 4.1 Research framework

5. Findings from my previous research

My master's thesis in the Hong Kong Polytechnic University was "how Hong Kong uses its own national myths in tourism promotion". This thesis looked at the relationship between national myths and tourism marketing from the perspective of Hong Kong. For the secondary data, the qualitative research method through content and semiotic analysis of HKTB's promotional materials was adopted. On-line promotional materials were gathered from the HKTB official website between November 2011 and February 2012. This information was augmented by collecting current brochures at the Visitor Information Centre of HKTB. Both English and simplified Chinese language materials were gathered to provide a preliminary insight of the topic. The Chinese language materials were translated by the researcher.

Content analysis was adopted for analysing popular cultural heritage. Krippendorff's (2008) content analysis approach involves the consideration of data as symbolic phenomena. He points out that all theories of symbolic phenomena are related to the relationship between data and their context. In addition, scholars have noted that semiotic analysis can be used to get below the surface of data to disover what lies beneath (Finn at al., 2000). In semiotic analysis, in-depth meaning emerges through a triadic relationship between the object or concept (the signified), the sign (the signifier used to present the object) and the interpretant (the one interpreting the sign) (Peirce, 1934 cited in Finn et al, 2000). Furthermore, symbols are not limited to words, pictures are also powerful signs which reproduce reality and deliver meanings (Barthes, 1973). Thus, both texts and pictures become data for the study.

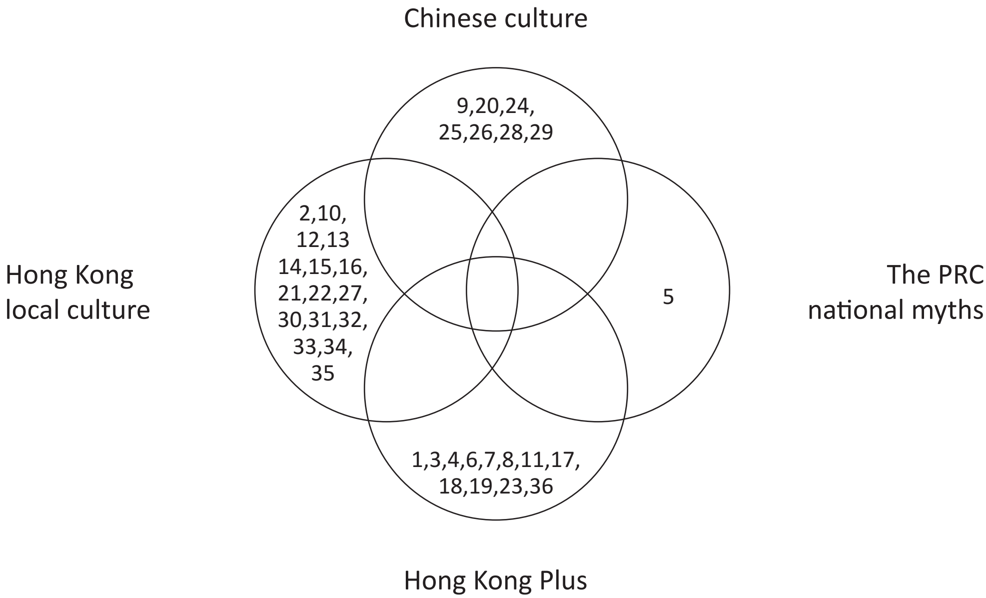
In the case of Hong Kong, Brewer (1999) clarifies that Hong Kong's identity emerges from the duality of region (Hong Kong) and ethnicity (Chinese). With the selective sampling of both British and Chinese traditions, Hong Kong's identity is a hybrid of but distinct from both British and Chinese national identities.

At present, four types of identity exist, namely Hong Kong plus myths, Hong Kong's local culture, Hong Kong's traditional pre-colonial Chinese culture and the PRC myths. Those four sets of myths are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Figure 5.1 illustrates that the type of cultural heritage attractions promoted by the HKTB can be mapped onto these myths, as shown. In Figure 5.1, attractions under the section of "most popular attractions" in HKTB website are selected for analysis. These cultural attractions are commonly promoted sites in all collected promotional materials. Thus, it indicates that these heritages have high visitation and recognition among travelers and locals.

The Hong Kong local culture category mainly contains many outdoor markets, temples and spirit trees of local fishing cultures found on outer islands and various Cantonese, Hakka and Tanka historic sites developed based on the archaic Chinese culture during the colonial period with limited influence by the British.

Hong Kong Plus myths come closest to representing a dominant message, predicating on the “East meets West” principle, whereby Hong Kong has a foot in both cultures, but is not fully immersed in either. In this theme, it is observed that Victoria Harbour acts as an iconic symbol of Hong Kong. It is widely used in all promotions, including the first page of the HKTB website and backdrops of all HKTB Visitor Information Centre. In history, the virtual deification of Queen Victoria at that point in British imperialism led to the naming of Victoria Harbour (Ingham, 2007), where Hong Kong was developed as a metropolis. Hong Kong’s international status was developed during the colonial period. Okano & Wong (2004) delineate that Hong Kong has a tradition of promoting things Chinese but always against a background of Western ideas. They suggest that traditional western connections have improved on its Chineseness.

With over 4,000 years as a Chinese fishing village, populated by ethnic minority groups who maintained their own identities to the present the contemporary PRC myths are largely absent in Hong Kong. Today the contemporary Chinese state is inseparable from the Communist Party. The most common national symbols found elsewhere in the PRC include Tiananmen Square, Chairman Mao Zengdong, the national flag, national anthem and emblem (the PRC Gov, 2011). However, only the landmark of the handover- the Golden Bauhinia Square contains signs of the PRC in Hong Kong. It is notable that in all analyzed promotional materials, contemporary China is only mentioned in history, location and multi-destination campaign sections. Accordingly, the most recent ethnic survey (POP, 2011) reported Hong Kong people’s willingness to be “members of the Chinese race” rather than “members of the PRC”.



1. The Peak*
2. Hollywood Road, Cat Street & Man Mo Temple*
3. Western Market
4. LanKwai Fong and SoHo
5. Golden Bauhinia Square & Special Flag Raising Ceremony*
6. Repulse Bay*
7. Stanley Market & Murray House
8. Happy Valley Racecourse
9. Jumbo Kingdom
10. Aberdeen
11. 1881 Heritage
12. Cheung Sha Wan Road Fashion Street and Apliu Street
13. Ladies' Market
14. Temple Street Night Market
15. Jade Market & Jade Street
16. Yuen Po Street Bird Garden/Flower Market, Goldfish Market
17. Clock Tower
18. Avenue of Stars
19. A Symphony of Lights
20. Kowloon Walled City Park
21. SikSik Yuen Wong Tai Sin Temple
22. Lei Yue Mun Seafood Bazaar
23. Sha Tin Racecourse
24. Ching Chung Koon
25. Ping Shan Heritage Trail
26. Kat HingWai*
27. Tai Fu Tai*
28. Fung Ying Seen Koon
29. Lung Yeuk Tau Heritage Trail*
30. Lam Tsuen Wishing Trees & Tin Hau Temple
31. Sai Kung Town
32. Lantau Island
33. Cheung Chau Island*
34. Lamma Island*
35. PengChau*
36. Victoria Harbour

*Note: * marks these attractions have different content in English and simplified Chinese version*

Figure 5.1 Themes of Hong Kong's popular cultural attractions

6. Comparative analysis of promotional materials

Hong Kong has adopted a singular branding strategy as Asia's World City for all markets. According to Okano and Wong (2004), this branding has been used at least since the 1970s. Marketing activities targeted at western markets still emphasize the East meets West contrast, while promotional activities for Asia focus on Hong Kong as a modern metropolis. This leads to the construction of Hong Kong's image involving a binary opposite of East/West or Chinese/British. In this section, various English and simplified Chinese language promotional materials produced by HKTB are examined.

There is little evidence of the shift in emphasis of binary opposites as suggested by Okano and Wong (2004). Instead, the content of most of the materials is the same, regardless of the language used. Differences mainly relate more to the quantity of information provided rather than the messages conveyed. In general, the Chinese language materials contain more information.

Where differences in content are noted between English and simplified Chinese language promotional materials, the Hong Kong Plus myths are highlighted. One notes that international favour is commonly added to the Chinese version of the promotional materials. It may create a more international and modern Hong Kong in the eyes of mainland travellers. For example, the Chinese description of the Peak contains the description, "*The Peak Tower is designed by a famous architect Terry Farrell*". And in the Chinese description of Hollywood Road, HKTB establishes an implausible relationship between Hollywood Road and Hollywood in the US. These messages are not included in the English version.

Numerous references are also made to Hong Kong's colonial past in Chinese materials that do not appear in English materials. Chinese tourists are informed that the English name for Repulse Bay *was "derived from an old stationed British warship in the gulf for defending pirates"*. There is also mention of some of the less salubrious aspects of Hong Kong society as found in this description of Upper Lascar Rd "*in the ancient time was a place where many sailors lived. Brothels were everywhere. There is a mingling of good and evil people. Nowadays, the street is an antiques and grocery market.*"

Chinese language materials discussing Hong Kong's pre-colonial heritage place somewhat greater emphasis on traditional Chinese myths than found in English language materials. The description of the Kat HaiWai walled village and its associated heritage trail is much more thorough, highlighting Hakka heritage, Fengshui principles and links to the Song dynasty. Similarly, the descriptions of the Kwun Yum and Tin Hau temples in Repulse Bay provide more detail in the origin of the deities than the English version. The similar situation applies to pictures. For example, in the description of the Temple Market, Chinese temple pictures are added, where no such photos are in the same page of the English version.

It is only with attractions that are directly associated with PRC national myths that significant pro-China differences are noted between English and Chinese language materials. These differences are most noticeable in the description of the Golden Bauhinia, the site of the Handover from Britain to China. Both versions describe the *"Forever Blooming Bauhinia" Sculpture (Golden Bauhinia) as a gift from the Central Government to mark the widespread joy of the people at the return of the territory to the Motherland after more than 150 years. Other gifts to commemorate the historic occasion were sent by each of China's provinces, autonomous regions and other territories."* The English version is factual and rather nostalgic, highlighting that "Prince Charles was present to witness the relinquishing of what had often been described as the richest jewel in the British Crown". Reference is also made to the first Chief Executive being Shanghai born, as a means of the passing of governance from England to China. The Chinese version, on the other hand, is more patriotic, noting "*The Hong Kong SAR was formally established on 1st of July 1997. Mr. Tung Chee-hwa was nominated as Chief Executive. At 8:30am , President Jiang Zemin and Chief Executive in conjunction with HKSAR principal officials, guests and the public at the Golden Bauhinia Square to participate in the national flag raising ceremony. Since then the flag rises at 8am and downs 6pm every day, attracting many tourists and citizens."*

It is observed that numerous brochures related to heritage tours are only available in English as in Table 1. Among these different themed brochures, one common message is "East meets West" where no clear PRC symbols are in the content of these brochures.

7. Conclusion and limitation

This paper provides an initial PhD research plan, supporting by previous related research. The previous research examined how HKTB promotes its new emerging national identity – the PRC national myths after the Handover. The finding of this study revealed the continued importance of the portrait of Hong Kong's three types of myths (Hong Kong Plus, Hong Kong intangible heritage and pre-colonial

Chinese heritage) and its reluctance to embrace the PRC national myths in its tourism marketing activities. Indeed, the PRC myths were deemphasized, even among materials targeting the mainland China market, except for a small number of attractions associated with the return of Hong Kong to China. In addition, contradictions between Hong Kong's promotion (especially English version) and the official PRC narratives were significantly different as discussed. As a result, westerness was pointed out, especially to its non-PRC markets. This previous work concluded that Hong Kong's unique positioning is its differentiation from mainland China. It was found that there was clearly a gap between national myths in China and Chinese national myths in Hong Kong.

Limitations of my previous research mainly came from the adopting of qualitative research. In order to provide more valid results, different literatures could be examined to provide more comprehensive outlook of the study. In addition, I discovered that there are various Chinese national myths within postcolonial Chinese destinations and possibly outside of China. For this reason the PhD thesis has been proposed to answer: to what extent is tourism marketing related to national myths in Chinese postcolonial destinations?

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NATIONAL TOURISM ORGANISATION - MYTH OR REALITY OF MARKETING AND BRANDING OF TOURIST DESTINATIONS

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Abstract

The establishment of national tourism organizations on the Croatian territory, before one and a half century, emerged on the enthusiasm of local visionaries, who at the very beginning recognized the occurrence and importance of tourism. These enthusiasts have realized the necessity for establishment of an organization that would define new forms of behaviour of local people, government and economy toward foreign tourists who visit the area.

Development and the role of Croatian national tourism organization depended on the socio-political and economic circumstances that were present in these areas. The establishment of the Republic of Croatia and the adoption of national tourism organization“Croatian Tourist Board“ law, define the role of the national tourism organization in the concept of marketing and branding of tourist destination.

The paper starts from the fact that the role of national tourism organizations is oversized in the promotion and limited in marketing and branding of the tourist destination.

It is confirmed with the research of the attitudes of tourist boards members and representatives of the real sector and the tourism hospitality mediation at the tourist destination.

Research, conclusions and proposals for solutions that are defined in the paper, put in a realistic framework, role and possibilities of national tourism

organizations in the design of marketing and branding of tourist destination.

Keywords: tourist offer, tourist destination, marketing, promotion.

1. Introduction

National Tourism Organization (NTO) on Croatian territory has a tradition of one and a half century (Hygienic Society of Hvar 1868th). Development and operation of the NTO depended on the socio-political and economic circumstances that were present in these areas. With the implementation of Law of tourist boards and the promotion of Croatian tourism (NN 3/94), Croatian Tourist Board, the national tourism organization, was assigned a role for promotion of tourism as a social and economic phenomenon, also between local population, decorating the resorts, providing information to tourists, marketing, tourism promotion and branding of tourist destination in the domestic and international tourism market.

Under that Act, "Croatian Tourist Board is a national tourist organization." (NN 152/08, Article 51.) Croatian Tourist Board, the national tourism organization "is established to create and promote the identity and reputation of Croatian tourism, to plan and implementate the joint strategy and the conception of its promotion, proposal and execution of promotional activities of common interest to all operators in the tourism industry at home and abroad and raise the overall quality of Croatian tourism. "(NN 152/08, čl.51.)

According to the World Tourism Organization, "NTO is an autonomous government body, sometimes a semi-state body or a body which has no official character, established or recognized by the state as a governing body, authorized at the national level for promotion, and in some cases, for marketing of international tourism" (UNWTO, 1999: 126)

The theoretical part of the paper specifically defines the term and meaning of NTO and functions of the marketing of NTO.

The main objective of this study, starts from the fact that the NTO is taking a very specific place in the tourist system from which derives its role in the development of tourism, marketing strategy and establishing certain relations in the tourism market.

The basic hypothesis in the present study is based on the recognition that large, mythical importance is given to the role of national tourist boards in promoting and branding of tourist destination, and in the same time, ignoring the real situation in development of tourism offer and in creating new tourism products in destinations.

This study tries to establish the existence of different levels of understanding, from great mythical to the real meaning and role of the national tourism organization in marketing strategy, branding and promotion of tourist destinations. In existing system of tourist boards, promotion has an extremely mythical meaning. Promotion has the leading role in meaningful activities of national tourism organizations. For subjects of tourism economy along with promotion, in the strategy of marketing are included also joint marketing activities of NTO-s and tourism economy, increase of tourism quality and creation new tourism products of destination.

