TOURISM RESEARCH INSTITUTE

JOURNAL OF TOURISM RESEARCH

ATHENS

DECEMBER 2011

Journal of Tourism Research

VOL 3

December 2011

ISSN: 1791-0064

Published by:

Tourism Research Institute

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

INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

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

Laloumis Dimitris

WRITING GUIDELINES

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

TABLE OF CONTENTS

A CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE OF THE GENERAL MANAGERS' WORK: THE GREEK 4 & 5* HOTELS' CASE

Giousmpasoglou Charalampos

ASTER, MSc , MA , PDPM, PgD - PhD Research Student @ Strathclyde Business School - HRM Dept. UK

ABSTRACT

This paper explores the General Managers' (GMs) Roles and Competencies in Greek 4 & 5* hotels from a contextual perspective, focused in culture. The existing literature indicates that the Greek context influences managerial work to a certain degree. The country's participation in 2 international surveys during the 1990s (CRANET, GLOBE project) have indicated characteristics that differentiate Greek management, comparing to the so called 'western' management. In order to identify the influence of culture in the work of the GMs in 4 and 5* a hotel, a research was conducted in 16 luxury (4 & 5*) city and resort hotels in four popular destinations: Athens, Thessaloniki, Crete and Rhodes. In total 32 GMs and their assistants participated in this country case study. The results have indicated that Greek managers fully understand and appreciate the generic managerial competencies framework and roles required in any other European country. On the other hand they try to cope with the contextual challenges appearing mainly due to the Greek culture by adapting these roles and competencies to their working environment. In addition,

international and national hotel chains are following standard operating procedures and formal policies which in most of the cases are adjusted or fitted in the Greek context. Smaller independent hotels (usually family business) are more informal in relation to policies and standards.

Key Words: Hospitality Industry, Roles, Competencies, Culture, Greece

1. INTRODUCTION

Managerial work in Greek hotels has been a neglected and under researched area, despite the significant contribution of the industry in the Tourism sector and the Greek economy. Greek hotel General Managers (GMs) in luxury establishments (4 & 5*) shape their competencies and perform their roles required for their position, under the influence of a strong national culture. This research paper explores the influence of the Greek context in managerial work in 4 & 5* hotels.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. The Greek Context

Greece has a long tradition in tourism and hospitality mainly due to its history and ancient civilisation. The 'modern' hospitality industry has emerged since the 1950s to cater for the tourism demand. Due to the rapid growth of the tour operators in Europe and the phenomenon of the mass tourism, Greece experienced a dramatic increase of tourism flows to in the late 1970s and 1980s, facilitated by plenty of natural, cultural and environmental resources, existing airport infrastructure in major islands, and lower cost of living in comparison with most of Europe (Eurostat, 2005). In addition Buhalis (2001) argues that Greek resorts have different product and market profiles making them capable of satisfying a great diversity of tourism demand. The Greek tourism product is an amalgam of natural, cultural and heritage attractions spread throughout the country, as well as a wide variety of services offered predominantly by small and medium tourism enterprises (SMTEs). Moreover, 15,000 miles of coastline; 2,500 islands; an average of 300 sunny days annually; a unique fauna and flora; as well as climatic superiority with mild winters and warm summers are some of its natural attractions.

Today the Hospitality & Tourism sector in Greece contributes approximately 15.00% of the National GDP ranking third in the E.U. after Spain (18.38%) and Portugal (15.40%) according to the WTTC (2005). The sector occupies totally 808,000 employees 18% of the country's entire labour force; a total of 96,750 employees work in hotels and 24,895 in small lodges (SETE, 2003).

The Geek and International literature suggests that Greek management has hardly existed until the early 1980s; all management practices and methods were largely adoption of MNCs practices. Kanelpoulos (1990) has documented a lack of wide diffusion of modern management methods and systems such as formal structures, planning and control systems, human resource management systems, incentive systems, and management information systems. Bourantas and Papadakis (1996) argue that the salient characteristics of Greek management (in the 1980s and early 1990s) were:

1. Concentration of power and control in the hands of top management.
2. Lack of modern systems to support strategic decisions.

A question that was raised here is whether Greek management possessed any unique characteristics that distinguish it from other European management styles (e.g., the institutionalised participation of employees in Germany or Sweden and the informal network relationships among small and medium-sized enterprises in Italy). The answer came during the 1990s and the early 2000s trough the participation of the country in two international surveys: the Price Waterhouse Cranfield Project (CRANET) concerning Human Resources strategies and policies across Europe (Papalexandris and Chalikias, 2002); and the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness) project which provided useful insights for each participative country cultural perspectives in relation to management and leadership (Javidan & House, 2001). The findings of these significant surveys indicated the country's differentiation in management practices, due to the existing socio-cultural context.

The results from the CRANET survey revealed that in Greece, as in other European countries, there is evidence of both convergence and divergence in HRM policies and the overall work context (Myloni et al., 2004). On the one hand the introduction of common legislation and agreements between countries of the E.U., will eventually lead to harmonisation of the Industrial Relations (I.R.) and H.R.M. systems across different national contexts (Brewster, 1994). In addition, globalisation forces multinational companies (MNCs) to adopt common H.R. practices in their overseas subsidiaries. On the other hand, there is still a persistent belief that social and cultural differences between countries will continue to supersede the forces of globalisation emanating from technologically driven markets or supranational agreements (Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1997). Moreover, Myloni et al. (ibid.) have found that for the range of H.R. issues examined in CRANET survey (Business Policy and Evaluation, Industrial Relation, Recruitment and Selection, Management Training and Development, Employee Benefits and Reward, Performance Evaluation) MNC subsidiaries have adapted parent company H.R.M. practices to the local ones, up to a point. These practices might be characterised by high levels of cultural susceptibility and to certain degree sensitivity to cultural differences. On the contrary Greek firms seem to adapt less H.R. 'Best Practices' and continue to follow the local patterns and norms. According to the above, it is possible that Greek firms still have some way to go in terms of facing direct competition in the global market. Myloni et al. (ibid.) conclude that Greek companies are still embedded to their cultural environment to a considerable extent.

The globe project has provided a better insight of the relation between management practices and national culture in greece. perhaps the most important finding is the country's score to the "in-group collectivism" dimension (also referred as "family collectivism") which reflects the extent to which a society's institutions favour autonomy versus collectivism. this dimension refers to the extent to which members of a society take pride in membership in small groups such as their family and circle of close friends, and the organisations in which they are employed. in greece being a member of a family and of a close group of friends, an in-group, is very important to people. papalexandris et al. (2002) indicate that one of the greek culture's main characteristics is strong family bonds, even though in big cities there might have been a recent change in this respect. the father is the centre of the family; he is responsible for all its members and the one who makes the final decision. there is a strict hierarchy and younger members are expected to show respect to the older. power is concentrated in a few hands, which is usually accepted although it does not go unquestioned. family members and close friends tend to have strong expectations from each other. taking care of their needs and satisfying their expectations is critical to each individual. it is not unusual to forego due diligence, or equal employment opportunity, and to favour a close friend or family member in recruiting or in allocating rewards and promotions. making regular references to one's family and especially one's father is quite acceptable and can go a long way in opening doors.

Despite the paternalistic family oriented management style there are indications for a strong will to change. Figures from the GLOBE project (House et al., 2002) show that Greece has low mean scores in 'society as is' and higher scores in 'society should be'; these results confirm the existence of a culture gap found also in previous research studies in Greek organisational culture. According to Bourantas and Papadakis (1996), there is a discrepancy between general organisational culture as perceived by managers and their personally preferred culture. This is considered to be an indication of the desire for change within organisations. The greatest pressures for convergence are coming from the obligations of Greece as a member of the E.U. and several other organisations which require planning ahead and efficient management of the various projects. While this affects mostly the public sector, globalisation put pressures for uniform management practices and policies in private sector organisations. Thus, a slow but steady movement towards harmonisation of management practices at least with the rest of the E.U. members is observed.

2.2. The Nature of Managerial Work

In order to understand the nature of managerial work in hotels there is a need to answer the questions 'what managers do' and 'why they do what they do'. Among the numerous efforts to establish a credible account of the managerial work (i.e. Carlson, 1951; Martin, 1956; Burns, 1957; Sayles, 1964; Stewart, 1967, 1976; Steward et al., 1980; Kotter, 1982; Luthans et al., 1985; Carroll & Gillen, 1987; Whitley, 1989) the literature reveals that only Mintzberg (1973, 1994) managed to conclude in a comprehensive and robust model. According to Mintzberg's view (ibid) the manager is working in a chaotic environment spending most of his time talking to others – in and out from the workplace –

influencing any kind of people, collecting information from various sources such as gossips and rumours and generally trying to maintain a very delicate balance like jugglers do. This empirical study found managerial roles to be highly variable, involving the often simultaneous pursuit of a variety of objectives in changing ways according to the judgment of the individual manager in the particular situation.

Mintzberg grouped these ten roles into three broad categories: inter-personal (Figurehead, Leader, Liaison), informational (Monitor, Disseminator, Spokesman) and decisional roles (Entrepreneur, Disturbance handler, Resource allocator, Negotiator). His work triggered many similar studies which fell in the following paradox: although they rejected Mintzberg's Roles Model for the shake of a new model creation, one way or another came to similar conclusions with Mintzberg. Despite the original work's weaknesses (Fondas and Steward, 1994), it remained for almost three decades the only straightforward model for the nature of managerial work. Twenty years later Mintzberg (1994) provided a revised version of his work (figure 1) justifying carefully his model by covering most of the points that have been fiercely attacked in the past (Hales, 1999).

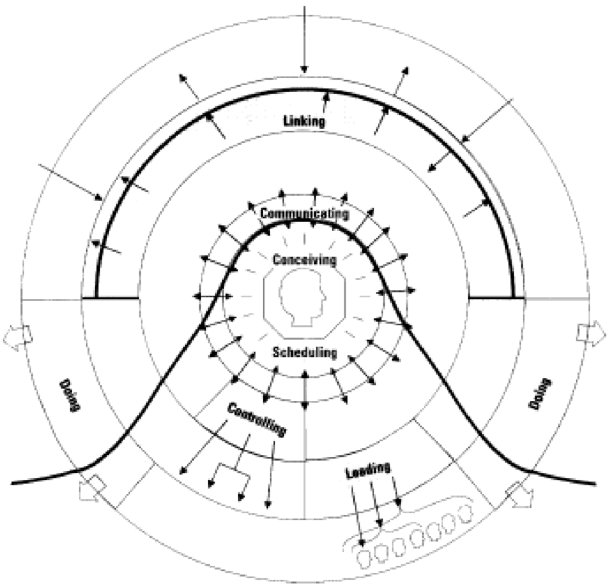


Figure 1: Managerial Work Rounded Out

Source: Mintzberg (1994), p.23

A plethora of writers attempted to develop managerial work frameworks for hospitality – in most of the cases unsuccessfully. The main reason for this failure is the involvement of many disciplines in hospitality research and the lack of valid and reliable sources. Hospitality research has been preoccupied with Mintzberg's ideas and several researchers replicated or tested his early work. Studies of managerial hospitality work have addressed three questions that have divided the work chronologically (Dann, 1990). Early research (pre-1973) was concentrated with the questions 'what managers do and how' focused very often in how they allocate their time (Nailon, 1968). The middle-period representing the time between the early 1970s and the late 1980s is pro-occupied with what managers do in terms of roles (Ley, 1980; Pickworth, 1982; Ferguson & Berger, 1984; Nebel & Ghei, 1993; Mount & Bartlett, 1999). These studies have replicated and developed the framework presented by the general studies of managerial work drawing especially from Mintzberg's early work (1973).

Table 1: A summary of Managerial Work Studies in the Hospitality Industry

Author/s	**Year**	**Focus of Study**
Nailon	1968	Hotel Managers Time & Contact Patterns
Ley	1980	Hotel GMs Roles and Performance
Arnaldo	1981	Hotel Managers Roles, Leadership
Ferguson & Berger	1984	Hotel Manager Roles Framework
Hales & Nightingale	1986	Framework for Hospitality Unit Mgrs' Work
Umbreit and Eder	1987	Hotel Mgrs Behaviour & Effectiveness
Wosford	1989	Hotel Managers Leadership Role

Shortt	1989	Managerial Work Survey (MWS)
Guerrier & Lockwood	1990	Literature Review in Hospitality Mgrs’
Dann	1991	Roles Literature Review in Hospitality Mgrs’ Roles
Mullins & Davis	1991	Managerial Effectiveness in Hospitality
Nebel & Ghei	1993	Conceptual Framework of Hotel Mgr’s Job
Kim	1994	Hotel Managers’ Roles in Korea
Peacock	1995	Hospitality Manager Effectiveness
Gore	1995	Hotel Managers’ Decision Making
Teare	1995	Literature Review in Int. Hospitality Mgmt.
D’Annunzio-Green	1997	Int. Hospitality Management Development
Ladkin	1999	Literature Review in Hotel Mgr Roles
Mount & Bartlett	1999	Hotel Management Roles Survey (MRAS)
Brotherton	1999	Hospitality Management Framework
Stalcup & Pearson	2001	Hotel Management Turnover Causes

The period from the late 1980s until the late 1990’s has focused in managerial behaviour and performance (Eder & Umbreit, 1989; Worsfold, 1989; Mullins & Davis, 1991; Peacock, 1995; Gore, 1995). A forth period is added to Dann’s (ibid) chronological categorization covers the time from the mid-1990s until today and focuses on the skills and competencies required in order to perform effectively the managerial roles (Christou & Eaton, 2000; Kay & Rousette, 2000; Chung-Herrera et al., 2003; Kay & Moncarz, 2004).

2.3. Managerial Competencies

Throughout the second half of the 20th century understanding of the 'manager' has been a matter for debate and calls for action, though managerial performance has been notoriously difficult to evaluate (Child, 1969; Anthony, 1986). The research on managerial roles could not provide credible and sufficient answers to the measurement of management performance. The competence approach that appeared in the 1980s marked a new development; its focus lies in endorsing and promoting types of managerial behaviour rather than measuring managerial outcomes.

As early as in 1973, McClelland claimed that job performance should be predicted from competence rather than intelligence; his work has triggered the 'behavioural' approach in management competencies. The term 'competence' was first used in a managerial context in the research of the McBer Consultancy in the late 1970s in the USA as part of the initiative by the American Management Association to identify the characteristics which distinguish superior from average managerial performance. The work was encapsulated in The Competent Manager (Boyatzis, 1982).

Boyatzis defined the term 'competency' as 'an underlying characteristic of a person in that it may be a motive, trait, aspect of one's self-image or social role, or a body of knowledge which he or she uses' (1982, p.21). This approach was labelled as the 'personal characteristics' or 'behavioural' approach emphasises the distinction between threshold competencies which all job holders require – the competencies necessary for someone to fill the job – and differentiating competencies which distinguish the outstanding from the average manager (Boyatzis, 1982; Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

There has been an enormous diversity of interpretation of the meaning of the term 'competence' or 'competency', and no agreed definition (Rees, 2003). Woodruffe (1993) pointed out, defining the word according to Boyatzis' definition, leaves the term open to a multitude of interpretations. To avoid unresolved debates about 'motives', 'traits' and so on, the term 'competence' can be used to refer to a 'set of behaviours, skills, knowledge and understanding which are crucial to the effective performance of a position' (Woodruffe, ibid., p. 29).

The term and its related concepts have been adapted in number of ways. It has been extended to cover the training of a select group of managers and to the total change of an entire organisation. Despite Boyatzis' original intention to provide a model of competence that could be validated against organisational criteria, competencies have also been taken up at a national level and provide the framework for example, for developing general management competences in the U.K. (Townley, 1999). In this case the Management Charter Initiative (MCI, 1991) has adopted a functional approach to competence, which reflects a greater focus on task, seeking to identify concretely the work functions which a competent manager should be capable of performing (Cheng et al., 2003). For the purpose of this paper however, the discussion will focus in the frameworks that are falling in the 'behavioural' approach.

Table 2: Methods/Approaches for measuring performance and competence

Researcher	Performance measure	Competence measure
Boyatzis, (1982)	Supervisory nominations and ratings, work output measures	Behavioural Event Interview (BEI)
Schroder, (1989)	Work group / managerial performance	Behavioural Observation Method (BOM)
Spencer & Spencer, (1993)	Various managerial levels performance	Job Competence Assessment (JCA)
Dulewicz & Herbert, (1991-99)	Career advancement	360 degree Ratings (from supervisor, peers and subordinates)
Cheetham & Chivers, (1996-98)	Professional Performance in different professions	Provisional Model Critical Peer Evaluation / Reflection

According to Iversen (2000) all the different models within the 'behavioural' approach are primarily based on the study of the competency (competent behaviour) of outstanding performers. The major contributors within this approach are based in research conducted in the U.S. (Boyatzis, 1982; Schroeder, 1989; Spencer & Spencer, 1993), but there are also significant contributions from the U.K. (Cockerill, 1989; Dulewicz & Herbert, 1996; Cheetham & Chivers, 1996/8).

The various approaches have been encapsulated in the shape of a competency model/framework. This is a descriptive tool that identifies the knowledge, skills, abilities and behaviour needed to perform effectively in an organisation (Lucia & Lepsinger, 1999). Competency frameworks are considered to be beneficial in that they assist jobholders to contribute significantly to their personal development by enabling them to understand clearly what is required to perform effectively in a particular role, as well as in a wider context (i.e. throughout the industry). They also provide a framework within which to develop tools and techniques designed to improve performance (Brophy & Kiely, 2002). Competence frameworks and methods vary considerably from organisation to organisation and the extent and depth to which they become part of human resource functions can also differ (Rees & Garnsey, 2003).

Table 3: A comparison of managerial competency frameworks in Hospitality

Competency Areas (‘clusters’ according to **Dulewicz & Herbert, 1999**)	**Tas (1988); Baum (1991); Christou & Eaton (2000)**	**Lockwood (1993)**	**Kay & Russette (2000)**	**Brophy & Kiely (2002)**	**Chung – Herrera (2003)**

1. Intellectual	Operational Awareness	Managing Operations & Business	Conceptual – Creative; Technical	Planning & Organising, Problem Solving	Industry Knowledge; Critical Thinking
2. Personal	Ethics; Professionalism; Legal Responsibility	Personal Management Skills		Enthusiasm	Self Management
3. Communication	Communication		Administra-tive	Effective Communication	Communica-tion
4. Inter-Personal	Customer Problems Handling		Inter-personal	Teamwork	Inter-personal
5.Leadership	Employee Relations; Leadership; Motivation	Managing People	Leadership		Leadership
6. Results – Orientation	Development & Control of Productivity; Customer relations			Leading for results, Customer Service Focus; Financial Awareness; Strategic Thinking	Implementa-tion; Strategic Positioning
No. of Competencies:					

40	36	78	18	36	99

By examining the established competency frameworks of the behavioural approach (table 2), it can be argued that competencies typically gather in 5 ‘clusters’: Intellectual/ information handling, Achievement /results orientation, Managing and leadership, Motivational / Interpersonal, Personal (Dulewicz & Herbert, 1999). A sixth cluster was added by the work of Cheetham & Chivers (1996, 1998) that of Values and Ethics. Although this approach has been criticised for being too general by not recognising that the competency mix may vary from position to position, it remains the most popular approach in both sides of the Atlantic.

Since the concept of managerial competencies became fashionable in the late 1980s, a number of studies have been conducted to identify the essential competencies of managers in the hospitality industry. The majority of the competency frameworks / models (table 3) developed for the hospitality industry, are falling in the behavioural approach which is concerned with superior performance. Most of these studies examine the competencies required of the hospitality graduates in the UK and US respectively. Linking effectively the Hospitality managerial work with the Hospitality Higher Education has been always an issue; regardless the approach in Hospitality Education, there was always a demand to create a skilled core of Hospitality graduates ready to cope with the diverse environment of the sector. Thus, since the early 1990s a growing number of tourism and hospitality university courses that aim to meet the demands of a volatile and changing world (Umbreit, 1993) have taken up the challenge to prepare students by developing and enhancing the management competencies and skills needed to operate successfully. This movement has been supported by the industry’s growing demand of suitable qualified managerial staff, which until today is regarded as scarce.

In the late 1980s Tas (1988) carried out a study that targeted the management competences required by graduate trainees in the hotel business. This study was part of an effort to change the nature of the hospitality management curriculum which traditionally had a vocational / technical orientation (Baum, 2002). It involved the examination of the views of the general managers of 75 properties with 400 or more rooms. Baum (1991) has replicated the study in the UK and was based on the response of 118 hotel GMs out of 223 hotels with 150 or more rooms. The third replication of the study came surprisingly from Greece where Christou & Eaton (2000) who surveyed 178 hotels (4 & 5*) with 91 reponses from the GMs. The common finding for all three studies was that general managers identified the 'soft skills' as essential. There where however some gaps between the perceptions of Greek GMs compared to those of from the UK and the US: Greeks where very reluctant to consider any area as unimportant and rated most competencies as 'essential'. The main limitation of these studies is the methodological quantitative approach which as Eaton & Christou (ibid) suggest could be combined with qualitative tools such as in-depth interviews, in order to triangulate the data. Since most of the hospitality managerial competencies studies suffer from 'cultural and conceptual myopia', the differences that have been surfaced between the study of Tas (1988) in the US, Baum (1991) in the UK, and Christou & Eaton (2000) in Greece, proves that contextual and situational factors mater.

Under this fact lies the hart of a debate which is broadly represented by a pluralist and a unitarist approach. On the one hand Bartlett & Ghoshal (1997) argue that "situational factors vary so much that it is impossible to make a generic list of managerial competencies that are relevant for most managerial positions". On the other hand Spencer & Spencer (1993) suggest that "superior managers of all types and levels share a general profile of competencies. Managers of all types are more like each other than they are like the individual contributors they manage". It is difficult to decide which position is closer to the hospitality industry profile. This dilemma has confronted organisational studies for decades. As Ruth (2006) argues the problem of developing a competency framework involves abstraction, aggregation and standardisation. The extent to which this takes place is precisely the extent to which its applicability and usefulness in any particular situation is vitiated.

3. RESEARCH PROFILE, DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. The Research Profile

The research that conducted as part of a PhD Thesis, served mainly two aims: first to explore the GMs' roles and competencies profile in Greek 4 and 5* hotels; and second to investigate the role of culture and the level of influence in GMs' work.

In total 16 hotel case studies with 32 participant senior managers (16 GMs and their immediate assistants) were chosen – representing 4 and 5* in Athens, Thessaloniki, Rhodes and Crete.

Table 4: Case Selection Process

Region	Initial No. of 4 & 5* hotels	Short by Criterion No.1	Short by Criterion No.2	Final No. of Hotels
City Hotels				
Athens	49	26	15	**15**
Thessaloniki	28	20	6	**6**
Resort Hotels				
Crete	250	141	66	66
→ Region criteria narrowed in the area of Chania				**6**
Dodecanese	171	70	56	56
→ Region criteria narrowed in Faliraki & Ixia, Rhodes				**26**

The 16 establishments selected for this research, represent two broad hotel types operating in Greece – city and resort. Basic prerequisite for the participant hotels was to be holders of 4 or 5* official rating that is accredited by the Greek Chamber of Hotels. The ownership status of each hotel (family; local chain; national chain; multinational chain) was also considered. The luxury hotels in the selected geographical regions were then shorted / filtered by using the following two criteria (table 4):

I. As a minimum standard the city hotels should provide TV and air conditioning in room and, restaurant and parking facilities. Additionally for resort hotels they should have outdoor swimming pool.
II. All participant hotels should have more than 150 rooms. This happened in order to ensure that only medium to big companies would be researched. This aimed to a) compare hotels with similar organisational structure, and b) allow replication in other European countries with similar size and structure hotels.

The case selection process followed in this research was dictated by the structure of the luxury hotel industry in Greece: given its nature and geographical spread (approximately 1,150 establishments all over Greece) a decision was made to limit the destinations in the most representative and popular places for city and resort hotels respectively.

A three-part tool followed by a cover letter explaining the aim of the interview was used, in order to serve the needs of the research. The first part examined demographic data of the company and the participant; the second part was a 14 question semi-structured in-depth interview; and the third part was the Personal Competencies Framework (PCF) Questionnaire, originally developed by Dulewicz and Herbert (1991/99). Additional qualitative data sources derived from observation (field notes) and company documents.

A major methodological concern for this study was to produce valid and reliable outcomes. A research protocol was used as recommended by Yin (1994, 2003). The case study protocol contains procedures and general rules that should be followed in using the research instrument/s and is considered essential in a multiple-case study (Yin, ibid.). It was created prior to the data collection phase. In addition, during the data collection tests for the quality of research were employed (Construct and External Validity, Reliability); these tests were followed by the use of triangulation methods (Data/Theory/ Methodological Triangulation).

3.2. Discussion of the findings

The research findings showed that a Greek GM in his/her career is likely to work in both city and resort hotels, so the roles performed and competencies framework adopted are changing according to the case (best fit approach) in order to cope with the position's demands. 'What, why and how' each GM does in the work context, is the result of a complex process which integrates elements such as personality, roles, competencies, organisational and national context (culture). Since the City hotel type was introduced in Greece quite recently – just prior to the Olympic Games in 2004 – it would be unfair to build the profile of the GMs in Greece based on the "City-Resort" hotel distinction. This research has identified significant differences and similarities of the hotel GMs, when comparisons are based on the ownership status of the company they work.