Research methods in this paper are based on field research-survey, which was conducted in tourist boards and economic entities of tourist economy throughout Croatian coastal counties.

Processing and analyzing data, confirms the premise of high importance of promotion as one of the dominant, sometimes exclusive activity of NTO-s in marketing strategy and branding of tourist destination in regard to economic subjects which perceive promotion, marketing strategy and branding of tourist destination in a different way. Research results encourage the initiative of establishing a more effective model of NTO that would, in its marketing strategy, besides the promotion, equally involve also the other elements of marketing (product, distribution channels, human resources).

2. The Term and Function of National Tourist Organization

NTO is an organization that works in the public interest on the systematic development and promotion of tourism at the local, regional and national levels. The fundamental role of NTO is to provide advisory policy for central government in relation to tourism. (Jafari, 2000: 408). NTO is an institution at the national level in the form of governmental or semi-governmental organization incharged for the commercialization of tourism destinations. (Kotler, Bowen, Makens, 2010: 668) This is the official statewide organization that is responsible for improving the promotion, research and marketing in the tourism industry of the country. (Koster, 1995: 36) NTO has two marketing functions: (Kotler, Bowen, Makens, 2010: 669): a) to formulate and develop tourism product or product of destination; b) to promote the tourism product in the relevant market. At the national level the NTO has two main purposes: (Toyler, 1994: 147) a) the responsibility for the development of tourism products; b) the responsibility for the development of the tourism market. From the above it can be concluded that the primar task of the NTO-s is to create preconditions (Midelton, 2001: 228): a) for the creation and development of tourism products in the area of its operations; b) for the promotion of tourism product in the relevant market. NTO is defined in two special functions (Burkart and Medlik, 1974: 258): a) the development of tourism in the entire tourist destination; b) the development of promotional activities according to individual holders of tourist services.

Based on the above, there are four basic functions of NTO (Seaton and Bennett, 1999: 30): a) identify the market structure and tourists; b) establish communication with the tourist market; c) increase the number of tourist arrivals, d) to enhance image destinations. The specific role of NTO is to ensure a country the maximum economic and social benefits that can be generated from the tourism. However, the NTO takes care of social factors of tourism, such as protection of cultural heritage, the promotion of cultural and social values and preservation of the environment for future generations. (Gee, Makens, Choy, 1997) NTO does not sell products directly to tourists and is not directly responsible for the quality of the product, although the main goal of the NTO is to improve the quality of tourism products. (Midelton, 2001: 327)

NTO is responsible for the following functions (Kotler, Bowen, Makens ,2010: 756.,757):

1. Collecting and synthesizing data on tourist traffic throughout the state level. NTO collects information on the number of visitors - tourists, the length of their stay in tourist destinations are the type of accommodation that tourists use, consumption of tourist products and other sectors of tourists.
2. Representation in markets through its offices and offices abroad, presents tourism, but also presents the entire national community - the country abroad.
3. Organization of workshops and trade shows- NTO in one place connects producers of tourism products and representatives of travel agencies and tour operators that their distribution channels to penetrate potential customers - tourists. Throughout the exhibition space, promotional materials and appearance at the fair, potential tourists gain a comprehensive understanding and perception of one tourist destination and country.
4. Familiarization trips- for representatives of travel agencies, tour operators, travel journalists and writers. During the familiarization trip across the country, travel journalists and writers are acquainted with not only the tourist offer but also the entire social and cultural environment and the characteristics of the country. Their impressions are inserted in news articles, books, TV and radio shows, Internet blogs, and in this way they perform the promotion of the overall tourist destinations. By

organizing a familliarization trip, tourist destinations and tourism products as well as the whole country is acquainted in its complexity. Through the media, it is presented to the international public.

5. Participation in joint marketing schemes and marketing program- every part of the national community and the subject of tourist destinations can be presented in the most appropriate way to to the public and the tourism market.

6. Support for entrepreneurial ventures in tourism- the NTO throughout incentives creates a positive situation for business and development in tourism natonwide.

7. Consumer assistance and protection- tourist- with information system and information, national tourism organization helps consumers- tourists, to obtain relevant information about the tourist product. Information helps tourists to create a more complete picture of the tourist destination they intend to visit. Creating a code on the reliability of his information, the NTO-s creates general criteria that each tourist information at the state level should include, towards better informing, and better protection of tourists.

8. General education of its membership, but also of the population at tourist destinations and the country as a whole, refers to a better understanding of culture, tradition, economy and general living conditions in the countries from which tourists usually come. Education of its members and the population at tourist destinations helps creating awareness of the close connection between tourism and the general state-level tourist destination and country.

In some countries, the NTO is the body responsible for the promotion and marketing of the country as a tourist destination. Accordingly, the function of the national tourism organization refers to: (Osti and Pechaner, 2001: 233) a) the study of the international market, especially the characteristics and trends in demand for individual and organized tourism; b) the constant observation of the development of demand from foreign tourists; c) the planning of joint national strategy for public and private operators; d) the collaboration with other stakeholders, eg government department for tourism, regional tourism department, the central public administration, offices, professional associations, manufacturers and trade in tourism services, hospitality, food manufacturers, public utility sectors; e) the identification and recruitment of the proper combination of different marketing tools such as: ea) multimedia communications; eb) advertising in the mass media; ec) production of promotional materials, especially in the print media, multimedia and audiovisual form; ed) distribution of information through traditional and electronic media; ee) distribution of promotional materials, ef) organization of business meetings between national offer side and demand side, eg) help to arrange visits to local tour operators abroad and foreign tour operators at home; eh) organize appearances at fairs, exhibitions and numerous events at home and abroad, ej) operative assistance and advisory services to national tourism economy in planning the successful activities for the promotion of tourism products to foreign markets.

Tasks and objectives of Croatian NTO are based on the Act of Tourism Boards and the promotion of Croatian tourism (NN 152/08). Common goals of tourist boards are: (NN 152/08, Article 9.) a) to improve the general conditions of tourists stay, in particular to raise the quality of tourism and other complementary services, to preserve and create a recognizable and attractive tourist environment and to assure tourist hospitality for the area they were established; b) promotion of the tourist product of areas for which they were established in accordance with the system of promoting tourism and its specific and general tasks from the level of small town to the level of the Republic, and because of the involvement in European and international tourist trends; c) raise of awareness of the importance of economic, social and other impacts of tourism, and the need and importance of preserving and improving all elements of the tourism product of certain area, in particular the protection of the environment.

Special importance of tourism boards is reflected in the fact that "the operation of tourist boards is based on the principles of general usefulness, and without realizing profit." (NN 152/08., Art.10) The system of tourist boards operates on three levels: a) small towns and cities tourist boards ; b) the county tourist boards; c) The Croatian National Tourist Board.

In the system of tourist boards a special place and role belongs to the Croatian National Tourist Board. Obligation of the Croatian National Tourist Board is: (NN152/08, Art.54.)

a) to care about the total Croatian tourist offer;

b) to undertake measures and activities for the development of tourism in touristically less developed parts of Croatia;

c) to suggest the Ministry of Tourism and Croatian government long-term concept and strategy for tourism marketing;

d) to organize the research of tourism markets;

e) to establish and implement programs for the promotion of the interests of Croatian tourism and to provide appropriate guidelines;

f) to monitor trends in the tourism markets and the effectiveness of promotional activities in general and certain advertising actions, to propose and to take

appropriate measures and actions;
g) to cooperate with the NTO-s in other countries and to take action to get involved in various multi-national and regional tourism promotion programs and projects;
h) to promote and coordinate initiatives of tourist boards and all commercial and other entities that operate in the tourism industry, directly and indirectly, for the improvement and promotion of Croatian tourism.

According to the above mentioned, Croatian NTO has a mission to create and promote the reputation and identity of Croatian tourism, to plan, design and develop Croatian tourist product. Also, the Croatian NTO has a mission and purpose to plan, create and implement a strategy and concept of promotion of Croatian tourism product and to realize the promotional actions that are of common interest to all operators in the tourism industry in the domestic and international tourism market.

3. The Marketing of National Tourism Organization

Course of development of tourism shows that tourism marketing begins to apply at the stage of development of tourism when facilities of tourist offer begin to surpass the needs of tourism demand.

It is sure that “the era of tourism marketing” as well as marketing concept in tourism, is based on the guidance of offer towards satisfying the identified needs of tourists - the customer or consumer. Because that “creating value and consumer satisfaction, are the heart of marketing in the hospitality and travel industry.”. (Kotler, Bowen, Makens, 2010: 3)

However, in tourism occur some specificity in satisfying the needs of tourists with particular service. Tourist service accompanies tourist - consumer on his journey. In the tourism, the buyer or consumer travels to the point where the tourist service is provided, because it can be used only in that place. For marketing in tourism, it is possible to apply the principle as well as for marketing of services in relation to the marketing of products, and is distinguished by four fundamental principles: (Kotler, Bowen, Makens, 2010: 42)
a) intangibility of the service;
b) development of the standard and quality of services;
c) non-separability of customer and service;
d) the inability to store the service.

A special approach to marketing in the hospitality and tourist travel is

determined by five separate elements: (Morrison, 1996: 42)
a) the use of more than four elements of marketing mix (product, channels of distribution, promotion and price), the hospitality and tourist trips are added four elements: people, packaging, programming and business collaboration,
b) the great significance of the oral tradition in the advertising,
c) greater use of emotional appeal in the promotion,
d) increasing difficulties in testing of marketing concepts,
e) an increase of the importance of business relationships with complementary organizations. Middleton (2001) suggests seven elements of marketing mix in tourism: cost, sales channels, product, promotion, people, physical facts and actions.

It is sure that marketing in tourism has a key role because the customer rarely sees, feels and experiences the product that he intends to buy. To evaluate a product, costumer must travel to a destination where the product is offered. Furthermore, marketing in tourism must focus on communicating with the consumer and, and what is most important, on the value of the tourism product. Also, marketing in tourism is "directly, target-oriented activity that offset the reality of travel destinations and interior suppliers with tourist needs." (Seaton and Bennett, 1999: 27). In accordance with the general principles of marketing in tourism, the main marketing activities of NTO-s are: (Weaver and Operman, 2000: 224)

1. promotion:
   a) advertising in relation with market share;
   b) participation in national and international fairs;
   c) the organization of study trips for journalists and representatives of tour operators and agents;
   d) maintenance of tourist-information offices in major tourist areas;
   e) the production and distribution of promotional materials;
   f) joint promotion with the tourist industry and with companies that are interested.
2. researches:
   a) trends in the arrival of foreign tourists;
   b) the characteristics of tourist traffic and the share of certain emission markets;
   c) sources of information and reports in the media;
   d) the degree of satisfaction of tourists;
   e) the activities and behavior of tourists during a visit to a receptive country.

3. cooperation with tourist industry:
   a) support for new and existing tourism economy;
   b) advice in product development;
4. tourism information:
   a) organizing tourist-information centers at key locations in destination, such as at the airport and in the city center;
   b) sending tourist information to home address of a potential tourist.

Marketing in tourism is a prediction of the changing desires of tourists. Retention and return of tourists is the essence of marketing in tourism that should be respected, but tourists want special value and new experiences.

Table 1 New trends in the tourism market, tourism marketing and national tourism organization.

Tourism market	
Before	**Now**
• Market driven by demand • The power of agent • The importance of brochures • Booking in advance • Packages • Few available destinations • Travel focused on relaxation and rest	• Market driven by supply • Increase of direct sales • New tools: CD-Rom, Internet ... • Last-minute bookings • Passive holidays • A lot of available destinations • Holiday focused on experience
Tourism marketing	
Before	**Now**
• Individual tourism business • Few differentiated products • The offer based on accommodation • Offer created by intermediaries • Homogenous Market • The main objective is the sale / distribution • The importance of advertising and promotional materials	• More tourism business • Differentiation and specialization of products • The offer based on the experience • Locally generated tourist offer • More market segments • Consumers as a major goal • The importance of new technologies

NTO	
Before	**Now**
• The importance of the tourism sector • Low investment control • Public sources of income • Promotion and communication of geographical / administrative units • Etc..	• Closer cooperation with the private sector • Greater control of investment • Higher contribution from the private sector • Promotion and communication of brand and products • Etc..

Source: - systematization of authors

Marketing activities of the NTO provides an extra dimension and the need for a new concept of NTO-s. Because of this, the essential function of the national tourism marketing organization is in promoting and communicating of brand and a tourist destination on the tourist market.

Destination branding relates to the integrity of the tourism product while taking into account all aspects of the site. (Kozak and Balog, 2011). Brand of destination is defined as the perception of a place that reflects a shared memory of tourists (Cai, 2002:723). Ritcihie and Ritchie(1998) define the destination brand, as a name, symbol, word or a graphic sign that creates the difference between tourist destinations, moreover, with the brand are transferred promised unforgettable experiences that are associated with the destination and which also serve to establish and strengthen the remembrence of pleasant memories and experiences relating to tourism destination. Branding a tourist destination is a set of marketing activities, such as: (Kozak and Balog, 2011:156)

a) support for creation of names, symbols, logos, type fonts or bullets that are easy to recognize and distinguish the destination;

b) transferring the expectations consistent, memorable and unique travel experiences that are associated with the destination;

c) could be used for the consolidation and strengthening emotional bonds between visitors and destination;

d) reducing the costs for research of consumers` desires and understanding of the risk. Overall, these activities serve to create the image of a tourist destination that has a positive effect on consumer choice destination. (Blain, Levy and Rich, 2005)

Accordin to Pike (2005: 259), destination branding is a more complex process than other products and services for several reasons. First, the destination consists of multidimensional and diverse offerings, secondly, there are numerous participants and policy-making in destination marketing organization (DMO) which is funded by the state and tour operators.

Modern trends in tourism define new tasks and objectives of the marketing of NTO: (UNWTO, 2003: 13)
a) increase in foreign tourist arrivals;
b) higher spendings of the tourists;
c) the reduction of seasonality (extension of the tourist season);
d) 'import' tourism to areas that until now have not been very touristic
e) improve the image of destinations,
f) amortize the impact of individual circumstances which are very important for tourism, which can occur frequently, such as terrorism, epidemic diseases. Instruments for the realization of the objectives of the national tourism marketing organization are based on:
a) the international destination marketing;
b) the promotion of tourism in the pre-season;
c) the compliance of regional development, marketing and promotion;
d) a greater use of the media, promoting product brands;
e) the environmental protection measures; f) on study trips of media and tour operators.

According to above mentioned, marketing of the NTO can be defined as activities with which the NTO identifies its tourists, actual and potential, communicates with them because of cognition and the impact on their desires, needs and motives at the local, regional, national, and international level, and consequently formulate and adapts certain tourism products with the aim of satisfying tourists but also reaching own goals.

4. Methodology and Results of the Research

The study was conducted during the month of December 2012, through a questionnaire on a sample of 37 representatives - executives-from tourist boards and a questionnaire on a sample of 30 representatives-executives in tourist industry (hotels and tourist mediation), throughout coastal counties.