The first category identified is the Family/Local Hotel Chain, which represent the vast majority of the Greek 4 and 5* hotels (Hellenic Chamber of Hotels, 2007). This is a typical SMTE (small-medium tourism enterprise) owned and essentially co-managed by the leader of the family surrounded by relatives in various positions (In-Group Collectivism). The following category, the National Greek Hotel Chain is a former family business – led very often by a charismatic founder – which expanded gradually its operations nation wide. This type of hotel has adapted to a certain degree the organisational structure and standards of a multinational hotel chain; there is still however moderate involvement of the owner (or his family) to the management of the company. Finally, the Multinational Hotel Chain is a foreign brand name, franchised in most of the cases by a Greek businessman. There are only a few cases that the management of the company belongs to the parent company. This type follows the organisation, structure and standards dictated by the parent company; there are however some variations / deviations due to the Greek socio-cultural context. For example, the standard operating procedures are adapted to the local working patterns and legislation.

The GMs working in a 4* or 5* family/local chain hotel are male between 55-65 years old, speaking in average two foreign languages and have at least a hospitality first degree. Employers in this category are in favour of the "old school" for two main reasons: they value more the experience, reputation and seniority than qualifications; in addition "near retirement" GMs may cost less in the payroll. The recruitment is conducted mainly through recommendations and "word of mouth", and rarely with internal recruits; the selection process is usually conducted by the owner and in most of the cases is based in subjective criteria (i.e. personal references, reputation and salary). There are limited options for training and development in this type of hotel, and very often is up to the GMs' discretion to recommend which programme to attend. In most of the cases, there is no time allocated for training and development activities, in the GMs daily schedule. The job roles performed by the GMs are focused in what Mintzberg (1973) describes as "figurehead", the person who is there to inspire and lead the staff; they also find the time to communicate with customers and listen carefully to their views. The communication competencies cluster is perceived as the most valuable for successful operations and management. GMs in family hotels have an informal performance evaluation – in most of the cases conducted by the hotel owner – based primarily in the financial performance, and secondarily the levels of customer satisfaction and quality. This type of GMs put great emphasis in networking, and they work very hard to build a good reputation in the marker. Their overall relations with the owners can be described as "tolerable" since the GMs are often faced with unrealistic demands on behalf of the owners. On the other hand there are average performers (GMs) who promise more than can deliver; these individuals sooner or later are marginalised and are forced to relocate or work in lower hotel categories (usually 3* hotels). Overall, the level of the owner's involvement (and his family) in the GMs' work in most of the cases is high. The Greek context is dominant here, with the "in-group collectivism" dimension to dictate the relationships between the owner, the GM and their subordinates.

The second type of GMs, those working in Greek National Hotel Chains are males between 45-55 years old, speaking in average two foreign languages and have very good educational background including a hospitality first degree and postgraduate studies. Their professional background shows experience from the 'primary' departments of a medium/big size hotel (Food and Beverage, Front Office - Reservations); in addition, sales and contracting background is a prerequisite for this type of GMs. Recruitment is conducted through personal recommendations or internal candidates with experience in various hotels of the chain; ‘head hunters’ are rarely used for high profile candidates. Since the recruitment process does not involve a lot of candidates, two or three selection interviews take place with senior managers from/in the Head Office; during the final interview the owner is also present. Throughout the year there are moderate opportunities for training and development; the GMs are free to choose between in-house or outsourced programmes, in Greece and/or abroad. Their job roles are focused in leadership (employee motivation / inspiration) and entrepreneurship (help business grow). The results orientation competencies cluster is their primary concern, they value however the remaining managerial competencies as integral parts of their competencies framework. This is reflected in their performance evaluation, a formal procedure which takes place one or two times a year depending on the type of the hotel unit (city-resort). The primary targets are mainly financial and the maintenance of quality standards; there is however a reference to the ‘performance’ of the GMs in areas such as communication, leadership and inter-personal relations. The GMs ‘secondary’ competencies are evaluated through peer reviews, customer satisfaction questionnaires and ‘mystery guest’ audits. Although there is intense networking activity within the corporate limits, GMs maintain their contacts outside the company; in addition, their reputation is mostly heard within the corporate limits. The owners – who in most of the cases occupy the position of the managing director or chairman of the board – have a moderate involvement in the GMs’ work, mainly at strategic level. There are however cases that intervene in GMs’ work when they have personal interest, i.e. ‘strongly recommend’ the selection of a particular candidate. It is important to note here that the owners know personally all of their GMs, and maintain regular communication. Finally, in this type of business the Greek culture meets the corporate culture: the Greek hotel national chains are structured and managed according to the multinational hotel chain model; the Greek culture is however evident everywhere and it is very often the case that ‘favours’ and deviations from the standards occur when is about relatives or friends. On the other hand, it can be argued that this type of business has embodied the Greek context characteristics in the best way, so their GMs can use it in a beneficial manner.

Table 5 summarises the findings of this research; the three different profiles identified for Greek luxury hotel GMs are not exclusive and provide a generic context for discussion in this field.

Table 5: The GMs' profile in Greek 4 and 5* hotels

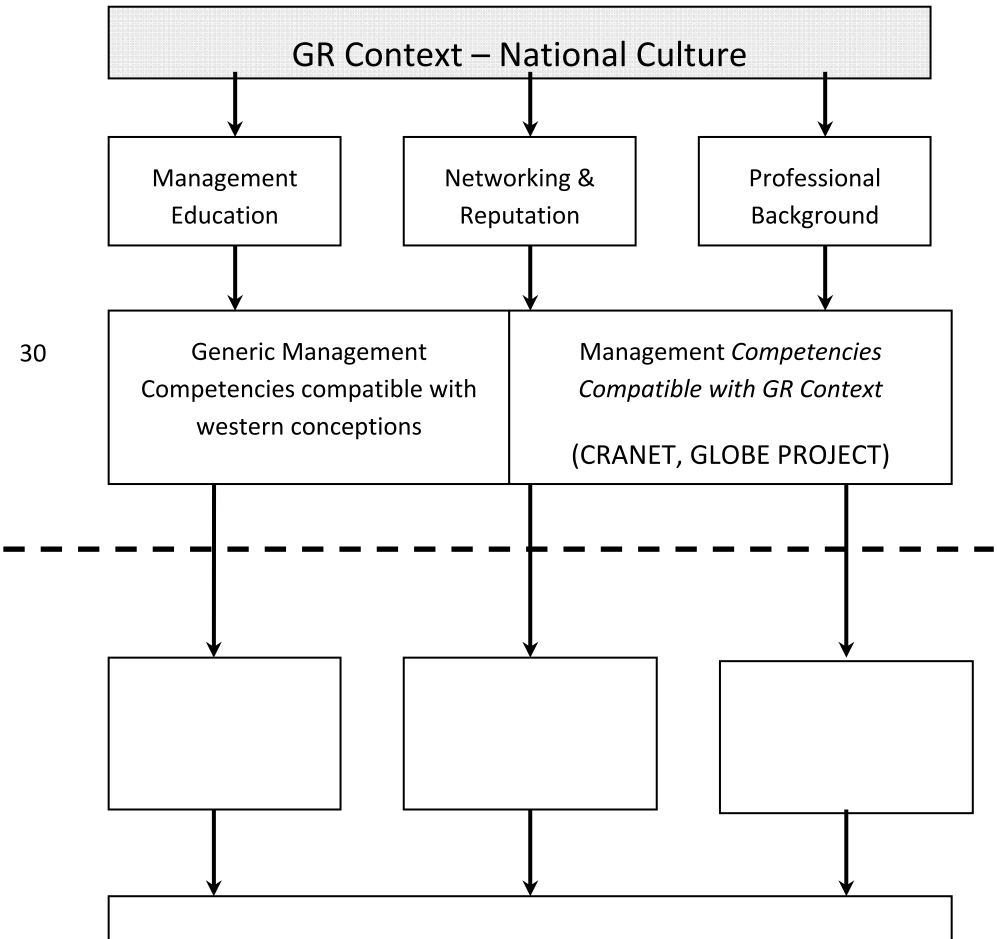
Company Type / **GMs' Characteristics**	**Family /Local Chain**	**Greek National Chain**	**Multinational Chain**
Average Age	55-65	45-55	45-55
Sex	Male	Male	Male
Education	HE Graduates	HE Graduates & Postgraduate Edu.	HE Graduates & Postgraduate Edu.
Professional Background	All Departments (Emphasis in F&B)	All Departments (Emphasis in Sales & Contracting)	All Departments (Emphasis in Sales & Contracting)
Recruitment & Selection	Recommendations	Recommendations & Internally	Head Hunters & Internally
Training & Development	Sporadic – GMs' own discretion	Moderate to High Opportunities	High Opportunities
Job Roles	"Figurehead"	Entrepreneur & Leader	Entrepreneur
Competencies	Emphasis in Communication	Results Orientation	Results Orientation
Performance Evaluation	Informal Annual	Formal Annual (1 or 2 times)	Formal Annual (1 or 2 times)

Role of Networking	High	Moderate outside High inside	Low outside High inside
Role of reputation	High in local /national market	High in national marker	High in regional / international market
Ownership level of involvement	High to Moderate	Moderate	Low
Role of Culture	High	Moderate	Moderate to low

The last type of GMs, are those working in multinational companies. They are middle aged (45-55 years old) enthusiastic males with impeccable educational background. They speak in average two languages - including the parent country's (in case it is not English). Their professional background has a sales and finance orientation, although they understand very well hotel operations. The recruitment is conducted internally or through the use of 'head hunters' who are aiming at high profile recruits. In the case of franchised brands the personal recommendation is also used. The selection process is rigorous and involves at least three interviews. There are many opportunities for training and development in Greece and abroad on a regular basis. The GMs' roles in this type of hotels are focused in entrepreneurship and finance. Their annual performance evaluation is multi-dimensional, lots of emphasis is put however in achieving agreed (financial) targets. This corresponds to their preference in the results-orientation competencies cluster. Networking is very important within the corporate limits; outside these limits the GMs maintain only those contacts necessary to 'do the job'. Their reputation is synonymous with hard work and what is actually on their resume. The Greek culture is something that they cannot ignore –especially in the case of foreigners – the corporate culture however is this, which determines their behaviour. It should be noted here that there are less than 10 foreign GMs in 4 and 5* hotels in Greece (most of them in Athens); they are not represented in this study because it was not possible (politely rejected) to reach them. The above profile refers to Greek nationals working in Multinational hotel chains. The fact that a so small number of foreign nationals work as luxury hotel GMs in Greece may lead in the following arguments: first that there are very good Greek GMs who satisfy the high standards of the multinational hotel chains; and second that the Greek context is presenting difficulties that foreign nationals cannot cope with.

3.3. Conceptual Framework

The findings of this research have led to the construction of the following conceptual framework (figure 2) regarding the GM's competencies and roles profile in Greek 4 and 5* hotels. Everything occurs under the influence of a strong national culture which is present within and outside the GMs' working environment. Throughout their careers, GMs initially acquire their competencies by attending higher education courses (in Greece and abroad); this shapes the first generic managerial competencies framework which is consistent with the western conceptions of management competencies (behavioural approach). This generic competencies framework is enhanced and developed through their professional development, in which GMs are shaping their own (personal) managerial profile and competencies framework. They are also 'exposed' to the community of the GMs through their networking efforts and contacts that are developed gradually as they change jobs and positions. Thus, throughout their career, GMs shape a generic competencies framework that is 'enhanced' by a new cluster which refers to the Greek context. **Figure 2:** GMs' Competencies Mapping in Greek Luxury Hotels



In their current jobs, GMs are performing their roles according to the competencies framework that has already been shaped throughout their careers; they are influenced however by the ownership status (family vs. chain hotels) and the level of the owners’ interference. This situation calls for adaptation to the current position demands, thus the personal competencies framework is adjusted accordingly (‘best fit’ approach). Again the cultural / contextual factors are present and influence the GMs’ roles and competences in their workplaces.

4. CONCLUSION

This research paper has discussed the effects of the Greek cultural context, in the roles and competencies of the GMs' working in 4 and 5* hotels. Previous research related to management and culture in Greece (CRANET survey; GLOBE project), managerial work (Mintzberg, 1973, 1994), and managerial competencies (the 'behavioural' approach), have provided the theoretical framework. The findings of this research identified three different types/profiles of luxury hotel GMs, according to the ownership status of the hotel (family/local hotel chain; national hotel chain; multi-national hotel chain); each one is affected to a certain degree by the strong Greek national culture and this is reflected in their generic profiles. Since research in this topic is still in early stages, the above findings can provide a basis for future research in Greece and/or other European countries.

REFERENCES

Anthony P.D. (1986) The Foundation of Management, London: Tavistock.

Bartlett C. A. & Ghoshal S. (1989) Managing across boarders, London: Hutchinson.

Baum T. (1991) Comparing Expectations of Management Trainees, The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly 32(2), 79-84.

Baum T. (2002) Skills and Training for the hospitality sector: a review of issues, Journal of Vocational Education and Training 54(3), 343-363.

Bourantas D. & Papadakis V. (1996) Greek Management: Diagnosis and prognosis, Int. Studies of Management and Organization 26 (3), 13-25.

Boyatzis R. (1982) The competent manager: a model for effective performance, New York: John Willey & Sons.

Brewster C. (1994) European HRM: Reflection of, or Challenge to, the American Concept. In P.S. Kirkbride (Ed.) Human Resource Management in Europe: Perspectives for the 1990s, London: Routledge, 56-89.

Brophy M. & Kiely T. (2002) Competencies: A new sector, Journal of European Industrial Training 26(2-4), 165-176.

Buhalis D. (2001) Tourism in Greece: Strategic Analysis and Challenges, Current Issues in Tourism 4(5), 440-480.

Burns T. (1957) Management in Action, Operational Research Quarterly 8 (2), 45-60.

Carlson S. (1951) Executive Behaviour, Stockholm: Strömbergs.

Carroll S. & Gillen D. (1987) Are the Classical Management Functions Useful in Describing Managerial Work? Academy of Management Review 12(1), 38-51.

Cheetham G. & Chivers G. (1996) Towards a holistic model of professional competence, Journal of European Industrial Training 20(5), 20-31.

Cheetham G. & Chivers G. (1998) The reflective (and competent) practitioner: a model of professional competence which seeks to harmonise the reflective practitioner and competence-based approaches, Journal of European Industrial Training 22(7), 267-276.

Cheng M., Dainty A. & Moore D. (2003) The differing faces of managerial competency in Britain and America, Journal of Management Development 22(6), 527-537.

Child J. (1969) British Management Thought, London: Allen & Unwin.

Christou E. & Eaton J. (2000) Management Competencies for Graduate Trainees, Annals of Tourism Research 24(4), 1058-1106.

Chung-Herrera B., Enz C. & Lankau M. (2003) Grooming Future Hospitality Leaders: A Competencies Model, The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly 44(3), 17-25.

Cockerill A.P. (1989) The kind of competence for rapid change, Personnel Management 21(9), 52-56.

Dann D. (1990) The nature of managerial work in the hospitality industry, International Journal of Hospitality Management 9(4), 319-334.

Dulewicz V. & Herbert P. (1999) Predicting advancement to senior management from competences and personality data: a 7-year follow up study, British Journal of Management 10, 13-22.

Eder R.W. & Umbreit W.T. (1989) Measures of managerial effectiveness in the Hotel Industry, Hospitality Education Research Journal 13(1), 333-341.

Eurostat (2005), Eurostat Yearbook, Brussels, European Community.

Ferguson D. H. & Berger F. (1984) Restaurant Managers: what do they really do? The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly 25(1), 27-38.

Fondas N. & Stewart R. (1994) Enactment in managerial jobs: a role analysis, Journal of Management Studies 31(1), 83-103.

Gore J. (1995) Hotel managers decision making: can psychology help? International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management 21(3), 19-23.

Hales C. (1999) Why do managers do what they do? Reconciling evidence and theory in accounts of managerial work, British Journal of Management 10, 335-350.

Hellenic Chamber of Hotels (2007) Annual Industry Review, Athens (in Greek).

House R., Javidan M., Hanges P. & Dorfman P. (2002) Understanding Cultures and implicit leadership theories across the globe: an introduction to project GLOBE, Journal of World Business 37, 3-10.

Iversen O. (2000) Managing people towards a Multicultural workforce: Part A – Managerial Competencies, NIPA, Lysaker, Norway.

Javidan M.J. & House R.J. (2001) Cultural Acumen for the Global Manager: Lessons from Globe Project, Organizational Dynamics 29(4), 289-305.

Kanellopoulos Ch. (1990) Personnel management and personnel managers in Greece, Athens, Greek Productivity Centre (in Greek).

Kay C. & Moncarz E. (2004) Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities for Lodging Management Success, The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly 45(3), 285-298.

Kay C. & Russette J. (2000) Hospitality Management Competencies, The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly 41(4), 52-63.

Kotter J. (1982) The General Managers, New York: The Free Press.

Ley D.A. (1980) The effective GM: leader or entrepreneur? The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly 21(3), 66-67.

Lockwood A. (1993) European Management Skills in the Hospitality Industry: based on the final report of the HCIMA's European research 1992-4, London, Hotel & Catering International Management Association.

Lucia A.D. & Lepsinger R. (1999) The Art and Science of Competency Models, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Luthans F., Rosenkrantz S. & Hennessey H. (1985) What do successful managers Really Do? An Observation Study of Managerial Activities, The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science 21(3), 255-270.

Martin N. (1956) Differential decisions in the management of industrial plant, Journal of Business 29(4), 249-260.

McClelland, D. C. (1973) Testing for competence rather than for intelligence, American Psychologist 28, 1-14.

MCI (1991) Personal Competence Project: Summary report, London, Management Charter Initiative

Mintzberg H. (1973) The nature of Managerial Work, New York: Harper & Row.

Mintzberg H. (1994) Rounding out the Manager's Job, Sloan Management Review Fall, 11-26.

Mount D. J. & Bartlett A. L. (1999) The managerial role assessment survey: Design and test of an instrument measuring Mintzberg's roles among hotel managers, Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research 23(2), 160-175.

Mullins L. & Davies I. (1991) What makes for an effective hotel manager? International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management 3(1), 22-5.

Myloni B., Harzing A.W. & Mirza H. (2004) Human Resource Management in Greece: Have the colours of Culture faded away? International Journal of Cross Cultural Management 4(1), 59-76.

Nailon P. (1968) A study of management activity in units of a hotel group, Guildford: University of Surrey MPhil thesis.

Nebel E.C. & Ghei A. (1993) A conceptual framework of the hotel general manager's job, Hospitality Research Journal 16(3), 27-37.

Papalexandris N. & Chalikias J. (2002) Changes in training, performance management and communication issues among Greek firms in the 1990s: intercountry and intracountry comparisons, Journal of European Industrial Training 26(7), 342-352.

Papalexandris N., Chalikias J. & Panayotopoulou L. (2002) Societal Culture and Human Resource Management: Exploring the mutual interaction in Greece, paper presented at the 2nd International Conference Human Resource Management in Europe: Trends and Challenges, Athens, Greece, 17-19 October 2002.

Peacock M. (1995) 'A job well done': hospitality managers and success, International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management 7(2/3), 48-51.

Pickworth J.R. (1982) Managerial jobs in chain organizations, The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly May, 30-33.

Rees B. (2003) The Construction of Management: Gender Issues and Competence Techniques in Modern Organizations, London: Edward Elgar.

Rees B. & Garnsey E. (2003) Analysing Competence: Gender and Identity at Work, Gender, Work and Organization, 10(5), 551-578.

Ruth D. (2006) Frameworks of managerial competence: limits, problems and suggestions, Journal of European Industrial Training 30(3), 206 -226.

Sayles L. R. (1964) Managerial Behaviour, New York: McGraw-Hill.

Schroder H.M. (1989) Managerial Competence: The key to excellence, Iowa: Kendal / Hunt.

SETE (2003) Tourism and Employment Report, Athens, Greek Tourism Enterprises Association (in Greek).

Sparrow P. & Hiltrop J. (1997) Redefining the field of European Human Resource Management: A battle between national mindsets and forces of business transition? Human Resource Management 36(2), 201-219.

pencer L. & Spencer S. (1993) Competence at work: Models for Superior Performance, New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Stewart R. (1967) Managers and their jobs, London: McMillan.

Stewart R. (1976) Contrast in management, London: McGraw-Hill.

Stewart R., Smith P., Blake J. & Wingate P. (1980) The District Administrator in the National Health Service, London, King Edward's Hospital Fund.

Tas R. (1988) Teaching Future Managers, The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly 29(2), 41-43.

Townley B. (1999) Nietzsche, competencies and ubermensch: reflections on human and inhuman resource management, Organization 6(2), 285–305.

Umbreit T. (1993) Essential Skills: What graduates need to succeed, Hosteur, 10-12.

Whitley R. (1989) On the Nature of Managerial Tasks and Skills: Their Distinguishing Characteristics and Organisation, Journal of Management Studies 26, 209–224.

Woodruffe C. (1993) What is meant by a competency? Leadership & Organizational Development Journal 14(1), 29-36.

Worsfold P. (1989) Leadership and managerial effectiveness in the hospitality industry, International Journal of Hospitality Management 8(1), 51-62.

www.wttc.com (World Travel & Tourism Council) Country Report: Greece (2005), accessed: 11/10/2007.

Yin R.K. (1994) Case study research – design and methods, applied social research methods series, (2nd ed.), Beverly Hills: Sage.

Yin R.K. (2003) Case Study Research Design and Methods, (3rd ed.), London: Sage.

EXPLORATION OF QUALITY BENCHMARKS IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE REALM OF TOURISM: A THEORETICAL ASSESSMENT

Dimitris Stavrakis

Phd, Scientific Associate of the Department of Tourist Enterprises

T.E.I in Lamia, Greece

Dimitra Karageorgou

M.Sc. Department of Tourist Enterprises

T.E.I in Lamia, Greece

INTRODUCTION

Modern educational programmes have emerged in answer to the developing demands for human resources, which will be able to cope in a globalized environment constantly evolving and changing. (Amoah & Baum, 1997).

The intentions of the present publication concentrate on the following issues:

A. Conceptual approach of the philosophy of the principles of the holistic quality administration, in the context of human resources management with the main advantage of creating suitable pre-requisites for the rendering of upgraded educational services.

B. The application of a method of benchmarking as a basic standard of comparative assessment of the best educational achievements of departments of similar cognitive objectives, so as to specialize the mission, vision and aims through the acquisition of an advantage over rivals.

C. Expressing Conclusions\Suggestions with the view to encouraging initiatives and taking quality measures within the context of higher tourist education activities as a whole.

Key words: benchmarking, tourism, higher education, quality

CONCEPTUAL APPROACH OF THE FORMATION OF THE HOLISTIC QUALITY ADMINISTRATION, IN THE CONTEXT OF HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

The application of the philosophy of the holistic quality administration to Higher Tourist Education demands self control, autonomy and creativity which develop in an environment of cooperation to the effect of a consistent effort towards a constant improvement of the quality of three key parameters: a) Product b) Process c) Personnel. At the same time, Higher Tourist Education as well as other educational sectors should provide high quality educational services so as to develop "specified competitive quality and to have a clear perception of their mission" (Mathews, William, 1993: 102-108). Furthermore, their governing values should be supported so that all parties involved in the shaping of the educational policy can perceive the aims and commitments through the expression of appropriate standards of performance so as to evaluate the outcome and justly apportion the benefits.

The effective assessment of performance as a monitoring technique requires models, information and corrective movements. The models indicate the acceptable levels of performance for each position. The information is a countable standard of true performance in work in comparison with the models. The corrective movements concern measures to restore any inconsistency between the true performance and the model. (Terzidis & Tzortzakis, 2004 : 135)

This requires that all the members of the educational system play a multipurpose role through the updating of their intellectual skills and achieve the ultimate in the sense of perfecting culture aided by the experiences in the field of administration (Tsiotras, 2002:141). In practice, this means that, according to Bechard & Harris (1987) and Bush & Bell (2002:56-57), the executives of educational organizations ought to:

- Set goals and be fully aware of the direction in which they are heading.
- Define the organizational structure according to the demands of the goals set and not to the administrative authority or the need to comply.
- Co-ordinate the educational work and contribute to the shaping of a flexible, creative and directly effective workplace.
- Make decisions with a spirit of cooperation, based on the accurate approach of information and common interest.
- Manage human resources with respect and appreciation of their identity, stature and contribution, thus facilitating their work and a more objective assessment (Varvaressos S.,Sotiriadis M., 2003:143-162).

FORMATION OF A HANDBOOK OF QUALITY IN EDUCATION

The necessity for the formation of a handbook for the study of the assessment of the holistic quality of Tertiary Tourist Education, according to the standards of the Quality Assurance Agency For Higher Education (**QAA**) is concerned with the establishment of suitable standards, the updating as well as the encouragement for constant improvement of quality, the recognition of strengths and weaknesses, the independent and valid information concerning higher education services. (Prinianaki E. & Loupa P. 2007).

Taking into consideration contemporary tendencies concerning the degree of effectiveness of the Education in relation to modern work market demands we deem the need for an in-depth assessment urgent, the need for a procedure which will emphasize self- evaluation, a method to collect data from inspections conducted, an approach which will comprehend the special needs of the educational organizations and their operating environment (Kaplanis, 2007).

This approach could be based on the continuous utilization of dialogue and feedback with the Department under evaluation, on the exploitation of the experience acquired by the students, on the conduct of thorough research with clear target, on coordinated action of the groups conducting and composing the assessment, judgment or recommendation for the standard of the services provided by the departments, on the recognition of the best practices for the assurance of quality (Stavrakis & Karageorgou, 2007).

According to James (2003), the primary target of those involved in the shaping of the Model Of Holistic Quality is their commitment to the comprehension of the organizing processes of estimating and back feeding of the results quality and quantity wise. The awareness of quality must be part of an established programme whereas the improvement is accompanied by the concept of corrective action and its application (James, 2003: 81).

According to the actions of the Quality Assurance Agency For Higher Education in Great Britain (**QAA**), the report is written in such a way as to ensure its objectivity, its accuracy and its usefulness for the educational organization. It contains the assessors' conclusions and recommendations, but no judgments, it is concerned with the presentation of the optimum practices for dissemination and is conducted on three levels www.qaa.ac.uk/reviews/IQER/handbook/IQERPilotHandbook.pdf: a) The desirable recommendations which refer to issues able to enhance the quality and the institution's capability to maintain the standards. b) The advisory recommendations which refer to issues able to jeopardize the quality in the future and require particular attention. c) The essential recommendations which refer to issues already jeopardizing the quality and require immediate attention. The aim of the above is optimum publicity of the assessments which promotes a form of benchmarking in which all the educational institutions will be involved in a process of emulation.

COMPARATIVE ASSESSMENT OF PERFORMANCE IN TERTIARY TOURIST EDUCATION

The comparative benchmarking is a method of enhancing the functioning of the enterprise\institution through the definition and adoption of the best tried "optimum" practices (Bourantas & Papalexandri, 2003). The term "comparative assessment" is used in order to define the level of performance of each educational organization, with concrete targets, so as to allow the evaluation of the progress. Comparison with rivals enables the organization to mark its boundaries in relation to other institutions which offer similar educational services.

Therefore, benchmarking is a process through which educational organizations (Dervitsiotis, 2001: 429) select sectors to enhance their educational work and answer the question: how is our performance judged in relation to that of the leaders' of the educational field who have achieved the best performances? The best practices of other educational organizations are studied and also answer the question: where must we focus our efforts in order to bridge the gap and become more effective as against our rivals? By applying new methods and systems to enhance productivity and quality, they answer the question: where are our weaknesses, which are the targets set, and which are the performances of our rivals especially those who have utilized effective practices? (Karagiannis, 1992: 48).

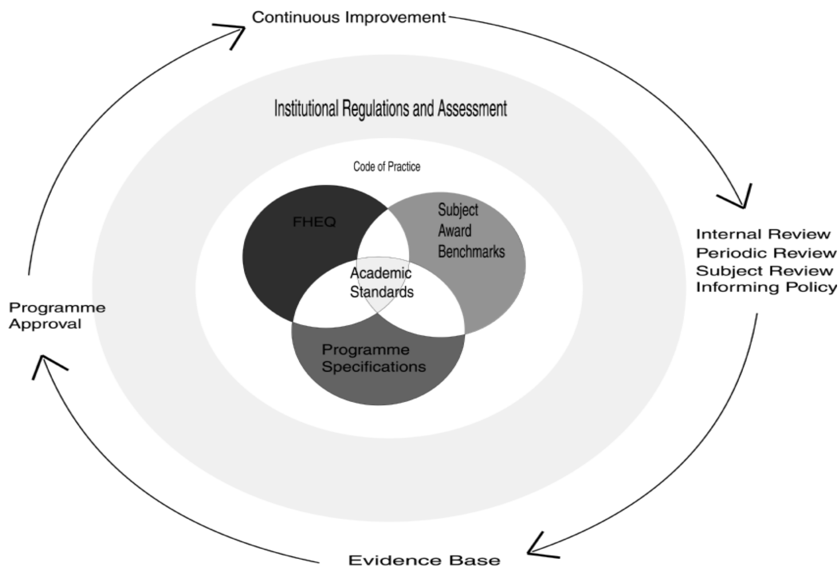
BENCHMARKING IN TERTIARY TOURIST EDUCATION

Benchmarking is one of the most widely applied methods of drawing conclusions and comparing data of organizations of the same kind (Athanasopoulos, 2007). The importance of benchmarking in the management of the international tourist phenomenon, is evident from the creation of the benchmarking committee under the auspices of the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), which supports the shaping of a strategic for tourism, awakens the cooperating parties for the discovery of viable solutions, helps to pinpoint deficiencies and shortcomings, estimates potential achievements of optimum practices, aiming at the solution of the problems which arise in OECD countries. (2007 www.oecd.org)

Nonetheless, which are the methodological process and the main points of comparison that form the basis upon which the success of an educational programme will be evaluated holistically so as to develop future quality initiatives targeting at reinforcing and enriching the competitive position of the educational organization in general?

The diagram depicts the commitments of the educational organization which it ought to abide by with the basic data from the Optimum Practice Code (Self-evaluation – Assessment of Programmes), the academic standards, assisted by the systems and the quality assurance and management mechanisms, after having related the academic infrastructure to the students experience as well as to the evaluation of performance between the organization under observation and the optimum performance model (Bank,2000: 42-43).

Diagram 1



Quality Assurance Agency For Higher Education 2006

At this stage we can define the Critical Success Factors (CSFs) (Evans, Campbell, Stonehouse, 2003) such as devotion to the educational work, expansion of higher tourist education into the international market by seeking executives even in multinational educational organizations with high performance criteria (Gratton, 2003). Furthermore, the constant research on models of procedures and standards will result in the relocation and redefinition of the services provided, fund seeking, development of excellent skills (best in class) and reinforcement of competitiveness, conditions which are essential to every 21st century educational organization (Johnson, Scholes, Whittington, 2006).

Access to information is undertaken by a group of experts who communicate with key-contacts in specific reference organizations (Xiggi, 2000) fact which assists all the educational organizations involved (David, 2007). Consequently, the effectiveness of the programmes of studies, the professional development of the graduates, the structure of the syllabus, the steps towards professional cooperations on a national and international level, the assessment of teaching staff, the contribution and the results of the examination procedure, the standards of performance of the research work of academic staff and the standards of excellence and quality of the administrative organization of services are the main factors of educational strategy. It ought to be noted that devotion, motivation and performance of the staff cannot be assessed by means of a checklist alone (Wheelen, Hunger, 2006).

However, to fully understand the model, the measurement and comparative analysis of performance are materialized in four consecutive stages: “Plan-Do-Check-Act” (Evans, Lindsay, 2002: 587-588):

- Stage 1 includes the design and the choice of the key factors, adapted to performance. In this case members of the educational organization are committed to “supporting the assessment as operational philosophy which contributes to the perfection of quality and innovative adjustment” (Airey & Tribe, 2005: 501-506). Assessment , on the other hand, is not limited to administrative procedures only, but takes into account the human factor as well as the use of technology (Bogan, English, 2007).
- Stage 2 refers to the collection of information during which the parties involved are informed of the results of the study\research in progress, (Ladkin, 2005: 437-447) in relation to the measurements of the performance of rivals. The fact that enhancements are constant and the comparative

measurements are soon rendered obsolete is a parameter that ought to be taken into consideration. It is possible that the performance of rivals will continue to improve at a faster pace. The following sectors of skills, knowledge and experience are considered: the development of institutional infrastructure, clear comprehension of the basic issues related to learning and the possibility of its development within the broader statutory goals or missions. (Lewis, Smith, 1994: 85-104).

- In Stage 3 the educational procedures must be reviewed and enhanced. Evaluation is useful only when it is applied and part of a structured programme which leads to detailed analysis. "It covers procedures administratively as well as academically and the methodology ought to go beyond superficial issues and allow flexibility as to the way of its guidance, through study\research of the most significant operational procedures for the achievement of the holistic quality" (2007, www.apqc.org). No communicational tool is stronger than the actions of the leadership when it comes to the enhancement of performance. Consequently, many organizations call upon their senior members of staff to form behaviours, adopt views, and acquire skills and take actions which support the organization. Assessment must be a common practice amongst the group of the leadership of every organization (Liston, 1999). Borrowing the best practices from the pioneers in the market and the international quality is an effective means of regulating change and exercising pressure for constant enhancement.
- In Stage 4 , according to Liston 1999: 98-120 & Bogan C.E., English M.J. (2007) "The schemes of action determine the ranked interventions of the administration for the achievement of goals with time escalation of the appropriate actions and noting of the necessary means and corresponding expenses. While applying measures aiming at the achievement of the goals of enhancement of the quality, the team in charge detects opportunities or obstacles which make reviewing imperative at regular intervals" (Vellas, Becherel, 1999: 56-57) of the goals of enhancement which emerged from interuniversity comparisons of competitive performances.

When the educational institution pinpoints the best practices it must successfully share and expand the knowledge. (Bogan, English, 2007). At the same time reliable answers are offered to questions like: In what ways can the organization invest in the training of its human resources who are willing to adopt innovative ideas and practices from external sources so as to encourage the exchange of ideas and better distribution of practice through the use of the existing systems? Although answers are not easy, we believe that areas of work must be designed, the practices of rivals must be evaluated, libraries and notice boards must be created, innovations and practices which show true results must be announced. “Even when the ideas of another educational organization are not truly adopted, the stereotype examination of innovative practices is a challenge in the frame of the forming strategic schemes of the organization” (Middaugh, 2001: 157-158). The reports almost always suggest that comparative assessment:

- Broadens the functional prospect of the organization, creating a cultural environment open to new ideas. It increases the sense of job satisfaction in first rate employees through their participation and the strengthening of the sense of proprietorial professional prospect (Varvaressos S., Sotiriadis M., 2005:35-54).
- It contributes to the creation of a workforce of pioneering achievement, encouraging initiative and creative thought while performing their duties (Thompson, Strickland, Gamble, 2007).
- It overcomes the natural doubtfulness of the employees using techniques of motivation and reward so that the result is oriented towards a broader working atmosphere, in order to achieve the standards of higher performance (Thompson, Strickland, Gamble, 2007).

The process of benchmarking is considered especially suitable for higher educational institutions because it does not focus only on detailed mechanisms of comparison, but mainly on the effect of these comparisons/evaluations on the behaviour of the workforce (Johnson, Scholes, Whittington, 2006). They discover that it helps to overcome resistance to change, it offers a structure for external evaluation and it creates new networks of communication between departments of the same cognitive objectives where the valuable information and experiences can be shared.

CONCLUSIONS/SUGGESTIONS

The department of education in the tourist industry, includes accommodation, recreation, sport and tourism enterprises, it demands the analysis of the particularities of each programme for every cognitive unit, showing a great degree of flexibility in order to facilitate designing, delving into syllabuses of the cognitive units and seeking the desirable results (Dale, Robinson, 2001). Contemporary educational tendencies reflect the existence of tourist programmes which incorporate notions and ideas from other scientific domains, such as: sociology, anthropology, civilization (Athanasiou, 2004).

Qualifications in the particular cognitive fields refer to:

- Consideration of the ideology and the characteristics of Tourism as an academic as well as applied scientific subject.
- Examination of the nature and the characteristics of the domain studied.
- Research on the products, the structures, the functions, the transactions of the tourist industry.
- Analysis of the social dimensions of the tourist phenomenon.

Although the majority of the programmes constitute an overview of the fore mentioned points, each programme focuses on a different area. They are multi-disciplinary and the majority presents an applied and inter-disciplinary goal.

Furthermore, a vital role is undertaken by the realization of research projects as well as the acquisition of specific skills, among which are:

Knowledge, that is to say comprehension of the subject, multi-disciplinary and inter-disciplinary approach of the studies drawing data from the field of services, research projects, acquisition of problem-solving abilities.

Mental Powers such as approach, evaluation and the ability to think critically upon theories, principles, notions. Synthesis – analysis – interpretation. Application of knowledge through elaboration of logical arguments so as to resolve pressing issues.

Key skills such as communication – presentation of written and spoken language, participation in teams and solidary cooperation, problem solving, crisis management, ability for self-assessment and its application to practice, programming of learning procedures.

General Skills such as designing, programming, execution of practices using appropriate techniques, ability to convey part of one's intellectual product, recognition, response to moral and security issues, legal matters in direct relation to the cognitive subject.

The designers of the programme of studies, according to the proposed actions of Quality Assurance Agency For Higher Education in Great Britain (2007) www.qaa.ac.uk/academicinfrastructure/benchmark/honours/hospitality.pdf , should ensure that " general" knowledge form the basis of all programmes. However, skills may vary and will always be put in specific and specialized frames in conjunction with the rudiments defined by the guidelines of each cognitive subject.

According to the above when the qualification contains the term "administration", the students should show professional administrative abilities and knowledge through professional practice, they should evaluate and apply notions relevant to the functional and strategic administration of funds, human and natural resources, they should comprehend the necessity of conserving resources in society.

When the programme contains the term "science", the students should comprehend the philosophical basis of the scientific examples, they should show ability to conduct research, to interpret and analyse relevant data and technologies.

When the programme contains the term "studies", the students should be able to critically approach the contribution of the various academic fields to the development of a specific scientific subject, they should show a satisfactory degree of development in their domain, they should possess a substantial knowledge of their discipline.

To sum up, a graduate of a programme of tourist education ought to comprehend and appreciate the contribution of various disciplines to the interpretation of the nature and development of tourism, to interpret but also question theories and notions, to comprehend the local as well as the international nature of the dimensions of the tourist phenomenon, to exploit, investigate, realize the dynamic nature of tourism in contemporary societies, to comprehend the structure, function, organization of the public and private factors as well as their activities, to analyse the relationship between consumers of tourism and those who offer tourist services, to evaluate the effect and consequences of tourism on a social, political, cultural, environmental level, to interpret the characteristics of the demands of tourism as well as the factors which formulate them, to perceive the cultural value of tourism and to understand the behaviour of tourists in their various destinations.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Athanassiou L.A. (2004), «Tourist Education and Training - Developments, Problems, Needs and Politics» Athens: ITE

Athanassopoulos P., 29-04-07 «DEI: Modernisation or elimination », Interview, Kathimerini, Financial.

Bourantas D.& Papalexandri N. (2003), «Management of Human Resources» Athens: G.Benou.

Dervitsiotis K. (2001) «Competitiveness with Holistic Quality Management» Athens: Interbooks pp. 429.

James P. (2003), «Management of Holistic Quality », Athens: Kleidarithmos, pp. 79-82.

Karagiannis St. (1992) “Management and Operation of the Hotel” , v.A, Ion Pub., Athens, p.48

Prinianaki E.& Loupa P. (2007) «Social effectiveness of tertiary tourist education and holistic quality» Iss. 1 Tourist Isuues, Athens: DR.A.T.T.E. Institute of Tourist Studies and Research.

Terzidis K, & Tzortzakis K, (2004) «Management of Human Resources», Athens: Rosili, pp. 135.

Tsiotras G.D. (2002), «Improvement of Qualtiy» Athens: Benou pp 141.

Varvaressos S., Sotiriadis M., (2003) : “Quality Administration in Hotel Enterprises.” Athens, History of Economics Archives, Volume XV, Issue 1, January-June, p.p. 143– 162.

Varvaressos S., Sotiriadis M., (2005) : “Marketing of Tourist Services : Methodological Approaches of Evaluation of Market Parametres Market – Quality – Price” Preveza T.E.I. Ipirou, Economic Sciences Review, Issue 8, p.p. 35 – 54.

Xiggi M. (2000) «Public Relations, programming & appropriate communication with your public» Athens: Propombos.

Airey D.,Tribe J., (2005) “ An International Handbook of Tourism Education” University of Surrey, Elsevier, pp.501-506.

Amoah V., Baum T. (1997) “ Tourism education :policy versus practice”, International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, Vol. 9 No.1, pp5-12

Bank J. (2000), “The essence of total quality management” , Harlow London : Prentice Hall. pp 41-44.

Bechard R. & Harris R.T. (1987) “Organisational Transitions Managing Complex Change”, 2nd ed. Addison- Wesley, Reading, Mass pp. 114.

Bush T., Bell L., (2002) “The Principles and Practice of Educational Management” Paul Chapman Publishing London .

Dale C., Robinson N. (2001), “The theming of tourism education : a three-domain approach” International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, MCB, Univescity Press.

David F.R., (2007) “Strategic Management” 11th Edition, Francis Marion University, Florence, South Carolina-Pearson –Prentice Hall – New Jersey.

Evans J. R,. Lindsay W.M, (2002), “ The management and control of quality” Cincinnati: South-Western Thomson Learning pp 587-588.

Evans N,Campbell D, Stonehouse D (2003) “Strategic Management for Travel and Tourism, Butterworth-Heinemann,Oxford.

Gratton L. (2003) “Living Strategy” Pearson Education Limited

Johnson G., Scholes K.,Whittington R.,(2006) "Exploring Corporate Strategy. Text and Cases" 7th Edition, Prentice Hall, Financial Times.

Ladkin A. in Airey D.,Tribe J., (2005) " An International Handbook of Tourism Education" University of Surrey, Elsevier, pp.437-447.

Lewis R.G.,Smith D.H.(1994) "Total Quality in Higher Education" Florida St Lucie Press pp 85-104.

Liston C. (1999) "Managing Quality and Standards" Open University Press Buckingham – Philadelphia.

Mathews, William E (1993), "The missing element in Higher Education" Jurnal for Quality Participation (OCJ) Vol.16 Issue 1, pp 102-108 .

Middaugh M.F.(2001) "Understanding Faculty Productivity. Standards and Benchmarks for Colleges and Universities" Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, pp:157-158).

Stavrakis D., Karageorgou D., (2007) "Evaluation of Quality in the Academic Process of Greek Higher Tourism Education" Athens : Archives of Economic History.

Thompson, Strickland, Gamble, (2007) "Crafting & Executing Strategy. The Quest for competitive advantage" Mc Graw-Hill, International Edition.

Vellas F.,Becherel L. (1999) "The international Marketing of Travel and Tourism. A Strategic Approach" Macmillan Press LTD.

Wheelen T.L.& Hunger J.D.,(2006) "Strategic Management and Business Policy" 10th edition –Pearson Prentice Hall.

Internet Sources

Bogan C.E.,English M.J. (2007) "Benchmarking for Best Practices : Winning through Innovative Adaptation" www3.best-in-class.com/bestp/domrep.nsf/Content/63F59EB2FF2333A285256D….

(09-05-07), “Benchmarking of OECD Tourism policies” www.oecd.org/document/60/0,2340,en_2649_34389_33648124_1_1_1_1,00.html

Kaplanis S. (2007) «The Quality of Education, The Management of Quality and its Evaluation as Institutional Procedures in Universities» www.lib.tei.pat.gr/JeanMon/Papers/chapterI.pdf

(2007) «The handbook for a pilot study of an integrated quality and enhancement review» “The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education 2006”
www.qaa.ac.uk/reviews/IQER/handbook/IQERPilotHandbook.pdf

(2007) “porate University:Measuring the impact of Learning” www.apqc.org/promos/marketing/books/HumanResources.html.

(2007)“Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism” Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education 2000.
www.qaa.ac.uk/academicinfrastructure/benchmark/honours/hospitality.pdf

NURTURING INDIAN TOURISM FROM THE ROOTS

Dr. Sandeep Kulshreshtha,

Chairman, Academics, Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management (IITTM)

Govindpuri, Gwalior, Madhya Pradesh, India

Tangjakhombi Akoijam

Consultant (Tourism Studies) Academic Complex, SOSS, IGNOU

Maidan Garhi,New Delhi, India

ABSTRACT

Indian Tourism has catapulted into the limelight in recent years for all the right reasons. From being voted the No. 1 destination in the world by Conde' Nast Traveler Readers' Survey to being the partner country at the ITB Berlin last year to its most famous monument the Taj Mahal topping the 'Seven Wonders of the World' poll, India has garnered enough attention thereby increasing its chances of featuring on the itinerary of every tourist. Leading tourism organizations including the World Tourism Organization (WTO) and the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) have forecasts' India to be one of the most dynamically growing countries within the tourism world in

the next 10-15 years. The question now is –what is India doing to sustain and capitalize on this newly acquired attention and opportunity? With a plethora of tourism products varied enough to make the tourist experience something new everyday, attraction-wise the country is in a league of its own. But the popularity of a destination does not depend solely on the attractions it offers. A multitude of factors governs its ascent or descent on the popularity chart.

Having identified the service providers at the grass root level (unorganized sector) like the taxi drivers, railway porters, tourist guides etc., to be one of the major wheel on which Indian tourism operates, this paper discusses the need for organizing Capacity building programmes for enhancing their servicing skills. The capacity building programmes conducted by the Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management (IITTM) as part of the main 'Capacity Building for Service Providers (CBSP)' Scheme of the Indian Ministry of Tourism is being discussed in detail.

Key words: Service Providers, Capacity building, CBSP Scheme, IITTM

INTRODUCTION

From 'Where India?' a decade ago to 'Wow India!!' today, the country has undergone a great image makeover in recent years. The most profound impact of this change-in-perception is the growing popularity of India as a tourist destination. While the boom in the economic stride and information technology proficiency initiated this sea change, the mantle of sustaining this 'wow' factor till date can be attributed largely to the variety and diversified offerings that India as a destination has been able to showcase. Tourism is a very tricky business; every ingredient in the recipe has to be perfect enough to dish up a competitive unique destination. However firm the basic parameter of a developed nation be, it does not necessarily translate into a guaranteed slot in the 'popular tourist destinations' list. With every country exploring the opportunity that tourism offers, the competition level is at an all–time high and therefore, a destination should be adjustable and innovative enough to tune itself to the changing trends and taste of the market demands. India, with its plethora of tourism products, in the form of geographical, cultural and ethnic diversity has been able to enthrall the increasing foray of tourists' movement into her domain. From just 16,829 international tourists' arrivals in 1951 to playing host to over 5 million plus tourists in 2007, the journey has been quite incredible- definitely slow by world standard but nevertheless steady and still growing. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) have named Indian and Chinese tourism sectors (interestingly, the two most populous countries in the world) as the fastest growing tourism industries for the next 10 to 15 years. Its estimates' for India over the next decade is an annual growth rate of 8.8%, the highest growth rate in the world. In recent years, Indian Tourism has been in the news periodically, that too for all the right reasons. Last year, the country topped the annual Conde Nast Traveler Readers' Survey as the most popular destination in the world while its most famous monument the Taj Mahal ranked high up in the list of the 'Seven Wonders of the World' polls. 'Incredible India' advertisement also got the much-needed global coverage courtesy being the partner country of ITB, Berlin in its last edition. The future is definitely bright but just being jubilant with the forecasts and resting with the laurels of the present status will not be progressive. India needs to consolidate on her gains and capitalize on the attention it enjoys at present.

As the Indian Tourism industry emerges as one of the most dynamic markets; the stage is set for newer, more competitive innings in the coming years, both at the home turf and in the global tourism playing field. Against this backdrop, it becomes imperative that tourism policy makers, planners and think-tanks in the country should focus primararily on prioritizing and nurturing all basic elements which keeps the wheels of Indian tourism industry in motion. A tree can endure its full weight and bear fruits only when its roots are well nourished and planted firmly in the ground.

Identification of primary elements intrinsic to Indian tourism development.

While 4A's, i.e. Accommodation, Accessibility, Attraction and Amenities are often considered primary components inherent for the development of a tourist destination; a less emphasized area yet equally important element (in fact more important if we consider the service oriented angle of the tourism industry) is the availability of quality human resources or service providers. However, more emphasis is being stressed on upgrading the physical aspect (hard powers) rather than on developing these 'soft powers' of tourism development. Soft powers encompass a wide range of elements, from service providers and their way of operations, mannerism and behaviour to the various ethical considerations that the tourism business entertains. Even within the realm of these soft powers, the limelight is focused on the principal suppliers like airlines and hotels and on service providers in the organized (and recognized) sector like the travel agents and tour operators. Relegated into the background or sidelined are the service providers at the grass root levels (unorganized sector) like the taxi drivers, the porters at the railway platforms, the policemen on traffic management duty, the lady at the immigration window, the bellboy who secretly guess the amount of tips he is likely to get, the salesman at the souvenir shop or the tour guides taking the tourists on a revelation journey. They are the ones who constitute the first line of direct interactions with the tourists themselves and yet ironically the ones, most underestimated. It is often said, ‘the first impression is the last impression’ and in the field of tourism where the concerned-look on the face of a receptionist at the check-in counter can be interpreted/misinterpreted in a dozen odd ways, creating the right impression at the first encounter is often half the battle won.

Identification of service providers on the basis of maximum/minimum interaction level with the tourists is an important step for planning training programmes that will benefit them and enhance their personality.

The manner in which the primary service providers interact with the tourists is an important decisive factor that enriches or mar the overall experience of the tourist’s for the entire tour programme. Human emotions are subject to rapid fluctuations depending on how it react or respond to a particular display of behaviour. The anticipation of an experience of a lifetime at the Taj Mahal can turn into an uneventful episode if the expectant mood of the tourist is disturbed. The cause of disturbance can be anything-an irritating driver, the indifferent bossy attitude of the person at the ticket counter, the endless number of touts pestering you to buy their ware (thus making your movement uncomfortable) and so on. On the other hand, a customary half-hearted visit to the Taj Mahal can turn out to be memorable one if the tourist experiences pleasant interactions. A smiling appreciative comment about one’s country made by the person issuing the entrance ticket can really make a difference and at times, though unrelated it can magnify the value and the beauty of the Taj innumerable times.

PRIMARY SERVICE PROVIDERS (Interaction level with the tourists)	
Direct interaction	**Indirect/Optional/Minimum/N**

	o interaction
Staff/Management of Transportation companies. E.g. Personnel manning the check-in counters, airhostess, Coach drivers, Railway Ticket Examiner, Bus Conductors etc [If having access to personal transportation means. For Example tourists traveling by own car]	
Taxi drivers/ *Auto rickshaw drivers/ **Rickshaw drivers etc [Private transportation arrangement]	
Staff /Management of Accommodation Units [Stay with friends or relatives]	
Travel Agents and Tour Operators [Free Individual Traveler (FIT)/ own travel and tour arrangement]	
Tourist guides [If one does not avail their services]	
Shopkeepers, Sovenier sellers [If no shopping is done]	
Personnel manning the ticket counters at the entrance of monuments, museums,	

etc **[If one's tour itiniery does not include visits to such sites]**	
Security Personnels stationed at airports/ railway stations/ sea-ports, entrance of mounuments/ amusement parks/ museums etc. →	
←	**Police personnel [If one approaches them for assistance]**
←	**Local population [Opportunity to mingle with them]**

Fig I: Primary Service Providers intrinsic to Indian Tourism development

(The list is only illustrative and not exhaustive)

* Three-wheeler vehicle plying on Indian roads.