Results of the research indicate that representatives of tourist boards consider promotion of the tourist destinations as the most important role of the tourist community, because 59.5 percent of the representatives of tourist boards highlighted promotion of tourist destinations in the first place (out of 9 given roles). Second most important role of the tourist board is branding of tourist destination, because 18.9 percent of the representatives of tourist boards believes that branding of tourist destination is one of the priorities of a tourist board. The concept of marketing of tourist destination is the third most important role of the tourist board. However, none of the representatives highlighted marketing as a priority (first) role of the turist boards. Creation and promotion of new tourism products in the tourism market is the fourth most important role of tourist boards according to directors of the tourist boards. Only one representative from the tourist boards has put promotion and affirmation of new tourism products in the tourist market in the first place as the main role of tourist boards. In fact, this activity is the basis for the marketing strategy of tourist destination. Informing tourists is the fifth most important role of tourist boards, because 10.7 percent of the tourist board directors considered that the primary role of the tourist boards is informing visitors. Sixth most important role is creating a touristic climate in the tourist destination because 8.1 percent of tourist boards directors consider this role as the primary role of tourist boards. The improvement of the tourist offer of destination is the seventh most important role of tourist boards. It is indicative that none of the representatives of tourist boards consider that the improvement of quality tourism offer of destination is one of the primar tasks of the boards as a base of strategy of tourism destination marketing. The eighth-ranked role is expanding tourist culture and hospitality of local people, and the ninth is, the role of tourist boards in arranging tourist destinations. The reason for the low ranking of two proposed roles is that none of the survey participants consider educational function of tourit board in the design of marketing of tourist destinations as preferenced. It is also proven by the next stage of research when it was tested, among the representatives of tourist board, the role of tourism board in the concept of tourism destination marketing. In first place is the role of boards in promoting tourism destinations, because 75.7 percent of examinees considered promotion as the main role and activities of the tourism board in the concept of marketing of tourist destination.

Creating a new tourism destination product is in the second place in the “hierarchy” of roles of tourist boards. However, only 8.1 percent of surveyed believe that the creation of new tourism products is a primar role of tourism board in the concept of marketing of tourist destination. Connection of tourism supply and demand is the third most important role of tourism board in the design of marketing of tourist destination. Only 5.4 percent of surveyed from tourism boards believe that with the establishment of a new organization of tourist boards (DMO) is created a new link between travel supply and demand as well as new concepts of marketing of tourist destination in which tourist board operates.

48.7 percent of the representatives think that the role of the tourism boards in defining the concept of marketing of tourist destinations is very important, 56 percent of the surveyed think that the role is significant, and 5.3 percent of the representatives think that the role of tourism boards in concept of marketing of tourist destination is of minor importance.

Exploring the process of how tourism board contributes to the branding of its tourist destinations, tourist boards´ representatives expressed their attitude; 35.1 percent said that the use of new promotional tools(web and social networks) is the most important, 35.1 percent of representatives have put investment in the promotion of the destination in the second place, 24.3 percent have put the increase in the quality of tourist offer in the third place, and 5.4 percent have put educated and hospitable locals and tourism workers in the fourth place. Especially important in the research are the attitudes towards the question: how does the local environment respects thinking and actions of tourist board in branding of tourist destination. 75.7 percent of the representatives of tourist boards believe that the local community partially respects the opinion and activities of tourist board in branding of tourist destination while 16.2 percent fully respect the opinions and activities of tourist board in branding tourist destination. At the same time, a research-through-the questionnaire which was attended by 30 senior representatives of the tourist industry (hotels and tourist mediation) was conducted. Results of the research indicate that the tourist industry representatives, 26.7 percent, believe that the most important role of tourist board is branding of the tourist destination, and 23.3 percent of the representatives from the tourist industry believe that the second most important role of tourist boards is promotion of tourism destination. The creation of marketing of tourist destination, according to the attitudes of representatives of tourism economy, is the third most important role of tourist board (13.3 percent). The fourth most important role of tourist boards is the joint marketing activities of the tourist boards with tourist economy (6,7 percent). Arrangement of tourist destinations is the fifth most important role of tourist boards and creation and affirmation on the market of new tourism products is the sixth. None of the participants in the tourist industry listed these answers in priority roles of tourist boards. The seventh most important role of tourist boards is the improvement of the offer of tourist destination.

Informing tourists is the eight most important role of the tourism boards. The lowest in the ranking, according to the examinees attitude, are these two roles of the tourism board: expansion of the tourism culture and hospitality among the local population and tourism workers, and creating an atmosphere of tourism in the tourist destination.

Primar attitude (46,7 percent) of the representatives in tourism industry about the role of tourism boards in concept of marketing of tourist destination refers to the promotion of destination. Joint activities of the tourist board with economy of tourist destination in the concept of marketing of tourist destinations is the second most important role according to the representatives from tourism industry (30 percent). Creation of a new tourism destination product is the third most important (13.3 percent) role of tourism board in concept of marketing of tourism destinations. Fourth most important role is connecting tourism supply of destination and tourism demand. According to attitudes of representatives from the tourist industry increasing of the quality of tourists stay is the lowest role in rankig in concept of marketing of tourim destination.

For 60 percent of the representatives from the tourist industry, the significance of tourism boards in the concept of marketing of tourist destination, is very high, for 23.3 percent of them is high and for 16.7 percent of representatives boards have no particular meaning and according to them, tourism would take place in destination without tourist board.

40 percent of the representatives from the tourist industry think that the branding of tourist destination is the most important role, and it is reflected through joint promotional activities with the tourist industry. The second most important role (26,7%) of tourism boards in branding of tourist destination is based on greater financial investment in promotion of destination. Increase of the qualitiy of tourist offer is the third most important role (20.0%) of tourism boards in branding of tourist destination. Education and increase in hospitality of local population and tourism workers is the fourth most important role (10,0%), and the use of new promotional tools (web and social networks) is the fifth most important role (3,3%) of tourism boards in the branding of tourist destination.

Tourist economy (with high percentage 83.3 %) partially respects the opinion and actions of tourist boards. With 13.3 percent always and completely, and with of 3.4 percent, tourist economy respects minimaly opinions and activities of tourism boards in branding of tourist destination.

5. Discussion on Results of the Research

Studies show that 75.7 percent of the representatives from tourist boards expressed the view that the promotion of tourist destination is the primar role of tourist boards. For 18.9 percent of surveyed in tourist boards, branding of tourist destination is the second most important role of the tourist board. In contrast, none of the representatives from tourist boards believe that the creation of marketing a tourist destination is one of the most important roles in the functioning of the tourist board.

Creation and recognition of tourism products in the tourism market is for only 2.7 percent of representatives from tourism boards a primary role of tourist board. Improvement of the offer of tourism destination is the seventh most important role of the tourist boards. Based on the responses from the first question, where representatives of the tourism boards ranked very low the role of tourism boards in creation and promotion of tourism products in the tourist market as well as improvement of the offer of tourism destination, it is possible to determine the activities of the tourist boards and NTO-s that are insufficient in design of marketing of tourism destinations. Without improvement of tourist destination offer and creation of new tourism products and their affirmation in the tourism market it is certainly difficult to think about the concept of marketing of tourist destination.

Expansion of the tourism culture and hospitality of the local population is at the bottom of the priority list of actions and roles of tourist boards. Without the hospitality and the general culture of local population, with professionalism of tour operators, it is very difficult to build a development and marketing concept of the tourist destination because the human resources are the most important element „living element“ of tourism destination. Connecting tourism supply and tourism demand is for only 5.4 percent of the representatives of tourist boards a primary role of tourism boards in the concept of marketing of tourist destination. It is certain that in the system of tourist boards and NTO-s, members still do not think about new forms of organization (DMO), that would become a link between tourism supply and tourism demand towards the new marketing strategy of tourism detination. The study revealed that in the branding of tourist destination the role of tourist board is the most important in the application of new promotional tools (web and social networks), 35.1%, and the second most important role (35.1%) is in the investment in promotion of the tourist destination and third most important role is increasement of quality of the tourism product destination. Research also indicates that 75.7 percent of the representatives of tourist boards believe that the local community only partially respects the opinion and activities of tourist board in branding of tourist destination. Precisely, these results suggest the disparity of attitudes and activities of tourist boards and the actual role of NTO in the marketing of tourist destinations. For the tourist economy the most important role (26.7% of representatives) of tourist boards is branding of tourist destination and the second most important (23.3%) is the promotion of tourist destination. However, it is indicative that for the representatives of the tourist industry the third most important role of tourist boards (13.3%) is to create a marketing for tourism destination and the fourth most important (6.7%) is the role of joint marketing activities with the tourist industry. These results are best illustrated by the fact that the tourist economy (with a high percentage of 83.3 percent) partially respects the opinion and actions of tourist board in branding of tourist destination, what indicates that there are bigger opportunities for mutual respect and joint activities between tourism boards and the real sector, in the creation of marketing of tourist destination. The research confirmed the assumption of high "mythical" meaning of promotion, in the strategy of marketing of NTO. At the same time, a supporting role of NTO-s was proved in the creation and affirmation of new tourism products in the tourism market, and what should be the basic function of the marketing strategy of the NTO.

6. Conclusion

NTO had an important role in development of Croatian tourism so far. The role of the NTO has changed over time, depending on its position in the tourism system and the position of tourism in the economic policy. By defining the concept and functions of the NTO, the chronology of development of NTO is determined, from a theoretical and practical stand. Through definition of marketing of NTO, and the basic principles of marketing in tourism, the position and role of national tourist boards in creating the marketing strategy of tourism is determined, at the local, regional and national level.

The starting point in the study is based on the fact that the big, mythical importance is given to the role of national tourist boards in promoting and branding of tourist destinations, and at the same time, ignoring the real situation in the development of tourism offer and in creation and promotion of new tourism products in the market. These facts have been proven in this paper. Representatives of tourist boards and representatives of the tourist industry stated in research that the promotion and branding of tourism destinations are two primary roles of tourist boards. However, research shows quite opposite opinions when it comes to marketing strategies in tourism destinations. The role of tourism board is secondary in design of marketing strategy of tourist destination because none of the representatives of the tourism boards in research indicated the strategy of marketing of tourist destination as the main role of the tourist board. For the representatives of tourist boards primary role in branding of tourist destinations have new promotional tools (Internet, social networks) and additional investments in promotion of tourist destinations. For the representatives of the tourist industry creation of marketing strategies of tourism destination is one of the most important roles of the tourist board. In fact, the research confirmed that the most important role of the NTO is to promote the destination. For the representatives of the tourist industry, joint promotional activities between tourism economy and tourism boards, and increasing the quality of tourism, are the main preconditions for successful branding of tourist destination while representatives of tourist boards think that the main precondition is promotion, but promotion through new promotional tools (internet and social networks). The research puts the role of NTO in the marketing strategy of tourist destination in realistic framework. However, it provides incentives for more thorough research of the role and place of the NTO in the entire tourism system.

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TRANSFORMATION OF SPACE FOR TOURISM BETWEEN DESIRE AND REALITY

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Abstract

Tourism and space have to date been rather well discussed, however very little discussion has taken place within systematic scientific research such as, for example, within a research on the impact of tourism on space. Even at first glance the overview of the relationship between space and tourism shows that their relationship is very complex, especially if the economic, legal, social, cultural and political impact is taken into account.

Tourism takes place in space, and preserved, highly-valuable space is a strategic resource of Croatian tourism. The space designated and used for tourism should be beautiful and attractive, this referring both to man-made and natural spaces. An important component of space and architecture in the tourism offer is the part related to shaping, i.e., the so-called aesthetic component of space.

The space used for tourism is utilized on the spot and cannot be transported from another location as raw material. Man can undermine or destroy the value of space by unplanned or poorly planned activities in tourism (primarily by poorly planned construction). Different and mass types of construction in tourism in different spatial and temporal concentrations and pressures can have a harmful and destructive impact upon the natural, working and living environment of the host area. When construction exceeds certain limits, improvement turns into destruction. In that regard, tourism can be both/either a “friend” and/or an “enemy” of space. In addition to exerting a negative impact on space, tourism can also exert a negative impact on itself. By destroying one of its resources – space – tourism may be destroying itself. Space is here viewed not only from the aspect of protection or aesthetic design, but

as a resource for further economic development.

Many towns and municipalities in Croatia, especially along the coast, see tourism as a major goal of development, in particular after the Homeland War that was followed by massive social and economic changes. Despite the increasingly positive annual tourism indicators in the last decade (number of tourists, number of nights), spatial planners have been expressing growing dissatisfaction.

How do these goals affect the entire space? What are our findings on the transformation of the space for tourism in the past few decades? Are they real or not? To what extent are spatial plans related to tourism development plans and to what extent are they affected by the interest of capital?

With regard to tourism, care for space does not imply only the development and adoption of spatial plans, but it also implies a professional approach and awareness of the processes and trends which take into account the preservation and improvement of various spatial values.

Key words: tourism, space, transformation of space, spatial planning

1. Introduction

When Maude M. Holbach, back in 1910, wrote at the beginning of her book *Dalmatia the land where east meets west* that Dalmatia was *„land of past history, the land of future travel! "* (Holbach, 1910:17), she could never in her wildest dreams have imagined the discussions that would be held 100 years later about tourism on the eastern shore of the Adriatic Sea. Travelling through Dalmatia on a boat and seeing hotels, bathing areas and promenades being constructed along the coast for the needs of tourism development (Opatija, Crikvenica, Lošinj, Rab, Zadar, Hvar, etc.) she stated that Dalmatia was „*the opening up of the country to tourist*". Looking at Dalmatian space with the eyes of a Westerner, where big money was mercilessly transforming the space, Mrs Holbach had warned already then that "*the influences of modern civilisation is a problem of the future*" (Holbach, 1910:27). Given that most of her book is about the spatial and historical description of Dalmatia „*island-studded coast, Roman remains, medieval cities and last, but not least, medieval costumes*…" (Holbach, 1910:17) and honest and positive impressions from her travel, it should not be forgotten that her book was written as part of one of the activities of the *Society for the Advancement of Economic Interests of Dalmatia.*[1] The goals of the society were to launch investments in tourism and to point on the natural beauty of Dalmatia. In any case, M. Holbach believed Dalmatia to have huge, unexploited potential for tourism and saw tourism as one of the drivers of economic development of Dalmatia.

Although, as time went by, tourism turned out to be the fastest growing economic activity, it should not be forgotten that the key reasons behind the emergence of modern tourist phenomenon are non-economic, which does not exclude *„the fact that at the moment of establishment of mutual market relations between tourist offer and tourist demand they started behaving as marketable categories*" (Marković, 1972:72).

The relationship between tourism and space is known to be complex, not only due to complex economic interrelations on the global, European or national level, but also due to intertwined social, cultural and political relations. If we also take into account the fact that space is a limited good and that, unlike raw materials, it cannot be delivered from another location for the need of tourism (Marinović-Uzelac, 2001), there is clearly a need to take the complexity and interrelations into account when drawing up tourism development and spatial plans.

If the relationship between space and tourism is very complex, we may well ask ourselves how critically are we thinking about the spatial dimension of tourism on the national level in order to contribute to sustainable tourism development.

The fact is that by analysing only the spatial dimension of tourism, i.e. only areas designated in spatial plans for tourism-related purposes (or tourist zones), a wrong conclusion may be drawn since tourism takes place also in spaces not designated for tourism in spatial plans.

Following the aforesaid, based on an analysis of areas for tourist zones according to national spatial plans elaborated in the last fifty or so years, this paper's objective is to show that both legislation (Harvey, 1996) and economy are important in realizing the planned tourist zones (securing land area, financial means, planning the construction, etc.) as well as that the Croatian part of the Adriatic region has a large number of unutilized lands for development.