** A mode of human-powered transport

A satisfied tourist is a walking-talking free advertisement for a destination and ensuring that the tourist forms a positive opinion, a lot of parameters have to be identified and their functioning synchronized to produce the desired satisfaction level. One of the major contributing factor towards a higher tourists'satisfaction level is the manner in which tourists are received and treated at the most primary level of interaction with the service providers at the host destination. This calls for an urgent need to polish and upgrade the servicing skills of these service providers. Capacity Building programmes are proficient means of accomplishing the same.

Recognizing the importance of trained human resources and the need for imparting formal training and certification mechanism for service providers in tourism and hospitality related sectors, the Government of India have already established a number of training institutes. At present, there is the Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel management (IITTM), 21 Institutes of Hotel Managements (IHM's) and 8 Food Crafts Institute (FCI's) all over the country, which have been entrusted with the responsibility of imparting capacity-building program with the basic aim of assisting the service providers with skills and knowledge required to service the tourists efficiently.

Capacity Building refers to assistance given to individuals for general upgradation of performance ability.there are a variety of definitionfor capacity building but the most comprehensive one has been given by Ann Philbin, wherein she describes it as a "process of developing and strengthening the skills, instincts, abilities, processes and resources that organizations and communities need to survive, adapt, and thrive in the fast-changing world" (quoted in the report on 'Capacity Building Work with Social Justice Organizations:Views from the Field', which she compiled for the Ford Foundation, 1996).

The need for capacity building is being felt in almost all organization and is increasingly being used to minimize the difference between need and supply. Its importance especially in the developing countries is illustrated by its presence as a separate budget line in the formal costing of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) presented to the 2005 UN "Millennium +5" summit in New York. The tourism and hospitality industry being service-based and infused with a host of intangible and immeasurable components and moreover operating in a dynamic environment requires capacity enhancing measures to be taken up on a regular basis.

Capacity Building for Service Providers (CBSP) Scheme

Realizing the fact that the regular programmes offered by IHMs, IFCs and other institutes in the private sector cater mainly to the organized sector, the Human Resource Development (HRD) Division of the Indian Ministry of Tourism embarked upon formulating and implementing the 'Capacity Building for Service Providers' (CBSP) Scheme from the year 2002-2003 with the aim to provide basic training to the service providers in the unorganized sector (and also several other categories in the organized sector). These programmes were intended to provide certain inputs that will improve their behaviour and service levels.

The CBSP scheme was designed to include the development of a system of certification and covered the following training programmes:

1. Skill development in general for fresh candidates
2. Specialised skill development, including language courses for fresh as
3. well as existing service providers
4. Basic Skill upgradation in general for existing service providers
5. Training of Trainers programmes
6. Awareness Programmes
7. Awareness of tourism benefits/knowledge in the rural areas

A separate guideline for the scheme was prepared. Some of the important points highlighted in the 'Guidelines for the CBSP scheme '(revised version, 2006) are:

Definition of Service Providers: Persons engaged in providing services to a tourist will be termed as Service Providers.

Implementing Agencies:

- Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management (IITTM),
- Institutes of Hotel Management,
- Food Craft Institutes,
- India Tourism Offices,
- National Council for Hotel Management and Catering Technology (NCHMCT),
- Tourism Departments of State/ Union Territories Governments
- State Tourism Development Corporations
- India Tourism Development Corporation (ITDC)
- State/Centre Training/Academic Institutions
- Specialized Academic Training Institutes in the private sector engaged in giving training in the hospitality sector.

Nature of training (Area to be emphasized): Health and Personal Hygiene, Cleanliness, Basic Service Techniques, Garbage Disposal, Etiquette and Basic manners, Basic nutrition values, Energy saving and nutrition saving techniques, Basic tourism awareness, Presentation and Communication skills, Behaviour Skills, First Aid, Client Handling & Behavioural skills, Skill development in general for fresh candidates, Specialized skill development, including language courses for fresh as well as existing service providers, Awareness programmes, Developing skills in product presentation in rural tourism etc

Service providers (to be covered under the scheme): Bartender, Cooks, Stewards, Receptionists, Information Providers, Drivers, Government Staff who come in contact with tourists, Supervisors, Guides, Travel Assistants, Manager for small Hotels, Bakers and Confectioners, Catering Staff, Meal providers, Tour Escort/Assistant, Reservation and ticketing Assistant, House keeper, Event Management supervisor, Hospital House keeper, Interior Designer, Florist, Tourism Staff of Central and State departments, Tourism facility Planners and management staff, Tourism facilitator/Runner, Foreign language interpreters, Naturalists, Rural Artisans/ Craftsmen/ Entertainers etc.

[Note: Since the financial considerations and instructions for Implementing Institutions are beyond the scope of this paper, they are not mentioned here]

CBSP PROGRAMMES OF IITTM

About the Institute: The Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management (IITTM), an autonomous organization of the Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, is one of the premier institutes in the country offering education, training, research and consultancy in sustainable management of tourism, travel and other allied sectors. Committed to developing quality human resources for tourism and allied services, the target groups of its educational/ training programmes extend much beyond the organized sectors of the economy. Established in the year 1983, the Institute operates from its main campus at Gwalior, three regional centers at Bhubaneshwar, New Delhi and Goa and several other Chapters scattered all over the country. Being directly under the Central Ministry of Tourism and with its vast resource pool and enormous experience in the field of tourism education, IITTM was an obvious choice to function as an implementing agency of the CBSP Scheme.

Under this Scheme, IITTM conducts training programmes by using its own infrastructure or providing training at the work place of the service providers itself (whichever is conducive). The extensive network and nationalized character of IITTM enables the institute to implement the scheme and conduct the training programmes at various locations thereby benefiting the service providers in many parts of the country. Examples can be sited of capacity building programmes conducted by IITTM at Port Blair, Jammu, Shimla, Nainital, Bhimtal, Khajuraho, Jaipur, Udaipur, Panaji, Satkosia, Sakhigopal, Nandankanan, Chilika, Gurukul etc. IITTM has also been actively implementing the UNDP project related to community and rural based tourism. Outlined below is a list of the courses conducted by IITTM between April 2006 and January 2008.

Sl. No.	Course Title	Venue	Number of Participants	Period
01	Taxi/Hotel Staff	Nainital	40	22-23.04.2006
02	Taxi Drivers	Shimla	40	03-04.05.2006
03	Hotel Staff	Shimla	40	03-04.05.2006
04	Taxi Drivers	Jammu	33	13.05.2006
05	Railway Porter	Jammu	40	14.05.2006
06	Taxi Drivers	Gwalior	40	22.08.2006
07	Tonga Drivers	Gwalior	41	23.09.2006
08	Taxi Drivers	Orchha	115	02.10.2006
09	Hostel Staff			
10	Taxi Drivers	Khajuraho	108	03.10.2006

11	Hotel Staff			
12	Taxi Drivers	Agra	87	04.10.2006
13	Hotel Staff			
14	Taxi Drivers	Jaipur	40	05.10.2006
15	Hotel Staff	Jaipur	40	06.11.2006
16	Hotel Staff	Gwalior	40	05.11.2006
17	Tonga Drivers	Agra	25	16.12.2006
18	Taxi/Auto Driver	Agra	26	16.12.2006
19	Unemployed	Andaman & Nocobar		03-08.01.2007
20	Porters	Bhopal	25	22.03.2007
21	Auto/Coach Drivers		26	23.03.2007
22	Taxi/Coach Drivers	Khajuraho	40	13-15.05.2007
23	Taxi/Coach Drivers	Agra	60	21.05.2007
24	Hotel Staff/Dhaba	Nainital	30	11-13.06.2007
25	Hotel Staff/Dhaba		30	
26	Hotel Staff/Dhaba	Bhimtal	30	11-13.06.2007
27	Tourism Awareness	Stakosia	25	12-14.11.2006

	programme	Tikarapara		
28	Tourism Awareness programme	Hirapur	20	26.11.2007
29	Tourism Awareness programme for the Service Providers of Nandankanan Biological Park	Nandankanan	26	17.12.2006
30	Tourism Awareness for Guides of Nandankanan Biological Park	Nandankanan	23	18.12.2006
31	Sebayats of Sakhigopal Temple, Sakhigopal	Puri	30	24.12.2006
32	Tourism Awareness for Eco-Guides of Bhitarkanika National Park	Bhitarkanika	32	08-10.01.2007
33	State Level Tourist Guide Training Programme	Sponsored by Deptt. of Tourism	24	22-24.10.2007
34	Artisans of Konark	Konark	30	01.05.07 to 27.07.07
35	Orientation for Eco-Guides of Gahimatha Marine Sanctuary	Sponsored by DFO, Rajnagar	20	06.01.08 to 10.01.08

Fig II: Details of CBSP Programmes conducted by IITTM between April 2006 and January 2008.

The duration of each course ranges from 1 to 3 days and a token stipend (monetary benefit) as per the norms of Ministry of Tourism, is being given to the participants to ensure and encourage maximum participation.

While formulating the Capacity building programmes for service providers in the unrecognized sector, staffs of the 'CBSP Implementation Cell' at IITTM had to first answer a number of questions to ensure that the objectives of the training programmes were met. Some of the questions and problematic area and their solutions are reproduced here, in the chart below.

QUESTIONS	PROBLEM AREA	SOLUTIONS
WHY WOULD THEY ATTEND THE TRAINING PROGRAMME?	They will be losing 2-3 hours of their working time. [This problem is more prominent in cases of daily wage earners]	Stipend for the participants
WHERE WOULD THE TRAINING PROGRAMME BE HELD?	Sometime 'Time and transportation' costs that will be incurred in bringing the participants to the Institute campus not practical	In such cases, Training programmes taken to the participants. Conducted at their work-site.
WHO WOULD BE THE TRAINERS?	When training programmes are conducted at places where IITTM does not have its direct Network resource	Teaching Staff of the Tourism/ Management department of Colleges /University in the area where the programme is being conducted or local experts in related field.

Getting the service providers to agree to attend the programme was a major hurdle. It was something new to them and their skepticism were justified. Making them first aware about the purpose of the programme and how it will benefit them was a challenging task. It was challenging, not because it was hard to convince them but challenging, because it was hard to get the opportunity to talk to them in an organized grouping. The Management/Office-bearers or influential members of the Association or Grouping of the 'target' service providers are first contacted and convinced about the usefulness of organizing such a training programme for its members. Once this hurdle is crossed, the rest of the plan runs smoothly. In all the cases, the key members were found to be cooperative, often volunteering for any assistance in implementing the programme.

The mode of operation of conducting a CBSP programme is being illustrated with the help of a specific example.

Example: Railway Porter's training programme

Venue: Platform No.1, First class travelers' Waiting Room, Habibganj Railway Station, Bhopal, India

Number of Participants: 25

Procedure

Step 1. IITTM, as the nodal agency for implementing the CBSP Scheme (of the Ministry of Tourism, Government of India) approaches the Madhya Pradesh Tourism Development Corporation (MPTDC) with the proposal to jointly conduct a training programme for the railway porters.

Step 2. Chief Coordinator of the CBSP Scheme, IITTM and the General Manager of MPTDC in consultation with the Station Manager of Habibganj Railway Station chalk out a schedule for the proposed training session. The opinion of the Head of the Porter's Association, referred to as the 'Mukaddam' (in local parlance) is taken into account. This is an important aspect considering the fact that the Mukaddam commands great respect and influence among the Association members, a crucial criterion for convincing the members to take part in the training programme.

Date and timing: The Training was scheduled for the 22nd of March 2007 for two hours from 10 am to 12 noon (local time). Certain factors were kept in mind while deciding the timing of the programme, such as the frequency of trains arrival and departure (in general and maximum tourist-boarding trains in particular) so that disturbance/break in the working hours of the porters are kept to the minimum. On an average, 300 odd trains pass through this particular station per day. Just imagine the volume of business they will be losing if they spend the 2-3 hours attending the training programme? The timetable of these trains was studied and the peak and lean arrival-departure times and correspondingly the peak and lean business hours of the porters were identified. Based on this, 10 am to 12 noon was found to be a lean slot and therefore the most appropriate time for the training programme to be conducted.

Training Programme: The trainers were seated on chairs arranged in a single file

while the porters sat on the carpeted area. Writing materials to note down points were distributed followed by a short Introduction session. It is human nature to be curious about one's benefit and opportunity. The trainers started the programme by emphasizing on the benefits of the trainees (porters) and the role they play in the overall tourism development of the destination. Addressing this core issues at the outset caught their immediate attention and the rest of the programme were all taken in the right spirit. Issues deliberated upon in the programme includes

- Basic tourism awareness concepts
- Personal hygiene
- Mannerism and right etiquette
- Professional ethics
- First Aid
- Multiplier Effect of Tourism
- Knowledge and information of important local tourist destination etc

After the training concluded, the participants were given certificates and stickers and a stipend of Rs. 100. Tea and snacks were also provided during a 20-minute break, which was planned and timed to coincide with the arrival of an important tourist train (Shatabdi Express) arriving at that platform.

INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TOURISM AND TRAVEL MANAGEMENT
(An organization of Ministry of Tourism, Govt of India)
3rd & 4th Floor, New Block, IHM Campus, Library Avenue, Pusa
New Delhi-110012, Tel: 011-25842135 Website: www.iittm.org

MINISTRY OF TOURISM LAUNCHES
EARN WHILE YOU LEARN
Sensitizing Youth to Tourism
Commencing December 24, 2007

To create awareness and to inculcate some basic knowledge and skills on Tourism and to work as student volunteers, on behalf of the Ministry of Tourism, Govt. of India, the Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management invites applications from interested students to apply for this 21 days training program.
Eligibility: Students pursuing graduation/post graduation between 18 and 25 years of age.
NOC from the college/university is required for joining this program.

Stipend: Rs.1000/- will be paid to successful candidates for the whole duration of the course.
Selection: Candidates will be selected through a written examination.
Application Fee: Rs.100/- in cash or DD in favour of IITTM, payable at Delhi to be enclosed along with the application.
Last date of Application: 13th December 2007 **Entrance Exam:** 16th December 2007
For details, please visit www.iittm.org

PANKAJ

Another important programme which the Ministry of Tourism has conceptualized is the

“Earn While You Learn-Sensitizing Youth to Tourism- A Training Programme”. This is a unique sub-scheme under the main CBSP Scheme, which IITTM have been entrusted with, to organize five programmes (full time) in a year, each of 21 days duration. As the name suggest, this is a programme for the students (college-going) and the first of its kind being introduced in the country. This programme was designed keeping in mind the number of trained personals that will be required for the numerous events that India is likely to host in the coming years, especially the forthcoming Commonwealth Games in 2010.

Objective of the Programme: To inculcate appropriate tourism traits and knowledge amongst the trainees, which will enable them to act/work as student volunteers.

Course contents: Emphasis on three aspects,

i) Indian Society and Culture,

ii) An overview of Tourism Travel and Hospitality Industry,

iii) Managerial and Behavioral skills

Who can apply?

A college-going student who is pursing a graduation course or is a graduate and who has attained an age of 18 years but is not more than age of 25 years.

To test its feasibility and the response level, IITTM organized the first programme on a pilot basis at its Delhi center. An advertisement format for the said programme is shown here.

A written entrance examination was conducted and a total of 62 candidates were selected and provided the training. The trainees were made to appear in an end-of-the-programme test, which also included a 10-minute presentation on any of the monument located in the country. Each successful candidate was given a certificate and a sum of Rs.1000 as honorarium and their names put up on the Institute and also on the Ministry of Tourism website. While on a professional engagement, they will be assigned the designation, 'Student Volunteer'.

CONCLUSION

Tourists come in contact with various service providers and the experience of their interaction with them governs their perception of India as a tourist destination. In India, the often-neglected service providers in the unorganized sector (those at the grass root level) are usually the ones who have maximum direct interactions with the tourists. It is therefore their style of servicing upon which the opinion of the tourist about the country will be based. Realizing that strengthening the work force at the grass root level is often the best possible strategy for the further development and branching out of Indian Tourism industry, the Ministry of Tourism, Government of India initiated the Capacity for Service Providers (CBSP)' Scheme. Any attempt to estabish rapport between the tourist and the environs of the host destination adds to the credibility of the destination and the CBSP scheme is one such sincere attempt.

Whether the scheme has made certain positive impact upon the servicing skills of these service providers can be evaluated by analyzing the feedbacks of the participants collected by the training institutes (IITTM, in this case) from time to time. Though an important area to judge the practicability and the usefulness of the said scheme, exploring this aspect in this paper will not be justified. It is an area, which calls for more in-depth discussion.

REFERENCES:

Annual Report 2006-2007, Ministry of Tourism, Government of India

Annual Report 2006-2007, Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management, IITTM, Gwalior

Websites

http://www.unmillenniumproject.org/documents/overviewEng55-65LowRes.pdf

www.tourisminindia.com

www.incredibleindia.org

www.iittm.org

SERVICE QUALITY PERCEPTIONS OF THE TOURISTS PARTICIPATING WINE TOURISM: A RESEARCH AT CAPADOCCIA REGION

Suavi Ahipasaoglou

Anadolu University, School of Tourism and Hotel Management

Yunusemre Campus Eskisehir, Turkey

Erdem Korkmaz

Anadolu University

Yunusemre Campus, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Recently, it's observed that demand on alternative tourism types are growing. Wine tourism, one of the alternative tourism types, spesifically gained importance in the 1990's. Wines that made in different countries from different types of grapes are among the reasons to visit that place for the wine tourists. Besides, tourists visiting vineyards, wineries and wine festivals at the well-known wine reigons with organized tours or alone. Scarcely, determining the perceptions of wine tourists about service quality is important for wineries. In this study, wine tourists' perceptions about service quality for wine tasting is determined with the SERVQUAL scale. Research carried at Capadoccia region ended with 296 valid questionnaire forms. By analyzing the data t-test, chi-square, Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis are utilized. After analyzing the data there is no significant difference revealed between the tourists perceptions about service quality and wine tasting experience. Besides, it's determined that some relations and differences between the tourists demographic variables and service quality perceptions. Within this research

results, an important contribution is made not also to the related literature but also to the wine tourism sector.

Keywords: Wine tourism, service quality, Capadoccia, Turkey.

INTRODUCTION

Human beings always wonder about the world they live in. Many want to learn more about other people, cultures, animals, plants and geographical forms. Nowadays, due to the fact that the education level has increased and the fact that the ways and chances of communication are increasingly developing, people could also inform themselves much better about the whole world and also widen the information they already had. It is literally a “global” world we are living in. People are mobile and are always traveling in this global world we always talk about. People may travel due to many different reasons. However, it is not an ignorable fact that many are traveling in the tourism sector. According to the statistics of the WTO for 2006, 842 million tourists have taken part in the global tourism mobilization and were registered in the international tourism sector. (http://www.unwto.org/facts/eng/pdf/barometer/ barometer_february_07_e.pdf). It is also a fact that the tourism movements do change according to the common practiced mentality at that certain period of time. Even though the mass tourism makes the huge portion of the whole tourism industry, the interest for the alternative tourism as well as the individual tourism is increasing day by day. One of the new sectors in the tourism industry is the “Wine Tourism”. Even though the roots of this new tourism sector fall back to earlier times, it got started professionally during the 1990s.

Many different regions of the world are producing many different tastes of wines. The curiosity to experience more is one of the instinctive reasons why people to take part in the tourism and travel as well as why different wine experiences take place. The resources about the wine tourism is mainly from the countries which produce, export and consume wine at the peak levels such as USA, France, Italy, Canada, New Zealand, Australia. Additionally one also comes across with such resources in Chile, Israel and South Africa. Turkey on the other hand, is one of the most important grape producers of the whole world, but is lacking resources about the wine production and about the wine tourism totally. This is why this study on these subjects is entitled to be only successful, leading and unique.

WINE TOURISM

First records about the wine tourism are indicating France as the country of origin. In 1855 the French managers have developed the system of dividing France geographically and giving names to their wines accordingly in order to be undertaking better quality controls all over the country. This system was developed after the recommendation of the Syndicate of Bordeaux Wine Brokers. As they started practicing this system, the Bordeaux wine was clearly differentiated from the other wines. Additionally new wine cellars in form of big chateaus were started to be built (Hall et. al., 2000). The fact that these wine cellars were selling the wine they produce, is considered to be the first steps of wine tourism.

Different definitions were recommended in order to define the wine tourism. According to Getz, an important number of definitions about the wine tourism depend on the touristic visits. According to Getz,: “The wine tourism depends on the attractively of the producing wine cellars and the wine regions, niche marketing and the system of destination development; which is very advantageous to the wine industry in terms of selling and marketing”. (2000). One may say that Getz has the view of consumer behavior. The accepted wine tourism definition is: “Visitation to vineyards, wineries, wine festivals and wine shows for which grape wine tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of grape wine region are the prime motivating factors for visitors” (Hall, Sharples, Cambourne and Macionis, 2000). This is a definition which evaluates the wine tourism from the consumers visit aspect and the reasons for this visit. Even though this definition cannot specify the characteristics of the tourist, they are also used in many studies because it is considered to be the most detailed definition ever. The motives of traveling to the wine regions are visiting producing wine-cellars, taking a look in the environment and the nature, taking part in the festivals, visiting other attractions, socializing, visiting relatives and friends. (Reid, 1990; Maddern and Golledge, 1996).

Researches about the wine tourism have developed themselves by the time in their structure and in their quality. A general investigation in to the literature is enough to see that the studies done so far by the regions and by the countries are only at the level of general evaluations. The most important of these studies are: Australia (Macionis, 1997; Dowling and Carlsen, 1999), Canada (Hackett, 1998; Telfer, 2001; Williams and Kelly, 2001; Williams and Dosa, 2003; Hashimoto and Telfer, 2003), Chile (Sharples, 2002), France (Frochot, 2000), Hungary (Szivas, 1999), New Zealand (Beverland, 1998; Johnson, 1998; Mitchel and Hall, 2003), Spain (Gilbert, 1992), South Africa (Preston-Whyte, 2000; Bruwer, 2003; Demhardt, 2003), USA (Dodd, 1995; Peters, 1997; Skinner, 2000) and England (Howley and van Westering, 2000). An evaluation into these studies show that the wine tourism in these countries are high developed.

SITUATION IN TURKEY

According to the historical information, the grape production has started 7000 years ago in Anatolian and had an important impact on the development of Turkish culture over the years. During centuries Anatolia was the center of wine production. Wine was used in religious precessions or as medical treatments. Later on this customs was not practiced because the wine was considered as a western habit. Therefore the wine production was held at the minimum. (Ergenekon, 2004)

Wine grapes and the wine culture were introduced by the Phoenicians 5000-2000 BC on the Aegean Coast. In the ancient times the wine culture has reached its peak. Homeros (800 BC) was talking about his affiliation to the Anatolian and Greek wines in the Iliad and Odyssey legends (Aktan and Kalkan, 2000). Wine became by the time the most important drink for the Greeks and the Romans.

The Christian and the Jewish minorities could only produced under controls and under limited amounts until the Muslims received the permission to produce wine during the Ottoman Empire times. As the taxes were playing an important role in the income of the Ottoman Empire, it is not surprising to learn that the laws were kept “flexible” from time to time. There is not doubt that the wine production was at the minimum as the wine was forbidden. However, as the laws were getting “flexible” the wine fields were kept and were given to the non-Muslim minorities for the wine production. Therefore the production level was showing an increase (Özay, Akyol and Azabağaoğlu, 2005).

By the foundation of the Republic, it was no longer forbidden to produce wine and it was actually accepted that alcohol brings regular income. As the Turkish Monopoly, Tekel, was established, it was also a very acceptable occupation for the Muslims to produce wine (Aktan and Kalkan, 2000). The first wine factory was established in Tekirdağ in the year of 1931. İzmir (1935), Tokat, Ürgüp, Gaziantep and Ankara (1943)followed respectively. In 1962 wine and cognac production started in Çanakkale (the region of Troia) and continued in Şarköy and Uçmakdere (1966), Şanlıurfa (1970), Hoşköy (1971), Kırcasalih (1973) and Bor (1974). New wine production factories are still opening. (Özay, Akyol and Azabağaoğlu, 2005). All these factories supply their wine from the wine producers. There is, however, a rising trend that the factories grow as well their own grapes and try to make quality wines through that, as grapes are used in many other sectors besides the wine production. (Ergenekon, 2004). This is an important step for the wine sector, because it would be much easier for the factories to produce quality wine.

SERVICE QUALITY CONCEPT

One can say that service is an unavoidable result of people living together. Should we define it this way, then we come across with the fact that the service quality was existing for a long time ago. However, there is a trend to find a better technical definition for the service quality (Erkut, 1995). Grönross (1990) defines the service as “An activity or a group of activities that takes place as a reply to the customer problems, which has-even though not obligatory–but naturally untouchable structure, which occurs between the customer and the service personal and/or the server over their physical resources, goods and/or systems”. According to Kotler and Armstrong (1997) however, the service is “an activity or an advantage offered by one party to the other, which does not end with the ownership of anything”. There are a number of characteristics that make the difference between the service and the physical goods. According to these differences the physical differences, one cannot touch the services, cannot have any types of the same service, cannot produce and consume them at the same time – on the contrary to the physical goods. It is just a facility or a period of time, consisting of main values which occur during the communication of the seller and buyer and whose production cycle the consumer also takes place. Services cannot be stocked and cannot be transferred (Grönroos, 1990). Services usually occur according to the performances of the human beings. Even though the visitors who are taking part in the wine tourism by tasting and seeing a concrete product, they need to be serves so that the wine tourism can exist. Therefore, it is possible to group the wine tourism into the services.