2. Spatial dimension of tourism in the past 60 years

After the Second World War, tourism on the Adriatic coast of Croatia started

[1] The society was founded in Vienna in 1897 by count Johann Nepomuk von Harrach who advocated tourism development on the eastern coast of the Adriatic Sea.

to assume unexpected dimensions. Its development was reflected in a spontaneous and rapid growth in accommodation facilities, strong growth in the number of domestic and foreign visitors and growth in investments in tourism. Tourism was not penetrating just specific parts of the Croatian Adriatic coast; it was irresistibly penetrating the entire area without waiting to be provided with technical, organizational, administrative, legal and spatial prerequisites. Due to rapid construction of tourist facilities, tourism began to show signs of disorganization and incoordination, in space as well as with various economic activities it was directly and/or indirectly connected with. Tourism was not provided with sufficient quantities of drinking water, electricity, roads, food etc. Construction or renovation of tourism-related facilities was limited to mostly hotels, boarding houses, youth hostels and youth resorts, and very little was invested in constructing the necessary technical infrastructure and other buildings that should have been included in the tourist offer. At the time, the importance of communal and regional infrastructure, roads, sanitation measures, heath insulation, modernization of buildings or construction of leisure time facilities as part of tourist offer was not recognized. What that means is that the spatial aspect of tourism was partially solved in spatial, content-wise and technical sense. All the facts pointed to the need to coordinate and plan tourism not just on the level of individual investments or individual sectors, but also on the regional and national level. The complex relationship between tourism and space was becoming ever clearer, as well as the need to view them as an interrelated functional whole.

At the end of 1950s, the preconditions were emerging for drawing up a spatial plan for the entire Adriatic part of Croatia that would forecast the long-term impact of tourism development on space. To draw up such a plan, data about the current state of the coast and its potentials from various aspects (road, railway and air traffic, postal services, agricultural production, infrastructure, hospitality services etc.) was gathered because it did not exist. Drawing up a long-term spatial plan for the needs of tourism implied also an analysis of natural, geographic, demographic, economic and traffic conditions because guidelines for the development of tourism and space connected with other economic activities could have been drawn up only based on these data. The drawn-up *Economic Development Plans 1957 – 1961* stimulated tourism development on several levels, but did not encompass the complex and multi-layered issue of tourist construction (Kranjčević, 2012b) or spatial potentials such as, for e.g., carryng capacity.

It was only with the study entitled *Market aspects and distribution of tourist demand as the basis for tourism-related regionalization of the Adriatic area*

(***1965), elaborated by the then Institute for Tourism Economy in 1965, that the assessment of spatial distribution of accommodation facilities and distribution of visitors along the entire coastline suitable for swimming was made. The largest number of accommodation facilities was planned for central Dalmatia, followed by Kvarner and Primorje and then by southern Dalmatia. When it comes to the type of accommodation, the largest areas were set aside for tourist resorts followed by resorts for workers and camp sites, and only then by hotels.

It was followed by the drawing up of the Regional spatial plan for the Southern Adriatic in 1968, developed with an aim to find an optimum social, economic, market and in particular spatial function of tourism in the general development of the southern Adriatic region and tourist development of the country as a whole. In addition to the Croatian part of the Adriatic area, southern Adriatic also encompassed the territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina and Montenegro.

Several years later, in 1972, *the Coordination spatial plan of the Upper Adriatic region* was completed, encompassing the territory of Slovenia and Croatia coast. In addition to the default Adriatic area, this plan also encompassed Slovenian Alps, Gorski Kotar and a part of Bosnia and Herzegovina with an aim of linking the general development of the coastal and interior areas.

Table 1 Size and spatial distribution of accommodation facilities in comparison to needed land area in ha

Land area in ha	**Western Istria (ha)**	**Kvarner and Primorje (ha)**	**Northern Dalmatia (ha)**	**Central Dalmatia (ha)**	**Southern Dalmatia (ha)**	**Total**	
						(ha)	**%**
Hotels and boarding houses	337,5	841,5	351	994,5	616,5	3141	19,3
Holiday resorts	587,5	1567,5	512,5	2177,5	955	5800	35,5
Motels	58	90,5	50,5	148,5	53	400	2,4
Camp sites	493	713	492	1300,35	440,65	3439	21,1
Resorts for workers	535	655	696	1187,5	480	3553,5	21,7
Total	2011	3867	2102	5808,35	2545,15	16335,5	100

Source: Market aspects and distribution of tourist demand as the basis for tourism-related regionalization of the Adriatic, 1965: 50

No further spatial plans for larger areas were developed after these "major" plans. The nineties brought major social changes with a significant impact on the attitude towards spatial planning. Territorial organization changed, making accurate comparison of data on spatial dimension of tourism difficult. Recent data from the *Draft Report on Spatial Situation in the Republic of Croatia* (*** 2012) make it possible to compare the existing and planned, i.e. the built and un-built land areas designated for tourism-related purposes outside settlements. Table 2 shows that the highest number of planned and realized areas for tourism-related purposes was in the northern and not in the central Adriatic area as had been envisaged in 1965 when the largest land areas for tourism-related purposes were set aside in the central Adriatic area.

Given that the largest areas for tourism-related purposes were planned and realized in the northern Adriatic, this spatial dimension can be compared against the number of visitors and accommodation capacity. Nowadays, northern Adriatic has the largest share of accommodation capacity, 52%, with a 54% share of overnight stays, whereas southern Adriatic has 45% of overall accommodation capacities in Croatia and 42% of overnight stays (continental Croatia has an equal share in accommodation capacities and overnight stays).

Given that the Adriatic region in Croatia is under the highest pressure when it comes to building activities because of tourism, the situation regarding the built-up area should also be analysed. It is interesting to compare the data on the built-up area since the mid-20th century until today. According to data of the Ministry of Construction and Physical Planning, prior to 1960 the built-up area amounted to around 150 km of coastline. From 1960 to 2000 the built-up area increased manifold, from around 150 km to around 837 km (***2012: 47).

Table 2 Building area for tourism-related purposes outside settlements in the protected coastal area

County	Area for tourism-related purposes (ha)	Built-up area (ha)	% of built-up area
Istria	2519,86	1306,23	51,84
Primorje-Gorski Kotar	1306,30	743,99	49,47
Lika-Senj	243,80	53,13	21,79
Zadar	1864,26	280,92	15,07
Šibenik-Knin	664,64	291,21	43,81
Split-Dalmatia	1126,22	59,10	5,25
Dubrovnik-Neretva	597,23	105,33	17,64
Total	8322,31	2839,91	34,12

Source: Draft Report on Spatial Situation, 2012: 51

Table 3 Total number of permanent beds and percentage of accommodation capacity by main types (%)

Year	Number of permanent beds	Hotels	Campsites	Other collective capacities	Households Private beds
		Structure in %			
1989.	861216	15	35	19	32
2011.	852433	13	25	13	49

Source: Online information system of the Institute for Tourism (BIST), original data by National Bureau of Statistics

According to data from county institutes for spatial planning (October 2012), the length of the coastline designated (allowed) for construction in new spatial plans measures 1,562 km (24.8 % of the entire coastline measuring 6,278 km). Development of settlements (built-up areas and areas for further development) would take place along 1,033 km of coastline, which is around 16.5 % of its entire length, whereas plans set aside 529 km of coastline (8.4%) for economic purposes outside populated areas, including tourist zones.

The trend of rapid usurpation of the coastline, i.e. the most attractive space, by the adoption of *Regulation on protected coastal area* (*** 2004) the aim was to preserve this valuable and attractive space and therefore measures were defined with an aim of protection, purposeful, sustainable and economically effective use.

Now that all counties have drawn up their spatial plans, in addition to the ratio of the built-up area along the coast, it is also possible to monitor the current situation in the areas with permitted construction as well as planned building areas of places along the Adriatic coast.

Adriatic Croatia (according to spatial plans of counties - April 2008):

· Total built-up area in settlements 53,900 ha (45 %),

· Total planned building area in settlements 129,050 ha,

· Number of inhabitants in 2001 per 1 ha of built-up area in settlements – 24.6 inhabitants/ha (***2012:47).

Adriatic Croatia (according to spatial plans for towns and municipalities – as of 2012):

· Total built-up area in settlements 79,448 ha (65 %),

· Total planned building area in settlements 122,631 ha,

· Number of inhabitants in 2012 per 1 ha of built-up area in settlements – 17.8

inhabitants/ha (***2012:47).

Taking into account the maximum peak load of urbanized spaces in the Adriatic Croatia, according to the analysis by the Institute for Physical Planning of the Ministry of Construction and Physical Planning from 2010, which is still current today regardless of minor discrepancies in input data for 2012, if the population density remains at the same level as today (and we know it will not because of a constant increase in urban consumption everywhere in Europe), theoretically a maximum of 2,163,000 people could live in these areas. There are around 1,413,000 inhabitants in the Adriatic Croatia today, whereas spatial plans of the counties planned the number of permanent inhabitants for 2010 – 2015 to be around 1,730,000. The remaining number may be comprised of temporary residents (weekend-inhabitants). In areas designated for hospitality and tourism-related purposes, which could theoretically measure up to a maximum of 22,000, a maximum of 1,400,000 tourists (beds) could be theoretically accommodated (in existing and planned facilities) – provided the density is the same as for other tourist zones outside building areas in settlements. We should immediately warn that this is not a realistic scenario as these are only theoretical speculations.

These areas in settlements do not exist in sizes here mentioned, and it is not realistic to expect that all settlements (we are talking about building areas in 2,348 statistical settlements) will use 1/5 of the areas for that purpose. This has already happened or is likely to happen only in several hundred of coastal settlements but not in the mentioned proportions. Furthermore, tourist destinations use these areas also for other hospitality and tourism-related purposes (various hospitality facilities without or with a small number of accommodation facilities, i.e. beds). All this makes it realistic to expect a total of around 600,000 to 700,000 beds (***2012:47) to be built (existing and planned) in the areas designated for hospitality and tourism-purposes, predominantly in coastal settlements.

3. Conclusion

At the beginning of the 20th century nobody could have imagined the demand for space at the eastern coast of the Adriatic Sea and the extent to which tourism would transform space, either positively or negatively. When, in the 1950s, tourism started to irresistibly penetrate the Croatian coast of the Adriatic Sea, it became the strategic development goal on the republic as well as on the federative level because of economic interests linked with it. Various studies, projections and plans for different sectors were elaborated, all in an attempt to come up with comprehensive development of tourism. It turned out that planned tourism development required an interdisciplinary approach and that it should be placed in the context of international trends in tourism.

Such an approach called for a critical, i.e. realistic and effective evaluation of the existing situation, not only in tourism but in other activities as well, in order to draw up a quality long-term physical plan that would be multi-layered and would look at space in wider contexts, something that theoreticians of spatial planning warn about nowadays as well (Faludi, 2000; Friedmann, 2004; Friedmann, 2011; Newman and Thornley, 1996).

At the EU level, by adopting the *European Spatial Development Perspective* (*** 1999) and *Territorial Agenda* (***2007, ***20011), the role and importance of spatial planning is ever more revitalized. These documents put more emphasis on the importance of balanced spatial development, the so called polycentric spatial development (Freiedmann, 2011). Considering space only from the aspect of „cost effectiveness“ means to leave certain spaces “at the mercy” of more economically powerful spaces. Considering space in such a way, we can ask ourselves if it makes sense to invest only in more economically powerful spaces, to invest for the purpose of “making the powerful more powerful” (Thierstein,2008). Considering the space in such a way, less equipped and accessible spaces, incapable of making economic profit in short time, are at a disadvantage compared to more attractive spaces capable of making profit fast. (Kranjčević, 2012a).

Given that space does not end at administrative borders, it is only logical to observe the Croatian Adriatic area in the context of the Mediterranean. Although the Croatian Adriatic area is still in a better state than most of the Mediterranean, thanks to geographical features and historic circumstances, we should not disregard the fact that „the Mediterranean is in grave danger of losing the main assets which make it so unique, especially in agriculture and tourism“ (***2005:1).

The Croatian cost of the Adriatic Sea can be expected to continue being the most attractive area for entrepreneurship and construction, and consequently for investments, in the decade to come.

Closely connected to investments in tourism is the issue of ownership which is often understood as the absolute right of ownership. With such standpoints even physical planners are prone to change their attitudes toward space and become „as market actors“ (Adams&Tiesdell, 2010:202). The following danger for space arises from an erroneous understanding of space needed for tourism, resulting, especially on the lower levels, in spatial plans to cease being plans for „collective action“

(Healey, 2010:21) or “fulfil a co-ordinating function“ (Chettiparamb&Thomas, 2012:219) and become mechanisms for fulfilling wishes of investors who neglect interests of the community. In line with that, spatial plans are understood as formal instruments needed for using the land (Adams&Tiesdell, 2010; Kalliomäki, 2012), instead of instruments for optimum distribution of people, goods and activities in a specific area (Marinović-Uzelac, 2001) in order to avoid negative impacts on space and the environment. Spatial plans should articulate the spatial development logic instead of being drawn up in a way that formally satisfies legal requirements.

The fact that nearly all municipalities and towns on the coast see tourism as the main development goal (agricultural production is almost not mentioned at all), especially after the Homeland War, and want to secure to this end as large areas for tourism-related construction as possible in their spatial plans, even though these areas may not be realistic, is another indicator of the need for a more systematic and comprehensive assessment of the relationship between space and tourism. This indicates that municipalities and towns perceive tourism as a myth that will rescue them from a very difficult economic situation. Such perception of tourism brings the danger of only partial consideration of space already at the local level (municipality or town), which can prove itself to be incomplete since spaces are interconnected and mutually interdependent, regardless of administrative borders. For that very reason, in addition to taking into account complex prognoses regarding tourist demand and tourist offer, complex spatial relationships should be taken into account as well.

Any partial quantitative survey of space such as, for example, the ratio of the built-up area or areas intended for specific purposes, cannot contribute to a quality spatial planning or tourism development planning, but can indicate the existence of certain problems.

Unrealistic spatial plans with unrealistically large areas designated for tourism-related purposes can show at times the absurd and unrealistic nature of planning. Therefore, there is a realistic need for systematic scientific research of spatial structures and their connection with individual sectors as well as with the overall development.

Without a doubt, there has never been a bigger number of plans in effect in Croatia (Kranjčević, 2012a), yet it can also be said that there exists no systematic, comprehensive consideration of space for tourism-related purposes.

Likewise, it is wrong to perceive the space for tourism-related purposes exclusively through visual-aesthetic (Dühr, 2006) and/or architectural-construction elements as this leads to neglecting the primary purpose of space. And so spatial planning is seen as an instrument for embellishing settlements or as a purely construction activity, neglecting social, economic, legal and cultural dimensions of space.

Any partial consideration of space for tourism-related purposes cannot yield quality results, either for space or for tourism.

Taking into account that space is a limited good and a strategic resource for tourism development, it ought to be treated with care. There is danger, due to the need to revitalize economic and social development, to turn spatial planning into an instrument for restriction instead of an instrument for coordination and cooperation (Faludi, 2001; Faludi, 2010; D.uhr, 2010) of different economic activities. Forcing an economic growth may lead to social stratification and the dramatic increase in interest, at all scales, from local to global, in environmental issues (Breheny, 1991). It is, therefore, not at all unusual that the elaboration of spatial planning requires long- term thinking (Friedmann, 2004; Newman and Thornley, 1996), in order to avoid all undesirable consequences in space.

Not all economic interests can be satisfied in space; otherwise the needs of the community would not be met. Accordingly, spatial plans cannot become exclusively an instrument for imperative implementation of economic interests. Physical plans whose sole purpose is to satisfy economic interests may provoke turbulent reactions from other space users. Sadly, the engagement of big money and good traffic connections are sometimes more important for investments in tourism than community development goals or location features (exposure to sun, shelter from strong winds, water supply options and similar).

Due to its complexity and multi-layer nature, often also due to unclear relationships between tourism and space, it becomes obvious that spatial planning and tourism development planning require an interdisciplinary approach. The results are not dependant only on physical planners or tourism development planners since tourism cannot be controlled, coordinated and planned exclusively by individual professions.

All this indicates insufficient research into the impact of tourism on space as well as on social and physical environment. When there is a true intention to harmonize planning in tourism with spatial planning, it proves itself to be a complex social, economic, cultural and political task of the society.

Croatia has a tradition of spatial planning in tourism, but lacks systematic scientific research on the impact of tourism on space. Development of tourism cannot be exclusively controlled, coordinated and planned by individual professions; rather, it is the result of cultural and economic circumstances regardless of what individuals may desire.

In the end, when looking into the complex relationship between tourism and space, we should ask ourselves how ready our society is to critically examine the myth about tourism and spatial potentials in order to achieve sustainable tourism development.

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SUSTAINABLE MANAGEMENT OF BEACHES - A MYTH OR REALITY

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Abstract

Densely populated coasts are the most exploited world space. Along with tourism, these areas are of particular importance for other economic activities (port activities, the construction of industrial plants, power plants, etc.). Tourist demand is strongly directed towards coastal destinations and the listed areas are particularly affected by mass tourism, excessive urbanization and uncontrolled construction that often accompanies intensive tourism development, lack of physical plans or their unsatisfactory implementation, as well as the above-mentioned objects of other activities that do not apply high standards of environmental protection and are visually polluting coastal areas. At the same time, coastal areas and the protection of their sensitive natural and cultural heritage are a priority in the national interest.

Implementation of sustainable tourism development in coastal tourist destinations implies commitment and cooperation of all participants in the development of tourist destinations. This paper will explore the issue of beach management in coastal tourist destinations in Croatia. Considering the primary motive of tourists visiting these destinations, managing and certifying the beaches is of great importance for improving the quality of supply routes, keeping in mind the concomitant need to *protect this valuable resource. The research will include a sample of eighty beaches in Croatia with a Blue Flag in 2012. The aim of the research: (a) to determine the extent to which the certification program Blue Flag beach affects the viability of beach management, (b) to analyse the importance of public and private sector, i.e. public-private partnerships, in the sustainable management of beaches.*

Key words: sustainable tourism development, coastal destination, beach management, certification, public-private partnership

JEL code: L83, O21

1. Introduction

Densely populated coastlines are some of the world's most exploited places. Along with tourism, these areas are particularly important for other economic activities (port activities, the construction of industrial plants, power plants, etc.). Tourist demand is strongly directed towards coastal destinations and these areas are particularly affected by mass tourism, excessive urbanization and uncontrolled construction that often accompanies intensive tourism development, lack of physical plans or its unsatisfactory implementation, as well as the above-mentioned objects of other activities that do not apply high environmental standards and visually pollute coastal areas. At the same time, coastal areas and the protection of their sensitive natural and cultural heritage are a priority in the national interest. For long-term development of tourism in Croatia, non-exhaustion of the natural environment as a primary tourist resource and the conservation of natural and man-made factors which are tourist attractions are particularly important. Planning the future development of the economy, especially tourism, and coastal zone management must be aligned with respect to the principles of sustainable tourism development. Croatia is a country of coastline, numerous islands and islets, which makes the country especially attractive to tourists. Most of the tourists visiting Croatia are motivated by rest and relaxation in coastal tourist destinations (**TOMAS, 2010),** and the beaches are just one of the most important elements of its tourist attractions. Beaches are the distinctive feature of Croatian tourism, the most beautiful and attractive part of Croatian coast. Huge seasonal influx of tourists in the coastal zone produces a strong negative impact on the environment and is concentrated on a small area and a short period of time (**Ministerodell' AmbienteanddellaTuteladelTerritorio e del Mare,**

2006; UNWTO, 2007). Applying the principles of sustainability requires reducing resource usage and pollution, and conservation of natural and cultural heritage. (**Cunliffe, 2004; Fernandez, 2007**). This paper investigates the problem of beach management in coastal Croatian tourist destinations. Due to the limited research, this work focuses on the beaches with blue flag in the coastal region, as well as beaches that have already reached a certain level of organization and convenience for visitors. The total number of Blue Flags awarded in Croatia in 2012 was 106, out of which 5 beaches are situated in the city of Zagreb and 101 sea beaches with blue flags are located in the coastal region. These 101 beaches, the blue flag bearers, are operated by 58 resort manager. The study was conducted online via a questionnaire which was forwarded to the managers of beaches which have the blue flag. The sample included in this study was 70 beaches managed by 30 managers. The online questionnaire was completed by 17 beach managers which included 56 beaches that were Blue Flag bearers, since some beach managers who participated in the survey are in charge of 8 or more beaches. The issue of beach management in tourist destinations is a matter of public interest which also reflects the structure of tourism demand and supply routes. Moreover, sustainable beach management will increase the attractiveness of the destination, and ultimately serve to benefit all key subject destinations and local communities. Since the primary motive of tourists visiting these destinations is to visit the beach, managing and certifying the beach is of great importance for improving the quality of supply routes, keeping in mind the concomitant need to protect this valuable resource. This paper will analyze the beach as a natural, social and economic resource of an area, disadvantaged urban industrialization, construction of apartments and tourist development in general, and (il)legal devastation of coast in various ways.

The aim of the research: (a) determine the extent to which certification program Blue Flag beach affects the viability of beach management, (b) analyze the importance of public-private or public-private partnerships in the sustainable management of beaches.

2. Sustainable management of coastal areas

Today, the coastal area of the Adriatic is home to 790 villages (with about 1.05 million inhabitants, 370 dwellings and 190 000 weekend flats, hundreds of tourist zones including approximately 430 000 beds, dozens of zones and hundreds of major ports or marinas with berths 17 000). In addition to the pressure on the natural environment in terms of the physical occupation of space, urban sprawl leads to pollution of valuable ecosystems in the Adriatic Sea. The Croatian coastline is unique in Europe, is characterized by low depth, rocks and underbrush, islets, reefs and other natural peculiarities. (**Study estimates of the effects of the protocol on integrated coastal zone management in Croatia, 2010**).

Speaking about sustainable development of coastal areas primarily refers to the need to manage growth and development, and sustainable use of the resources of the area. It is the main objective of use of coastal resources and coastal areas so as to ensure the continued stability of ecosystems to sustainable economic growth. (**Evaluation study of the effects of the protocol on integrated coastal zone management in Croatia, 2010**).

The coastal area is an environmentally sensitive area with a high concentration of people, activities and interests. If the developmental activities in the coastal belt are economically viable (if equity returns), sustainable (if it does not exceed the carrying capacity of ecosystems), technologically viable (if the manufacturing process is not hazardous waste) and finally socially sustainable (if not disturbing interrelationships in the community), overall it can be defined as the sustainable management of the coastal zone.

Coastal areas and beaches will attract visitors to the area for a number of recreational and other activities both on land and at sea, and therefore need to be managed in a way that keeps beaches accessible. The management and construction of facilities on the beach should create a sense of comfort and satisfaction for users while preserving biodiversity and the original layout of the coast. The development and competitiveness of coastal tourist destinations is subject to quality control and use of the coast while preserving the originality and authenticity.

The style of beach management, construction and provision of services and recreational facilities on the beach are a competitive advantage for coastal tourist destinations. Taking into account a wide range of potential conflicts, Simm et al (**1995;147**) defined beach management as " the process of managing beaches, whether by observing, simple interventions, recycling, solids, construction, maintenance, beach facilities, or any combination of these techniques, in a manner that reflects an acceptable compromise given the available resources and objectives of the coast protection, nature protection, quality of life and the economy. "

The quality of bathing areas and services, and arrangement of space contributes significantly to the attractiveness and thus the competitiveness of coastal tourist destinations.

Putting more emphasis on user needs, Bird (**1996; 212**) suggested that beach management should aim:

“... To maintain or improve the beach as a recreational resource and a means of coastal protection, while providing services that meet the needs and expectations of those who use the beach. It involves careful consideration of legislation and decisions on the design, purpose and location of each object needed for favoring the use of the beach and enjoyment of its environment. “

In contrast, Williams and Micallef (**2009**) find that banks and beaches should not “be managed” if there are no people who want to use them, and therefore propose that beach management:

“.... Should be directed to the management of people and their way of interacting with the environment of the beach, in order to avoid, repair or mitigate”

The prime duty of those who manage the beach is to increase the carrying capacity in accordance with the limits of space and all relevant aspects. In each area, managers should strive to achieve a balance so as not to develop recreational facilities at the expense of protection, or to protect absolutely everything, because that would harm tourism, the development of recreational facilities and then also economic potential.

Carrying capacity is the basis for the development of tourism in accordance with the principles of sustainable development. Thus, for the sustainable management of the coastal belt and the beaches, managers particularly need to worry about carrying capacity as a tourist destination as well as the carrying capacity of a particular area of beach coastal tourist destinations. Carrying capacity of a tourist destination is its ability to support tourists and tourism development, while at the same time significantly impairs the total environment-natural, built and socio-cultural. It implies the presence of tourists, which in any case has an impact on the environment, but that is acceptable to the local population and tourists, and which is sustainable in the future. (**Smolčić Jurdana,2003**)

The documents of the Environment Programme of the United Nations (United Nations Environment Programme - UNEP) and the World Tourism Organization (World Tourism Organization - WTO) carrying capacity is defined as the maximum number of tourist ˝ users simultaneously visiting tourist place without unacceptable disruption of physical, economic and socio- cultural environment and without an unacceptable reduction in the quality of visitors’ satisfaction. “

Croatian beaches are mostly small, with a small carrying capacities, and given today’s tourism demand in the peak summer months for Croatian sea beaches, one needs to think about expanding beaches using different techniques (e.g. reclamation, pontoons, etc.) keeping in account the characteristics of the ecosystem, the requirements of tourists and the local population and the sustainability of such actions. The U.S. government is in the period of 1970 - 2000 spent half a billion dollars on a project to expand and fill beaches (**Coburn, 2007 in Klein, L. Y and Osleeb, 2010**), and it is estimated that state and local governments of the United States spent as much. (**Klein, Y and L. Osleeb, 2010**).

A review of the professional and scientific literature showed that most of the papers relate to the conservation and management of natural beaches of this type, while a small part of the work deals with the economic aspects of the sustainable management of the beach as a key resource for the development of coastal destinations.

3. The legal and institutional framework for managing the beaches in Croatia

Croatia has a very long and attractive coastline, but it has not been established with organized management of important natural resource. In creating conditions for achieving sustainability in tourism the adoption of laws and measures plays a significant role in the public sector at the national and local level, the adoption of laws and measures. Analyzing the legislative system that regulates maritime domain, where the beaches are an integral part of the naval era, one concludes that the Republic of Croatia has no regulations that comprehensively and systematically classify saltwater beaches that represent the maritime domain. The existing legal system does not provide adequate categorization of beaches or an adequate legal framework for the sustainable management of beaches.

According to the Regulations on the types of beaches and the conditions that must be met, dating from 1995, sea beaches are divided into landscaped and natural;

a) lanscaped beach – maintained land area directly connected with the sea, equipped with sanitary facilities, showers and cabins, surrounded by the sea, and accessible to all on equal terms. Rocky shores and artificial beach area - paved coast are also considered landscaped beach types.

b) natural beach is the land area which is not lanscaped and is directly connected to the sea, and accessible to everyone.

According to Micalleff, A. and A.T. Williams a beach is defined as a cluster of unconsolidated material (for example sand, gravel, clay, or a mixture thereof) that extends from the edge of the beach land, which can be a fine gravel or seawall, to the depths of the sea where there is no significant movement of sediment. (**Micalleff, A. and AT Williams, 2002**)

In the current legal system beaches are seen as part of maritime law. The Maritime Domain and Seaports Act (**NN, 158/03; NN, 100/04; NN, 141/06; NN, 38/09**) emphasizes that the maritime part of the beach is accessible to all on the same conditions. As such, they can under no circumstances be privately owned. However, they may be the subject of the concession. The regulation and procedure for granting a concession on maritime domain (NN 23/04, 101/04, 39/06, 36/08, 83/12) defines the conditions for granting concessions for the use of the maritime domain. Concession award procedure may be initiated after a certain maritime borders, and implemented in the Land Registry.

Under the law on Spatial Planning and Construction (**N/N, 76/07; NN, 38/09; NN, 55/11; NN, 90/11**) the beach is viewed as potential recreational zone and the quality of bathing water should be regulated (**NN, 110/07; NN, 73/08**), or as valuable habitats (Ordinance on habitat types, habitat, endangered and rare habitat types and measures for the protection of habitats; Nature Protection Act, including the EU Habitats Directive and Birds).

Regulation on the procedure for granting a concession on maritime domain (**NN, 23/04; NN, 101/04; NN, 39/06; NN, 36/08; NN, 83/12**) beaches are divided into:

- maintained public beaches, which serve a number of tourist facilities and citizens
- arranged special beaches, which are technical and technological unit of one of the objects in terms of the catering business,
- natural beaches, where procedures are performed in the space in terms of regulations governing urban planning and construction, and which can not hedge on the outside.

Beaches are the maritime domain, which is the common good in the non-owner relations and economic used exclusively through concessions and concession licenses. Management of maritime domain includes maintaining, improving, and the protection of the maritime domain in general use and special use or commercial use of the maritime domain to a concession or concession licenses. All concessions on the maritime domain and concession approvals are given on the basis of the maritime law of the Republic of Croatia. Maritime domain is directed, and protected by the Republic of Croatia directly or through local (regional) self-government, and local governments in accordance with the provisions of the Maritime Domain and Seaports Act (**NN, 158/03**). One of the important issues related to the beach management model is the implementation process of making concessions on tourist lands in the public domain, owned by the local government and the issue of making concessions to the beach on the maritime domain, however it does not provide clear criteria to concessionaires and authorized institutions to define the rights and obligations, and thereby facilitate the management and control beaches.

It is therefore necessary to create precise regulations that would define the types of beaches, standards on the beaches as well as models of economic use.

Protecting the public interest in the maritime domain is an essential element in the management of the beaches; on the one hand to protect and provide legal security to the tourist economy of the beaches, and on the other hand of the coast and the need to preserve public beach from inappropriate commercialization and restricting general use. Given that the beaches are economically significant tourism resource, the beaches manage to take into account the key documents and laws governing the development of tourism destinations.[1]

Solving individual problems related to the coastal zone engages several ministries: the Ministry of Environmental Protection, Physical Planning and Construction, Ministry of Tourism, Ministry of Sea, Transport and Infrastructure, the Ministry of Culture, State Institute for Nature Protection, Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Rural Development, and Ministry economy, Labour and Entrepreneurship. Between these ministries there is the overlapping of responsibilities, rights and responsibilities, which is negatively reflected on the sustainable management of the coastal belt and the beaches, so in 2009 the Interagency coordination for integrated coastal zone management in Croatia was established. Croatia is also the centre of the Regional Activity Centre for Priority Actions Programme (PAP / RAC), and the Mediterranean Action Plan of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP / MAP), which was established and located in Split in 1979; this program is focused

[1] Among themost important lawsmay be citedActtourism associations andthe promotion of Croatiantourism (NN 30/94, 152/08), which determinestheir responsibilityfor managingattractiveness, and the beaches are theattraction baseof coastaltouristdestinations, and the Law on sojourn tax (NN152/08,59/09), which provides thatthe fundsshould beallocatedthe local tourismcommunity, town or municipality andspent on"improving the conditions of stayof tourists", which can be applied toimprove the conditionsof stayof touristson the beaches.

on the integrated management of the coastal areas of the Mediterranean as a whole and as such, it can make a significant contribution to the sustainable management of the coastal zone and the coastal beaches of Croatian tourist destinations. This institution participated in the preparation of the guidelines for the sustainable management of beaches in Croatia, which is part of the COAST project, which is in collaboration with the Ministry of Environmental Protection, Physical Planning and Construction, other relevant ministries, Dalmatian counties and numerous local organizations, businesses and individuals implementing the Programme United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).