According to the researches done in the service quality literature, there are two basic approaches as: customer-based and value-based. Should one is for the approach based on the value, then he or she is also for the highest quality, perfection and for certain standards. One of the earliest theorists to consider quality in terms of excellence was Peters (1987). Wyckoff (1992) also defined service quality by suggesting that it is the degree of excellence intended that meets customer requirements. This is recognized by the practitioner panels of the quality awards schemes, such as European Quality Award as being a valid approach (Williams and Buswell, 2003). The customer based approach, which is also known as customer-oriented quality, defends that the customers are central not only to the organization but also to all aspects of the operational procedures. Customer needs are paramount to the continuous improvement of a service, a factor that, if ignored by the tourism and leisure industry, could see customers moving to an organization's competitors (Williams and Buswell, 47). This is not a new approach and was developed before by Brown and Swartz (1989), Zeithaml et. al., (1990), Bitner and Hubbet (1994) and Becker (1996). It is an important step to be able to meet the customer needs. By doing so, modifications and amendments in order to get the service quality level to the required point will be easy.

THE DIMENSIONS OF THE SERVICE QUALITY

There are different approaches and opinions about the definition of the service quality. The first developed systematic studies about the service quality model were performed by Sasser, Olsen and Wyckoff; Lehtinen and Lehtinen and Normann. In addition to these studies the study of the Scandinavian school Grönross and the SERVQUAL developed by the American school Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry are also non-ignorable important. A lot of interest were shown to the models of Grönross and the SERVQUAL. According to Grönross the services consist of technical (process) and functional dimension (result). Technical dimension is the perception of the customers after the service they purchased. Production on the other hand is the result reached by the customer after the changes between the buyer and the seller is finished. Customers may define this dimension in an objective way due to the technical characteristics they have. The second dimension consists of the service that takes place and the interaction between the buyer and the seller.

The service quality is made of the perception of these two dimensions by the customers. (Grönroos, 1984). The SERVQUAL model created by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry consists at the first stage of tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, competence, courtesy, credibility, security, access, communication and understanding the customer (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1985). However, due to the fact that some of these ten terms are very similar to each other, they were decreased to five. By doing so, tangibles, reliability and responsiveness were kept. Competence, courtesy and credibility were grouped under assurance and access, communication and understanding the customer were grouped under empathy (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000). Tangibles are made up of physical possibilities and the appearance of the employees as well as of communication material. Reliability means being able to provide the promised service truly. Responsiveness is the will to help customers and to give the right service. Assurance is the knowledge of the personnel, their politeness and ability to make the customers feel secure. Empathy is serving the customers individually. The researchers have found out 22 suggestions in order to define the customer expectations and perception. (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1988).

In the following years, many other researches were done by using the SERVQUAL scale. In these researches the scale was applied in different fields.

Some of these fields are: Tyre retailing (Carman, 1990), dental services (Carman, 1990), hotels and the travel agencies (Saleh and Ryan, 1992; Fick and Ritchie, 1991; Johns, 1993), car servicing (Bouman and van der Wiele, 1992), business schools (Rigotti and Pitt, 1992), higher education (Ford et. al., 1993; McElwee and Redman, 1993), accounting firms (Freeman and Dart, 1993), architectural services (Baker and Lamb, 1993), recreational services (Taylor et. al., 1993), hospitals (Babakus and Mangold, 1992; Mangold and Babakus, 1991; Reidenbach and Sandifer-Smallwood, 1990; Soliman, 1992; Vandamme and Leunis, 1993; Walbridge and Delene, 1993), airlines catering (Babakus et. al., 1993), banking (Kwon and Lee, 1994; Wong and Perry, 1991) and local government (Scott and Shieff, 1993). By the evaluations of the tourism establishment, it was seen that the SERVQUAL model was basically used in different characteristic of the establishments. For example Raajpoot (2002) has developed the TANGSERV model and researched about the service quality of the food and beverage establishments in terms tangibles. Khan (2003) has found the ECOSERV scale in order to evaluate in the eco-tourism sector. Frochot and Hughes (2001) have developed HISTOQUAL scale in order to evaluate the usage of the historical constructions in the tourism sector. Knutson et. al., (1990) found the LODGSERV scale for the accommodation establishments and Stevens et. al. (1995) found the DINESERV scale for the food and beverage services.

Quality is a complex and undefined area for the service establishments to be understood, practiced and controlled. As services are rather performances then objects, it is difficult for the establishments to create “define production characteristics” for the quality. The service quality cannot be made in a production circumstance and to deliver it completely to the customer. Especially in the services where high efforts need to be spend, the service performance may vary day by day and also according to the servers and the customers. In many services the quality is already reached as the service is given and as a certain interaction between the server and the customer has taken place. Therefore, the service quality depends mostly on the performance of the personal, and the personal is an organizational resource, which are as uncontrollable as the inputs of a physical good (Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1988). As a matter of fact, we need to concentrate on the attitudes and the attributes of the personal that are serving, during his/her one-to-one relation with the customer, when we talk about the service quality. This is the reason why ten of 22 suggestions of SERVQUAL and SERVPERF scales are about the personal.

As the dimensions and the importance of the service sector rises day by day, the service quality has gained in importance at the same time. The establishments need to define the quality of their services as a report on the provided services. By doing so, a new direction may be given to the services after evaluating the positive and the negative sides of the services. At this point, we can underline that the comprehension of the customers is a good way of evaluating the service quality. Due to the importance of this subject, the customer comprehensions are also defined in this research according to the services of the producing wine-cellars.

THE IMPORTANCE AND THE AIM OF THE RESEARCH

It is an important factor for the development of the practices of wine tourism that the wine and the tourism industries have a close relationship in terms of inputs and outputs. In countries where the wine culture is developed, such as France, Italy, Spain, USA and Australia, the wine sector is also gaining in importance. Unfortunately Turkey is not using its potential neither in wine consumption, nor in wine sales or in wine tourism even though there is a high number of grape fields and a large variety of grape sorts in the country. Due to the fact that the wine tourism is grouped under the service industry because of its structure, the same circumstances that are applicable for the service industry are also applicable for the wine tourism. This is why the importance of the properties and the quality of the service is underlined. As already known, the customers are evaluating the service quality in establishments where the service quality is produced; so that they can see how far and in how many aspects they can fulfill the customer needs. This would make it easier for them to plan their services so that the customer would compensate easily and so that the customers would be satisfied.

The main reason of these researches, which aim to increase the interest in this sector, is that the customers, who are taking part in this wine tourism, should help us in defining the service quality. At this point, it's also tried to find out what effect it would have to have a customer defining the service quality, even though this specific customer have joined tasting wine before. Some demographic factors are also been taken into consideration such as age, gender, nationality and the education level, in order to see the relationships and the differences of their perceptions.

SAMPLE

The research has taken place in Cappadocia between 28th of July and the 5th of August. 350 questionnaires in various languages have been prepared, and 299 of them returned back to us filled. 3 of these returned questionnaires were not applicable, therefore there were 296 valid forms in the hand. It can be concluded that the return ratio is 84%. This was an acceptable ratio, so the analysis got started. As the volume of the universe was not known for sure, the $n = t^2pq/d^2$ formula was applied. (Yazıcıoğlu and Erdoğan, 2004). On the base of $\alpha = 0.05$, the found values according to the t chart was 1.96. The repetitions frequency was taken as %20. The value of p is then 0.20. The repetition frequency is called as q and is calculated as 1-q; therefore as 0.80. The results are considered to be 0.95 % reliability and therefore d is 0.05. Therefore the size of the sample is:

$(1.96)^2 \times 0.20 \times 0.80/(0.05)^2 = 256$

The size of the sample must be, according to this formula, 256. As 296 questionnaires were returned in the research, we can say that the samples are equal to the principal mass.

Sampling technique was the simple random sampling. This is about choosing different and independent samples of n volume from the whole N universe. This means that samples are chosen randomly from the universe without dividing the principal mass into groups. (Serper, 2000). The tourists have the chance then to be chosen equally.

METHODOLOGY

Questionnaire technique is being used in this research for data gathering. Wine cellars were visited one by one and the tourists inside these cellars were made to fill in the forms. After the period of gathering data, the data are being analyzed b using the percentage and the frequency analysis. For this purpose demographic data are analyzed. At a later stage the research hypothesis are being tested. During the analysis the SPSS 15.0 for Windows software is being used. The main hypothesis of the research can be called as: "There are no differences / there are differences between the customers' perceptions of service quality who have experienced wine tourism before and the customers who have not".

The five defined dimensions that are ruling the service quality according to the main hypothesis of the research, are formed as related to the wine tourism which has been experienced before. The formed hypotheses are H_0/H_1, H_0/H_2, H_0/H_3, H_0/H_4 and H_0/H_5 according to the service quality dimensions. "There are no differences / there are differences between the customers' perceptions about **tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and the empathy** dimensions of service quality who have experienced wine tourism before and the customer who have not". During the testing of these parameters the Mann-Whitney U test is being used, which is the most powerful non-parametric test ever. This is the reason why particularly this test is being used frequently. This test is utilized to determine if the two independent samples are actually from the universe. Should they be originating from the same universe, then the variation of x_i and y_i values are to be similar (Canküyer and Aşan, 2001). The significance level of this test is defined as $\alpha = 0.05$.

The secondary hypotheses are also being defined and evaluating from the main hypothesis. In these hypotheses, it has been tasted if there are any relation between the demographic characteristics such as age, gender, nationality and the education level and the perception of the service quality. The formed hypotheses are H_0/H_6, H_0/H_7, H_0/H_8, H_0/H_9 and H_0/H_{10} according to the service quality dimensions. "There are no differences / there are differences between the customer's **age, gender, nationality and education level** and their perceptions about service quality". During the testing the chi-square independent test is being used, which tests the independency of the X and Y variables (Özdamar, 2004). This is the reason why the ki-square test is being used in these researches. The significance level of this test is defined as $\alpha = 0.05$.

The chi-square test, which is used to measure the secondary hypotheses in the research, gives the relation between the demographic variables and the perceptions of the service quality. In order to explain better which variable effects the perception of the service quality, its needed to do variance analysis. However, when evaluating the data belonging to the variables of age, gender, nationality and the educational level, we reach values which are n<30, so it is much better to utilize non parametric tests. For this reason it's preferred to utilize the Kruskal-Wallis Test as there were three different groups in the age variables. The Kruskal-Wallis Test is also known as the one-way variance analysis. By performing this test, two or more groups can be compared to each other (Yazıcıoğlu and Erdoğan, 2004). This test is also called as "The variance analysis according to the ranking numbers", as queue numbers were given" (Canküyer and Aşan, 2001). The significance level of this test is defined as $\alpha \leq 0.05$. The differences between the perception of the service quality and the gender are measured by one of the parametric statistical tests called "t-test". For utilizing this test, the data need to be measured at least with gaps. Two samples are chosen here form the universe need to be independent from each other. According to the fact that these two groups having different variances or not, the t values are to be calculated (Altunışık et. al., 2004). The significance level of this test is defined as $\alpha \leq 0.05$.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE FORM

The dimensions related to the service quality as mentioned in the SERVQUAL are applied in the wine tasting experiences. There were two parts of the form. In the first part there were 23 suggestions used for determining the perceptions of the tourists about service quality. 22 of these 23 suggestions are about the wine tasting and the last one is a question about the possibility to take part in wine tasting again. The answer alternatives were used in 5 different scales, in order to evaluate the perceptions of the tourists better from “Strongly Agree” and “Strongly Disagree”, which is also called the Likert Scale. Nine of these suggestions were negative expressions. By analyzing these data, the inverse analyzing system is being used. At the other part of the form there are general information and questions about demographical information. There are questions about the age, gender, nationality and the educational level about the customers. This general information received about the tourists were used to make a general profile about the tourists and to test the hypotheses which are presented before. There is also a question in this part in order to identify if the tourist have taken part in wine tasting before. By doing so, the main hypothesis of this research is also being tested.

Table-1 Distribution of Participants Demographic Data According to Percentage and Frequency

	Values	***n***	***%***
Age	15-34	133	44.9
	35-64	160	54.1
	65-69	3	1
Gender	Women	109	36,8
	Men	187	63,2
Nationality	Turkish	177	59,8
	Spanish	32	10,8
	English	23	7,8
	Italian	20	6,8
	USA	14	4,7
	German	11	3,7

	Other	19	6,4
Education Level	Primary School	18	5.2
	High School	65	22
	College	126	42,6
	Graduate	56	18,9
	Doctorate	29	9,8
	Not Known	2	7
	Total	**296**	**100**

To define the reliability level of the questionnaire used in this research, the cronbach alpha coefficient is calculated as 0.78. For reliability the ratio of $0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.80$ is accepted (Özdamar, 2004). According to this, the ratio is also reliable.

EVALUATING THE DATA

At the end of this research, the demographical data of the tourist who have taken part in this research have been investigated; and afterwards the relation between the effect of wine tasting experience to the service quality dimensions and the relation between the demographic variables and the perception of the service quality have been investigated. Demographic data of the participants is shown on Table-1.

According to data, 54.1 % of the participants are between 35-64 years old and 44.9 % are between 15-34 years old. There are also participants over 65 %, who are making only 1%of the whole participants. We may say that, almost all of the participants are among the young and adult tourists. Evaluating the participants according to their gender we have: 36.8 % female, and 63.2 % male. Therefore, it may be concluded that males prefer more wine tasting compared with the females. Having a look at the nationality of the tourist we have: 59.5 % Turkish, 10.8 % Spanish, 7.8 % British and 6.8 % Italian Citizens as well as 6.6 % citizens of other countries such as Poland, Japan, Korea, France, Canada, Australia and Hungary. These countries were grouped under “other countries” as their each percentage was too low to make a healthy presentation then the other nationalities. One surprising result of this research is the high number of Turkish participants. Therefore the expectations of the Turkish participants need to be identified and at a later stage as well fulfilled. According to the data the 70 % of the participants were university graduates. Therefore it can be concluded that wine is mainly preferred by the persons who are university graduates.

It has been observed that the 70.6 % of the participants have already tasted wine before. Therefore it can be concluded that the participants are already experienced in this matter and evaluate the dimensions of the service quality according to their experience. As a result the experience about the wine tasting has a great importance in evaluating the service quality in the right way and manner.

Table-2 Distribution of Tourists According to Wine Tasting Experience Before

Wine Tasting Experience	***n***	*%*
Yes	209	70,6
No	87	29,4
Total	**296**	**100**

72.6% of the participants mentioned that they would like to take part in wine testing again soon. This is a clear indication for the satisfied customers that are pleased of their experience and who are willing to repeat it again.

Table-3 Distribution of Tourists According to Participate Wine Tasting Again

Wine Tasting Again	***n***	***%***
Strongly Agree	87	29,4
Agree	128	43,2
Have No Idea	31	10,5
Disagree	45	15,2
Strongly Disagree	5	1,7
Total	**296**	**100**

The Mann-Whitney U test has been used in the testing of the main hypothesis. The results of this test are shown in Table-4.

Table-4 The Perception of Service Quality of the Tourists Depending On Their Wine Tasting Experiences

Service Quality Dimensions and Suggestions		**Mann-Whitney U Values**	**p Valu**
Tangibles	s up-to-date equipment	8359.500	0
	physical facilities are visually appealing	8815.500	0
	employees are well dressed and appear neat	9083.500	0

	ırance of the physical facilities of the winery is in keeping with the type of services provided	8973.500	0.8
Reliability	ery promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	9061.500	0.9
	ı have problems, winery is sympathetic and reassuring	8791.000	0.6
	dependable	8633.500	0.4
	ovides its services at the time it promises to do so	8821.000	0.6
	eps its records accurately	8780.000	0.6
Responsiveness	ɔes not tell customers exactly when services will be performed	8516.000	0.3
	t receive prompt service from winery's employees	8595.500	0.3
	s of the winery are not always willing to help customers	8619.500	0.4
	s of the winery are too busy to respond to customer requests promptly	8669.500	0.4
Assurance	ust employees of the winery	8599.000	0.4
	afe in your transactions with employees	8598.500	0.4
	s are polite	8541.500	0.3
	s get adequate support from winery to do their jobs well	8884.000	0.7
Empathy	ɔes not give you individual attention	8616.500	0.4
	s do not give you personal attention	8504.500	0.3
	s do not know what your needs are	8544.000	0.3

	)es not have your best interests at heart	8843.000	(
	)es not have operating hours convenient to all their customers	8609.000	(

*$p \leq \alpha = 0.05$

According to the Mann-Whitney U test result shown in Table-4 all of the values are more then 0.05 for the significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$. Therefore only H_0 hypothesis is being accepted as H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4 and H_5 hypotheses are being rejected. In other words, there are no differences between the perceptions of the participants who have experienced the wine tasting before and the participants who did not. This results show that these two different groups of tourists have similar perceptions.

According to the test results, about the age of the tourists it has been analyzed that the questions 6, 7 and 8 about the reliability and the question number 10 about the responsiveness dimension have absolute no effect on the perception of the service quality. In other words, the age variable does not have an effect on the behavior of the wine producer towards the tourists, in case of any occurring problems and on the fact that the customer information are kept recorded in the wine producer. Therefore, the questions mentioned above for the service quality and the reliability and responsiveness dimensions, the hypothesis of H_0 is being accepted and the H_6 hypothesis is being rejected. For the other questions and other dimensions of the service quality, meaningful relations have been found out by the age of the tourists and service quality, the H_6 is being accepted and the hypothesis H_0 is being rejected.

According to the related analysis the suggestions 1, 3, 4, 5, 8, 12, 13, 16, 17 and 21 which have the value of $p \leq 0.05$, show an important relation between the customers age and the service quality. Therefore it has been understood that the gender of the tourist has an important relation to the following: the wineries having a modern equipment, the personnel being clean and having clean clothing, the harmony of the physical possibilities with the service offered, fulfilling the promised service on time and in the promised location, presenting the promised service on time, the willingness of the personal to work and to serve, the ability of the personnel to reply to the customer needs and wishes, the politeness and the manners of the personnel, the necessary support given to the personnel by the administration in order to serve properly and correctly, and the friendly attitude of the personnel towards the customers. According to all these factors mentioned above the H_0 hypothesis has been accepted as the H_7 hypothesis is being rejected. This is a clear indication that the perception of the service quality depends on different factors at different dimensions.

According to the replies given by the tourists, it's seen that there is no meaningful relation between the nationality and the question number 10 about the responsiveness and the question number 15 about the assurance dimension. However, between the other suggestions and nationality, there is a clear relation. Therefore, besides these two suggestions mentioned H_0 hypothesis was rejected and H_8 hypothesis was accepted. According to this, there is no relation between the nationality variable and the explanation when the wineries are going to serve the tourist and that the tourists feel secure in interactions with the personnel. However, in all other perceptions of service quality there is a clear relation between the nationality of the of the tourists and the perception of service quality.

Table-5 Results of the χ^2 Analysis of Tourists' Perceptions Depending on Their Demographic Characteristics

Service Quality Dimensions and Suggestions		Age			Gender			Nationality			Education Level		
		χ^2	SD	p	χ^2	SD	p	χ^2	SD	p	χ^2	SD	p
Tangibles	Winery has up-to-date equipment	71.326	40	0.002*	10.063	4	0.039*	104.829	48	0.000*	76.773	24	0.000*
	Winery's physical facilities are visually appealing	84.023	40	0.000*	3.285	4	0.511	70.951	48	0.017	47.310	24	0.003*
	Winery's employees are well dressed and appear neat	78.408	40	0.000*	16.402	4	0.003*	96.247	48	0.000*	28.281	24	0.248
	The appearance of the physical facilities of the winery is in keeping with the type of services provided	85.423	40	0.000*	23.929	4	0.000*	83.415	48	0.001*	70.240	24	0.000*
Reliability	When winery promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	67.336	40	0.004*	11.919	4	0.018*	104.927	48	0.000*	62.949	24	0.000*
	When you have problems, winery is sympathetic and reassuring	57.314	40	0.037*	5.112	4	0.276	72.271	48	0.013*	47.153	24	0.003*
	Winery is dependable	51.298	40	0.109	1.575	4	0.813	169.445	48	0.000*	34.321	24	0.079
	Winery provides its services at the time it promises to do so	71.616	40	0.002*	15.369	4	0.004*	70.776	48	0.018*	47.101	24	0.003*
	Winery keeps its records accurately	49.496	40	0.144	7.325	4	0.120	67.713	48	0.032*	20.138	24	0.689
Responsiveness	Winery does not tell customers exactly when services will be performed	31.075	40	0.843	1.795	4	0.773	36.555	48	0.886	45.718	24	0.005*
	You do not receive prompt service from winery's employees	58.142	30	0.002*	1.747	3	0.627	62.503	36	0.004*	35.948	18	0.007*
	Employees of the winery are not always willing to help customers	63.605	40	0.010*	24.302	4	0.000*	139.438	48	0.000*	39.248	24	0.024*
	Employees of the winery are too busy to respond to customer requests promptly	129.380	40	0.000*	10.749	4	0.030*	178.932	48	0.000*	58.033	24	0.000*
Assurance	You can trust employees of the winery	88.914	40	0.000*	5.788	4	0.216	97.537	48	0.000*	28.124	24	0.255
	You feel safe in your transactions with employees	99.578	40	0.000*	6.867	4	0.143	63.621	48	0.065	136.262	24	0.000*
	Employees are polite	68.737	40	0.003*	11.056	4	0.026*	96.230	48	0.000*	47.740	24	0.003*
	Employees get adequate support from winery to do their jobs well	65.651	40	0.006*	15.494	4	0.004*	108.052	48	0.000*	57.363	24	0.000*
Empathy	Winery does not give you individual attention	141.429	40	0.000*	4.319	4	0.365	116.950	48	0.000*	50.327	24	0.001*
	Employees do not give you personal attention	101.455	40	0.000*	9.154	4	0.057	196.217	48	0.000*	51.299	24	0.001*
	Employees do not know what your needs are	78.297	40	0.000*	8.853	4	0.065	168.832	48	0.000*	43.236	24	0.009*
	Winery does not have your best interests at heart	73.655	40	0.001*	21.659	4	0.000*	102.231	48	0.000*	108.922	24	0.000*
	Winery does not have operating hours convenient to all their customers	73.357	40	0.001*	4.287	4	0.369	80.975	48	0.002*	52.141	24	0.001*

*$p \leq \alpha = 0.05$

As the data of the research was analyzed, it has been realized that there is no relation between the education level of the tourists and the perception of the suggestion number 3 about the tangibles of service quality, suggestions 7 and 9 about reliability, and suggestion number 14 about assurance. There is a clear relation between all other service quality perceptions and the education level. This indicates that the tourists with different education levels have different levels of perception. The differences between the age, nationality and the educational level of the tourists who have taken part in the wine tasting with the perception of service quality are indicated clearly in Table-6.