4. Voluntary initiatives – awarding beaches

Very significant role in the development of sustainable and environmentally responsible tourism around the world, apart from the legislation, are voluntary initiatives which help to develop and implement a variety of programs to encourage the development of such tourism. Voluntary initiatives which result from specific measures and actions can often be the most effective solution (**WTTO & IHRA, 1999**) Voluntary initiative means "voluntary development and implementation of projects and tools that stimulate tourism suppliers to improve their actions towards the environment and society beyond legal regulation; initiate and guide groups of individual tourism businesses and organizations. The only binding part of the agreement includes initiatives such as the establishment of networks, codes and rules of conduct that members and participants undertake some voluntary steps towards sustainable tourism, followed by awards for innovation and eco-labels for products in harmony with the environment and society as a whole." Bearing in mind the voluntary nature of these initiatives, one of the requirements for their design, implementation and control is the formation of a partnership between all the stakeholders in tourism development. Practices in the tourism industry in the world have already offered some answers to the question of sustainable development in the form of the development of various voluntary initiatives such as giving awards for activities related to environmental protection, creation of codes of conduct, certification, the development of education programs and eco-labels for products in accordance with the environment and society as a whole "(**WTO, 2002a ;15-16**). It is especially necessary to emphasize that this initiative, in addition to contributing to the sustainability of tourism destinations, also creates new elements and market conditions (**WTO, 2002a**), which actually becomes an important and useful tool for marketing strategy for sustainable tourism. Specific voluntary initiatives which achieve higher levels of sustainability in tourism focus on a three step process: to raise awareness of the issues and a willingness to improve (through, for example, rules of conduct, and other documents of self-binding initiative), to identify and stimulate good activities (such as giving awards), to multiply good activities and raise the standards (e.g. eco-labels) (**WTO, 2002a; 17**).

Recognition programs play a CRUCIAL role in pressuring the authorities to improve many aspects relating to the management of the beaches, such as the quality of the sea, without which there would be no major impact in this shift. Decisive and directive on the quality of bathing water (Bathing Water Directive) from 1976 (76/160/ECC) and the Directive on Water and Wastewater (**CEC, 2006**).

A new directive on bathing water quality has been in force since 2006. A new document i.e. directive allows greater public participation and improved access to relevant information about the environment. It attaches more importance to sharing information and raising awareness about water quality standards.

5. Programs of awarding certificates to beaches in Europe and the world

The world has developed a range of programs for assessing the value of beach space (or the beach) related areas as a result of ballooning tourism, with the aim of informing the public about where to find the best beaches. The conventional wisdom is that the beach certificates motivate people to visit the beach, but we should not underestimate the role of recognition beaches in the sustainable management of coastal area beaches because certification programs provide those who manage the beaches near perfect beach management plan. It also considers that the certificate-awarded beaches have positive impact which is reflected through further improvements, such as the creation of a car-free zone, the introduction of emergency services, environmental education, clean beach, and access to disabled beaches.

In Europe and the world numerous certification programs for beaches exist, but we shall mention only a few with special reference to the most famous beach management certification and this is the Blue Flag, which is now the only one in Croatia which provides a framework for the sustainable management of beaches. Intellectual owner of the certificate and the Blue Flag is an international leader of the Foundation for Environmental Education (Foundation for Environmental Education - FEE), which was established by the Council of Europe in 1981.

Blue Flag (Blueflag) [**http://www.blueflag.org**]-for beaches and marinas is an international environmental agenda for marine and coastal environment, whose primary goal is the sustainable management of the sea and the coastal strip. Today, Blue Flag is the world's most prized tourist ecological brand to the growing number of tourists when choosing a major landmark destinations. It is also the most recognized model of ecological education and public information, when it comes to the sea and coastal areas, particularly when it comes to the coastal areas experiencing the strongest pressure, and these are just the beach and the marina.

The Blue Flag program is implemented in 50-odd countries in the world in 2012. The Blue Flag flew at 3850 beaches and marinas in 46 countries across Europe, South Africa, Morocco, Tunisia, New Zealand, Brazil, Canada and the Caribbean, of which 106 beaches and 18 marinas in Croatia.

Table 1. List of countries from the region and the number of Blue Flags awarded in 2012.

State	Beach	Marina
Spain	538	83
Greece	375	9
France	358	84
Turkey	352	19
Portugal	275	15
Italy	246	61
Denmark	234	58
Croatia	106	18
Montenegro	19	0
Slovenia	8	2

Source: www.blueflag.org

As is evident from Table 1 competitive countries such as Spain, Greece, France, Turkey and Italy have a far greater number of blue flags than Croatia which has over a thousand beaches and its management is not fully defined in any legisl tion, neither with Blue Flag program.

The Blue Flag Program is based on the strict criteria and standards of beach management, which are divided into four groups for beaches and marinas:

a) education for the environment and public information,
b) quality of water,
c) environmental management,
d) security and services.

According to the weighting of the criteria, the groups are characterized as either mandatory or recommended.

The goals to be achieved by the implementation of the Blue Flag can be divided into short-term goals and long term goals. Short-term goals: they want to establish standards for the Blue Flag as quickly as possible to make destinations more attractive and how to annul began functioning national and European legal and binding dimension of responsible management of beaches and marinas. Long-term goals: they want the principle of sustainable and balanced development incorporated into the consciousness of all that coastline and the sea, and ground water and well water used in any way, and above all the local population and employees in marinas and beach facilities, as well as tourists and visitors. (maritime domain)

The Blue Flag is awarded for a period of one year (for beaches in Croatia it is from 01.06. to 30.09., for marinas from 01.06. to 31.12.).

Other environmental programs for beaches besides the famous Blue Flag are: Quality coast award [**http://qualitycoastapplication.org**] - it was introduced in the UK in 2007. This program is open to all beaches, even if it has no quality controls. Given for the three principal types of beaches: beach resort - requires a large amount of facilities, the presence of beach monitoring system and it bans bathing for dogs

Bathing beaches - requesting to measure water quality and good maintenance (management) of beaches, do not need a large number of facilities, dogs amy enter the beach.

Non-bathing beaches - it is possible that the beach has no content nor compulsory quality measurements. Awarded to the beaches of varying quality, which are available to a wide range of users, but only under the condition that they are properly managed. Mandatory criterion is the existence which estimates carrying capacity of the beach, and recommended criterion is that there is a beach management plan. Analysis of certificates awarded to beaches in Europe and the world shows that this is the only program that requires calculation of carrying capacity of beaches and a recommendation for the existence of a beach management plan.Good Beach Guide [**http://www.goodbeachquide.co.uk**]- An NGO from the UK created this guide. The first part of the guide refers to the criteria related to water quality, the second part of the guide provides information on numerous beach areas - beaches, safety, cleanliness, amenities, wild flora and fauna, beach activities, access, parking, informing the public and tourists.The beaches must fully meet the water quality standards of the European directive (**CEC; 2006**), and are evaluated in the range 1-5 by assigning one or more dolphins and beaches must win at least 3 dolphins to be recommend and described. However beaches can win even 4 dolphins, and still not get a passing grade, due to factors such as lack of information, near sewage outfalls, difficult access, the negative news reports, trash, and unacceptable for swimming due to rocks, etc. National Campaign for Healthy Beaches USA [**http://www.nhbc.fiu.edu**] is the publication and ranking of the best public beaches intended for recreation, primarily swimming. It is published once a year. Approximately 600 beaches are estimated in the range of 1 to 5, i.e. from poor to excellent. The quality of the sea and the sand is particularly emphasized as the most important for beach users. Other criteria that are evaluated include: beach cleanliness, safety, environmental quality, control and auxiliary facilities. It aims to promote awareness of health, safety and environmental issues faced by the beach. National Campaign for Healthy Beaches is dedicated to creating a balance between recreational use of public beaches in the USA and maintenance of environmental quality and safety of these highly prized resources. Clean Beaches Council blue-wave(Clean Beaches Cuoncil) [**http://www.cleanbeaches.org**] - this organization was founded in the U.S. in 1998, shares the beach to those in resorts (33 criteria) and 27 rural criteria. Evaluated parameters include water quality, hazards, services, habitat conservation, information and education to the public, and erosion control. The goal of the Blue Wave is to raise public awareness and involvement of the public in maintaining clean and healthy beaches. Conduct consultations with the population in the promotion of the protection of the sea. Safety Beach (Surf life saving) [**http://Surflifesaving.com.au**]-Australian program for the safety and management of beaches publishes a series of books that provide a description of beach exclusively on the basis of security parameters. It gives the information about the origin and nature of the resort, as well as information on risk and safety on the beaches. Specifically comment on the convenience of surfing, swimming and fishing. Based on the physical dangers of the beaches are rated in relation to public safety on the beach from 1 (safe) to 10 (least safe). Blue Guide (Guida Blue) [**http://legambiente.it**] - this is the Italian system of assigning quality labels, which is based on the evaluation of a number of elements, for some coastal sites (not limited to the beach), and implemented by the Italian

NGO "Legambiente" for level of local administration. Seven specific categories assessed are: Environment - based on natural landscapes, coastal landscapes, urban landscape, quality of construction, quality of life. Welcome - based on the capacity of welcome, tourist services, mobility, program control / treatment of waste equipment for recycling, collection / treatment / wastewater dischargeThe sea and the beach-this category of being the best place on clear water and beach quality, the existence of free beach, beach overcrowding, security equipment and services. Environment - a place of historical importance, quality crafts, museums, archaeological sites, etc. Diving - This category indicates the existence of a seabed of special interest for divers and the existence of appropriate services on the mainland (diving center or diving) Disabled-indicates the existence of equipment and services for the disabled Sustainability-indicates that the municipalities listed in the past year has promoted initiatives to improve environmental sustainability (bike paths, pedestrian islands). Golden Charter for quality beach [**http://www.snirh.inag.pt**] - A Quercus (National Association for the Protection of Nature in Portugal) dealing with environment-sole criterion for awarding recognition of the quality of the sea, and is based on the data of year issued by the Portuguese Water Institute.

6. Analysis of results of empirical research with blue flag beaches in coastal destinations of Croatia

In order to analyze the sustainable beach management in coastal tourist destinations, research was carried out on a sample of coastal marine beaches of the Croatian Adriatic coast, which are carriers of the Blue Flag in 2012, arguing that these beaches have already reached a certain level of public spaces and amenities for visitors. On the Croatian coastal area in 2012. TheBlue Flag certificate has been awarded to 101 beaches, operated by 58 managers. The coastal area of the Croatian Adriatic coast generates the largest portion of the total tourist traffic in the Republic of Croatia, which was especially pronounced in the summer months. The Blue Flag program is based on rigorous criteria and standards of beach management. Blue Flag in the world today is a very renowned tourist stamp that has a growing number of environmentally conscious tourists when choosing a major indicator of potential tourist destinations. The sample included in this study, 30 managers and 70 beach resorts which bore the Blue Flag in 2012. Feedback was obtained from 17 managers, which means that 56 beaches-blue flag bearers were included in the study. The questionnaires were distributed directly to the beach managers, and test units were persons coordinators who established Blue Flag standards on beaches managed by representatives of local administration and self-government, hotel managers who are responsible for the application of standard on Blue Flag beaches which they manage or concessionaires. Tests performed were aimed at all levels of beach managers of which 75% have a high school diploma or are 31-50 years of age. The survey questionnaire consisted of three parts, the first part refers to general information about the beach, the second part is related to indicators of sustainable management of beaches and the third part of the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, all in order to gain a more detailed insight into the sustainable management of beaches in the coastal Croatian territory. Beach managers who responded to the survey in the greatest numbers were from Istria 31% and the Primorsko-goranska County 38%, where most of Blue Flag beaches are situated; other beaches that have participated in the study are located in Lika-Senj County 6%, Zadar County 13%, 6% County Split and Dubrovnik-Neretva 6%. Of all the beaches that have responded to the survey 63% are in the concession hotel companies, 38% of beaches included in this study were administered by local governments.

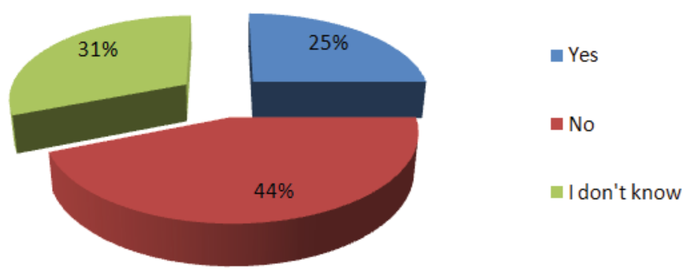
Table 2 Display by county beaches with Blue Flag and review the governance of the team Beaches in 2012

County	Total awarded Blue Flags for beaches	The concession hotel company	The concession hotel company	Concessionaire
City of Zagreb	5		5	
Istarska	44	36	7	1
Primorsko-goranska	27	13	14	
Ličko-senjska	4	2	2	
Zadarska	7	3	4	
Šibensko kninska	3	2	1	
Splitsko-dalmatinska	12	7	3	2
Dubrovačko-neretvanska	4	4		
Total	106	67	36	3

Source: own reserach

As shown in Table 2, in the Republic of Croatia the most Blue Flag beaches are located in Istria 42%, in Primorsko–goranska County 25%. In terms of concessions and beach management, 63% of beaches that had the blue flag in 2012 were in the concession of hotel company camps which speaks of highly developed awareness and knowledge of the hoteliers and owners of campsites of the fact that the beach, as a tourist attraction, is the most important part of the hotel and tourism product. The Blue flag symbolizes quality with which 77% of respondents agreed and strong marketing tool with which 15% of respondents agreed.

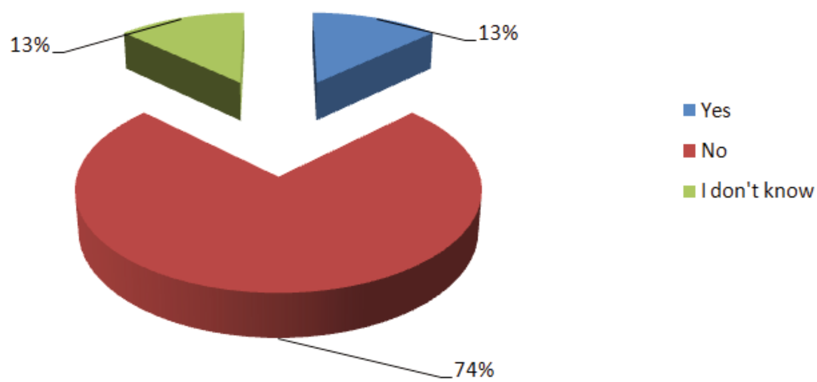
Figure 1 Are there any calculations of reception facilities for beaches where you manage?



Source: own research

This research is worrying because only 25% of managers believed that there are calculations of reception capacity for beaches that are managed, 44% of them stated that there are no calculation of the reception facilities for beaches they manage and 31% of the respondents do not know whether there is the calculation of reception capacity. According to the authors of this work this is the basic and the only flaw of the Blue Flag: it does not require the calculation of the reception facilities for beaches where they are flying for the purpose of sustainable management of beaches and beach managers themselves or even the local government are not thinking about the problem of reception capacity beaches. If the state issued regulations that will apply to beach management, the recommendation is that through legislation, the regulating liability of calculation of reception capacity for each beach. This is also another issue about how to obey to carrying capacity of the beach, which is located on the maritime domain, and as such it is publicaly available. Laws governing the protection of the maritime domain enable control and charging entrance to the beaches, but the toll beaches in Croatia are rare due to opposition from local residents and local and city and municipal governments who advocate that everyone should have equal access to the sea. Due to the general quality of experience and a tourist attraction that has to be competitive, the answer to this question has to be found. It was the beaches themselves that were transformed from attractive resources into the focal point of most of the problems of coastal tourist destinations.

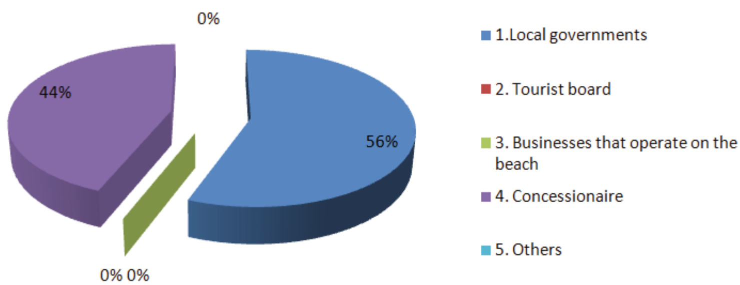
Figure 2: Are carrying capacity in your beach resort threatened by uncontrolled building of accommodation?



Source: own research

74% of respondents said that reception facilities operated on the beach are threatened by uncontrolled building accommodations, suggesting that beach managers are not aware of how uncontrolled construction will, and already is affecting, in most cases, accommodation categories with low negative impact on sustainable management of beaches. Increasing number of tourists, severe weather concentrations in summer creates more pressure on the beach area. This begs the question of what kind of tourism we want to accomplish with the overcrowded beaches. A prerequisite for the sustainable management of beaches is a calculation taking into account the reception capacity of the specificity of the beach area, and on the basis of the data obtained spatial plans and development plans of coastal tourist destinations. Based on this we can conclude that the systematic, sustainable management of Croatian sea beaches is not there.

Figure 3: Who, in your opinion, is the most responsible for the sustainable management of beaches?



Source: own research

In terms of responsibility for the sustainable management of beaches 56% of managers believe that the government is responsible, and 44% believe that responsibility is on the concessionaire. Studying the legislation, it is evident that the government as an important resource completely surrenders to the management of local government as well, but without adequate legislation it is very dangerous and can lead to very negative consequences for the development of Croatian tourism. It is interesting that no one believes that tourist board is responsible for the sustainable management of beaches though it has the means to act on the issue of sustainable management of beaches.

Table 3 Monitoring indicators for sustainable management of a Blue Flag in 2012.

Ordinal number	Question	Yes	No
1	Do you monitor some of the indicators of sustainable development?	71%	29%
2	Annual loss of beach area	14%	86%
3	Putting into operation of the new premises of beach	43%	57%
4	Amounts of sand or gravel filled in a year	71%	29%
5	Persons per square in the month of peak load?	14%	86%
6	Costs of maintaining cleanliness of the beach	86%	14%
7	Volume of waste collected at the beach in the month of peak load	36%	64%
8	Number of days when the beach is closed due to pollution	21%	79%
9	The annual number of incidents that have resulted in contamination of beaches	36%	64%
10	Satisfaction of tourists with the cleanliness and neatness of beaches through questionnaires	79%	21%
11	Satisfaction of the local population with beach amenities	71%	29%
12	Number of showers and toilets per the number of beach users	57%	43%

Source: own research

This survey does not include indicators that are part of the Blue Flag (such as sampling and analysis of water quality, beach safety, etc.), but additional requirements that is, indicators of sustainable beach management as recommended by the WTO because they wanted to investigate how managers manage sustainable resort beaches beyond the requirements of legislation and the Blue Flag.

According to the study 86% of respondents believe that it is extremely important to monitor indicators of sustainable management indicators such as beach listed in Table 3.

On the question of whether they follow some of the indicators of sustainable development, as much as 71% of beach managers answered that they do, the importance of monitoring indicators of sustainable development was assessed with very high scores of 4.25 between important and very important, but when you analyze the indicators of sustainable development monitored at beaches that have responded, then it is very interesting to study the collected data. What is exclusively monitored are indicators affecting costs and profits, and they are: putting into operation of the new premises of beach which is monitored by 41% of the respondents, the amount of sand or gravel that is additionally brought by 71% of the respondents, the cost of maintaining the cleanliness of beaches is monitored by 86% of the respondents, and the data that does not belong to the category of sustainable economic management track is monitored significantly weaker.

Indicators such as the number of persons per sq. meter in peak months are monitored by only 14% of beach managers, the volume of waste collected at the beach in peak months are monitored by 14% of the respondents, the number of days when the beach is closed due to pollution are monitored by 21% of the total surveyed beach managers.

The beaches are a public good, which are often run by private companies or individuals, therefore, the cooperation between the public and private sectors is necessary.

44% of respondents said that only local government is in the process of planning, construction and financing of infrastructure important to the functioning of the beach that they manage, and 44% of them responded that this process is going through a public-private partnership of local governments and businesses, which means that the public and private sector are present in the management of the beaches but not enough. Public private partnership in terms of sustainable beach management has a number of opportunities and possibilities to come to life respecting interest concerning public sector, investors, partners and the private creditors, the regulations for the functioning of the business system and its features. We conclude that the responsibility for the sustainable management of beaches rest on the synergy of interests of the public and private sectors and civil society. All participants in the partnership must take responsibility for the sustainable management of beaches as a significant resource for the development and improvement of coastal tourist destinations.

7. Conclusion

Based on the study, we conclude that the sustainable management of Croatian beaches is not a myth. The issue of management of sea beaches in coastal tourist destinations is a matter of public interest, reflecting the structure of tourism, and is also a lever to increase the attractiveness of the destination. In creating the conditions for sustainable management of Croatian beaches the public sector has an important role in adopting the laws and measures. Croatia has no regulations that comprehensively and systematically prescribe and classify the beach, which also represent the maritime domain. The existing legal system does not provide adequate categorization of beaches or an adequate legal framework for the sustainable management of beaches. But voluntary initiatives play a very important role in the development of sustainable management of beaches in the world, which proved to be accurate and successful approach in Croatia through Project Blue Flag.

Today, Croatian beaches along with insufficient legislative framework of beach management are managed through voluntary initiatives, certification for beaches, Blue Flag as a standard of quality at beaches that provides a very good foundation for the sustainable management of beaches. The lack of Blue Flag certificate is the lack of application of criteria for calculating the carrying capacity of beaches where it flies. Certified Blue Flag beaches make a positive impact that is reflected through further improvements, such as the creation of a car-free zone, the introduction of emergency services, environmental education, clean beach, beach access for disabled people.

However, the approach of hotel companies and camping to sustainable beach management is commendable, since they are partially unable to sustainably manage sea beaches because of poor legislative framework related to the management of the beaches as well as the maritime domain.

It is necessary to create detailed and precise regulation that would define the types of beaches, standards on the beaches as well as models of economic use, including limiting the general use of the maritime domain for the purpose of sustainable management of Croatian sea beaches in order to preserve these valuable and highly attractive tourist resources. Planning and sustainable development of beach areas is left to the process of awarding the concession at the state level which is not uniform.

Beach managers themselves are not aware of the effect of uncontrolled and unplanned growth of accommodations in coastal tourist destinations on the sustainable management of beaches. There is too little initiative to promote sustainable management of the beach, which the research itself has shown. 71% of beach managers answered that some of the indicators of sustainable development are monitored, but the insight into what is monitored mainly refers to an indicator that represents profit or loss, then the economic aspects of sustainable management of beaches follows, while other indicators, such as the ecological and socio-cultural indicators are rarely monitored.

Public private partnership can provide good foundation for sustainable beach management. Beaches are public property, which are often run by private companies or individuals, therefore, the cooperation between the public and private sectors is necessary.

Public private partnership in terms of sustainable beach management has a number of opportunities and possibilities that come to life respecting the interests concerning public sector, investors, partners and the private creditors, for the functioning of the business system and its features. We conclude that the responsibility for the sustainable management of beaches rests on the synergy of interests of the public and private sectors and civil society. All participants in the partnership must take responsibility for the sustainable management of beaches as a significant resource for the development and improvement of coastal tourist destinations.

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REVEALING THE MYTHS OF CRITICAL THINKING TO INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS STUDYING TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY POSTGRADUATE PROGRAMME

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Abstract

The ability to think critically is required to do well at university in Britain but international students are constantly criticised by their lack of critical thinking skills. But a review of relevant literature, it can be seen that the theory of 'critical thinking' is not clearly defined. Because the concept of critical thinking is very broad and non-specific, it gives no clear indication of what needs to be taught and also makes it difficult for students to know what requirements are entailed in practice. Therefore this research is to share the experience of revealing myths of critical thinking to the students in an induction exercise related to critical thinking undertaken by 26 new postgraduate international students studying in Tourism and Hospitality Management at a British university. Following action research cycle, this reflective paper observes a number of practical learning points during such induction exercise. Key findings from this research include the importance of training workshops using a variety of activities to stimulate creative and critical thinking skills. The paper encompasses the students' construction and negotiation of knowledge, how the role of the lecturer is that a facilitator rather than a formal teacher, and finally, presents the difficulties the students encounter engaging with this learning approach.

Keywords: critical thinking, international students, tourism and hospitality education, postgraduate education

JEL code: Y8

1. Introduction

Mazzarol (1998) and Mazzarol and Soutar (1999; 2002) argue that the provision of education and training services for people from overseas has become an increasingly important source of income for certain countries, including the UK. Britain launched a £5 million three-year worldwide marketing campaign in 2000 to attract more international students to the UK (BBC, 2000). Then the second phase of the Prime Minister's Initiative for International Education (PMI) was launched in 2006, which aims to attract an additional 100,000 international students to study at higher education institutions in the UK (BBC, 2006). Through such continuing efforts, according to the Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) in 2011, 428,225 non-UK domiciled students are currently studying in British universities which include 130,115 European Union students and 298,110 Non-EU students. As reported by BBC (2007), if considering the fees and living expenses that international students contribute to Britain, the export value of UK education and training might be £28bn. In other words, the export of UK education and training is becoming the most important export industry, compared with £19bn for financial services and £20bn for the automotive industry, £14bn for healthcare service exports, £7bn for construction exports and £9.4bn for food and drink (BBC, 2007). Analysing the nationalities of international students who are studying in the UK, China is the biggest contributors among all sending countries (HESA, 2012) as shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1: Top sending countries to British higher education institutions in 2011

Top 10 non-EU senders	2010-11	2009-10
China (PRC)	67,325	56,990
India	39,090	38,500
Nigeria	17,585	16,680
United States of America	15,555	15,060
Malaysia	13,900	14,060
Hong Kong (Special Administrative Region)	10,440	9,945
Saudi Arabia	10,270	8,340
Pakistan	10,185	9,815
Thailand	5,945	5,505
Canada	5,905	5,575

Source: The Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) (2012)

People's Republic of China (PRC), with one quarter of the world's population, has the greatest number of consumers of any country in the world, which is one of the reasons for its huge potential as a source market for tourism. Two other factors contribute to the promise of increased travel generally by the Chinese population: their increasing disposable income and the relaxation of outbound travel restrictions by the Chinese government (Cai, et al., 2000). These factors also affect the demand for study overseas. Reported in Luo's (2003) research, from 1978 to 2003, more than 7 million Chinese from the PRC went abroad to study, and currently 3.6 million are studying and researching in foreign countries (Luo, 2003). The favourite destinations are English-speaking countries such as the USA, Australia and Britain. Britain's popularity among Chinese students has grown since the USA tightened visa regulations after the 9/11 terrorist attacks in 2001. These 'push' and 'pull' factors have resulted in startling figures. However a review of recent Chinese news related to study abroad, it is easy to identify that negative views on the value of international education are becoming apparent in China due to rapidly increasing number of Chinese students with international experience yet unsatisfactory skills (Sina Education, 2009; Enorth News, 2012; China News, 2012). Furthermore expensively trained graduates from low income developing countries often prefer to remain and to pursue their careers in the West (Leonard and Morley, 2003). Therefore, British universities might need to consider how to improve services to satisfy Chinese students but meanwhile pay attention to growing markets from developing countries.

In terms of subject areas that international students are studying in the UK, Business & Administrative studies are still the most popular ones among the students as shown in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Top ten subject areas that international students studied in Britain in 2011

Subject of study	No of international students	% in sub. who are international
Business & administrative studies	125,450	35%
Engineering & technology	53,335	33%
Social studies	36,850	17%
Computer science	24,215	24%
Subjects allied to medicine	23,970	8%
Languages	23,450	17%
Creative arts & design	23,390	13%
Law	19,890	21%
Biological sciences	18,315	10%
Physical sciences	12,785	14%

Source: The Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) (2012)

Huang (2007, 2008) clearly points out the majority of the international students that study for a British qualification originate from Asia and especially from China. Bird and Owen (2004) observe and report that Britain's popularity amongst Chinese students has grown since America tightened visa regulations after the terrorist attacks in 2001 and it has become the most popular destination for Chinese students, ahead of America, the previous most favourite, and Germany where higher education is virtually free. British universities, facing deepening financial difficulties, have seized on the economic potential of the Chinese market. The figures are startling. According to Higher Education Statistics Agency (2012), in 2011, the number of Mainland Chinese students in British universities was 67,325, and fourteen years ago it was just 2,500.

Vandermensbrugghe (2004) argues that western Anglo-Saxon countries (mainly the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada and Australia) are instrumental in the internationalisation of education there is a trend towards the universalisation of the education practices of Western Anglo-Saxon countries. He continues to state that the idea that the ability to think critically is required to do well at a university in Britain is widespread, but the concept is vague and does not seem to have the same meaning to all people in every circumstance. Turner (2006) argues that the Chinese international students come to Britain with expectations that come from their past experiences in China and, whether they realise it or not, they must learn to adapt to new circumstances in order to succeed academically. This includes incorporating priorities formulated by the British education system and often adapting to new ways of studying and preparing assignments (Lowes, Peters and Turner, 2004). Huang (2007; 2008) states that problems arise for British academics when they are confronted with what appear to be academic differences between the academic standards and expectations of the academic staff and those of the Chinese international student.

Mingers (2000) argues that there are many strands of thought in both the social and philosophical literature that can be labelled 'critical': (1) What is termed 'critical thinking', that is, developing the discipline of being sceptical or questioning about statements, propositions or information; **(2)** Critical social theory as in the Frankfurt School and more particularly the work of Habermas; work that is critical of the prevailing structures, values and rationalities in society; (3) Two strands of thought within the management literature that draw especially on Habemas – critical management studies and critical systems thinking; (4) The work of Foucault, especially on power and its relationship to knowledge. Based on her review, Vandermensbrugghe

(2004) divides existing definitions of critical thinking into two categories: the ability to develop a capacity to reason logically and cohesively and the ability to question and challenge existing knowledge and social order. But it is argued that it is necessary to bring these two categories of definitions together, so that the capacity to reason logically can be used to broaden critical thinking and allow for the freedom to think about the world beyond the restrictions imposed by dominant interpretations of the world. Based on the above discussion, it can be seen that the theory of 'critical thinking' is not clearly defined. Because the concept of critical thinking is very broad and non-specific, it gives no clear indication of what needs to be taught. Rather, as Egege and Kutieleh (2004) argue that there is an assumption that academics, from whatever background, can reliably ascertain the presence of or lack of critical thinking skills in a piece of work. The lack of clear guidelines makes the general teaching of critical thinking problematic and also makes it difficult for students to know what requirements are entailed in practice. Therefore, in the face of the difficulties surrounding critical thinking as a concept, criticising international students for not intuitively being capable of thinking critically is not acceptable. It should be noted that critical thinking is also often problematic for Anglo-Saxon students, despite them having the advantage of a better understanding of the language and context.