Table-6 Results of Kruskal –Wallis Test of the Demographical Variables

Service Quality Dimensions and Suggestions		**Age p**	**Nation ality p**	**Education Level p**
Tangibles	Winery has up-to-date equipment	0.042*	0.029*	0.000*
	Winery's physical facilities are visually appealing	0.083	0.063	0.531
	Winery's employees are well dressed and appear neat	0.068	0.005*	0.060
	The appearance of the physical facilities of the winery is in keeping with the type of services provided	0.873	0.172	0.030*
Reliability	When winery promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	0.994	0.001*	0.000*
	When you have problems, winery is sympathetic and reassuring	0.005*	0.056	0.006*
	Winery is dependable	0.033*	0.000*	0.026*
	Winery provides its services at the time it promises to do so	0.164	0.003*	0.002*
	Winery keeps its records accurately	0.792	0.474	0.593

Responsiveness	Winery does not tell customers exactly when services will be performed	0.066	0.670	0.081
	You do not receive prompt service from winery's employees	0.178	0.018*	0.049*
	Employees of the winery are not always willing to help customers	0.107	0.000*	0.010*
	Employees of the winery are too busy to respond to customer requests promptly	0.054	0.000*	0.012*
Assurance	You can trust employees of the winery	0.011*	0.001*	0.118
	You feel safe in your transactions with employees	0.803	0.217	0.166
	Employees are polite	0.547	0.694	0.001*
	Employees get adequate support from winery to do their jobs well	0.062	0.001*	0.007*
Empathy	Winery does not give you individual attention	0.001*	0.000*	0.038*
	Employees do not give you personal attention	0.003*	0.000*	0.623
	Employees do not know what your needs are	0.002*	0.000*	0.000*
	Winery does not have your best interests at heart	0.003*	0.000*	0.068
	Winery does not have operating hours convenient to all their customers	0.008*	0.007*	0.000*

*$p \leq \alpha = 0.05$

Some differences have been noticed in some suggestions between the age of the customers and the service quality dimensions besides the responsiveness. The main difference is due to the high perceptions of the third group of tourists, as resulted from the investigations of the perception of service quality according to the age groups. The third group, consisting of 65 and plus years old tourist have shown very positive perceptions about all suggestions besides the assurance dimensions. This group only had more negative perceptions compared with the other groups about the trustworthiness of the personal. This must be due to reason that the tourists of this age group are seeking for more security then any other groups. There are no meaningful differences between the perceptions of young and adult tourists. Concerning the nationality variable, all service quality dimensions have shown differences besides the empathy dimension. There are some clear differences between the nationally and the perception of the tourists concerning the empathy. It was indicated before that the perceptions of the service quality were varying according to the nationality dimension. On these variations can be commented as follows: the USA, Turkish and other countries' citizens are the tourists with the highest perception of service quality with tangibles dimension. Any other citizens of the countries then mentioned above have lower perceptions and they score closer rates to each other concerning this matter. About reliability dimension, the Turkish tourists' perceptions have the highest average. One important point here to mention is that the USA citizens score the lowest reliability average even though they scored the highest average about tangibles dimension. About the responsiveness dimension, it's seen that British and Italian tourists have closer perception levels to each other. The lowest level concerning this dimension belongs to the Turkish tourists. Therefore, the Turkish tourists perceptions about the responsiveness of the wineries personnel much lower and more negatively then any other tourist groups. The Italians are showing here the highest perception levels. The empathy dimension about the service quality has been percept by the British tourist at the highest level. The Turkish tourists however, found it not successful when the personnel try to build some empathy with them. It was also seen generally that the education level of the tourist have an effect on the perception of all of the service quality dimensions. As the level of education increases, the perceptions of tangibles

Table-7 The Results of the t-Test About the Relationship Between Gender and the Perception of Service Quality

Table-7 The Results of the t-Test About the Relationship Between Gender and the Perception of Service Quality

Independent Sample Test										
		Levene Test		t Test Results						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Differ-ence	Std. Err. Differ-ence	95 % Confidence Interval of the Diffefence	
		Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Tangibles	Equal Variance Assumed	8.276	0.004*	-1.586	294	0.114	-0.11632	0.07336	-0.26071	0.02806
	Equal Variances Not Assumed			-1.744	286.181	0.082	-0.11632	0.06670	-0.24760	0.01495
Reliability	Equal Variance Assumed	1.105	0.294	-1.269	294	0.206	-0.09082	0.07160	-0.23173	0.05008
	Equal Variances Not Assumed			-1.245	213.137	0.215	-0.09082	0.07296	-0.23463	0.05299
Responsivene ss	Equal Variance Assumed	10.274	0.001*	1.750	294	0.081	0.12832	0.07332	-0.01597	0.27261
	Equal Variances Not Assumed			1.672	195.835	0.096	0.12832	0.07675	-0.02304	0.27967
Assurance	Equal Variance Assumed	7.429	0.007*	0.644	294	0.520	0.04790	0.07434	-0.09841	0.19420
	Equal Variances Not Assumed			0.687	270.237	0.492	0.04790	0.06968	-0.08930	0.18509
Empathy	Equal Variance Assumed	14.443	0.000*	2.455	294	0.015	0.24776	0.10091	0.04916	0.44635
	Equal Variances Not Assumed			2.348	196.466	0.020*	0.24776	0.10552	0.03966	0.45586

dimension decreases. However, the tourists with a magistrate of a doctorate degree have different levels of perceptions then the other groups.

According to this, the tourists with the doctorate degree have evaluated the reliability dimension more positively compared to the tourists with the magistrate degree. The evaluations in the responsiveness, assurance and empathy dimensions indicate that education level causes differences on the perceptions. Even though this indicates that the perception of service quality and the education level is connected, this connection has nothing to do with being higher or lower education. The results of the t-test done in order to measure the differences between the gender and the perception of the service quality are explained in the table 7:

The results of the Levene Test were evaluated at the first stage by comparing the two independent groups to each other. On the base of 0.05 meaning value, it was seen that the variables are different besides the reliability dimension. This was the reason why the variables equal to the reliability dimension have been valuated as well as other variables of the other four dimensions on the level of their meaning. Due to the results, it has been observed that there are only differences in the empathy dimension due to the gender variable. There are no big differences in the other dimensions. Therefore, the people who took part in wine tasting as male and female tourists show no difference in service quality by the perception of physical properties, trust and willingness dimensions.

CONCLUSION

The fact that the expectations of the human beings change day by day, is a reason of development of new tourism areas. One of the alternative tourism areas which gain in importance in the last 20 years is wine tourism. This new area has developed rapidly in the countries that have a certain wine culture. The Republic of Turkey on the other hand, is one of the most important grape producers of the whole world, but is lacking to use its full potential about the wine production and about the wine tourism totally. There is no doubt that the developments in the wine production and the wine industry will result in a leading role in the wine sector. The provided services in the wine sector need to be developed well so that the wine tourism may continue its development. Therefore, the service quality has a great importance for the wineries.

With this research it's aimed to evaluate the perceptions about the service quality of the tourists, which makes a part of the wine tourism. The main purpose of this research is to evaluate if it has an impact on the service quality when the tourists who are taking part in this wine tasting have already taken part in such before or not. This is the reason why a questionnaire technique was preferred to use. Capadoccia region was chosen to apply these questionnaires. By preparing these questionnaires the SERVQUAL dimensions for the service quality measure (tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy) were used and 22 suggestions were applied to the wineries that are offering wine tasting. The demographic information of the participants were also reached due to this questionnaires. The majority of the participants were young and middle aged, Turkish citizens and had high levels of educations. The participants took already part in a wine tasting before and were willing to do it again some time later on. This can be an important data for the marketing of the wine producers.

By the evaluations of the research results, it was known that there are no difference in the perception of service quality between the tourists who have taken part in the wine tasting before and the ones who have not. The relation between the demographic characteristics and the perception of service quality has also been analyzed in this research. According to these tests, a relation between reliability and responsiveness and the age variable was seen. Between the empathy dimension and the age variable, there is also a meaningful difference. Especially the tourists besides the third group have positive perceptions about the assurance dimension. Even though some differences between the male and female perception of service quality has been recorded, it was not that important to take into consideration. However, the gender has an impact on the quality perception. Nationality is the variable that has the highest impact on the perception of quality. This impact is almost as high as the relation between the education level and the level of perception of the service quality.

There is a demand to the customers that would buy the services provided by the wineries providing wine tourism services. In order to fulfill the developing customer needs and wishes, the wine producers need to define the service quality clearly at the first stage and then organize the developments and the modifications they need to make. The best resource to define the service quality and to increase the own service quality is the evaluation of the perceptions of the tourists and what kind of variables do have effects on the perception. By doing so, the level of service quality can be increased. This research will create a new approach for the wine producers about perception of the customers of the service quality. Additionally it would be a new approach for filling the present gap in the wine literature. It would be the right decision to repeat such researches and do more detailed researches in general. Also, it's recommended to undertake more comparing researches between the regions and between the wineries.

REFERENCES

Aktan N. & H. Kalkan (2000) Şarap Teknolojisi**,** Ankara: Kavaklıdere Education Publication.

Babakus E. & Mangold, W.G. (1992) Adapting the SERVQUAL Scale to Hospitality Services: An Empirical Investigation, Health Service Research 26 (2), 767-786.

Babakus E, Pedrick D.L.& Richardson A. (1993) Measuring Perceived Service Quality within the Airline Catering Service Industry Tenessie: Unpublished Manuscript, Memphis University.

Baker J.A. & Lamb C.W. Jr. (1993) Measuring Architectural Design Service Quality, Journal of Professional Services Marketing 10(1), 89-106.

Becker C. (1996) Implementing the Intangibles: A Total Quality Approach for Hospitality Service Providers. In M. D. Olsen, R. Teare & E. Gummesson (Eds.) Service Quality in Hospitality Organizations, London: Cassell.

Beverland M. (1998) Wine Tourism in New Zealand-Maybe the Industry Has Got it Right, International Journal of Wine Marketing 10(2), 24-33.

Bitner M. J.& Hubbert A.R. (1994) Encounter Satisfaction Versus Overall Satisfaction Versus Quality: The Customers' Voice. In R. T. Rust & R. L. Oliver (Eds.) Service Quality: New Directions in Theory and Practice, London: Sage, 72-92.

Bouman M. & van der Wiele T. (1992) Measuring Service Quality in the Car Service Industry: Building and Testing an Instrument, International Journal of Service Industry Management 3(4), 4-16.

Brown S. W & Swartz T. A. (1989) Gap Analysis of Professional Service Quality, Journal of Marketing 53(2), 92-98.

Bruwer J. (2003) South African Wine Routes: Some Perspectives on the Wine Tourism Industry's Structural Dimensions and Wine Tourism Product, Tourism Management 24(4), 423-435.

Canküyer E. & Aşan Z. (2001) Parametrik Olmayan İstatistiksel Teknikler, Eskişehir: Anadolu University Publication, No: 1266.

Carman, J.M. (1990) Consumer Perceptions of Service Quality: An Assessment of SERVQUAL Dimensions, Journal of Retailing 66(1), 33-55.

Cambourne et al. (2000) The Future of Wine Tourism In Hall et.al (Eds.) Wine Tourism Around the World: Development, Management and Markets, Ed.: Oxford: Elsevier Science.

Demhardt I., (2003) Wine and Tourism at the Fairest Cape: Post Apartheid Trends in the Western Cape Province and Stellenbosch (South Africa), Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing 14(3/4), 113-130.

Dodd T. (1995) Opportunities and Pitfalls of Tourism in a Developing Wine Industry, International Journal of Wine Marketing 7(1), 5-16.

Dowling R. & J. Carlsen J (1999) Wine Tourism: Perfect Partners Proceedings of the First Australian Wine Tourism Conference, Canberra: Tourism Research Bureau.

Ergenekon Ş. (2004) Şarapla Tanışma, (3rd Edition), İstanbul: Remzi Kitabevi.

Erkut H. (1995) Hizmet Kalitesi, İstanbul: İnterbank Publications, No: 1.

Fick, G.R. & Ritchie J.R.B. (1991) Measuring Service Quality in the Travel and Tourism Industry, Journal of Travel Research 30(2), 2-9.

Ford J.W., Joseph M. & Joseph B. (1993) Service Quality in Higher Education: a Comparison of Universities in the United States and New Zealand Using SERVQUAL, Norfolk: Unpublished Manuscript, Old Dominion University.

Freeman K.D. & Dart J. (1993) Measuring the Perceived Quality of Professional Business Services, Journal of Professional Services Marketing 9 (1), 27-47.

Frochot I. & Hughes H. (2001) HISTOQUAL: The Development of a Historic Houses Assessment Scale, Tourism Management 21(2), 157-167.

Frochot, I. (2000) Wine Tourism in France: A Paradox In Hall et. al (Eds.) Wine Tourism Around the World, Oxford: Butterworth-Heineman, 67-80.

Getz G. (2000) Explore Wine Tourism: Management, Development and Destinations, New York: Cognizant Communication Corporation.

Gilbert D. C. (1992) Touristic Development of a Viticultural Region of Spain, International Journal of Wine Marketing 4(2), 25-32.

Grönroos C. (1990) Service Management and Marketing, Massachusetts: Lexington Books.

Grönroos C. A (1984) Service Quality Model and its Marketing Implications European Journal of Marketing, 18(4), 36-44.

Hackett N. (1998) Vines, Wines and Visitors: A Case Study of Agricultural Diversification into Winery Tourism, Unpublished Master Thesis, Simon Fraser University NRM.

Hall C. M. et. al. (2000) Wine Tourism in New Zealand In Hall et al. (Eds.) Wine Tourism Around the World: Development, Management and Markets, Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann, 150-174.

Hashimoto A. & Telfer D. (2003) Positioning an Emerging Wine Route in the Niagara Region: Understanding the Wine Tourism Market and its Implications for Marketing, Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing 14(3-4), 61-76.

Howley M. & Westering J. V. (2000) Wine Tourism in the United Kingdom In Hall et al. (Eds.) Wine Tourism Around the World: Development, Management and Markets, Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann, 175-189.

Johns N. (1993) Quality Management in the Hospitality Industry, Part 3: Recent Developments, International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management 5(1), 10-15.

Johnson G. (1998) Wine Tourism in New Zealand-A National Survey of Wineries, Unpublished Master Thesis, Otago University.

Khan M. (2003) ECOSERV: Ecotourists' Quality Expectations, Annals of Tourism Research 30(1), 109-124.

Knutson B., Wullaert C., Patton M & Yokoyama F. (1990) LODGSERV: A Service Quality Index for the Lodging Industry, Hospitality Research Journal 14(2), 277-284.

Kotler P. & Armstrong G. (1997) Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, Implementation and Control, (9th. Edition) New Jersey: Prentice Hall International.

Kwon W. & Lee T.J. (1994) Measuring Service Quality in Singapore Retail Banking, Singapore Management Review 16(2), 1-24.

Macionis N. (1997) Wine Tourism in Australia: Emergence, Development and Critical Issues, Unpublished Doctorate Thesis, Canberra University.

Maddern C. & Golledge S. (1996) Victorian Wineries Tourism Council Cellar Door Survey, Melbourne: Victorian Wineries Tourism Council.

Mangold G.W. & Babakus E. (1991) Service Quality: the Front-Stage Perspective vs the Back-Stage Perspective, Journal of Service Marketing 5(4), 59-70.

McElwee G & Redman T. (1993) Upward Appraisals in the Practice: An Illustrative Example Using the QUALED Scale, Education and Training 35(2), 27-31.

Mitchel R. & Hall C.M. (2003) Seasonality in New Zealand Winery Visitation: An Issue of Demand and Supply, Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing 14(3-4), 155-173.

Özay, A., Akyol A. & Azabağaoğlu M.Ö. (2005) The History and Development of the Turkish Wine Industry, International Journal of Wine Marketing 17(2), 62-69.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml V. A. & Berry L.L.. (1985) A Conceptual Model of Service Quality and Its Implications of Future Research, Journal of Marketing 49(4), 41-50.

Parasuraman A., Zeithaml V. A. & Berry L.L., (1988) SERVQUAL: A Multiple Item Scale for Measuring Consumer Perceptions of Service Quality, Journal of Retailing 64(1), 12-37.

Peters G. (1997) American Winescapes-The Cultural Landscapes of America's Wine Country, Boulder: Harper Collins.

Preston-Whyte R.A., (2000) Wine Routes in South Africa. In Hall et .al. (Eds.) ine Tourism Around the World, Oxford: Elsevier Science, 102-114.

Raajpoot N. A. (2002) TANGSERV: A Multiple Item Scale for Measuring Tangible Quality in Foodservice Industry, Journal of Foodservice Business Research 5(2), 109-127.

Reid R. A. (1990) Customer Perceptions and Expectations, New York: Free Press.

Reidenbach R.E. & Sandifer-Smallwood B. (1990) Exploring Perception of Hospital Operations by a Modified SERVQUAL Approach, Journal of Health Care Marketing 10(4), 47-55.

Rigotti S. & Pitt L. (1992) SERVQUAL as a Measuring Instrument for Service Provider Gaps in the Business Schools, Management Research News 15(3), 9-17.

Saleh F. & Ryan C. (1992) Analyzing Service Quality in the Hospitality Industry Using the SERVQUAL Model, Service Industries Journal 11(3), 324-343.

Scott D. & Shieff D. (1993) Service Quality Components and Group Criteria in Local Government, International Journal of Service Industry Management 4(4), 42-53.

Serper Ö. (2000) Uygulamalı İstatistik II, (4^{th}. Edition), Bursa: Ezgi Kitabevi.

Sharples L. (2002) Wine Tourism in Chile: A Brave New Step for a Brave New World, International Journal of Wine Marketing 14(2), 43-54.

Skinner A. M. (2000) Napa Valley, California: A Model of Wine Region Development. In C.M. Hall (Eds.) Wine Tourism Around the World: Development, Management and Markets, Oxford: Elsevier Science, 283-296.

Soliman A.A., (1992) Assessing the Quality of Health Care, Health Care Marketing 10(1-2), 121-141.

Stevens P., Knutson B. & Patton M. (1995) DINESERV: A Tool for Measuring Service Quality in Restaurants, Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly 36(2), 56-60.

Szivas E. (1999) The Development of Wine Tourism in Hungary, International Journal of Wine Marketing 11(2), 7-17.

Taylor S.A. et al., (1993) Recreational Quality in the International Setting, International Journal of Service Industries Management 4(4), 68-88.

Telfer D. (2001) From a Tiny Tourism Village to a Regional Wine Route: An Investigation of the Competitive Advantage of Embedded Clusters In Niagara, Canada, Tourism Recreation Research 26(2), 23-33.

Vandamme R. & Leunis J. (1993) Development of a Multiple-Item Scale for Measuring Hospital Service Quality, International Journal of Service Industries Management 4(3), 30-49.

Walbridge S.W. & Delene L.M. (1993) Measuring Physician Attidudes of Service Quality, Journal of Health Care Marketing 13(4), 6-15.

Williams P. Kelly J. (2001) Cultural Wine Tourists: Product Development Considerations for British Columbia's Resident Wine Tourism Market, International Journal of Wine Marketing 13(3), 59-76.

Williams P. & Dosa K. (2003) Non-resident Wine Tourism Markets: Implications for British Columbia's Emerging Wine Tourism Industry, Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing 14(3-4) 1-34.

Williams C. & Buswell J. (2003) Service Quality in Leisure and Tourism, Cambridge: CABI Publishing.

Wong S. M. & Perry C (1991) Customer Service Strategies in Financial Retailing, International Journal of Bank Marketing 9(3), 11-16.

Zeithaml V.A., Berry L.L & Parasuraman A. (1988) Communication and Control Processes in the Delivery of Service Quality, Journal of Marketing 52(2), 35-48.

Zeithaml V.A., Berry L.L & Parasuraman A. (1990) Delivering Quality Services: Balancing Customer Perceptions and Expectations, New York: Free Press.

Zeithaml V.A. & Bitner M.J. (2000) Services Marketing, (2nd Edition) New York: McGraw-Hill.

http://www.unwto.org/facts/eng/pdf/barometer/barometer_february_07_e.pdf

SUCCESSFUL ECO-TOURISM PRACTICES: ROLE OF STAKEHOLDERS

Dr. S.P. Bansal

Director, Institute of Vocational Studies, Master of Tourism Administration

Himachal Pradesh University, Summer Hill, Shimla (H.P.) India

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to find factors for successful eco-tourism development. Tourism is the world's largest industry that promotes increased interaction of political and economic forces within a society. It may be regarded as consisting of tourists, a business, and an environment or community in which it operates thereby tourism phenomenon affects all these elements. This paper deals with the study of various stakeholders in tourism development. As suggested by various authors', management people, locals, tourism trade people and NGO's are main stakeholders in tourism.

All the information presented in this paper, if not otherwise cited is based on observations and discussions with the personnel of the NGO's, locals and the tourists.

To strengthen the theoretical ideas, three case-destinations in Indian Himalayas, Himachal Pradesh, were selected. Viz. Sangla Valley in district Kinnaur, Pongdam wetland in Kangra district and Ananda Project in Kullu District.

The Sangla Valley is situated in Himachal Pradesh, an Indian state in northwest Himalayas. Foreign tourist started visiting this valley in 1995. Since then, the number of tourists has considerably increased. This has resulted in development of many accommodation units.

It is obvious that the valley holds an enormous tourism potential for domestic as well as foreign tourist. Because of the growing popularity among tourists and the interest of inhabitants to use the tourist potential of this valley, the region will face a considerable boom in tourism in the next few years that may become a challenge for tourism development in a sustainable manner. A group of villagers decided to form a Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) named as “Sangla Valley Sustainable Development Society” mainly for the cause of sustainable tourism development in the valley.

The second case study is a story of tradition, awareness, science, community participation, non governmental organizations, receptive administration and individual initiative combining to boost development, promote eco-tourism and conserve environment in a small village of Himalayas in the Indian state of Himachal Pradesh. Mr. Satinder Singh Guleria, who has set up the Institute for Environment Studies and the Science Awareness Trust, along with other dedicated people, who realized that action is better than just complaining, and all this in a place which most people, even in India, may not be able to identify on the map. Mr. Guleria’s area of work is in Sanauran village in Kangra district of HP, where the Pong Dam and the Ramsar Wetland expanse have received the attention of the organization.

Third case study is of Ananda Project in Kullu Valley of Himachal Pradesh. The purpose of the project is to “help local communities regain their self-reliance and return to a sustainable way of life” and the main focus is to “introduce cultivation techniques at the community level in order to help the villagers generate a sustainable source of income and to conserve endangered species of medicinal plants being over harvested from the wild”.

It can be concluded from the study that for successful eco-tourism development several stakeholders can play a vital role and most important is the role of community.

Keywords: Eco tourism, Community participation, Sangla Valley, Pong Dam wetland, Ananda Project.

1. CONCEPT OF ECO-TOURISM

Eco-tourism is often considered to be a potential strategy to support conservation of natural ecosystems while at the same time, promoting sustainable development (Ross and Wall; 1999). Eco-tourism is usually considered to be more than just tourism to natural areas. However, the absence of a widely accepted definition of eco-tourism is associated with a lack of consensus concerning the distinctiveness of ecotourism and the extent to which it differs from other forms of the tourism. Since the formal introduction of the term by Ceballos-Lascurain almost two decades ago, controversies over appropriate uses for the term and inconsistency in its application have hindered the development of the concept and its practical realization at specific sites (Bottrill and Pearce; 1999). Those at the forefront of ecotourism research and development now provide a definition, which addresses the fundamental goals of conservation of natural areas and local development. The Ecotourism Society defines ecotourism as

“ Purposeful travel to natural areas to understand the culture and the natural history of the environment; taking care not to alter the integrity of the ecosystem; producing economic opportunities that make the conservation of the natural resources beneficial to the local people. ” (Wood, Getz and Lindberg; 1995)

The world conservation Union’s (IUCN) Commission on Natural Parks and Protected Areas (CNPPA) defines ecotourism as

“ Environmentally responsible travel and visitation to relatively undisturbed natural areas, in order to enjoy and appreciate nature (and any accompanying cultural features – both past and present) that promotes conservation, has low visitor impact, and provides for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local populations. (Ceballos-Lascurain; 1996)

Ecotourism is neither a simple concept to define nor a straightforward phenomenon to implement and evaluate. Ecotourism should be regarded as being more than tourism to natural areas and should be viewed as a means of combining the goals of resource conservation and local development through tourism in a synergistic fashion. This means that care should be taken to ensure that the goals of tourism development do not interfere with the goals of protecting natural areas and bio-diversity (Ross and Wall; 1999).

While providing an enjoyable experience in nature, the fundamental functions of ecotourism are protection of natural areas, production of revenue, education and local participation and capacity building.

While difficult to measure, ecotourism is believed to be the fastest growing tourism segment. In 1988 there were between 157 and 236 million international eco tourists, generating economic impacts of $93 billion (Filion et. al.; 1994). There is a considerable debate over what ecotourism really means, however, the estimates of value generated are based upon a definition of the form, which allows tourists to enjoy and appreciate nature.

Eco-tourism development is not possible, if it remains the responsibility of the Govt. alone. It is an admitted fact that many environmental problems cannot be solved without the active participation of the local people and people-centered grass-root environmentally active organizations. Their involvement in the environmental protection programs is essential for discharging a variety of vital functions; because they know better as to which kind of environmental protection programs are in their best interest. Any program of environmental protection, which is thrust upon people, will not succeed unless it embodies their explicit acceptance in terms of their perceived needs.

The participatory approach offers 3 main advantages.

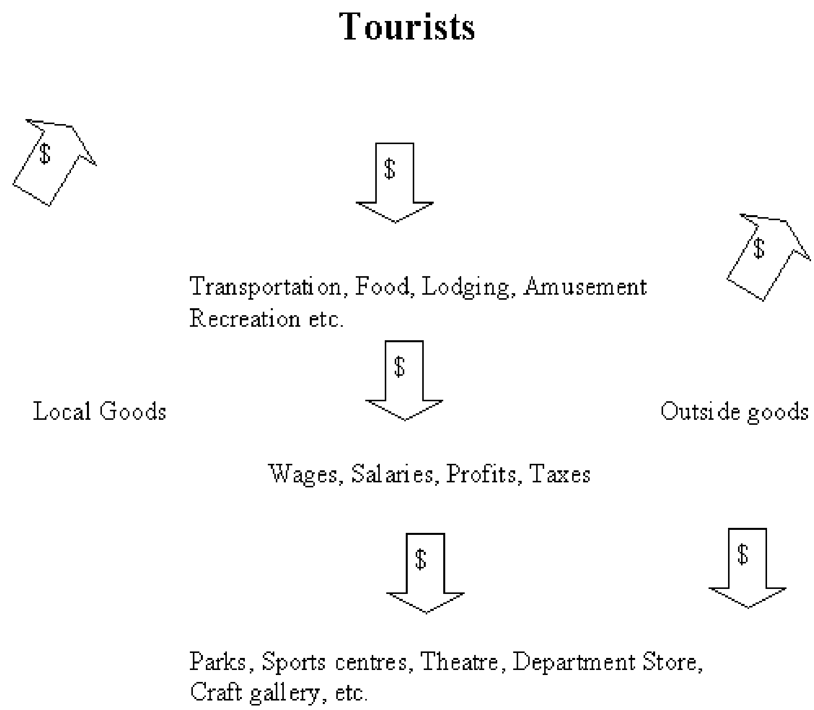
1) It gives planner a better understanding of local values, knowledge and experience.
2) It wins the local community backing for project objectives and communities help in local implementation.
3) It can resolve conflicts that arises when large infrastructure investments are made.

Tourism is an economic activity so it becomes necessary to spread its benefits to the community. When we plan we must think for the community. The environment is an integral part of the development, in their improvised state; the community depends on environment for their livelihood and substance. Communities have to meet their urgent short-term needs by preying upon natural resources available in their surrounding.