Egege and Kutieleh (2004) also point out that the definitions of critical thinking rest on the assumption that the kinds of thinking illustrated are not only desirable, beneficial, and attainable, but that they are also universally valued. Therefore they argue that these definitions fail to acknowledge that our understanding of what critical thinking entails, is heavily influenced by the history and traditions of our academic 'institutions'. What Western academics recognise as evidence of reasoning, the tools used to reason with, the language and structure of the argument, actually represent a cultural, rather than a universal method. Their argument is consistent with Lloyd's (1996) opinion that the tradition of critical thinking is very much a product of western culture, adopted from Philosophy, and exemplified by the use of analysis, logic, argument structure and scientific method.

2. Research aim and objectives

Against the above background, the aim of this research is to share the experience of revealing myths of critical thinking to the students in an induction exercise related to critical thinking undertaken by 26 new postgraduate international students studying in Tourism and Hospitality Management at a British university.

More specifically, following research objectives are sought:

1. to understand the students' view of critical thinking
2. to identify difficulties they encounter when they use critical thinking skill
3. to summarise the lessons the students learnt from the exercise

3. Study Methods

Qualitative findings must be analytically generalisable, i.e. they should be able to pass tests of corroboration, for example by multi-method triangulation. Therefore, a combination of data collection methods was chosen, including focus group discussion and semi-structured in-depth interviews. Furthermore, observation were also conducted by marking the students' induction essays in order to get an insight into the experience of typical Chinese international students when they are applying critical thinking skills.

Adapting the quantitative terminology of corroborative criteria, Lincoln and Guba (1985) identify four measures against which the trustworthiness of qualitative studies can be evaluated. These are as follows: **Credibility** (internal validity); **Transferability** (external validity); **Dependability** (reliability); **Confirmability** (objectivity). In order to meet the requirements of sound research, and to minimise personal or methodological biases, various triangulation methods were implemented in the research design. Action research is well-documented in education literature (e.g. Mills, 2000; Kemmis & McTaggart, 2005; Dick, 2009). Following action research cycle (McNiff & Whitehead, 2002), this reflective paper observes a number of practical learning points during such induction exercise. The exercise included one-hour TV documentary related to Abraham Lincoln and one hour seminar in critical thinking. During the induction, the students' perceptions were transcribed to Powerpoint slides directly. Their quotes were recorded in the lecturer's note. The students were separated into several groups to discuss their difficulties in dealing with critical thinking. And group leaders from each group reported in the class. After reports from all the group leaders, the students were invited to report if they have any difficulty which not been reported. Upon finishing the training workshop, the students were asked to produce a short piece of essay to demonstrate such skill next day. After marking all the submission at the weekend, one-to-one face-to-face feedback sessions were subsequently organised to understand how the students dealt with this assessment and the lessons they learnt from the whole exercise. At the end of this feedback session, the students' views of this induction exercise were then collected. Care was taken to ensure that ethical considerations were addressed and that the research subjects were made aware of the purpose of the project and so they could give informed consent (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). During the operation of this research project, it carefully conforms to each clause of the University of Plymouth's Principles for Research involving Human Participants.

The research reported in this paper refers to different stages of the induction. It draws on data transcribed from interviews undertaken with a sample of 26 international students. This sample represented nearly all of those students who could be selected from within this institutional setting. In terms of data analysis, it overlaps with data collection to build a coherent interpretation of the data. The analytic procedure is based on Strauss and Corbin's microanalysis (1998). Using a manual process, the researcher makes interview transcription immediately after each interview and conducted analysis simultaneously. It is a line-by-line analysis to generate initial categories and to discover the relationships among concepts (Strauss and Corbin 1998). The rigour of the analytical procedure depends on its adequacy and transparency.

4. Results

4.1. The profile of the students

In total twenty-six international students (twenty-four Chinese students, one Nigerian student and one Thai student) were involved to discuss their perception, issues in using critical thinking, and also their lessons from the exercise. Among them, there are ten male students and sixteen female students. Fifteen students had overseas educational experience which lasted more than one year. Ten students had 12-week or 8-week long language course before their postgraduate study. Only one Thai student had no previous overseas education prior to his postgraduate study.

4.2. The students' perceptions of critical thinking

Different views are identified when the students' perceptions of critical thinking are explored. Their views fall in to the following three categories:

1. critical thinking means thinking about pros and cons of every theories you use

Based on their experiences of their undergraduate studies in the UK, majority of the students (15 out of 25 students) summarise that critical thinking means thinking about the advantages and disadvantages of theories or findings that they have used. The following four transcripts reflect their understanding:

"I was a direct entrant to the final year of the BA Business Administration programme here. When I asked my lecturer who taught me English for Academic Purpose about critical thinking, she told me critical thinking means thinking critically, that is positive and negative side of every story you hear."

"Critical thinking is to think logically, thinking all possible aspects of the issue, and then making reasonable decision according to the situation, it is a process of actively and skilfully analysing and synthesising."

"For me, critical thinking is a method or way that means thinking something from bad and good both sides. For example, when I discuss network marketing, I will explore different needs of consumers and their ICT knowledge, and then compare them and discuss each advantages and disadvantages."

"Critical thinking is to thoroughly read the notes pertaining to the topic, and then assess the topic and evaluate the content of the topic."

2. critical thinking means being critical of the research process

Six students discussed their understanding of critical thinking based on their experiences of writing their independent honour's projects during the final year of their study for a degree. They recalled that their lecturers told them that critical thinking means doing things logically, and placing emphasis on the research process of their research. They stated as below:

"Originally I was not sure of the meaning of 'critical thinking'. But after discussing the matter with my supervisor, I got an idea that to be critical meant thinking and writing in a logical manner, and also reasoning every action I take."

"I did Business Administration for my first degree. There was no so-called honour's project as my girlfriend had done when she did her Hospitality Management. According to her, critical thinking means critically review research process of any research."

"When I had our research method module at postgraduate level, our lecturers emphasised the importance of logical research process and also be critical to the process any research is undertaken. So for me, critical thinking is being critical of research process that a research uses."

3. I don't understand what critical thinking means

Four students were very honest and confessed that they actually do not know what critical thinking means. This lack of knowledge might due to different teaching and learning system at home or misunderstanding of critical thinking. Their frustration and desperation are clearly shown below:

"Thanks for sharing your experience of the first coursework in the UK. As you, this is my first ever experience abroad, I do not have clue how to do critical thinking except I can translate the term to Chinese phrase."

"The way of teaching and learning in Thailand is completely different from the UK. I am good at memorising content but do not know how to do so-called critical thinking."

"Lecturers here in the UK take it for granted that everyone who is doing a postgraduate degree knows critical thinking. But I don't. I did my first degree in Interior design and my interest in such design in hotels. I want to do well in this master degree but I am not sure I have such ability."

"My lecturers commented my poor performance on critical analysis regularly. I presume this is the same as critical thinking. I thought I have done what they wanted as I have listed lot of ideas from different research!?"

4.3. The students' difficulties on applying critical thinking in their studies

When the students are asked what kind of difficulties they have when they apply critical thinking in their studies, an analysis of the group leaders' summaries, their concerns and anxieties can be summarized in the following three aspects:

1. language barriers

All groups reported that they understood what critical thinking meant but their insufficient English language skill made it difficult for them to apply critical thinking in their coursework or exams. As two group leaders frankly admitted:

"I don't think my English is good enough for postgraduate studies. I am struggling to read books and journal articles that lecturers recommended…being critical, I need to read a lot of materials but my English really stops me being critical."

"Being critical means I can construct my arguments logically. But I can't as my vocabulary and grammar skills are not good enough to form clear sentences. Recalling what I have done for my assessments in my first degree, I know how to argue in Chinese but can't translate my idea well into English."

2. unsure of how to use different sources

Appropriate use of literature sources or different evidence has been perceived another difficulty when the students apply for critical thinking. Examples of such difficulties as suggested by the group leaders might be (a) when they should use resources support their opinions; (b) where they can find relevant sources; (c) whether their evidences are good quality ones; (d) how many evidences they should use; (e) can they use Chinese examples in their English work?

3. lack of clear understanding of critical thinking

They also complained that because of their unclear understanding of critical thinking, they find it was very difficult for them to apply critical thinking in their coursework.

"Different lecturers tell me different things when I ask them what critical thinking really means. These really confuse me when I write my assignments."

"As I have never been told by any lecturer how to apply critical thinking to my study, I am not sure whether I used it when I write my assignments. Low marks for my coursework possibly mean I did not use it."

By inviting the students to contribute meaning of critical thinking and sharing with other students their difficulties, they realised they were not alone in the difficult situation. They seem to develop ownership to solutions/ideas the lecturer summarised from their discussion as their positive reaction can be seen from their own words:

"It is reassuring when I heard my classmates have similar understanding of critical thinking."

"Listening to complaints from my classmates I realised I am not alone. Some of them seem to have the same issues as me when we talk about critical thinking."

"Different methods suggested by the classmates on how to apply critical thinking to our work seem to be useful. As those methods are all from us; they really make me feel I have mastered the skill."

4.4. Lessons learnt from the induction exercise

After marking all the induction essays, the students were invited to have one-to-one feedback sessions during the first week of their formal study. Upon finishing my oral feedback, the students were asked what lessons they have learnt from the induction exercise. An analysis of all the lessons which were mentioned by the students, their lessons can be summarised as following three aspects:

1. correct understanding what critical thinking is and what it requires

Ten students reported that after watching the video and the training workshop discussion, they were clearer of what critical thinking is. Writing induction essays and then receiving feedback made them sure they know what critical thinking requires when they write essays at postgraduate level. Three quotes below illustrated these types of lessons:

"It was strange to watch Abraham Lincoln video for a tourism course. But after the training session I clearly understood the purpose you used it. The session is very helpful for me to understand how to apply for critical thinking skill to my work."

"Thanks for sharing with us your own experience in critical thinking. Your experience in how you actively read and make note for your work made my understanding of critical thinking clearer and more approachable than different texts I have read and

also advice I received from other lecturers when I did my undergraduate study in the UK"

"Writing an essay and then receiving your feedback is great as it gave me confidence in my understanding and application of critical thinking."

2. techniques of how to write an essay or a report with sufficient critical analysis

Five students were very glad to have the training session in critical thinking during the induction period. They tend to be those ones who were told by their lecturers at their undergraduate study who are not good at critical thinking skill. Their appreciation can be seen at the following quotes:

"I have been told I am lack of critical thinking skill when I did my first degree in the UK. But my lecturers never told me how I can improve in such details as you did. Those procedures you shared with us are brilliant for me when I did my induction essay."

"Situations you shared with us to use different sources are very useful. I appreciate your tips in how to read efficiently for your work. I have never thought about categorising different evidence based on topics."

"The induction essay was a challenge as we need to produce an essay at such short notice. Moreover the topic you gave is more related to education instead of tourism subject. But your procedures that you shared with us are very critical in helping me finish the work on time. Your feedback on how to improve my work is so clear to follow."

3. effective to use different databases or the internet to gather relevant evidence

It is rather surprising to hear the students' appreciation regarding to how to search evidence. Those students tend to be the ones who just came to Britain and very unfamiliar with writing essays or reports. Their appreciation illustrated in the following quotes:

"Although I have done three month language course in Plymouth, your training workshop and feedback on my essays are most helpful for me to be sure of how to apply for critical thinking skill to future work. The most beneficial aspect for me is how to use different databases to search different journal articles and what journals are good quality ones to follow."

"I certainly use the internet a lot when I did my undergraduate study. But the way you showed us to search useful news and statistics and then use them for our work is brilliant. Watching Abraham Lincoln is strange for a tourism course but certainly realised your purpose at the end."

"I really enjoyed your session. Thanks for sharing with us your own experience. Furthermore it is very nice to hear how other students who have been in the UK longer than me struggled and applied critical thinking in their undergraduate work."

5. Discussion

The research findings appear to suggest that the Chinese students have different views on critical thinking. These findings are consistent with the observation of Lowe et al (2004) on the academic experiences of international students in the UK. Their understanding of critical thinking confirms what Huang (2008) research with her Chinese postgraduate students in 2007. The language barriers that cause students to have problems in applying critical analysis during their studies is consistent with the findings of Huang (2006) that the Chinese postgraduate students in tourism and hospitality subject areas have difficulties to be critical due to their insufficient language skills. The students' lack of a clear understanding of critical thinking causes difficulties in its application; this is similar to Vandermensbrugghe's (2004) argument that Chinese students experience difficulties when they are faced with approaches that are alien to them. Wong (2004) also supports this argument.

The lecturer's own experience clearly confirms the argument of Egege and Kutieleh (2004) that the presumption of full understanding of critical thinking by every academics is questionable. Given more and more lecturers from non-western backgrounds are teaching in the English speaking countries, such presumption needs even more attention. Previous research (e.g. Davies, 2000; Yoshino, 2004; Bennett, et al., 2010) in critical thinking skill tends to emphasise differences between the skills the international students have and critical thinking, and problematises what international students have. During the workshop, based on the lecturer's own experience, she did not follow such approach. Instead, the lecturer has emphasised different set of skills the international students have in comparison to British students. Furthermore, critical thinking can take different forms in different cultures. The lecturer is in agreement with Cortazzi & Jin (2010) and Turner (2006) that critical and creative thinking have long been characteristics of education and intellectual traditions in China, for example, but may manifest in different ways such as more active listening than verbal participation (Chuah, 2010; Ryan & Louie, 2007). She shared with the students those similarities that she summarised from her own study and research in the UK.

The lessons the students summarised from the induction essay in relation to critical thinking are consistent with advice on how to apply critical thinking which provided by some gurus of study skills (e.g. Contrell, 2005; Mason, 2008). The students' positive reaction to the lecturer's shared experience and her approach to train their skill clearly confirms that critical thinking skills need to be addressed prior to the writing stage and should encompass skills of critical reading as the international students might not realise the importance of reading stage and techniques they could use (Higher Education Academy, 2011).

6. Conclusion

Critical thinking is a vital part of teaching students how to think and write whilst they study at British universities. Although this is a small-scale project, this project offers Chinese students perspective of their experience in critical thinking, as a counterbalance to the dominance of the academic's perspective and the focus on students within their own country. The research findings seem to suggest that students have different understanding on critical thinking. Meanwhile due to lack of clear understanding and also language barriers, Chinese students have difficulties in application of critical thinking during their studies. Lessons learnt by the students and the reflection from the lecturer can be used for supporting other international students.

There is significant scope to develop research in this area further than has been possible in the context of the small-scale, tentative investigation documented in this paper. Certainly research is needed on perceptions of critical thinking from Chinese students who are studying in other subjects in the UK. In addition, further research on understanding and operation of critical thinking from British (or even wider geographic area, i.e. Anglo-Saxon) lecturers is needed. Such further research will provide a much needed fuller understanding of critical thinking in general and possible better support to Chinese students in particular.

Care must be taken in explaining the results of this study as this study only included Chinese students who were doing postgraduate degree in tourism and hospitality management from one university. Therefore the results here may not be representative of the selection criteria of Chinese students in other parts of the UK. Hence it limits the general applicability of the study findings.

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ISBN 978-953-331-068-8