Figure 1

Tourism and the Community

When tourist spends money, they create a chain reaction that produces additional economic benefits. They trade with businesses that purchases supplies and services locally or elsewhere. The business, in turn, purchases supplies and services they need to operate and, through successive rounds of purchases, the initial direct expenditures of visitors spread and multiply through out the local and regional economy. The following chart demonstrates how tourism spending flows through the economy.



Source: Guide for Local Authorities on Developing Sustainable Tourism, A Tourism and Environment Publication, WTO, Spain.

They care more about extracting what they can today from the environmental resources than about conserving them for tomorrow. The result is often very opposite of sustainability, with excessive exploitation of natural habitat. To make development sustainable, what is therefore required are strong poverty alleviation strategies that meet the basic needs of the community, and empower them in a manner which reduces their direct dependence on natural resources. So we are left with an option of

the usage of resource but for this we have to calculate the extent of benefit we can take from the resources without harming them or we need to find out the limits or the economic efficiency of the resources.

Community participation as described is central to the alternative ecotourism concept, with proponents arguing that participation in planning is necessary to ensure that benefits reach residents in destination areas and that ecotourism, which encourages local employment and small business development promotes higher economic multipliers, and that a community approach to decision-making helps to ensure traditional lifestyles and that community values are respected. A close working relationship between the local community and the industry will provide the means to support conservation efforts.

2. COMMUNITY AND TOURISM

There is a close link between the community and tourism. Tourism helps a community become more attractive and prosperous. It is more attractive because a community must be appealing to draw and satisfy visitors, and it is more prosperous because these visitors spend money. With this money spent in community, the community develops. Many factors need to be evaluated when community leaders design their master plan for local development. These factors include land use, transportation, education, utilities, fire and police protection, government regulations, labour, housing and commercial and industrial activity.

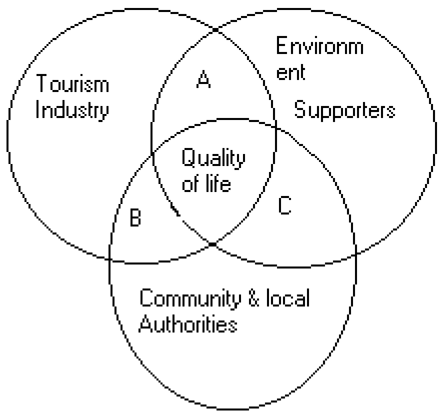
Figure 1 illustrates how the economic benefits of tourism flow through the local economy. As shown in this diagram, there is some loss of economic benefits to purchasing goods from outside the area while use of locally produced goods and services leads to increased benefits within the local economy. The diagram also shows that some attractions, facilities and services – parks, sports centers, theatres, stores and art and craft galleries- developed for tourism are ones that community residents can also use.

3. TOURISM, THE ENVIRONMENT AND THE COMMUNITY

Tourism and the environment are closely interrelated. The natural and built environment provides many of the attractions for tourists and tourism development can have both positive and negative impact on the environment. Sustainable tourism development depends on protecting the environmental resources for tourism. The partners for sustainable tourism development are the tourism industry-owners and managers of tourism commercial enterprises, the environment supporters- advocates for environmental conservation, and the community-residents, community groups and leaders and the local authorities. Typically some members of the community will also be involved in the tourism industry or be environment supporters.

Figure 2

The Tourism Industry, Environment and the Community



Source: Guide for Local Authorities on Developing Sustainable Tourism, A Tourism and Environment Publication, WTO, Spain.

Figure 2, illustrates the interaction needed among these partners that is necessary to achieve improved quality of life for the community, with the interaction of all these (tourism, environment and community) quality of life increases.

4. METHODOLOGY

Methodology consists of two parts

1. Interests of local people regarding tourism development.
2. Discussions have to be put in the perspective of ecotourism development.

The objective of this study was to identify that how tourism can be developed on sustainable basis in the study area. The data was obtained through Personal-in-depth interviews and workshops. The interviews were conducted using an informal discussion method with some pre-structured questions and were designed to gather " Quality" information from a relatively small number of respondents. All interviews were conducted according to "Funnel Technique"[1]. The discussion started on the broadcast possible level and gradually narrowed down through progressively more restricted channels. A list of points, which covered in the interview/discussion revolved around the following themes;

- Present tourism scenario
- Problems with the tourism development.
- Interest of local population.
- Role of community in the tourism development.
- Success of ecotourism.

5. CASE STUDIES

Role of SAT in development of eco-tourism at Pongdam wetland

Pongdam wetland is one of the largest man-made wetlands of northern India. Situated at the base of the Dhauladhar ranges in Kangra district of Himachal

[1] Developed by Chisnal in 1986. In this discussion started on the broadcast possible level and gradually narrowed down through progressively more restricted channels. The final aim is to find out the various issues related to the objectives.

Pradesh the wetland came into existence in 1975-76. This wetland being the first major wetland, which potentially offers a transitory resting reserve for the migratory water birds coming from the Trans-Himalayan zone. Pong dam wetland was declared a wild life sanctuary in 1983 and in 1994, Ministry of Environment and forests, Government of India declared it a National wetland and now it has been given the status of Wetland of International Importance or Ramsar Site no. 1211 on 19/08/02. Being fed by 5 major streams emerging from the Dhauladhar ranges the reservoir has an area of about 45,000 hectares at maximum possible flooding – the level varies with every season and average around 30,000 hectares. Over 200 villages with a population over 85,000 lies along the wetland.

Pong Dam wetland has immense potential for bird watching, eco-tourism, water sports, angling and many other activities. Other attractions nearby are many places of cultural and religious importance in the vicinity of Pong Dam wetland. Famous heritage village of Paragpur is located just 15 km from the lake. The hilltops and ridges are also the setting for numerous forts and temples. Kangra fort (25 km), Haripur fort, and the ruins of another fort stand majestically mid-lake on the Shore of Ransar Island. Many temples are also found near the lake as monolithic rock cut temple at Masroor, Jawala ji Temple, Dadasiba temple with its mid- 19^{th} century wall paintings, and Chintpurni Temple.

The Institute for Environment Studies and the Science Awareness Trust (SAT) was set up by Mr. Satinder Singh Guleira along with other dedicated people in Sanauran village in Kangra district of HP, where the Pong Dam and the Ramsar Wetland expanse have received the attention of the organization.

This trust has been involved with bird banding of migratory birds and bird census at the International Ramsar Site, Pong Dam, since 2004, along with scientists from the famed Bombay Natural History Society. In recognition of talents and interests, Mr. Guleria was appointed as master trainer by State Council for Science, Technology and Environment to operate eco-clubs at school level and to train teachers in the schools in the Kangra district.

A measure of success of trust can be seen by the fact that over 1739 volunteers became part of the endeavor. The SAT motto is --- 'Save Environment, Save Life', 'Educate at grassroots Level', 'Eco Conservation', and 'Computer Application programs for poor children from interior'.

The Industrial Training Center, camps, mobile vans under the Asha—hope——programme have done a lot to improve the lot of the people, as have the computer classes. Most students had never seen a computer before. On the health front, there was some resistance from a few on issues like illicit liquor drinking and women issues but these were happily overcome.

Through camps in Bilaspur, Gathutar and other places thousands have been benefited. Ever-expanding team of SAT remain happily busy in cleaning of water sources like wells, plantation drives, health surveys and various other activities. They have also built a small library building, which took three months for 320 volunteers. The building can house 11 people and the Institute for Environmental studies can look forward to more good work. With proper planning and execution, the area can attract eco tourists from all over, as adequate infrastructure is built.

Further, the awareness programs developed by SAT are generating interest among local people about eco-tourism, and now, as a result people are coming forward for the development of eco-tourism related projects in the area.

Role of Sangla Valley Sustainable Development Society in tourism development

The Sangla Valley is situated in Himachal Pradesh, an Indian state in northwest Himalayas. Foreign tourist started visiting this valley in 1995. Since then, the number of tourists has considerably increased. This has resulted in development of many accommodation units. It is obvious that valley holds an enormous tourism potential for domestic as well as foreign tourists. Because of the growing popularity among tourists and the interest of inhabitants to use the tourist potential of this valley, the region will face a considerable boom in tourism in the next few years that may become a challenge for tourism development in a sustainable manner. A group of villagers decided to form a Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) named as "Sangla Valley Sustainable Development Society" mainly for the cause of sustainable tourism development in the valley.

This society has been making several efforts for the development of tourism on sustainable basis in the area.

MOTTO OF THE SOCIETY

Come let us all join hand in saving this beautiful valley for our next generations to come. One small step in this area can lead to a giant leap where everyone is putting in a small effort to save our mother earth from the negative effect of modernity.

WORKS UNDERTAKEN BY SOCIETY

All-round efforts are being made to protect this valley from the adverse effect of tourism and negative approach brought on by modernity.

- Everyone in the village of Sangla and nearby areas are combining their joint efforts in the fields of tourism and agriculture.
- Their efforts are to make every thing sustainable i.e. save the nature and culture.
- Reduce deforestation and air pollution, by using more of solar energy.
- Renovation of old buildings for guesthouses and new ones to be built on old traditional style.
- All rubbish to be collected and disposed in a organized manner.
- To reduce pollution created by vehicles, public transport system to be supported.
  Demarcating protected areas so as to reduce the impact of tourist on this area.
- Working conditions to be created for local people to generate more jobs which are eco friendly and give a fair lively hood.
- More of local produce to be used, promotion of local cuisine at all eating-places.
- Agricultural practices should be eco friendly and use of organic materials to be promoted.
- Special incentives to be given to farmers on this issue.

Agricultural practices, which support the local traditions and customs and maintain good working conditions for farmers are to be encouraged with incentives from the government.

CASE STUDY OF ANANDA PROJECT

The Ananda project operates in the area around about 4000 old Krishna-temple near the village of Naggar, which is situated in the northern part of Kullu Valley in Himachal Pradesh, India. The purpose of the project is to “help local communities regain their self-reliance and return to a sustainable way of life” and the main focus is to “introduce cultivation techniques at the community level in order to help the villagers generate a sustainable source of income and to conserve endangered species of medicinal plants being overharvested from the wild.” (Ananda Project Website)

Tourists, who come to Naggar to volunteer, help villagers as much as they want and can in various tasks. These include taking care of vegetables, tree seedlings and plants, which depending on the season mean watering, weeding and collecting seeds. Also help in the office is needed. The price that tourists are supposed to pay includes accommodation in the guesthouse, two simple meals in the temple area and possibility to use shower.

Because the project is situated in the sacred temple area, tourists are expected to behave respectfully. Rules are somewhat strict e.g. tourists are not able to enter the temple or the kitchen where the food is prepared. Thus it is not possible to help in the kitchen, which is something that many tourists would like to do. The local family, who owns the office and the guesthouse where the tourists stay, eat their meals inside their home, which is located inside the temple area. Tourists are not able to mingle with them. For the tourists this is not usually a problem. Rather they enjoy sitting in the terrace of the temple and staring the valley below. Many tourists also make their own meals using any kitchen located in the guesthouse near the temple.

6. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

It is evident from the above study that tourism is supposed to be an economic indicator and it is responsible for growth in the employment and other regional development in the Himalayan region. But as tourism grows on a large scale it can lead towards some negative impacts. For better tourism we have to think for planned development, where the local community is given proper attention.

The study investigated the interests and needs of local population regarding tourism development in detail. For a sound sustainable development, the participation of more or less, all local people is required. Therefore it is important to analyse the interest and intentions of local people and the Society.

To put responses into the perspective of sustainability, a holistic approach is needed. That means, the discussion about tourism development has to be integrated in a broader view including all main aspects of life in study area.

To estimate the sustainability of the tourism development in study area, it is important to have an understanding of the system and have an understanding of the interaction with its wider context. The understanding of system requires at least a brief understanding of people's livelihood, of natural conditions and of the interactions of these sub-systems. Describing the livelihood, socio-cultural, political, juridical, institutional and financial aspects are taken into account. While describing the interactions of men with nature, the focus on process, organisation, and on function is required. The understanding of interactions with the wider contexts requires including power, rights issues and broader institutional and financial aspects. Studying these aspects, a description of the main outer forces and main obstacles is possible.

It is felt that conditions for sustainable tourism development might not be completely favourable. That is the reason the discussion about the interests and intensions has to be put into the broader perspective of sustainability.

The study arrives at the conclusion that although government is carrying out efforts to develop tourism in the study area, the local community should be involved in successful eco-tourism planning. For achievement of eco-tourism goals the involvement of local community with appropriate management strategy is required.

Area evaluation for the eco-tourism development was performed with the help of survey to illustrate the application and utility of framework as a tool for sustainable tourism development. It is revealed that current relationship between people and resources is necessary for successful eco-tourism. Sustainable tourism development is not possible, if it remains the responsibility of the government alone. It is an admitted fact that many environmental problems can't be solved without the active participation of locals. The local community perceives tourism to be a tool for the development, and they have a positive attitude towards tourism development. They feel that if planned carefully then the impacts of tourism can be minimised. Moreover, NGO's are playing an important role in the eco-tourism development in the study area by means of creating awareness among the local population.

Success of ecotourism

Unfortunately, ecotourism without effective management, will be unsuccessful and of little consequence in the absence of adequate institutional arrangements and administrative commitments. The development of positive relationship between people, resources and tourism is very unlikely to occur without implementation of effective policies, management strategies, and involvement of a wide range of organizations, including NGO's and other development agencies.

To achieve success in ecotourism we should follow a process. The various steps of this process are

1. Impact assessment.
2. To plan for tourism development on the basis of sustainability.
3. Involvement of the local community.
4. To assist and encourage the participation of the NGO's.
5. To facilitate the functioning of the ecotourism development.
6. Examining the developmental process.

Finally we can conclude that ecotourism is neither a simple concept to define nor a straightforward phenomenon to implement and evaluate. Ecotourism should be regarded as being more than tourism to the natural areas and should be viewed as a means of combining the goals of resource conservation and local development through tourism in a synergistic fashion. This means that care should be taken to ensure that the goals of tourism development do not interfere with the goals of protecting natural areas and biodiversity. All the stakeholders in tourism development should safeguard the natural environment with a view to achieving sound, continuous and sustainable economic growth geared to satisfying equitably the needs and aspirations of present and future generations.

REFERENCES

Bottrill C. & Pearce D., (1995), Ecotourism: Towards a key elements approach to

operationalizing the concept, Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 3(1), pp. 45-54

Cambridge Dictionary of American English, (2001), Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, p. 117

Ceballos-Lascurain H., (1996), Tourism, ecotourism and protected areas. Gland,

Switzerland, IUCN, p. 20

Chisnal, P.M., (1986), Marketing Research, London: McGraw-Hill.

Filion, F.L., J.P. Foley and A.J. Jacquemot, (1994), The Economics of Global

Tourism, in Protected Area Economics and Policy: Liking Conservation and Sustainable Development, M. Munasignhe and J. McNeely (Eds.), Washington D.C.: World Bank, pp. 234 – 254

Ross, Sheryl, and Wall Geoffrey, (1999), Ecotourism: towards congruence between theory and practice, Tourism Management, 20, pp. 123-133

Wood, E., Gatz, M.F. & Lindberg K., (1991), The Ecotourism Society: An action

Agenda, In J. Kusler (Ed.), Ecotourism and resource conservation, Madison: Omnipress, pp. 75-79

UNIQUENESS OF TOURISM SMES: STRATEGIC MARKETING FRAMEWORK PROPOSITIONS

Hamed Al Azri
Purdue Tourism and Hospitality Research Center
Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management
Purdue University USA

Liping Cai
Purdue Tourism and Hospitality Research Center
Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management
Purdue University USA

ABSTRACT

The study of SMEs in general and of those operating in the Tourism industry particularly is relatively recent. A comprehensive and strong strategic marketing model for SMEs in general is yet to be developed. The purpose of this paper is to offer conceptual propositions that would help in realizing a conceptual framework of studying strategic marketing for SMEs in the Tourism industry. This framework would work as a basis for developing a conceptual model of strategic marketing for Tourism SMEs.

Key words: SMEs, Tourism, strategic marketing, entrepreneurship

INTRODUCTION

SMEs are vital in the development of any industry and especially so for the Tourism industry. Several models have been developed to explain marketing behavior of SMEs, two of which are examined in this paper. Essentially, a contextually adjusted framework is needed to better understand the marketing of SMEs working in the Tourism industry.

This study examined a number of issues related to the strategic marketing of tourism SMEs. In addition to issues facing the marketing of SMEs in general, tourism SMEs are operating in an industry that has been recognized as being unique and challenging. The study examined existing research on tourism SMEs and related them to two recent analyses of existing generic marketing models for SMEs. In theory, the generic models could be applied to tourism SMEs since they share common characteristics with all SMEs. However, given the unique nature of the tourism industry, a suitable strategic marketing model for tourism SMEs needs to be developed. Theoretical propositions were developed to suggest plausible alterations of the generic models.

LITERATURE REVIEW

SMEs:

Small & Medium Enterprises (SMEs) are known to be the heart of strong economies, especially for service industries like Tourism (Sproule 2006:2), as well as being the backbone of development in rural areas and small towns (Getz and Carlson 2005:247). Longenecker, Moore, and Petty (2003) explain that a "small business" is one that employs 100 or less people, have geographically localized operations, and is financed by 1-15 individuals (2003:10). A related useful database developed by Marta Kozak (2006) reveals that, for countries close in nature to Oman, number of employees in an SME is below one hundred.

As opposed to larger corporations, SMEs are established to fulfill personal objectives of the owners or entrepreneurs (Getz and Carlson 2005:243). As a consequence, SMEs usually benefit from an emotional attachment and a stronger hold from the owner/operator, which probably has much less weight in larger corporations. They also lack the bureaucracy usually seen in larger organizations, which makes them in a better position to provide good customer service than that of larger companies (Longenecker et al. 2003:17 and 371). On the negative side, however, SMEs usually suffer from weak management skills (Wanhill, 2000:135). Most decisions are made informally by the founders (Getz and Carlson 2005:241-242). This could be a major contributor to the fact that almost 1/3 of SMEs are struggling and another 1/3 should not have been started (Wanhill, 2000:135).

Small Business Marketing:

The starting point of a successful business is the core idea. An insightful, inventive, and promising idea is the difference between a successful and unsuccessful venture (Longenecker et al. 2003:3). Business idea is a "concept in search of an application," but an entrepreneurial opportunity is "a desirable and timely innovation that creates value for interested buyers or end users".

Small business marketing consists of business activities relating to: identifying a target market, analyzing its potential, and delivering what it takes to satisfy the market (Longenecker, Moore, & Petty, 2003:218). A market is "a group of customers or potential customers who have purchasing power and unsatisfied needs." (Longenecker et al. 2003:225). In his discussion of strategic marketing planning for the tourism industry, Morrison (2002) defined a strategic market plan as "... a written plan for marketing a hospitality or travel organization covering a period of three or more years in the future" (Morrison, 2002:599).

The issue in hand is whether strategic marketing models designed for larger corporations could be appropriately applied to SMEs. Gilmore, Carson, and Grant (2001) attest that applying these models to SMEs has been criticized. They consequently urged researchers to conduct studies that "are sensitive to the unique characteristics of small firms." A closely related topic is strategic branding, which is also a challenge for small businesses as their resources and budgets are limited (Keller, 2003:751). It is, hence, difficult to apply in SMEs. Keller (2003:752), however, gave some guidelines towards effective branding for small businesses. He recommends an emphasis on one or two brands, consistently focusing on one or two key associations, employing creative brand elements, and capturing consumers' attention and demand through creative push and pull campaigns.

SMEs Marketing Models:

In response to these issues, a number of strategic marketing models for SMEs have been developed. This study investigated the missing or inappropriate constructs in the generic models with regards to tourism SMEs. Appropriate conceptual propositions to alter the models were then developed.

First model: Role and relevance of Marketing

Simpson, Padmore, Taylor, and Frecknall-Hughes (2006) carried out a study that assessed a new model of marketing in SMEs and reported the role and relevance of marketing for SMEs. The authors used a "positivist approach", which employs a "hypothetical-deductive" method to produce the theoretical model. They investigated the model using quantitative and qualitative methods, and then showed how companies performed via a large-scale survey and follow-up interviews. The model (Figure.1) analyzed the role of marketing among SMEs (internal focus) and the relevance of marketing in the industry in which the SMEs operate (external focus). The 'Role' relates to the actual marketing efforts carried out by the organization, it's ambitions and ability to grow, and its marketing orientation. The 'Relevance' relates to the need of marketing activities to sustain and grow the company in the particular industry, which tends to increase with the increase in competition. The model visualizes the two-dimensional position of individual SMEs given their internal role of marketing and the external relevance. Organizations are identified as Marketing Led, Marketing Dominated, Marketing Weak, or Marketing independent organizations.

The authors identified a number of factors affecting the shaky marketing performance of SMEs. A fundamental issue is the misunderstanding of marketing as only being about selling and advertising, and the perception that it is time-consuming and only relevant for large organizations. Simpson et al. found many

SMEs to be reactive, lacking strong strategic awareness, and preferring technical expertise of potential employees over management skills.

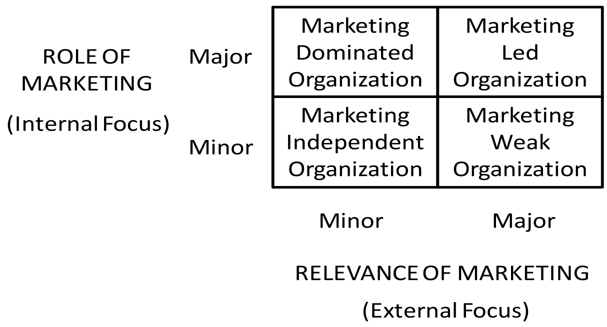


Figure.1: The role and relevance of marketing model (Simpson et al., 2006)

Second model: Key determents of effective SME marketing activities:

Jimmy Hill (2001) identified a competencies spectrum relevant to marketing activities in SMEs (Figure.2). They are divided into foundation level (experience, knowledge, …), level two (vision opportunity focus, …), and level three competencies (motivation, ambition, …). He argues that the effectiveness of SME marketing activities depends on these sets of competencies. The strong sales orientation present in many SMEs indicates operational marketing decision making of SMEs as opposed to strategic decision making. Hill adds that the lack of experience tends to lead to sales orientation, which in turn is negatively affected by certainty and consistent industry trends.

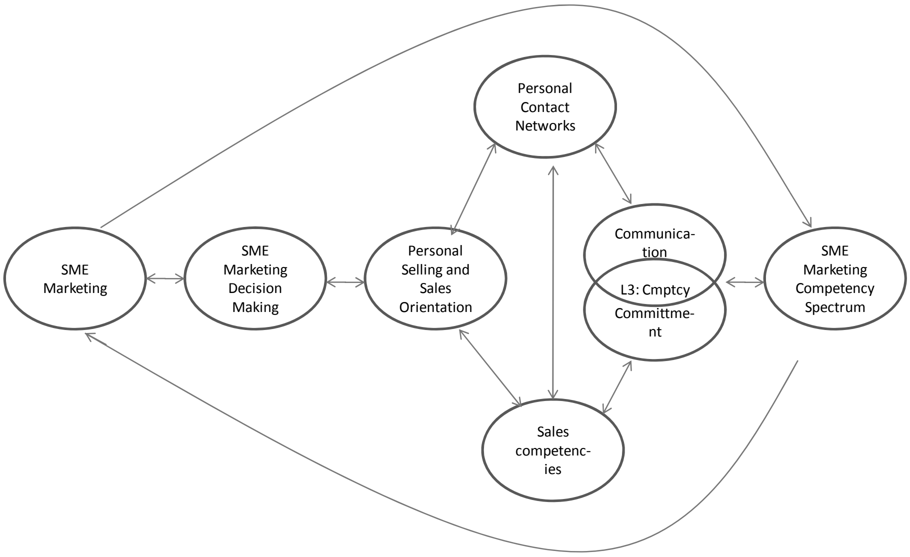


Figure.2: A holistic model of SME marketing (Hill, 2001b)

TOURISM INDUSTRY:

Tourism industry is especially attractive to SMEs because they normally blend well with the usual objectives of community development and Marketing implementation (Wanhill, 2000:134). In fact, the majority of businesses operating in tourism are small (Getz and Carlson, 2005:239). Tourism SMEs face the problem of seasonality. This creates issues in profitability (Baum, In Getz and Carlson, 2005) as well as peak time pressure on owners causing them to work longer hours and employ part-time workers (Getz and Carlson, 2005). Based on tourism organizations' classifications by Al-Haddad (2006), and Ritchie and Goeldner (1994), this study will classify tourism SMEs as being part of one of the following sub-sectors:

1- Accommodation: serviced and self-catering.

2- Travel intermediaries: travel agencies and tour operators (independent, packaged, escorted, incentive tours, etc)

3- Transportation: Land and sea transportation (including car rentals)

4- Conventions, meetings, & events management

5- Attractions & services: Cultural (including historical and heritage), natural (including eco-tourism), adventure, visitor info centers, etc.

6- Restaurants or food service

7- Tourism research: companies providing specialized research services

Ateljevic (2007) analyzed SMEs management practices in New Zealand. The model below (Figure.3) was accumulated by the researchers based on the work of Ateljevic's. He argues that there's a misunderstanding of the complexity of Small Tourism Firms (STFs) in the literature. Ateljevic explains that informal business planning and strategy building is the norm among STFs especially when the owner-manager is less educated and when the size of the business is smaller.

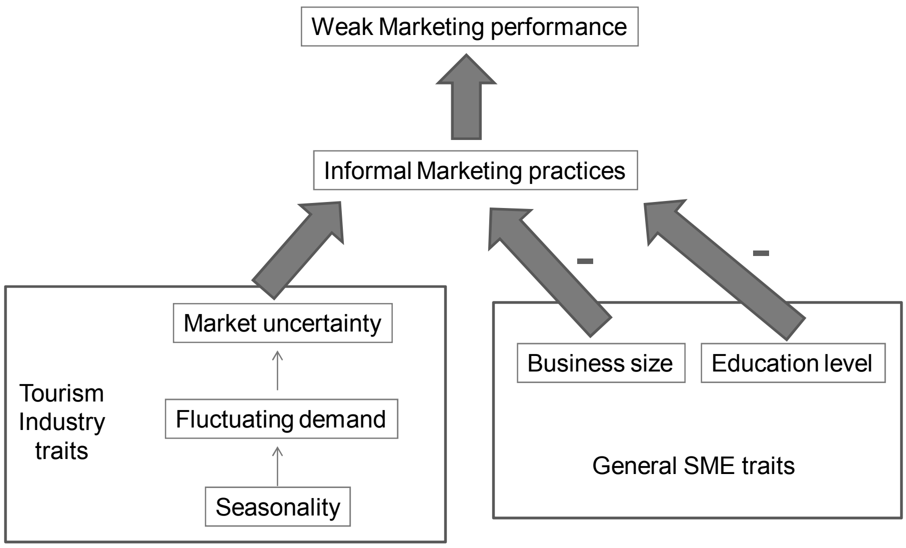


Figure.3: SMEs management practice

A major factor for informality among STFs is the difficulty to project future trends in the industry because of seasonality and uncertainty. The consequence for marketing is a lack of consistency and little or no consumer research. For STFs, these factors lessen the significance of formal management. Part-timers are employed in high seasons and the workforce is expected to be multi-tasked in the off season. Ateljevic also found that a destination-dependant demand creates inconsistent promotion efforts among STFs, which tends to focus on word-of-mouth and internet. The recruitment of employees in STFs is mainly based on personality traits, rather than experience and education.

PROPOSITIONS FOR TOURISM SMES MARKETING MODEL

Tourism SMEs Marketing Framework:

From the discussion above, and in order to better understand SMEs in Tourism, it is best to look at the generic SMEs marketing models and incorporate essential Tourism context factors to arrive at a modified and suitable framework. The below framework (Figure.4) was developed to better understand Tourism SMEs and preceding the development of a prescriptive conceptual model of Tourism SMEs marketing.

Basically, Simpson et al.'s model was initially used. Since the relevance of Marketing in the Tourism industry is almost always high, only respective cells in the original model are kept. The Relevance of Marketing is high, as the competition is high locally as well as internationally among destinations. The lack of certainty and consistency in the industry explains why Tourism SMEs are sales oriented (making them Marketing Weak Organizations - MWO).

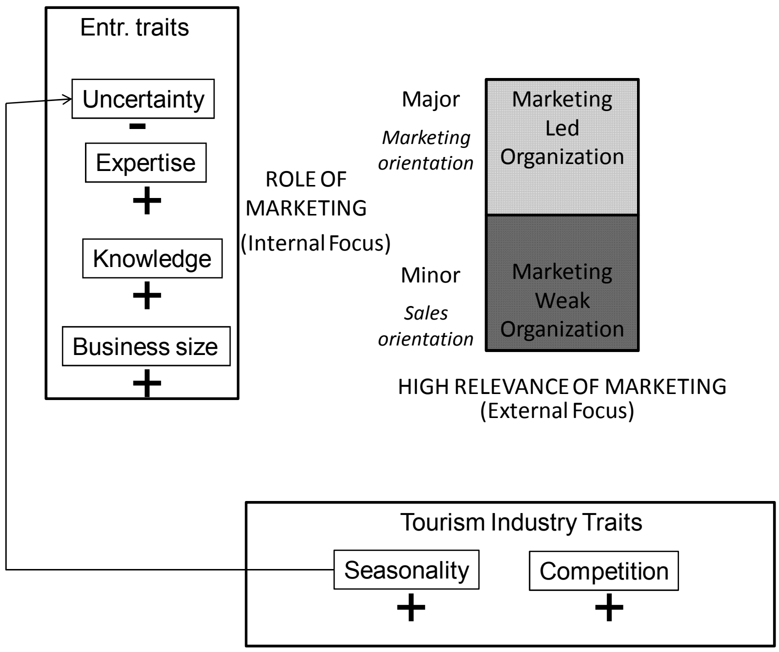


Figure.4: Tourism SMEs marketing: conceptual framework

Specific Propositions:

To summarize, below are some propositions needed to develop a framework for understanding Tourism SMEs marketing:

- Seasonality and high competition lead to high relevance of marketing in the industry. This would eliminate the need to evaluate cases pertaining to low relevance of marketing.
- There is a negative relationship between business size and the role of marketing. Since most companies operating in Tourism are small, the role of marketing for them is expected to be minor.
- There is a negative relationship between education and the role of marketing. Since most SMEs operators in Tourism are less educated, the role of marketing for them is expected to be minor.

Additional, initial propositions for a conceptual Marketing model for Tourism SMEs follows:

- Stronger partnerships of governments with SMEs would reduce the uncertainty factor, which in turn would increase SMEs marketing performance.
- Cooperative consumer research among SMEs would help minimize the cost of this vital tool for all participating SMEs. Uncertainty would be reduced and marketing performance would increase.
- Cooperative marketing among SMEs would increase collective resources and improve overall destination marketing for the good of all participating SMEs.

NEXT STEPS:

Further theoretical analysis is needed by incorporating one or two generic additional models and further understanding the nature of Tourism SMEs. Afterwards, data collection phase will commence. Scope of the study will cover organizations with less than 100 employees, including travel intermediaries, attractions and services, and other tourism sectors as identified earlier. Interviews, focus groups, and case studies are going to be used to collect the data. The findings will be compared with the propositions developed in order for them to be validated and complemented.

REFERENCES

Aaker, D. (2001). Strategic market management (6th ed.), New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Al-Haddad, F. (2006). Tourism in the Sultanate of Oman [English translation of the title of the Arabic origin book], Oman: Al-Dhamri Publishing.

Ateljevic, J. (2007). Small tourism firms and management practices in New Zealand: the Centre Stage Macro Region, Tourism Management, 28. 307-316.

Etemad, H., & Wright, R. (2003). Globalization & entrepreneurship, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

Getz, D., & Carlson, J. (2005). Family business in tourism: state of the art, Annals of Tourism Research, 32(1), 237-258.

Gilmore, A., Carson, D., & Grant, K (2001). SME marketing in practice, Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 32(1), 6-11.

Hill, J. (2001a). A multidimensional study of the key determinants of effective SME marketing: part 1, International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research, 7(5), 171-204.

Hill, J. (2001b). A multidimensional study of the key determinants of effective SME marketing: part 2, International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research, 7(6), 211-235.

Keller, K. L. (2003). Strategic brand management: building, measuring, and managing brand equity (2nd ed.), New York: Prentice Hall.

Kozak, M. (2006). Micro, small, and medium enterprises: a collection of published data. Retrieved February, 10, 2007, from the World Bank Web site: http://rru.worldbank.org/Documents/other/MSMEdatabase/msme_database.htm

Longenecker, J. G., Moore, c.w., Petty, J.w. (2003). Small business management: An Entrepreneurial emphasis (12th ed.), Ohio: Thomson.

Morrison, A. M. (2002). Hospitality and travel marketing (3rd ed.), New York: Delmar.

Ritchie, J. R., & Goeldner, C. R. (1994), Travel, Tourism & Hospitality Research (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Simpson, M., Padmore, J., Taylor, N., & Frecknall-Hughes, J. (2006). Marketing in small and medium sized enterprises, International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research. 12(6). 361-387.

Sproule, K. (2006, February). Tourism small & medium enterprises (TSMEs). Paper presented at the Oman International Ecotourism Conference, Muscat, Oman.

Tyrrell, M. (1994). Research needs of small tourism enterprises. In Ritchie, J. R., & Goeldner, C. R., Travel, Tourism & Hospitality Research, 2nd ed. (pp. 345-354).

Wanhill, S. (2000). Small and medium tourism enterprises, Annals of Tourism Research, 27(1), 132-147.

STRATEGIC KNOWLEDGE AND ORGANIZATION FOR A HOTEL BUSINESS

Emmanouil Kaldis

University of Manchester, School of Computer Science

Liping Zhao

University of Manchester, School of Computer Science

Robert Snowdon

University of Manchester, School of Computer Science

ABSTRACT

This project aims at recording the knowledge derived from the strategic process of designing the organization. To do this, a framework is proposed in order to capture the changing organizational architecture and acquire strategic knowledge. A software prototype is designed to support the proposed framework. The framework and software prototype is applied in a Hotel Chain.

Key words: Knowledge Representation, Strategic Knowledge Management, Hotel Management

INTRODUCTION

INCREASED complexity in the contemporary environment has resulted in a shift of the organization's design from a bureaucratic and hierarchical form more so to a flexible and modular form.

Daft and Lewin [1] identify the "modular organization" as a new paradigm that has as its premise "the need for flexible, learning organizations that continuously change and solve problems, through interconnected coordinated self-organizing processes".

In contrast to the conventional approach, the modular approach intentionally tries to create an organizational design that permits the "substitution" of its functional components. In effect, the objective of the modular approach is to create a flexible architecture that can adjust to changing requirements.

A modular organization consists of a set of "modules" which are also referred as sub-units. In the modular organization the sub-units of the organization operate with a significant level of autonomy and adjust to the environment by continuous redesign. They are self-managed and self-repaired as they have the freedom to develop strategies in order to conform to the changes occurring in the external environment. Through the passage of time, the sub-units become "knowledge domains" and obtain know-how and knowledge by learning through their continuous attempts of adjustment and fit with the environment. This introduces us to the main concept of this project which is the representation of strategic knowledge.

With the term strategic knowledge we suggest the expertise" and "intelligence" derived from the actions taken for the design or re-design of the organization.

In this paper, we emphasize the need of incorporating the architecture of an organization as part of its strategic knowledge.

Fig. 1. Scheme of organizational architecture.

The architecture of the organization is defined by the IEEE 1471-2000 standard [2] as: "the fundamental organization of a system embodied in its components, their relationships to each other and to the environment and the principles guiding its design and evolution"

Organizational architecture shapes the organizational space where life will take place. The simplified scheme of organizational architecture can be depicted in Figure 1 [3].

Various frameworks for organizational architecture have been proposed. According to Galdbraith's [4] Star Model of organizational design, organizational architecture consists of:

a) Organizational structure

b) Strategy

c) Rewarding systems

d) Processes and lateral links

e) Human resources

Galdbraith's Star model is depicted in figure 2

Any decision taken which may affect the above core elements of the organizational architecture can be considered as an act of organizational design.

In an era in which change reshapes the organizational architecture continuously the rationale behind the chosen organizational design and the effects of the new design are often not recorded and therefore cannot be easily tracked or reused within the organization.

The increased decentralisation of the organization is an important factor leading to ineffective knowledge sharing. In the globalized economy, business units are dispersed all over the world. Their diversity, the language and cultural differences but more so the lack of common meeting ground creates obstacles for effective communication and sharing of strategic knowledge related to organizational design.

Fig. 2. Galdbraith's Star model.

In an era in which the job market is flexible and changes in the workplace are a common practice, the loss of valuable strategic knowledge is frequent. When people that have obtained strategic knowledge-especially those high in the corporate hierarchy-leave the organization, they carry with them valuable experiences, the loss of which may sometimes have detrimental consequences for the organization. The loss of key people that have been in an organization for many years and thus, have been involved in various organizational design actions may be accompanied with a loss of valuable strategic knowledge, if this expertise is not recorded explicitly. In such a case, new personnel shall have to comprehend the design of the organization from "scratch" and shall unavoidably over-depend on the experiences of other people in the organization.

Successful organizational patterns contain useful knowledge which usually remains "isolated" within the sub-unit. If such knowledge remains "isolated", subsequent redesigns will not benefit from the use of this knowledge. Therefore, similar units within the network may not learn from the experiences and patterns adopted by other units. Also, the strategic knowledge obtained during the process of change and during the collaborative activity, is usually left unrecorded and remains solely the "experience" carried unconsciously only by the people involved with the act of design.

In general, there is a lack of support for recording the holistic view of the organization: the organizational architecture, its changing form, the rationale behind an organizational re-design action, the effects of the change and the evaluation of the final outcome of change. This support can be provided by a clear theoretical framework or by a software tool.

Practical examples:

Some simple examples of organizational problems that can occur when there is no recording of the organizational architecture and its evolution are presented below:

A new hired manager wonders about the rationale of several issues that were handled and that related to the organizational design.

-What is the purpose of a specific control mechanism which had been introduced in the past?

-Which actions were chosen for improving sales? Why were they chosen among other alternatives and what results were achieved?

-How were the responsibilities of a specific unit altered and which units have space for new additions of workload or responsibilities? What obstacles were faced during the implementation of the change?

-Which rewarding systems have been implemented in the past and how did they affect financial results?

-What conclusions were drawn in the past from the allocated budget of a certain unit? What was the result obtained from such allocated budget? How was the money used?

The above analysis brings us to the main research question of this project:

"Do current tools (frameworks and ICT) effectively support the recording of organizational design and the strategic knowledge sharing that takes place between the components of the distributed organization?"

Theoretical Frameworks for Strategic Knowledge Management

In the case of well-organized enterprises, someone may find a documented blueprint of the organization and its rationale in the form of a quality management system such as the ISO 9001:2000 quality management system [5]. Nevertheless, quality manuals and documents may often be found to be out of date, bureaucratic or impractical for use.

Also, the rationale behind a strategy, its plan and evaluation may be found recorded within the organization in various spreadsheets or minutes of management meetings. However, the lack of a systemic approach for organizing the rationale of such strategic decisions and their effects frequently makes the retrieval of valuable information difficult.

Various approaches for modelling organizational architecture have been proposed by the software domain too. Typical examples are the Zachman framework [6] and the TOGAF framework [7].

Nevertheless, the majority of these approaches describe the organization from a technical perspective which cannot be easily understood by the people in the Management field. These approaches usually focus solely on the formal organization thus disregard important aspects of the informal organization such as human resources and rewarding systems. In addition, they do not take into account the recording of the rationale of an action and its implementation plan.

Software Tools for Strategic Knowledge Management

The ICT domain has developed a number of solutions which support the recording of the organizational knowledge or decision making process and nowadays offers possibilities that did not exist before.

On the one hand, one can easily find supporting tools for the decision making process (decision supporting systems) or groupware tools for the collaboration between members of a unit. These tools however usually do not structure effectively the strategic knowledge derived.

On the other hand, various sophisticated project management tools exist to record the changing process of a certain project. In most cases, however, the process of change is not linked with the rationale behind the decision for action, or to the evaluation of its effectiveness.

Knowledge management tools typically record useful knowledge for the operational and not the strategic level, while ERP tools such as SAP do not view organizational architecture from a holistic perspective. “Bits” of strategic knowledge can be tracked among various modules of the system. This usually requires significant effort as knowledge is not organized and structured adequately and therefore is not easily traceable.

Consequently, from the research performed we came up with a conclusion that there is limited support for organizing and sharing actions related to organizational (re)design, their rationale, their course of implementation as well as their evaluation.

When starting to consider a framework for strategic knowledge sharing, we realised that in practice the actual status of the design of an enterprise is often not recorded. A significant percentage of companies nowadays lack a formal architecture, similar in concept to the blueprint of a house or office building. Nevertheless, enterprises are consistently built, merged, reorganized and run without a set of equivalent blueprints or architectures. Most organizational design elements are being unconsciously put together over the lifespan of the organization. And this is realized usually when investigating the cause of an organizational problem or conflict which has arisen.

Consequently, we cannot discuss about recording organizational design of the “to-be” organization, when there is often a lack of a clear model of the “as-is” organizational architecture.

Various frameworks have been proposed in an attempt to “capture” organizational architecture. In this project we considered several and came up with a framework which incorporates the main characteristics of the existing approaches but we also ventured and incorporated a cybernetic and structural perspective.

We have identified two aspects of strategic knowledge. The knowledge derived from the process of decision making and the knowledge derived from the process of organizational change.

i) Strategic knowledge derived from the process of decision making

Organizational design is an ongoing process which can be performed by an individual or by a group of people. The increased complexity of organizations nowadays however, usually requires the collaboration of a number of persons during the decision making and reviewing process in order to achieve the best result. This means that organizational design is usually a collaborative action.

A collaborative activity has various phases. The last phase is about choosing the best course of action. The previous phases, before choosing the most appropriate action captures strategic knowledge too.

Typically, a collaborative activity for a design action has the following phases: [7]

- Understand the problem

- Develop Alternatives

- Evaluate Alternatives

- Choose an alternative

- Make a plan

- Take action

The recording of each phase captures strategic knowledge as it provides justification for the chosen action of re-design. In the case for example of an unsuccessful action, the designer can review and choose another alternative that had been proposed.

ii) Strategic knowledge derived from the process of organizational change

The action of re-design at the same time brings forth an organizational change. The process of change also incorporates strategic knowledge such as the monitoring of the course of action, the milestones, obstacles and delays faced during the implementation of the action, the effects of change in the system as a whole and the evaluation of the final outcome.

In addition, in the proposed framework two novel elements are introduced:

i) Concepts found in the field of Object Technology which have been expressed for designing modular software systems are re-applied in the Management field.

More specifically, concepts such as Design By Contract, Separation of Concerns and Information Hiding are correlated with the organization of a business system are discussed.

ii) The learning process of a unit is captured. A repository of knowledge that refers to every unit of the organization is acknowledged.

The scheme of the proposed framework can be split into two phases:

The first phase of the project identifies the main elements that constitute an organizational architecture. Several theories were visited and their core elements were identified. The first phase include two stages of design:

i) The strategic grouping stage which establishes the overall structure of the organization, its main sub-units and their relationships

ii) The operational design which defines the more detailed aspects of operation such as roles, processes, controls and incentives.

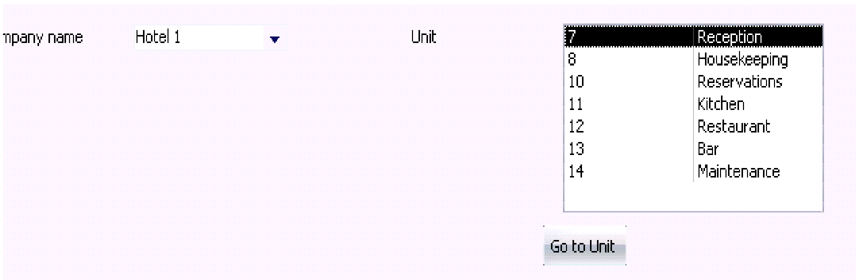


Fig. 3. Strategic Grouping Stage.

The first phase is significantly influenced by the area of Cybernetics, the science of effective organization, and especially from the Viable Systems Model (VSM) of Stafford Beer (1974, 1978, 1979, 1981). The levels of recursion of the organization and the interrelationships between the sub-units of the system are identified.

An interrelationship between two units is recorded in the form of a “Contract” as suggested by the Design By Contract concept found in Object-Technology. Additional elements such as the identification of processes, detailed procedures, roles as well as control and rewarding systems are also considered.

The second phase of the project is the study of the change of organizational architecture through time. Most of the approaches for organizational architecture have a “static” character and therefore this led to further exploration in the field of Change Management. The stages of change and the effect of change on the architecture of an organization are considered. By recording the changes occurring on the organizational architecture, we obtain a “dynamic” representation of architecture and the possibility to understand its previous states.

The last phase of the project is the creation a prototype to act as a supporting tool for capturing the architecture of an organization. This tool will facilitate the understanding of the proposed framework and constitutes a realistic and practical tool for organizational architects, managers or CEO’s. The supporting tool promises to provide a valuable repository for strategic knowledge which shall “capture” both tradition and experience. Thus, organizational intelligence can be shared or reused easily. Ideally, such a tool would present to the ICT domain a thorough blueprint of the organizational architecture as well as its previous states.

The theoretical framework developed has been applied in a chain of hotels. The hotel chain consists of 9 hotels which are located in four different countries. Every hotel consists of the same departments: Reservations, Reception, Restaurant, Bar, Housekeeping, Kitchen and Maintenance.

Each hotel needs to comply with the goals that have been set by the headquarters but has the freedom to develop its own strategies. Failure to achieve the specified goals often leads to the replacement of the manager in charge. Therefore, change in Management is something common.

It has been noticed that there is a lack of a clear blueprint of every hotel and more importantly, there is no recording of the strategies developed by every manager, as well as their results. Newly employed managers or employees in general spend significant time in grasping the architecture of the organization. They often repeat actions that have been taken in the past and which have been proved unsuccessful. Also, when they quit the organization, certain important actions are left uncompleted.

Moreover, strategies that have been introduced in a specific hotel and were proven successful are not easily reapplied in other units, as the strategic knowledge is not recorded effectively and consequently cannot be reused.

In Figure 3 we show at first the decomposition of the hotel chain into hotel units and sub-units. From the drop-down menu, the user of the strategic knowledge management system which has been designed for the purpose of this research project can choose the hotel in focus and then proceed to the details of its sub-unit.

Fig. 4. Operational Design Stage.

After choosing the sub-unit in focus, the system provides detailed information about the services offered by the unit, the resources it requires, the units with which it collaborates as well as the control mechanisms and rewarding systems that exist (Figure 4). In the last tab “History of Changes”, a historical projection of the changes that have been taken in the past in the sub-unit in focus is provided.

The strategies/actions for change that are taking place by the management of “Hotel 1” are recorded in the following form (Figure 5). In the example below, the manager decides to introduce and executive type of room in the hotel. This change shall affect the Reception and Housekeeping units.

Fig. 5. Recording the Strategy process.

Figure 6 depicts the recording of the strategy in the history of one of the two sub-units that has been affected (i.e. Reception).

By having such a tool in an organization, the headquarters can obtain a more systemic and systematic view of their organization and benefit from the recording and sharing of strategic knowledge. The projects for change that take place within the hotel chain can be easily monitored. Furthermore, the proposed framework/system shall be able to identify non-conformities to the goals that have been specified by the headquarters and create "alerts" that shall keep the organization vigilant and competitive.

Fig. 6. Strategy implementation recorded in the history of every unit.

The proposed framework aims at specifying the design of an organization, its rationale and its evolution through time. Every action taken by every unit distributed in the organization which affects its design, the implementation plan followed and the evaluation of the results brought by every action is recorded. A strategic knowledge repository is created which aids at organizing the organizational intelligence and facilitate its traceability and reusability.

This can be particularly useful for organizations with increased complexity. Organizations that incorporate a significant number of sub-units which can be dispersed in various regions but also organizations that have frequent changes in the high ranking of their corporate hierarchy, including governmental bodies (i.e. a ministry).

By recording valuable knowledge and experience of key persons who have designed and charted the organization they work in, new “designers” (CEO’s, managers or business consultants) can get the “big” picture of the organization more easily. They can learn from previous organizational design attempts and avoid mistakes that have been made in the past.

A clear and recorded organizational design specifies the role of every unit and individual within the organization. This results in increased understanding and involvement in the organization. In addition to this, the detailed specification of the responsibilities and role played by every unit, standardizes the business processes and their coordination. Therefore, the need for management to intervene is significantly reduced.

Furthermore, the explicit recording of the architecture of an organization can provide a sound foundation for business continuity, growth and emergence. The successful patterns that constitute the business model are recorded and can be easily reapplied by new business units that may be built in new regions.

At the same time, the clear and modular view and recording of organizational architecture, facilitates the “translation” of business requirements into the ICT domain, which in turn can now obtain a concrete and systemic view of the organization and its evolution.

During the requirements engineering phase of the software development, significant effort and resources are required in order to understand and model the architecture of the organization in focus. However, the continuous changing requirements often lead to a misalignment between the business and software domain. By having recorded an explicit and actual model, business requirements can be easily transmitted to the software domain. This may diminish the misalignment between the business and software domain and consequently reduce the rate of IT failures.

REFERENCES

[1] R. Daft, A. Lewin, "Where are the theories for the "New" Organizational Forms? An Editorial Essay", Organizational Science, Vol. 4, No. 4, 1993, pp. i-vi.

[2] M. Maier, (2008, May 14), The IEEE 1471-2000 Standard –Architecture Views and Viewpoints. Available: http://www.opengroup.org/architecture/togaf/agenda/0107aust/presents/maier_1471.pdf

[3] M. Žugaj, M. Schatten, Arhitektura suvremenih organizacija, Tonimir. Varaždin, 2005.

[4] JR. Galdbraith, D. Downey, A. Kates, Designing Dynamic Organizations: A Hands-On Guide for Leaders at All Levels, Amacom, New York, 2002.

[5] ISO (2008, May 14), International Organization for Standardization. Available: http://www.iso.org

[6] J. Zachman, A framework for information systems architecture, IBM Systems Journal. Vol. 26, No 3, 1987, pp. 276-292.

[7] TOGAF, The Open Group Architecture Framework (TOGAF), Version 8, Enterprise Edition, 2002, pp. 303.

[8] G. De Vreed, G., R.O. Briggs, Collaboration Engineering: Designing Repeatable Processes for High-Value Collaborative Tasks, Proceedings of the 38th Annual Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences, 2005.

[9] S. Beer, Designing Freedom, Wiley, Chichester, 1974.

[10]S. Beer, Platform for Change, Wiley, Chichester, 1978.

[11]S. Beer, The Heart of Enterprise, Wiley, Chichester, 1979.

[12]S. Beer, Brain of the Firm, Wiley, Chichester, 1981.